Promoting Sustainable Tourism Development through Ecotourism as Local Empowerment Policy

(Sharing the Knowledge between the Netherlands and Indonesia)

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PREFACE

Tourism is one of the world's fastest growing economic sectors. Many countries in the world depends their biggest part of economic revenue from tourism industry. As for Indonesia, tourism is classified as non-oil and gas economic sector and is growing in terms of its contribution to national GDP. Despite these facts, tourism can also trigger negative impacts to host countries. Those impacts span from the deterioration of natural resources to the lost of indigenous culture and value. Hence, there need to be promoted a more sustainable form of tourism which can benefit both the host and the visitors. One type of sustainable tourism is ecotourism which emphasizes on preserving natural biodiversity, empower local community, and benefit to the visitors.

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ABSTRACTS

Sustainable tourism development is an alternative towards mass or conventional tourism. It appears as a response towards impacts of conventional tourism to economic, environmental, and socio-cultural of host countries. Sustainable tourism is seen as placing emphasis on greater contact between hosts and guests as well as between tourists and the environment. Differ from conventional tourism which usually relies on mass number of visitors and "staged setting", sustainable tourism is small number of tourists visiting authentic natural or cultural setting. One type of sustainable tourism is ecotourism in which it not only emphasizes on nature tourism but also includes educative and conservation supporting elements. Ecotourism concept first appeared globally in the early 1980's in line with the increasing awareness of environment conservation.

Ecotourism aims to balance the aspect of economic, environment, and social aspect of ecotourism. In comparison with other types of sustainable tourism, ecotourism has more advantages. It is because ecotourism is promoted as a *responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people.* This means that besides provide positive experiences for both visitors and hosts, it also provides financial benefits and empowerment for local people. By doing so, impacts of tourism to local culture and environment deterioration will be minimized. Ecotourism is one type of nature tourism that suitable for rich natural resources country like Indonesia with many national and marine parks. The empowerment of local community will minimize threat to national/marine parks for economic exploitation.

This research will focus on policy formulation in ecotourism planning and development based on case study in the Netherlands and its counterpart in Indonesia. There are three aims to be explored through this research, namely: what policy should be formulated to empower local community in the context of ecotourism, the benefits and constraints in policy formulation of ecotourism and its relation to the environment conservation, and to what extent local community around a conservation area can contribute to ecotourism planning and development. There will be a share of knowledge between the Netherlands in Indonesia in terms of ecotourism planning and development to empower the local community.

Key words: *Sustainable tourism development, ecotourism, local empowerment, Drentsche Aa.*

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Chapter 1
Introduction

1.1 Background

Tourism is one of the world's largest industries and one of its fastest growing economic sectors. It accounts for more than 10% of total employment, 11% of global GDP, and total tourist trips are predicted to increase to 1.6 billion by 2020 (TIES, 2005). The tourism industry generates substantial economic benefits to both host countries and tourists' home countries. The direct benefits for tourists' home countries are the increase of travel demand and transportation activity particularly air transportation. As for host countries especially in developing countries, one of the primary motivations for a region to promote itself as a tourism destination is the expected economic improvement.

Effects can be negative as well as positive. Inappropriate tourism development and practice can degrade habitats and landscapes, deplete natural resources, and generate waste and pollution (UNEP, 2002). In contrast, responsible tourism can help to generate awareness of and support for conservation and local culture, and create economic opportunities for countries and communities.

Negative impacts from tourism occur when the level of visitor use is greater than the environment's ability to cope with this use within the acceptable limits of change. Uncontrolled conventional tourism poses potential threats to many natural areas around the world (UNEP, 2002). It can put enormous pressure on an area and lead to impacts such as soil erosion, increased pollution, discharges into the sea, natural habitat loss, increased pressure on endangered species and heightened vulnerability to forest fires. It often puts a strain on water resources, and it can force local populations to compete for the use of critical resources.

According to World Tourism organization (WTO), there were about 698 million international tourist arrivals worldwide in 2000, nearly 50 million (7.3%) more arrivals than in 1999 - the highest growth rate in nearly a decade. All regions in the world grew, and the fastest developing region continued to be East Asia and the Pacific with 14.6% growth, and 16% of the total market.

Indonesia has a great potential in tourism industry. According to Ministry of Culture and Tourism, in 2005 there were 5.002.100 international tourists visiting Indonesia with average length of stay 9.05 days. As a tropical and developing country, most of tourism destinations in Indonesia are natural and cultural based tourism. Through cooperation among Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Ministry of Forestry, and several local governments, national parks have being also developed for limited tourism purpose. According to Indonesian Act No. 5/1990 article 1:

> National Park is a natural preservation area with indigenous ecosystems, managed through zoning system which is used for research, science, education, heritage, tourism, and recreation purposes.

Until 2006, Indonesia already had 50 national parks spreading all over Indonesian Archipelago. Out of 50 national parks, 6 of them were declared as World Heritage Sites by UNESCO in 2004 (UNESCO, 2006). Constitutionally, these national parks were declared through the Decree issued by Ministry of Forestry. Government's policy regarding tourism in Indonesia, general conditions, and problems in ecotourism will be elaborated furthermore in chapter 4.

Even tough Indonesia's regulation allows a national park to be used for tourism, it mainly emphasizes on economic objectives and maintaining natural biodiversity. Local people living around that area do not have significant role in the process of tourism planning and development. In fact, as stated by Kadt (1979), the most notable impact of tourism on traditional values is that certain social and human relations are brought into the economic sphere; they become part of making a living.

Specific condition above needs an alternative treatment aside of conventional or mass tourism. Hence, there is a need to integrate nature, economic and social aspect into tourism activity or industry. Local communities living adjacent to protected areas tend to involve in maintaining natural biodiversity if they gain benefit economically and socially. If this integration fails, conflicts will be possible to occur between government and tourism operator on one side and local community in the other side.

Concerning these facts, government should formulated suitable policy to empower local community as an integrated element in sustainable tourism

development. The integration of natural, socio cultural, as well as educational aspect in tourism is generally known as ecotourism, which will be elaborated furthermore in chapter 2. Ecotourism as a part of sustainable tourism is expected to promote the well-being of local people as well as preserve the natural bio-diversity.

1.2 Research Problem

Policy formulation regarding sustainable tourism development is really needed as a basis for ecotourism to be exercised. Unfortunately, there is lack of research focusing mainly on policy formulation in empowering local community who live near to conservation area (national park) using ecotourism approach. As stated by Ardika (2002), ecotourism within conservation area is still considering a risky policy because it may encourage further development, mainly hard infrastructure. This perception result in reluctance from either policy makers or local community to adopt the ecotourism approach as one of local empowerment approach. Therefore, good understanding about ecotourism principles needs to be promoted to all of stakeholders involving in this activity.

Currently, Indonesian government's policies related to sustainable tourism is sectoral oriented rather than integrated policy. Ardika (2002) mentioned that there is fragmentation of institution in ecotourism planning and development. Ecotourism in a national park, for instance, is managed by at least two departments at national level namely: Ministry of Forestry and Ministry of Tourism and Culture. Each department has its own guideline and authority regarding ecotourism. If ecotourism is conducted in the coastal area, the authority belongs to Ministry of Marine and Fisheries together with Ministry of Tourism and Culture. Local communities as the main parties that face the direct impact are still not the main subject in most of ecotourism planning in Indonesia. Policy in ecotourism integrating environmental, socio-cultural, and economic aspects should be formulated as a guideline for government at different level. This policy is intended to empower the local community as well as to conserve the natural biodiversity.

1.3. Objectives

The objectives of this research can be described as follow:

a. Propose policy formulation regarding political empowerment that refers to the ability of the local community to express their concerns and for those concerns to have a genuine impact on the direction, format and speed of ecotourism development. The regional autonomy paradigm influences this consideration
b. Propose a suitable policy formulation regarding social and economic empowerment that refers to the ability of the local community to determine the social and economic impacts of ecotourism development. Social empowerment will result in ecotourism making a contribution to the social cohesion and integrity of the local community. Economic empowerment means the biggest benefit of ecotourism goes to local community and equally distributed among them.
c. Defining an appropriate inter-relation between local government and local communities around a conservation area in the process of ecotourism planning and development.

1.4 Research Question

In order to achieve research objectives, three questions will serve as the guidelines throughout constructing this thesis. Those questions are:

1. What policy should be formulated to empower local community in the context of ecotourism to ensure equal, effective and active participation of all stakeholders?
2. What are the benefits and constraints in policy formulation of ecotourism and its relation to the conservation of environment?
3. To what extent local community around a conservation area can contribute to ecotourism planning and development?

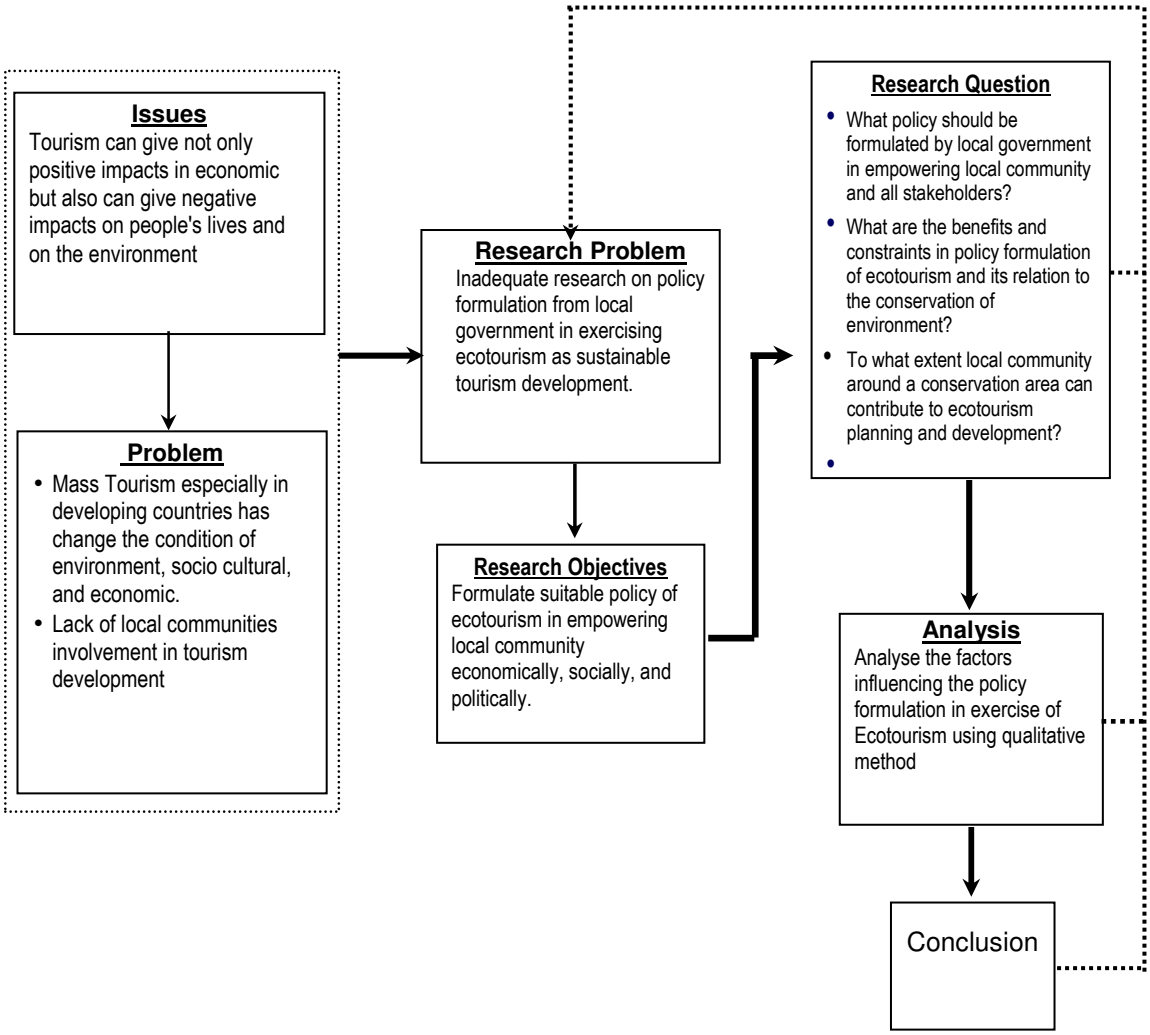

Figure 1.1: Flow of research

1.5 Methodology

There is no fixed measure in terms of number in sustainable tourism development and local empowerment achievement. The achievement is subjective. Therefore, this research uses qualitative research method. Qualitative research is triggered by the research questions of *what* and *why* which is reflecting its subjective environment. Qualitative research is more subjective than quantitative research and uses very different methods of collecting information, mainly

individual, in-depth interviews and focus groups. The nature of this type of research is exploratory and open-ended (Sanghera, 2005).

This research will mainly use the literature study about policy formulation and the implementation of ecotourism concept. Literature study is also used to set the criteria of local empowerment, one of several criteria of successful ecotourism. As the complimentary to the literature study, a case study will also be conducted in relation to ecotourism in the Netherlands. This case study is important to enhance the perspective toward ecotourism because some national parks in the Netherlands also function as tourism site. In total, the Netherlands has 20 national parks.

The proposed site to be observed is Drentsche Aa National Park which was established in 2002. The main reason to choose this national park is because:

> The Drentsche Aa National Park is one of the best preserved stream valleys of western Europe. Nature and agriculture have coexisted here for thousands of years. The farms clustered around village commons and the typical '*essen*' fields are characteristic for this area. Through it all meanders the Drentsche Aa. The area is rich in natural and cultural heritage: traditional villages, woods and heaths, burial mounds and megalithic structures *(hunebed)*, bog pools and flowering meadows and the wider vistas out over the stream valley (www.nationaalpark.nl, 2006)

Besides conducting field observation, small numbers of people are interviewed in this research. These people represent the stakeholders of Drentsche Aa national Park. They are consisting of:

a. Consultative Body National stream and landscape Drentsche Aa
b. Municipalities adjacent to Drenstche Aa National Park.
c. People who live around Drentsche Aa National Park.

Participants are asked to respond to several questions and the interviewer probes and explore their responses to identify and define people's perceptions, opinions and feelings about ecotourism and local empowerment to determine the degree of agreement that exists in the group. Therefore, this universal aspect could be a basic assumption in formulating policy for Indonesia

1.6 Outline

This thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 is introduction consisted of background, research problem, objectives, research question, methodology, and research outline. Four other chapters are elaborated as follow:

- **Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework**

  This chapter will elaborate basic principle of sustainable tourism, concept and definition of ecotourism, planning and developing ecotourism, and local communities' empowerment in ecotourism.

- **Chapter 3: Managing Conservation Area for Ecotourism: the Netherlands' case**

  This chapter will elaborate concept and implementation of ecotourism in a national park in the Netherlands. Relation among local government, park management, and local communities will be studied. Drentsche Aa National Park (DNAP) is the location of case study. This chapter will focus on involvement of local communities around DNAP in ecotourism activity.

- **Chapter 4: Sharing the knowledge between the Netherlands and Indonesia**

  This chapter will analyze relevant aspects from the Netherlands' case that can be implemented in Indonesia. The implementation will consider socio-cultural and institutional condition in Indonesia. There will be some possibilities that local community's wisdom in Indonesia can be used to inspire future ecotourism development in the Netherlands.

- **Chapter 5: Conclusion and Recommendation**

  This chapter will provide the whole result from this research. There also will be the recommendation at the closing part of this research

Chapter 2

Theoretical Framework

2.1 Sustainable Tourism: an alternative for conventional tourism

Newsome (2002) states that in general there are two types of tourism, namely mass tourism and alternative tourism. Mass tourism is characterized by large number of people seeking replication of their own culture in institutionalized settings with little cultural or environmental interaction. On the other direction, alternative tourism is seen as placing emphasis on greater contact between hosts and guests as well as between tourists and the environment. The main characteristic of mass tourism is large number of tourists who usually visit "staged settings". Differ from mass tourism, alternative tourism is small number of tourists visiting authentic natural or cultural setting.

Mass tourism or also known as conventional tourism is the oldest type of tourism industry. It started to grow in the 1960's mainly because of economic improvement of post-World War II in Europe and the United States (Page, 2002). The increasing of people wealth made them possible to travel to various tourism destinations around the world. It was also supported by the growth of air transportation at that time.

In line with the growth of mass tourism, both positive and negative impacts also occurred to host countries. On one hand, benefits for host countries are the increasing of national income from tourism sector, generating more job opportunities, and developing more property industry for accommodation. On the other hand, mass tourism also creates some problems regarding social and environmental impacts to host countries which potentially might lead to some conflicts in the future. Therefore, learning from the impacts of mass tourism, there is a need for an alternative tourism which is more sustainable. This condition led to the development of the concept of sustainable tourism in the 1980's (Page, 2002).

Uncontrolled mass tourism has and continues to contribute to the degradation of many areas of natural and cultural significance, generating the loss of biological and cultural diversity (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996). Hence, there is a need to a more environmentally responsible approach to tourism. Sustainability issues in tourism

emerged as a response toward growing tension between economic objective of tourism on one side and social and environmental concern on the other side. According to Fennel (2003:p13):

> …. tourism is vulnerable to losing sustainability for four main reasons. First, tourism is not recognized as a natural resources-dependent industry. Second, the tourism industry is invisible especially in urban areas. Third, tourism is electorally weak, with little support in government. Fourth, there is distinct lack of leadership driving industry which ultimately makes tourism vulnerable to attack from other land users.

Page (2002:p16) suggests that "*planning for tourist development is a complex process which should involve a consideration of economic, environmental, and social structure"*. Sustainable tourism development is unlikely to occur unless people in tourism communities work together to make it happen. Ceballos-Lascurain (1996) defines sustainable tourism as "*tourism that is developed and managed in such a way that all tourism activity – which in some way focuses on a heritage resources (be it natural or cultural) – can continue indefinitely.*

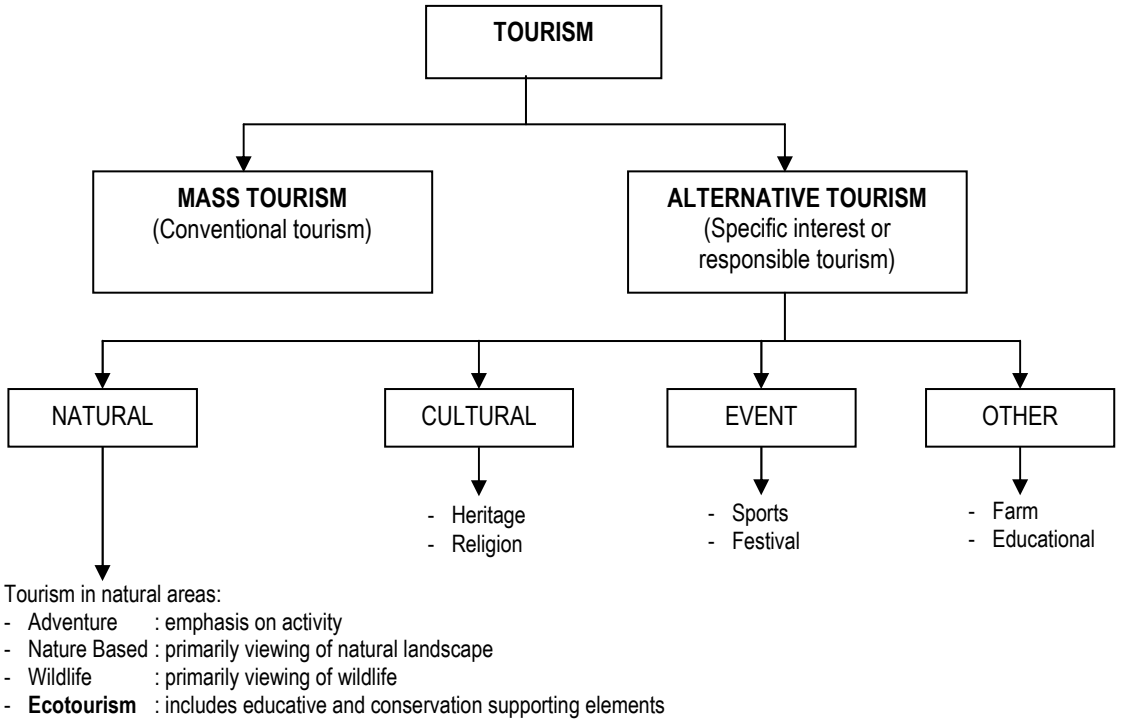

Figure 2.1: an overview of tourism (Newsome, et.al, 2002)

Based on figure 2.1, ecotourism is one part of alternative tourism being based upon nature enhanced with educative and conservation supporting elements. The advantage of ecotourism compared to other natural tourism is the integration of social aspect regarding local communities' empowerment. Maximizing benefits to local communities typically result in tourism being better accepted by them and their actively supporting conservation of local tourism resources. Inskeep (1994) underlines an important aspect of sustainable tourism is community-based tourism. It is essential that residents of the tourism area should not have to suffer from a deteriorated environment and social problem. If tourism is properly developed based on the concept of sustainability, it can greatly help justify and pay for conservation of an area's natural and cultural resources.

2.2 Ecotourism: definition, concept and principles

Fennel (2003:p18) defined ecotourism as: "*travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations".*

The International Ecotourism Society (2006) defines ecotourism as *"responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people."* This means that those who implement and participate in ecotourism activities should follow the following principles:

- Minimize impact
- Build environmental and cultural awareness and respect
- Provide positive experiences for both visitors and hosts
- Provide direct financial benefits for conservation
- Provide financial benefits and empowerment for local people
- Raise sensitivity to host countries' political, environmental, and social climate
- Support international human rights and labor agreements

In more detail, Newsome (2002) elaborates that ecotourism consists of five fundamental key principles. They are that ecotourism is nature based, ecologically sustainable, environmentally educative, locally beneficial and generates tourist satisfaction. The first three principles are considered to be essential for a product to be considered as ecotourism, while the last two are desirable for all forms of tourism. The explanation of those principles is as follows:

1. Nature-based

   Nature based means ecotourism occurs in and depends on natural setting and may include cultural elements where they occur in a natural setting.

2. Ecologically sustainable

   Ecologically sustainable means developing ecotourism capacity and the quantity of its product without adversely affecting the environment.

3. Environmentally educative

   Environmentally educative means ecotourism is directed to attract people who wish to interact with the environment to develop their knowledge, awareness and appreciation.

4. Locally beneficial

   Locally beneficial is the involvement of local communities in ecotourism operations and in the provision of knowledge, services, facilities, and products.

5. Tourist satisfaction

   Tourist satisfaction is important to maintain a long-term viability of the ecotourism industry.

Even though ecotourism is based on nature, not all of natural areas can be used for ecotourism activity. Some natural areas may be very sensitive toward any human presence and intervention regarding their flora and fauna sustainability. In these so-called sensitive areas, human presence is limited only for research purposes with strict regulations. The International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) has developed a system of classification for protected areas that ranges from minimal to intensive human use (see table 2.1).

Table 2.1: IUCN protected area categories

Category	Description
Category I	Strict nature reserve / wilderness area
Category Ia	***Strict nature reserve*** managed for scientific research and/or monitoring; an area possessing some outstanding or representative ecosystems or features and/or species
Category Ib	***Wilderness area*** managed to preserve its natural condition; a large unmodified area without permanent or significant habitation
Category II	***National Park*** managed for ecosystem protection and recreation/visitor enjoyment; natural areas; exploitation or occupation jeopardizing the designated purposes are excluded
Category III	***Natural monument*** managed for conservation of specific natural features; area containing outstanding or unique natural (and sometimes cultural) features
Category IV	***Habitat/species management area*** managed for conservation through intervention
Category V	***Protected landscape/seascape*** managed for conservation and recreation; area where traditional interaction between people and the land /sea needs safeguarding to maintain the area' distinct character
Category VI	***Managed resources protecting area*** managed for sustainable use of natural resources while protecting and maintaining biological diversity; area of predominantly unmodified natural system

Derived from IUCN (1994)

Based on table 2.1, all areas in category I (I, Ia, and Ib) cannot be used for any types of tourism activity. In other word, any approach for using the area in category I, even ecotourism, is considered unsustainable for flora and fauna living in that area. Since ecotourism involves human activity in it, the available area for ecotourism spans only from category II to category VI. This thesis mainly focused on ecotourism in area in category II managed for ecosystem protection and recreation/visitor enjoyment.

2.3 Planning and Developing Ecotourism

Page (2002:p197) argues that *sustainable tourism planning concerns for the long-term future of resources, the effect of economic development on the environment, and its ability to meet present and future needs.* Tourism planning in general aims to optimize the balance of private sector interests which are profit driven and a position where the public sector contributes to manage the growth. Pearce (1989) argues that unplanned, uncontrolled tourism growth when taken to the extreme can destroy the very resources on which it is built. The underlying concept of sustainable tourism development is equating tourism development with ecological and social responsibility.

Ecotourism planning involves aspects of both environmental and tourism planning. The first aspect includes environmental protection, resources conservation, and Environmental Assessment. Second aspect of ecotourism planning provides aspects of area development and social assessment. In ecotourism planning, the major components of the process are to identify both environmental and tourism opportunities and constraints. Once these factors have been identified, analyzed and reviewed, the next phase is to systematically determine the upper limits of development and visitor use as well as the optimum utilization of tourism resources (Inskeep, 1991).

Ecotourism at the community level must be developed within the context of sustainable local, regional, and even national tourism development. At regional and national levels, development policies, plans and programs, laws and regulation, and marketing, all influence tourism development. Regional tourism plans often focus on the type and location of tourism attraction whereas local plans are more concerned with the local organization of tourism resources and the control development (Church, 2004).

Page (2002) argues that there are three main principles of sustainable development that can also be applied to regional ecotourism development:

1. Ecological sustainability ensures that development is compatible with the maintenance of essential ecological process, biological diversity and biological resources.

2. Social and cultural sustainability ensures that development increases people's control over their lives, is compatible with the culture and values of people affected by it, maintains and strengthens community identity.
3. Economic sustainability ensures that development is economically efficient and that resources are managed so that they can support future generations.

As Scheyvens (1999) noted, from development perspective ecotourism ventures should only be consider successful if local communities have some measure of control over them and if they share equitably in the benefits emerging from ecotourism activities.

Furthermore, Ceballos-Lascurain (1996) underlines if an activity is to qualify as ecotourism, it must demonstrate the following nine principles:

1. It promotes positive environmental ethics and fosters "preferred" behavior in its practice.
2. It does not degrade the resources. In other words, it does not involve consumptive erosion of natural environment.
3. It concentrates on intrinsic rather than extrinsic values. Facilities and services may facilitate the encounter with the intrinsic resources, but never become attractions in their own right.
4. It oriented around the environment in question and not around man.
5. It must benefit the wildlife and environment. At least, the environment must attain a net benefit, contributing to its sustainability and ecological integrity.
6. It provides a first-hand encounter with natural environment and with any accompanying cultural elements found in undeveloped areas.
7. It actively involves the local communities in the tourism process so that they may benefit from it.
8. Its level of gratification is measured in terms of education and/or appreciation rather than in thrill-seeking or physical achievement.
9. It involves considerable preparation and demands in-depth knowledge on the part of both leaders and participants.

2.4 Local Communities Empowerment in Ecotourism

One of key elements of ecotourism is that it should be locally beneficial, which also raises issues related to the degree of control local people have over ecotourism ventures (Page, 2002). This highlights the need to consider the empowerment of local communities. Khan (1997) also suggests that by emphasizing local lifestyle, values and economic well-being, ecotourism may promote local identity, pride and self-accomplishment.

By empowering the community through local participation, ecotourism can create an opportunity for self-generating tourism as opposed to mass or conventional tourism. Integrating local community needs, lifestyle and activities is necessary to avoid conflict and problems for ecotourism resources. The main idea of community tourism paradigm is indigenous people and local communities are included and benefit from tourism. The interrelation among the elements of ecotourism is depicted in figure 2.2 below.

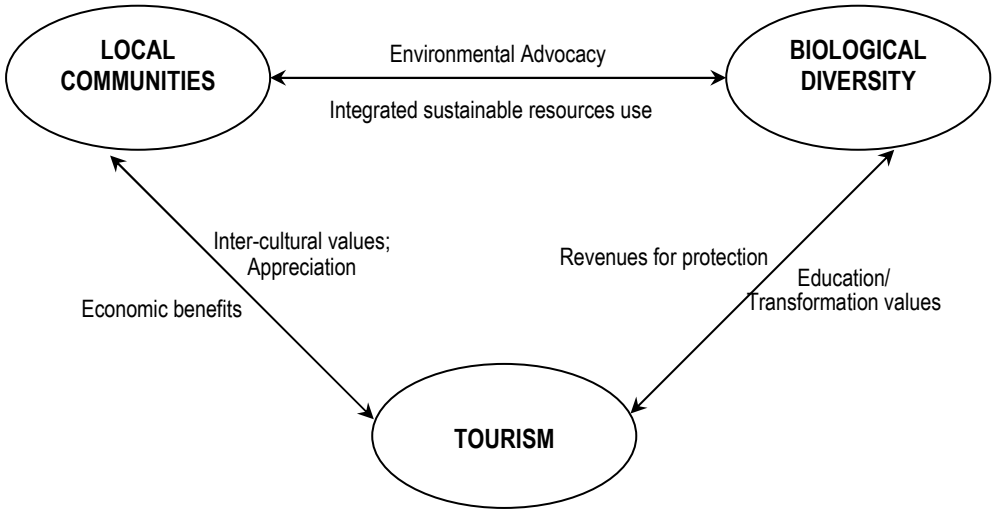

Figure 2.2: The ecotourism paradigm (Page, 2002)

Sheyvens (1999) developed a useful framework for determining the impact of ecotourism on local communities in relation to signs of empowerment and disempowerment. Its value lies in its application in both the developed and

developing world, emphasizing that the rationale behind the framework is that ecotourism should promote both conservation and development at the local people.

Table 2.2: Framework for determining the impacts of ecotourism initiatives on local communities

	Sign of empowerment	**Sign of disempowerment**
Economic empowerment	Ecotourism brings lasting economic gains to local community. Cash earned is shared between many households in the community.	Ecotourism merely results in small, spasmodic cash gains for local community. Most profits go to local elites, outside operators, government agencies, etc.
Psychological empowerment	Self-esteem of many community members is enhanced because of outside recognition of the uniqueness value of their culture, their natural resources and their traditional knowledge. Increasing confidence of community members leads them to seek out further education and training opportunities.	Many people have not shared in the benefit of ecotourism, yet they may face hardships because of reduced access to the resources of a protected area.
Social empowerment	Ecotourism maintains or enhances the local community's equilibrium. Community cohesion is improved as individuals and families work together to build a successful ecotourism ventures. Some fund raised are used for community development purposes, e.g. to build schools.	Disharmony and social decay. Many in the community take on outside values and lose respect for traditional culture and for elders. Disadvantages groups (e.g. women) bear the brunt of problems associated with the ecotourism initiative and fail to share equitably in its benefits. Rather than cooperating, individuals, families, ethnic or socio-economic groups compete with each other fro the perceived benefits of ecotourism
Political empowerment	The community's political structure, which fairly represents the needs and interests of all community groups, provides a forum through which people can raise questions relating to the ecotourism venture and have their concerns dealt with. Agencies initiating or implementing the ecotourism venture seek out the opinions of community groups and provide opportunities to be represented on decision-making bodies.	The community has an autocratic and/or self-interested leadership. Agencies initiating or implementing the ecotourism venture treat communities as passive beneficiaries, falling to involve them in decision-making.

Source: Sheyvens (1999)

Therefore, since the very beginning local community cannot be neglected in ecotourism planning and development. The linkages between protected areas and community are simply too strong to ignore in such planning. Eagles (2002) addresses that planning for tourism in parks and protected areas cannot be conducted in isolation of local communities locate or adjacent to those areas. Local and regional organizations may be involved in initiatives using different approaches concurrently and will develop their own mix of planning approaches (Church, 2004). The involvement of local organizations and governments in tourism policy is usually is usually justified on the basis that these organizations are well understand how tourism interact with local needs and environments, and how it can be managed (Elliot, 1997).

Collaboration among stakeholders is the key for successful of ecotourism in protected areas. To conclude, there are 7 (seven) parties which should be involved in ecotourism (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996), namely:

1. Protected area personnel

   Since parks and reserve are ecotourism primary attraction, protected area personnel should play a central role in ecotourism development and management.

2. Local communities

   Local communities need to be taken into account, particularly since they are often dependent on the natural resources that attract tourists to an area.

3. Tourism Industry

   Tourism industry need to be fully aware that the ecotourism product is fragile and must be carefully protected. The tourism industry is also an important partner since it is one of vital sources of information for visitor.

4. Non-Government Organization (NGO)

   NGO's can facilitate negotiations between local communities and tourism developers, ensuring that the adequate links and mutual benefits are obtained.

5. Financial Institution

   Financial institution can have an important role in supporting, and providing initial financing for appropriate tourism planning and development.

6. Consumers

   Consumer thoughts and preferences should also be considered in any ecotourism planning strategy. But they are also encouraged to make wise travel decision and participate in conservation efforts whey they travel.

7. National Ecotourism Councils (NEC)

   The role of National Ecotourism Councils, particularly in developing countries, is very important. NEC acts as coordinator between departments related to ecotourism, private sectors, and public.

However, the implementation of parties mentioned above to be involved may vary between one country and another country. It depends on government policy and socio-cultural condition of a country or region.

Chapter 3

Managing Conservation Area for Ecotourism: the Drentsche Aa (Netherlands) case

3.1 Overview of Park Tourism History and Development

IUCN (1991) defines a protected area as an area dedicated primarily to the protection and enjoyment of natural or cultural heritage, to maintenance of biodiversity, and to maintenance of ecological life-support services. Specifically, national park is defined as:

> Protected area managed mainly for ecosystem protection and recreation, underlying emphasis on ecological values (Eagles, 2002).

Because of its emphasis on ecological values, historic parks are not included in the United Nations' inventory of national parks, even though they are called national historic parks in many countries.

National Parks and their use by people have a long history. The main aim in creating national parks is to protect large natural areas and landscapes, and the species of flora and fauna they contain. Secondary aims include environmental education, nature-related recreation and scientific research. Tourism may give an important contribution to the sustainability of national park themselves. The opportunity for visitors to see, touch and experience the natural world frequently "converts" visitors into faithful and active supporters for national parks (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996).

The first national park in the world is Yellowstone National Park in the United States. It was declared as a national park by Act of US Congress on 1 March 1872 (Eagles, 2002). As stated in that Act, Yellowstone National Park was dedicated and set apart as a public part or pleasuring ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people. The State of Queensland in Australia in 1906 passed the State Forest and National Parks Act. This was the first legislation in the world providing procedures to be followed in establishing national parks (Eagles, 2002). In 1909 Sweden was the first country in Europe to create a national park. In 1935, India established Corbett National Park, which is Asia's first national park (Prato,

2005). Many other countries then followed such policy. As for the Netherlands, Schiermonnikoog in Province of Friesland is the first national park declared on 19 July 1989.

As the awareness to natural conservation continued to increase in many countries, International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) was founded in 1948. IUCN or commonly known as the World Conservation Union was founded as a group of states, government agencies, and non-governmental organization (Prato, 2005). Its mission is to influence, encourage, and assist societies throughout the world to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature and to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable (IUCN, 2003). In 1969 in response to the very different motives for designating national parks, IUCN formulated a definition of national parks which was to apply world-wide. There are also calls to recognize fully the role of the indigenous people in respect of protected areas, and to develop international co-operation in protected areas across national boundaries.

Travel to protected areas in general and to national parks in particular is increasing. It is because of the overall expansion of tourism and development of international transport networks, and because of the growing interest amongst tourists in learning more about the natural and cultural heritage of the destinations they visit. UNEP (2005) estimates about 10 percent of international tourists wish to purchase tours involving natural and cultural heritage sites, and this segment is the fastest growing within the tourism sector overall. This number is approximately 45 million tourists in 1998 and 70 million expected in 2010.

Despite the increasing number of tourists visiting national parks, local communities are not always the biggest receiver of economic benefit. A research reported by UNEP (2005) in Belize and Costa Rica shows different results. Research in Belize indicates that more than 40% of local community's member gain economic benefit form tourism activities in Hol Chan Marine Reserve. In contrast, only 10% of local communities benefit from tourism in Tortuegero National Park, Costa Rica. For Belize case, local people already have wide variety of small scale businesses from hotels to bars to clothing shop along with tourism growth to that area. Meanwhile, tourism in Tortuegero Costa Rica is characterized

by all-inclusive lodge where visitors pay in advance, travel by boat to remote wetland, and then simply return to the lodges that are not owned by local people. Case in Costa Rica is known as economic leakage of ecotourism.

UNEP (2005) underlines that if tourist destinations contain more micro-enterprises, it is more likely that larger percentage of local people will benefit. In areas not characterized by small business, leakage can be reduced by lease fees, land rental fees, and other charges that return to local people. Nevertheless, efforts to improve community entrepreneurship must be based on local cultural needs. In marketing local product, for instance, there must be with value-added approaches and using attractive packaging.

3.2 National Parks in the Netherlands

The Netherlands consists of the area approximately 41,526 km^2. The Dutch Statistic Agency recorded that until 2006, the Netherlands has 16,372,200 inhabitants. The ratio of total population and its territory has made Netherlands the most densely populated country in Europe. For years, this condition results in considerable pressure regarding the use of land to support human living particularly for agriculture and housing. The demand for land in the countryside for new residential and commercial development is growing continually (Ravesteyn and Evers, 2004). The extensive use of land had threatened the balance of human activities and natural biodiversity, particularly the nature's ability to preserve water resources for agriculture. Precious flora and fauna might also be vanished in several decades onward if there were no effort to restrict and regulate land use. Those are among reasons behind the decision to establish the national parks in the Netherlands.

In the Netherlands, national parks are designated by the Ministry of Agriculture, Nature and Food Quality. A National Park in the Netherlands must have an area of at least 1,000 ha (one thousand hectares). Until 2006, there are 20 (twenty) National Parks in the Netherlands. The two oldest parks (Hoge Veluwe and Veluwezoom), even though included in the list of national parks, were founded by private parties. The remaining eighteen parks have been established over the last twenty-five years.

Figure 3.1: Map of twenty national Parks in the Netherlands

Source: Ministry of Agriculture Nature, and Food Quality

The first formally national park in the Netherlands is Schiermonnikoog established in 1989 and the latest one is Alde Feanen which was declared in 2006. Policymakers treat the National Parks as a single unit, referring to it as the system of National Parks in the Netherlands. Landowners, site managers and other stakeholders are jointly responsible for the conservation and development of the quality of these nature areas.

Table 3.1: List of National Parks in the Netherlands

No	National park	Province	Order)*	Date established	Area (ha)	Special characteristic
1.	Schiermonnikoog	Friesland	1	19-07-1989	5,400	first official park, dynamic area with dunes and salt marshes
2.	Lauwersmeer	Groningen/ Friesland	16	12-11-2003	6,000	former estuary, many birds
3.	Alde Feanen	Friesland	18	2006	4,000	most recent official park, marshland, important waterbird habitat
4.	Drents-Friese Wold	Drenthe/ Friesland	9	22-07-1999	6,100	one of the largest coherent nature areas in the Netherlands
5.	***Drentsche Aa***	***Drenthe***	***14***	***04-12-2002***	***10,600***	***both National Park and National Landscape***
6.	Dwingelderveld	Drenthe	2	22-08-1991	3,700	largest wet heathland in Europe
7.	Weerribben	Overijssel	3	24-06-1992	3,500	largest reed marsh in Europe
8.	Sallandse Heuvelrug	Overijssel	17	16-10-2004	2,740	heathland and hills, home of the black grouse in the Netherlands
9.	Utrechtse Heuvelrug	Utrecht	15	11-10-2003	6,000	glacial ridge covered with woodland and heath
10.	Duinen van Texel	Noord-Holland	12	01-05-2002	4,300	varied dune landscape, many plant and bird species
11.	Zuid-Kennemerland	Noord-Holland	7	21-11-1995	3,800	dunes and country estates
12.	Oosterschelde	Zeeland	13	08-05-2002	37,000	largest park, dynamic saltwater tidal area
13.	De Zoom - Kalmthoutse Heide	Noord-Brabant, Belgium	10	17-07-2001	3,750	international park with heathland, bog pools and woods
14.	De Biesbosch	Noord-Brabant/ Zuid-Holland	5	10-03-1994	7,100	largest park on land, one of last freshwater tidal areas in Europe
15.	Loonse en Drunense Duinen	Noord-Brabant/ Zuid-Holland	11	28-03-2002	3,400	largest shifting sand in Europe
16.	De Groote Peel	Limburg/ Noord-Brabant	4	01-07-1993	1,340	smallest national park, but largest area of raised bog in the Netherlands
17.	De Meinweg	Limburg	6	08-06-1995	1,700	terraced landscape, part of Dutch-German border park
18.	De Maasduinen	Limburg	8	30-10-1996	4,200	longest and oldest river dune in the Netherlands
19.	Veluwezoom	Gelderland	x	1930	5,000	first park, founded by private party
20.	De Hoge Veluwe	Gelderland	x	1935	5,400	best-known park, privately owned
	total		**Netherlands**		**125,030**	

Note:

)* : order in which the parks were officially designated by the Minister for Nature

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Nature and Food Quality (2005)

The National Parks were established with four main objectives (Nationaal Park, 2006):

1. *The protection and development of nature and the landscape*

   There are so many species of flora and fauna inside national parks, and even some of them are rare or unusual plants and animals. The system of National Parks preserves a wide range of landscapes characteristic to the Netherlands, from dunes, tidal flats and stream valleys to woodland, heath and fens. Naturally, each park has its own specific animal population, among them rare bird species, deer, badgers, beavers, otters and seals.

2. *Outdoor recreation*

   National Parks in the Netherlands are also created for various outdoor recreations for the benefit and enjoyment of the public. Different groups work together to provide a variety of outdoor recreation and education activities. There are extensive networks of cycling and walking trails, canoeing routes, wildlife observation huts and vantage points. There are benches to rest on, signposts, recreational maps and information panels. People are free to explore a National Park on their own as long they do not cause undue disturbance to nature.

3. *Education and information*

   Dutch Government realizes that visitors need to be informed about the importance of national park for present and future generation. Therefore, national parks are also used for education purposes. Besides that, there are also attractive presentations focus on the parks' natural values, nature management, man's influence on nature and the importance of nature conservation. Visitor centers also organize courses, activities and special projects for visiting schools or people who live in or near the park.

4. *Research*

   Research is intended to be a lesson-learned for policymakers in formulating policy for future time. Research provides important data that substantiates the effects of management measures. Research also provides information on how animal and plant populations develop, and on the effects of recreation. The

results can be used to direct large visitor flows in order to minimize the damage to nature.

3.3 Policy and Management of National Park in the Netherlands

1. Nature policy

Netherlands has a long history of using nature for human need mainly in agricultural for hundred of years. High population density caused nature areas to be sacrificed to agriculture, housing, roads and industry. In 1969, the Netherlands joined the IUCN, the International Union for the Conservation of Nature, and pledged to protect important ecosystems, for example by establishing National Parks. The degree of protection afforded to nature in the National Parks depends on the legislation that applies to a particular area (such as the Birds and Habitat Directives).

Until 2006, based on data from Netherlands' national park, twenty national parks cover an area of 120,000 hectares, or 3% of Dutch territory. Dutch Government sets out a plan to realize a national ecological network made up of large, interlinked nature areas. By 2018, the network should comprise 750,000 hectares, or roughly 18% of the Netherlands' area. In addition, more than six million hectares of protected waterscape will be realized: lakes, rivers, sections of the Dutch North Sea and the Wadden Sea.

2. Park Management

The Minister of Agriculture, Nature and Food Quality has set up a consultative body for each park on which all the stakeholders are represented. The provincial authorities are responsible for running the secretariat of the Consultative Body. In the Consultative Body, the stakeholders develop a common vision for the area, which is laid down in a management and development plan usually covering a ten-year period. They meet at regular intervals to work out the practical details of the plan and to monitor implementation. The partners in the National Parks are:

- Landowners
- Site managers
- Municipalities

- Various public bodies (national, provincial and local authorities, water boards)
- Educational (IVN, the organization of nature and environmental education in the Netherlands)
- Recreational organizations
- Local businesses

The main mission of these parties is to manage, protect and develop the park in a sustainable manner, to enable research and ensure public access. It is vital that the people who live in and around a National Park support the park and its objectives. To generate regional support more initiatives with private parties are coming off the ground and benefiting local economies.

3. National funding

National funding is the main source to finance the management of national parks in the Netherlands. The Ministry of Agriculture, Nature and Food Quality grants annual subsidies to the parks to implement their year plans, as based on the ten-year management and development plans. The Ministry may also give one-off support to activities that enhance the quality of the National Parks system.

3.4 Case study: Drentsche Aa National Park

3.4.1 Background

Drentsche Aa National Park is one of three national parks located in Drenthe Province, Northern region of Netherlands. Two other national parks are Drents-Friese Wold (6.100 ha) and Dwingelderveld (3.700 ha). Drentsche Aa National Park comprise of an area approximately 10.600 ha is the second largest national parks in the Netherlands after Osterschelde (37.000 ha). Drenthe Province has the area approximately 268.000 hectares with 483.000 inhabitants (Provincie Drenthe, 2006). In total, three national parks occupy the area approximately 20.400 hectares or equivalent to 7.62 % of the territory of Drenthe Province.

Figure 3.2: Map of Drentsche Aa National Park, the Netherlands

Source: www.nationaalpark.nl

Drentsche Aa National Park is claimed as one of the best preserved stream valleys of Western Europe (Natuurmonumenten, 2006). Nature and agriculture have coexisted here for thousands of years. This area is claimed has been inhibited by human for more than 5000 years. Dwelling and farms together formed a common pattern based on agricultural exploitation. The farms clustered around village commons and the typical 'essen' fields are characteristic for this area. The area is rich in natural and cultural heritage: traditional villages, woods and heaths,

burial mounds and megalithic structures *(hunebed)*, bog pools and flowering meadows and the wider vistas out over the stream valley.

Table 3.2: General figure of Drentsche Aa National Park

Park's main features:	Stream valley
Special flora:	More than 600 different plant species including black rampion, common juniper, flower-rich hay pastures with various species of orchid and other rare species
Special fauna:	Nightjar, kingfisher, common lizard, moor frog, banded demoiselle, and many other birds, amphibians, mammals reptiles and insects
Recreational activities:	Cycling, walking, excursions
Area:	10,600ha
Province:	Drenthe
Managed by:	Staatsbosbeheer, the Ministry of Defense, Drenthe Province, Natuurmonumenten, and others.

Source: Nationaal Park (2006)

The area which is today known as Drentsche Aa National Park originally was created as a catchments area of water resources for agriculture. Most of farmers who live around depends their water resources from this area. Despite this specific function, Drentsche Aa once experienced a threat form new housing development on the fringe of villages started in the 1960's. Some of its area, especially around its edges, turned to new neighborhoods.

Housing development continued until the end of 1990's when people began to re-appreciate the value of beautiful landscapes and their surroundings, and livability became the dominant theme. In many villages, inhabitants and community councils now work on more harmonious residential development plans that respect the character of local landscapes and focus on livability and the region's cultural heritage. These new residential development plans can only be realized with the cooperation of local authorities.

Table 3.3: Historical Mark of Drentsche Aa National Park

Year	Events	Year	Events
1000 years ago	Villages and essen already created in their present locations	**1991**	National Forest Service report on drying out and ecological study
1886	Mark Law, start of division of common lands	**1993**	Hydrological and ecological study report for management purposes
1955	First nature and landscape report on Drentsche Aa stream valley	**1994**	Structure Plan for the Rural Areas in the Netherlands resulted in more money becoming available for land purchase, development and management of rural area and reorientation of agriculture.
1960	End of discharge of untreated waste water into the Drentsche Aa at Assen and into Rolderdiep	**1995**	ROM/WCL-project Drentse Aa & Elperstroom Implementation of Structure Plan for the Rural Areas with projects for water quality, sustainable agriculture, recreation and traffic, and nature and landscape. This plan marked a shift in the water boards' thinking and working with regard to environmental matters.
1962	End of reclamation of waste land announced in Queen's Speech		National Forest Service management plan and spatial plan for Drentsche Aa stream valley
1965	Conservation plan for Drentsche Aa stream valley, published by National Forest Service advisory section		Regional vision for nature, forest and landscape in the Drentse Aa by Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Development and Fisheries
1970	Pollution of Surface Waters Act in force, establishment of Drenthe water purification board	**1997**	All sewerage water discharge points in area removed: water quality improved.
1972	Reparcellation of land Rolde-Anloo area	**2002**	BIO-plan, regional plan for the Drentshe Aa National Landscape Completed
1973	Amendment of regional plan for nature and recreation for Drentsche Aa stream valley		**Creation of the Drentsche Aa National Park**
1974	End of discharge of untreated waste water from slaughterhouse Udema in 't Andersche diepje	**2003**	Recreational access and mobility plan for the Drentsche Aa National Landscape
1991	**First report on recreation in Drentsche Aa stream valley**		Installation of working group on education, communication and recreation

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Nature, and Food Quality (2005)

Even though the area which is now know as Drentsche Aa had not yet declared as national park, natural-based recreation had already taken place in this area. As depicted in table 3.2, in 1991 recreation in Drentsche Aa stream valley was first recorded or eleven years before it was declared as national park in 2002.

Realizing its function not only as preservation area but also as tourism destination, recreational access and mobility plan for the Drentsche Aa National Park was issued in 2003.

3.4.2 Stakeholders and Responsibility

There are six stakeholders in Drentsche Aa National park (see. Table 3.1), namely[1]:

1. *Staatsbosbeheer* (The National Forest Service)

   This agency is the representative of national government and act as the park manager for all of national parks in the Netherlands including Drentsche Aa. *Staatsbosbeheer* formulates policy and plan for national park based on research and give suggestion to Ministry of Agriculture. Tourism in Drentsche Aa is part of *Staatsbosbeheer* policy to give economic benefit for the land owners outside farming sector. *Staatsbosbeheer* also act as leading party among other stakeholders. *Staatsbosbeheer* provides subsidy annually for land owner (farmer and non-farmer) based on land's size and method of land utilization. The more environmental friendly land is used, the bigger the subsidy will be received by land owners.

2. Ministry of Defense

   Ministry of Defense uses Drentsche Aa as one of its location for military training. Based on agreement with Ministry of Agriculture, starting from 2008 the training area will be relocated outside of Drentsche Aa. Therefore, after 2008 Ministry of Defense will no longer be one of the stakeholders.

3. Drenthe Province

   Drenthe Province forms special agency called Secretariat of Drenthe National Landscape. This agency involves in managing three national parks in Drenthe Province (Drents-Friese Wold, Dwingelderveld, and Drentsche Aa). On behalf of Drenthe Province, the secretariat conducts cooperation and coordination with other stakeholders.

[1] Interview with Herman Brink, Manager of Nature Development and Management, Staatsbosbeheer Regionoord on June 25, 2007.

4. Municipal Government

   Drentsche Aa national park is part of three municipalities *(Gemente)*, namely: Assen, Tynaarlo, and Aa en Hunze. These municipalities make the regulation about land use and issue the permission regarding the development of tourism related facilities such as restaurants and cafes. Municipalities also involve in monitoring if there is land transfer from previous owner to the new owner.

5. *Natuurmonumenten*

   Natuurmonumenten's main concern is the preservation of flora and fauna in Drentsche Aa. This agency also works together with tourism operator and local people to conduct a sustainable tourism in this area.

6. Land owners

   Land owners in Drentsche Aa consist of farmers and non-farmers. Farmers are encouraged to use a more sustainable way of farming to minimize negative impact to environment. In return, they get compensation from *Staatsbosbeheer* for their effort. Some land owners open restaurant and provide accommodation for tourists.

3.4.3 Policy and Management of Drentsche Aa National Park

BIO Plan 2002 is the official management and development plan of Drentsche Aa National Park. This plan describes that Drentsche Aa area is a predominantly man-made landscape in what was once a woodland area with streams. Farming by far is still considered as the main economic activity in this area, but traditional farming has to shift to modern and intensive farming rather than extensive land use[2]. By shifting to modern farming, the agricultural sector in the Drentsche Aa area will become more sustainable, particularly producing the least possible amount of harmful substances. Innovation will become the keyword for the sector. According to Ministry of Agriculture (2005), there are still some 100 farms in the region, mainly arable farmers or land using livestock producers.

Because farming has been existed much long before the declaration of national park, about half of the Drentsche Aa National Park or more than 5,000

[2] Interview with Herman Brink, June 2007

hectares is farmland. Direct impact from this decision to the farmers is no further expansion of farmland could take place since that time. Therefore, the concern of park management from now on is to keep modern management and the landscape together in harmony for the future.

Since the declaration as a national park, park management of Drentsche Aa has also encouraged land owners to earn their living outside farming sector. Farmers who interested to sell their land may turn to the Land Development Committee, a body of land brokers advising farmers in National Park in a so-called re-parceling program. But farmers may also decide to branch out into new areas like outdoor recreation or tourism. Many farmers offer farmhouse bed-and-breakfast or farm-based holidays. Some have widened their business horizons to provide valuable services for locals and visitors alike.

3.4.4 Tourism and the involvement of local community

Besides form farming, outdoor recreation and tourism are a major source of income for the people living in the Drentsche Aa National Park. Early visitors mostly came from nearby towns such as Assen and Groningen. These day-trippers visitors came to see the sights or stroll in the woods. The woodland near Assen, with its star-like pattern of paths and stately homes was a popular destination. *Hunebeds*, a megalithic site from prehistoric era, was among main attraction besides old farmhouses. There are twenty-five *hunebeds* found in the Drentsche Aa stream valley.

Despite the facts above, recreation in Drentsche Aa was not a formal government policy until *Staatsbosbeheer* started a pilot project in 1972 with two temporary discovery trails in the area. A year later, the Provincial Council adopted a new regional plan for nature and recreation and decided that recreation should focus on day visits and the conservation of ecological diversity and the conservation and rehabilitation of the characteristic landscape structure (Ministry of Agriculture, 2005). Based on a survey in 1991, the number of visitors to the area had reached 1 million per year (Drentscheaa.nl, 2005). Generally visitors arrive by car and then go cycling or walking.

Tourism is recognized in BIO Plan, a master plan of Drentsche Aa, as this area's economic potential. New innovative projects are launched in which farmers, local authorities, nature managers and businesses work together to improve infrastructure and the quality of facilities[3]. From this project, it is expected that local population in the Drentsche Aa region feel affinity with the project and, if possible, profit from its revenues. At the same time, visitors must have all the information they need to enjoy the area to the full.

Since the very beginning, local people has been involved in the process of designate the Drentsche Aa as a national park. The aspirations of local people about the plan were captured through village meetings which were facilitated by *Staatsbosbeheer*. At early stage, local community was not prepared to subject everything to the needs of nature management and rejected the national park plan[4]. As the alternative, the planning committee gave a recommendation to the Minister of Agriculture and Nature to broaden the objectives to include social and economic aspect as the addition to preservation objective. The result form this approach is to include agriculture and recreation as well as nature incorporated into legislation on national parks objectives.

As cited in Ministry of Nature and Agriculture (2005), this new approach had far-reaching effects. Agricultural, cultural heritage and recreation were given more weight in area policy together with nature itself. *Staatsbosbeheer* developed and organized the first courses for the Drentsche Aa guides. This group was put through a rigorous program including landscape history, cultural history, nature management and rural architecture as well as the art and literature of the area. Agricultural developments are as important as architectural style and nature education in stream valley landscapes.

Local communities are included in serving the information and education for visitors. Drentsche Aa National Park uses a different approach by applying a visitors' information network. Instead of build one large building serving as visitors' centre, many villages serve as a starting point for visits and excursions, and a great deal of knowledge rests within these local communities. This means

[3] Interview with Peter Pasman from the Secretariat of Drenthe National Landscape on July 3, 2007
[4] Interview with Henk Dommerholt, Natuurmonumenten Regionord in July 2007

that the task of information and education can be distributed over the villages and hamlets, and can be coordinated locally under regional direction. Farmers, nature managers, local businesses and societies as well as cultural heritage organizations will all have their place in the network (Ministry of Agriculture and Nature, 2005).

Chapter 4

Sharing the knowledge between Indonesia and the Netherlands

4.1 Indonesia's Ecotourism Policy

As stated in the National Development Guidelines 1999, …*tourism in Indonesia has to be developed through an integrated system, interdisciplinary, participatory approach, using economical and technical criteria, ergonomic, socio-cultural sensitivity, energy saving, nature conservation and minimizing the environmental impact*. Furthermore, the national tourism policies as stated in Strategic Plan of the Ministry of Tourism and Culture among others are maintaining Indonesia as both international and domestic tourist destinations for multi visitations. Tourism is seen as a vehicle for national and regional development as well as improvement of the well being of the locals.

Ecotourism is seen as a model for the integration of tourism and conservation purposes. It is also seen as a model for public as well as tourist educational means for being responsible to the environment and cultural heritage. Moreover, ecotourism is expected as one of means for community empowerment. All of these goals are indicators for sustainable tourism development. Despite these facts, Ecotourism is a relatively new type of tourism in Indonesia. It was only after 1991 that it becomes popular in Indonesia, although ecotourism has emerged worldwide as a new kind of tourism product in early 1980's. Before that tourism in Indonesia was more concentrated on mass tourism with Bali Island as the primary destination.

Ministry of Tourism and Culture has never specifically calculated the number of tourists visiting nature-based destination. This department only publishes the total number of visitor to all of tourism destination monthly and annually. However, World Tourism Organization as mentioned by Wood (2000) has issued the number of international tourists to nature-based destination in several countries including Indonesia (see table 4.1).

Table 4.1: International tourists to Nature-based Destinations

Country	1990	1999	Total Increase (%)	Average Annual (%)
South Africa	1,029,100	6,026,000	486	19.3
Costa Rica	435,000	1,027,000	136	9.0
Indonesia	*2,178,100*	*4,700,000*	*116*	*8.0*
Belize	88,000	157,000	78	6.0
Ecuador	362,000	509,000	41	3.5
Botswana	543,000	740,000	36	3.1

Source: Wood (2002)

Table 4.1 depict that there is growing interest of international tourists to visit nature-based destinations. It means that economic revenue for host countries is also increasing. In other word, there is growing market for ecotourism industry. Nowadays, the challenge for host countries lies on how to plan and develop ecotourism industry. This is to ensure that possible conflict between nature and tourism can be minimized.

4.1.1 The condition of ecotourism in Indonesia

Indonesia has great potential for ecotourism development mainly because of its rich natural resources. Indonesia is an archipelago with terrestrial area about 1.9 million km^2 comprise 17.508 islands. In terms of biodiversity, Indonesia is home for 10% of flowered flora in the world, 12 % of mammals, 16 % of amphibians, and reptiles, 17 % of birds, 25 % of fish and 15% of insects[5]. According to Ministry of Forestry, in 2005 Indonesia has over 15 million hectares nature preservation area comprises of national parks, grand forest parks and nature recreation parks. Around 7.3 million hectares are nature conservation area, which includes the natural preserve and the animal conservation areas distributed in many different locations.

[5] The Indonesian Ecotourism Community (Indecon), 2007.

Figure 4.1: List of national park for ecotourism activity

Source: Indonesian ecotourism community

One of the most famous tourism destinations is Bromo Tengger Semeru National Park in East Java, a volcanic highland 500 km^2 in area (see figure 4.1). It offers a combination of beautiful scenery of mountains, forest, and local tradition and heritage. The park is administered by the Directorate General of Forest Protection and Nature Conservation in the Ministry of Forestry. This park receives more tourists than any other Indonesian national park (Buckley, 2003). It is also ringed by over 50 villages, and the main threat to the Park's ecosystem appears to be woodcutting from local people. The main livelihood of villages around the park is agricultural, with a mixture of subsistence crops, cash crops and livestock. However, villages on the principal tourist routes earn their livelihood largely from tourism and hire other people from other region to work their agriculture land. Socio cultural impacts appear to have been minimal, partly because the Tenggerese (native people in Bromo) are used to retaining their traditional culture and religion, and partly because their villages have maintained control of most tourism services (Buckley, 2003).

4.1.2 The Problems of ecotourism development in Indonesia

Indonesia as a developing country is struggling to develop basic infrastructure for its entire people from transportation, education, health service, and housing development. Tourism development needs support from other infrastructure such as transportation and accommodation. Moreover, ecotourism sites in Indonesia are mostly located in an isolate area. Therefore, aside of its great potential in terms of natural resources, there are some problems in promoting ecotourism in Indonesia.

Here are some problems in ecotourism related to natural, social, economic, and institutional aspect:

- Accessibility to pristine areas with unique natural characteristic is more limited than to other tourism resources. This has driven the tourism industry to choose more accessible and ready locations for development and sales.
- Lack of understanding and misperception on ecotourism as a tourism product among all stakeholders. A mixed up understanding of ecotourism as equal to any nature related tourism is causing problem in operation.
- From institutional aspect, there is fragmentation in management caused by many institutions being in charge for certain aspect of ecotourism. Operators need the permit from the local government, and recommendation from Ministry in charge for tourism. In the meantime, ecotourism often include conservation areas under the authority of the Department of Forestry. A public enterprise is also formed under the auspices of the Minister for Forestry.
- The economic value of the conservation areas where in many cases are also mining deposit is a threat in maintaining the areas for conservation.
- Walhi, an Indonesian NGO for environment protection, reported that the biggest threat for protected areas is deforestation caused by illegal logging (Palekar, 2007). Illegal logging is triggered by poverty of local people who live around protected areas.
- Lack of accessible and reliable information for visitors and tourism operators.

4.1.3 Future development of ecotourism in Indonesia

Aside of problems and constraints in ecotourism development, Indonesian Government realize that sustainable tourism needs to be promoted continuously. National government must work together with all stakeholders especially park management, tourism operators, and most important with local communities. Nowadays, Non-Government Organizations (NGO) plays significant role in local community empowerment. NGO facilitate training and management for local community to promote the awareness in terms of social and economic benefit of ecotourism in one side and preserve natural biodiversity in the other side. This action has been proven can work to supplement lack of support from national and local government.

In terms of the process of ecotourism development, local people must directly be involved from the very beginning. Togian Islands in Central Sulawesi is a pilot project in which local people was directly involved from the very beginning when the development consultant starts with planning (Ardika, 2002). These islands are known internationally as a prime destination for scuba-diving. Seven villages in Togian are incorporated in the Togian Ecotourism Network to coordinate the marketing and management of tourist accommodation and service, tour products, and handicraft production (Buckley, 2003). Other destination such as Bali Island – the most popular and prestigious destination – is also developing ecotourism product to cater the changing demand of mainly international tourist.

4.2 The Implementation of Ecotourism Principles in the Netherlands and Indonesia

Both the Netherlands and Indonesia establish the national park mainly to preserve the natural resources. Recreation, or more specifically tourism, originally is not the main objective of its establishment. But recreation gradually increase as people is more interested to experience the natural environment. As elaborated in chapter 3, tourists need an alternative type of tourism besides conventional or artificial destination. This type of tourists eager to learn more about the natural and cultural heritage of the destinations they visit. In fact recreation sector can

contribute to economic benefit. Therefore, the function of a national park has being enhanced not only for conservation, but also for recreation as well as for education.

However, uncontrolled tourism can destroy the natural resources themselves. To ensure that tourism will not threat the natural biodiversity, a "responsible traveling" to the national park is promoted by both Netherlands and Indonesia. Responsible traveling in this context means that visitors should minimize environmental impact and respect the culture of local people (see chapter 2). This is the basic idea of ecotourism.

A. The Netherlands

Even though Dutch government has never explicitly mentioned about ecotourism in national park management, some of ecotourism principles as mentioned by Newsome (2002) can be identified (see chapter 2). Those principles are:

- Nature-based

  It means ecotourism occurs in and depends on natural setting and may include cultural elements where they occur in a natural setting. This is the weakness of ecotourism in the Netherlands because lack of variety of natural resources in comparison to Indonesia. All of national parks in the Netherlands had long history of human intervention before they were declared as a national park.

  From case study, Drentsche Aa national park is not totally a natural setting because of long history of human existence in this area (see chapter 3). But agriculture is part of cultural elements of people living here and it occurs in natural setting. Agriculture has been blending in nature itself. Therefore, Drentsche Aa to lesser extent still can be classified as a nature-based tourism.

- Ecologically sustainable

  This principle is applied by Dutch government by planning and developing tourism capacity and the quantity of its product without adversely affecting the environment. In Drentsche Aa, tourism activity operated by local people must set in an environmental friendly. For instance, visitors are allowed to cycling in natural tracks but are prohibited to use motor bike or automobile. In terms of tourism facilities, local people are permitted to utilize their farmhouses for

tourism purposes such as club house, café or restaurant, but they are restricted to build new building.

- Environmentally educative

  Every national park in the Netherlands provides enough information for it visitors. This information can be found at visitor centers and internet. Visitor can learn about various animals and plants exist in each national park from park's staffs and from written sources. Park management also allows visitor who want to conduct a research in the national park.

- Locally beneficial

  The involvement of local communities in ecotourism ranges from operations to the provision of knowledge, services, facilities, and products. In Drentsche Aa, local people are involved in various activities in tourism such as open a cafe and a restaurant or even hotel. It actively involves the local communities in the tourism process so that they may benefit from it.

B. Indonesia

Indonesia, in terms of natural resources, is far richer than the Netherlands. From 50 national parks in Indonesia, 25 of them are used for ecotourism destination[6]. Differ form national parks in the Netherlands, most of areas in Indonesia's national parks are still absent of human intervention and present. Therefore, their ecosystem has never change for many years. Indeed, this is the main strength of ecotourism asset for Indonesia. But some problems as mentioned in previous part of this chapter make it difficult for Indonesia to implement an ideal ecotourism.

The implementation of ecotourism principle is limited mostly on the principles of nature-based. This is because visitors are provided a first-hand encounter with natural environment found in the undeveloped areas. Many of national parks in Indonesia especially in their inner area have never encounter direct involvement of human activities. This advantage is still open to be explored as long as carefully considering its carrying capacity.

[6] The Indonesian Ecotourism Community (Indecon), 2007.

To some extent, ecological sustainability has not been achieved because there is misperception among stakeholders who perceive ecotourism as merely a tourism product and can triggers the problem in operation. Lack of reliable information and professional staffs make it difficult to implement the principle of environmentally educative. Finally, local community is not yet become the party receiving the biggest benefit. In this case, the Tenggerese and Togians can be seen as an exception to large extent.

4.3 Local community empowerment in ecotourism: from policy to practice

In Ecotourism concept, local community empowerment is achieved through local participation. By doing so, ecotourism will create an opportunity for self-generating tourism. This is one of added values of ecotourism compare to mass or conventional tourism. It is necessary to integrate local community needs, lifestyle and activities is necessary to avoid conflict and problems for ecotourism resources.

As discussed in chapter 2, there are four elements in determining the impacts of ecotourism initiatives on local communities, namely: Economic, Psychological, Social, and Political empowerment. Each of these elements will be discussed one by one throughout this section.

4.3.1 Economic empowerment

National Forest Service *(Staastbosbeheer)* which is responsible for park management in Drentsche Aa National park actively involves the local communities in the tourism process so that they may benefit from it. The policy to distribute many small visitor centers instead of only one big visitor center (Drentsche Aa case), for example, means cash earned is shared between many households in the community. In practice, this policy makes the biggest benefit of ecotourism goes to local community and widely distributed among them. Farmers can choose to combine farming with nature management projects, such as the cooperative of part time and hobby farmers who combine farming, nature management and outdoor recreation. In the end, the benefit local people gain from tourism has been increasing the sense of belonging to national park. As the result, threat to preservation area can be minimized.

Contrary to the Netherlands, ecotourism in Indonesia in broader terms merely results in small, spasmodic cash gains for local community. Most profits go to local elites, outside operators, and government agencies. In other words, economic empowerment has not been optimally achieved yet. This condition known as economic leakage is likely similar to the case in Tortuegero, Costa Rica *(see chapter 3 section 3.1)*. Local community in most of national parks in Indonesia is not very familiar in opening and managing their own small-scale business of tourism. This condition is different with local people living around Drentsche Aa national park in which park management supports small-scale tourism business operated by local people. As the result, threat to preservation areas in Indonesia is still high because of economic pressure for local people to sustain their daily live by exploiting the natural resources within the national parks.

4.3.2 Psychological empowerment

Indonesia has more than 300 ethnic groups spread all over the archipelago. Each ethnic group has their own wisdom in preserving the nature. For certain ethnics, national park also contain some of their sacred monuments and relics which related to their ancestors. Visitors and tourism operators should aware about this value. Recognition from outside people for the uniqueness value of their culture, natural resources, and their traditional knowledge will enhance self-esteem of many community members. The recognition of indigenous cultures will sustain the lifespan and enrich those cultures. Form the explanation in section 4.1.1 about how Tenggerese culture and heritage are recognized, psychological impact can be minimized.

Whereas in case of ecotourism in Drentsche Aa, there is no adequate information on how physical empowerment has being conducted. Nor the implication of such empowerment has been reported. But BIO Plan – the Master plan of Drentsche Aa – clearly underlines the importance to recognize agriculture as local culture more than only economic activity. This is one example of policies to maintain self-esteem of local communities toward their tradition.

4.3.3 Social empowerment

Social empowerment has been achieved in a situation in which ethnic or socio-economic groups cooperate instead of compete with each other for the perceived benefits of ecotourism. This is very important to prevent disharmony and social decay which can result in the community to take on outside values and lose respect for traditional culture. Indonesia has long tradition of indigenous communal cooperation *(gotong-royong)* in which people work and help each other for common purposes such as building public facility. This tradition can be re-invented based on actual condition to support ecotourism and redistribute revenue from ecotourism through improvement of public facilities and social services.

Dutch people also have indigenous tradition of communal cooperation. This tradition particularly can be traced in agriculture and flood protection. As for Drentsche Aa, inhabitants and community councils now work on more harmonious ecotourism development plans that respect the character of local landscapes and focus on livability and the region's cultural heritage.

4.3.5 Political empowerment

The involvement of local communities since the very beginning of ecotourism planning will minimize the conflict of interests. Based on case study in Drentsche Aa national park, farmers who occupy most of the area were involved in early process of decision making. This is one of the influences from long tradition among Dutch people to seek consensus in planning. The aforementioned tradition of coordination through consultation and information has resulted in a particular mode of consensus-building with respect to planning (de Vries, 1997). One of its implementation in the context of ecotourism is local people can express their concerns related to tourism development in the meeting with park management and local government.

Political empowerment is the main weakness of ecotourism in Indonesia. In fact, lack of political empowerment has contributed to less empowerment in economic and social aspect. This is because limited access from local people to express their opinion. Indonesia can learn how the Netherlands opens a wide room for local communities to share their aspiration. Agencies initiating or implementing

the ecotourism venture should seek out the opinions of community groups. After that, local communities should be provided opportunities to be represented on decision-making bodies. Clear and reliable information should be provided and can be accessed by all of stakeholders. Even though this policy will take longer time in planning process, in the end it will minimize possible conflict of interest in the future.

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Recommendation

Conclusion

Mass tourism despite giving significant economic revenue, it also contributes negative impacts to environmental and socio-cultural for tourism destination. Therefore, alternative tourism which emphasize on sustainability consideration is need to be promoted (chapter 2). Sustainable tourism development will occur if there is harmony among ecological, economic, and socio-cultural sustainability. From various type of sustainable tourism, ecotourism is the most appropriate type to be implemented because ecotourism integrates the aspect of environment, economic, and social (chapter 2). This is the paradigm of ecotourism that should be achieved by any countries including the Netherlands and Indonesia, not only in policy but also in the implementation.

As mentioned in chapter 1, there are three research questions which become the aim to be answered by conducting this thesis. First question regarding *what policy should be formulated to empower local community?* Form theoretical framework and the study on the Netherlands and Indonesia, it can be concluded that ecotourism planning and development cannot be developed only on the basis of a coordinated approach between the tourism and conservation authorities, but should also involve local communities within a framework of sustainable development.

The policy to be formulated should integrate local community aspirations through extensive local communities' involvement from the very beginning of ecotourism planning and development. Drentsche Aa in the Netherlands and Togian national park in Indonesia show that local communities support ecotourism policy when their aspirations were accommodated (chapter 3 & 4). In the policy formulation, outsiders should conduct a non-forced negotiation between parties particularly in relation with local communities (as shown by *Staatsbosbeeher* in the designation of ecotourism in Drentsche Aa). Local community has specific value in their relation with nature that must be respected by outsider in the process of

negotiation. Generalization upon policy-making should be avoided particularly for a multi-ethnics country like Indonesia to prevent the possibility of conflict between park authorities, tourism ventures, and local communities in the future.

Second research question, *what are the benefits and constraints in policy formulation of ecotourism and its relation to the conservation of environment?* This question can be answered base on discussion in Chapter 3 (case study in Drentsche Aa) and Chapter 4 (ecotourism in Indonesia). By involving local communities throughout the process of planning and development of ecotourism, they will support the ecotourism industry in their regions. Wide involvement will result in more equally distributed economic benefit to whole community members. This situation will reduce the threat toward national park from local people, particularly in Indonesia, because they have another alternative earn of live rather than merely exploiting the national park.

Aside of its benefits, policy formulation in ecotourism also has constraints. Generally, it takes more complicated process in comparison to conventional tourism. Specifically for developing countries like Indonesia, its local communities often face difficulties in both controlling and securing benefits from tourism associated with protected areas. This is particularly because the supporting institutions are not yet settled properly. Even for country like the Netherlands, policy formulation regarding tourism faces constraints. It really needs mutual understanding and cooperation among stakeholders which means the process consumes longer time than conventional tourism. Good communication and share of information are needed among government (national, regional, and local), national park management, tourism operator, and local community (chapter 3).

Third or last question, *to what extent local community around a conservation area can contribute to ecotourism planning and development?* Since tourism may affect the quality of life of the surrounding local communities, they should be involved in the planning and management of any tourism associated with protected areas where they live. Local communities should be enabled to play major role in protected area management. Moreover, local communities can play role as the partners for park management and operators of tourism within the protected areas. They should be enabled to establish the network of small-scale business offering

various products for visitor such as souvenirs, indigenous cuisine, accommodation, cultural attractions, etc. To accommodate the interest of local communities, they must have access into the process of policy making. In Indonesia, this mediation is generally facilitated by non-government organizations.

Recommendation

From discussion about the implementation of ecotourism principles, ecotourism planning and development in both the Netherlands and Indonesia, there are several recommendations:

- In the process of policy formulation, general guidelines in ecotourism cannot simply be dictated on specific case. It should consider the characteristics of each ecotourism site. Three elements of ecotourism paradigm interrelating each other that is: biological diversity, local community, and tourism, must be well considered (chapter 2). Every ecotourism site will have specific characteristic of those three elements and will have differentiation in various degree from one with another particularly in a multi-ethnic country like Indonesia. By understanding these characteristic, an integrated approached can be taken during the planning process.
- It is very important to strengthen the institution that will fairly represent the needs and interests of all community groups, and provides a forum through which people can involve in the decision making. National Ecotourism Council (NEC) is needed to overcome the fragmented authority of ecotourism as happened in Indonesia. NEC will act as coordinator between departments related to national park, tourism, local government, and local communities.
- Government should set regulation regarding tourism that ensures local communities will not be neglected from tourism industry in their region. Since local communities are restricted from using the resources in a protected areas, they need alternative income which will keep them from threatened that areas. This income should spread widely among community members and not only accumulate on local elites. Government can offer some compensation for local people, especially if they have been displaced or if their access to resources has

been reduced. In these circumstances, compensation may take form of capital assistance to develop the tourism venture. This policy most likely possible to be implemented in such wealthy country like the Netherlands. But in future there will be some possibilities that Indonesia can adopt this policy if the economic condition already has well established.

- In order to make significant community involvement, the length of time allocated for planning should be sufficient. Adequate time allocation will built a good understanding on how local communities can best be approached, understood, and integrated into the management planning process.

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