ENRI report no. 14/2008

Comparing Adamello Brenta Natural Park (Italy) and Jotunheimen National Park (Norway): innovations and best practices

by

Marta Moranduzzo
Eastern Norway Research Institute

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A comparison of an Italian regional park and a Norwegian national park with regard to innovations and tourism

Leonardo da Vinci Exchange Programme/Oppland County Municipality

Hans Olav Bråtå

Adamello Brenta Natural Park in Italy and Jotunheimen National Park in Norway have been investigated with a comparative purpose. The aim of this report is to discuss how innovation processes and best practices implementation are able to improve the linkage among protected areas management and tourism destination management.

The Italian park acts as a strong institution, and has recently defined adequate strategies and objectives. The park management now co-operates with different local stake-holders on tourism projects.

In Norway, the park is not much involved in the tourism industry. The management is fragmented and decentralised. This suggests that in Norway the potential of the tourism industry is not fully explored and that the management has less control of its visitors.

Protected areas management, Tourism management, Italy, Norway, Brenta, Jotunheimen, regional park, national park, innovation, tourism

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Preface

This document focuses on the importance of innovation and best practices in linking tourism management and natural resource management, comparing the Adamello Brenta Natural Park in Italy and the Jotunheimen National Park in Norway.

The analysis is based on documents, interviews with local informants and a computer-based survey among tourism stakeholders in the area of Jotunheimen National Park.

This document was part of Marta Moranduzzo’s working experience at the Eastern Norway Research Institute (ENRI), under the supervision of Dr. Hans Olav Bråtå. The training took place from November 2007 till April 2008.

The internship was funded by the Leonardo da Vinci EU program and by the County of Oppland. Therefore this paper focuses on Lom and Vågå Municipalities, both located in Oppland County and having part of their territories within Jotunheimen National Park’s boarders.

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Lillehammer/London october/2008

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Prosjekt leader
# Content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUMMARY</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOMMARIO</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sammendrag</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Introduction</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Previous literature</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Objectives</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Method</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Some definitions</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Adamello Brenta Natural Park</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Italian legislation on protected areas</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1 National parks</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.2 Regional parks</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Legislation in Trentino</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Main features of the Adamello Brenta Natural Park</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 The park and the tourism industry</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Tourism projects</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Jotunheimen National Park</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Protected areas and cultural background</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Norwegian park management system</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Main features of the Jotunheimen National Park</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 The tourism industry</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 Perception and attitude of tourism companies and local stakeholders</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5.1 The survey</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5.2 Accommodation and local food</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5.3 Attitude towards innovation and cooperation</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5.4 Perceptions and aspects to improve</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Conclusions</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SUMMARY

About Adamello Brenta Natural Park and Jotunheimen National Park

Both Adamello Brenta Natural Park in Italy (ABNP) and Jotunheimen National Park in Norway (JNP) are protected areas located in the mountains, and are traditionally recreational areas. Mainly due to the amount of population living in and around the park and the proximity to markets, ABNP has experienced over time a very heavy human impact on its territory. For this reason, the park agency has recently started a process to involve the local tourism stakeholders, becoming itself one of them when the European Charter of Sustainable Tourism was introduced.

JNP is on the contrary characterised by ample untouched wild landscape, where the human pressure is very little.

Objectives and method

The aim of this report is to discuss how innovation processes and best practices implementation are able to improve the linkage among protected areas management, tourism destination management and the role of the local community.

Two case studies have been chosen with a comparative purpose. In particular, Lom and Vågå Municipalities in the Jotunheimen area have been investigated. Both municipalities are located in Oppland County.

The research method collates desk analysis, interviews with some stakeholders and informants, a computer based survey among tourism companies in Lom, Vågå and Skjåk and finally information from some study trips.

Results

Considering the park management system, Italy and Norway developed two different patterns. Adamello Brenta Natural Park acts as a strong institution, and has recently started to define adequate strategies and objectives.

This makes co-operation less urgent on the short run, since the park authority might be able to achieve its goals working as “solo”. Indeed, it took years before ABNP set up a process to involve more and more local stakeholders, sharing responsibilities and projects, rather than just imposing regulation.

With the European Charter of Sustainable Tourism, ABNP has tried to have a facilitation and co-ordination role for the tourism industry, co-operating with private companies and local tourism boards.

The ABNP has tried to position itself as an actor in the tourism industry. Working with the tourism industry within and outside the park's borders, the park can potentially reduce the gap between protected and non-protected areas, offering incentives and compensation.

In Norway, the lack of funding makes co-operation a requirement. Indeed, in JNP, park rangers cannot be isolated from other local institutions since they need support and to share information. Information and responsibilities are spread among many stakeholders. Indeed, the management is fragmented and
Tourism boards have a stronger role in promoting the product “park”. That means the park has less control of its visitors.

Since the JNP is not active in the tourism industry, local tourism companies don't consider it either as a threat or as an opportunity. JNP is something distant, and companies must deal with it only when it is about regulation and restrictions. When innovating and implementing new tourism products and services, tourism companies work on their own without major co-ordination. The high degree of co-operation among them shows they trust each other very much, considering themselves partners rather than competitors.

This suggests two main consequences for the JNP: that the potential of the tourism industry is not fully explored and that the management has less control of its visitors. This latter element makes the JNP weaker when achieving its purpose of nature protection. A strategy for developing tourism, which includes the management of visitors, may bring benefits without jeopardizes JNP's main objectives of nature conservation.
SOMMARIO

Il Parco naturale Adamello Brenta e il parco Nazionale dello Jotunheimen

Il Parco Naturale Adamello Brenta (ABNP) in Italia e il Parco Nazionale dello Jotunheimen (JNP) in Norvegia sono aree protette situate in regioni montuose e hanno una lunga tradizione come destinazioni turistico-ricreative. A causa del numero di abitanti presenti all'interno del territorio del parco e nelle aree limitrofe, e per la vicinanza alle grandi pianure densamente popolate intorno all'Arco Alpino, il territorio del Parco Naturale Adamello Brenta è stato soggetto ad un impatto ambientale molto pesante. Per questo motivo il Parco ha recentemente avviato un processo per coinvolgere gli attori turistici locali, diventando esso stesso uno di loro introducendo la Carta europea del Turismo Sostenibile. Al contrario, il Parco Nazionale dello Jotunheimen è caratterizzato da vasti panorami naturali ancora intatti dove l'impatto ambientale è molto ridotto.

Obiettivi e metodologia

L'obiettivo di questo report è discutere come i processi di innovazione e l'implementazione delle buone pratiche possano migliorare le sinergie tra la gestione delle aree protette, la gestione delle destinazioni turistiche e il ruolo della comunità locali. L'analisi comparativa è stata effettuata su due casi di studio. Nello specifico sono state considerate le municipalità di Lom and Vågå nella regione dello Jotunheimen. Entrambi i comuni fanno parte della Contea di Oppland.
La metodologia include l'analisi di documenti, interviste con attori locali ed esperti, un'indagine tra gli operatori turistici condotta attraverso Internet, infine alcune visite alle aree studiate.

Risultati

Italia e Norvegia hanno sviluppato diversi sistemi di gestione delle aree protette. Il Parco naturale Adamello Brenta è un ente giuridico ben definito che ha recentemente iniziato a definire adeguate strategie e obiettivi in materia turistica. Poiché' organismo indipendente, la necessità di cooperare con gli attori locali può sembrare non urgente in quanto l'Ente è in grado di definire e raggiungere obiettivi in autonomia. Infatti, solo recentemente il Parco ha avviato un processo bottom-up di coinvolgimento degli attori locali, co-responsabilizzando e co-progettando, piuttosto che imponendo regolamenti e divieti.
Con la Carta Europea del Turismo Sostenibile, il Parco vuole avere un ruolo di facilitatore e coordinatore per l'industria turistica locale.
Il Parco ha voluto allo stesso tempo proporsi in prima persona come attore turistico. Lavorando con l'industria turistica all'interno del territorio del parco e nelle aree limitrofe, il Parco puo' infatti ridurre il divario tra area protetta e aree circostanti, offrendo incentivi e sistemi di compensazione.

In Norvegia, la mancanza di fondi fa' della cooperazione un requisito fondamentale. Nel Parco Nazionale dello Jotunheimen, infatti, le guardie del parco non possono essere isolate dagli altri attori locali perché' necessitano di supporto e informazioni. Proprio conoscenze e responsabilita' sono distribuite tra piu' attori responsabili del Parco e la gestione e' frammentata e decentralizzata.

Le aziende turistiche locali hanno un ruolo maggiore nel promuovere il “prodotto parco”. Cio' implica che il Parco ha un controllo minore dei propri visitatori.

Proprio perché' il Parco non e' attivo nell'industria turistica, gli operatori turistici locali non lo considerano ne' una minaccia, ne' un'opportunità. Il Parco nazionale dello Jotunheimen e' percepito come qualcosa di distante, con cui avere a che fare a causa di divieti e regolamentazioni. Quando si tratta di innovazione e nuovi prodotti turistici, gli operatori locali lavorano senza un coordimento ad un livello superiore. Nonostante cio', gli operatori cooperano molto tra loro, e tale cooperazione e' basata sulla fiducia reciproca. Questo panorama suggerisce una serie di considerazioni: in primo luogo il potenziale dell'industria turistica non e' completamente esplorato nel Parco Nazionale dello Jotunheimen; in secondo luogo il Parco non conosce e controlla i propri visitatori. Quest'ultimo elemento mina le basi della missione del Parco, ovvero la conservazione della natura. Una strategia che miri allo sviluppo turistico e che includa la gestione dei flussi turistici puo' portare dei benefici senza mettere in discussione e a rischio la principale missione dell'area protetta.
**Sammendrag**

**Om Adamello Brenta Natural Park og Jotunheimen nasjonalpark**

Verneområdene Adamello Brenta Natural Park (ABNP) i Italia og Jotunheimen nasjonalpark (JNP) i Norge er begge etablert i fjellområder og er kjente rekreasjonsområder. Over tid er det skjedd en rekke inngrep i ABNP på grunn av at det er fast bosetting i og nær parken, og fordi den ligger nær store befolkningssentra. På grunn av denne utviklingen har parkmyndighetene nylig startet en prosess som skal involvere lokale aktører innen turisme. Parken ble selv en aktør innen turisme da den tiltrådte det "European Charter of Sustainable Tourism". Jotunheimen nasjonalpark preges derimot av store uberørte villmarksområder med svært lite menneskelig aktivitet.

**Mål og metoder**

Målet med denne rapporten er å diskutere hvordan innovasjonsprosesser og implementering av "best practice" kan forbedre koblingen mellom forvaltningen av verneområder, forvaltning av turistdestinasjoner og lokalsamfunn.

Muligheter for komparasjon var grunnen til at de to nevnte parkene ble valgt som studieområder. Studien fokuserer på kommunene Lom og Vågå i Jotunheimen området. Begge kommunene ligger i Oppland fylke.

Forskningsmetodene omfatter studier av dokumenter, intervjuer med aktører og andre informanter, en web-basert spørreskjemaundersøkelse til turistbedrifter i Lom, Vågå og Skjåk samt feltstudier.

**Resultater**

Norge og Italia har utvikla to ulike systemer for forvaltning av denne typen parker. Ett eksempel er at Adamello Brenta Natural Park opptrer som en sterk institusjon i seg selv og at de nylig har begynt å definere adekvate mål og strategier. Dette gjør at på kort sikt er samarbeid mindre presserende for dem fordi parkmyndighetene kan nå sine mål ved å arbeide "solo". Faktisk tok det flere år før ABNP la vekt på prosesser som involverte flere og mer lokale interessenter, delte ansvar og prosjekter enn bare å gjennomføre reguleringer.


I Norge medfører mangel på midler at det er nødvendig med samarbeid. Forvalterne av Jotunheimen nasjonalpark kan ikke isolere seg fra de lokale institusjoner fordi de er avhengige av å dele kunnskap og trenger deres støtte. Kunnskap og ansvar er spredt på mange interessenter. Forvaltningen er desentralisert og fragmentert.
Reiselivslag har en sterkere rolle når det gjelder å promotere ”parken” som produkt. Det betyr at parken har mindre kontroll på de besøkende. Fordi JNP ikke er aktive mht turisme anser ikke lokale turistbedrifter Jotunheimen nasjonalpark verken som trussel eller mulighet. Jotunheimen nasjonalpark er noe ”fjern” og bedriftene kommer bare i befatning med den i forbindelse med reguleringer og restriksjoner: I forbindelse med innovasjon av nye turistprodukter og –tjenester, og ved implementering av disse, arbeider turistbedriftene på egen hånd uten en større eller mer overgripende koordinering. Det omfattende samarbeidet mellom bedriftene viser at de stoler mye på hverandre og at andre bedrifter i større grad betraktes som partnere enn konkurrenter.

Dette fører til at potensialet for turisme i Jotunheimen nasjonalpark ikke er fullt utforsket og at forvaltningen har mindre kontroll med de besøkende. Det siste elementet fører til at Jotunheimen nasjonalpark står svakere stilt i forhold til å oppnå målene om naturvern. En strategi for å utvikle turistnæringen, som inkluderer forvaltning av de besøkende, kan bli fordelaktig samtidig med at hovedmålet om vern av naturen ikke settes på spill.
1. Introduction

1.1 Previous literature

Protected area management faces nowadays a “triple pinch: more visitors, less wilderness, less money” (Buckley et al. 2003). At the same time, the role of protected areas within their territories is changing from a “Yellowstone model” to a new one, which gradually recognizes the importance of local communities in protected area management (Pimpert & Pretty 1995, Borrini-Feyerabend 1996, Eagles et al. 2002). Under certain conditions\(^1\) nature-based tourism can be an opportunity for protected areas and for the communities neighbouring or within them. Nonetheless, parks and tourism have “a long but uneasy relationship” (Bushell & Eagles 2007; Butler & Boyd 2000).

Through innovation process and best practices implementation, protected areas’ stakeholders can turn constraints into opportunities. Indeed, a CIPRA’s study in 2006 demonstrated that new services and new products strongly linked to biodiversity can benefit both regional development and biodiversity protection (Jungmeier et al., 2006)

To achieve this goal some requirements need to be fulfilled:
The local community needs to be appropriately involved (Fernandes et al. in Andrews et al. 2002); local stakeholders must recognize the protected area’s legitimacy (Fonte & Grando 2006).

Following United Nations Environment Programme indications, “managing tourism destinations is an important part of controlling tourism environmental impacts” (UNEP). Moreover, “the management of park visitors is a fundamental component of park management. The size and scale of impact are such that sophisticated management tools are required.” (Eagles, 2003)

Therefore, some more requirements are added, to foster conservation goals:

Tourism destination organisations having territories within the park need to find dedicated tools and practices to manage tourists flows and tourism supply consistently with protected areas’ policy;

protected areas need to plan and manage visitor flows.

Consequently integrating marketing in protected area management can help (Halpenny in Bushell & Eagles 2007).

\(^1\) A comprehensive review of policies, directions and principles is available at Foxlee J., Key Principles and directions for tourism in protected areas: a review of existing charters, guidelines and declarations in Bushell & Eagles 2007: chapter 4
1.2 Objectives

The aim of this report is to discuss how innovation processes and best practices implementation are able to improve the linkage among protected areas management, tourism destination management and the role of the local community. In particular, how the tourism industry and small-medium enterprises can be positively affected by the park. Following questions need to be answered:

Could parks be understood as an opportunity for local development, instead as a constraint?
Are there any examples of initiatives or enterprises which achieved success thanks to synergies with the park?
Regional parks tend to have fewer restrictions then national parks. How can evolution in regional parks management influence national parks management? Which practices are suitable, considering the different mission and legislation?

1.3 Method

Two case studies have been chosen with a comparative purpose: Adamello Brenta Natural Park in Italy and Jotunheimen National Park in Norway. In particular, Lom and Vågå municipalities have been investigated. Both municipalities are located in Oppland County (Norway) and have part of their territories within Jotunheimen National Park’s boarders. Both parks are located in a mountain region, they are heavily visited during the summertime, much less in the wintertime. Both parks were visited by tourists before their establishment.

The research method collates desk analysis, interviews with some stakeholders and informants, a computer based survey among tourism companies in Lom, Vågå and Skjåk and finally information from some study trips.

1.4 Some definitions

1.4.1 Innovation

Economic and social development of a territory depends on its innovation and adaptation ability to both external and internal changes (Goio, 2007). In rural and mountain regions, this is particularly true since innovation is applied to generally conservative contexts and traditional activities. Moreover, cohesive and well integrated communities often based on trust and informal relationship make innovation robustly related to social processes as building networks, strengthening of the local identity and the creation & spread of

2 Most information on Adamello Brenta Natural Park (ABNP) refers to its European Charter for Sustainable Development and is available on its web-site. However, some interviews have been arranged to evaluate informants’ perception. Most information on Jotunheimen National Park (JNP) refers to interviews with relevant informants and stakeholders, due to the fact that most of references about JNP are available only in Norwegian language, not spoken by the author. However, some references available in English have been useful to give to the author a comprehensive overview. To see the list of the informants interviewed please see tables A, B1 and B2 in the appendix.
knowledge (OECD, 2001). This comes about in territories with communication difficulties due to territorial morphological features.

The Lisbon Strategy presents innovation as “the renewal and enlargement of the range of products and services and the associated markets; the establishment of new methods of production, supply and distribution; the introduction of changes in management, work organisation and the working conditions and skills of the workforce.” (European Commission, 2003). Innovation can potentially consist of or include technological innovation.

Therefore, the dynamism of a territory is related to its stakeholders’ ability to intercept external inputs adapting them to local conditions.

**1.4.2 Tourism destination**

A tourism destination consists of combining multi-dimensional elements offering an integrated experience to tourists. A tourism destination is a set of products, services, natural and artificial attractions appealing to tourists. It can also be looked upon as a supply system related to an area (Presenza, 2005).

The focus is on diversified integrated attributes which fit together in a organic supply system to give ongoing satisfactory experience to the tourists. Therefore, companies’ attitude and willingness to co-operate play an important role (Franch, 2001).

Since tourists look for wide-ranging experience derived by fragmented products, services and attractions, a steering meta-organisation called destination management organisation is required to build up a framework which helps local and external stakeholders to interact with each other, creating added value for the tourism destination.

The e-Tourism Research Group defines the destination management as the “strategic, organizational and operative decisions taken to manage the process of definition, promotion and commercialisation of the tourist product originated in the place, to generate manageble flows of incoming tourists that are balanced, sustainable and sufficient to meet the economic needs of the local actors involved in the destination” (e-Tourism, 2002).
2. Adamello Brenta Natural Park

In Europe, Italy is one of the richest countries in biodiversity. Italian territory covers one thirtieth of the continent, at the same time it comprises one in three animal species and almost the 50% of the flora present in Europe (Osti, 2006). Interaction between people and nature has been intensive over time. The Italian population is almost 60 million, with a density of almost 200 people/km². Almost the entire southern mountainside of Alps is on Italian territory. The Alpine arc is about 1,100 km wide and is the home of 13 million people. There are high populated plains located all around the Alps.

Adamello Brenta Natural Park is situated in the centre-east Italian Alps, in the Autonomous Province of Trento. The province is 6.2 thousand km² big, with a population of about 510,000 people. About 110,000 inhabitants live in the province town, Trento. The Province has a special autonomous decision power in many issues usually directly under decision of the Italian state such education, public health, labour policy, transport and planning. Tributes paid in the province almost wholly remain on its territory. The Trentino’s territory is covered by mountains and its population density is 82 inhabitants/km². Tourism is a very important sector for the Province of Trento. In 2006, tourist arrivals were almost 5 million, tourist overnights almost 30 million. On average, there were 60 tourists per inhabitant. In Trentino, tourism is characterised by a double, but unbalanced seasonality: In 2006, the overnights in August were three times those in January³.

2.1 Italian legislation on protected areas

Italy is an EU founding member and its environmental policy has been strongly influenced by the 50 years old unification process. Nonetheless, Italy promulgated a well-structured law on protected areas only in 1991. The Ministry of Environment has been established in 1986, about 10 years later than most European countries. The European Landscape Convention was signed by Italy in 2000, but only in 2006 became law⁴. Together with the Natura 2000 Network, the landscape convention aims to better integrate protected areas in their geographic surrounding context, fulfilling the lack of the law of 1991 (Sargolini, 2006). In 1998, the idea of nature conservation outside protected areas was introduced, following the framework of ecological network and “environmental system” (Osti, 2006).

Nowadays, there are 23 national parks and 135 regional natural parks. Together with several state marine reserves, state and regional natural reserves and other types of regional protected areas, about 10% of the territory is protected.

Rhetorically, two main visions on natural resource and protected areas management are distinguished. The most traditional perspective looks upon parks as a museum. In parks “à la Yellowstone” local communities and visitors are considered a threat for nature conservation. At the opposite, the most recent approach considers parks as a laboratory of sustainable development, where visitors are invited to enjoy the nature and

³ Statistics service of the Autonomous Province of Trento, www.statistica.provincia.tn.it/statistiche/turismo/
⁴ Legge n. 14, 9 gennaio del 2006
local communities to profit their social and economic development. Capra and Soppa identify the first approach as “bio-centric”, the second one as “anthropocentric”. (Capra & Soppa, 2002).

National Park Gran Paradiso, the first Italian national Park, was established in 1922. Before 1991, there were only five so called “historical” national parks, created before World War II to protect the mountain areas. Park management followed the “à la Yellowstone” approach (Fonte et al., 2006).

The national law n. 394 in 1991\(^5\) gives the guidelines to protected areas policy. The law promotes:

- nature conservation involving restrictions in the use of the territory;
- nature resources management able to integrate human activities and nature protection, including preservation of anthropologic, historic & architectonic values and traditional agriculture & forestry activities;
- education, scientific research and environmentally friendly recreation activities.

Complying with the law, in protected areas, environmentally friendly economic activities can be improved and experimented. As compensation, priority is assigned to these areas, when funding the refurbishing of historical centres, the restoring of nature, cultural activities linked to the park, agro-tourism, environment friendly sport activities and new clean energy sources. Nonetheless, in the national association of Italian protected areas, Federparchi reports priority in financial support rarely happens (Pigliacelli, 2006).

The law 394 distinguishes four type of protected areas: national parks, regional parks, natural reserves and other protected areas (Jungmeier et al., 2006).

One of the main issues in establishing and managing protected areas is the distribution of competencies and power among institutional levels. The State defines general principles, controls activities in national parks, chooses its representatives in the boards of national parks, manages a specific fund for protected areas and encourages the establishment of new protected areas. Regions define regional strategies and new regional protected areas, fund regional parks together with the Ministry of environment. They also participate in the institution of new national parks. Provinces can increase the ecological network among protected areas, including nature conservation in the territorial planning. Municipalities and mountain communities\(^6\) are often involved in regional and local protected areas management. Since regulation over territory is shared by different institutions and norms are not always clear, providing vacancies and overlap of regulation, almost every park has conflicts with the local communities. In order to avoid conflicts, new parks fail to cover ecologically relevant areas, as these areas are also economically interesting (Osti, 2006). This issue takes us back to the discussion whether the rightful democratisation process of protected areas management could be a threat for nature conservation.

All actors participate at the budget for nature conservation. The Ministry of Environment finances national parks and state reserves. Regional protected areas are funded by the regions in partnership with local authorities (Osti, 2006).

Complying the law 394, both national and regional parks have three main management instruments. The park’s regulation disciplines all the activities allowed on the park’s territory. The park’s plan disciplines the nature conservation, including the zoning. The social and economic plan, proposed by the park’s community, aims to encourage the social and economic well-being of the local population living inside and around the park. The social and economic plan can be extended on the territories close to and surrounding the park, where the local community lives. These three instruments working together should sustain nature conservation, without neglecting local ambitions towards sustainable development. The acts help protected areas to define a territorial strategy in land use and economic development (Osti, 2006).

In the Dolomiti Bellunesi National Park, the social and economic plan envisages the protection of the human

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\(^5\) In Italian “Legge quadro sulle aree protette” (Norms on protected areas). A “legge quadro” is an act which regulates a matter giving aim, tasks and tools. Implementation is left to regional laws or other regulation (Corason, Aspromonte).

\(^6\) Mountain Communities (in Italian Comunità montane) are institutions made by adjacent municipalities having mountain or hilly territories. Throughout them, municipalities share common tasks in local development.
values and preserving the rural landscape, throughout the refurbishing and the improvement of the traditional rural buildings (farms, churches) and the preserving of the rural landscape (cleaning up uncultivated fields)\(^7\). At the same time, the Park aims to develop and encourage organic food production, “soft” tourism activities and infrastructures (low-seasonal tourism, quality criteria, incoming tourism flows by train), handicraft and industrial environment friendly productions. Considering the Italian protected areas’ main features, Dolomiti Bellunesi National Park is an “unusual park”: Indeed there are no urban centres within its territory. That means that the social and economic plan had to be set up involving population around the park, with a lower degree of potential conflict.

At the National Conference on protected areas in 2002, the Ministry of Environment pointed out that most of the Italian parks, both national and regional, lack management instruments. Less then 50% of the parks have a management plan. Only one in five parks are regulated. Only the 3% of the Italian parks has a social and economic plan. This statistics count both for historical parks and for the more recent established ones (National Conference on Natural Protected Areas, 2002).

2.1.1 National parks
A national park is a legal entity, whose members of the leading board (12 members) are the Ministry of Environment (2 members), the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry (1 member), the environmental association (2 members), the national environment institution (2 members) and the park’s community (5 members). The park’s community comprises representatives of the regions, provinces and municipalities having territory within the park. It is advisory body concerning the park’s regulation and the park’s plan. It is responsible for the approval of the social and economic plan, after the binding agreement of the steering board. The distribution of the seats should guarantee the balance between national and local interests.

National parks depend on the Ministry of Environment and their main purpose is nature conservation of large areas. Human activities are allowed to some extents. They can comprise relatively high populated areas. Complying with the 1994 IUCN taxonomy, national parks are in the category II (Gambino, 2007).

Complying with the law of 1991, capturing, killing, disturbing and damaging of animal species is not allowed. Picking and damaging vegetation is not allowed either. Killing animals is allowed only to preserve the ecological balance among species. The park’s staff plans and implements the selection killing and can employ more people when necessary. Free camping and setting up fires is also forbidden.

Since Italian national parks can exist on relatively high populated areas, the law paid attention in banning mining, dumping grounds, advertising outside populated centres and changing water flows.

Rights of commons are maintained, but supervised by the park. New buildings outside already developed areas are not allowed and can be banned within populated areas when necessary for nature and landscape protection.

Nonetheless, all national parks define the level of human intervention in the management plan, depending on the integrity of the territory and the extent of human activity. The Abruzzo, Lazio and Molise National Park, one of the best managed parks in Italy\(^8\), located in the centre of Italy, shows how well-structured zoning is necessary to find the balance between nature protection and human pressure in high populated mountain regions.

The so called “integral reserves” are areas where visitors can get in, but they have to follow obligatory defined tracks and, guided by park guides when necessary. In the so called “general reserves” the nature is still untouched. Here, it is allowed to continue traditional agriculture activities under the park’s supervision. New economic activities are not allowed. In the so-called “protection areas”, traditional human activities

\(^{7}\) Parco Nazionale delle Dolomiti Bellunesi, [www.dolomitipark.it/Eindex.php](http://www.dolomitipark.it/Eindex.php)

\(^{8}\) Conversation with an Italian informant and expert in protected areas management.
have shaped the landscape. Here, environment friendly traditional human activities are located. In the “development areas”, ultimately, territory is under high human pressure and comprises villages. Here, development is allowed to benefit the local communities\(^9\). These areas are, distinguishing among villages, tourism establishments and park’s infrastructure, based on the purpose of the further development allowed. In these kinds of areas, human activities usually proceed with about the same level on environmental pressure (Bombarda, 2004).

The law 426 in 1998 introduced two important principles for the establishment and management of national parks. New national parks must be the result of the discussion among national, regional and local institutions. Moreover, parks are recognized for the first time as a lever for local development (Valbolesi, 1999). In the law under the title “System programs and policy”, the Ministry of Environment aims to work together with other ministries to develop sustainable economic activities, i.e. traditional agriculture and forestry activity, agro-tourism and tourism\(^10\). While the objectives and the institutional responsibilities were increased, protected areas have largely experienced a decrease in funding (Pigliacelli, 2006). This shows the environmental policy lacks consistency. Indeed, this increase in responsibilities combines with a decrease in funding. However, protected areas have been forced to look for other type of income, integrating the conservation purpose with providing other remunerative services. Indeed, the park agency can run commercial activities providing services. Complying with the law 394, parks can run commercial activities, providing services and supporting their action throughout marketing.

### 2.1.2 Regional parks

Complying with the national law 394/1991, regional parks are supposed to allow and even encourage economic sustainable development. They are often located in high populated areas and are smaller than national parks. Complying with the 1994 IUCN taxonomy, regional parks are in the category V (Gambino, 2007).

It is very difficult to summarize the multifaceted situation of the regional protected areas in Italy. Gambino (2007) outlines there are substantial differences among regional classification of protected areas: Regions consider about 50 different categories, often defined differently in the same category. Any region specifies the national law defining the new institution, objectives and regional organisation of new protected areas and regional parks as well. On one hand, this allows regions to adapt the discipline to the local context. On the other hand, Nuzzo criticises this “flexibility”, since the first mission of protected areas is often marginalized and penalized to leave more space for the objectives of local development (2005).

Ielardi, in his article “Regions, laboratory for park” (2005), throws light on Italian regional parks’ staff management, defining good aspects and main problems. The park’s staff is supposed to consist of one park ranger each 1000 ha. This rarely happens. To face this problem, many small and nearby protected areas and parks share staff and services concerning surveillance, administration, marketing and promotion. The lack of park rangers is sometimes replaced by “environment volunteer guards”\(^11\). These guards are not paid, nonetheless they have to attend a training course and pass an exam. In Toscana, more than 500 volunteer guards help the park rangers and work at least 15 hours per month.

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\(^9\) For further information see Ministry of Environment, [http://www.minambiente.it/index.php?id_sezione=1382&sid=96b34619474d1deb30adb18af43223c](http://www.minambiente.it/index.php?id_sezione=1382&sid=96b34619474d1deb30adb18af43223c) and [http://www.parcoabruzzo.it/uomo.parco.html](http://www.parcoabruzzo.it/uomo.parco.html)

\(^10\) See law 426/1998

\(^11\) In italian Guardie ambientali volontarie, GAV.
2.2 Legislation in Trentino

Adamello Brenta Natural Park is located in Trentino-Alto Adige, in the Italian centre-eastern Alps. Trentino is the southern province of the region, with main city Trento. Due to historical reasons, the province has a special autonomous decision power and most taxes paid in the territory stay and are invested there. Health care, education and urbanism are provincial issues. That makes Trentino one of the wealthiest provinces in Italy, being able to administrate itself and adapting the legislation to specific local needs. That is especially important when considering that 100% of Trentino's territory is covered by mountains and that ad hoc mountain policy is crucial for maintaining and improving environmental, social and economic values.

In 1988 Trentino established two provincial parks: the Adamello Brenta Natural Park and another protecting the Dolomites' area on the east side of the province. Again, complying with the law 18/88, the parks' purpose is the protection of environmental and natural values, the promotion of scientific research & knowledge and the social use of environmental goods. Bombarda outlines some main features of these parks, comparing them to the national ones (Bombarda, 2004). Generally speaking, Trentino provincial parks’ management and administration are very similar to the national parks’ ones. Nonetheless, geographical proximity and more involvement of the local community make them more representative. In the administration committee, local representatives have more than the half of the seats. The park’s presidents are appointed taking into account local community’s opinion and not by the ministry of the environment, as it happens for national parks. As for all national parks, the two natural parks are legal entities, but their annual budget is usually higher.

Borders have been delineated to avoid big urban centres and in some areas activities like hunting are allowed, still under certain restrictions. Nonetheless, the parks have faced conflicts with the local community in the last 20 years.

In 2007 a law introduced some new concepts in the environmental management at local level\(^\text{12}\). The mountainous environment is seen as a system, where single components have to be considered as part of the whole. Setting up the concept of “networking of reserves”\(^\text{13}\), the difference between protected and unprotected areas is supposed to decrease. Complying with the law, voluntary-based partnership among municipalities will define complementary territories to the protected areas and their degree of protection.

2.3 Main features of the Adamello Brenta Natural Park

The Adamello Brenta Natural Park covers an alpine mountain area of 620 square km, between the 500 and the 3,300 m of altitude, including part of the Adamello-Presanella group and the Dolomiti di Brenta. Thanks to the variety of its territory, the park hosts a rich and diversified wildlife. The symbol of the park, the Brown Bear, risked extinction some years ago, but a specific reintroduction project has been making it spread. In its territory, the park hosts several valleys, lakes, streams and glaciers.

There are 39 municipalities having territory within the park. The population in these municipalities consists in 43,000 inhabitants, most of them concentrated down in the main valleys. There are also nine tourism organisation within the park, covering different valleys and areas. Therefore, the high number of institutional entities makes very delicate and challenging kind of bottom-up process, especially considering that valleys have developed different economic patterns. For those municipalities having their entire territory within the park, the zoning is especially important. In other municipalities, the park covers only the mountainous and not populated areas.

\(^{12}\) Provincial law n. 11, May 23 2007

\(^{13}\) In Italian Rete di riserve
The park employees 30 people and 70 seasonal workers. It has 12 visiting centres and nine information points. More than one in three employees are park rangers. In 2005, 60% of their activity interested the surveillance and taking care of the fauna. About 10% was interpretation work (PNAB, 2006). In 2005-2006, the interpretation activity involved about 6,000 students. The Communication Office is in charge of the most important tourism projects. The park is mainly funded by the Province of Trento. The annual budget in 2005 was €7 million; €600,000 was collected from interpretation activities, sponsorships, gadgets and mobility fees. In 2006, the research budget was €250,000.

Map 1: The Adamello Brenta Natural Park

2.4 The park and the tourism industry

For years, the park has been looked upon by the local community as a bureaucrat body, able to impose limits without bringing any benefit. Indeed, if parks are not actively interested in promoting the territory, regulation and the need for authorisation and licence might frustrate the population. The first step towards a change was the ISO 14001 international environmental management system. The Park was the first one in Europe being awarded. The purpose was improving the environmental efficiency and the effectiveness of its organisation, at the same time rising up the quality of the services provided to the public and the locals. The accreditation ISO 14001 implies having well-structured goals, objectives, available human and financial resources, responsibilities and a monitoring plan.

The second step was the EMAS accreditation in 2006. The Co-Management Audit Scheme is the EU's voluntary scheme for organisations committing themselves to evaluate, manage and improve their environmental performance. In comparison to the ISO certification, EMAS adds some more requirements: continual improvement of environmental performance, compliance with environmental legislation ensured by government supervision, public information through annual reporting and an initial environmental statement, employees involvement\(^\text{14}\). The EMAS accreditation is more difficult to obtain and requires more effort as well. One of the crucial points is

the communication needed towards employees and the public.

The third step was developing the European Charter for Sustainable Tourism (ECST) in September 2006. The ECTS is an initiative of the Europarc Federation and represents a program of good practices in the tourism industry within protected areas. Through the Charter, the Park and the tourism industry voluntarily committed themselves to developing tourism and respecting local natural resources' sustainability. As suggested by Munoz Flores (2005), the charter is neither a quality label nor a contract, but a combination where the park and the tourism companies work together on several projects.

When the ISO 14001 certification helped the park to know itself, the EMAS accreditation extended and deepened this process to employees and public. Briefly, the park started knowing itself and making itself known, drawing public's attention. With the ECTS, the park went beyond its organisational boarders, setting up a system. The tourism industry in the Alps is traditionally composed of small enterprises and minor tourism boards, where very few destinations have a significant reputation. Thanks to this process, the park has been presenting itself as a tourism destination and an umbrella for marketing and products and supporting a diversified tourism supply.

Interviews with informants highlighted that when starting the process in 2004, local stakeholders didn't fully recognize the park as part of the tourism industry. On the other side, the park wasn't aware of the main features of the tourism industry within its municipalities. Referring to this, the first action of the Charter's process was producing and collecting information about the tourism supply and demand in a “diagnostic report”. Tourism cultural and natural resources, incoming tourism flows, strengths and weaknesses of the industry were investigated. Interviews with local representatives, leaders and informants were set up. A survey among tourists was conducted.

Once the status quo was clear, 14 public meetings took place where the local community was invited to speak. Strategies, projects, goals and responsibilities had to be defined. To the forums were invited representatives of local institutions, the tourism industry and social & environmental associations.

One of the short-term benefits of the Charter was the gathering of local stakeholders, offering a common arena for discussion. At the same time, the process arose awareness towards sustainability. Informants testified the park has become a facilitator to solve conflicts among stakeholders within the territory, but also to take relevant local issues into provincial arena.

The approved Charter's strategy includes three main pillars: enhancing local residents and visitors' awareness towards cultural, historical and natural values; promoting soft tourism towards new sensitive targets; and improving the tourism industry and environmental quality with a holistic approach.

Several projects have been defined. In most cases, the park is the leader of big projects, gathering many partners. Sometimes responsibilities are in the hands of other institutions. Projects usually have different priority and are constantly monitored. When the park is not the leader, projects might not be implemented. Even though stakeholders have three years to complete the project, the park's role in drawing attention and providing support is crucial. Indeed, most partners are small organisations and institutions, lacking of time, money and skills.

The park's agency has been promoted a common strategy for a diversified territory. Even though the municipalities having territory within the park host six million overnights per year, these are not homogeneously distributed (PNAB, 2005). Indeed, valleys have different level of tourism development and in some cases different economic pattern. The “diagnostic report” in 2005 showed up four clusters. In some valleys, the main activity remains agriculture and tourism is still looked upon as a subsidiary income. Farmers have started being interested in providing tourism services after the first signs of crisis in the traditionally wealthy mono-cultural agriculture, i.e. apple trees. Favourable local legislation incentives farms to turn into agri-tourisms. This form of tourism is still on exploration stage. Other areas suffer a “periphery” syndrome, since their economy strongly depends on what happens in the next more developed areas. They don't express a strong personality. At the contrary, those more developed areas have been prosperous in reaching a well known
reputation. Basing the tourism supply on sky heavy infrastructure and big hotels, they have followed the “ski resort” model. The landscape in these areas has often been damaged. In one valley, the tourism supply is based mainly on traditionally unseasonal thermal baths and wellness (PNAB, 2005).

Complying with the strategy, the park can offer different types of support and co-operation for marketing and commercialisation. In those areas where the tourism industry has been significant, the park’s strategy can help to reduce the environmental impact. Even though the park cannot change the main landscape and infrastructure’s features, it can help to attract new “green” segments, which could slowly force the tourism industry to provide more environmental friendly services and products. In those areas with unexpressed tourism, the park can help to develop new products and services, thanks to networking synergies, defining common products and marketing beyond the faint “natural park” product.

Of course, the attitude towards the park changes considering the tourism industry's well-being and the amount of territory covered by the park in each municipality (PNAB, 2005). Nonetheless, in those areas where the park is less welcomed, it is also looked upon as an easier way to detect new market trends.

Indeed, tourists in the Park are very conscious about their destination. A survey carried in 2005 indicated that 90% of the tourists in Adamello Brenta Natural Park knew they were in the park, 20% said the park was the main purpose of their stay (PNAB, 2005). The park plays an important role when choosing the destination for the 50% of them. Because of the high human pressure and the big amount of visitors, 60% of interviewed tourists would agree with an entrance fee, 55% with reducing the impact of tourist flows. Most of them complain about the traffic congestion in the valleys, mostly due to day-visitors. As suggested in the literature, some park’s areas reached the ripe age when tourists are annoyed by each other's presence. Nonetheless, reading these percentages one must remember that there usually is a gap between statements and effective behaviour towards sustainable practices.

2.5 Tourism projects

The park’s agency implemented several projects in the tourism field. I will present the projects which are interesting in comparison with the Norwegian case study.

The “Quality park” project is a territorial marketing program which started after the park obtained the ISO 14001 certification. Accommodation establishments, local food producers and schools are invited to fulfil some requirements for reducing their environmental impacts. When successful, the organisation is awarded by a logo and can benefit from umbrella marketing provided by the park (brochures, website, etc.). So far, 29 accommodation establishments, four food producers and 12 schools have been awarded with the logo. Even though the action carried on in schools is not directly related to the tourism industry, it is still part of internal marketing’s strategy whose purpose is to find support among locals and to make population proud of being part of the park. These type of actions also contribute to the tourism supply, making residents aware of their territory's values and attractions.

In 2007, some accommodation establishments under the co-ordination of the park launched the “green weeks”. They were offers organised as a package including guided tours within the park with park rangers, a visit to a mountain farm, staying overnight in a cabin. The initiative didn't succeeded and the park decided to reformulate them organising weekend packages. In the project, the park provided the marketing and the accommodation establishments were charged of the costs. It is difficult to understand why the project didn't succeed. One reason might be the fact that tourists in the Alps do not usually have prepared packages provided by brokers like travel agencies and tour
operator, but they organise their holiday on their own (Franch, 1997).

The park is currently trying to improve its self-funding capacity and it is part of the self-financing protected areas project called Self-pass based on European funds. The purpose of the still in progress program is the “identification, selection and application of self-financing mechanisms”. The philosophy considers the park as a service provider, able to reinvest its revenue within the territory. In the last few years, the park has increased the revenue from interpretation activities with schools, sponsorships, selling gadgets, the sustainable mobility program and training courses for professionals. In 2006, these types of income were €800,000, about 10% of the park's annual budget. Bus tickets and parking fees paid by tourists to have access to some valleys gathered together more than €300,000.

Since it is so difficult to manage the car traffic in the valleys, the mobility project could be considered a challenge. When the initiative began, mayors and tourism operators were sceptical about closing the car traffic in some valley and providing buses, since they feared the complaints of residents and tourists. Tourists reacted with satisfaction and the amount of tourists and visitors didn't decrease. Nonetheless, as showed in a recent survey, tourists usually reach the park using the car and very few by bus (Betta, 2007). One of the reasons might be that the bus service is not promoted enough and that half of the tourists are in the area for the first time. Tourists agree in principle with the introduction of the bus, bus tickets and parking fees, but at the same time it seems they require a free service. The gap between tourists' statements and facts shows the long way to go to spread correct environment-friendly behaviours.

Recently, the Park has started implementing tourism products. The Dolomiti Brenta Bike is a bike itinerary in and around the park's territory. It is a new tourism product launched in the springtime 2008. Tourists are invited to reach the destination by train and by bus, instead of using the car. A dedicated web site has been created to present the initiative. The park was in charge of organising the meetings among tourism boards, bike associations, schools and horse schools. The bike path is not only a tourism initiative, but also a way to convoy cyclists to special tracks, to reduce their environmental impact on the soil of other areas. At the same time, the product presents the park as a single tourism destination, allowing tourists to go from valley to valley on marked tracks.
3. Jotunheimen National Park

Norway occupies the western part of the Scandinavian Peninsula. The western coast is rugged and broken by fjords and islands, the mountains constitute a barrier to the interior landscape. Norway has a very high latitude. During the summertime most land experiences up to 20 hours of daylight per day, during the wintertime daylight hours are very short. In the mountain areas, the land is always covered by snow from October-November until April. Norway is home of 4.7 million inhabitants, mostly concentrated in the Oslo area and on the coast. The population density is 12 inhabitants/km², with a great difference between mountain areas and coast line.

3.1 Protected areas and cultural background

The most important act considering the establishment and management of protected areas is the Nature Conservation Act (1970). The Act distinguishes between national parks and protected landscapes, which can be considered the Norwegian version of the continental regional parks. The act also recognizes nature reserves and natural monuments. Complying with the Act, "undisturbed or largely undisturbed, distinctive or beautiful" areas can be defined as national parks to preserve them against "development, construction, pollution and other disturbance". Such areas are usually state-owned. Private land within or close to these areas can be designated as part of the national park as well. Landscape, flora, fauna, natural features, archaeological and architectural monuments and sites have to be protected.

In the protected landscapes, the degree of protection is lower. Indeed, in "distinctive or beautiful areas of natural and cultural landscape (...) no measure can be initiated when it can substantially alter the nature or character of the landscape". Also in this case, cultural features resulting from the secular interaction between man and nature are recognized as part of the landscape to be preserved. When controversial, the county governor has the responsibility to judge whether a measure is likely to significantly alter the landscape features. When a national park or a protected landscape is established, local authorities must be involved. Owners and holders of rights to properties are entitled to compensation from the state when for financial losses.

In Norway, parks are not detached legal entities, but they are directed centrally by the Directorate for Nature Management, responding to the Ministry of Environment. However, the management authority is delegated from the Directorate for Nature Management to the county governor in the county(ies) where the national park is situated. Jotunheimen National Park has a traditional management, but a supervisory committee composed of representatives from each municipality may comment or give advises for the management. In other parks there have been some experiments with a higher degree of local management, following the

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international trend. The first national park to be established was the Rondane National Park in 1962. The governmental reason for establishing the park was to preserve the landscape against further impacts, whereas the revised rules of the enlarged park (2003) emphasize the ecosystem and maintenance of for wild reindeer habitat.

When considering the management of protected areas in Norway, some other cultural and legal aspects must be considered: the “Friluftsliv” (“outdoor recreation”) and the “Allemannsretten” (“the right of access”). Moreover, in a country where population is little and spread, with a long story of settlement, the concept of “wilderness” is more ambiguous than in other higher populated countries. Indeed, the need for ruling land-use practices and access developed a very special pattern. Norway has a long and well-rooted tradition of outdoor recreation.

For Norwegians and especially for those living outside the big urban areas, walking and hiking in the nature is not looked upon as an adventure, rather than something which is part of their everyday life. The friluftliv is tightly related to the Allemannsretten. Scandinavia developed a public access regime: Anyone has access to wild land areas for hiking, skiing, camping and other outdoor recreation activities. No permission from private or public landowners is required to wander outside rural residences (utmark). As long as the recreational activity doesn’t threaten economic interests, nature and people’s privacy, people are free to move. This right is taken as granted and Norwegians usually don’t like any restriction (Kaltenborn and Håland, 2001; Hammit et al., 1992).

3.2 Norwegian park management system

Many are the criticisms the Norwegian park management system faces. James (1996, in Lindberg 2001) showed that the annual budget of Norwegian parks is far below the average of developed countries and of many developing countries. In 1996 Norway spent $833/km², against an average of $2,000/km² spent in other developed countries. Kaltenborn summarised Norway’s main problems, saying that “small staff and limited resources” go together with a “lack of a national policy, management tools, [and] adequately trained managers” (1994). From Kaltenborn’s paper some changes occur, among others the establishment of the Directorate of Nature Management. Nonetheless the three researchers interviewed confirmed the situation as still valid.

Informants suggested that the management of nature and wildlife relies more on individual perception and initiative of managers rather than on knowledge and data generated by research. Research funding is usually focused on big international projects and not on local practical ones. Most funding goes to researches in the field of biology, rather than to studies with the purpose of investigating recreational activities. The consequence seemingly is that park authorities keep on managing the resources rather than the people entering the park. Lindberg discussed that the lack of management and planning is accompanied by lack of tourism services and facilities.

Traditionally, the Norwegian Mountain Trekking Association's (NMTA)16 cabins inside the parks are primitive, nonetheless over the last few decades they have modernized a lot. The upgrading of standard has increased the need for energy and supply transportation. The NMTA is the biggest non-profit organisation in Norway and in a recent survey was considered as one of the most environmentally friendly.

Regarding the perceptions and attitude of visitors, Robertson (1989, in Kaltenborn 1994) argued park managers usually believe their product is the park, instead of considering a wider product line. Moreover, no

16 In Norwegian DNT, Den Norske Turistforening
communication strategy helps tourists to get a better understanding of the attributes and values of the park. Poor management strategies, frameworks and resources can make Norwegian parks fail on a double front: nature might not be adequately protected and tourists might not be aware of their environmental impact.

3.3 Main features of the Jotunheimen National Park

Jotunheimen, literally the Realm of the Giants, is a mountain range in southern Norway. Jotunheimen includes the 26 highest Norwegian peaks, including Galdhøpiggen (2469). There are 256 peaks higher than 2000 m in Jotunheimen. Traditionally, it is an outdoor recreation area. Explorations by hikers and climbers started around the mid- and late 1800s. The Jotunheimen range covers roughly 3,500 km²; 1,152 km² are part of the Jotunheimen National Park. No one lives permanently within Jotunheimen National Park, but the municipalities that include parts of Jotunheimen National Park have declining populations and seeks for finding other sources of income than agriculture.

Jotunheimen National Park was established in 1980. Next to it lies the Utladalen Protected Landscape covering 300 km². Informants suggested the choice for two different types of protected areas and regulation was the amount of private land located in the protected landscape, while most land in the National Park is public. Another reason may be that a number of streams in the Utladalen area are developed for hydroelectric power purpose, which excludes the area from being national park. There are two counties and five municipalities having territories within the park. One municipality has much territory on the west coast, that makes it an “outsider” in politics regarding the tourism development of the area. Moreover, locals suggested people from the coast usually have a different “mentality” and “character”. This parochialism makes co-operation more difficult when necessary, especially when it doesn't happen on an institutional level enforced by law. There are no urban centres within the park, but 6 tourism cabins offering different standards with regard to accommodation. About 20 cabins are located nearby, some with high standard on accommodation.

The main conflicts often concern areas close to the borders. Indeed, the county governor, the state authority on the regional level, can stop any activity close to the park potentially able to hinder nature.

The park's human resources are very few, reflecting the statistics on national level. In total, three men's worth of work make the park's staff. The surveillance is provided by one full time park ranger from the Directorate of Nature Management (DNM) and several local rangers employed by the DNM. The main park ranger is also in charge of interpretation activity and international networking. This latter task is a very important part of the job, since JNP is one of Norway's most famous parks. Two county governors, one for each county, are together in charge for defining the management plan, with a procedure involving local stakeholders as well. Together, the two county governors' work is worth 6 months. Indeed, the county governors represent the King and the Government of Norway on county level, and is the connection between the state and the municipalities. They depend on the Ministry of Government Administration and Reform. Governors are an instance of appeal for municipal decisions, especially for agriculture and local environmental impact, and are responsible for civil matters. That means there is only one person fully dedicated to the park's management: the DNM's park ranger. All together, these people's work for the JNP is worth 25-30 months per year.

17 In Norwegian Statens Naturoppsyn
Another very important institution is the municipal mountain board\textsuperscript{19}, which can give statements. The mountain board is probably the most important organisation in mountain areas, ruling common rights. A saying suggests that being a member of the board gives more authority than being the mayor. The board is also supposed to have influence in issues regarding tourism economic development in mountain areas. Nonetheless it was shown that boards are generally not very active regarding this.

The first management plan was defined in 1998. The plan was revised in 2008 after a long consulting process which involved the two county governors, representatives from the five municipalities, from the local tourism board, from the NMTA and from the Statskog. This latter one is the body in charge for managing the Crown land\textsuperscript{20}.

In the new park management there are some novelties. Informants suggested the new management plan is more tourist friendly, pointing more information towards tourists. Some activities have been restricted, however more tourists will be allowed to enter the park on boat sealing the lake, which is one of the main access to the park. From a marketing point of view, the most important thing is probably the intention to set up a dedicated web side. Indeed, now there are many web sites about JNP; either institutional, providing information about regulation and authorities (Directorate for Nature Management, the two counties, the municipalities) or touristy, run by a tourism organisation. Moreover, local tourism companies have web sites providing informations about the valleys where they are located.

An official web site, though delayed, is the first step for having a proper communication towards residents and tourists. The official communication provided by the park is condensed in some information boards located at the main entrance points to the park. There are also three park centres, each one located in a different valley around the park. The main one is located in Lom, which recently became a national park's town. The centre is located in the same building with the Mountain Museum and the local tourism board. This location, at the beginning due to logistic reasons, fostered information sharing informally.

\begin{center}
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{map.jpg}
\end{center}

\textit{Map 2: The Jotunheimen National Park}

\textsuperscript{19} In Norwegian Fjellstyre. Unfortunately, it was impossible to meet and interview Fjellstyre’s representatives, but not because of the author of the paper.

\textsuperscript{20} The Kingdom of Norway is a constitutional monarchy.
3.4 The tourism industry

Even though Jotunheimen area has always been very popular for outdoor recreation, tourist flows are not comparable to the continental ones, due to proximity to markets and a shorter summer season. Moreover, ski infrastructure is very little. The landscape seems untouched and is characterised by huge empty spaces. Overnights in Lom, Vågå and Skjåk were 300,000 in 2006. The two most popular and visited tracks are Galdhøpiggen and Besseggen. Informants suggested there is a big tourist flow going from the east to the coast across the mountains: tourists usually remain not longer than one night.

Complying with two surveys carried on in 1992 and in 2002, about half of tourists are foreigners (Vorkinn, 2003). Jotunheimen National Park is indeed the only Norwegian protected area able to attract a consistent foreign market. Tourists seemingly ask for improving infrastructure and services (i.e. cabins and track) and want the park to be more accessible and usable. When asked about a higher or lower degree of regulation, about one in four didn't have an opinion. Moreover, tourists don't seem to have a clear idea about their environmental impact. Many probably don't know when they cross the park's border, since signs are very few.

The most important official tourism project has been the restoring of the footpath of Besseggen, started in 2005. The track was damaged by erosion due to so many people walking during the summer time. The park hired and trained local workers, sending them to Wales where they learnt stone pitching techniques. Informants suggested this was the first time such a project was carried out by the park. The project brought up many protests and criticisms because of its high budget, but it was also a breaking point since there was discussion about new park's need in terms of management for protecting nature.

Some other projects were carried out, mainly thanks to the personal initiative of the park's staff and despite the lack of resources.

In the 1990s a trust called Stiftinga Utladalen Naturhus was founded to restore a big farm. The farm does now host a tourist hut, a cafe and a nature information centre. The farm is located at the entrance of the Utladalen Protected Landscape, on the west side. Informants suggested that since the park's budget is so small, seeking for co-operation from other actors is crucial to succeed in every project. More recently, the park got the financial help of the big company Hydro Aluminium, which polluted a lot in the last 30 years. The company has huge factories in Årdal, a town on the west side of the park at the entrance of the Utladalen Protected Landscape. Thanks to the sponsorship, a footpath and its security fence was restored and rubbish coming up from the melting ice will be taken away from Galdhøpiggen by helicopter.

Park rangers, in co-operation with other local actors, are planning to organise a bachelor's degree in outdoor guiding. Until some years ago, one wasn't allowed to run commercial activities within the park. Indeed, there was much discussion about the skills that guides should have in order to foster tourists' respect for nature. Moreover, local interests wanted to protect the local labour market and didn't want people from outside to guide. This initiative will probably be the best solution to provide a better and more adequate service both to tourists and nature, giving quality standards.

On a more institutional level, the main effort to make the park a tourism destination has been carried on by a recently born tourism organisation, the Nasjonalparkriket. It was created as a “new brand” covering the area of the Nord-Gudbrandsdalen, located on the eastern side of the JNP. The purpose was to promote the parks.

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22 About 600,000 Euro.
23 At the beginning of September 2008 the project hasn't been accomplished yet.
24 The parks are Jotunheimen, Reinheimen, Sunndal-Dovrefjell and Dovre & Rondane. Breheimen may be the next one.
located at the edges of the Nord-Gudbrandsdalen as one tourism destination, providing one web site and a common communication strategy, developing new tourism products. The project hasn't succeeded yet because of reasons difficult to define. Stakeholders interviewed seemed very disappointed of the way the project was carried on.

3.5 Perception and attitude of tourism companies and local stakeholders

3.5.1 The survey

In March 2008 a computer-based survey was conducted among tourism companies in the Jotunheimen area\(^{25}\) to integrate information provided by the interviews with local stakeholders\(^{26}\). The purpose of the survey was to investigate the profile of the tourism companies, their attitude towards innovation and improvement in services and products, the key-words in marketing the destination according to companies' perception and their attitude towards Jotunheimen National Park.

Companies were chosen among the local tourism board “Jutheime Reiseliv AS”'s stake owners and tourism companies advertised on www.visitnorway.com and located in the municipalities of Lom, Vågå, Skjåk and Sel. Most companies are located in Lom. Sixty questionnaires were sent. The response rate was 45%. Owners and managers were invited to answer.

3.5.2 Accommodation and local food

The questionnaire comprised three sections. The first inquired about the company's profile. Half of the respondents had been working at the company for more than six years and half were born in the Jotunheimen area. A quarter of the respondents had been living there for less than five years. On one side, this shows respondents must know the company and the territory quite well and have place attachment. On the other side the area is able to attract workers from outside. Considering that it is a mountain area, the data is interesting.

Twenty-one companies provide accommodation, among these two in three also organise activities within the Park. This data reflects what arose from interviews with informants. Indeed, accommodation companies traditionally provide guiding tours. The most common types of accommodation are hotels, cabins for rent and camping places (table 1). Accommodation establishments usually provide different types of accommodation and standards, diversifying their clients.

\(^{25}\) The survey title was “For reiselivbedrifter i Jotunheimen-området”, companies had 15 days to answer. The survey was endorsed by the Oppland County.

\(^{26}\) Two people working for the park's agency, five people representing six tourism companies, two people working for local tourism organisations, two researchers, one researcher currently working for the county government.
Sixteen companies have a restaurant or a café. Interviews with informants showed local companies are focusing on local food and local food production. Indeed, ten companies serve local food regularly, but only six of them for more than half the time. Nonetheless, nine companies serve local food only “sometimes”.

Two main projects are focused on local food: Gardmillom and Gudbrandsdalen Mat. Gardmillom is a project gathering eleven local farms which started six years ago. For ten days during the summertime farms open their doors, offer cultural activities and events to tourists and day visitors and show their traditional production methods. Farms serve gourmet food and the project is very successful. To be part of the initiative farms must respect such high quality standards that some farms had to give up with the project. Possibly another farm will soon join the group. Aspiration to being part of the initiative seemingly developed a competitive environment.

The second project is the Gudbrandsdalen mat. Main purpose of the organisation is marketing and selling food products of 22 small producers. The organisation aims to help food producers to distribute their products to local tourism companies, using Norway’s biggest dairy company’s (Tine) distribution network. To be part of the network and allowed to use the logo farms have to respect some quality requirements.

Both local farms and tourism companies wanted the project, which got the financial support of the public institution Innovation Norway. Focus on local food seems to be successful, but informants suggested the local food supply may be not enough on the long term, if the business expands.

### Table 1: Types of accommodation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accommodation</th>
<th>No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotel rooms</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabins for rent</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camping</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountain hut</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apartments</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summer farm</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5.3 Attitude towards innovation and cooperation

In the second section of the questionnaire, companies’ attitudes towards innovation were investigated. Since it is difficult to find indicators for innovative attitudes, some proxy variables were chosen: use of Internet, degree of co-operation with local stakeholders, tools for updating knowledge and type of improvements made by companies. The survey is based on how respondents perceived themselves, not on data about investments.

Of those who responded, 25 companies have their own Internet web site, the others appear on the website of a tourism board. Only two companies up-date their website once a year. Ten do that before the season starts.

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27 In English, “mat” means food.
Even though six answered they up-date the web side once a month during the high seasons, only four companies shows a real effort in making the web site a dynamic marketing tool, updating it more than once a month.

Also e-mailing seems to be a very important marketing tool, since 20 companies read the e-mails several times a day and four companies once a day during the working season. Out of season, the rate decreases, since many establishments are closed. Nonetheless, most of them usually read the e-mails once a day.

Indeed, visiting the website of the companies, one can notice that they are usually showcases presenting the company's main features, without any opportunity for visitors to interact. In just a few cases it is possible to make the reservation on line.

This is explained by the fact most companies are quite small and work full-time for only a few months. During the high season, employees are very busy with other types of activities.

Companies usually co-operate with each other in marketing projects (Table 2). Interviews revealed companies like to share a common website to market their area or valley. Companies' attitudes towards co-operation extends to organising common tourist products. Informants and owners interviewed said some companies share clients and set up tourism packages. This aspect is very important, considering that when co-operating, companies manage to provide a better service. One of the main problems with co-operation is that the most innovative companies don't easily find other partners able to provide the same quality standards, interviews showed. Referring to the marketing, companies owners believe they have a competitive advantage due to their location. For this reason they seemingly don't welcome marketing projects which cover bigger areas, since they fear they would loose their strong identity.

**Table 2: Types of co-operation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marketing projects</th>
<th>Tourist products</th>
<th>Other types of co-operation</th>
<th>No co-operation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For updating their know-how and knowledge, speaking with other local company owners and employees, Internet and newspapers are the most common tools. More institutionalised and formal ways like trade fairs, study trips and training courses are less popular. This might be explained by the fact they are more expensive and usually used by big companies. On the other side, networking seems to be very important in the area (Table 3).
Companies seem very active in improving their services and products. Between 15 and 20 of them improved the service quality, refurbished or enlarged the buildings of the infrastructure, developed new products and new internet pages and functions. This is a far too optimistic picture of the situation and the question was probably faint. Nonetheless is interesting to note the positive perception that tourism companies have of themselves. Informants suggested that tourism companies tend to blame institutions and tourism boards for not doing enough.

One is under the same impression considering the answers about companies’ philosophy. Only few respondents admit their products are always the same. Most companies say they improve services to satisfy guests, only seven want to surprise them by innovating. Even though it is difficult to distinguish between maintenance work, real improvements and innovation, respondents show to have a positive attitude and to judge positively their company.
3.5.4 Perceptions and aspects to improve

The third and final section was about the perceptions of the Jotunheimen tourism area and National Park. Respondents were asked to mark the two most important items when marketing the area (Table 4). The untouched nature and the mountains are by far the most representative items for the destination, followed by the culture and the traditional activities. The quality of the food is only third, even though many companies are working a lot on this, serving local food and looking for quality standards. The reason may be that untouched nature and the mountains constitute the main strength, when food quality and local food production are looked upon as a “bonus”. Surprisingly, very few respondents crossed the cultural landscape, instead preferring the traditional activities. Also the quality of accommodation gathered few marks. This is worrying in contrast to the positive attitude towards service improvements. Nonetheless this might be explained by the fact respondents meant quality as high standards, instead of standards according to the price together with an excellent customer service, which is possible to provide even in primitive establishments.

Table 4: Marketing Jotunheimen area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The untouched nature and the mountains</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The culture and the traditional activities</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of the food</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of the accommodation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cultural landscape</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Respondents want more emphasis on local culture, more cultural landscape restoration and more refurbishment of historical buildings (Table 5). The cultural landscape got only few marks as a possible item for marketing the destination in Table 4. Seemingly respondents think that the cultural landscape is nowadays a weakness, but at the same time they believe in its potential. However, respondents are less interested in more nature protection, since very few strongly agree with having more nature protection and environmental accreditation.

An important point coming up during the interviews is that company owners want the local tourism boards to do more targeted marketing, blaming them about the current one being far too generic, especially regarding the foreign markets.

**Table 5: Attitudes towards Jotunheimen National Park**
Attitudes towards Jotunheimen National Park are generally positive, but not enthusiastic. As interviews also showed, the park is looked upon neither as a threat nor as opportunity. There is no role for the park in their tourism products. Indeed, it seems the park is located in a grey area as some answers lack consistency. Respondents admit the park gives them some benefits, helping to stimulate the local economy and being used in their marketing. None consider the park unhelpful and very few think of it as a hindrance (Table 6).

**Table 6: Aspects to improve**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Fairly important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Not very important</th>
<th>Not important at all</th>
<th>Doesn't answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More nature protection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More quality of accommodation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More festivals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More serving local food</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More emphasis on local culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More co-operation in creating tourism products</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More co-operation in marketing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More refurbishing of historical buildings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More restoring of cultural landscape</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

They generally recognise the park's role in protecting nature. Most respondents admit it is important to co-operate with park's agencies. Nonetheless, untouched nature is considered important for attracting tourists by half of respondents, when most of them think the Jotunheimen area has a high potential for nature-based tourism. Fewer think that poor environmental practices might damage the tourism industry and their business. To conclude, they think the degree of protection they have is sufficient to develop nature based tourism and they seem satisfied regarding how they run their business.
4. Conclusions

In Table 7 the main characteristics of the two parks are presented.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Adamele Brenta Natural Park</th>
<th>Jotunheimen National Park</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year of establishment</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Territory</td>
<td>620 km²</td>
<td>1,151 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphology of the territory</td>
<td>Mountain</td>
<td>Mountain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of municipalities</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources dedicated (employees, funding)</td>
<td>7 million Euros</td>
<td>People's work = worth 25-30 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>800,000 Euros coming from self funding projects</td>
<td>Only 1 person fully dedicated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30 employees + 70 seasonal workers</td>
<td>Funding for infrastructure up to 100,000 Euros</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management instruments</td>
<td>Management plan,</td>
<td>Management plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EMAS certification and declaration,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>European Charter for Sustainable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Park management system</td>
<td>Strong institution</td>
<td>Fragmented system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Park management organisation</td>
<td>Located in one building</td>
<td>Institutions spread on the territory:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Offices: Director, Administration,</td>
<td>Directorate for Nature Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Technical office, Environment office,</td>
<td>County governors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Park rangers, Fauna office,</td>
<td>Local park rangers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication office</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human presence and infrastructure within the park's borders</td>
<td>High. Villages within the park's borders.</td>
<td>Very low. No village and few cabins within the park's borders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human impact/“postcard landscape”</td>
<td>Many damages to the landscape (downhill arena, big hotels, important streets in the valleys), car traffic and congestion but also untouched areas</td>
<td>Untouched nature, vast landscapes with very little infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of tourist overnights per year in the park's area</td>
<td>Six million overnights in the 39 municipalities</td>
<td>300,000 in Lom, Vågå and Skjåk municipalities (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism projects directly promoted by the park</td>
<td>Many (EMAS, ECST)</td>
<td>Few</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Park’s attitude toward the</td>
<td>Pro-active</td>
<td>Passive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism industry</td>
<td>Commercial activities run by the park</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication through Internet</td>
<td>Official web site <a href="http://www.pnab.it">www.pnab.it</a> (in Italian).</td>
<td>Several web sites, providing either institutional or touristy information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication towards tourists and residents</td>
<td>Several projects started recently within the framework of the ECST and the EMAS certification.</td>
<td>Very little</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 7: Comparing the main characteristics of the two parks*

The management of protected areas and the tourism industry are very different in Italy and Norway. In Norway, fewer inhabitants, fewer tourists and more land makes less urgent managing protected areas adequately. At the same time, Norway still has great potential in developing nature based tourism in an environment which hasn't yet faced the pressure of tourism that the Alps has experienced in the last 40 years. Little infrastructure and few tourists could potentially be an advantage: new forms of soft and environmentally-friendly tourism would be more consistent and more pragmatic. Moreover, the main foreign market is Germany and other northern countries, which are traditionally more environmentally aware.

In the Alps, the new strategies for developing these new forms of tourism face some contrasts between the ideal and the image that the tourists see once arrived at the destination. Crowded valleys, car traffic, heavy ski infrastructure and ugly big hotels built in the 1970s make it difficult to set up sustainable tourism packages based on untouched nature. The choice is much more focused on communicating with the tourist to minimise their environmental impact.

Considering the park management system, Italy and Norway developed two different patterns. Adamello Brenta Natural Park (ABNP) acts as a strong institution, and has started to define adequate strategies and objectives. Even though all parks around the world struggle to get enough funding, ABNP has faced the decrease in public funding by experimenting and implementing new ways of income. This makes co-operation less urgent on the short run, since the park authority might be able to achieve its goals working as “solo”. Indeed, it took years before ABNP set up a process to involve more and more local stakeholders, sharing responsibilities and projects, rather than just imposing regulation. Moreover, since money and power are concentrated in one strong institution, sharing information is less necessary to control the territory.

With the European Charter of Sustainable Tourism, ABNP has tried to have a facilitation and co-ordination role for the tourism industry, co-operating with private companies and local tourism boards, spreading information and knowledge. The ABNP has tried to position itself as an actor in the tourism industry, able to provide services for local stakeholders. Throughout, marketing and promotion are used to improve the environmental attitude of local tourism companies and tourists. At the same time, working with the tourism industry within and outside the park's borders, the park can potentially reduce the gap between protected and non-protected areas, offering incentives and compensation. That also means the park has to have the skills to support its action, making an investment in knowledge and know-how. At the same time, the park authority must remember that its first purpose is to protect nature. Many critics argue that parks could turn into a tourism organisation, more concerned with local economic development rather than preserving natural values.

In Norway, the lack of funding makes co-operation a requirement. Indeed, in Jotunheimen National Park (JNP), park rangers cannot be isolated from other local institutions since they need support and to share
information. Information and responsibilities are spread among many stakeholders. The park authorities have needed to get sponsorship to carry out their projects. Since the park doesn't have a clear tourism strategy, resources are so little and employees few, projects are started and carried out by employees' own initiative. Even though in the short-run that can work well, in the long run the park management may face some problems. Firstly, local stakeholders may identify the park with the employee they usually deal with, trusting them and not the institution. Secondly, few park rangers working on big areas end up having a valuable knowledge of their territory, with little opportunity to share it. This risks capitalising on the information.

In JNP, tourism boards have a stronger role in promoting the product “park”. That means the park has less control of its visitors. The question is whether marketing and promotion are consistent with the policy of the park.

Since the JNP is not active in the tourism industry, local tourism companies don't consider it either as a threat or as an opportunity. JNP is something distant, and companies must deal with it only when it is about regulation and restrictions. At the same time, tourism companies don't feel they have a strong institutional support either from the tourism boards or from the park agency. They seemingly think they are just doing their best. When innovating and implementing new tourism products and services, tourism companies work on their own without major co-ordination, only occasionally getting funding from e.g. Innovation Norway. The high degree of co-operation among them shows they trust each other very much, considering themselves partners rather than competitors.

In summary, in the last few years ABNP has been pro-active in the tourism industry, acting as strong institution with dedicated budget and developing important relations with the local tourism boards and the tourism companies. On the other hand, this has rarely happened in the JNP. Budgets and resources at the disposal of the two parks definitely make the difference, but also the type of management system probably plays a big role. Indeed, integration of the tourism industry and park management in Jotunheimen is limited. Moreover, the management is fragmented and decentralised, letting people's own initiative very important. This suggests two main consequences for the JNP: that the potential of the tourism industry is not fully explored and that the management has less control of its visitors. This latter element makes the JNP weaker when achieving its purpose of nature protection. A strategy for developing tourism which includes the management of visitors may bring benefits without jeopardise JNP's main objectives of nature conservation.

In the computer-based survey, tourism company owners and managers were asked about their perception of their innovation attitude. Further research could investigate the real amount of investment, the main projects carried out and the role of Innovation Norway. Moreover, it would be interesting to examine the main features of the co-operation tourism companies have, since this attitude is usually lacking in the Alps.
## Appendix

### Table A: Informants interviewed for Adamello Brenta Natural Park

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Role/organisation</th>
<th>Date of the interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mirtis Conci</td>
<td>Centre for alpine ecology (Trento). Human ecology, lasting mountain development and valorisation sector.</td>
<td>December 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roberto Bombarda</td>
<td>Politician. Mr. Bombarda was ABNP's board member for 12 years and president of several Trentino's tourism and cultural institutions.</td>
<td>January 2008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table B1: Informants interviewed for Jotunheimen National Park – Public Institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Role/Type of organisation</th>
<th>Date of the interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marit Vorkinn</td>
<td>Oppland County. Former researcher at the Eastern Norway research Institute (Lillehammer). Now at the Norwegian Institute for Nature research (Lillehammer).</td>
<td>December 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harald Klæbo</td>
<td>Oppland county governor.</td>
<td>December 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olger Rønningen</td>
<td>Oppland County. Project manager for the Nasjonalparkriket.</td>
<td>January 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bente Skaarud</td>
<td><strong>Jotunheimen</strong> Tourism Board.</td>
<td>February 2008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table B2: Informants interviewed for Jotunheimen National Park – Tourism companies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Role/Type of organisation</th>
<th>Date of the interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hindsæter</td>
<td>Tourism company owner. Accommodation service.</td>
<td>December 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gudbrandsdalen Mat</td>
<td>Project for the valorisation of local food product. Project co-ordinator.</td>
<td>March 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gardmillon</td>
<td>Project among tourist farms. Project marketing co-ordinator(^{28}).</td>
<td>March 2008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{28}\) It happened that the person interviewed for the Gudbrandsdalen Mat was also in charge for the Gardmillom project. The person gave opinion about both projects.
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Comparing Adamello Brenta Natural Park (Italy) and Jotunheimen National Park (Norway):
innovations and best practises

Adamello Brenta Natural Park in Italy and Jotunheimen National Park in Norway have been investigated with a comparative purpose. The aim of this report is to discuss how innovation processes and best practices implementation are able to improve the linkage among protected areas management and tourism destination management. The Italian park acts as a strong institution, and has recently defined adequate strategies and objectives. The park management now co-operates with different local stake-holders on tourism projects.

In Norway, the park is not much involved in the tourism industry. The management is fragmented and decentralised. This suggests that in Norway the potential of the tourism industry is not fully explored and that the management has less control of its visitors.

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