CHAPTER 14

ENGAGEMENT AND PARTICIPATION IN PROTECTED AREA MANAGEMENT: WHO, WHY, HOW AND WHEN?

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TITLE PAGE PHOTO

Manuel Castellanos, a Lacandon Indian, discussing ecosystem restoration with visitors in Montes Azules Biosphere Reserve, in the State of Chiapas in southeast Mexico
Source: Eduard Müller

Introduction

This chapter explores the demands on, and opportunities provided to, protected area managers when engaging with individuals, communities and organisations whose interests intersect with protected area management. The first section notes the emergence of collaborative arrangements in resource and environmental management and how these apply to protected area management. Then general principles applying to engagement and public participation are introduced. The last four sections explore four questions: with *whom* protected area managers engage; *why* these individuals and groups engage with protected area management, and their values and motivations; *how*, or the forms of and strategies for engagement and participation; and *when* engagement should occur.

Engagement with other individuals, organisations and communities involves very different values and aspirations—they can be thought of as clients, customers and collaborators—and is complex, occurring across a diversity of geographical, social and political settings. The detail of how to engage successfully will be dependent on the specific context, so this chapter does not prescribe what to do in a specific situation, but rather presents concepts and principles to allow managers to recognise this diversity and to adopt approaches suited to their circumstances, selecting from an array of tools and strategies. To indicate this finer level of detail, the chapter ends with five case studies demonstrating how the themes of the chapter will play out in different contexts and the different stakeholders with whom protected area staff and managers work.

1. Case Studies 14.1 and 14.2 discuss engagement with *indigenous peoples*, emphasising how stakeholders will have a variety of interests and motivations, how different strategies will be required depending on the cultural context, and how care is needed in understanding who 'the community is' and who speaks for that community.
2. Case Studies 14.3 and 14.4 explore *philanthropic engagement* with protected area management, emphasising the need for clear understanding of managers' and stakeholders' expectations, and the importance of transparency and good process.
3. Case Study 14.5 explores engagement with *recreational users*, illustrating a core theme of the chapter: the variety of motivations of those who interact with protected areas. It also emphasises the importance of careful, respectful processes required to satisfy diverse needs in a mutually beneficial fashion.

Successful community engagement demands skill and application, executed in a manner sensitive to specific situations. Further detail is available in materials referenced below and in the literature dealing with participation in natural resource and environmental management (for example, Beierle and Cayford 2002; Creighton 2005; Evans-Cowley and Hollander 2010; O'Faircheallaigh 2010). This chapter intersects with issues of governance, management and leadership covered in Chapters 7, 8, 12, 16 and 27 of this book.

The emergence of collaborative arrangements

Protected areas are but one sector and profession where, in recent years, we have seen increasing requirements to collaborate with a diversity of stakeholders. Environmental and natural resource management has evolved away from a top-down, regulatory style, to one that features close and diverse partnerships and collaborations between management agencies and local communities, resource users, other management agencies, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and the private sector. This is consistent with broader arguments regarding the role of citizens and the sharing of power and participation in political and policy decisions, and a move from direction by *government* to a more inclusive *governance* involving multiple parties (for example, Rhodes 1997; and see Chapter 7). This debate and trend have been particularly focused on environmental and natural resource management, with most literature coming from industrialised democracies (for example, Healey 1997; Dobson 2003; Paehklke 2003; Dryzek and Niemeyer 2010; Holley et al. 2012).

Community engagement and collaborative management are in some situations required to some degree in formal planning and policy processes; in other situations they have been pursued by communities and agencies not as a mandatory requirement but voluntarily to achieve management outcomes and community aspirations. In the protected area management sector, engagement with stakeholders may be a formal part of planning and management processes, such as in the creation of management plans, and in some cases is a formal part of international agreements such as with World Heritage properties.

Early work in public participation focused on arguing the need for greater engagement, and on the degree of participation. Arnstein (1969) presented an influential definition of the 'ladder' of citizen engagement, where

higher up the ladder indicates a greater level of citizen or public power. The rungs on the ladder, from top to bottom, are:

- citizen control
- delegated power
- partnership
- placation
- consultation
- informing
- therapy
- manipulation.

These degrees of engagement all feature in protected area management. Towards the upper end of Arnstein's 'ladder' there are strongly collaborative management arrangements such as reserve co-management, where community representatives hold formal positions on a management board with shared or delegated decision-making power. Such participation may involve a substantial role in setting strategic directions—being part of the governance of one or more protected areas. In the middle might be a national park advisory committee with input but not formal power, and at the bottom end visitors are subject to regulatory controls over use and engaged by materials that make these regulations known. It is not the case that one level of engagement is better—it depends on the context. For example, strict controls on visitor behaviour and use—or even total exclusion—are appropriate for highly sensitive areas, and most visitors accept, and indeed understand, that the special values they come to experience only exist because of such controls.

Arnstein's ladder shares similarities with other categorisations of the degree and purpose of engagement. In the context of community engagement in heritage management, Hall and McArthur (1998) categorise the objectives of engagement as information giving, information receiving, information sharing and participatory decision-making, and map techniques against these objectives (see the section 'How: Forms of engagement and participation' below).

The more recent work cited above focuses on multiple engagement and collaboration strategies, and on the quality and longevity of collaborative relationships. There are numerous terms and concepts used in the environmental and natural resource management literature and in practice to denote this evolving, more engaged style of governance: multi-centric or polycentric governance, adaptive management, adaptive governance, collaborative management, multi-stakeholder partnerships, and participatory resource governance. These multiple terms and concepts can create confusion. Box 14.1 summarises relevant trends in contemporary natural resource management.

Collaborative governance arrangements, and adaptive management undertaken within those arrangements, expand the context of natural resource management in terms of the range of organisations and groups of people involved, demanding a good understanding of the policy and organisational contexts (Table 14.1). Any natural resource management operates within institutional and organisational settings with some basic elements, which are shown in Figure 14.1 (adapted from Dovers and Hussey 2013; see also Howlett et al. 2009). The details of arrangements will vary across jurisdictions and political contexts, but two general principles apply. First, the rates of change through the three levels vary significantly, between slow institutional change and more rapid change in management actions. Second, the opportunities for participation in changing arrangements are different across the three levels. Later sections of this chapter expand on these two points.

Collaboration in protected area management

Increasing moves towards cross-tenure or landscape-scale biodiversity and natural resource management, such as integrated catchment management and connectivity conservation (Fitzsimons et al. 2013; Worboys et al. 2013; Chapter 27), place protected areas as part of a wider system of resources, values, organisations and actors (Fitzsimons and Wescott 2008; Lockwood 2010a; Wyborn 2013). Even where protected areas are not part of a wider connectivity conservation initiative, managers will—and indeed must—establish relationships with neighbouring landholders, other government agencies, visitors and NGOs. This adds *social considerations* to the mix of natural, legal, financial and institutional considerations to be recognised and dealt with (Anderson and James 2001; Lockwood 2010b; McCool et al. 2013; McNeely 2006). Some community engagement is required in, for example, developing management plans. There is, however, typically a practical requirement for more and different forms than those stipulated in legislative or planning processes: protected area management occurs within a complex matrix of interests and groups. These social considerations include matters relating to different cultural groups who use protected areas or have an interest in their management, and therefore include issues of cross-cultural understanding and communication.

Box 14.1 Adaptive management and governance

Contemporary natural resource management, including of protected areas, is increasingly influenced by ideas such as collaborative or adaptive governance, following theory and practice developed over recent decades. In the face of uncertainty about ecosystem function and optimal management strategies, and multiple stakeholders and diverse values, the concept of adaptive management encourages management interventions as intentional 'experiments' to inform ongoing improvement in understanding and management. The shift from 'management' by government to 'governance' by multiple stakeholders recognises the importance of social structures and relationships and of both formal and informal institutions (Chapter 7). *Governance* sets the policy and strategy and thus the directions for operational *management* (see further below; and Nkhata and McCool 2012; Plummer et al. 2013). Adaptive governance recognises participation among diverse stakeholders as an alternative to rigid bureaucratic management arrangements relying only on 'expert' inputs of knowledge. Four key concepts shape adaptive governance.

1. Collaboration involving the sharing of rights and responsibilities among stakeholders, and resolving diverse aspirations.
2. Social learning that involves partnerships to support collective activities and ongoing mutual production and ownership of knowledge.
3. Flexibility, in an institutional sense, providing the capacity to adapt policy and management over time as knowledge or circumstances change.
4. Polycentricism (or multi-centrism), where management is undertaken not through a single authority, but where multiple, semi-autonomous but interlinked nodes of authority and decision-making exist including multiple state and non-state actors (Holling 1978; Ostrom 1990; Lee 1993; Folke et al. 2005; Keen et al. 2005; Armitage et al. 2009; Bäckstrand et al. 2010; Lockwood 2010a; Cundill and Rodela 2012; McCool et al. 2013; Ojha et al. 2013).

Adaptive management may be fully controlled by a government agency or other singular organisation with little participation; however, recent literature and practice recommend that flexibility and learning are difficult without the broader engagement of stakeholders. *Adaptive governance* explicitly includes multiple stakeholders and admits their role in setting goals and strategic directions, not just in implementation of those goals.

The evolution of natural resource management towards adaptive governance—and of participatory protected area management—is an ongoing and difficult process of management, organisational and professional change. The aim is both to create inclusive processes that engage the necessary players and to achieve tangible outcomes. Traditional legislative and administrative arrangements within which government agencies operate do not always make long-term, shared, experimental and flexible management easy (Wyborn and Dovers 2014).

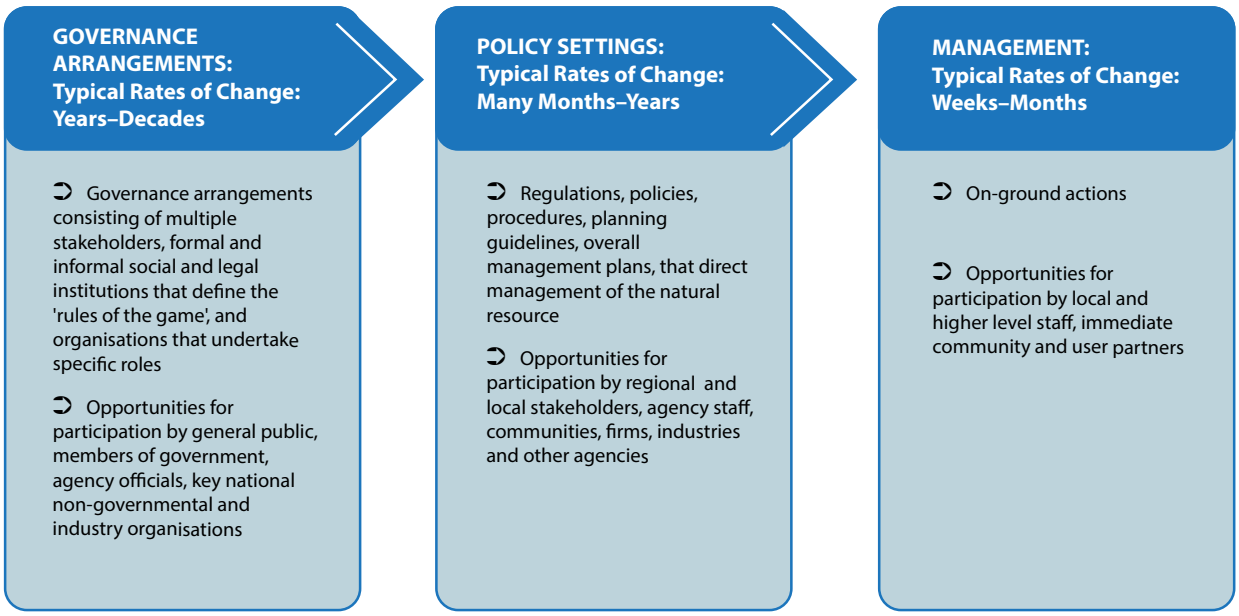

Figure 14.1 Hierarchy of governance and participation

Protected area management exists within a political context, which will vary between countries and localities, where different values and expectations regarding natural areas and human use of them influence management. In some jurisdictions, park agencies and similar organisations have considerable status, authority and resources; in others they may not. Hence the relationships between these organisations and other agencies, NGOs and communities will vary, and styles of engagement will need to be fashioned according to the political context. A factor influencing the political context is the degree of freedom of the media, the interest of the media in conservation and the attitude of powerful media interests. What works in one place may not work in another, depending on political and legal rules and structures, the strength of different social values and the power of different groups.

Working with multiple stakeholders places different requirements on management and the agencies responsible (for example, a national park service), and different demands on the time and skills of management staff at all levels and in all roles. Community engagement, stakeholder liaison, management of public–private partnerships and inter-agency collaborations have become part of the role statement for protected area agencies and staff. Consider the range of individuals and organisations that have clear roles or interests in the management of protected areas:

- neighbours—private sector or community landholders and tenants, whether residential, agricultural or private conservation
- local communities in the surrounding area, including indigenous communities and nearby urban residents
- indigenous and local communities who reside in a protected area and/or are reliant on resources in them for their livelihoods (see Chapter 25)
- other public sector land or natural resource management agencies and their staff, at the same level of government—forest agencies, environmental protection authorities, catchment management authorities or water commissions, or maritime and fisheries agencies in the case of coastal and marine reserves
- other public agencies, at the same level of government, which may require access to or collaboration with protected areas—emergency management, military, police or infrastructure and transport suppliers
- agencies in levels of government other than those responsible for the protected area, across the spectrum of local, regional, provincial/state, national and international—for example, European Union or United Nations
- politicians and political parties or movements who influence (positively or negatively) protected area policy and management
- NGOs interested in nature conservation, including advocacy groups, those engaged in collaborative management and philanthropic organisations contributing to reserve acquisition or management
- tourists and recreational users, local or from a distance, regular or occasional, individuals or organised interest groups
- local or regional private sector (commercial) interests, such as tour guide firms and accommodation operators, generally of a small scale but who may be linked to larger firms or networks
- larger commercial interests (with or without a permanent local presence), up to the scale of powerful transnational corporations
- research organisations whose activities rely on access to protected areas or inform management.

This list indicates a huge array of interests, which is realistic anywhere there is a significant protected area estate. Across these groups there are partners and potential partners, those who are interested or disinterested, opponents, collaborators with a common interest, and those focused on commercial opportunities. Some individuals will play multiple roles—for example, a member of the local community who visits the protected area for recreation and who is also involved in tourism promotion as an elected local government member and a local businessperson.

Within protected area management agencies, different staff will engage with different parties for different reasons. Senior executives will engage formally with senior officials from other agencies, with industry bodies or recreational user lobby groups and the media, whereas operations staff will interact on a day-to-day basis with locally based agency staff, local communities and businesses, local politicians, immediate neighbours and visitors. Similarly, engagement will vary according to the type and location of a protected area—that is, remote or near a city. The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) definition of a protected area is 'a clearly defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values' (Dudley 2008:8).

There is clearly a great diversity of 'stakeholders': individuals and groups who have an interest in the management of protected areas, whether a single area or a system of protected areas. This is matched by the diversity of protected areas and the aims of these areas. The IUCN defines six categories of protected areas, being areas that are managed mainly for (see Chapter 8):

I. strict protection: Ia, strict nature reserve; Ib, wilderness area

II. ecosystem conservation and protection (national park)

III. conservation of natural features (natural monument)

IV. conservation through active management (habitat/species management area)

V. landscape/seascape conservation and recreation (protected landscape/seascape)

VI. sustainable use of natural resources (managed resource protected area).

These categories define different primary purposes, and thus different relationships that groups in a society will have with protected area management and staff. They also indicate a greater or lesser degree of control over use of or visitation to a protected area, often defined in legislation and other formal policy. For example, a strict nature reserve (Category Ia) or a natural monument (Category III) may have tight regulatory controls over other uses, whereas Category V–VI areas may permit recreation, tourism operators, fishers, miners or subsistence food harvesting in a more or less managed fashion. Categories V–VI are managed as cultural landscapes where nature conservation exists alongside resident communities' livelihoods and social practice; engagement between communities and managers is not optional in these situations but is essential to the core purpose of land management.

These purposes are, however, what an area is mainly managed for, and most often there is a mix of uses and users, and thus of relationships with individuals, societal groups and organisations. This mix of users comprises the clients, customers and collaborators of protected area management—those whose services are sought and used by managers, those who use or purchase the services provided by protected areas, and those who work with protected area managers towards a common purpose. These are fundamentally different relationships, based variously on shared values and goals, commercial obligations, expectations of service provision, or regulatory or policy requirements to be met.

Simplistically, the relationships and interactions between protected area managers and 'others' are thought of as primarily involving recreational users and tourists who utilise the area so as to enjoy its natural amenity, possibly extending to illegal or unwelcome visitors, commercial operators within or adjacent to the national park and landholders abutting the park. Protected area managers themselves know there are many more: environmental NGOs, voluntary rangers, resource extraction firms, local communities dependent on the protected area in some way, a variety of other government agencies, and so on. The list of those with whom a protected area manager 'engages' can be very long, and as the move towards whole-of-landscape conservation and land management continues, the list and variety will inevitably grow.

Protected area management is not alone in moving towards partnerships and collaborative governance, as this has become more important in water and catchment management, forestry, fisheries, urban planning, climate adaptation policy and other areas, and valuable perspectives have emerged from the broader field (for example, Borrini-Feyerabend et al. 2007; Lockwood et al. 2010). Protected area managers can look to their peers in other agencies and sectors within their jurisdiction for insights from other participatory processes.

The remainder of this chapter places protected area management within a broader framework of public participation and community engagement, working through four questions: *who* might participate in protected area management, *why* they would wish to be invited to do so, *how* that engagement might be undertaken, and *when* and how often engagement should take place. In this way, the chapter encourages close attention to the nature of the subsets of what are too often loosely labelled 'the community', their imperatives and motivations, and the means through which engagement occurs. The nomenclature and general arguments are drawn from Dovers and Hussey (2013) and the wider body of participatory environmental management literature.

General principles of engagement

The following principles reflect generic issues in collaborative resource management and public participation more widely. These principles are general, they overlap to some extent (for example, recognising motivations, reciprocity and clarity) and may be in tension (for example, persistence and limits to volunteerism).

1. **Recognition of different motivations:** Although protected area managers engage with other parties around the common concern of the management of a protected area or areas, or the implications of that management for other areas and interests, the motivations will rarely be the same. The manager will be concerned with the protected area above all else, whereas the other party may be concerned with biodiversity conservation more broadly, regional fire management, local livelihoods and economic development, maintenance of cultural sites, or tourism and recreational access. Even within one user group there will be different motivations, such as with recreational users of a protected area (see Case Study 14.5 for an example). At the extremes, there will be those who may oppose protected areas as a means to pursue nature conservation, or those who agitate strongly for stricter conservation measures than managers can countenance. Such varied motivations may coincide, or may be the possible basis for compromise, or create conflict. It may in fact be difficult to discern the primary motivation of a stakeholder, such as where private profit may be conflated with community economic development, or where deep cultural attachment may be conflated with nature conservation. Different motivations need to be clearly identified and openly discussed, to avoid 'hidden agendas' or tensions that remain unrecognised and therefore not properly dealt with.

2. **Reciprocity:** Consistent with different motivations, the purpose of engagement and participation is, for a protected area manager, the integrity and protection of the area in question, whereas for a client, customer or collaborator that may not be the main purpose. Bluntly, people will want something out of the relationship, whether that is the protection of a species, recreational opportunities, business prospects, protection of a culturally significant site, clean water downstream, access to food sources or information. Case Studies 14.3 and 14.4 emphasise this from the perspective of philanthropic partners. Engagement strategies, and the attitude and approach of protected area managers to engagement, must recognise these wants and view engagement as a reciprocal arrangement aimed at satisfying—if possible—these different wants. At the least, an understanding of why some needs and demands cannot be met can be reached in a transparent fashion.

3. **Clarity and transparency:** Openness and honesty are the basis of relationships and of collaboration, or at least of compromise and toleration, and even of unresolved conflict that nonetheless ends with mutual respect for each party. Engagement and participation in protected area management should be based on clarity over the purpose of engagement, what is on the agenda and who will make decisions. Communities or commercial interests accept limited engagement, but not false expectations of how much influence they have. For example, if ongoing community input into the management of a particular protected area is only advisory then that should be clear in the title and terms of reference, not implying otherwise or leaving the degree of possible influence unclear. Transparency in process is similarly important, from the duration of the process and the terms of reference and timing of meetings to information flows and feedback. Particular attention must be paid to individuals and groups for whom engagement in formal consultations is an unfamiliar experience.

4. **Persistence:** Engagement takes time and effort and there is an understandable tendency to cease a process of engagement or a partnership once an immediate need is met. Interest groups and local communities view 'on again, off again' consultation dimly, and become negative rather than positive partners if they feel they are used simply to serve the near-term purposes of managers and governments. Relationships are not quickly built but can be quickly destroyed, and persistence and long-term engagement are likely to be required in many situations.

5. **Limits to volunteerism, and the capacity to engage:** Engagement takes time and effort on the part of protected area staff, but it is part of their job (or should be). The skills of staff, however, will vary in their ability to engage and communicate with external parties, so training and capacity building may be needed. For many others, particularly local communities or NGOs, contributing to protected area management is voluntary, whether or not the relevant management agency has invited their input. This must be recognised and the limits to volunteerism respected, by not placing onerous expectations or demands on people and by respecting their capacity to engage (time, travel costs, technological support and so on). Some community members may require financial or technical assistance to allow participation. This principle is explored and emphasised in Case Study 14.1 in the case of indigenous people.

6. **Exclusion and inclusion can interact:** When a participatory process is established, some people and interests may be intentionally or unintentionally

Engagement and capacity building with indigenous leaders from Central America, Costa Rica
Source: Eduard Müller

excluded by the way in which the process is structured. As the political scientist Schattschneider (1983:102) put it, 'whoever decides what the game is about decides also who can get into the game'. Managers and governments make decisions about the geographical scale of a consultation (and thus who is included), the topics that are relevant (and thus who will be interested) and the timing and location of meetings or the accessibility of web-based or written materials (and thus who can access the process). Such decisions may make engagement easy and obvious for some groups and individuals, or difficult or impossible for others.

7. **Representativeness:** Engagement strategies involve deciding who will be involved (see the section 'Engage with whom?' below), and this often involves a decision regarding which particular individuals or organisations can best represent relevant interests. This requires protected area managers to be aware of the relevant interests and groups, and to ensure that the process is sufficiently representative to be fair and defensible and to produce outcomes that will be accepted or at least understood by interested parties. For example, a local chamber of commerce may or may not represent the specific businesses most concerned with the protected area, and a residents' or community group may or may not represent those people who live close to and are most affected by management plans. One individual may have difficulty representing a 'community' that is not homogenous in its views. Especially important is being aware of the difficulties of engagement for, and gaining representation of, marginalised groups in society, such as the poor, remotely located, young people and women. Representation may be a very different matter with many local, indigenous or tribal communities (Case Study 14.1) compared with organised business or conservation groups, and strategies such as a series of community meetings may be required to identify representatives. Asking a person to 'represent' a particular group may constrain their input and limit their role to defending or advancing only that set of interests. In some situations, involving people on the basis of their knowledge and expertise may be advisable, allowing them to have a wider scope of input. A mix of representative and expert-based membership of advisory or consultative groups can be effective.

8. **Skills and resources for collaboration:** Engagement takes time, requires resources and demands appropriate skills. Engagement processes that are rushed, poorly designed or inadequately implemented may create tensions and can damage valuable relationships. Engagement and participation require skills that should be engendered and valued, from survey design through written communication to the running of community meetings. Engagement also may take considerable time, and management processes (such as a management plan review) should recognise this and cater for it. Engagement also requires resources such as adequate funding, staff allocation and information.

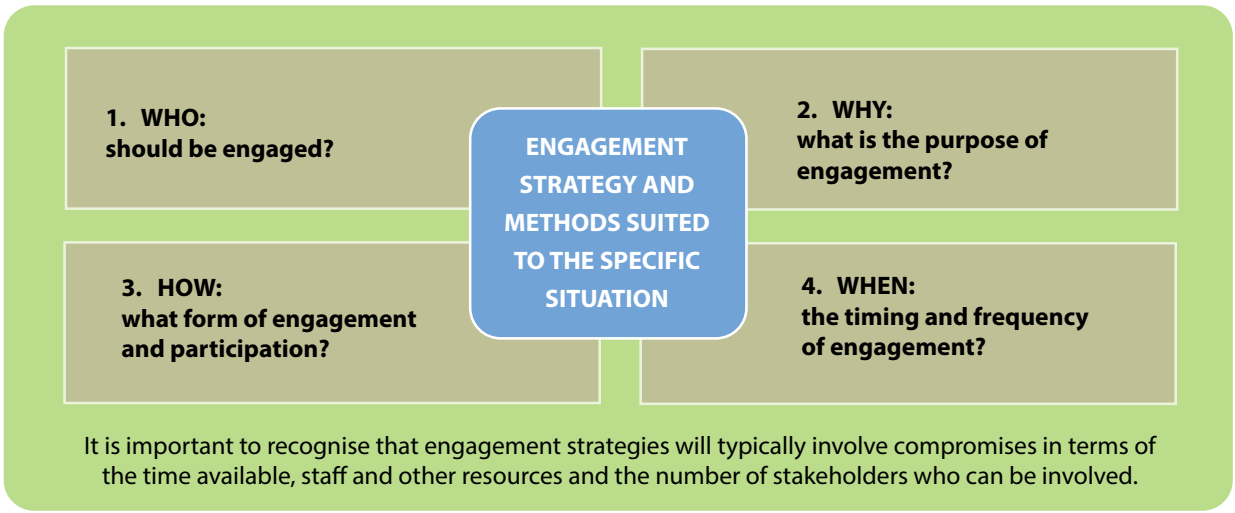

Figure 14.2 General framework to inform design of an engagement strategy

These are guiding principles not rules or the ingredients of a recipe, but they reflect the lessons accrued from participatory processes in natural resource and environmental management over many decades. If considered early and carefully, application of these principles will increase the likelihood of positive engagement.

The next four sections set out the four central variables of engagement and participation—who, why, how and when—as a basis for protected area managers in a specific situation to ask and answer four questions as part of designing and then implementing strategies for engagement and participation (Figure 14.2).

1. Who has an interest in protected area management in this particular situation, and thus which individuals and groups should be engaged with?
2. Why are these groups interested and what are their values? Or, what is the purpose of engaging these other parties in protected area management in this particular situation?
3. What is the appropriate form (or forms) of participation and engagement in protected area management for these groups and purposes, in this particular situation?
4. When is engagement required or best timed, and at what intervals?

Consideration of each of the principles above, and the frameworks and checklists presented in the following four sections, will increase the likelihood of selecting a suitable approach in a specific situation.

It is important to recognise that engagement strategies will typically involve compromises in terms of the time available, staff and other resources, the number of stakeholders who can be included in discussions and the degree to which all values and expectations can be dealt with. Trade-offs will be made by both protected area managers and other groups, and the principle of transparency instructs that at least these limitations be made apparent so that all involved have a shared understanding of the process in which they are engaged.

Engage with whom?

'Engagement' and 'participation' are bywords of modern politics, public policy and management, directing policymakers and agency staff to interact with the 'public', 'communities' and 'stakeholders'. The reasons for such engagement are often clear (see above, and 'Why: The purposes of engagement' section below), but who exactly is to be engaged—who constitutes the public or the community, and who has a stake or interest—may not be clear. As noted, different individuals and groups will have distinctly different reasons for being engaged with protected area management, whether invited to do so by park management or wishing or demanding to do so. There is no single or homogenous 'community', as people form communities around many, varied common interests. Table 14.1 defines the major different communities relevant to public participation and community engagement, and indicates the relevance of these to protected area management. Some of these are obviously relevant to protected area management, such as local (spatial) or recreational communities, and some less so, such as cultural or economic communities, but the latter structure social relationships and may be relevant or even crucial in some situations.

Table 14.1 Communities and stakeholders in environmental and natural resource management, with examples relevant to protected area management

Type of community	Basis of common interest
Spatial (place-based)	Determined by affinity with or stake in the condition of a spatially defined natural or human system (locality, district, region, jurisdiction). Local communities will have an interest in nearby protected areas, in terms of recreational opportunities, scenic amenity, employment, commercial prospects such as tourism, fire management, water catchment health, and so on
Placed-based communities within protected areas	A particular category of spatial or placed-based communities (above), who live within a protected area or who live nearby and are directly dependent on resources within those areas for cultural or livelihood reasons. Indigenous groups are especially important in relation to some protected areas
Political/electoral	Also geographically defined, but as citizens of the jurisdiction in which a particular public function is located and managed, and thereby can seek to influence management through voting or through contact with elected representatives—for example, a state/province where the government of that jurisdiction is responsible for protected areas, or a local government area where reserves are managed at the municipal level
Familial	Members of a located or extended family or kin network. A primary structuring variable of all societies, and more likely to be a secondary but possibly relevant consideration for protected area managers in engaging with communities
Cultural	Communities, possibly spatially defined but often not, linked by culture, ethnicity, religious belief, social ideology, and so on. Similar to familial, likely a secondary but influential variable for protected area management, defining opportunities for community information strategies through social networks or, for example, varied community attitudes to matters such as wildlife utilisation
Professional/economic	Recognisable groups of people, often spatially dispersed, linked by profession or employment within a particular career or business type. Individual interests or members of a broader grouping—for example, ecotourism operators, game guides, accommodation chains, professional nature photographers and so on—with an interest in the viability of or access to protected areas
Defined by incidents and events	Often organisational or professional, but the interest is defined by specific events wherever they may occur, such as military in times of conflict that affect protected areas, emergency and rescue services during disasters or accidents, and health services during disease outbreaks
Knowledge/epistemic	Communities defined by a knowledge system—for example, an academic discipline or special interest group, such as conservation biology, tourism studies or a geological heritage society
Issue-related	Groups given identity and purpose by interest in or commitment to a substantive issue, such as social services, disabled access to buildings, specific health issues and so on—for example, wildlife conservation societies, environmental NGOs, international conservation organisations, animal rights groups
Organised recreation	Groups linked through participation in or promotion of recreational activities (sporting groups, service clubs, and so on); game and hunting groups, bushwalking clubs, mountaineers, and so on
Tourism industry and tourists	Both providers and consumers of organised/promoted visitation and user services. While a combination of the economic and recreational categories above, they are significant enough to warrant separate recognition in the context of protected areas
Illegitimate or illegal individuals or communities	Individuals or networks of individuals engaged in illegal or unacceptable activities in the relevant context—for example, wildlife poachers, illegal hunters, drug producers, informal settlers (squatters), recreational users defying regulations

Source: Adapted and extended from Dovers and Hussey (2013)

These are broad categories and contain much variation, such as within illegal, recreational or epistemic communities. As such, the specific people and organisations, issues and concerns will vary greatly across places and situations. Importantly, one person may belong or relate to more than one community, such as a local community member who is a recreational user of a national park and also a member of, say, a birdwatching association or an industry alliance. Protected areas have multiple values and affect even more values outside their borders, and these resonate with deep-seated beliefs held in society; values are fundamental to people and must be taken seriously. Communities or networks of people form around common values and concerns and operate to pursue or protect those values, whether the values are recreational, commercial, criminal, cultural or environmental. The categorisation above is a device to encourage consideration of multiple values and therefore multiple communities.

Dealing with very different segments of the 'community' or 'public' will require careful choice of the style and means of communication. Some stakeholders and partners will expect formal communication, whereas others may only be comfortable with informal contact and discussion. Communication, including the format of meetings, should always be fashioned to suit the expectations of others, including being sensitive to cultural norms and standards. For example, formal meeting procedures involving a chair, set agenda and procedures for speaking may be inappropriate in some social and cultural settings. Local representatives are very useful in advising on the appropriate styles of engagement and communication.

Different groups within a society or community have varying degrees of power and resources, and different levels of access to information and thus uneven access to opportunities to engage. Also, certain groups with particular interests may dominate public discussions or engagement processes at the expense of other groups. Knowledge of a local community and of the political context of protected area management can inform strategies to ensure that all relevant groups have the opportunity to be heard.

Often, a particular 'community' may not have obvious relevance to protected area management, but may be valuable as an avenue for communication with others. Informal institutions (as distinct from formal ones) are important in natural resource management, particularly in rural and regional areas, representing social bonds, norms of behaviour and local knowledge (for example, Connor and Dovers 2004). Informal institutions and networks offer means of communication and

An example of successful engagement. Celebration near Bega in 2006 of the 'handback' of Biamanga National Park by the former New South Wales Government Minister for Aboriginal Affairs the Hon. Milton Orkopoulos and Minister for the Environment the Hon. Bob Debus AM (far right) to the Elders representing the Yuin Nation for future joint management with the NSW National Parks and Wildlife Service, Australia.

Source: Ian Pulsford

engagement. The knowledge of a local community that is held by locally based reserve workers can inform managers about the informal institutions and social networks that may be difficult to identify from the 'outside'; however, while the local worker may have the greatest understanding of local conditions and people, they may or may not have latitude in dealing with people with whom they interact—they may be required to adhere to agency policies and practices set by their superiors.

Note that the general description of these 'communities' could apply to a great variety of sectors and issues, such as health, equity or employment, as well as to protected area management. That is worth emphasising, as it reminds us that engagement and participation are major concerns in many other areas. Two considerations arise: first, that ideas and methods of engagement can be found in other areas, and second, that there will always be other calls on the time and attention of citizens, community groups and private and public sector organisations. On the latter, and recalling the general principle of respecting the limits of volunteerism and community capacity, the issue of 'burnout' has arisen in natural resource management (Byron and Curtis 2001).

Often the identification of 'communities' or stakeholders will be a matter of local or professional familiarity on the part of managers, and sometimes will be defined in a management plan, a regulatory process or by senior decision-makers. There are, however, more formal and detailed methods for identification of stakeholders, which may be used in cases where managers are unfamiliar with affected communities or where the import of the matter to be decided justifies greater effort. Stakeholder analysis and social network analysis are the principal methods employed and have been used in protected area contexts (for example, Eadens et al. 2009; Prell et al. 2009). Visitor and community surveys and public opinion polling may be used to identify those with an interest in protected area management or attitudes towards nature conservation and park management.

A final consideration relates to the membership of different communities by protected area managers and staff themselves, and to the local staff of other government agencies closely associated with protected area management. From Table 14.1, these individuals belong to the professional and knowledge communities as protected area employees, or employees of a forest agency or similar. Staff will also, however, be members of familial or local communities as residents of nearby settlements, and closely connected to family members, neighbours or members of social groups with quite different values. In many remote or regional areas, such staff may be among the small subset of the community with professional or tertiary qualifications, and often the only ones with formal qualifications in specific areas such as ecology or land management. Two important issues arise. First, identification of any conflict of interests should be part of designing an engagement exercise, where management staff may represent, or be expected to represent, interests that may conflict with management interests. Second, an engagement strategy may need to be designed in a sympathetic manner to prevent staff being placed in difficult or dangerous situations in their own communities by having to argue positions seen as counter to the interests of that community.

The core message of this section is that protected areas have many values, and thus are of interest to many individuals, communities and organisations who may be located nearby or at a distance. Protected area managers must recognise these multiple interests and be thorough in identifying and engaging all those who have a stake in the protected area/s in question, whatever their interest. This section has provided general guidance on answering the important question: who has an interest in protected area management in this particular situation?

Why: The purposes of engagement

In the section above, we see a wide range of individuals and groups with interests in protected areas. It follows that their interests and values—why they are interested—will vary also. Engagement strategies need to allow these different values to be identified and dealt with in a consultation or similar process. It may be that a government or protected area management body will decide that some interests (the who and the why) will not be attended to, and will decide the amount of power sharing or decision-making that others will enjoy—that is, the point on Arnstein's ladder (see above). Such decisions may be rational and defensible, but should be based on transparent consideration of the many possible purposes, so that purposes not included are excluded for a reason and not simply overlooked or forgotten. Table 14.2 describes broad categories of purpose along with examples from protected areas.

Identification of the purpose/s along with identification of stakeholders will inform the design of an engagement exercise. It is important that all those involved have a similar understanding of what the purpose of an engagement exercise is, and, equally importantly, *what is not* the purpose. If a consultation around protected area management cannot consider changes to certain management rules, that should be made clear. Should a change to a broader policy on access be outside the scope of a management plan review, that should be clearly understood to avoid misunderstanding or unrealistic expectations.

The core message of this section is that engagement with communities and other organisations is not singular in its purpose, but is undertaken to allow the realisation of different goals held by different individuals and groups. Protected area managers need to be clear about the goals to be achieved through engagement—that is, their own motivations but also those of partners—so that these purposes are more likely to be achieved. This section has provided general guidance on answering the important question: what is the purpose of engaging other parties in protected area management in this particular situation?

Table 14.2 The purposes of participation, with examples relevant to protected area management

Purpose	Explanation	Examples from protected area management
Social debate	Allow debate about broader social values and goals	Public debates and political debates over nature conservation, access, land-use conflicts, tourism development, user group conflict, major developments
Policy formulation	Define policy problems, formulate policy or develop policy principles	Input into policy processes concerning protected area declarations, management and use, via inquiries, interdepartmental liaison or input, the media, public opinion surveys, and so on
Statutory or management responsibility	To acquit professional or regulatory responsibilities, including law enforcement	Other land management agencies and so on who are engaged in policy and management interactions with protected area managers and agencies
Response to events or threats	To respond as a professional or community member to a specific event	For various reasons including community safety (for example, fire, flood, social conflict, war), ethical or cultural reasons (for example, threats to cultural sites, animal welfare) or economic or livelihood-related reasons (for example, illegal harvesting of locally important food resources)
Information and skills	Draw on particular expertise or information	Expert advisory boards or individual scientific advice, community reference groups
Policy implementation and program delivery	Implement or aid implementation of policy	Distribution of information relating to protected areas, assisting with regulatory monitoring or enforcement
Management	Engage in management or on-ground works	Protected area advisory boards or committees, park care or friends' groups, voluntary rangers, weed-control programs using volunteers
Research	To use protected areas as sites for research	Wildlife ecology, fire science, tourism research, and so on, often linked to monitoring
Environmental monitoring	Monitor environmental conditions	Water-quality monitoring, bird counts, weed surveys, and so on, undertaken by volunteers and community groups
Livelihood maintenance or commercial gain	Subsistence, income, maintenance of cultural assets and values	Commercial operators in or near protected areas, natural resource users, local and indigenous communities

Source: Adapted from Dovers and Hussey (2013)

How: Forms of engagement and participation

There is a large array of engagement and participatory frameworks and methods available, forming the 'toolbox' from which strategies can be constructed (for example, Hall and McArthur 1998; Beierle and Cayford 2002; Creighton 2005; Evans-Cowley and Hollander 2010; O'Faircheallaigh 2010). The scoping of 'who and why' above can guide the choice of approach, rather than selecting the means before the ends—that is, choosing the method before sufficient consideration of the intent and context.

A categorisation of forms of participation relevant to protected area management is presented in Box 14.2 (for another version, see Hall and McArthur 1998:75). Within each of these, more specific methods and processes will be available to managers.

There are multiple forms of engagement and public participation. Within each of the above there are choices of precise tools and methods. For example, seeking public input into policy or management proposals may be undertaken through online publication and submissions, mail-out surveys to identified recipients, local community meetings, liaison with relevant agencies, or a combination of these. Similarly, there are degrees of formality of possible arrangements for voluntary rangers or the activities of 'care' or 'friends' groups. The capacities of the management organisation and its staff, available resources, communication technologies available to the

Box 14.2 Forms of participation in environmental and natural resource management, with comments on the relevance to protected areas

Note: Any individual or group may be engaged in more than one form of participation, at the same time or over a period.

- **As voters** at different levels of government (national, state/provincial, local) in democratic systems, and **as individuals** via letters to political representatives or newspapers, submissions to government inquiries (now often online), giving opinions on talkback radio, and so on. Protected area managers will have little engagement with this form of public participation, although senior officials may be required to advise or respond publicly on behalf of their governments should reserves or conservation policy become politicised. As the visible face of protected areas, however, staff on the ground will be influential in how the public perceives protected areas and their worth.
- As members of **interest and pressure groups**, such as environmental NGOs, farmer groups, political parties or consumer associations. Protected area managers at both operational and senior levels will often have close and sustained relationships with such groups, at a single protected area scale or across an agency or jurisdiction. The interests and aims of such groups may be similar or in sharp opposition to those of protected area management.
- **As holders of rights** that are specified in law, management plans or contracts defining the use and allocation of resources. Local peoples residing within protected areas or dependent on and with rights to resources within them (in particular indigenous peoples), or commercial entities with access rights guaranteed by formal agreement.
- **As consumers,** through the fashioning of consumption and purchasing choices to support or avoid particular goods, services or issues. As some reserve systems adopt more full user costing (for example, entry fees) and/or incorporate commercial operations, visitors and users become as much consumers (paying for a desired experience) as citizens (enjoying a state-supplied recreational opportunity). This shift is likely to change the expectations of the visitor, and their relationship with protected area managers and workers. For example, user expectations of free facilities will likely be lower or more forgiving than the expectations of users who have paid for facility use.
- **As employees and workers** in many industries, trades and professions implementing new environmental practices and engaging with other firms or public agencies. Employees of firms or agencies supplying services to protected area or park agencies (fencing contractors, tour operators, cleaners at lodges, vehicle maintenance businesses, and so on) often have a close and sustained relationship with protected area agencies and their staff, will be required to comply with regulations and expectations and will convey to others perceptions regarding the worth of protected areas or the quality of management.
- **As recipients of information,** including scientific information about environmental change or messages about policy choices, changes or implementation. Visitors to reserves are often targeted with both specific and general messages regarding environmental protection, biodiversity conservation, heritage, and other matters.
- **As passive providers of information,** acting as targets of researchers, policy analysts or opinion polling firms who will inform policy choices and policy design, or **as active participants in research and monitoring** projects in resource and environmental management that will inform policy. Visitors and users of protected areas are often surveyed or otherwise monitored (passively), or more actively engaged in gathering and even analysing data. This covers monitoring environmental conditions (bird counts, weed surveys) and the success of management interventions. Users may also be utilised more intensively in research through participation in deliberative processes such as participatory 'charrettes' used in planning, citizens' juries or consensus conferences, the outcomes of which may influence management.
- **Through general statutory rights** in environmental and natural resource planning, including freedom-of-information laws, rights to object to or comment on development proposals, legal standing in courts or through environmental or social impact assessment processes. The declaration of reserves, proposals for management change or physical developments in or adjacent to protected areas may involve approvals and public comment processes under the regulatory regimes of the jurisdiction.
- **Through mediation or conflict-resolution** processes run to allow debate about and resolution of specific issues. Governments often utilise negotiation processes to resolve differences over specific matters and such processes may be used with regard to protected areas and their declaration or management, bringing managers into close engagement with an array of community and stakeholder groups.
- **Through input to policy proposals** or development approval processes such as government green or white papers, planning tribunals or panels, commissions of inquiry, parliamentary inquiries, policy discussion forums or task groups, and so on. Protected area matters may be the subject of such processes or part of the agenda of such (for example, around biodiversity or tourism generally), requiring managers to engage with the policy and political processes, supplying information or appearing before forums of this kind.

- **Through input into management plans,** constructed within broader policy processes. In many jurisdictions, this is a major opportunity for stakeholder engagement in protected area management, when management plans are created or periodically reviewed.
- **Through representation on advisory boards, committees**, and so on, tasked with advising government on policy or management in a particular area (for example, biodiversity conservation, forest management) or in a broader sense (for example, a national council on sustainable development).
- **Through inclusion on statutory management boards or committees** with a legal and administrative mandate and actual management function (as distinct from purely advisory functions). Many protected areas and reserve systems within jurisdictions have advisory boards or community representative committees and similar bodies, providing input to, commentary on or collaboration in management. These vary considerably in the degree of engagement and actual influence over management.
- **Through participation in community-based monitoring** groups and programs, whether community-led or government-sponsored or a combination of the two, targeting a specific issue and locality such as weeds or water quality, and **as members of community-based management groups** engaged in resource and environmental management targeting a specific problem in a particular locality. There is a diverse array of volunteer and community-based groups which are active in protected area management, such as park care groups, ornithological clubs, game associations, and so on, who often work in close collaboration with agencies and managers and provide data, physical activities or other services that supplement agencies' work.
- **In community-based or cooperative management arrangements** (co-management), where actual management responsibilities are defined and devolved and a strong degree of local autonomy exists. These arrangements may be limited to management within a set management plan, or extend to broader goal-setting and governance of the protected area. Multi-use protected areas, both terrestrial and marine, fishery conservation management zones and buffer zones operate in some places in a collaborative governance model where local communities and/or resource users are party to formal management arrangements. Many protected area systems engage local community members as voluntary rangers, with at least semi-formal status within the agency and the management regime.

Source: Adapted from Dovers and Hussey (2013)

local community, and the regulatory and policy settings governing protected area management will influence which specific methods are most appropriate.

An important consideration in choosing a form of engagement is the suitability of different media for communication between protected area managers and others (Chapter 15). The capacity of communities and other organisations is one determinant of the best means of communication: whether internet/email is appropriate, the literacy levels in certain community groups, the use of visuals such as maps or interactive programs, and the availability of media. The rapid evolution of information and communications technology, including social media, along with more traditional forms of communication, has expanded the range of options available. It is unlikely, however, that all members of, for example, a local community will have the same access to different communication mechanisms, and care is required to ensure that some people are not inadvertently excluded from engagement opportunities.

The core message of this section is that there is a range of participatory strategies and methods available, and communications media, to suit different purposes and people. As with anyone reaching into a toolbox, protected area managers should consider the who and why, and then select the form of participation—the 'how'—suited to their situation. This section has provided general guidance on answering the important question: what is the appropriate form of participation and engagement in protected area management in this particular situation?

When should engagement occur?

The appropriate timing for an exercise in engagement will vary according to the context, influenced by the need for engagement and the groups engaged. Table 14.3 presents a simple three-way typology of how often engagement may be needed that can inform better organisation and planning of an overall engagement strategy. As a rule, one key principle applies, notwithstanding that urgent issues will occasionally arise: earlier is better than later. Too late or effective communication will alienate partners and insufficient warning will frustrate or appear tokenistic (see Chapter 15).

Table 14.3 The timing of engagement, with generic examples from protected area management

Timing and regularity	Rationale	Examples
One-off or *ad hoc*	For specific purposes that arise at irregular or unpredictable intervals (note: the process for handling these circumstances may be guided by management plans or other regulatory or policy documents)	Consultation over tourism, and so on, development proposals in or near the protected area Unexpected outbreak and control programs for a pest species
Regular but occasional	An issue that is not constantly on the agenda but arises with some predictable regularity	Seasonal fuel reduction for fire protection Review of management plans at set intervals
Ongoing	Matters that are constantly on the agenda and thus need to be catered for by ongoing engagement provisions	Visitor experience surveys or opportunities to comment Meetings of management or advisory committees involving outside parties Planning with or feedback to park care or friends' groups or monitoring volunteers

The value of reviewing engagement against the appropriate timing and frequency is that maintenance and preparedness of such things as information and communication strategies, contact lists and staff resources will be regularised in work programs and thus not be forgotten or only attended to hastily. Not only can protected area managers be well prepared for effective engagement, but also due warning and preparation on the part of other individuals and groups will be possible.

The core message of this section is that engagement with communities and other organisations varies in the timing, requirements for preparation and regularity of contact and communication. Timing will vary across purposes and forms of engagement. This section has provided general guidance on answering the important question: when does an engagement strategy or process need to occur, at what intervals, and how can protected area management be prepared?

Conclusion

Protected area management involves negotiation, consultation, partnerships and sometimes conflict with neighbours, clients, customers and collaborators. These relationships embed protected areas within complex social, economic and institutional landscapes—far from the idea of reserves being managed in isolation as 'islands' in the landscape. This presents managers with both the challenge of how best to engage with diverse groups and individuals and the opportunities for better outcomes that these relationships offer. Engagement and collaboration have become—and will increasingly feature as—core competencies of protected area managers, requiring time, resources and skills. Also, adaptive management is most likely to succeed if the knowledge and skills of communities can be harnessed as well as communities being supportive of management initiatives.

Case Study 14.1 Engaging with indigenous people

Indigenous people are the original stewards of the environment, and in the 21st century they remain custodians of some of the most biologically diverse areas of the world. Some of these areas are owned and managed by indigenous peoples; in others rights of use and engagement are recognised in management; and in others these rights and uses remain unrecognised. Formal recognition of the importance of protected areas to indigenous peoples is recent. Since 1945, the United Nations and other organisations such as the International Labour Organisation (ILO) have been redressing historical legacies of dispossession and injustice experienced by indigenous communities, including removal from land declared as protected areas. Consultation with contemporary indigenous communities will therefore never be about conservation alone, but will always include issues around rights, social justice and reconciliation.

Who are indigenous people?

The United Nations and other international agencies choose not to have a formal definition, relying instead on a process of self-identification, and a working definition:

> Indigenous communities, peoples and nations are those which, having a historical continuity with pre-invasion and pre-colonial societies that developed on their territories, consider themselves distinct from other sectors of the societies now prevailing on those territories, or parts of them. They form at present non-dominant sectors of society and are determined to preserve, develop and transmit to future generations their ancestral territories, and their ethnic identity, as the basis of their continued existence as peoples, in accordance with their own cultural patterns, social institutions and legal system. (United Nations 2004:2)

This definition does not include indigenous peoples who form a nation's majority population and/or hold government power—for example, in most Pacific Island countries.

Under this definition, indigenous people make up about 5 per cent of the Earth's human population across some 90 countries (United Nations 2009). Geopolitical variation is considerable, from the largely integrated New Zealand Maori, who make up 15 per cent of the national population, to the tiny marginalised populations of Ainu in Japan and the Dyak of Borneo, and the widely scattered forest-dwellers of Central African rainforests and Saami reindeer herders of north Asia and Scandinavian Europe. They represent 15 per cent of the world's poor and many eke a living from the land as subsistence agriculturalists, pastoralists or hunter-gatherers.

Because of their position as original stewards, their continuing spiritual connections with nature and their often marginalised position in society, indigenous peoples' relationship with protected areas (and their managers) is unique. Meaningful consultation with indigenous peoples demands special attention by protected area managers, not least because indigenous people do not see themselves as just another stakeholder to be consulted—as a quote from an Indigenous Australian demonstrates:

> However it is not really an appropriate term to use when talking about Aboriginal communities. We have a very long association with the land, with deep spiritual connections. This means we view ourselves as owners of the land in a very real and unique way. These bonds we have with the land are only poorly captured by the term Stakeholder. (ANUTECH Development International 1998:8)

From the 1980s, a raft of national and international conventions, policies and legislation heralded a 'new paradigm' in nature conservation discourse that recognised the need for harmonising conservation goals with social and economic needs, with explicit statements around improving the way protected area agencies were engaging with indigenous people (Alcorn 2010). In 2008, the United Nations affirmed the rights of indigenous peoples, developed goals emphasising their participation and included some qualitative benchmarks (Larson 2006). The 2003 World Parks Congress (WPC) had a high level of representation from indigenous peoples who were very active throughout the congress in making their voices heard as 'rights-holders' (DeRose 2004). The WPC has been critical in progressing indigenous participation in protected area management.

Indigenous engagement in protected area management

All protected area categories invite some degree of participation from indigenous people within the broader milieu of engagement with civil society; however, the level of that participation varies greatly as does indigenous peoples' satisfaction with the outcomes. In protected areas where formal ownership by indigenous peoples exists, they are the managers, not simple participants. The 'rules of engagement' developed in the international arena encourage a process that goes beyond consultation—intended to do more than inform indigenous people about proposed actions in the protected area or seek comment on a draft management plan. Protected area Categories V and VI offer the greatest opportunities for collaborative arrangements with indigenous and local communities, encouraging equal partnerships and finding common objectives.

Successful partnerships have been forged in the context of other categories, the best known being joint management of national parks, particularly in New Zealand, Australia and North America. In this model, the land is owned by an indigenous group/organisation and leased back to the government as a national park, managed by a board of management containing a majority of indigenous traditional owners (Smyth 2001). This model gives almost equal decision-making power to the indigenous group and the other partner—usually the government. Australia also has a system of Indigenous Protected Areas (IPAs), which are premised on collaborative planning with Aboriginal landowners (Hill et al. 2011).

An example comes from the remote Kimberley region of Western Australia where the Uunguu people have prepared a 'healthy country' plan for the Wunamabal Gaambera IPA in collaboration with an NGO, Bush Heritage Australia (WGAC 2010). While Western science-based conservation action planning (CAP) (Chapter 13) has provided the framework for participatory planning, it was recognised that the process needed major adaptations in order to respect and support local priorities, governance structures, knowledge, capabilities and objectives. First, to support meaningful contributions by planning participants, the process, instead of being driven by conservation planners and facilitators, incorporated Indigenous governance structures, local protocols and priorities, including having meetings on country and adopting flexible time frames. Second, core CAP concepts, based on ecological processes and systems, were modified to incorporate categories defined by Wunambal Gaambera traditional owners and Indigenous cultural knowledge (Moorcroft et al. 2012).

The ensuing healthy country plan is a success in cross-cultural conservation planning in that it has been informed by Western approaches to conservation planning, while respecting and complementing Indigenous knowledge and approaches to land and water management. This demonstrates that traditional owners' aspirations to drive the conservation planning agenda for their ancestral estates can be achieved (Moorcroft et al. 2012).

A Wunambal Gaambera women's group discussing targets for their healthy country plan with Heather Moorcroft from Bush Heritage Australia

Source: H. Moorcroft

Outside formal protected areas, the IUCN recognises Indigenous Peoples' and Community Conserved Territories and Areas (ICCAs) as areas of high conservation value where collaborative governance with local and indigenous people is the basis for management. There are strong advocates for greater indigenous participation in all forms of natural resource management, to enhance conservation outcomes and maintain sustainable livelihoods (Ross et al. 2011).

Two important points emerge. First, proper consultation is a fundamental element of effective protected area partnerships with indigenous people. Poor systems of communication will see partnerships fail. Second, as a general rule, indigenous people view consultation as a means to an end—an end that is not confined to greater involvement in protected area decision-making but includes achieving social justice, jobs, empowerment, equality and reconciliation, and most importantly the right to care for cultural landscapes.

A vast social science literature exists on how to consult with indigenous people. For decades, global NGOs such as the Forest Peoples Programme and the International Institute for Environment and Development have witnessed serious cases of the removal of opportunities and denial of rights by multinational companies wanting to exploit the resources of poor countries. Much of the inequity is due to inadequate consultation, leading to misunderstandings and consent-giving that was far from fully informed. In response, these agencies have developed processes and policies to ensure that consultation and dialogue lead to equitable partnerships (Mayers and Vermeulen 2002). This knowledge base, together with a strong international framework, is an enabling environment in which protected area staff can engage with indigenous communities.

While each specific place and group of people is different and protected area managers must understand and respect those differences, there is a set of fundamental considerations in terms of why one should consult with indigenous people, and factors to consider when doing so.

Why consult with indigenous people?

Consultation with indigenous people is critical for the following reasons.

1. They are the original owners, who may have been removed from their land or are still living within a protected area. They have basic rights as original owners to participate in decision-making regarding the protected area.
2. Indigenous people hold traditional ecological knowledge that is applicable in a contemporary management context.
3. Indigenous people have a major stake in protected areas because they are some of the few places left on Earth where their traditional cultural landscapes remain relatively intact, which is important for cultural identity and as a basis for power-sharing arrangements.
4. Protected areas have been known to fail if they do not have the support of local indigenous people.

What are the important factors to consider?

1. Indigenous engagement in protected area management is invariably rights-based. Thus, there are always multiple agendas. A subject may seem 'off topic' but could be central to the community's interests.
2. If you are representing a government agency, the community may not trust you due to historical legacies. Building trust at an individual level is central.
3. Indigenous people are often disadvantaged, resulting in serious inequalities of power, which makes it difficult to negotiate in an equitable manner. Feelings of powerlessness tend not to lead to equitable negotiation outcomes. Indigenous people may not have the required skills and capacity to negotiate effectively or, in some cases, to understand fully what is being negotiated or discussed. They may not have the governance systems in place to respond to requests for information or to organise attendance at meetings.
4. Representation in indigenous communities is different from most other societies. The scale of consensus in indigenous communities is normally a few elders in a clan group or other social group. A protected area may involve many such groups who have no traditional systems for consensus across them all. You may find yourself negotiating with the wrong person or group or you may be frustrated because no-one is prepared to speak on behalf of anyone else.
5. Although subtle, cultural differences in interpersonal communications can be the cause of failure in consultation. For example, it is inappropriate to send a junior member of staff to negotiate with a senior knowledge-holder in the community (there are other examples; see Annandale and Feary 2009).
6. Everyone comes to the negotiating table with different agendas and expectations. Those of indigenous people will differ from those of a protected area manager, so it is critical that there are sufficient meetings and discussions to make everything clear.
7. In conclusion, indigenous peoples are special 'stakeholders', requiring special attention and respect. It is through the mechanism of effective participation that indigenous people can maintain or renew their connection with land and water, bringing with it a raft of benefits including social justice and improved protection of nature through the use of traditional knowledge.

Case Study 14.2 Cullunghutti Aboriginal Area: A partnership for protecting a mountain

Celebrating Cullunghutti: Rod Wellington (Jerrinja elder and Office of Environment and Heritage cultural heritage officer) delivers a speech at a gathering to celebrate declaration of the Cullunghutti Aboriginal Area, New South Wales, Australia, October 2013

Source: S. Feary

Cultural heritage projects where Indigenous people share cultural knowledge with protected area staff can lead to longer-term partnerships for protection of culturally significant places. Such was the case in the formal recognition of a sacred mountain near Nowra in south-eastern Australia. Although the cultural significance of Coolangatta Mountain (or Cullunghutti) to local Aboriginal communities had long been known to the NSW Office of Environment and Heritage (OEH), there had never been adequate documentation to support its legal protection. In 2004 the NSW National Parks and Wildlife Service (NPWS, a division of OEH) commenced an Aboriginal cultural heritage study aimed at informing management of several new nature reserves in the area. During this study, which involved extensive oral history research, the significance of the mountain became apparent (Waters and Moon 2005).

A few years later, a NPWS staff member noticed an advertisement for the sale of 67 hectares of private land on the slopes of Coolangatta Mountain and alerted the relevant section of OEH. Departmental staff met with local Aboriginal people to discuss the proposed purchase of the land, as their support was fundamental if the purchase was to proceed. There was majority support and the land was purchased in 2008. In 2011 it was declared as an Aboriginal Area under the *NSW National Parks and Wildlife Act*. This rarely used category protects places and features of outstanding cultural value to Aboriginal people.

From these early meetings, an informal committee of Aboriginal people representing organisations, community groups and families evolved, and meets regularly with protected area staff to discuss management of this small parcel of land. Creation of the Aboriginal Area has enabled discussion (and disagreement) about the issues of landownership, empowerment, the right to speak for 'country' and how best to protect land with cultural values. So, although the road has been and remains challenging, there are many very positive outcomes from the purchase and gazettal of the Cullunghutti Aboriginal Area.

Although the Cullunghutti Aboriginal Area is only small, its gazettal has meant the value of the whole mountain is appreciated and more widely understood by the non-Aboriginal community. This understanding has been augmented through a detailed 'Cullunghutti Living History Study', which has documented the values, stories and contact history of people from the district (Waters Consultancy Pty Ltd 2013). In October 2013, a joyous and moving Celebration Day was held to mark the establishment of the Aboriginal Area. This was the first time local Aboriginal communities had publicly told the story of the mountain and its cultural meaning.

Case Study 14.3 Engaging with philanthropists: The Yosemite experience

'Donors will solve all our fiscal problems.' While this might be true, to have a successful philanthropic program requires a major commitment of time and resources by the staff of the organisation, its board and the protected area agency. Protected areas are best served when both government and citizen stewards who are committed to the area work together for that common purpose. When citizens care enough, they also are committed enough to give of their personal time and financial resources. Philanthropy is the natural offspring of that caring.

Philanthropic groups, however, provide many important functions, not just fundraising, for protected areas. Many of these groups view protected areas as temples or their special place for spiritual restoration. Through their passionate communications, stewards are developed and nurtured. Through these groups, individuals with varying views and motives can share their love of place.

Private–public partnerships bring the best of both worlds together. These partnerships provide the margin of excellence for the protection of the resource and enhancement of the visitor experience well beyond what a government budget will ever accomplish. Private individuals and organisations can add extra value to the public resourcing of protected areas that forms the necessary foundation of conservation.

From the early history of the US National Park Service (NPS), personal philanthropy played a critical role in building the park system. In some areas, portions of land were privately purchased and donated to the NPS. Schoolchildren donated pennies during the 1920s and 1930s to help purchase the land that became Great Smoky Mountains National Park. In Yosemite National Park, the first museum on NPS land was built with a generous donation. As a result, the first NGO was established to manage the museum in 1923. Ninety-one years later, the Yosemite Conservancy carries on that tradition. These types of philanthropic partners were and are critical to the sustainability of our protected areas.

As this chapter makes clear, there are many different motivations for individuals and organisations to engage with protected areas; this is true of philanthropy as well. The focus here, however, will be on one primary aspect: stewardship. Besides raising funds to support a protected area's various needs, philanthropy can inspire individuals who are committed to the greater good of protecting the area. This connection to an area helps build the desire to protect and support a protected area. Stewardship is the commitment of both personal time and fiscal resources.

The Yosemite Conservancy donors make it possible to provide grants to Yosemite National Park to help preserve and protect Yosemite today and for future generations. The conservancy is dedicated to enhancing the visitor experience so that individuals are able to gain the most from their time in Yosemite; its supporters are the stewards of Yosemite. The conservancy provides more than 43 000 individuals with the opportunity to express how much they value Yosemite through their commitment of support. Part of the conservancy's mission is to enrich the visitor experience, thereby helping to create potential new stewards for Yosemite. A key part of building new stewards is focusing a major grant area on youth. Yosemite Conservancy helps about 27 000 young people to appreciate the park each year.

Wildlife and resource management projects are, of course, also an important aspect of Yosemite's grant program. Yosemite Conservancy has provided grants to reintroduce bighorn sheep (*Ovis canadensis sierra*), help protect peregrine falcons (*Falco peregrinus*) and study and reintroduce yellow-legged frogs (*Rana sierra*), to name a few. Habitat restoration is another important component of the conservancy's grant program. The restoration of the Mariposa Grove of giant sequoias (*Sequoiadendron giganteum*) is the next major grant effort of the conservancy, which will commemorate the 150th year of Yosemite as a protected area.

Bighorn sheep (*Ovis canadensis*), Banff National Park, Canada

Source: Graeme L. Worboys

Important lessons

Philanthropy is a partnership that needs to be nurtured. The agency's role is to manage the protected area; the philanthropic group's role is to provide support in the form of grants, projects and programs. Both entities need to respect each other's roles and responsibilities—a hard task that takes vigilance. One entity attempting to manage the other can only lead to the downfall of the partnership. The key to avoiding this downfall is a comprehensive signed agreement that sets the framework for the relationship between the two organisations.

A philanthropic group should not focus on advocacy. The primary purpose is to support the needs of the managing agency for the protected area with grants that are supported by its donors.

How do you keep donors engaged and excited? They need to be kept informed of the activities of both the non-profit organisation and the protected area. Donors want to see their resources being effectively used. They want to know that their donations will not offset the government agency's budget but rather will be in addition to government funds. Grants need to be expended on time and within budget while achieving the goals of the project. Transparency and reporting back to donors are essential. Yosemite Conservancy's success on more than 450 projects with more than US$80 million over the past few years is based on a partnership with the NPS that delivers completed grants and projects that donors can see and be proud of.

Every year, the NPS provides Yosemite Conservancy with a list of grant requests. The board of the conservancy selects the projects that they feel will most excite donors and that will provide that margin of excellence above the government budget. This process works well for the conservancy. Hopefully, you too will find your perfect formula for your successful partnership.

Case Study 14.4 Engaging with philanthropic organisations: An Australian perspective and a New Zealand example

Philanthropic organisations and individuals have been significant catalysts in the growth and development of public and private protected areas in Australia and are likely to play an increasing role in environmental conservation. With overall giving levels as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) being slightly lower in Australia than in the United Kingdom and Canada, and much lower than in the United States, and the contributions of wealthy individuals being lower, philanthropy in Australia has strong potential for growth.

The giving landscape

Government initiatives are key to the strengthening of the sector. According to Philanthropy Australia (2014), the peak body for philanthropy in Australia, the implementation of tax incentives, the growth in workplace giving programs and an increased public awareness of the benefits of philanthropy are leading to increases in giving.

Philanthropy Australia (2014) estimates there are approximately 5000 foundations in Australia giving between A$500 million (US$466 million) and A$1 billion (US$932 million) annually. In addition, individual taxpayers claimed more than A$2.2 billion (US$2.05 billion) in deductable donations in 2010–11, which represents a substantial investment in philanthropy. According to a Credit Suisse report (Sydney Morning Herald 2013), however, by some measures Australians are the richest in the world and the richest 10 per cent of Australians have seen the biggest income growth over the past three decades—a growth as yet unmatched in the level of giving.

Australians direct about 7 per cent of their total philanthropic giving to environmental issues. While this is not insignificant, and there are gains being made in the area of environmental conservation, the escalating threats are such that more people need to give more. The Australian Environmental Grantmakers Network, an organisation supporting environmental grant makers, has more than 80 members including individual philanthropists, trusts and foundations.

In 2011–12, the Australian Government reported public donations of about A$130 million (US$121 million) 'to assist the protection and enhancement of the natural environment' (SEWPAC 2013:193). Research by the network suggests the majority of those donations go to biodiversity funding, with about 65 per cent of network members supporting biodiversity. Support for biodiversity protection includes grants to community groups for the acquisition and management of private protected areas and for advocacy towards more and better-managed public protected areas.

While the most noticeable tranches of funding go to land acquisition and large projects, smaller donations collectively also contribute substantially to biodiversity protection. There remain many funders who support smaller projects with tangible aims such as invasive species control, tree planting and species monitoring. Individual donors also support community groups advocating for the environment with smaller amounts of money. Indeed, a large number of small donations helped achieve the world's first comprehensive set of marine national parks along Victoria's coastline in 2002, and a collaboration of foundations and individuals funded advocacy for a new national network of marine parks in 2013—the world's largest.

Catalysts and leaders

In recent decades there have been a number of individuals and organisations who have played a catalytic role in the growth of Australia's protected areas.

In the early 1990s, an individual philanthropist, Martin Copley, funded the purchase of five properties in Western Australia covering 450 000 hectares in the Kimberley, south-western Australia and the World Heritage-listed Shark Bay. His passion for the land and its native animals led him to establish the Australian Wildlife Conservancy, which, with the support of contributions from a diverse group of Australians, now owns and manages more than 3 million hectares across the country.

Another individual philanthropist, David Thomas of The Thomas Foundation, leveraged an additional A$12.6 million (US$11.7 million) of private money and A$6.2 million (US$5.8 million) of government funding, on top of his foundation's commitment of A$10 million (US$9.3 million), to contribute to a range of protected area projects. One of these was Gondwana Link in south-western Australia—a biodiversity hotspot. Operating at a large landscape scale, Gondwana Link represents a new way of integrating public, private and Indigenous land to ensure biodiversity protection. Philanthropic support such as Thomas' has ensured that this grand vision can be realised and is an inspiration for many similar projects. Organisations as well as individuals have pioneered private and philanthropic involvement in nature conservation and protected area initiatives; in Australia and other countries, two examples are the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) and Earthwatch.

Engagement considerations

In engaging with philanthropists to enlist support for future projects, a complex range of factors needs to be considered.

Private protected areas are largely supported by philanthropic funding and managed by organisations such as the Australian Wildlife Conservancy and Bush Heritage Australia. The philanthropic support is often made up of large, catalytic contributions (often for land acquisition or a key project) from an individual or foundation (often matched by government), which is then bolstered by many small donations by individuals. The support for protected areas and for biodiversity generally is an attractive proposition for those seeking to donate, because of people's personal connections to particular landscapes, the appeal of areas of great natural beauty and the long-term benefits of the investment in land acquisition and management. Such considerations of what motivates and inspires philanthropists need to be taken into account, and are also relevant given current opportunities for involvement in protected area projects.

The opportunity for philanthropic participation in protected area management has increased in response to an expansion of protected areas under Indigenous, not-for-profit or joint management. Currently, Indigenous people govern just more than 30 per cent of Australia's natural reserve system (SEWPAC 2012). With these opportunities come further challenges in engaging funders; increasingly, philanthropic funds are being applied to projects that are multidimensional in their approach and aim to address not just the environment, but also health, social justice and education. Indigenous Protected Areas (IPAs) and

Doug Humann, former CEO of Bush Heritage Australia (a conservation NGO), speaking to community representatives including donors at the launch of Scottsdale Conservation Reserve in southern New South Wales. The land was purchased with funding from philanthropic donors and the Australian Government's National Reserve System program in March 2007, for protection of the Southern Tablelands endangered box gum grassy woodlands under an in-perpetuity conservation agreement.

Source: Ian Pulsford

Indigenous land and sea management programs are projects of this nature.

In addition to these considerations, despite the popularity for environmental philanthropists of supporting protected areas, most environmental NGOs agree that accessing philanthropic funding is difficult. Outside regular fundraising campaigns (usually seeking small amounts of money from supporters and members), the vast majority of philanthropic funds, and particularly the large donations, come from unadvertised sources, and most commonly at the instigation of the philanthropist and not the organisation seeking funds.

For philanthropists and grant seekers, there are also legal and taxation issues to consider. Depending on the vehicle for funding, most philanthropists and philanthropic entities require their beneficiaries to have deductible gift recipient (DGR) status. Securing DGR status is often a complex and time-consuming process, and one that is prohibitively onerous for smaller, volunteer-run groups.

Furthermore, despite the large number of foundations in Australia, the vast majority have relatively small distributions, and few or no staff. Indeed, many trusts and foundations have limited capacity to accept applications and undertake research, do not have open granting processes and there is limited information on individual trusts available publicly. There are limited requirements for the philanthropic sector to report on its activities publicly.

In the context of securing funds, it is worth remembering that in most cases, philanthropists are not obliged to give. They do so because of their passion, their generosity and their desire to leave a positive legacy. Good communication, honesty and respect are key to fostering and maintaining strong philanthropic relationships.

Project Janszoon: A New Zealand example

Project Janszoon (2014) is a privately funded trust, working in partnership with the Abel Tasman Birdsong Trust, New Zealand's Department of Conservation (DOC) and the community, to ensure biodiversity values are restored and enhanced in Abel Tasman National Park. This iconic national park is located at the top of the South Island and although it is New Zealand's smallest at 23 500 hectares, it attracts 150 000 visitors annually, who enjoy its great beauty and birdlife while tramping and kayaking. Like most national parks, however, Abel Tasman has its fair share of weeds and feral animals, and DOC recognises the critical role of philanthropy in addressing these problems.

Successful reintroduction of key bird, plant and animal species into Abel Tasman National Park is a high priority for Project Janszoon, which is currently targeting the removal of exotic weeds, rats and stoats. The latter were introduced in the late 1880s to control introduced rabbits and hares and are now a major threat to native birds and animals. Since 2012, Project Janszoon, together with the DOC and assistance from local high schools, has laid out more than 2000 stoat traps across the park. Stoat numbers are now sufficiently low to allow the first mainland reintroduction of a critically endangered species. Early in 2014, 12 specially bred kakariki or yellow-crowned parakeets (*Cyanoramphus auriceps*) were released to join the few remaining individuals still surviving in more remote corners of the park.

Janszoon is the middle name of Abel Tasman, a Dutch explorer who sighted New Zealand in 1642. Project Janszoon Trust was established by a philanthropic family from the North Island and has been operating since 2012. With strong community support and a very positive relationship with the DOC, Project Janszoon has been able to set itself the goal of transforming the ecology of the park over the next three decades, leading up to the December 2042 celebration of the 400th anniversary of Abel Janszoon Tasman's visit to this land, and the centenary of the formation of Abel Tasman National Park.

Case Study 14.5 Collaborating with recreation stakeholders: The International Mountaineering and Climbing Federation experience

In the first decade of the 20th century, a collaborative and productive relationship between US President Theodore Roosevelt and a diverse group of recreational users such as fishers, horseriders, hunters, hikers and mountain climbers led to the creation of 17 million hectares (170 000 square kilometres) of national forests, 53 national wildlife refuges and 18 areas of 'special interest' such as the Grand Canyon National Park. Today, these protected areas continue to draw millions of recreationalists and other visitors from around the world each year to enjoy their spectacular natural, recreational and cultural resources.

Recreational 'bouldering' is a popular activity for developing climbing skills in Joshua Tree National Park in California, USA

Source: Clancy Pamment

By forging a respectful, mutually beneficial and collaborative working style and a shared vision for the conservation of these special places they all cherished, Roosevelt and these diverse protected area stakeholders also created a radical shift in the concept and scale of land management in the world. The result was the creation of a continental network of national parks, national forests, national seashores, national wildlife refuges and preserves, open to all visitors at little or no cost. This system remains a global model for creating and sustaining parks and other types of protected areas.

From the beginning of his presidency in 1901, Roosevelt understood that he could not succeed in creating his large-scale conservation vision for America on his own, but needed the help of the powerful recreational stakeholders of that era, who all wanted continued access to protected areas to pursue their activities. He focused on creating a viable 'path to stewardship' by finding ways to bring the stakeholders together positively and constructively to discuss their competing and shared goals, special interests, ideas and concerns. He then pointed out the long-term benefits to all of them if they adopted and supported his grand conservation vision, which offered a prestigious shared sense of stewardship and pride.

Today, recreationalists are still highly concerned about issues of access to pursue their activities in protected areas. Their power and influence are formidable. In 2012 the US outdoor recreation industry estimated that it generated approximately US$646 billion in economic activity and 6.1 million direct jobs, making it three times larger than the oil and gas industry (OIA 2012). These totals include the other sectors the outdoor recreation industry relies on, such as manufacturing, retail and sales, transportation and warehousing, and accommodation and services near outdoor recreation sites.

The collaborative 'path to stewardship' process used by Roosevelt is equally useful today to help recreational stakeholders support protected areas. It can also be an important tool for recreationists and other protected area stakeholders to find innovative ideas and effective ways to minimise their impacts on protected areas. Two examples follow.

Promoting stewardship

In 2012 the International Mountaineering and Climbing Federation (Union Internationale des Associations d'Alpinisme: UIAA) sought a way to promote mountain stewardship and minimise the impacts of mountain travel, mountaineering and rock climbing around the world. Their first impulse was to simply seek out and fund a number of worthy mountain protection projects. Although this sounded simple, it proved time-consuming, limited geographically and difficult to fairly compare the value of the projects.

The UIAA realised it would have greater success in finding valuable projects if it instead collaborated as a 'stakeholder bridge' between the much larger worlds of mountain tourism and mountain protection. So in 2013, the UIAA successfully launched its Mountain Protection Award for Stewardship (UIAA 2013a). This annual award offers a generous cash prize to a guide service, community, association or travel agency whose work in a mountain region of the world effectively addresses at least one of the following long-term stewardship issues:

- conservation of biodiversity
- sustainable energy and resource management
- waste management and disposal
- adaptation to, or mitigation of, the effects of climate change
- preservation of local and indigenous cultures and promotion of education for all.

With this system, the UIAA can showcase and promote a number of well-designed mountain stewardship projects or programs around the world on its website each year, and then reward one of them with focused global media attention and a significant cash prize to help them continue their programs and achievements. This approach, as opposed to investing in a small number of separate projects, serves to have a wider impact through recognition and communication of good practice, reaching the wider community of recreational stakeholders and others engaged in protected area management.

From conflict to collaboration

Since the mid-20th century, spontaneous access to outstanding and diverse recreational opportunities has greatly increased public interest in and support for protected areas around the world. As urbanisation continues to spread and societies adopt modern communication technologies, more people are choosing to move to regions in or near protected areas. Today, protected areas are not only perceived as natural places to enjoy as a contrast with 'civilisation'. Those with a variety of recreational opportunities are now also perceived as high-value, low-cost, health-enhancing regional amenities.

Although the increased popularity of protected areas can increase visitation pressures and impacts, it can also create stronger public engagement and political support for continued protection. Protected area managers who engage proactively, regularly and productively with recreational users often discover that they can be motivated and skilled stewardship partners.

When engaging with diverse recreational users, collaborative governance and adaptive management (explored in this chapter) offer protected area managers a framework to create a valuable role for each type of recreational user (hikers, mountaineers, horseriders, fishers, and so on). By actively engaging and meeting with recreational user groups periodically, managers can better understand their special values, interests, motivations and concerns, and how they connect—physically and mentally—to protected areas.

Mountaineering on the Dent du Géant, Mount Blanc Massif, France

Source: Clancy Pamment

Managers need to recognise that each type of recreation has its own, different set of shared values, history and style of communication. An effective way to engage with various recreational user segments is to pair them with staff members or local community members who are also enthusiasts of that recreation. These individuals then serve as key contacts for the protected area—a trusted link between the protected area managers and recreational users. This simple step can create a great leap forward in building a relationship with recreational users.

For example, mountaineers and rock climbers around the world have a long history of leadership in helping to create and promote protected areas, especially in mountain regions; however, their unconventional and individualistic sport cultures can sometimes lead to conflicts with management. In 1997 the UIAA, representing 4.5 million members of the global climbing community (UIAA 2013b) helped the American Alpine Club (AAC) to engage collaboratively with the US National Parks Service (NPS) to represent rock climbers from around the world, as historical and traditional stakeholders in Yosemite National Park, a UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) World Heritage site.

After a cataclysmic flash flood on the Merced River raged through Yosemite Valley in 1997, part of the initial NPS recovery plans called for rebuilding hotel rooms away from the river, placing them instead adjacent to Camp 4, the rustic, traditional climbers' campground, which is on higher ground. Alerted by the AAC and the UIAA, climbers from around the world voiced their strong opposition to this plan, which they felt would degrade the natural camping experience at Camp 4. Initial discussions between the NPS and AAC failed to resolve the issue and a lawsuit was filed to stop the planning process.

The situation improved greatly, however, when the NPS sent one of their planning staff, a well-known and respected Yosemite climber, to meet with AAC and UIAA representatives and leaders from the local climbing community. He was very effective in communicating the huge challenges the NPS planners faced in crafting a realistic recovery plan that balanced the interests of all Yosemite stakeholders during the flood recovery effort. The climbers regarded him as a trusted messenger, able to effectively communicate their needs, concerns and ideas back to the NPS.

This colleague bridged the divide between stakeholders and enabled the first tentative interactions that eventually bloomed into a collaborative relationship between 'the climbers and the rangers'. A lasting tribute to this successful collaboration arrived in 2003, when Camp 4 was officially listed on the National Register of Historic Places by the US Department of the Interior. An official bronze plaque placed near a popular climbing boulder in Camp 4 now reminds campers and visitors of this special designation.

The more valuable outcome of this contention, however, has been the strong, respectful and collaborative stakeholder relationship that has expanded since that time. By using the 'spark' of this trusted emissary who shared the values of both groups, climbers and NPS officials ignited a warm and mutually beneficial dialogue that led to common ground on this issue in Yosemite National Park.

Impressive progress can be made in protected area management when recreational users are not seen as 'part of the problem' but rather are productively engaged as respected partners who can be 'part of the solution'. By developing a mutually beneficial and collaborative working style such as this, based on mutual respect and a shared vision for these places, protected area stakeholders can optimise the concept and scale of land management.

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