CHAPTER 3
INTERNATIONAL BEST PRACTICES REVIEW

In this chapter…

Overview of Best Practices in World Heritage Sites:

International Best Practices

Current Issues  Management Practices
3.1 INTRODUCTION

PriceWaterhouseCoopers (n.d.) defines Best Practices as follows…

“Best practices are simply the best way to perform a business process. They are the means by which leading companies achieve top performance, and they serve as goals for other companies that are striving for excellence.

Best practices are not the definitive answer to a business problem. Instead, they are a source of creative insight for improving your business. By adapting best practices to their specific needs, companies can dramatically affect performance, leading to breakthrough performance that saves time, improves quality, lowers costs, and increases revenue.”

In this chapter an attempt will be made to highlight the international Best Practices regarding the management of World Heritage sites in general (see Figure 3-1). This chapter provides a benchmark against which the Management Authorities of World Heritage sites can measure themselves in terms of their own practices.

Figure 3-1: Schematic Representation of the International Best Practices Literature Review
(Author’s own)
This research study has found that few site managers can articulate Best Practices applied by them. When questioned by means of interviews and e-mail correspondence all stated that no Best Practices existed for the management of World Heritage sites. As a result an attempt has been made in this study to extract Best Practices from the Periodic Reports made to UNESCO by various regions such as Africa, the Arab States, the Asia-Pacific region, Australia and New Zealand, Northern America and Latin America, as well as Europe. These Periodic Reports are based on the application of the World Heritage Convention and presented to UNESCO every six years.

Countries that are party to the World Heritage Convention, also known as State Parties, nominate sites for World Heritage inscription for a number of reasons. These reasons include the opportunity to access international conservation expertise; the perceived economic benefits resulting from increased tourism activities; access to the World Heritage Fund; or recognition and prestige associated with achieving World Heritage status (Leask & Fyall, 2006:11-17).

According to the World Heritage Convention’s operating guidelines, all inscribed sites must demonstrate a management strategy, which ideally operates through participatory means. Scrutiny of these systems should be rigorous as the effective management of important destinations such as World Heritage sites impacts on its sustainability. However, UNESCO cannot legally force any State Party to do as UNESCO wishes, it can merely prescribe and it is up to State Parties to interpret and enforce any guidelines and directions as they see fit (UNESCO, 2005:225).

Richon (2007:186-188) poses the question how a World Heritage site manager who was trained in conservation should deal with management issues and particularly human resources related issues. A particular concern at World Heritage sites is that heritage specialists are expected to cope with the everyday burdens of accounting and budgets, unions, tourists and social conflicts. As managers of the World Heritage sites they are expected to deal with the various stakeholders, resolve conflicts and deal with all manner of management issues. Site managers are often
confronted with issues related to staff members and thus need to be conversant with Human Resources Management principles. Dealing with staff may possibly be the most difficult part of their day as it is crucial to the success of the site management. Site managers must submit budgets and make optimal use of often limited financial resources. They need to raise funds for conservation. They must also have a basic knowledge of law in order to deal with contracts and other legal issues. They should also know their limits and responsibilities in terms of the relevant legislations.

World Heritage site managers manage a site that is directly affected by tourism. They need to understand the tourism industry and how it functions, its trends and stakeholders and its potential advantages and disadvantages. An understanding of marketing and communication is also essential to be able to position their site as a destination of choice. The managers of World Heritage sites must also be able to assess threats to the values of the sites in order to plan ways to mitigate these threats. They must work with external stakeholders and maintain a long-term symbiotic relationship with them for the good of the site. Lastly, they must be able to clearly define the vision for their organization and outline a strategy and objectives that will help in achieving their vision (Richon, 2007:186-188).

It is reasonable to assume that effective management will be enforced when Best Practices are followed. UNESCO (2006) defines ‘Best Practice’ as a creative and sustainable practice and an inspirational guideline, that has potential for replication and which can contribute to policy development. Best Practices can be a technique, method, process or activity that is more efficient (involves the least amount of effort) and effective (has the best results) at delivering a particular outcome. Best Practices are defined as successful initiatives which:

- have a demonstrable effect and tangible impact on improving people’s quality of life;
- is the result of public, private, and civic sectors of society working effectively in partnership;
- are sustainable on a social, cultural, economic and environmental level.
‘Best Practices’ is a very useful concept and can be described as a standard way of doing things and has been used by multiple organizations in management, keeping in mind that processes will need to change as times change. Best Practices also ought to suit the individual needs of unique sites. Thus, Best Practices are methods that have consistently shown positive results and which can be used as a benchmark or standard to strive for.

3.2 CRITICAL ISSUES IN THE INVESTIGATION OF BEST PRACTICES

3.2.1 Implications of World Heritage Listing

As illustrated in Table 3-1, several implications result for any destination listing as a World Heritage site. These can include certain benefits, costs, several opportunities and certain threats. The greatest benefits follow where a clear plan and management structure is in place in accordance with UNESCO’s Operational Guidelines, and conversely sites are threatened where less developed planning and management frameworks exist (Hall & Piggin, 2001:103-105; Leask & Fyall, 2006:11-17).

Table 3-1: Key Implications of World Heritage Listing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LISTING IMPLICATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Hall & Piggin, 2001:103-105; Leask & Fyall, 2006:11-17)
3.2.2 Tourism at World Heritage Sites

A key motivator for possible inscription is often the perceived benefit that will be gained from the resultant increase in tourism activity. Hall and Piggin (2001:103-105) have studied the actual economic impact of listing in terms of increased visitation and income, but were not able to arrive at any definite conclusion, mainly due to a lack of data at even the most developed sites. Therefore it is unclear whether increased tourism activity is a direct result or consequential result of listing.

A further issue is the balancing of tourism and conservation, often leading to conflict between the many stakeholders of World Heritage sites. Pedersen (2002:13-20) states that the grounds on which a site is inscribed and protected are the very reasons why tourists flock to these sites. Often stakeholders have conflicting agendas and this is very prominent in the conflict between tourism and conservation. Successful, sustainable destination management is most likely when there is a realistic appreciation of the balance between tourism and the need to conserve (McKercher, Ho & du Cros, 2005: 539-548).

3.2.3 Lack of International Best Practices

According to Leask and Fyall (2006:11-17) a critical flaw in the whole process of World Heritage site listing is the fact that UNESCO does not invite nominations for inscription based on nonbiased criteria but that each State Party nominates their own properties. This often results in a highly politicised process where sites are nominated and managed not in a universally acceptable and non-political manner but very much to further individual agendas.

Furthermore, although UNESCO requires a management plan to be in place as a prerequisite for inscription, such plans are often slow to realise. UNESCO leaves the management of the World Heritage sites up to the State Parties and unfortunately no clear off-the-shelf list of international best practices exists. A recent study by Garrod,
Leask and Fyall (2007:21-42) compared selected management practices among tourist destinations in Scotland, Australia, Canada and New Zealand. Their study found no strong evidence to suggest that the managers of tourist destinations in these countries have necessarily identified and are following a common ‘international best practice’. This finding was confirmed by this research study. A problem identified by Garrod et al., is that there exists a scarcity of reliable management information, with most of the data’s focus being on basic supply and demand figures, such as the number of days the sites are open to the public and visitor numbers.

The World Heritage Centre itself acknowledges that there is no "miracle recipe", but only principles which need to be applied. They list sites such as the Tubbataha Reef Marine Park in the Philippines, Dorset and East Devon Coast in the United Kingdom, Tongariro National Park (New Zealand), Sian Ka’an in Mexico, the Galapagos Islands in Ecuador and the Ujung Kulon National Park in Indonesia as examples to be emulated. Although all World Heritage sites are different in nature, context and issues, several key themes for Best Practices management have been identified with regard to World Heritage sites namely “raising awareness; increasing protection; enhancing funding; improving management and harnessing tourism” (Richon, 2008).

3.3 BEST PRACTICES MANAGEMENT

The sources from which potential international Best Practices were obtained for the purposes of this study were amongst others the Periodic Reports made to UNESCO by regions such as Africa, the Arab States, the Asia-Pacific region, Australia and New Zealand, Northern America and Latin America, as well as Europe. These reports are excellent at highlighting many of the operational issues found at World Heritage sites but often do not focus on strategic levels.
Any Best Practices must be adapted to the political, historic, cultural, social and economic context of the society in question. Best Practices on management of World Heritage sites should have the following characteristics (UNESCO, 2006):

Table 3-2: Characteristics of Best Practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Best Practices are:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Best Practices are innovative with new and creative solutions to common problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Best Practices make a difference. It creates a positive and tangible impact on the World Heritage sites.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The result of the Best Practices should be sustainable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Best Practices have the potential for replication and can serve as an inspiration to generate policies and initiatives elsewhere.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from UNESCO, 2006)

If we accept that following Best Practices will greatly enhance the chance of success, what are the best practices that should be followed to sustain effective management of World Heritage sites? Although a prerequisite for inscription is that a management plan must be declared for each World Heritage site as well as a periodical report to UNESCO, the World Heritage Convention allows for each member state to outline its own principles for the management of heritage sites.

Evidence from the periodic reporting of management and best practices indicates that (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005a):

- State Parties still control much of the information and governments tend to regard the reports as a form of certification (there is no mention of evaluation and State Parties do not expect to receive feedback), which makes it difficult to obtain the site manager’s honest reflections;
- Although data-driven processes have strengths, there are risks that if data is inaccurate (as is the case for instance with marine protected areas on the World Database on Protected Areas) then the whole reporting structure is skewed. The benefit of databases are that they can be updated regularly so that information is available;
There is a lack of consistency between countries and even between sites in the way that reports are presented, how information is collected and who makes the interpretation;

There appears to be a lack of understanding about the World Heritage Convention within many governments;

It is important to look at what different stakeholders such as the World Heritage Centre, the government, protected area managers and other stakeholders want from managing the site and periodic reporting;

Flexibility of reporting or evaluating means that even within a site there is a strong chance of inability to compare over time because different managers will report in different ways.

### 3.3.1 A Review of Current Experience and Key Best Practices

The World Heritage site Convention is regarded as one of UNESCO’s most successful international agreements and is widely ratified. Ratification imposes certain obligations on the member states. International law cannot be enforced as strictly as domestic law and often the obligation to conform to the stipulated regulations is a moral one and enforcement is based on the pressure of international relations (Hall, 2006: 21-34). Figure 3-2 below provides a graphic representation of the percentage of World Heritage sites by region.

**Figure 3-2: World Heritage Sites by Region**

(UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004e)
Best Practices will be discussed with reference to the regions as illustrated in Figure 3-2. However, examples will be chosen from selected areas where appropriate in order to illustrate a specific point and not necessarily from each region in turn. Ideally, it would have been suitable to use examples and illustrations from African World Heritage sites but owing to the fact that many African states have inadequate management records and accounts of their natural and cultural heritage and insufficient mechanisms in place for safeguarding their heritage, examples of Best Practices from this region are limited (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2003b).

- **Arab States**
  The Arab region comprises 18 State signatories to the World Heritage Convention, distributed in three geographical sub-regions: North Africa, the Arabian Peninsula, and the Middle East. World Heritage properties in the Arab region are threatened by development pressures linked to urban and agricultural expansion, tourism, pollution and the exploitation of natural resources (oil, mining industry and fishing). Other factors threaten these properties, such as armed conflict or the illicit traffic of cultural property (looting, illicit destruction and sale of cultural and historical objects). Such dangers to the preservation of heritage have led to the inscription of six properties in the Arab region on the List of World Heritage in Danger since 1988 (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

- **Europe**
  Europe has a long history of heritage conservation. The diversity of Europe’s cultural and natural heritage, and its cultural traditions and religious history, partly accounts for the 384 properties inscribed on the World Heritage List. A majority of these sites are cultural properties, mainly architectural monuments, historic centres and archaeological sites. Natural heritage sites in Europe are mainly vast wilderness areas, national parks and sites of geological significance (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).
- **North America and Canada**
  The United States of America (USA) and Canada ratified the World Heritage Convention in 1973 and 1976 respectively. There are more than 30 sites on the World Heritage List in the United States and Canada (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005b).

- **Latin America and the Caribbean**
  Latin America is divided into the sub-regions of South America, Central America and Mexico, and together with the Caribbean, have a total of 110 inscribed sites on the World Heritage list, of which 77 are cultural, 3 are mixed and 30 are natural (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004e).

- **Asia Pacific**
  Inhabited today by some 60% of the world’s population, the 42 States of the region number 39 signatories to the World Heritage Convention. The cultural and natural heritage of the Asia-Pacific region have survived the effects of climate, the ravages of conflict, and other challenges to its conservation due in some part to the application of the World Heritage Convention (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

- **Africa**
  Africa is considered to be the cradle of humanity and as such its natural and cultural diversity are matched only by its long history. Little attention, however, is paid to cultural and heritage policies in African local governments' action strategies. This lack of interest expresses itself in various ways. Most African cities do not have museums worthy of the name. Few have established a proper inventory of their natural and cultural heritage. Many do not have mechanisms for the classification or safeguarding of their heritage. Very few are aware of the World Heritage Convention (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2003b).
After a review of the current experiences and practices at World Heritage sites across the World several Best Practices have been identified including:

- Raising awareness;
- Increasing protection;
- Enhancing funding;
- Improving management;
- Harnessing tourism;
- Scientific and technical studies and research;
- Training and education;
- Participation of local communities;
- Adequate staff capacity;
- The use of information technology;
- Identification of World Heritage values;
- Cognisance of threats and risks;
- Cooperation for World Heritage.

As stated previously, each World Heritage site is different and may have unique issues. According to Richon (2008) five Best Practices are considered strategic to the continued success and sustainability of any World Heritage site (as is illustrated in Figure 3-3 on the following page) and are discussed below. The remaining identified Best Practices are discussed later in this chapter.
3.3.1.1 Raising Awareness

State Parties to the World Heritage Convention are to take appropriate steps to raise awareness of decision-makers, property-owners and the general public regarding:

- a) the protection and conservation of cultural and natural heritage;
- b) the significance of listing a site on the World Heritage List; and
- c) the roles and responsibilities for implementing the World Heritage Convention.

Awareness programs should be aimed at all levels of education, from schools to universities, and should also target the general public through the development of information programs. This should strengthen popular appreciation and respect for the heritage and keep the public broadly informed of the dangers threatening it as well as of activities carried out in pursuance of the Convention (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

In the Arab region it appears that local communities and authorities were rarely involved in the inscription process or conservation of World Heritage properties. In cases where the immediate needs of the local communities are not being met, these communities might even be considered a direct threat for the conservation of...
properties. Yet, if they were consulted and better informed through educational and awareness-raising programs, the local communities could have a role to play in protecting the heritage. Therefore, the education of the local population and authorities is as important as that of political stakeholders, and efforts are required to facilitate and develop information and to increase awareness of World Heritage values. Some of the most positive initiatives, regarding awareness raising measures for decision-makers, property owners and local authorities on heritage protection and conservation, included the Heritage Month in Tunisia and Algeria, and the events during International Days for Monuments and Properties and Museums in Morocco. Other awareness-raising measures reported by the Arab State Parties were sporadic and followed private initiatives rather than organized government programs (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

The inscription of a site on the World Heritage List greatly increases public attention to the World Heritage Convention. For the majority of European State Parties, the promotion of World Heritage properties and the Convention is achieved through publications, films, media campaigns, the Internet and other related activities such as Heritage days and festivities. In general, the majority of State Parties feel that improvements in education, information and awareness-raising have to be made, and these countries are working on measures to remedy this situation. A more systematic approach to the development of educational programs, information and promotional activities is needed (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

In Northern America, it is reported that there is not a significant level of awareness and understanding of the World Heritage Convention. This includes a lack of awareness of the significance of listing on the World Heritage List, or the implied roles and responsibilities. This is generally true with respect to local communities living in and near World Heritage Sites and the general public. This may be due to inconsistent communication with regard to World Heritage by the responsible authorities from the USA and Canada. However, it may also be a reflection not of the international designation but the fact that USA and Canadian historic sites and parks have traditionally enjoyed support from citizens and preservation by means of their
own laws. The controversy surrounding the inscription of Yellowstone on the World Heritage in Danger List in 1995 due to mining activities, threats to bison and trout, water quality issues as well as road and visitor use impacts has caused significant deterioration of the support for the World Heritage program among local populations and the US Congress. This incident has led to perceptions that participation in the World Heritage Convention leads to a loss of sovereignty and to “UN interference or control” (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005b).

The characteristics of some of the sites in the Asia Pacific region, which are administered by religious authorities, located within indigenous territories, and privately owned vernacular heritage, makes awareness raising a particularly sensitive and important issue. National and local authorities use different means of information dissemination to strengthen awareness on World Heritage issues. While at the national level, media campaigns are organized and broadcasted on television and radio, local authorities prefer small-scale projects such as photo exhibitions, publication of leaflets and brochures, or information guides. It has been agreed that more attention should be given to raise awareness of World Heritage sites in the minds of adults and children, together with a desirable increase in on-line and on-site publications on World Heritage properties, both nationwide and worldwide. Stamps, postcards or coins are a common and inexpensive way of promoting national World Heritage, and are mentioned as means to promote World Heritage by Bangladesh, China, India, Japan, Nepal and Uzbekistan. The two-level approach, national and local, is ideal and addresses different needs (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

### 3.3.1.2 Increasing Protection

The inscription of properties on the World Heritage List requires the need to develop adequate legislation and institutional frameworks to ensure their safeguarding and conservation. Each State Party, being a sovereign nation, is responsible for designing specific services within its territory focusing on the protection, conservation and presentation of cultural and natural heritage. These legislations, encompassing
both local and national measures, should include provisions for the identification, protection, conservation, renovation, presentation, and rehabilitation of Heritage sites, through the adoption of an adequate general policy, the promotion of scientific and technical studies and the support of regional and international cooperation (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

While most World Heritage sites have some degree of domestic legal protection, there is no standard legislative approach that member states can use to ensure that their obligations in terms of the Convention are met. South Africa is one of the few countries that has internalised the World Heritage Convention by creating a World Heritage Convention Act (South Africa, 49/1999).

An assessment of the efficiency of the legal and institutional framework related to the management of the Arab States properties showed little effort concerning integration of heritage in a national management and development policy, demonstrating that this process was still in the making in the Arab region. The concept of a legal framework for heritage management is perhaps not fully understood or taken into account by the State Parties. True effort towards integrating heritage into a national management and development policy framework can be seen from Jordan imposing a tax on all building studies to the benefit of heritage or Tunisia adopting very modern legislation, the "Code for Heritage Protection" of 1994 (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

Each State Party is responsible for designing specific services within its territory, focusing on the protection, conservation and presentation of cultural and natural heritage. Institutional frameworks in the Arab region are quite centralised and lack “horizontal” coordination between the governmental institutions and the services in charge of the conservation of the properties, especially at the local level. Despite their demonstrated goodwill to perform their task, often under difficult circumstances, the Heritage Services in the Arab region are largely under-equipped to meet the needs for the preservation of heritage. Consequently, these institutions are not equipped or may not have the mandate to meet the new challenges that cultural and
natural heritage face today such as urban development, tourism and looting or damaging of sites (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

All State Parties in Europe have legislation and regulations for cultural heritage protection and separate legislation for natural heritage conservation. The majority of State Parties have regional and local regulations, while only a few have specific World Heritage related planning regulations. National strategies are, in some cases, being developed to enhance natural heritage conservation. Only a small number of State Parties in Europe have specific planning legislation for World Heritage. However particular mention of legislation and regulations for World Heritage has been made by Germany, Israel, Latvia, Lithuania and Switzerland. A number of countries have created special agencies responsible for World Heritage (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

In the United Kingdom, the majority of sites are protected at state level under a myriad of local laws and governing bodies, often with conflicting interests. An example of this is the fact that England’s planning policies were changed in 1994 to halt the inappropriate development of World Heritage properties. Specific policies now force the stakeholders in development projects that will affect World Heritage sites to carefully scrutinise the long-term effect on the site. Stakeholders such as the owners and managers of heritage sites, local authorities, residents and conservation agencies are encouraged to work together to ensure that comprehensive management plans are developed (Hall, 2006: 21-34).

The United Kingdom Government is in the process of a major program of planning reform designed to promote sustainable communities. The United Kingdom ratified the World Heritage Convention in 1984. By ratifying the Convention, the United Kingdom Government agreed to:

- identify and nominate properties on their national territory to be considered for inscription on the World Heritage List
- ensure that a property is protected
• ensure that a management plan is produced and kept up to date
• protect the World Heritage values of the properties inscribed
• provide periodic updates to the World Heritage Committee on the state of the properties (United Kingdom. Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2007:21-29).

Heritage protection is an integral part of the planning system in the United Kingdom. Development pressures continue to increase and demands on the planning system are growing. In order to ensure effective protection for heritage, it is essential that the importance of the heritage environment be promoted within planning. To do this, the United Kingdom government is in the process of:

• speeding up the designation system and making it more efficient;
• streamlining the consent process to reduce bureaucracy and make it more efficient;
• introducing new tools for local planning authorities and developers to address heritage in major developments;
• providing the means for devolving greater responsibility to local planning authorities (United Kingdom. Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2007:21-29).

The United Kingdom White Paper provides a framework for the way in which World Heritage sites operate alongside other elements of the heritage protection system. The United Kingdom has also included World Heritage Sites in legislation that would put them on the same footing as other protected areas such as conservation areas, National Parks and Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty, where permitted development rights are more restricted. It is envisaged that such changes could have a significant effect in terms of loss of protection in sensitive areas (United Kingdom. Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2007:21-29).
In Northern America, well developed legislation and programs for the protection and presentation of natural and cultural heritage exist. The Canadian and USA national parks services are among the oldest in the world, dating to 1911 and 1916 respectively with key legislation governing the administration of protected heritage areas. Heritage legislation and programs have evolved with the growing understanding of heritage and programs for the protection of cultural heritage. Legislation has a broad perspective on what is considered significant in terms of heritage, so that, for example, the relationship between Aboriginal peoples and the lands they have traditionally occupied is better recognized (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005b).

Of particular importance is the Northern American emphasis on formal planning to guide the management of protected heritage areas. In most jurisdictions, site management plans are required by legislation or policy, and significant resources are devoted to planning. Given the nature of the management plans, however, and the importance placed on appropriate public participation in preparing them, it is a challenge to keep all plans up to date in the face of current issues, changing legislation and policy, and evolving concepts in the field of heritage protection and presentation. While there will always be the potential for improvements in these areas, there is a strong foundation for the protection and presentation of natural and cultural heritage. At the local, regional, state, provincial and national levels, this foundation is the means by which the World Heritage Convention is implemented, and provides the basis for nominating sites to the World Heritage List and assuring their long-term conservation (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005b).

As an example the Yosemite National Park, like all United States National Parks, is subject to the strictest national heritage protection statutes. These laws include (but are not limited to), the National Park Service “Organic Act” (1916), the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA 1969), the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA 1966), the Wilderness Act (1964), and the Wild and Scenic Rivers Act (1968). Heritage legislation establishes a framework for the protection of both natural and cultural heritage that mandates the protection of designated national heritage
resources for perpetuity, assessment of potential environmental effects for all projects on federal land, public involvement mechanisms in project and management planning, and visitor impact monitoring and management. Yosemite’s management structure reflects these regulatory, planning and management needs (Tollefson, 2008).

All Latin American State Parties indicated the existence of some legislation and policies concerning their national heritage. However, three quarters feel there is a need to reform the policy and legislation, which suggests that legislation does not correspond to present-day concepts and requirements (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004e).

Formal protection of cultural and natural heritage in Asia and the Pacific is complex. Whilst most State Parties in the region have some legal instruments to preserve their heritage, not all have a guiding policy or specific regulations for the effective implementation of conservation actions. Relevant legal acts and decrees have often been drawn up to cover a diversity of objectives ranging from forestry to stolen antiquities, and generally offer little specific guidance at the site. It has become necessary to tailor national legislation capable of protecting nature as well as culture, to fully reflect the World Heritage Convention, in order to promote pride in the heritage of humankind whilst respecting national and customary laws (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

In Australia, World Heritage sites have been subject to the introduction of specific legislation, referring to obligations under the World Heritage Convention. In Australia, World Heritage listing formed part of debates regarding economic impact and local government rights and as a result they have one of the world’s most rigorous sets of arrangements for the implementation of the World Heritage Convention. World Heritage issues are taken into account by the Australian Government in national planning processes and cascaded down to regional planning processes to ensure uniform application of regulations throughout Australia.
Some of the key provisions of **Australia**’s legislation include:

- There should be upfront protection of World Heritage properties. The Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation (EPBC) Act 1999 came into force in 2000 and guarantees “up-front protection and improved management” for World Heritage properties. Any action that will significantly impact on a declared World Heritage property is subject to thorough environmental assessment and approval under the EPBC Act, and significant penalties apply;
- A modified assessment and approval process should be in place; and
- Consistent management principles should be applied for all sites regardless of location (Hall, 2006: 21-34).

In **South Africa**, the World Heritage Convention Act (South Africa, 1999) provides that every World Heritage site Management Authority must prepare and implement an integrated management plan. This plan must be submitted to the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism for approval within six months of establishment. An integrated management plan must be submitted after consultation with surrounding communities, owners of private land, and land claimants. World Heritage site management authorities must conduct their affairs in accordance with the approved integrated management plans. A uniform or national framework does not exist, such as is the case in Australia. Each site must draw up their own interpretation of a management plan. Legislation that must be considered when drawing up the management plan includes the National Environmental Management Act, 1998, the National Heritage Resources Act, 1999, the Cultural Institutions Act, 1998 (Act No. 119 of 1998), the Development Facilitation Act, 1995, and the National Parks Act, 1976 (Act No. 57 of 1976); as well as provincial and local government planning and development plans (November, 2007).
3.3.1.3 Enhancing Funding

The World Heritage Convention is considered a major vehicle of international cooperation. Preserving and promoting a World Heritage property, maintaining its outstanding universal value, and ensuring its authenticity and integrity is a costly mission that requires both regular funds for daily maintenance and more consequent funding for emergency situations, such as natural disasters or conflict. Within the framework of the Convention, State Parties are strongly expected to cooperate with other State Parties for the identification, protection, conservation and preservation of the World Heritage sites located on their territories. Having opportunities for increased exchange of ideas and information pertaining to site management in a World Heritage context is extremely valuable (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

Measures are to be taken to avoid direct or indirect damage to the properties, and national, public and private foundations or associations as well as the State Party itself are encouraged to raise funds and provide assistance for the preservation of World Heritage property. Financial resources are obtained from various sources, with the main source of funding of World Heritage sites usually being public funds, whether nationally distributed, or through regional or local funding partners or institutions. Funds from the private sector are also very important, including grants from special foundations, the private sector and sponsors, private owners and ecclesiastic institutions, and bilateral cooperation (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

Most Arab States did not appear to have a recognised and ongoing framework for cooperation in the field of heritage. They benefited from assistance from diverse sources, but not sufficiently from neighbouring Arab States. This indicates a need for greater diversity of cooperation programs, mainly in the fields of conservation, restoration and presentation of properties, as well as regarding museology (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).
The World Heritage Convention’s potential as a means of engaging international cooperation, has not been utilized fully in the Latin-American and Caribbean region. Gaps exist in terms of technical cooperation and in generating financial resources for World Heritage conservation and management. Bi-lateral cooperation seems frequent in the region; however, at site level, there are very few twinned World Heritage Sites which suggests that many opportunities to share experiences and lessons learned are lost (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004e).

Although recognised for their outstanding universal value, many World Heritage properties in the Asia-Pacific region still face considerable financial and technical limitations. Many of the states report that World Heritage properties in Asia still rely heavily on regular government budgets to fund staff and other maintenance costs. The flow of International Assistance provided by the World Heritage Fund, extra-budgetary resources mobilised by the UNESCO World Heritage Centre and the UNESCO Division of Cultural Heritage, and other donors, provide a vital ‘financial lifeline’ for many natural and cultural World Heritage properties. Various funding mechanisms are being used by the Asia-Pacific State Parties to ensure proper budget allocations to their World Heritage properties. The most common funding mechanism in the region is still government funding, but it is considered by most site managers in the Asian region as insufficient to address the challenges of conservation and management of the World Heritage properties (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

3.3.1.4 Improving Management

In their efforts to conserve, protect and present the World Heritage sites, the managers thereof face many challenges. These challenges can be either local or global, and include challenges such as visitors to the site or climate change. These challenges can originate outside the boundaries of the World Heritage Site for example resource development in the vicinity of a World Heritage Site such as mining
for minerals, can have an impact on the property. These challenges are typical of challenges facing protected heritage areas – both natural and cultural around the world (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005b).

The preservation of the values described in the statement of significance at the time of inscription of the property on the World Heritage List is reliant on adequate management and systematic monitoring of the World Heritage properties. Management includes the establishment and implementation of effective protective legislation at the national, provincial or municipal level; the maintaining of contractual or traditional protection; and the development of appropriate conservation and monitoring policies for each of the properties concerned (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c). Management and monitoring of World Heritage properties encompass many issues, all of which must be comprehensively addressed to achieve effective and sustainable conservation of heritage values.

Recognised issues in identifying proper management and monitoring mechanisms include the identification of the heritage values of the property; its conservation needs; ways and means to enhance site interpretation and presentation; tourism management and development; and recognition and respect for the relationship between the property and local communities. Effective conservation, management and sustainable development of World Heritage sites derive first and foremost from identification of the tangible and intangible heritage values of the properties, and thereafter from developing and implementing appropriate management plans (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).
There are various approaches to site management appropriate to particular heritage conservation requirements, legal systems and community development needs. A management system should illustrate an awareness of the existence of cultural and natural heritage with inherent values worth preserving. It should support laws and regulations, as well as have the following components:

- an administrative tool, to maintain, manage, formulate and implement plans and take charge of day-to-day activities;
- a financial tool;
- a conservation tool, which will include professional staff from all relevant fields as well as training opportunities;
- social and outreach tools, which will involve ways and explicit plans to involve society in decisions and mobilise the media (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

All these different ‘tools’ have to work together towards an effective, sustainable management of the tangible heritage. Taken together, they may be viewed as a management system. A management plan, usually adopted for a period of five to ten years, is a fundamental instrument designed to organize the conservation of properties and to orchestrate development and preservation measures specific to the needs of each property. The purpose of monitoring World Heritage sites is to measure to what extent the implementation of the management plan is successful and to identify the physical condition and state of conservation of the site. World Heritage site management authorities must have a strong policy and legislative foundation to draw upon when faced with challenges. The solution is often found in collaboration, coordination and cooperation among various stakeholders (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

**a) Management Plans**

Thomas and Middleton (2003:1) describe a management plan as “a document which sets out the management approach and goals, together with a framework for decision making, to apply in the protected area over a given period of time”. Many of the
management objectives for the plan and the standards to apply should be established in legislation. Management plans should identify the key features or values of the protected area, clearly establish the objectives to be met and indicate what actions must be taken. Management plans should also be flexible enough to allow for unforeseen events.

The process of developing a management plan may be influenced by factors such as the objectives of the protected area, the risks or threats to the area and objectives, the number of competing interests, the level of stakeholder involvement and the issues arising from outside the protected area such as a particular government’s political agenda. Sound planning principles will ensure that the completed management plan is thorough and based on best practices. A management plan represents a working framework for protected area managers and planners to consider and adapt to needs and circumstances (Thomas & Middleton, 2003:1).

Management plans must be prepared and implemented, taking into consideration the context of the issues and people surrounding the protected areas, as well as the national plans for protected areas which will help ensure co-ordination with other national planning agencies and protected areas. Management planning must be carried out within a framework of approved policies within the protected area agency (Thomas & Middleton, 2003:19).

During the implementation of the plan, several problems could be encountered. Problems may be a result of weaknesses in the plan itself such as its content or unreasonable expectations may have been created about what will be achieved. Frequently encountered problems include:

- not enough attention is paid to budgetary questions and financial information is not included or the funds are likely to be limited;
- unrealistic assumptions are made about the capability and capacity of the organization’s management;
- objectives are not well formulated;
problems that need to be addressed are deferred;
responsibilities aren’t allocated and vague commitments are made that do not result in action;
undue emphasis is placed on certain aspects such as tourism or recreation, which may result in resources being allocated to less important aspects;
instability in whatever form, for example financial, managerial or political, exists;
a lack of clear imperatives and priorities exist, as the focus is on recommendations rather than firm decisions;
plans are impractical and cannot be used as a basis for action;
if relevant managers have not been involved in or responsible for the preparation of the management plan, they may not take ownership of it and be less inclined to implement it (Thomas & Middleton, 2003:21-24).

While, at present, a documented management system is mandatory for the inscription of new sites on the World Heritage List, it was not compulsory for early nominations. Many of the early sites did not have original management plans or systems. In fact, guidelines for management plans were only officially adopted in 1993 and, even today, there is no single accepted definition as to what a management plan is or should be (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

Every integrated management plan has as its main aim to ensure the protection and management of the World Heritage site concerned and must contain, if applicable (Thomas & Middleton, 2003:21-24):

- “a co-ordinated policy framework with planning measures, controls and performance criteria”;
- “a programme for implementation of the plan”;
- “procedures for public participation as well as participation by nature conservation, tourism and other relevant experts”;
- “conservation components required by applicable law and directives”;

---

**CHAPTER 3 – BEST PRACTICES**

---
“provisions regarding the activities allowed within a particular geographical area, terms and conditions for conducting activities and prohibition or control over the frequency, size, impact or manner of conducting activities”; 
“a description of the World Heritage site concerned, an assessment of its significance and an evaluation of material threats to its significance”; and 
alienation, lease or encumbrance of movable and immovable property”.

Thomas and Middleton (2003:21-24) suggest the following process or Best Practices concerning the actual process of planning, as is illustrated in Figure 3-4 below:

Figure 3-4: Best Practices concerning the Process of Planning
(Thomas & Middleton, 2003:23-24)

Feedback is fundamental to the process in Figure 3-4 above, which allows for the plan to be corrected in light of past experience. Monitoring and reviewing the management plan ensures that it is appropriate, realistic, efficient, economic and effective thus allowing for continuous quality control. Because of the continuous nature of this process the resulting management should be flexible and able to adapt to changing circumstances (Thomas & Middleton, 2003:21-24).
b) The Status of Management Plans in the Various Regions

Many of the Arab World Heritage properties have management plans described as being in the process of being prepared or updated. Management plans were operational in only 15% of cases. Conservation Services and property managers often lack communication policies and capacities with regard to the links with the different stakeholders. This is a reason for concern as the governments and other local institutions play a very important role in the management of most of the Arab World Heritage properties by often being directly involved in the conservation activities. The periodic report indicated that consultation of the local population for the elaboration of management plans did not appear to be common practice. In the past the community was only rarely involved in conservation and presentation actions, notably as regards historic cities (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

The purpose of monitoring World Heritage sites is to measure to what extent the implementation of the management plan is successful and to monitor the physical condition and state of conservation of the site. The World Heritage Committee’s desire for a more systematic approach, has led to specific systematic efforts in a number of European countries, such as Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom. A number of State Parties, notably in Central and South-Eastern Europe are developing or have begun systematic monitoring exercises. Concerning urban heritage, a systematic review process has been carried out by United Nations Development Programme in the Mediterranean sub-region (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

World Heritage sites in Europe are predominantly used for visitor attraction, with or without entrance fees, with the exception of Eastern Europe where sites are chiefly used for religious purposes. European State Parties have a wide variety of departments and specialized agencies in charge of heritage, providing services from national to local levels. Other levels of authorities in charge of site management include religious communities, private institutions, trusts, societies and foundations, for example in the Netherlands, Germany, and United Kingdom. However, complex
networks of partners further complicate the management of sites, and require a high level of cooperation and inter-agency communication. Some sites, or parts of sites, may also belong to private users, or may be managed by independent, non-profit associations (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

The complexity of management systems emphasizes the need for steering groups or site managers acting as focal points for the management of the site. The majority of properties are managed under protective legislation or directly by the State Party. Eastern European reports also stressed management under traditional protective measures or customary law as the second most common management system in the sub-region. A majority of World Heritage sites have different levels of public authority involved in site management. National authorities were the most commonly cited in all sub-regions except Western Europe, followed closely by local authorities. In Western Europe, reports stressed the predominance of management by local authorities with roughly equal involvement from the regional and national authorities. In the Mediterranean sub-region, national level authorities are involved in most cases in the management of properties, which reflects the common structure of legal conservation frameworks and the representation of sites (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

Only 40% of European sites have a management plan for the site. In many cases, other large scale or umbrella plans are identified as management plans. While these provide orientation and guidance in management, they cannot be considered management plans. In some cases management plans are developed, but not implemented. Reasons for this include the lack of a clearly defined hierarchy between other regulatory plans and management plans; the absence of an adequate management structure in place; the management of the site by multiple stakeholders; the management of the site as an ecclesiastic centre (especially in Central, South-Eastern and Eastern Europe) or simply a lack of financial and/or human resources. Perhaps the greatest threat is the lack of realization of the long-term implications of the absence of management plans for the sites. Overall, nearly all sites currently without a management plan have such plans under preparation and expect to
implement them in the near future, but the lack of tools and guidelines may mean that such management plans may remain inadequate effectively setting these sites up for failure (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

In facing the challenges mentioned above, Northern American World Heritage site management authorities have a strong and well-developed foundation of legislation and policy to draw upon. The solution is often found in collaboration, coordination and cooperation among various stakeholders. In the case of global challenges, long-term international cooperation will achieve the best results (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005b). In Yosemite National Park, the management is split into divisions, which include Administration Management, Business and Revenue Management, Facilities Management, Interpretation and Education, Planning, Project Management, Resources Management and Science, as well as Protection. These divisions are further subdivided into branches, devoted to a single set of resources or park issues for example utilities, media relations and wildlife. The branches collaborate to manage visitor services, infrastructure projects, natural features and processes, and cultural resources in the park. For example on large-scale projects, like the development and implementation of a comprehensive management plan for the Merced Wild and Scenic River, which flows through Yosemite Valley, contributions from all divisions will be involved. Contributions can include the Resources Management and Science division developing and implementing monitoring systems for the resources in the river corridor both as a feature of the plan and to inform infrastructure, facilities, and restoration planning as part of the planning process. Facilities Management will design and engineer buildings and infrastructure that comply with resource protection mandates while seeking to accommodate visitor needs. Both the Interpretation and Planning divisions will organize public comment and education throughout the planning process to involve local and national stakeholders in the development of the plan (Tollefson, 2008).

Yosemite National Park is under intense scrutiny from the American public who hold a wide variety of opinions regarding what ideal management of a National Park should be. Additionally, many Americans have a deep sense of ownership
concerning the park, which often puts Yosemite and its management practices in the spotlight. These dynamics challenge park management in Yosemite to employ the latest ideas and the best science in developing new strategies to satisfy their dual mandate (Tollefson, 2008).

In Latin-America, the protection of the heritage properties is considered to be insufficient and the revision of administrative and management arrangements becomes necessary. Staffing and funding are also insufficient. Just over half the sites have management plans covering a wide spectrum of different management instruments. In the cases where management plans exist, they are not coordinated or integrated with territorial management plans, or risk preparedness plans, indicating that at times the notion of a management plan is confused and does not consider an integrated approach to management. Also, in Latin America less than half of the heritage sites have formal monitoring systems in place. There appears to be limited understanding of why it is important to monitor the state of conservation and the effectiveness of management. The knowledge and use of monitoring methodologies and reliable indicators is inadequate (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004e).

Management and monitoring issues in the Asia-Pacific region clearly indicate the coexistence of Government agencies responsible for the protection and overall management of heritage properties, and local or even site authorities responsible for day-to-day management of these properties. It is important to note that in the Asia-Pacific region management arrangements can be legal, contractual, traditional or collaborative, with a statutory mechanism usually excluding a more informal mechanism. Where local, provincial and national authorities jointly ensure the management of a property, such as in Vietnam, Laos or Uzbekistan, overlapping of responsibilities may occur. This often results in delays in the realisation of restoration works or in the distribution of funds. However, where local stakeholders are invited to participate in the development of management guidelines for a property, or even in the daily management of a property, positive outcomes can be expected such as increased understanding of local culture and customs and buying into the concept of
World Heritage status and resultant obligations (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

In terms of general site management planning, State Parties in the Asia-Pacific region have expressed their desire for enhanced sharing of expertise and information on management of World Heritage properties through dissemination of relevant management plans and strategies. South Asian properties, a large number of which were inscribed in the early 1980s, often lack basic management mechanisms, while personnel are not trained to properly implement management plans in cases where these have been drawn up. Emergency or risk preparedness plans need to be integrated into the global management strategy for a property, especially where natural disasters or other predictable phenomena are a threat to the property. Ad hoc environmental or cultural impact assessments are utilised to manage the development of properties situated within or near urban centres or tourist areas, in order to avoid irremediable loss of authenticity and/or integrity of the property (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

For declared Australian World Heritage sites the management plans must include the following (Hall, 2006: 21-34):

- a statement of the World Heritage values of the declared property;
- adequate processes for public consultation on proposed elements of the plan;
- a statement of what must be done to ensure that the World Heritage values are conserved, protected and transmitted to future generations;
- mechanisms to deal with the impacts of actions that threaten the World Heritage values of the property;
- provision that management actions are consistent with the World Heritage values of the property;
- promotion of integration of national and local government responsibility for the property;
- provision for continuous monitoring and reporting on the state of the property;
- reviews at intervals of not more than 7 years.
In Africa, it is government that has the main management responsibility and they do not easily delegate their powers. Many sites are administered from afar, by the central administration or sometimes by the region. Only 19% of the sites are administered entirely at site level. While half of the sites have a local plan or a conservation plan, only one in three sites has a regional plan or a tourism development plan indicating that the tourism development plan seems to be the least known management tool. Half of the African sites concerned have a functional management plan, which puts the other half of the sites out of alignment with the prerequisites of the Guidelines, despite the fact that they have been inscribed for over ten years (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2003b).

c) Assessing Management Effectiveness of Protected Areas

Figure 3-5 illustrates the elements that an effective management system should include according to the operating guidelines of the World Heritage Convention, (UNESCO, 2005:26):

- “a thorough shared understanding of the property by all stakeholders”;
- “a cycle of planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and feedback”;

Figure 3-5: Elements of an Effective Management System

(Author’s own)
“the involvement of partners and stakeholders”; “the allocation of necessary resources and capacity-building”; and “an accountable, transparent description of how the management system functions”.

Hockings, Stolton, Leverington, Dudley and Courrau (2006:1) have developed a framework for the “Assessment of Protected Area Management Effectiveness” (shown in Figure 3-6). Management effectiveness evaluation is defined as the assessment of how well protected areas are being managed – primarily the extent to which management is protecting values and achieving goals and objectives. Evaluation of management effectiveness is recognized as a vital component of responsive, pro-active protected area management.

Figure 3-6: The Framework for Assessing Management Effectiveness of Protected Areas
(Hockings et al., 2006:12)
This framework provides a Best Practice for reporting on management effectiveness rather than promoting a particular methodology and is based on the management cycle. The basis for the framework is the fact that management follows a process or cycle, with six distinct elements, which are used to develop monitoring and evaluation systems, namely:

- it begins with reviewing the **context** and establishing a vision for site management (within the context of existing status and pressures);
- advances through **planning**; and
- the allotment of resources (**inputs**); and
- owing to management actions (**process**);
- finally produces goods and services (**outputs**);
- that result in **outcomes** (Hockings *et al.*, 2006:11-12).

The general structure of the evaluation is guided by this framework but it provides flexibility in the choice of specific methods that are used to monitor the specific criteria selected for a particular protected area site or system. Similarly the specific content of monitoring programs should be matched to the values, capacity and management systems of each site. World Heritage sites vary in their management, objectives, resources and capacity.

Rather than impose one system, the objective of this Best Practice is to have a methodology, which will help managers and stakeholders develop and implement monitoring and evaluation systems that are relevant to site needs and circumstances as is shown in Figure 3-7 on the following page (Hockings *et al.*, 2006:68).
The aim of the Framework for Assessing Management Effectiveness of Protected Areas is to improve management of World Heritage sites through a consistent Best Practices approach to assessment, monitoring and reporting systems and by applying the results to adapt or enhance management (Hockings et al., 2006:68).

### 3.3.1.5 Harnessing Tourism

Although it is not a requirement of a World Heritage site to harness tourism, visitor numbers often increase upon inscription and vary from a few individuals to several million annually. Organized tourism can be an integral component of the sustainable use of cultural heritage and the development of sustainable tourist management policies is encouraged. Sites should have extensive facilities and educational programs to ensure a high quality experience for visitors such as can be experienced at the Cradle of Humankind World Heritage site.

Annual visitor numbers to European World Heritage sites vary significantly, depending on the size and accessibility of the site. In all sub-regions, reports stated that there is a need for further support and development regarding visitor
management. World Heritage status has brought with it the benefits of a higher profile in the tourism market but it has also left some site managers unable to cope with the pressures of rapidly rising tourism numbers. Many sites have underlined the double-sided effect of tourism increase following World Heritage inscription. A rise in visitor numbers induces financial advantages – increasing visitor-related revenues and heightening national and international visibility, which, in turn, may attract funding from private sources (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

Further aspects to which sites must adapt to increasing visitor numbers is by multiplying facilities, guaranteeing safety and security for visitors on site, and ensuring the adequate preservation and restoration of properties. The need to upgrade tourism facilities, to limit access to vulnerable areas, to open appropriate areas to larger numbers, and to communicate with the local tourism community, was noted in all sub-regions. Tourism management could also be seen in a wider geographic context of national or international cooperation, sharing knowledge and capacity with adjacent heritage sites and/or between sub-regions to balance the negative impacts of tourism (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

The management authorities of Northern America’s World Heritage Sites give priority to maintaining high quality of visitor services. Generally speaking all of the Northern American sites have facilities and educational programs that will ensure a first-class experience. “Visitor centres, trails, touring roads, overnight accommodations, transportation services, and extensive interpretive media including ranger-led programs, wayside exhibits, publications, and Internet sites characterize most USA and Canadian World Heritage Sites” (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005b).

The high level of visitor services is not the result of their World Heritage status, per se, but because the sites simply form part of national, state or provincial parks systems; the sites are within urban municipalities; or are privately administered attractions. However, in the USA, many of the national parks carrying the World Heritage label are among the most visited sites. Several of these sites are reorganizing visitor access within their parks by introducing mass transit to alleviate
the crowding caused especially during peak season (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005b).

The dual mandate of the National Park Service, to both protect park resources and to provide for visitor access and enjoyment of those resources, is difficult to balance, and makes management in for example Yosemite National Park, and all heritage properties, a challenge. More than 3.7 million people visit Yosemite every year, making it one of America’s top natural tourist attractions. This places a heavy burden on park resources, both human-made and natural, especially in the relatively small areas where visitors overwhelmingly congregate such as Yosemite Valley (Tollefson, 2008).

In China, the Republic of Korea and Japan, the important revenues of tourism are often allocated to the restoration of the site itself, but the funds can also be re-invested immediately for future investment gains. Admission fees should not be considered simply as a way to ensure minimum funding for a World Heritage property. For endangered properties, or for fragile properties, the existence of a significant entrance fee can be used to monitor visitor pressure onsite and can act as a deterrent in the development of mass tourism within the protected area. Although Asia-Pacific State Parties are in favour of regional co-operation to enhance protection of World Heritage, very few concrete initiatives have been launched as yet (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

Listing of the site has increased visitor numbers to many African sites such as the Cradle of Humankind and iSimangaliso sites. The stagnation or decrease in tourist numbers at sites, for example Salonga National Park in Zaire or World Heritage sites in the Congo can be explained as the result of political unrest, a decline in the quality of visitor facilities or access difficulties. The increase in visitors is not only a sign of recognition of the World Heritage label but also of an increase in world travel. Visitor facilities (accommodation, parking, toilets) exist at half of the sites. In view of the commitment and responsibility of the sites accepting visitors, the security system is a
cause for concern, and many sites do not have staff trained in first aid (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2003b).

**a) Indicators for Sustainable Visitor Management**

Indicators are used to monitor changes in biophysical, social and economic conditions at World Heritage and other protected sites. Indicators can provide a cost-effective way of obtaining information on complex systems by reducing monitoring and measurement to a limited number of variables and thus is also used to evaluate the performance of management actions (McCool & Stankey 2004).

In Tonge *et al.* (2005:10-17), several key indicators have been identified specifically focusing on environmental, social and economic issues:

- **Environmental Indicators**
  Environmental indicators are concerned with visitor impacts on and the condition of the natural resources in protected areas. These include wildlife, vegetation and alien species, water and soil quality. Other concerns and possibly key indicators would be the sustainable consumption of key resources, for example water. A pivotal concern with regard to ecological issues is being able to separate the effects of visitor use from other impacts, such as pollution originating outside the protected area and the spread of pests and weeds due to non-visitor use related causes (Buckley 2003). Environmental indicators can include:
  - air, water and soil condition and quality;
  - condition of campsites and trails;
  - condition of vegetation and geological sites;
  - impacts on natural resources;
  - key resource consumption and protection;
  - rehabilitation of degraded areas;
Legislative Indicators
Legislative requirements are concerned with protected area management agencies complying with the national and international legislation applicable to parks and protected areas, such as the World Heritage Convention (Tonge et al., 2005:10-17).

Social Indicators
Social indicators are concerned with monitoring and measuring the often divergent interests of local communities and visitor satisfaction. Visitor satisfaction is a complex issue due to the diversity of visitors who frequent protected areas. The measurement of local community involvement should be a key issue for the management of protected areas. Indicators can be related to employment, tourism operators and community involvement through volunteering and mostly seek to reflect the potential benefits of visitor use of protected areas on local communities. Often politically charged issues are also used as indicators such as place names and co-management (Tonge et al., 2005:12-13).

Economic Indicators
The economic indicators are concerned with monitoring the costs of management and associated revenue at protected areas or World Heritage sites. As an additional measure the total gross domestic product (GDP) for a region can be included, especially when there are a number of residents within the site’s boundary operating tourism-related businesses, with the income from these businesses contributing to the region’s GDP. Three key economic issues namely cost and revenue, value to the economy as well as the number of tourism operators should be measured in some form to provide economic indicators. However, good record-keeping such as an assets register as well as a workable financial system would be a requirement (Tonge et al., 2005:14).
3.3.2 Additional Best Practices

Table 3-3 illustrates additional Best Practices as they relate to World Heritage sites and their management.

Table 3-3: Additional World Heritage Best Practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BEST PRACTICES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Scientific and Technical Studies and Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Training and Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Participation of Local Communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Adequate Staff Capacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The Use of Information Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Identification of World Heritage Values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Cognisance of Threats and Risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Cooperation for World Heritage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Author's own)

These additional Best Practices include:

3.3.2.1 Scientific and Technical Studies and Research

In accordance with the World Heritage mission, the inscribed sites are centres for research and study as well as for scientific and technical management. Their role is also to raise awareness among new generations and to communicate World Heritage values to residents, visitors and the wider public. State Parties are required to develop significant scientific and technical studies or research projects on their World Heritage properties. These are needed to increase scientific knowledge regarding the properties, and consequently to allow the drafting of adequate protection and presentation programs (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).
Most Arab State Parties declared that scientific and technical studies had been undertaken on World Heritage properties in their countries. In a majority of cases, these studies were carried out by foreign missions. However, the studies and research cited remained, for the most part, of an archaeological or historical nature. Studies devoted to the fields of conservation, restoration and presentation were rarely undertaken. Similarly, little attention was paid to natural resources or the eco-biological aspects of the properties. This indicates that Arab State Parties may not be sufficiently attentive to the need to represent the true diversity, wealth and characteristics of the cultural and natural heritage of the region (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

Europe has a long history of scientific research and some of the oldest universities and institutions are located in the region, thus accounting for the wealth of information and heritage-related studies. In Eastern European countries there are great resources of scientific and professional expertise, which as a result of limited funding of scientific institutions, has not been developed and has little influence at the international scientific level. Another factor is the limited access to international scientific literature within the region. In recent years, numerous studies relating to specific World Heritage properties and the typology of sites have been carried out in several State Parties. Consequently, it is worth mentioning that several research projects, as well as survey methods, were carried out on a bilateral and international level, and were of particular benefit to World Heritage sites and related issues. The long tradition in heritage preservation is one of the foundations for scientific expertise and professional knowledge in several countries. Therefore, a wide range of scientific studies, heritage conservation methodologies, and conservation and restoration techniques, as well as visitor/tourism management strategies have been developed (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

In Africa, the equipment level of the sites is disparate, often limited to more or less functional vehicles or unreliable accommodation, and the databases available are often rudimentary, old or incomplete. Only some of the sites are well equipped for research activities. A third of the sites have qualified personnel to assist in research,
such as laboratory assistants, archaeologists or ecologists. Half of the sites currently participate in scientific research programs, which, at 12 sites, are undertaken in cooperation with foreign research teams (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2003b).

3.3.2.2 Training and Education

State Parties are required to develop and implement training and educational strategies for professional capacity building. These are to include the creation of national or regional centres for training and education in the protection, conservation, and presentation of cultural and natural heritage that must be integrated within the existing university and educational systems. Training is one of the vital elements enabling successful World Heritage protection and is necessary in all fields of preservation, conservation and presentation.

In the Arab region, the need for relevant training opportunities in all fields of activity linked to cultural heritage, including scientific research, specialist training, and documentation and promotion, has been identified. One of the main barriers is the lack of funding allocated to the development of training courses and to address the lack of human resources, including qualified professional staff, researchers or scientific personnel (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004b).

Although some training opportunities exist in the Latin American and Caribbean region, all State Parties have identified additional training needs. The challenge is to strengthen the technical and managerial capacities of the human resources of the institutions responsible for cultural and natural heritage. There is also a need for training to be linked with job opportunities. More qualified jobs need to be created to face the challenge of heritage conservation and management (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004e).
3.3.2.3 Participation of Local Communities

Local communities should participate in the joint management arrangements that exist at any heritage site. World Heritage properties should have some form of property-specific committees for community and NGO input, private sector and scientific advice for building links with stakeholders and specialist expertise. Where local stakeholders are invited to participate in the development of management guidelines for a property, or even in the daily management of a property, positive outcomes can be expected.

**Australian** local communities participate in the joint management arrangements that exist at many heritage sites. Traditional Owners constitute a majority of the Boards of Management of Kakadu and Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Parks. Nearly all World Heritage properties have property-specific committees for community and NGO input, private sector and scientific advice with regard to building links with stakeholders and specialist expertise. It is necessary to ensure that appropriate consultative mechanisms are in place to respect the views of indigenous people concerning their knowledge of sacred sites, ceremonies, and other cultural aspects remaining exclusively within their domain, rather than information merely being published in a nomination document (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004d).

In **New Zealand**, opportunities are being explored for increasing the involvement of New Zealand’s indigenous community, the Maori people, in the participatory management of sites with which they have a particular ancestral association. This work has led to the proposal for a World Heritage Indigenous People’s Council of Experts. New Zealand continues to work with other interested countries to develop and apply its principles although the World Heritage Committee has not accepted this proposal. Community involvement is also promoted through local conservation boards; volunteer programs; NGOs; and other agencies (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004f).
a) **Collaborative Management**

Collaborative or joint management describes the substantial involvement of the relevant stakeholders in the management activities of a protected area. Specifically, partnerships are developed between the relevant stakeholders and the management authority of the protected area which specifies and guarantees their respective roles and responsibilities. In Mexico, national parks are administered by independent trusts composed of community members. In Italy, the principle of involving local stakeholders in park management is central to the law regulating the establishment and management of regional parks (Borrini-Feyerabend, 1996).

According to Borrini-Feyerabend (1996) several forms of representation exist:

- self-representation – people represent themselves and offer opinions or material contributions;
- direct representation – people are represented by nominees such as leaders in the community, and are still directly aware of what is happening;
- indirect representation - people are represented by delegates such as experts or government officials with there being little interaction with representatives.

### 3.3.2.4 Adequate Staff Capacity

World Heritage sites benefit greatly from strong staff complements in the field of protected areas generally and World Heritage specifically. Good stewardship is ensured by having professional staff, financial support, access to scientific data and supporting legislation and policy. This stresses the need for increased cooperation among sub-regions, for the multiplication of training activities and the sharing of knowledge and skills between sites.

Notable differences have been identified in the needs of the different **European** sub-regions. Eastern European State Parties have underlined the need for institutional training and the creation of training opportunities for site managers. In South-Eastern Europe, the State Parties have underlined the need for education in specialised...
domains such as conservation and preservation of wall paintings, icons, and mosaics, as well as greater competence in languages and computer skills. Central Europe and South-Eastern Europe require capacity building of staff, particularly with regard to management planning and mechanisms. The Global Training Strategy encourages a more proactive use of the World Heritage Fund and ensures that the training activities that are carried out include World Heritage conservation and management issues (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

Evaluation of staff resources at European World Heritage sites is generally positive across disciplines, although responses are more mixed regarding management, promotion and visitor management. Conservation is the discipline in which staffing levels is the most satisfactory. Lack of staff in management also seems to be problematic for the Central and South-Eastern European and Eastern European sub-regions. In Central, Eastern and South-Eastern Europe, availability of professional staff in management is unsatisfactory, especially in visitor management (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

Both Canada and the USA feel that they possess strong management capacity in the field of protected areas and World Heritage. As a rule, World Heritage Sites in Northern America have officially adopted management plans, professionally trained staff, financial support, access to scientific data, and a legislative and policy framework that helps ensure good stewardship. The fact that many of the Northern American sites are directly administered by the national, provincial or state parks agencies of the two countries also means that the majority of the sites benefit from being part of a system of protected areas with well-established structures geared towards for preservation, conservation and presentation. Sites administered by private or municipal authorities may not necessarily have the same level of access to well-established administrative and policy structures (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005b).
3.3.2.5 The Use of Information Technology

Although new information technologies may not be considered indispensable tools in the management and monitoring of World Heritage properties, they nonetheless contribute to creating a multiplier effect at the site level by broadening the possibilities of site managers, and new technologies greatly facilitate the work of professionals as they pay more attention to the conservation of the World Heritage properties.

Great disparities exist, not only between Asian and Pacific State Parties, but also between cultural and natural sites in their access to and use of new technologies. Access to computers and the Internet does not necessarily induce the use of advanced electronic recording, as well as documentation and information management systems. In the Asian region, Indonesia has taken the lead in digitalising archival information and important documents securing the institutional memory of a site and assisting site managers in analysing previous trends in conservation and management of the site. Development of databases for management and monitoring purposes should also be encouraged. Conscious of their own limitations, the Asian State Parties of the region have nevertheless expressed in unambiguous terms their growing interest for the potential of new information technologies applied to heritage identification, conservation, management and promotion such as on-site access to the Internet, multimedia stations and interactive touch-screens. New technologies contribute to creating a multiplier effect at the site level by broadening the possibilities of site managers, especially where sub-regional similarities could be dealt with together rather than case-by-case (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

3.3.2.6 Identification of World Heritage Values

It is crucial to highlight not only the intrinsic value of the statement of significance in providing baseline information on a property, but also its strategic use in management and monitoring of the property. In the requirements for inscription on the World Heritage List, the World Heritage Committee requests three essential
elements in the justification for inscription of potential World Heritage properties which forms part of the statement of significance namely: the outstanding universal value of the site; the authenticity of the site; and evidence of the commitment of the State to full and effective protection of the site. Measures to preserve World Heritage values include involving the local community, anticipating natural risks and human threats, raising awareness and educating, foreseeing and planning to improve the conservation conditions of the properties. Also, developing research, scientific and technical capacities at the sites and developing sustainable tourism (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

Since the World Heritage Committee does not provide an official format for the elaboration of statements of significance, in Asia the identification of World Heritage values are found in a great variety of formats, while also differing in content. Some are too short to encapsulate the uniqueness and outstanding values of a World Heritage property. Others, although extremely precise and exhaustive, are too long to be considered as statements of significance. In terms of content, the statements of significance do not all refer to the recommendations of the World Heritage Committee. Some statements are merely a collection of historical facts related to a site, or an elaborate description of the monuments of a site. Similarly, statements of significance should reflect changes in the authenticity and integrity of the property, and include any relevant developments in the understanding of the site. Instead, some of the proposed statements of significance do not even refer to additional criteria for which a property was re-nominated as World Heritage site, or simply omit to talk about major developments in the integrity of the site related to archaeological excavations or scientific discoveries. The need for defining strict criteria in the drafting of statements of significance, as well as the need for revision of the statements of significance has been identified. Therefore, it is crucial to highlight not only the intrinsic value of the statement of significance in providing baseline information on a property, but also its strategic use in management and monitoring of the property (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).
3.3.2.7 Cognisance of Threats and Risks

The World Heritage Convention seeks to protect natural and cultural properties against the increasing threat of damage in a rapidly developing world. The Convention emphasizes that heritage is not a renewable asset and that it is irreplaceable. The ability to estimate the seriousness and urgency of such risks is at the heart of preventive observation. Risks can be direct or indirect and can include degradation as a result of urbanisation, natural resource exploitation, population growth, pollution, theft and vandalism, or damage through water, chemicals, pests, and plants.

The Asia-Pacific region is developing rapidly. It is one of the world’s richest regions in both natural and cultural properties and includes many of the most sought-after tourist destinations, for example the Taj Mahal. The Convention underscores the fact that physical cultural heritage and, in many cases, natural heritage is a non-renewable, irreplaceable resource. The ability to estimate the seriousness and urgency of such risks is at the heart of preventive monitoring. More and more, properties are at risk of degradation as a direct or indirect result of urbanisation, natural resource exploitation, population growth, pollution and other phenomena of modern industrial civilisation. Theft of art and archaeological material has become a major international industry; petty theft and vandalism are also common threats to cultural properties. West-Central Asian and South-East Asian countries are primarily concerned about theft, illegal excavations and trafficking of cultural heritage. Afghanistan, Iran, Uzbekistan, and Cambodia, among others, face tremendous pressure from organized looting networks linked to the international art market. The scars of civil war and armed conflict have been felt in Cambodia, Vietnam, Afghanistan and Sri Lanka. Properties are menaced by water, chemicals, insects, rodents or other pests, plants and micro-organisms, any number of which may cause damage or deterioration. The identification of threats, as has been attempted above, is an essential component of any risk mitigation scheme, be it preventive or reactive (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).
A property’s physical and cultural integrity can also face many indirect threats in the form of atmospheric pollution, traffic vibration, encroachment and invasive commercial development. To these threats are added natural disasters, some of which are caused by unsustainable and environmentally harmful human practices, and armed conflict. With eight properties on the List of World Heritage in Danger such as Angkor in Cambodia and Kathmandu Valley in Nepal, Asia and the Pacific is the second region after Africa with the most endangered properties. For these reasons, site management must take into account local and national plans, demographic forecasts and economic projections, and institute preventive measures to lessen the effect of man-made and natural disasters. Successful protection of World Heritage sites require continued “assessment, inventory, information management, research and administration”. This process will help to assure survival and sustainability (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004c).

3.3.2.8 Cooperation for World Heritage

International cooperation in a number of State Parties is based on bi- and multilateral agreements in the field of heritage conservation; this is the case mainly in Western Europe, the Nordic countries and in Mediterranean Europe. In Eastern Europe, Central and South-Eastern Europe, international cooperation has occurred mainly at the expert level (participation in seminars and training courses). International cooperation for State Parties in the South-Eastern part of Europe has been very limited, partly due to the rather isolated position of these countries and to changing political circumstances. Bilateral agreements as well as cooperation agreements and Funds-in-Trust arrangements have greatly supported World Heritage activities around the world. Similarly, the creation of specific foundations and working groups for World Heritage has increased in recent years (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007c).

The joint Canada-USA engagement confirms the value of exchanging ideas and information on site management in a World Heritage context. Such opportunities include invitations to meetings, exchanges of personnel on short-term assignments,
or sharing Northern American expertise with the global World Heritage network, particularly in lesser developed regions (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2005b).

The Asia-Pacific Focal Point for World Heritage (APFP) is a regional network for World Heritage Managers, which was established to facilitate regional sharing of experience, knowledge and resources. The APFP helps Asia-Pacific countries adopt and meet their obligations under the World Heritage Convention and ensure Best Practices management of their World Heritage sites. Australia and UNESCO signed a memorandum of understanding on cooperation regarding World Heritage sites in the region in May 2002. The memorandum facilitates mutual arrangements for effective cooperation and prioritisation of Australia’s contribution to regional coordination in World Heritage matters (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2004d).

3.4 CONCLUSION

In summary, Best Practices are defined as successful initiatives that have obvious effects and tangible impacts on improving quality, are the result of effective partnership between the public and private sectors, and are sustainable on a social, cultural, economic and environmental level. When establishing Best Practices for World Heritage sites it is important to keep in mind that there is a need for better coordination and cooperation between responsible authorities, and that where applicable, State Parties, with the help of UNESCO must bring about necessary legal and institutional reforms and administrative arrangements aimed at the optimising of site-management systems.

Proper and sufficient training of site managers is important and should focus on integrated management and the sustainable use of heritage. It is also important to note the need for better methods for evaluating the effectiveness of the overall management mechanism of a property. Thus in the following chapter Organizational Behaviour Management will be reviewed in detail.