

Parks on the Borderline: Experience in Transfrontier Conservation



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**Parks on the Borderline:
Experience in Transfrontier Conservation**

IUCN

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Several thousand scientists and experts from all continents form part of a network supporting the work of its six Commissions: threatened species, protected areas, ecology, sustainable development, environmental law, and environmental education and training. Its thematic programmes include tropical forests, wetlands, marine ecosystems, plants, the Sahel, Antarctica, population and natural resources and women in conservation. These activities enable IUCN and its members to develop sound policies and programmes for the conservation of biological diversity and sustainable development of natural resources.

Parks on the Borderline: Experience in Transfrontier Conservation

**Background papers presented at the Border Parks Workshop
held during the First Global Conference on
'Tourism - A Vital Force for Peace'.
Vancouver, BC, Canada
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Foreword

Over the past five years there has been growing interest worldwide in the role of parks and reserves in fostering international cooperation, understanding, and peace. One means by which this role is being expressed is through bilateral agreements between countries whose protected areas meet at their frontiers - Parks on the Borderline.

A sympathetic and convenient forum to further explore the role of transfrontier reserves presented itself during the First Global Conference on 'Tourism - A Vital Force for Peace' held in Vancouver, Canada in October 1988. Within this Conference IUCN's Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas (CNPPA) was asked to coordinate a separate workshop on the topic. Apart from producing a summary two-page digest of 'Guidelines for Promoting Effective Management of Trans-Frontier Parks and Reserves', the workshop background papers provided a wealth of experience on border parks from several parts of the world.

In order to more broadly share the results of this workshop, the conference organizers were approached and we are grateful to Lou D'Amore for his encouragement to produce this as a spillover publication from the conference. The Commission is also indebted to the East-West Environment and Policy Institute in Hawaii for providing time during study leave for CNPPA's Programme Coordinator, Jim Thorsell, to compile the papers in a form suitable for publication. Our appreciation is also due to the eight authors who contributed those papers to the workshop. I sincerely hope that the papers and the 'Guidelines' reproduced at the end of this publication will further act to promote border parks both in theory and in practice.

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PARKS THAT PROMOTE PEACE: A GLOBAL INVENTORY OF TRANSFRONTIER NATURE RESERVES

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'W' National Park- Benin/Burkina Faso/Niger



PARKS THAT PROMOTE PEACE: A GLOBAL INVENTORY OF TRANSFRONTIER NATURE RESERVES

Abstract

Protected areas that meet at international borders are found at seventy locations throughout the world. A total of sixty five countries are involved. Fifteen examples from around the world are given as are suggestions where others could be established. The inventory indicates the extent, value and applicability of the border parks concept and illustrates its future potential.

1. INTRODUCTION

Border parks, transfrontier parks, international peace parks: the concept is the same protected areas that meet across international borders.

A glance at a world map of parks and reserves reveals that a great number of protected areas have been established in frontier regions. This is not surprising as the perimeters of nations are often scarcely populated by man and boundaries often follow the crest line of mountain ranges where scenic and wildlife values are high. But biology does not respect human boundaries and it has often been politically advantageous for nations to set up protected areas adjoining those of neighbouring countries. This can result in ecological benefits of larger, contiguous protected areas and of shared responsibility. In addition, there are political benefits which promote bilateral understanding and strengthen ties between countries.

Around the world, parks on the borderline, in their own small way, can stimulate cooperation among nations. They can have strategic value in preserving natural areas and promoting coordinated management of shared resources. Border parks can help countries maintain an uninhabited buffer zone. There are cases when they can even assist in controlling the spread of disease. The concept of an international network of border parks as "zones of peace" is one of great potential.

The first step in assessing the value and applicability of the concept is to conduct an inventory of existing border parks and where others are being considered. This is the objective of this paper. Developing guidelines for promoting the concept will be the second step addressed by participants at this workshop and presented at the end of this volume.

2. OCCURRENCE OF BORDER PARKS

In cooperation with the World Conservation Monitoring Centre, IUCN has conducted a review of where border parks occur. Somewhat to our surprise, we identified a total of 70 of these involving 65 countries. These are plotted on the attached map and listed in Annex I. Forest reserves and other similar categories are not included in this total. There are also a great number

of intra-national border parks that occur along state or provincial borders that merit attention as the same principles are involved.

A number of illustrations from around the world serve to demonstrate how the concept has been applied.

Map sites 7-9, Poland/Czechoslovakia

Poland and Czechoslovakia pioneered the concept of international cooperation in establishing border parks. In 1925 the two countries signed the Krakow Protocol which resulted in three joint park areas being set up in the period 1948-67. The Directors of each of the six parks involved collaborate on a range of matters, especially those dealing with tourism and research.

Map site 2, Canada/USA

In 1932, the Parliament of Canada and the US Congress dedicated the world's first international peace park. This dedication symbolically united Glacier National Park in Montana with Waterton Lakes National Park in Alberta for the purpose of permanently commemorating the long-existing relationship of peace and goodwill between the two nations. Management of the two parks has benefitted as a result through joint publications, staff exchanges, and coordinated international search and rescue activities.

Map site 64, Argentina/Brazil

The adjoining parks which surround the Iguazu Falls which form part of the border between Brazil and Argentina are now on the World Heritage List. A joint management advisory committee has been suggested as a step in addressing the impacts on the parks from upstream deforestation and hydro development. Hesitation by politicians, however, over the sovereignty questions is delaying progress.

Map site 65, Panamá/Costa Rica

Amistad (Friendship) International Park was announced by the Presidents of Costa Rica and Panamá in a declaration made during an IUCN meeting in 1979. The countries have agreed to consult each other closely in the planning and management of the park which contains the highest diversity of species anywhere in Central America.

Map site 70, Panamá/Colombia

The Darien frontier region at the isthmus of Panamá is the meeting point of North and South America. Here the Parque Nacional Fronterizo Darien has been established in Panamá next to the Los Katios National Park and several forest reserves in Colombia. One incentive for a border park in this case was the creation of an "inspection zone" to control the spread of foot and mouth disease into Central America. Technical meetings on joint management of the border zone protected areas have been held between the two countries.

Map site 14, Italy/France

In 1922, Italy established the Gran Paradiso National Park primarily to protect the ibex. As the ibex population utilised summer range in France, they were only protected during the winter season in Italy. After a long period of debate, the Vanoise National Park was established in France to match the Italian action. A formal twinning of the two parks in 1972 led to an expansion of their common boundary from 6 km to 14 km. Today the two parks are in regular communication and the ibex is protected on a year-round basis.

Map site 40, Pakistan/China

A new road connection from Pakistan into China over the Khunjerab Pass and the establishment of protected areas on each side of the border have stimulated much interest in promoting the international peace park concept in this area. Better protection of the population of marco polo sheep and tourism marketing are the main benefits foreseen.

Map site 27, West Germany/Denmark/Netherlands

Urged on by non-governmental groups such as the National Society for Conservation of the Wadden Sea, in 1982, West Germany, Denmark and The Netherlands issued a joint declaration to protect the Wadden Sea. A coordinated series of internationally designated wetland sites and nature reserves have been established. An Advisory Committee for the area has also drafted a conservation strategy with attempts to coordinate the efforts of the three nations involved.

Map site 31, Bhutan/India

The adjoining Manas Wildlife Sanctuaries along the border of Bhutan and India together form one of the largest and most important conservation units of the entire Indian sub-continent. Informal cooperation between the reserve wardens now exists which is being further encouraged by the inscription of the Indian portion as a World Heritage Site.

Map site 29, India/Bangladesh

The Sundarbans reserves of India and Bangladesh protect a portion of the world's largest extent of mangrove forests in the Bay of Bengal. The area was one focus for Project Tiger and has a highly mobile population of saltwater crocodile, black finless porpoise and numerous waterfowl, which all move freely between the reserves. The reserves are not directly adjacent but are proximal and functionally linked. Although there is little cooperative management at the moment, this is being encouraged by Unesco's World Heritage Committee.

Map site 39, Indonesia/Malaysia

A good example of international cooperation in conservation is illustrated by the creation of the Lanjak Entimau reserve in Sarawak, Malaysia which stimulated establishment of an adjoining reserve in Indonesian Borneo, Gunung Bentuang dan Karimum. As the whole area is a military security zone, there is added reason for the countries wishing an uninhabited buffer along their common boundaries.

Map site 45, Tanzania/Kenya

The Serengeti National Park and Maswa Game Reserve of Tanzania and the Maasai Mara National Reserve in Kenya encompass a total ecosystem wherein the greatest wildlife spectacle on earth can be seen. All three reserves are key areas in the functioning of this great mammal migration (two to three million individuals) and responsibility is shared. Joint cooperation in management in recent years has been hampered by political differences between the two countries with a consequent setback in resource monitoring programmes and a dramatic increase in poaching in the northern Serengeti. The situation is now improving and cooperation could also be expanded if Kenya proposes that the Mara be added to the existing Serengeti World Heritage site.

Map site 42-43, Rwanda/Zaire/Uganda

The Ruwenzori Mountain/Virunga Volcano complex of protected areas which straddles the frontiers of Rwanda, Zaire and Uganda demonstrates another strategic value of border park systems. While a disruptive period of civil unrest in Uganda resulted in heavy poaching in the Queen Elizabeth National Park, the adjacent Virunga complex remained relatively unharmed. Now that better order has been restored, the Ugandan sector is slowly being restocked by animals emigrating from the adjacent reserves in Zaire.

Map site 44, Benin/Burkina Faso/Niger

In 1954 the French colonial government established the park "W" thus named because of the double loop made at this point by the Niger River. The unit is now made up of three National Parks (Benin, Burkina Faso and Niger) totalling over 1 million ha. Opportunity now exists for coordinated management to address the many threats to the area (phosphate mining, livestock over-grazing and poaching). A proposal to set up a single authority to manage the park and to raise funds for its operation is also being considered.

Map site 71, Australia

One does not think of islands as having border park potential but one of the best examples of border parks between adjacent States comes from Australia. The area concerned is the Australian Alps which contains ten protected areas and falls under four management agencies in the States of New South Wales and Victoria, as well as two Federal bodies. In 1986 a Memorandum of Understanding for cooperative management of the park system of the Alps was signed by the four Ministers involved. This example is highlighted as it is the most advanced operating border park now in existence.

Other existing border parks are located on the attached map and all are listed in Appendix I.

3. POTENTIAL BORDER PARKS

Although options are rapidly foreclosing for establishing new parks in remaining wildlands around the world, there still exist opportunities where nations can be encouraged to cooperate. Following is a brief summary of some of the more promising possibilities.

Latin America

In a region where border disputes and inter-regional conflicts are common, there are a number of initiatives to use border parks as a means of bi-national cooperation. One of the most publicised of these proposals is a project that would establish an "international protected area for peace" along the San Juan River watershed between Nicaragua and Costa Rica. This region has been subject to previous military activity as well as extensive rural migration. A letter of intention between the two Governments has been signed and a draft action plan prepared.

A second initiative between the Central American countries of Guatemala, Honduras and El Salvador is currently under active study in the context of the "Plan Trifinio". The proposal is to establish a "La Fraternidad" biosphere reserve which would be comprised of portions of each of the countries.

Another exciting concept that is being put forward at this Conference is "La Ruta Maya" proposal. This would include establishment of an international peace park on the Mexico, Guatemala and Belize borders, protecting both pre-Colombian archaeological sites and rainforest habitat.

North America

In North America the concept of new border parks is being put forward on the basis of three main rationale: more effective management of shared resources, resolution of border disputes, and as a symbol of international goodwill and cooperation.

Two initiatives along the Canadian/USA border in the Gulf of Maine/Atlantic Ocean present a challenging opportunity for international border zone cooperation. The aim here is to establish two international biosphere reserves which would cover over 460,000 km² of open ocean, one running from Acadia National Park through to the Fundy National Park and a second covering an area between Cape Cod National Seashore and the eastern shore of Nova Scotia. The fluidity of the marine environment, the complexities with intensive human use of the area and the legal implications regarding the 200-mile Exclusive Economic Zone make these proposals particularly suitable for addressing through Unesco's biosphere reserve approach.

A small but related international park proposal in the same area is the Machias Seal Island which is a disputed 6 ha rock found midway between New Brunswick and Maine. The use of the international park concept has been put forward (McNeil, 1988) as the vehicle through which this long-standing territorial conflict can be resolved.

Perhaps an even more demanding test for the applicability of the border park as a mean of international cooperation is the proposal for an international World Heritage site in the Bering Strait involving the USA and the USSR. The prospects of this were given international profile at the last IUCN General Assembly when a formal resolution promoting the concept was adopted (Annex II). The Geneva summit between the leaders of the two countries has led to a USA/USSR cooperative environmental agreement and a technical working group to investigate cooperation in the Siberian/Alaskan border region has begun a preliminary assessment.

The border park potential of the USA/Mexico border has been surveyed with various cooperative initiatives attempted since 1945. The area near the Big Bend National Park has been the focus of attention but there are other possibilities along the Arizona/Mexico boundary and in the Gulf.

Parks on the Borderline

Management advantages would include better control over such activities as hunting, cactus gathering, border crossings, migratory bird and turtle nesting sites.

Europe

Given the high number of countries in this small continent (there are 36 international borders), Europe has had a long history of experience with transboundary environmental problems. The list of existing border parks is longer than for other regions but one additional possibility is worth highlighting.

Relations between Turkey and Greece have not always been entirely harmonious but a proposal for an international peace park along both sides of the Evros River boundary would signal a new attitude while at the same time serving to protect the important wetland site of Lake Gala. In seeking policy areas for collaboration, the presidents of each country have given indications that the conservation of nature in this locality may act to open doors for other more contentious issues. The need for adequate and consistent control of hunting on both sides of the river would be one of the many benefits of instituting an integrated management regime for the area.

Asia

Many boundary questions in this highly populated region are often politically sensitive and military-related. Although there are a number of existing border parks, like other regions many of them are accidents of geography rather than consciously planned conservation units. Several prospects, however, do exist and need to be promoted.

Firstly, the demilitarised zone between North and South Korea has been virtually a "no-man's land" for the past 30 years and has consequently become a *de facto* wildlife refuge. As relations between the two countries improve, the "DMZ National Park" could well be the most suitable form of land use for this strip as well as an international reminder of the sometimes beneficial effects on nature of military activity!

The Kouprey or grey ox of Indochina, is one of the rarest large mammals on earth. Although it has not been reliably observed by scientists since the 1950s, population estimates for the species are 100-300 survivors. One element in the Kouprey Action Plan formulated by IUCN and the WWF after a meeting in Hanoi in January this year is the establishment of several transfrontier reserves in Kouprey habitat in the remaining forests of the Laos, Vietnamese and Kampuchean borders. The security problems in the area are a major constraint to effecting this proposal but surveys to determine boundaries have begun.

Africa

Border parks in Africa are found in abundance. This is partially explained by the migratory nature of the wildlife resource in many of the parks which does not respect the artificial political boundaries of man. Two promising prospects for two more such parks are well advanced.

The Gebel Elba mountains occur in a disputed border territory along the Red Sea, claimed and partially administered by both Egypt and Sudan. The area contains very important conservation values and is the traditional home of several hundred nomadic Bisharin tribesmen. IUCN and WWF have conducted a resource survey of the area and recommend that the two governments

resolve the issue by establishing a conservation area that would both protect the natural resources and the traditional culture values of the area.

A second important initiative currently underway in west Africa would be to link up the proposed Oban National Park in Nigeria with the newly established Korup National Park in Cameroon. These two parks contain one of the most important natural tropical forest remnants in Africa (Nigeria has lost 90% of her original forest cover) and have a common boundary along the Korup river. Protection of this block of catchment forests is critical for downstream benefits and the whole catchment area would benefit from coordinated regional management of its natural resources.



Wildebeest migration - Serengeti National Park/Maasai Mara National Reserve, Tanzania/Kenya

4. CONCLUSION

We live in a world that is becoming more economically and ecologically interdependent. In recent years, transboundary environmental problems such as acid rain, global warming and pollution of the world's oceans are underlining the fact that the ability of national governments to deal with these issues on a unilateral basis is inadequate. Moreover, environmental concerns are fast becoming the third pillar of the emerging international system, along with security and economic development.

Parks on the Borderline

There is thus a considerable challenge presented by the need for more international coordination in the environmental field. Herein lies the broader potential contribution of the concept of border peace parks. By establishing frameworks for the building of an institutional order and by practically demonstrating the benefits of cooperation in a world of decreasing significance of boundaries, border parks can provide ecological models as well as political symbols of effective conservation. In an historical sense, the national park movement has been at the fountainhead for many of our current perceptions of harmonising the man and nature problematic. It is now time to extend this influence into the broader arena of sustaining human society. Perhaps this is what Henry David Thoreau implied when he noted that "in wildness is the preservation of the world".

ANNEX I GLOBAL LIST OF BORDER PARKS

Map Site

No.

North America

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. Wrangell-St Elias (USA) | Kluane (Canada) |
| 2. Glacier (USA) | Waterton Lakes(Canada) |
| 3. Arctic (USA) | North Yukon (Canada) |
| 4. Quetico (Canada) | Boundary Waters Canoe Area (USA) |
| 5. Cathedral/Manning/Sagit/Cascade (Canada) | Pasayten, N. Cascade (USA) |

Europe

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| 6. Belovezhskaya Pushcha (Byelorussia) | Bialowieza (Poland) |
| 7. Tatranski (Poland) | High Tatra (Czechoslovakia) |
| 8. Pieninski (Poland) | Pieniny (Czechoslovakia) |
| 9. Karkonoski (Poland) | Krkonose (Czechoslovakia) |
| 10. Aggtelek (Hungary) | Slovak Karst (Czechoslovakia) |
| 11. Djerap (Yugoslavia) | Cazanele (Romania) |
| 12. Galicia (Yugoslavia) | Mikra Prespa (Greece) |
| 13. Pyrenées Occidentales (France) | Ordessa (Spain) (+ others) |
| 14. Vanoise (France) | Gran Paradiso (Italy) |
| 15. Swiss (Switzerland) | Stelvio (Italy) |
| 16. Femundsmarka (Norway) | Rogen (Sweden) |
| 17. Sarek, Padjelanta, Stora Sjöfallet (Sweden) | Rago (Norway) |
| 18. Ovre Anarjokka (Norway) | Lemmenjoki (Finland) |

Parks on the Borderline

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 19. Teilbereiche des Unterer Inn (Austria) | Unterer Inn (FRG) |
| 20. Mercantour (France) | Argentera (Italy) |
| 21. Haute Fagnes Eifel (Belgium) | Nordeifel (FRG) |
| 22. Pfälzerwald (FRG) | Vosges du Nord (France) |
| 23. Berchtesgaden (FRG) | Various sites in Austria |
| 24. Sumava Protected Landscape (Czechoslovakia) | Bayerischerwald (FRG) |
| 25. Germano-Luxembourg Nature Park (FRG/Luxembourg) | |
| 26. Belgian-Luxembourg Nature Park (Belgium/Luxembourg) | |
| 27. Waddensee (FRG/Netherlands/Denmark) | |
| 28. Lake Ferto (Hungary). | Neusiedlersee (Austria) |

Asia

- | | |
|---|------------------------------|
| 29. Sundarbans (India) | Sundarbans (Bangladesh) |
| 30. Barnadi (India) | Shumar (Bhutan) |
| 31. Manas (India) | Manas (Bhutan) |
| 32. Wasur (Indonesia) | Tindu WMA (Papua New Guinea) |
| 33. Udaipur & Valmiki Nagar (India) | Royal Chitwan (Nepal) |
| 34. Samunsam & Tanjung Datu (Sarawak) | Hutan Sambas (Kalimantan) |
| 35. Yot Dom and Khao Phanom Dong Rak (Thailand) | Preah Vihear (Kampuchea) |
| 36. Futien (China) | Mai Po (Hong Kong) |
| 37. Kayan Mentarang (Kalimantan) | Prop. Pulong Tai (Sarawak) |
| 38. Sungai Kayan-Sungai Mentarang (Kalimantan) | Prop. Pulong Tau (Sarawak) |
| 39. Prop. Gunung Bentang & Karimum (Kalimantan) | Lanjak Entimau (Sarawak) |
| 40. Khunjerab (Pakistan) | Taxkorgan (China) |
| 41. Sagarmatha (Nepal) | Prop. site (China) |

Africa

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| 42. Volcanoes (Rwanda), Virunga (Zaire) and Gorilla (Uganda) | |
| 43. Virunga (Zaire) | Queen Elizabeth (Uganda) |
| 44. "W" in Benin, Burkina Faso and Niger | |
| 45. Serengeti (Tanzania) | Masaai Mara (Kenya) |
| 46. Gemsbok (South Africa) | Kalahari Gemsbok (Botswana) |
| 47. Boucle de la Pendjari (Benin) | Arly (Burkina Faso) |
| 48. Mont Nimba (Guinea) | Mont Nimba (Côte d'Ivoire) |
| 49. Delta du Saloum (Senegal) | Gambia Saloum (Gambia) |
| 50. Tsavo (Kenya) | Mkomazi and Umba (Tanzania) |
| 51. Nyika (Malawi) | Nyika (Zambia) |
| 52. Lower Zambezi (Zambia) | Mana Pools etc. (Zimbabwe) |
| 53. Victoria Falls & Zambezi (Zimbabwe) | Mosi-oa-Tunya (Zambia) |
| 54. Iona (Angola) | Skeleton Coast (Namibia) |
| 55. Luiana (Angola) | Caprivi (Namibia) |
| 56. Sioma-Ngwezi & West Zambezi GMA (Zambia) | Luiana (Angola) |
| 57. Yata-Ngaya (Central African Republic) | Radom (Sudan) |
| 58. Boni (Kenya) | Lag Bagdana (Somalia) |
| 59. Comoé (Côte d'Ivoire) | Komoé-Leraba (Burkina Faso) |
| 60. Djoudj (Senegal) | Prop. Diaouling (Mauritania) |
| 61. Kidepo (Sudan) | Kidepo Valley (Uganda) |
| 62. Niokola Koba (Senegal) | Bardiar (Guinea) |
| 63. Gebel Elba (Egypt) | Prop. Gebel Elba (Sudan) |

Parks on the Borderline

South and Central America

- | | |
|--|----------------------------------|
| 64. Iguazu (Argentina) | Iguaçu (Brazil) |
| 65. La Amistad (Costa Rica) | La Amistad (Panamá) |
| 66. La Neblina (Venezuela) | Pico da Neblina (Brazil) |
| 67. Puyehue & Vincente Perez Rosales (Chile) | Lanin & Nahuel Huapi (Argentina) |
| 68. Bernado O'Higgins & Torres del Paine (Chile) | Los Glaciares (Argentina) |
| 69. Sajama (Bolivia) | Lauca (Chile) |
| 70. Los Katios (Colombia) | Darien (Panamá) |



Figure 1: Border Parks of the Americas

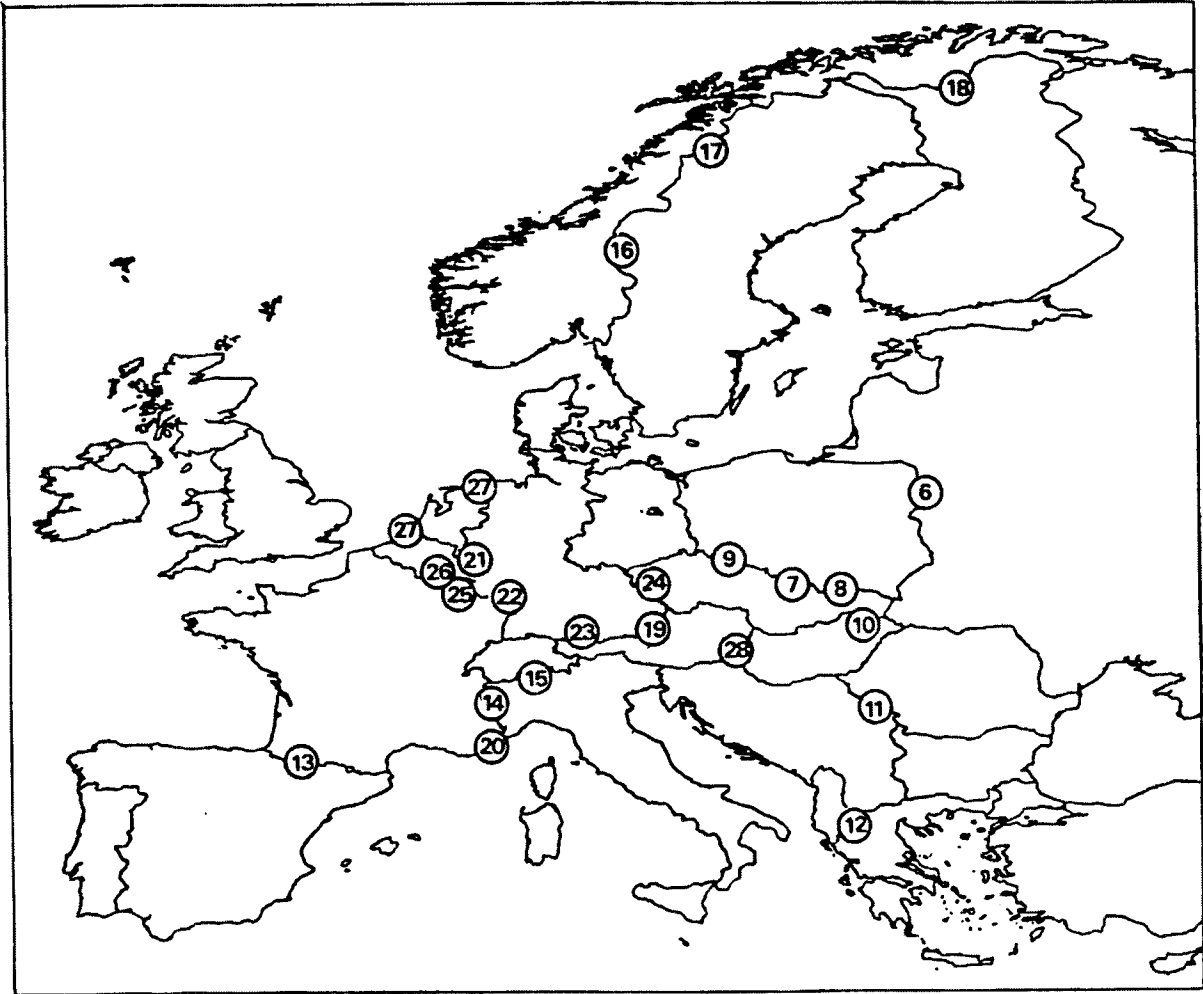


Figure 2: Border Parks of Europe

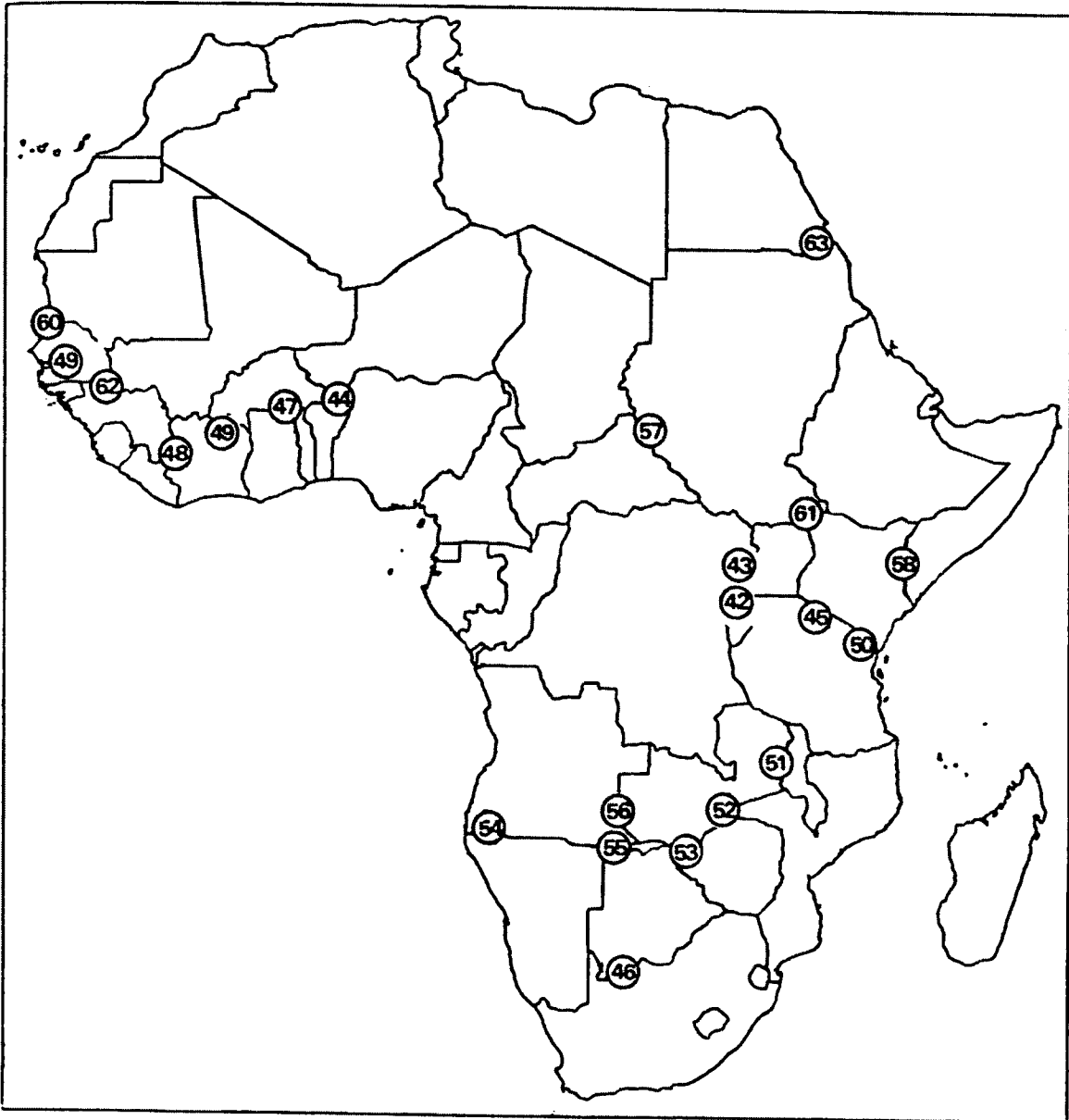


Figure 3: Border Parks of Africa

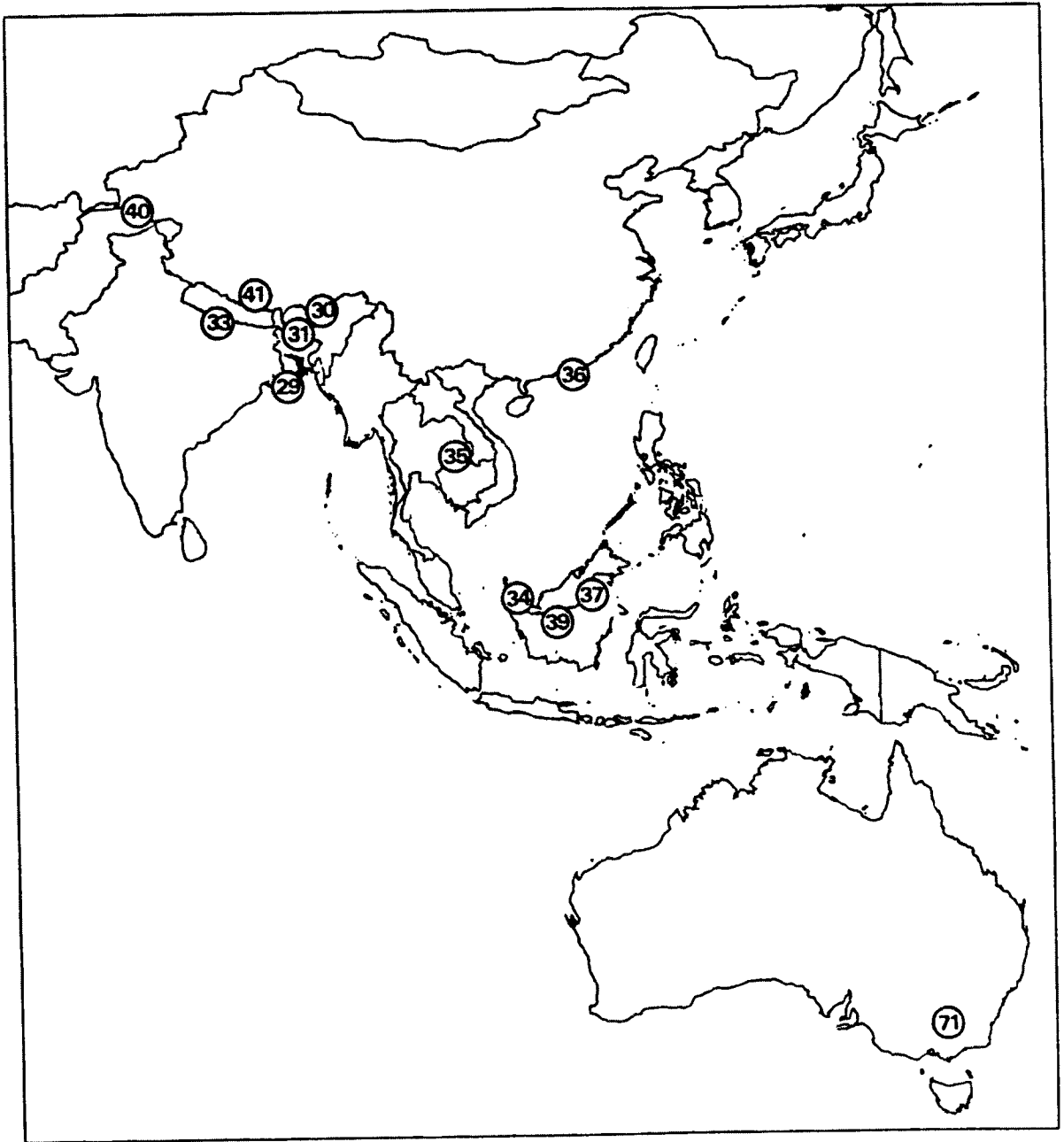


Figure 4: Border Parks of Asia

ANNEX II

Recommendation by the General Assembly of IUCN, at its 17th Session in San José, Costa Rica, 1-10 February 1988

17.57 Bering Land Bridge World Heritage Site, USSR and USA

RECOGNIZING that natural and cultural resources at or adjacent to international boundaries often represent a shared heritage of significance to two or more nations;

AWARE that effective conservation of such shared heritage requires active cooperation between and among the nations concerned and the indigenous user groups of the region;

REALIZING that the designation of bi-national parks and reserves can provide international recognition and coordinated management and protection for unique resources without affecting the territorial sovereignty of the nations concerned;

AWARE that the Governments of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the United States of America are resuming scientific and technical cooperation to conserve their natural and cultural heritage;

RECOGNIZING the international significance of the Bering Strait region from the standpoint of paleoecology, anthropology, archaeology, and history, and the richness and diversity of its marine environment;

The General Assembly of IUCN, at its 17th Session in San José, Costa Rica, 1-10 February 1988:

1. **CONGRATULATES** the Governments of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the United States of America for recognizing the importance of their common heritage in the Bering Strait region and agreeing to consider joint programmes for research, conservation and management of the unique resources therein.
2. **ENCOURAGES** both Governments, in cooperation with indigenous inhabitants, to pursue studies of potential bi-national protected sites in the Beringia region and cooperative management programmes for shared marine species and for pollution control.
3. **EXPRESSES** its hope that subsequent steps will be taken by both Governments to have Beringia designated as a World Heritage Site.



INTERNATIONAL PARKS FOR PEACE

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INTERNATIONAL PARKS FOR PEACE

Abstract

Border parks have three primary functions: the promotion of peace; the improvement of resource management; and the preservation of cultural values. Examples of where each have been applied are presented. Nine categories of different types of border parks are devised based on sovereignty and level of importance. A set of recommendations to advance the establishment and management of border parks conclude the paper.

1. INTRODUCTION

International, transnational, and border parks and similar protected landscapes have an unrealised potential for reducing international tensions and for creating conditions which make peace more likely. Besides their direct influence on the enhancement of peace, these parks can also result in improved management of natural resources and in the protection of indigenous minority people. In these cases, of course, improved prospects of peace are inevitable secondary effects. Various conditions of sovereignty, ownership, control, tension and dispute, and degree and broadness of interest produce a number of different situations in which parks can improve or aid in the creation of peaceful conditions. The creation and management of protected areas need not wait for peaceful conditions nor for agreeable partners on both sides of a border. The position taken here is that these parks can precede, lead to, and result in, as well as help to maintain, peace among nations and communities.

2. FUNCTIONS AND VALUES OF INTERNATIONAL PARKS

International parks have three primary possible functions:

- the promotion of peace;
- protection and management of resources and environments; and
- preservation and enhancement of cultural values, especially the protection of transboundary people.

2.1 Promotion of Peace

Since the dedication in 1932 of Glacier National Park (Montana, USA) and Waterton Lakes National Park (Alberta, Canada) as a joint Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park (Bibelriether 1988), the idea has slowly spread geographically and grown more sophisticated as an idea. In this case the dedication to peace came between countries normally having excellent relations.

A second possibility is the creation of international parks where relationships may be slightly strained, neutral, a little 'cool', or peaceful but still bearing the possibility of a truly and more deeply friendly interaction between countries. La Amistad National Park in Costa Rica and its proposed partner park in Panama, or Finland's potential park on its eastern border and a possible Soviet counterpart, may be examples.

In other cases international parks have been created or proposed in the aftermath of war or where boundary tensions or disputes existed. For example, the German-Dutch, German-Belgian, and German-Luxembourg parks, while growing partly from earlier work, seem to be primarily an attempt at reconciliation and improved international relationships following World War II (M. Schmitt-Degenhardt, pers. comm.). Similarly, the Czechoslovakian-Polish parks are primarily a result of unusual border situations which followed World War II (Janota 1988).

Fourthly, parks may be created where tensions or hostilities are present: a primary goal of such parks may be the fostering of peace. Perhaps the best current example is the ongoing effort of Nicaragua and Costa Rica to create and manage cooperatively a series of protected areas on their common border. This example is described in more detail below.

These four different 'levels' of social conditions present quite different opportunities for the development of international parks. Where strong, long-term, very friendly relationships exist, it is more likely to be possible to use ecological barriers and cultural criteria than political boundaries to control management practices. Sharing of funding and staff, joint interpretation and educational activities, and enhanced and efficient use and management of park resources are possible. These situations can also be excellent demonstrations and examples for other parts of the world.

Where relationships are satisfactory but not excellent, important values and effects may include the building of bi-national confidence and goodwill, the improvement of international understanding, increase in the sense that international activities offer positive possibilities, and generally further movement toward peace not simply as the absence of war but as a positive relationship and set of activities.

In the aftermath of war or other conflicts, rebuilding confidence and goodwill are important. The reduction of uncertainties for people living near borders and the protection of the interests of minorities or powerless peoples can occur. Demonstrations of successful and peaceful interactions between former antagonists is possible with the creation and management of border parks.

Where conflicts are present, the creation of parks can help reduce military presence, reduce scale of military operations or tend to move them to less damaging or less inflammatory locations, demonstrate non-military methods of dispute avoidance and resolution, lead to the eventual resolution of boundary disputes, and generally lead antagonists to the realisation that peace is possible.

The interests of peace are also served in a secondary way when resources are managed optimally, for example when migratory geese which nest in Canada and winter in southern USA are managed cooperatively.

2.2 Protection and Management of Resources and Environments

Protection of natural resources and provision of opportunities for tourism and recreational use are two somewhat contradictory and central 'raisons d'être' for many (most?) national parks. Both can be enhanced by international approaches to policy making and management. Besides the simple efficiencies possible with cooperation and the increased preservation opportunities inherent with larger park units, international cooperation almost always increases the opportunities to manage according to nature's units - populations and ecosystems - rather than according to political boundaries.

The provision of international parks will serve the interests of improved resource management principally by:

- increasing protection for migratory species which cross boundaries;
- reducing pressure of urban and industrial activities on wildlife and of wildlife on farmlands;
- improving protection of internationally shared resources such as rivers, lakes, scenic vistas;
- reducing risks and levels of transnational hazards and pollutants such as fire and air pollution; and
- allowing fuller and easier enjoyment of recreational experiences.

Many species of animals either have very large home ranges (for example, polar bears), or they undergo long and regular migrations (European reindeer, American caribou, many African antelopes, migratory waterfowl, and songbirds nearly everywhere). Many large and interesting predators such as wolves, brown bears, and mountain lions require very large areas of relatively undisturbed habitat in order to maintain viable populations. Although only a few animals may normally cross the international border, maintenance of a residual grizzly bear population in Glacier (USA) and Waterton Lakes (Canada) National Parks, may depend upon the gene pool provided by the entire regional bear population in both countries. Similarly, the Serengeti ecosystem in East Africa does not end at the colonially imposed border between Kenya and Tanzania. The millions of wildebeests, zebras, other ungulates, and accompanying lions and other predators, absolutely depend on the seasonally available grazing requirements in both countries. The Porcupine caribou herd, as development pressures increase, will ultimately depend on protection in both the Alaskan (USA) and Yukon Territory (Canadian) portions of its annual range.

The reciprocally negative interactions between urban-industrial-farmland activities and protected areas may also frequently be improved by the presence of international or adjoining border parks. Wandering deer from the Nordeifel Nature Park in Germany are less likely to damage farm crops because on the Belgian side they encounter another park. Reduced collisions between cars and wildlife, decreased effects of industrial air pollution, and lowered levels of illegal hunting, are all possible effects.

Besides migratory animals, other resources may be commonly or internationally owned, or they may be of primary interest to people outside a country's borders. For example, in Europe, where many countries are small, a beautiful scenic vista may include or may primarily encompass a foreign landscape. Lakes and rivers frequently are internationally shared. Wrangell-St. Elias National Park (Alaska, USA) and Kluane National Park (Yukon Territory, Canada) share a glacier.

Other international resources are unowned or have disputed sovereignty. Antarctica, or parts of it, is certainly a candidate for some kind of international park status. The wreck of the steamship *Titanic* is outside any national jurisdiction and may warrant consideration for some kind of protected status. Deep seabed features or portions of the moon will similarly demand our attention for protection eventually.

Control of severity of risk of transnational hazards may be improved by the creation of border parks. Flood, fire, and other 'natural' hazards are often under some human influence and cooperative management efforts are possible. Also, we may improve our protection from each other if we create border parks rather than waste dumps or storage sites at our territorial boundaries. Fabio Ausenda (pers. comm.) has described a Swiss proposal to dump nuclear waste in Valle Mesolcina in Graubunden, a German canton with Italian minorities. Water in the local watershed flows to Italy and the proposal has raised Italian concerns over the risk of radioactive materials moving between the countries. How much better than a nuclear waste dump would be a border park.

Finally, enhanced resource management can improve the recreational experiences available. In both the German-Belgian and the German-Luxembourg border parks, many hikers' trails allow free access by nationals to the foreign parks' areas. Trails are laid out and maintained according to ecological, recreational, and esthetic criteria rather than being controlled by political boundaries.

2.3 Preservation and Enhancement of Cultural Values

National parks have probably been most used for protection of nature, and secondly for historical and archaeological sites. International parks can also serve these values. A third consideration, usually neglected, is the protection and possible enhancement of the lives of people (especially 'traditional' 'indigenous' people) now living in these parks. I will use here the term 'transboundary people' to refer both to people who regularly migrate or wander nomadically across frontiers and to people who are primarily sedentary but who formally moved across or whose culture or subculture is located on both sides of national borders. (These transboundary people may or may not know of or recognize the nations or borders discussed here). These proposed parks can thus be international in a second sense, that is, where people living on the territory of, and subject to the sovereignty of a nation state, understand themselves to be a part of quite a different political and legal entity.

It is clear that improvements to the security, the economic conditions, the social status, and the stability of social conditions of these people can occur with creation of international parks. Reduction of tensions and increased peace can occur between affected nation states and between the nation state and its contained or partially included tribal state.

The Maasai of Kenya and Tanzania could certainly benefit from an improved capability of visiting with friends and relatives across the border, exchanging information, conducting ceremonies, perhaps improving cattle blood lines. Sahelian cattle-and-camel herders can manage their herds best if their movements are directed primarily by availability of food and water, rather than by political boundaries. The Inuit on both sides of the Bering Strait could benefit from frequent exchanges of people, and the consequent exchanges of information about hunting and fishing techniques, not to mention the vital song, dance, poetry, stories, and so many other central aspects of their culture.

3. TYPES OF INTERNATIONAL PARKS

Some potential international parks are owned by two or more nations; some are owned by no-one. Some territories are disputed; in other places sovereignty is clear and agreed. Some 'nations' are embedded in others, or, boundaries are agreed but who should govern is in dispute. Some nations already have parks on their borders; these may or may not accompany protected areas in the adjacent foreign territory.

Many of us are interested in the preservation of the Pyramids at Ghiza; few of us probably are concerned about Machias Seal Island. All of us have a stake in what happens to Antarctica; the future status of St Croix Island is important to only a few.

Some potential parks are in zones of present or recent military conflict; others are in regions and along borders of enduring peace. Some are in vast regions of comparative wilderness; others are in heavily populated and even urban settings.

3.1 Bases for Classification

As the author struggled with these ideas, it gradually became clear that it is useful to classify these proposed and existing parks according to their presumed control, ownership or sovereignty, and secondarily according to who has or might have an interest in an area's possible status as a park.

3.2 A Typology of Parks

A classification scheme for international parks, based on sovereignty and interest, is shown in Table 1. This system results in nine categories, including some which are not presently represented in the world's park systems. Each of the nine is discussed here briefly.

Type 1. International areas which are clearly unclaimed, unowned, have no national sovereignty. These are parts of the global (and larger) commons. They are areas which are difficult to control or occupy. They are beginning to be recognised in various treaties as improved technology makes them more accessible and of greater possible interest for various economic purposes. Deep ocean objects and sites and outer space objects and sites are the principal components of this category.

Type 2. Single national sovereignty but broad international interest. These are objects and areas that are of such unusually high scenic, historical, archaeological, biological or other value, that they are generally agreed to be part of 'the common heritage of humankind'. The Grand Canyon of the Colorado River in the USA and the Inca ruins of Macchu Picchu in Peru are examples of natural and cultural sites of high global value.

The World Heritage Convention recognises the international importance of certain resources and provides for international assistance in restoring, preserving, and managing World Heritage Sites (Slatyer 1984). There have been over two hundred sites recognised and the numbers continue to grow. Many sites of extreme importance are not yet included on the World Heritage List, mainly because some countries are not yet signatories to the treaty, which also requires that nominations be made by the state within which the site is located.

Type 3. Single national sovereignty but narrow foreign interest. Some areas, perhaps historical sites especially, may be located in one country but of primary interest to people from another country. For example, a national hero may have been born in or performed certain famous deeds in another country. A scenic vista may be valued and used most by foreign nationals while resident in their own countries. A watershed may supply water to residents of an adjacent state.

Type 4. Clear and agreed multiple sovereignty, and global interest. No such parks now exist. Multiple sovereignty is a difficult concept and the few available examples (e.g. New Hebrides, now Vanuatu, formerly a colonial condominium of Britain and France) are bi-national. Antarctica would seem to be the best possibility. Its awkward current status, with multiple and overlapping claims, could be resolved eventually in favour of parts or all of the continent being declared a World Park, under the present treaty, a revised or replacement treaty, or some other international authority such as the United Nations system.

Type 5. Clear and agreed multiple sovereignty, with limited interest. None presently exist. Machias Seal Island (USA and/or Canada) may be a good possibility. It would seem that especially with border areas which are in dispute, a peaceful and peace enhancing resolution might in many cases be to create a shared area, rather than to continue a dispute or to reach a legal settlement which would produce a winner and a loser.

Type 6. Unclear or disputed sovereignty; broad international interest. Antarctica is perhaps the only example of this type. The most peace enhancing park status would seem to be some agreed multiple sovereignty (perhaps with the present treaty) (Type 4) or agreed non sovereignty (perhaps managed by some UN agency) (Type 1).

TABLE 1: INTERNATIONAL PARKS CLASSIFIED PRIMARILY BY SOVEREIGNTY SECONDARILY BY INTEREST (With parenthetical examples)

I International: clear and undisputed sovereignty status		
A	unclaimed, unowned, no national sovereignty (<i>Titanic</i> , deep ocean resources, moon, space resources)	1
B	1. broad international interest (World Heritage Sites)	2
	2. primarily narrow foreign interest (Campobello, St Croix)	3
C	multiple sovereignty	
	1. global, or world interest (none presently; possibilities such as Antarctica)	4
	2. limited interest (none presently; possibilities such as Machias Seal Island)	5
II International: unclear and/or disputed sovereignty		
A	multiple or global interest (Antarctica)	6
B	regional interest (Korean DMZ)	7
III	Transnational: adjacent and cooperatively managed protected areas (Belgian-German Nature Park)	8
IV	Border: potential transnational parks	9

Type 7. Unclear or disputed sovereignty; limited, bi-national or regional interest. Many border areas fit this type and are potential international parks. Parks created under these conditions would, we hope, eventually reach peaceful conditions perhaps under Type 5 or 8. This type of area also fits the unusual condition of an embedded nation, where the disputed sovereignty involves a tribal or other cultural minority claiming sovereignty within the more usually recognised borders of a larger state.

Type 8. Transnational parks; adjacent and (potentially or presently) cooperatively managed protected areas. Quite a number of examples exist in Europe today, where two countries have adjacent protected areas. Others are found in North America, South America, Africa, and Asia. Thorsell and Harrison (this volume) compile a list of seventy locations for such parks in the world today. All degrees of cooperation exist from joint planning and management to situations where virtually no interaction occurs. The latter are included here because of their very large potential value.

Type 9. Border parks; potential transnational parks where presently only one side has declared a protected area. Undoubtedly many have been designated for scenic or recreational or other values which would apply equally in the adjacent country. This could also be a first step in the creation of 'international peace parks' (with that primary objective) where one country is not quite ready and the other can make a first move.

The next section discusses and describes some current examples and representative possibilities of many of these types.

4. SOME EXAMPLES AND POSSIBILITIES

4.1 Type 1, unowned commons.

The wreck of the steamship *Titanic* lies in 3600 metres of water, 2000 km east of its intended destination of New York and 560 km south of Newfoundland. Submersible robots have reached the site, photographs have been taken, and some artifacts have been retrieved. Many people argue that it would be appropriate to prevent further disturbance to this last resting place of 1500 people. An appropriate mechanism would seem to be an international treaty declaring the site to be an international park. ('World Park' may be a suitable phrase to name this type of arrangement). The Congress of the USA has proposed designating the site as an 'international maritime memorial' (Anon, 1986b).

In a similar manner, other unknown commons, as our technology and curiosity permit, will become susceptible to greater disturbance and perhaps should be considered for a designated protected status. Ocean vents with unusual life forms, ocean deeps or seamounts or similar physical phenomena, and part or all of the moon and other objects and phenomena in space might be considered. Feeding areas, migratory routes, or other critical habitats for marine species may be candidates.

4.2 Type 2, sovereign areas of broad international interest.

In July 1989, 110 countries were signatories to the World Heritage Convention and well over 200 sites were listed as World Heritage Sites (Thorsell, pers. comm.). Nevertheless, many absolutely outstanding areas of high international value, for example the Great Wall of China, the Aztec Pyramids near Mexico City, the wintering grounds in Mexico of millions of Monarch butterflies, are not yet included. The excellent work done under this Convention to recognise and protect globally outstanding sites of natural or cultural value deserves our applause and support.

4.3 Type 3, sovereign areas of narrow foreign interest.

Campobello Island is Canadian. The island is accessible from the USA by bridge and from the New Brunswick mainland by boat or air. The island was for many years the summer home of Franklin D. Roosevelt, 32nd President of the United States. The USA and Canada have established by treaty the Roosevelt Campobello International Park which includes several buildings of historic value and 1050 ha of surrounding lands. Policies are set by a six member commission, three from each country. Funding, staffing, and management, are shared equally.

Only a few kilometres away, and just upstream from the mouth of the St Croix river (which is the international boundary in that location) is St Croix Island. The island lies on the US side of the boundary but is primarily of historical interest to the Canadians. In 1604, Samuel de Champlain and 76 others established there the first European settlement in northeastern North America. The US National Park Service now manages the site cooperatively with the Canadian Parks Service.

On a local scale the States of New York and New Jersey in eastern USA are considering the creation of parks to protect water supplies which in each case come from watersheds found partially in the neighbouring State (Charles Morrison, pers. comm.).

4.4 Type 4, multiple sovereignty and global interest.

I know of no current examples of this type. Antarctica seems to be the only real possibility and is discussed below under Type 6.

4.5 Type 5, multiple sovereignty and regional or limited interest.

No current examples exist. Elsewhere (McNeil, in press) this possible arrangement has been proposed for Machias Seal Island, an island claimed by both the USA and Canada. See discussion under Type 7.

4.6. Type 6, unclear or disputed sovereignty, global interest.

Seven nations claim parts of Antarctica; some of these claims overlap. Two other nations say that they have bases for claims. These and other signatories of the Antarctic Treaty are the principal policy makers for the continent. Although some small areas of special interest have been temporarily set aside, their protection is not strong, and nothing approaching the idea of a somewhat 'typical' national park has ever been declared in Antarctica. Some groups, such as Greenpeace, and the Antarctica and Southern Ocean Coalition, have proposed making the entire continent into a World Park. This seems unlikely (although personally appealing) but the idea of one or several large World Parks has a large constituency. Such a park or parks could be organised under a presumed or agreed multiple sovereignty (Type 4) or perhaps some kind of trusteeship under the Antarctic Treaty or as an unowned commons (Type 1) under some kind of international control such as the UN.

4.7 Type 7, unclear or disputed sovereignty, regional interest.

Maps of almost any region of the world show areas where boundaries are in active dispute or where, at least, adjacent (or distant) countries assert claims. Some of these disagreements are eventually 'settled' by war, although the people in the absorbed area are often not satisfied. Some disputes are settled by an agreed referral to the International Court of Justice. In these cases one party wins, the other loses. A win-win situation might be possible in some cases where an agreed joint sovereignty and management of an international park could be worked out. The possibilities seem nearly endless (although many are politically sensitive): the Malvinas/Falkland Islands, Berlin, the Korean Demilitarized Zone between the North and South (which apparently serves now as a *de facto* wildlife refuge). The Spratly Islands in the South China Sea are claimed by

five countries. Jerusalem is about as difficult politically as any area of the world; the tremendous interest by Muslims, Jews, and Catholics suggests global rather than regional interest here. The Rio Grande defines part of the boundary between the USA and Mexico. As the river has changed its course, small areas have attained awkward status, apparently shifting in sovereign possession between the two nations. In one case, the USA has created a unit of the national park system, Amistad National Recreation Area, as an international friendship park. Also, two reservoir, Amistad and Falcon, are shared by the USA and Mexico and administered by their International Boundary and Water Commission.

4.8 Type 8, transnational parks; adjacent protected areas.

It is here that the greatest present development and potential lie, both in promoting peace and in improving the functioning of parks as natural areas for both preservation and enjoyment. Thorsell (1985) lists and maps 44 pairs of (and groups of three) parks in about as many countries, and Thorsell and Harrison (this volume) list a further 26, giving a total of 70 in 65 countries.

The concept seems to be best developed in Europe. Burrell (1988 and pers. comm.) has identified twelve pairs of transboundary parks there, including one or more parks in twelve countries. The Federal Republic of Germany has the most with counterpart parks in The Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, and France. Thorsell and Harrison (this volume) include at least twice as many pairs of protected areas in Europe. Although today their function is primarily tourism, recreation, and nature protection, peace and improvement of relationships were motives central to their establishment.

Cooperation ranges from almost none existing or needed (Finland's Lemmenjoki National Park and Norway's Ovre Anarjokka National Park) (Matti Helminen, pers. comm.) to very high levels of interaction, as with Italy's Argentera and France's Mercantour, which have joint research, staff, and information exchange, joint posters, and informational brochures (Rossi 1988 and pers. comm.). The German-Belgian parks have some twenty unguarded frontier crossing points on hikers' trails and fifteen are planned for the German-Dutch area (Burrell 1988). France's Pyrenees National Park and Spain's Ordesy Monte Perdido have joint signposting, interpretation presentations, and tourism information (Guiu 1988). Most do not, but at least four areas have formal legal agreements. In the case of the German-Belgian park, for example, an international consultative committee, with representation from Belgium and the two German states involved, regularly meets to deal with transfrontier problems and the pursuit of common objectives. The legal basis is the Gemünd Agreement of 1981 which has given a legal international status to the German-Belgian National Park (Federation of Nature and National Parks of Europe 1988).

Eastern Europeans have had considerable experience in the development and management of transboundary parks including those on borders between socialist and non-socialist countries (Karpowicz 1988). Czechoslovakia shares at least three with Poland, one with Hungary, and one with FRG. Greece and Yugoslavia also have adjacent border parks (Thorsell and Harrison, this volume). Finland and USSR are now discussing a possible joint area on their borders (Matti Helminen, pers. comm.).

In Africa, probably the best known transnational pair is Tanzania's Serengeti National Park and Kenya's Maasai Mara Game Reserve. The spectacular annual migration of hundreds of thousands of big grazing mammals, especially wildebeest and zebras, have been ensured by the vast adjacent reserves which largely contain the normal annual home ranges of these animals.

Conditions for Maasai herders are perhaps also improved. Also, when political conditions are favourable, a tourist route including several parks in Kenya and others in Tanzania, not all border parks, has provided an unparalleled international nature experience.

In Asia, the Manas Wildlife Sanctuaries (Bhutan and India) and the Sunderbans reserves (India and Bangladesh) are notable as is a Nepalese proposal to more than double the size of Sagarmatha (Mount Everest) National Park while Tibet is proposing a million hectare preserve on that side (described in leaflet from Woodlands Mountain Institute, Franklin, West Virginia, USA).

The USA and USSR are now negotiating about the possibility of jointly designating a Bering Straits park, possibly a Biosphere Reserve (Ronald Cooksy, pers. comm.). Roberts (1985) had earlier proposed a research park for the Bering Straits area.

In Central America, several proposals for 'Peace Through Parks' have recently been made (Anon 1986a). President Ortega of Nicaragua proposed the creation of several parks on his country's borders (IUCN/CNPPA 1986) and President Arias of Costa Rica has made similar proposals. One possibility involving three countries is the volcanic area of Biotopo Trifinio, where El Salvador, Guatemala, and Honduras have a common border. La Amistad International Park is a reality on the Costa Rican side; Panamanian plans are moving more slowly.

With the present political tensions in the area, the border between Nicaragua and Costa Rica seems among the least likely (but also among the very important) possibilities for transnational park development. Yet here is one of the most exciting and interesting of recent areas of activity. The Presidents of both countries have made very strong public declarations of support and endorsement. An international policy committee has been established. Administrators, managers, and scientists are already far along in planning, field surveys, and cooperative discussions. At a January 1988 meeting in Costa Rica, officials from environmental agencies of both countries made most impressive presentations outlining their progress and plans.

Transnational parks would, in some cases, seem to have a special potential for improving the situation of indigenous minority people while promoting peace and reducing border tensions. A remarkable success story is the Awá Ethnic Forest Reserve and surrounding region of Ecuador (Macdonald 1986, Levy 1988). The reserve of 120,000 ha is home to the hunter-gatherer-farmer Awá Indians. Several Ecuadorian Government agencies, along with non-government organisations, are working together to create suitable conditions for sustainable activities both on the reserve and in the surrounding region where pressures by colonists and others would otherwise place the Awá people and culture at risk. The project area of about 300,000 ha adjoins a similar one in Columbia. National project commissions in both countries assisted by a bi-national advisor. A bi-national resource management plan has been developed and bi-national technical meetings are proceeding.

A proposed Yanomami Indian Park in Brazil (and possibly a similar protected area in Venezuela) could serve similar broad functions. Proposals for a very large protected area, to include several present national parks and forest reserves have been detailed (Ramos and Taylor 1979, Committee for the Creation of the Yanomami Park 1979, Anthropology Resource Center 1981).

Many other areas seem to be candidates for this type of approach; for example: the unhappy situation of the Naga (and other nearby) people and the Governments of Burma and India

Many other areas seem to be candidates for this type of approach; for example: the unhappy situation of the Naga (and other nearby) people and the Governments of Burma and India (IWGIA 1986) or the Akwesasne people living in northern New York (USA) and Ontario and Quebec (Canada).

4.9 Type 9, border parks; no protected area in adjacent state or nation.

This type is included as a reminder that so many examples exist and because so much potential is present for adding parks in adjacent areas. For example, Mourne and South Armagh Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty, on the southern border of Northern Ireland, have no adjacent protected areas in the Republic of Ireland. Perhaps it would be a step towards peace if there were designated parks (transnational parks) on both sides, with ever-growing cooperative management practices.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

For those interested in the possibilities of promoting peace through parks, several ideas seem important. It is clear that parks can be established with the primary motivation being the improvement of peace or conditions leading to peace. It is also true that two other, more usual, purposes of parks, for their natural resources and cultural values, can improve prospects for peace. Also, the specific objective of improving conditions for minority indigenous people often may prove to be especially suited to the development of international parks.

Some recommendations are:

1. Search for opportunities particularly where:
 - a. territorial boundaries, either land or water, or both, are in dispute.
 - b. conflicts have previously occurred, or are ongoing.
 - c. indigenous minorities live near or on both sides of international boundaries, especially where they move regularly across these boundaries.
 - d. a park is already in place in the neighbouring state.
2. Work to develop mechanisms to improve protection of unowned commons such as Antarctica, ocean deeps, and the moon.
3. Don't wait for government officialdom to do the job. Private associations can be remarkably influential in initiating change.
4. Create border parks.
 - a. Don't wait for a partner. In none of the twelve European pairs studied by Burrell (1988) were parks established simultaneously on both sides of a border.
 - b. Don't wait for peace.

5. If necessary, build informal relationships first. Gradually increase levels and kinds of cooperation with the aim of producing a long-term stable relationship.
6. Exchange personnel whenever possible.
7. If possibilities seem really minimal, try joint science projects first. Studying nature tends to be a relatively non-threatening activity. Also, many scientific advances are only possible with larger studies which involve major ecosystems, animal migrations, etc. and inevitably involve cooperative research.

If we work carefully and optimistically, the interests of peace, tourism, preservation of natural resources, and the welfare of indigenous people and their cultures can be simultaneously advanced.

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TRANSFRONTIER COOPERATION BETWEEN CANADA AND THE USA: WATERTON-GLACIER INTERNATIONAL PEACE PARK

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Mt. Viny and Waterton Lakes: Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park Canada/USA



TRANSFRONTIER COOPERATION BETWEEN CANADA AND THE USA: WATERTON-GLACIER INTERNATIONAL PEACE PARK

Abstract

Waterton Lakes National Park (Canada) and Glacier National Park (United States) were joined by legislation as the world's first international peace park largely through the efforts of citizens of both countries. Although administratively separate, the two parks promote the peace park image through literature and signage, exchange of interpretive staff, uniform insignia, and special events. The parks cooperate in emergency responses, staff training, and resource management. Planned is a reciprocal entry fee to further strengthen the international peace park concept. The result of this cooperation is the protection of an international ecosystem while the parks have become a drawing card for and gateway to international tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park (IPP) lies astride the border between Canada in the Province of Alberta and the United States of America in the State of Montana. This 8892 km long undefended border cuts through the western part of the continent as a straight line from the Lake of the Woods across the Great Plains and western mountain ranges to the Pacific Coast. The border cuts through lakes and rivers, crosses over tops of mountains, splits valleys, and of course, separates migration routes and home ranges of wild animals, giving them dual nationality and subjecting them to differing management practices.

The 4450 km² IPP, the first such designation in the world, is an attempt to lessen the effects of this arbitrary border in a specific area, to build a bridge between two nations and protect a natural area or habitat which we call the Waterton Glacier ecosystem. This is an area where the rolling prairies meet rugged mountains astride the Continental Divide of North America, an area of dramatic transitions, rich in flora and fauna of the prairies and of the mountains, the land of the Shining Mountains (Hanna 1976). Long before white man arrived, this was the home of Indian tribes: now the Blackfeet live on the plains on both sides of the international border and are Peace Park neighbours.

2. EARLY HISTORY OF TWO PARKS

The International Peace Park is comprised of two national parks, each of which was established separately by the two respective national governments as a result of lobbying efforts by citizens.

Waterton was initially designated a forest park in 1895 to keep settlers off lands used by cattle ranchers and to protect the headwaters of rivers for irrigation needs (Getty 1971). Following its establishment, the park became an important camping and picnicking destination for residents of nearby communities (Lothian 1976). In 1911 it was designated as a national park and given the added role and area to protect game and fish (Ibid).

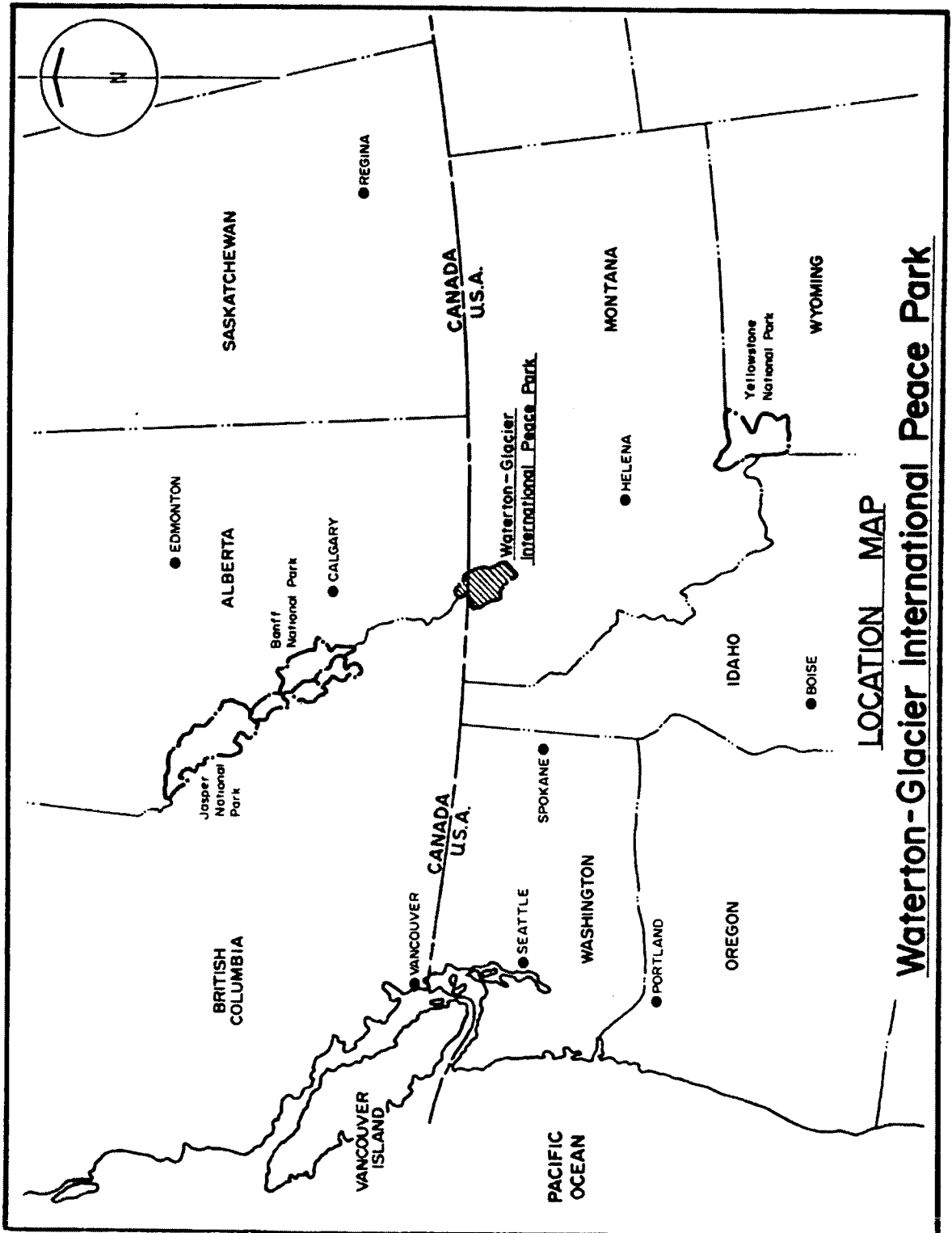


Figure 5: Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park

These changes were made in response to concerns of conservation minded citizens about oil exploration and associated activity proposed for the area (Ibid). At this time a rapidly growing conservation movement in the United States was spreading into Canada. Americans also petitioned the Canadian Government to enlarge Waterton as a national park and a natural continuation of Glacier National Park, established in 1910.

Like Waterton the efforts of individual citizens and a national conservation movement led to Glacier's designation after the area had been included as part of a forest reserve in 1897. It was the plans of lumber companies to log lands in the future park which led to the successful lobbying of President Teddy Roosevelt. The President of the Great Northern Railway also made his support known. He saw that the establishment of a national park would 'attract tourists and provide a lucrative source of passenger and freight traffic' (Hanna 1976).

The reason for the interest in creating the park is illustrated by one of its early proponents, Dr Lyman Sperry, who wrote:

"I have never seen elsewhere either in the Rockies, the Cascades, the Sierras, or the Alps, mountain scenery surpassing in real grandeur that which forms 'The Crown of the Continent'" (Ibid).

As an entity Waterton at 526 sq km was initially a minor national park in Canada overshadowed by the larger, more accessible Rocky Mountain Parks, especially Banff and Jasper. Glacier, including over 3900 sq km of spectacular mountain landscape, was much more renowned. This was largely due to the promotional efforts of Mr Louis Hill, President of the Great Northern. Under Hill's direction the Company built a chain of 'forest lodges' and mountain chalets in Glacier. He also built roads and trails connecting the lodges and providing access to some of the most scenic features of the park (Ibid). Hill's efforts did not go unnoticed by the Canadian Government which saw that the enormous amount of capital being invested in visitor facilities in Glacier could benefit Waterton. Within five years of the establishment of Glacier, Canadian officials were discussing the construction of a highway link between the two parks to bring tourism from Glacier to Waterton.

The road was not constructed at that time; but in 1926-27, Hill constructed his fourth 'forest lodge', this one in Waterton, the Swiss style, seven-storey Prince of Wales Hotel. This hotel is today still one of the significant man-built landmarks in Alberta, just as Glacier Park Hotel, Many Glacier Hotel, and Lake McDonald Lodge are in Montana.

Officials on both sides of the border saw the desirability of linking the two parks to provide a large preserve for the protection of animals. Meanwhile park staff cooperated with each other in patrol work and in fish stocking (Getty 1971). Early advertising stressed the international nature of the two parks, referring to Upper Waterton Lake as resembling a great blue arm binding the two countries together. So the two parks were a *de facto* international park before they were so designated by statute. This situation elevated Waterton's status and it received increased funding.

3. ESTABLISHMENT OF THE INTERNATIONAL PEACE PARK

Although the idea was not new, the actors were, as Rotarians from Alberta and Montana met in 1931 at the Prince of Wales Hotel and discussed the idea of creating a worldwide International Peace Movement. Eventually they drafted a resolution calling for the authorities to establish the Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park. The proposal was to symbolically link the two national parks whereby each would retain its individuality, its nationality, and its separate rights (Scace 1978).

In 1932 each Government enacted a bill to designate its park as part of IPP for the purpose of establishing an enduring monument of nature to the long-existing relationship of peace and goodwill between the people of and Governments of Canada and United States. (Bill H.R. 4752 1932 Government of Canada).

The Report explained that there would be 'no change in the handling of the two parks' but the designation would likely result in road and trail improvements and would stimulate international tourism.

3.1 The Early Programmes

Little changed in the management of the two parks following the new designation, and this was undoubtedly the result of the view held by J.B. Harkin, the Commissioner of National Parks of Canada:

"I think it should be made clear from the start that there would be no International Administration of the areas concerned, but that Canada would exclusively deal with the Canadian section and the United States deal exclusively with the American section"
... Letter to H.H. Rowatt, Deputy Minister, Department of the Interior, USA, 1932).

Rotary established the Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park Association largely to organize goodwill meetings held usually annually rotating between Alberta and Montana. In recent years parks superintendents have involved the organization in special events which will be described later.

Largely in response to the Peace Park designation, construction of a road linking the two parks was begun in 1932, and three years later the Chief Mountain International Highway was opened. Custom stations were constructed by both countries to ensure visitors met the customs and immigration laws of the land. The parkway, seasonally operated, is a main transportation link in the Peace Park.

Another major link are the tour boats which ply the waters between Upper Waterton Townsite and the IPP Interpretive exhibits at the head of the lake in Glacier. In 1927 the Great Northern Railway built a wooden 203 passenger vessel, the *International*, which still operates and is regarded as a regional landmark!

3.2 Recent Programmes

As late as 1969 Park Service staff were noting that the two parks had done little to promote the IPP. A report was prepared which proposed a number of cooperative interpretive and informational ventures designed to strengthen the international ties (Manning 1969).

One proposal was to lobby the International Boundary Commission to cease clearing the six-metre wide boundary through the Peace Park. It was felt that the lack of a very obvious boundary would emphasize the single landscape and de-emphasize the political boundary. Several years ago the two park superintendents took up this cause and made unsuccessful representations to the Boundary Commission before it had the boundary cleared in 1987. Another proposal was for common literature, and the two parks now have a single pamphlet given to all visitors. The material in the pamphlet is prepared cooperatively.

In 1982 the non-profit Glacier Natural History Association (GNHA) helped launch the Waterton Natural History Association (WNHA). Today they jointly produce the *Waterton-Glacier Times*, a newspaper listing current events and discussing subjects of interest to park visitors. This publication, paid for by business people in both parks, is also given to the visitors free of charge. Initially the WNHA relied upon its United States counterpart for suitable books to be sold at its sales outlet. Cooperation between the two park friends groups has helped both Associations and, in turn, the park visitors by providing them with more detailed information about the features of the Peace Park.

The report proposed an exchange of park interpretive staff and this has become an ongoing programme. American visitors to the east side of Glacier are often surprised to meet a uniformed Canadian park interpreter, a person who can provide them with detailed information about the Canadian portion of the Peace Park. The reciprocal situation exists in Waterton. Visitors to such exchange evening programmes hear about the Peace Park concept and how it is applied. In some years, interpreters have exchanged for the summer. They are still paid by their own Service thus avoiding the concern of work permits, but they take over each other's workspace and accommodation. In other years, the exchange has been made for specific days each week. It depends upon the availability of suitable staff.

As well as exchanging, the interpreters work together on specific events; every Saturday during the summer visitors can participate in a day-long international hike. The hike is led by a Park Interpreter from Waterton and an Interpretive Ranger from Glacier. Lunch break takes place on the International Boundary with the Americans sitting in Canada and the Canadians in the United States. The return trip is by tour boat. This event is always well attended.

Manning (1969) also noted that in the past interpretive staff from each park had been involved in staff orientation exercises put on by the other park. This exchange has not been carried on regularly because of staff reductions leaving less time to do those things not directly related to providing services to visitors. However, staff are involved in training courses put on by the other park; for instance, in law enforcement, search and rescue and wildlife management. In addition, each year the management staff of both parks hold a combined meeting to discuss areas of overlapping interests, cooperative ventures and to update each other on significant events affecting their park. The location of the meeting alternates between Waterton and Glacier.

There are many other areas in which the two parks cooperate, some obvious to the visitor while others are not. Participating in local parades, mounted, uniformed staff carrying flags of both countries are very visible to thousands of people and much appreciated by the communities involved.

Less obvious to the visitor is the sharing of data which has assisted staff in the management of the Peace Park's natural resources. The parks have access to each other's radio frequencies. Information passed back and forth for notification of visitors includes weather conditions, trail closures, and public safety warnings. As well, through the use of radio, some emergency evacuations from northern Glacier to the nearest hospitals in Alberta are coordinated. Most of the supplies for a US Ranger Station come via Waterton townsite where a supply barge is kept. The two parks have a written agreement concerning mutual assistance in dealing with emergency situations such as fire fighting and search and rescue. Waterton back country signage is made by Glacier and matches Glacier's signage. Signage in Glacier includes metric measure for the benefit of Canadian visitors.

Waterton's fishing regulations apply on both sides of the border on Upper Waterton Lake to avoid confusing visitors with two sets of regulations. Both parks cooperate when dealing with common concessionaires and lessees.

The staff wear a common Peace Park uniform insignia, designed in 1982 as part of the 50th anniversary celebrations of the establishment of the Peace Park. A highlight of the celebrations was the opening of the Peace Park Pavilion in Waterton Townsite which tells the story of the IPP. The local Rotary Club played a key role in helping host the celebrations and since that time has been active in hosting international groups coming to the Peace Park, such as the International Seminar on Parks and Protected Areas. Participants in the seminar from over thirty countries come to the IPP to learn about the parks' cooperative programmes. Discussions of their designation as a Peace Park and also as International Biosphere Reserves take place. The latter designation stresses sustainable development and is described elsewhere (Lieff 1985).

In 1985 - the 100th anniversary of the Canadian National Parks and the 75th anniversary of Glacier National Park - the two superintendents agreed to celebrate by holding a three-day International Peace Park hike, travelling from one country to the other (the hike has since become an annual event). Each superintendent invited eight people from his country, representing a broad range of interests and who could have some involvement in the Park. Those attending included owners of local businesses, politicians, ranchers, representatives from conservation organizations, the media and industry, including the travel industry. The intent of the hike was to permit discussion the purpose and challenges of the Peace Park in its wilderness setting. Participant David Boyer, a writer with *National Geographic*, discussed the hike in his feature, 'Waterton-Glacier: Pride of Two Nations' which appeared in the Journal (June 1987). This article was partly responsible for the significant increase in visitation experienced by the Peace Park in 1988. During the hike, participants discussed how they might extend the vision Rotary had which led to the creation of the Peace Park and their annual meetings to celebrate the peace and goodwill which exists between the two nations. From the discussion came the idea of US-Canada Days of Peace and Friendship to be held on 2 and 3 July, linking Canada Day (1 July) with Independence Day (4 July). Mr Boyer lobbied both federal governments and they reacted by enacting the appropriate legislation. Undoubtedly the fact that a Congressman and a Canadian Member of Parliament were also on the hike helped the legislation to pass quickly.

On 2 and 3 July 1987, special events were held in communities along the international border to celebrate peace between Canada and the United States. In the Peace Park public events involved Rotarians and members of the Blackfeet Nation. At a senior level staff meetings 'the Days of Peace and Friendship Accords' were signed, the significance of which is discussed later. July 2 and 3 should continue to be special for US-Canada relationships. Communities, especially those in border areas, can celebrate these days by inviting their neighbours from the country next door to visit them and attend events which will encourage the visitors and hosts to get to know each other better.

4. FUTURE THRUSTS

The Peace Park Accords listed a number of areas in which the two Park Services will work together for the betterment of the Peace Park. They include:

- Making additional approaches to the International Boundary Commission to have its legislation amended so the boundary swath will be allowed to regenerate.
- Passing legislation to allow visitors with valid entry permits for one park to visit the other without paying a second entry fee.
- Developing with respective Customs and Immigration officials initiatives which emphasize to the visitor the international nature of the Peace Park.
- Increasing the cooperation in research efforts and developing common databases.
- Continuing to participate jointly on panels and with organizations to address issues of common concern.
- Working together and with others involved, including originator Beth Russell, to develop a tour concept connecting the wildland parks of Yellowstone, Waterton-Glacier, Banff, and Jasper.

In addition to areas listed in the Accords, the parks will develop signage with an international flavour for its major interconnecting trail.

Cooperation between groups including government tourism agencies and the parks is leading to more effective marketing, highlighting the shoulder season.

5. CONCLUSION

Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park, created by Acts of Congress and Parliament in 1932, was the first, and remains the largest, international park undertaking in the world. The values recognized in the 1920s for cooperation management and the sharing of data and personnel have been strongly enhanced over time.

To facilitate working arrangements the two component national parks share interpretive publications, maintain cooperative law enforcement and search and rescue agreements, exchange staff, conduct joint meetings, and generally coordinate their work towards common, long-term goals and objectives. While the Parks function within the framework of two slightly differing

sets of policies, they still are able to function efficiently in terms of basic ecosystem values. While protection of resource values is of primary concern to both Parks, there is increasing involvement in the regional tourism industry. Tourism is within the policy of national parks, and the International Peace Park is viewed as a focus for both domestic and international travel. While each Park is an independent unit, with outstanding natural values, the designation of International Peace Park must be considered as a benefit in the international tourism market. International travellers to the Park comment on the ease in crossing the international boundary between two nations, as by boat on Upper Waterton Lake. The cultural values portrayed in such a crossing are easily communicated and obviously have an impact on visitors who share the experience. Aside from the general public, there is also interest by some nations in the IPP concept. Delegations routinely visit the Park to better understand the kinds of interactions which occur, so that a blueprint might be developed for their applications.

As is so often discussed, the IPP provides an opportunity for managers to address ecology rather than politics; to identify the fact that species do not recognize man's boundaries; they move within a range dictated by many circumstances, but not by politics. The lessons to be learned from this exposure are obvious to mankind. It would seem important to the world to have such places where boundaries are recognized for what they are, an artificial and yet necessary intrusion on the natural scene.

The IPP concept denotes world standing and communicates that the peoples of the region are not only at peace with themselves, but at peace with their surroundings. While this might seem an inane comment, it carries specific and undeniable market values in the development of tourism.

National parks in general are becoming remnant landscapes of an earlier, wilder time. As urbanization increases, people are becoming more avid in seeking out these 'islands of the way it was'. Perhaps as societies become more aware of this trend, national parks will become instead beachheads for ever expanding needs to conserve and to present our natural resources. Dollars from around the world will travel to unique natural and cultural settings. To protect some natural settings such as the Himalayas requires action by more than one nation. Nations and regions working in concert can preserve and set aside valued resources for the future. Waterton-Glacier IPP offers a practical lesson and a symbol to the world. If it is possible here, IPP's are possible in many more locations than presently exist.

MacLeod (1988) asks, 'Why not seed the borderlines of the world with peace parks and gardens, nature preserves, and wilderness areas that encourage cultural and physical development of youth, respect for and appreciation of wildlife and irreplaceable landscapes? These border peace parks are precious places where peoples share and where they celebrate what they share: history, culture, beliefs, landscape.' Why not? If political systems around the world become ever more self-centred and greedy, the limitations on the natural resources will grow to the point when only the most adaptive species exist in the world and large natural preserves exist in only a handful of nations. People must see themselves as part of a world population of diverse peoples who recognize that 'the earth is but one country and mankind, its citizens (Baha'u'llah in MacLeod, 1988)'. Creating peace parks are steps in this direction and tourism potential they contain may provide not only an economic incentive, but also a way of reaching out to touch one's neighbours.

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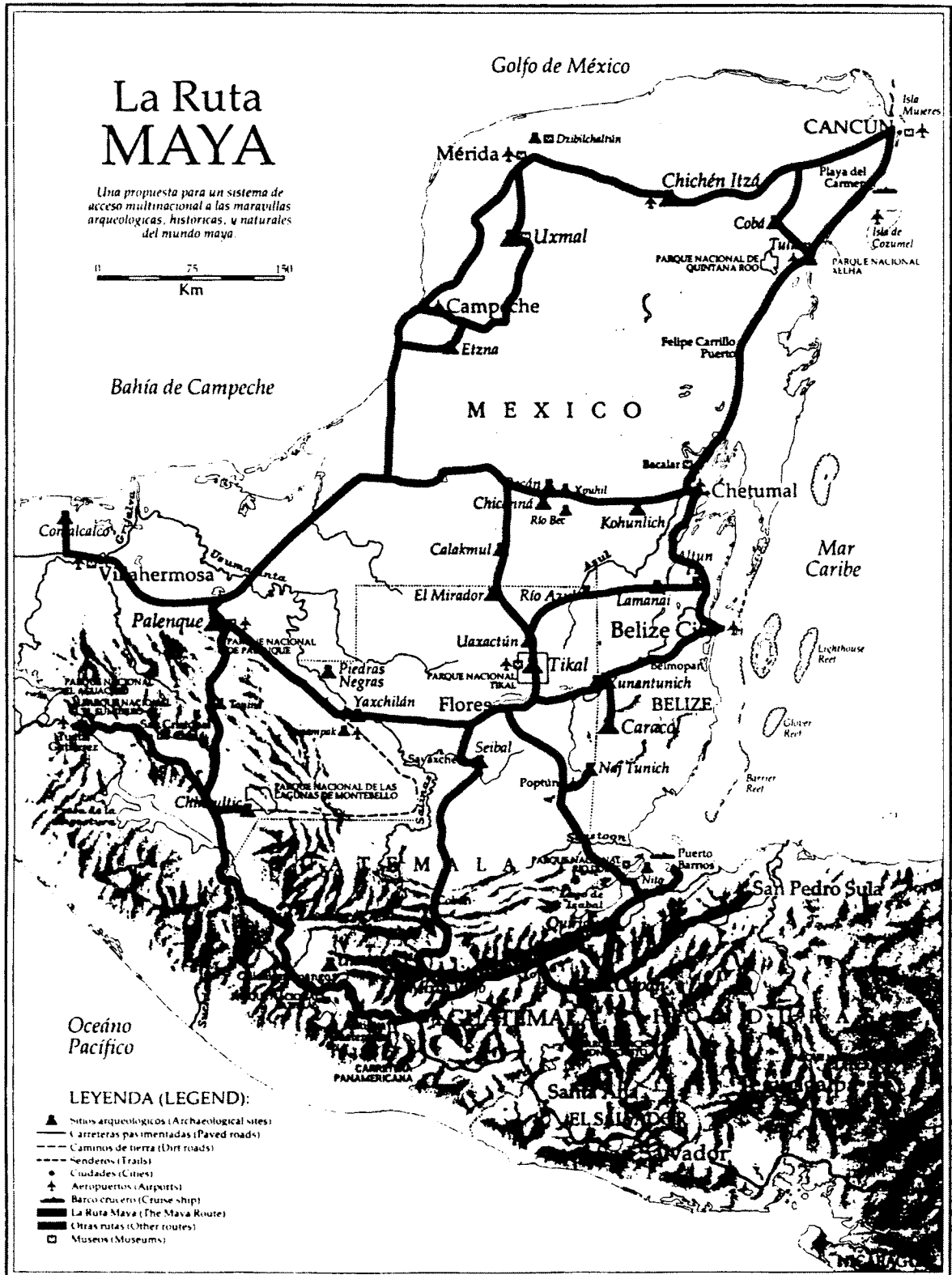
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**LA RUTA MAYA: A TRANSFRONTIER
ECOCULTURAL TOURISM CIRCUIT IN THE
YUCATAN REGION**

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LA RUTA MAYA: A TRANSFRONTIER ECOCULTURAL TOURISM CIRCUIT IN THE YUCATAN REGION

Abstract

Few regions in the world so rich in cultural, ecological, and recreational attractions remain so sheltered from visitors as the Maya region of Mexico, Guatemala, Belize, and Honduras. Hundreds of archeological sites, wonderful Spanish Colonial architecture, marvellous tropical forests teeming with an exotic and varied wildlife, miles of pristine beaches, excellent snorkelling opportunities, and both highland and lowland villages of great charm, where magnificent handicrafts abound, make this one of the world's richest travel destinations. As international attention focuses on the New World during the Quincentennial of Columbus's discovery, no other area so symbolizes the wonders of the land he encountered five hundred years ago. This article describes the preliminary activities that are being carried out for creating and promoting a four nation Maya tourism route. These activities include identification and classification of ecocultural tourism attractions, a survey and analysis of the present supply and demand of tourism services, and the realization of a Master Plan of the Ruta Maya.

1. INTRODUCTION

Ecocultural tourism has demonstrated in many developing countries that it constitutes an important instrument for socioeconomic development as well as for conservation of the natural and cultural heritage. Its proven potential to attract foreign exchange to Third World countries should guarantee this type of tourism top priority in areas where the severe economic crisis obligates the search for imaginative and practical solutions. It can also contribute to raising the ecological awareness and environmental education of the local and national populations.

Based on these considerations, the governments of the four nations that compose the Maya region, as well as international institutions concerned with the conservation of the natural and cultural heritage of the world are taking the first steps to constitute a multinational ecocultural tourism circuit denominated La Ruta Maya. This project could constitute a most important instrument for socioeconomic development and preservation of the natural and cultural wealth of this unique area which unfortunately is presently facing destruction of its natural environment, sacking of its archeological heritage, and loss of cultural identity. Enlightened, environmentally sound and creative management of the Maya region will provide a model for multinational cooperation in utilizing local assets to solve political, economic, and environmental problems.

2. BACKGROUND

The idea of establishing a multinational tourism circuit in the Maya region - which has repeatedly been referred to as La Ruta Maya - goes back at least to the Sixties, when the Organization of American States (OAS) and the International Development Bank (IDB) showed interest in developing and funding a project with these characteristics. However, at that time, Mexico (the country with the most developed tourist industry of the Maya region) opted to develop along the lines of the more traditional commercial tourism resort approach. Thus, Cancún and other

beach resorts were born, receiving an enormous financial boost and international promotion, which has undoubtedly brought a considerable amount of foreign exchange to Mexico, but also serious ecological damage and imbalances to the socioeconomic structure due to the explosive and uncontrolled growth of these tourism poles.

In 1976, the Mexican Ministry of Public Works showed interest in assessing the ecological and cultural attractions of some of the national parks and other protected areas (including archeological sites) of the Maya area, and commissioned a preliminary inspection of the area for that purpose. Unfortunately, due to the end of a presidential term, no continuity was given to the project.

In 1987, Mr Wilbur E. Garrett, Editor of the National Geographic Magazine, presented the preliminary proposal for developing a four nation tourism circuit also called La Ruta Maya, which has created great interest among the governments of the countries involved and the international conservation community. The Mexican Government, endorsing this idea, has now begun preliminary studies for developing the Mexican portion of La Ruta Maya.

Recently the European Economic Commission offered important funding to the four countries of the Maya region to develop a joint five-year European marketing/promotion action programme for an ambitious tourism project also named La Ruta Maya. As of this writing, special government commissions are being set up in several of these countries to develop the project. Other institutions, such as IUCN-US, WWF, the Wild Wings and Underhill Foundations, and OAS, are supporting or offering support in different ways to promote the Ruta Maya.

3. THE CONCEPT OF ECOTOURISM

Nature tourism, also called ecological tourism or simply ecotourism, is a relatively recent phenomenon. We may define ecotourism as tourism that consists of travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific purpose of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas. In these terms, ecotourism implies a scientific, aesthetic, or philosophical approach, although the ecological tourist need not be a professional scientist, artist, or philosopher. The main point here is that the person who practises ecotourism has the opportunity of immersing himself or herself in Nature in a way that most people cannot enjoy in their routine, urban existence. That person will eventually acquire a consciousness and knowledge of the natural environment, together with the cultural one, that will convert him or her into somebody keenly involved in conservation issues (Ceballos-Lascuráin 1987).

Nature travel to the tropics fits well with worldwide initiatives to protect biological diversity and find nonconsumptive uses of wildlife and other natural resources that generate economic returns. Ecotourism in Third World countries would bring many advantages. It would stimulate greater awareness of the conservation of the natural and cultural environment and aid in preventing further deterioration, destruction, and pollution. It also implies the rational use of high potential tourist resources in areas with few options for other modes of development, generating new work opportunities and fostering an economic spillover to local populations.

It is important to recognize the potential of ecotourism for generating foreign exchange. There are several nations that have discovered this and in consequence their governments have encouraged this type of tourism over the last few years. In Kenya, for instance, the tourist industry (mainly ecological in character) is the largest earner of foreign currency. 1984 earnings from

tourism totalled US\$240 million of which a third was provided by seven national parks (MacKinnon, *et al*, 1986). In Costa Rica, the tourist trade (also predominantly nature oriented) ranks second, after coffee growing, as a source of foreign exchange. The variety and close proximity of natural habitats protected by Costa Rica's national park system have made that country extremely popular for nature tourism groups. In the Khumbu area of Nepal (which includes Sagarmatha (Mt. Everest) National Park) tourism, the principal source of cash income, accounts for 90% of the region's income (Bjonnes 1980).

There are many areas in the world, and the Maya region is one of these, that present the combination of attractive natural features with magnificent archeological remains, thus constituting a double appeal to the visitor. Each year more and more people in the industrialized countries are developing more profound interest in Nature and exotic cultures and also in travel abroad, seeking different experiences not found in their own countries. In 1980, a total of 29 million US citizens interested in what is termed 'nonconsumptive wildlife use' carried out almost 310 million nature trips away from their places of residence. Of this total, 1,031,000 people made 4,067,000 trips - predominantly ecological in character - to foreign countries (US Fish and Wildlife Service 1982). Presently WWF-US (World Wildlife Fund) is performing a study on the socio-economic and environmental impacts of nature tourism in five Latin American and Caribbean countries (Belize, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Dominica, and Mexico) and no doubt the final report will provide further insight on the subject.

Needless to say, strict regulations must exist in order to avoid negative environmental impact due to tourist activity. An important aspect to be considered in the physical planning is the need for a new approach in architectural design and building technology. Since tourism centres must be located in natural areas which usually have difficult access or are relatively isolated and which are characterized by a fragile and delicate ecological balance, it is obvious that all building facilities, roads, and services provided must be designed in such a way that environmental impact is minimized and that a certain level of functional self-sufficiency is attained. The use of what may be loosely termed as 'ecotechniques' in the physical planning and construction of facilities must be encouraged. These ecotechniques include the use of solar energy, capture and utilization of rainwater, recycling of garbage, natural cross ventilation (instead of air conditioning), a high level of self-sufficiency in food generation (through orchards, 'ecological farms', aquaculture, etc.), the use of locally available building materials and native technology, and the blending of the architectural shapes with the natural environment. Accommodation for nature tourists must be modest but comfortable, clean but unpretentious. This gives an added advantage to ecotourism over conventional leisure tourism, the cost of an ecological tourism centre being about four times lower per room unit than a four-star hotel (in spite of this, many ecotourists are willing to pay room rates comparable to those of luxury hotels). The experience that an ecotourist seeks when he comes to a natural and exotic place is the opportunity of communion with Nature and native cultures, of getting away from the concrete jungle and the commodities of modern urban life (Ceballos-Lascuráin 1984).

4. THE NATURAL HERITAGE OF THE MAYA REGION

Projecting northward into the Gulf of Mexico like a giant thumb, between North and South America, lies the Peninsula of Yucatán, which comprises the present Mexican states of Yucatán, Campeche, and Quintana Roo. This area includes a major portion of the land of the Maya, which stretches south to also include the eastern parts of the Mexican states of Tabasco and Chiapas, the entire countries of Guatemala and Belize, and the northwestern corner of Honduras. Towering ranges of volcanic origin (Mount Tajumulco, at 4210 m is the highest) lie along the

Pacific slopes. The soil is cultivated from sea level to about 3000 m. This whole area is characterized by deep valleys and pine fringed mountains. There is considerable dryness on the western slopes and extreme wetness on the eastern. In this highland zone the Maya found volcanic stone to make the 'metate' for braying corn. They also found obsidian, volcanic glass, which made mirrors, knives, and razors; from the streams came jade, as important to the Maya as life itself; in the high cloud forests there are the far famed Resplendent Quetzal birds that yielded the jade green tail feathers which decked the headgear and cloaks of the chieftains, and the endemic Horned Guan, the size of a small turkey, with a remarkable red knob stemming from its head.

In the lowland areas is El Petén, where rainforests alternate with seasonal swamps called 'skalches' or 'aguadas', and high bush with alternating savannahs of tall grass. These jungles which constitute the Western Hemisphere's northernmost rainforests (which are severely threatened), are rich in wildlife. The avifauna is truly astonishing: more than 750 species of birds are found here (greater than the combined total of the USA and Canada), including the endemic Ocellated Turkey, the extremely rare Harpy Eagle, the endangered Scarlet Macaw, the Great Curassow, several species of quail, parrots, woodpeckers, and many songbirds. Many endangered animals like the jaguar, the tapir, the howler monkey, and the crocodile, are still to be found here, as well as a multitude of tropical butterflies, many of them endemic and very rare. The rainforest includes giant cedars which were fashioned by the Maya into outsized canoes 25 metres long for navigation on the Caribbean, mahogany, lignum vitate, the zapotillo or chewing gum tree which yields a fine tasting fruit as well as the chicle sap, the Brazilwood which was used for dyeing Maya cloth, and many more.

The tropical jungles graduate into the 'thumb' proper. In Yucatán this low, flat limestone zone characterizes the whole northern part of the Peninsula. Unlike the land further south, there is a great scarcity of lakes and streams. The only available drinking water is provided by the 'cenotes', which are circular sink holes, some of great size, formed by the collapse of underground caves, perennially filled with water percolating through the limestone. These natural wells necessarily have served as the focal points for native settlement since the first occupation of the land. The lowland climate is hot, uncomfortably so towards the close of the dry season. In May the rains come and usually last until October.

The coastal areas include extensive wetlands and marshes, abounding in waterbirds, both resident and migratory. The Caribbean coast, with extraordinarily fine white sand, and with waters characterized by amazing hues of blue and turquoise, also contain the second largest coral reef barrier in the world, which hosts myriads of brightly coloured tropical fish. These waters are considered among the best in the world for snorkelling.

All in all, the Maya region constitutes the area of greatest biodiversity in Middle America but its continuing destruction by uncontrolled human settlements, land clearing for cattle grazing, and logging, is a cause of deep concern for conservationists.

5. THE CULTURAL HERITAGE OF THE MAYA REGION

The Mayas possess one of the greatest civilizations of the Western Hemisphere. Their culture dates back to at least 600 BC. During a long formative period, the Mayan farmers made simple pottery and built low platforms for their temples and houses. Between 300 and 900 AD (the Classic Period), priests developed an amazing knowledge of astronomy and calendrics, mathe-

matics (including the use of zero), and the utilization of hieroglyphics. They supervised the building of great religious centres, where the arts flourished. Architectural achievements were extraordinary, their great stone temples and palaces being characterized by the use of the corbelled vault. For reasons not totally explained, Maya civilization in the south disintegrated around 900 AD. In northern Yucatán it merged with Postclassic Mexican culture, only a century before the Spanish arrived.

The Maya territory is divided into three major areas: the highlands bordering the Pacific slope; the central lowlands stretching along the Usumacinta River basin through the Petén to Honduras; and the northern lowlands including the whole of the Yucatán Peninsula. The rulers of the Maya city states were autonomous, but they did enjoy intercommunication and cooperation throughout the vast territory, which totalled about 325,000 sq kms.

The number of Maya archeological ruins remaining today is truly staggering. In the Mexican state of Yucatán alone, 1117 sites have been officially recorded by the National Institute of Anthropology and History (INAH 1980). Throughout the Maya area, many archeological sites remain unexplored and even unknown to this day, hidden under the lush vegetation.

Only a minority of these Maya sites are presently accessible to the average traveller. In the highlands the best known of these are Zacaleu, Mixco Viejo, Utatlán, Iximché, and Kaminaljuyú, all in Guatemala. In the central lowlands, the most important sites are Palenque, Yaxchilán, Bonampak, Comalcalco, Chincultic, and Toniná (in Mexico); Tikal, Uaxactún, Quiriguá, Yaxhá, Seibal, Dos Pilas, El Mirador, and Río Azul (in Guatemala); Altun Ha, Xunantunich, and Caracol (in Belize); and Copán (in Honduras). In the northern lowlands the best known sites are Uxmal, Chichén, Itzá, Cobá, Tulum, Sayil, Labná, Xlapak, Kabah, Edzná, Dzibilchaltún, Becán, Chicanná, Xpuhil, Río Bec, Calakmul, and Kohunlich. (Kelly 1982).

The degree and quality of communications, transport, and tourism infrastructure varies considerably throughout the Maya region. A few limited areas, especially in the northern part of the Yucatán Peninsula, are easily visited by national and international travellers, but most of the region lacks adequate facilities and services, as well as promotion of its unique cultural and natural assets. Charming highland and lowland villages, still inhabited by a predominantly Mayan population, are to be found throughout the area. Here Indian folklore lives on and excellent handicrafts abound. Finally, there are marvellous examples of Spanish colonial architecture in different localities of this region, both religious and civil, adding yet another attraction to the traveller that visits this prodigious land.

6. DESCRIPTION OF THE RUTA MAYA PROJECT

Preliminary work is just beginning on the establishment of a multinational ecocultural tourism circuit in the Maya region. Initial support is being given by IUCN-US, The Wild Wings and Underhill Foundations, National Geographic, and the Mexican Secretariat of Tourism.

This project, due to its complexity, interdisciplinary nature, and multinational characteristics, should have a duration of at least four years, concluding in late 1992, the year of the Quincennial of Columbus's discovery. Four phases of this project are outlined:

Phase I: Preliminary Studies (duration: 1st year, estimated cost: US\$90,000).

A. Obtainment and processing of relevant information

- Identification and classification of the inventory of ecocultural tourism attractions of La Ruta Maya.
- Survey of the present supply of tourism services.
- Survey of the demand for ecocultural tourism services.
- Survey of the supply of ecocultural tourism services in other tropical countries.
- Information on local legislation, government participation and promotion, involvement of NGOs and local populations.
- Definition of itineraries and interpretive programmes.

B. Preparation of a regional plan:

- Zoning and integration of protected areas in regional land use programmes.
- Ecological guidelines.
- Identification of different tourism routes.
- Communications and transportation.
- Localization of main ecocultural tourism attractions.
- Localization of existing tourism facilities.
- Site plans and design guidelines for physical facilities.

C. Setting up of a management plan for La Ruta Maya:

- Guidelines for agreements, mechanisms, and actions (intersectorial and international).
- Realization of a master management plan and local management plans.

D. Design of national and international promotion campaigns:

- Design awareness campaign in the four countries involved.
- Design of international promotion campaign.

Phase II: Establishment of national and multinational agreements and strategies in preparation for infrastructural and operational phases (duration: 2nd year, estimated cost: US\$100,000).

- A. Discussion and approval of Phase I documents by authorities of the four countries involved.
- B. Signed agreement between the four heads of state of the countries involved, in which the participation of government agencies is clearly defined (Ministries of Tourism, Environment, Public Works and Communications, Education, Agriculture, etc.).
- C. Cooperation agreements with international development agencies and NGOs (IDB, World Bank, OAS, MAB-Unesco, UNEP, EEC, US-AID, WWF, IUCN, etc.) in order to initiate the following two phases.
- D. Establishment of contacts with private groups (travel and tourism agencies, hotel entrepreneurs, architectural designers, building contractors, local communities, universities, national and local NGOs in the fields of natural and cultural heritage conservation, etc.).
- E. Formulation of marketing, publicity, and advertising strategies.
- F. Short list of immediate management plans in protected areas.

Phase III: Site planning (duration: 3rd year, estimated cost: US\$90,000).

- A. Planning basic physical infrastructure for La Ruta Maya: highways, roads, trails, gas stations, airports, landing fields, docks, facilities for visitors in national parks and other protected areas.
- B. Contracting, financing, and involvement of private entrepreneurs in the building of hotels, restaurants, and other facilities for ecocultural tourists, with local government supervision.
- C. Setting up of management offices (both government and private) for administering the operational phase of La Ruta Maya.

Phase IV: Initiation of operational activities (duration: 4th year, estimated cost: US\$80,000).

- A. Marketing, publicity, and advertising campaigns.
- B. Active involvement of all participating parties in operational activities: government agencies, travel agencies, hotel and restaurant operators, local communities, conservation agencies, local communities and NGOs.
- C. Inauguration and operation of initial facilities: communications, transportation, hotels, restaurants, etc.
- D. Preliminary evaluation of these operational activities.

The preparation of a physical master plan will consider the following issues:

Roads

The new roads that would be required by La Ruta Maya should have a low impact on the environment, they should definitely be made as narrow as possible (7 m wide at the most), either paved with asphalt or improved all-weather gravel with an established maximum speed of 80 km/h and specifying also a load limit. They should be exclusively for ecocultural tourists (not mass tourism) and closed to heavy commercial traffic (including big buses, freight, and lumber trucks). It is suggested that in some cases these ecocultural tourism roads run parallel to existing heavy traffic highways (bypassing the bigger settlements), since existing highways are increasingly becoming characterized by heavy traffic, a deteriorated landscape (more and more roadside deforestation and trash, a proliferation of buildings - many with a slum appearance - and even traffic jams in some of the bigger towns). This way the tourist would have a more interesting experience and be more in contact with the natural environment as he or she drives along the road. This would require declaring roadside bands on each side of the road as strictly protected areas.

Transportation

Traditional big tourist buses, air conditioned with toilet facilities, etc., already service many of the main highways of portions of the Maya region but they would definitely be inappropriate for use on the ecocultural tourism roads needed for visiting the more isolated natural areas and archeological sites, where it is suggested to restrict the traffic to minibus or van-type vehicles. This would discourage mass tourism. A shuttle-type circuit service with established schedules could also be a possibility (with a Eurail-type ticket made available). Private cars and campers would also be encouraged and proper facilities for servicing them made available.

Hotels, dining

At present there are many localities in the Maya region which do not have adequate hotel and dining facilities. In the protected areas, needless to say, strict regulations must exist in order to minimize negative environmental impact due to tourism activity. As was mentioned earlier, a new architectural and building technology approach is needed, in order to minimize environmental impact and provide a certain level of functional self-sufficiency.

Parks

In the Maya region there are presently several national parks and other protected areas (including archeological sites). Unfortunately, in many cases the 'protected status' is more theoretical than practical and thus, many areas are undergoing an alarming process of deterioration which must be stopped. The promotion of transfrontier ecocultural tourism through a project like La Ruta Maya is one such means of doing so.

7. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Many problems will be encountered in the development of La Ruta Maya: international difficulties (especially between Guatemala and Belize), political unrest and guerrillas in some areas, problems with land tenure and invasion in some protected areas, intense logging and other deforestation activities, opposition from influential local chieftains, diverse practices of law-breaking and corruption, growing traffic of narcotics in some areas, etc.

But there are also brighter aspects that should tend to facilitate the projects: the awareness of all four countries involved regarding the importance of conserving the rich heritage of the area; the recognition that ecocultural tourism may contribute in attaining that goal; the importance the tourist trade in general has attained in many parts of the Maya area, which has provided a strong touristic tradition and infrastructure; the consciousness acquired (especially in these last years) by many local groups and communities that the preservation of the cultural and natural heritage is both a matter of pride and a motor for socioeconomic development as well as a means of bettering the quality of the environment; and the great initial interest that many international development agencies and conservation organisations have shown in environmental projects in developing countries in general, and in the Maya area specifically. The coming of the Quincentennial of Columbus's discovery offers a unique opportunity for channelling efforts and resources (both at the national and international levels) for the realization of the Ruta Maya project.

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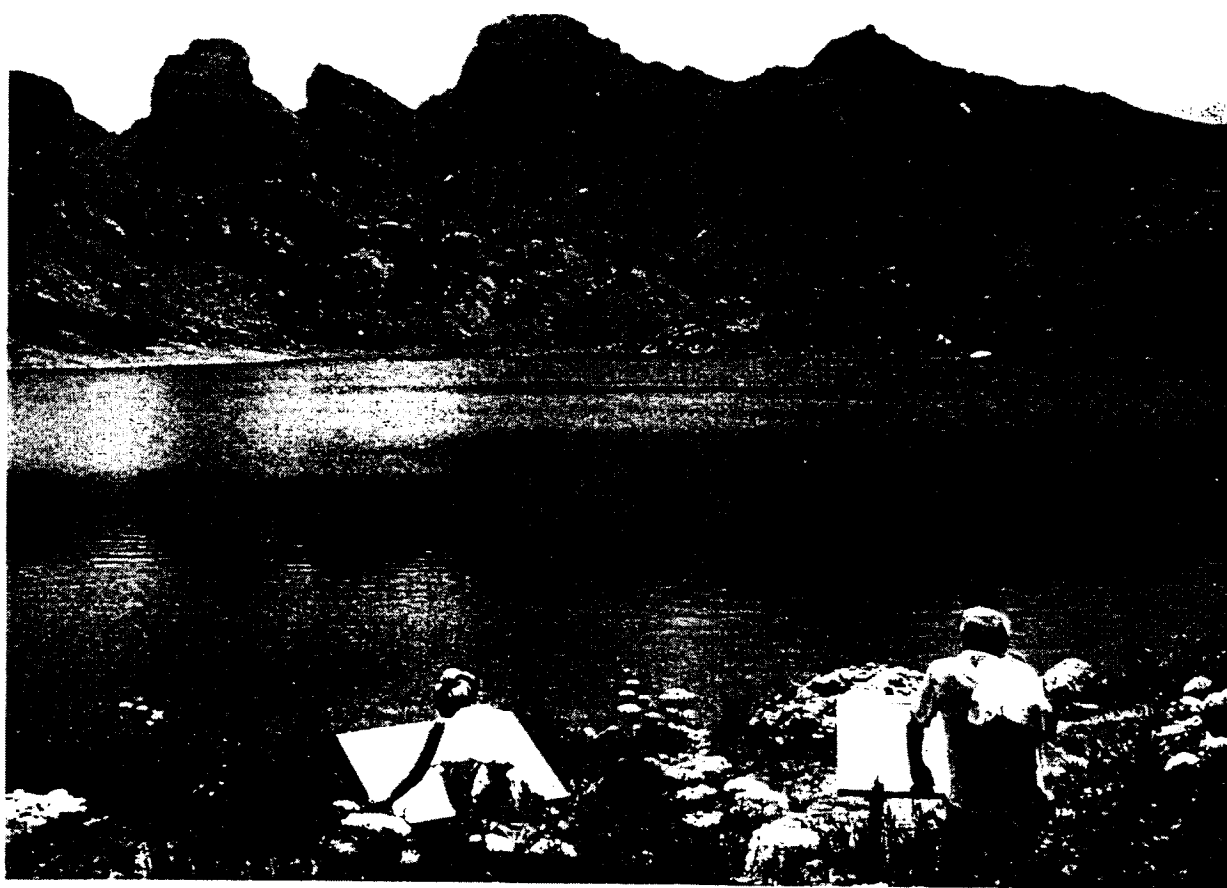
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Manas Reserves - India/Nepal

RAPPORT SUR LA COLLABORATION ENTRE LE PARC NATUREL DE L'ARGENTERA (ITALIE) ET LE PARC NATIONAL DU MERCANTOUR (FRANCE)

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RAPPORT SUR LA COLLABORATION ENTRE LE PARC NATUREL DE L'ARGENTERA (ITALIE) ET PARC NATIONAL DU MERCANTOUR (FRANCE)

Resumé

Le Parc naturel de l'Argentera (Italie) et le Parc national du Mercantour (France) sont deux zones protégées appartenant à deux Etats différents, mais elles ont une extraordinaire histoire commune. Le jumelage, signé à Tende le 10 juillet 1987, a sanctionné leur collaboration d'une manière officielle. Les actions concrètes de coopération se déroulent au niveau administratif, au niveau scientifique (opération bouquetin, projet gypaète) et au niveau de la promotion. Les rapports entre les organismes de gestion des deux Parcs sont vraiment excellents. Nos difficultés viennent uniquement des douanes, mais nous espérons pouvoir les résoudre avant 1992!

Abstract

Argentera Natural Park and Mercantour National Park are two adjoining Parks in two separate states but they have a common history. They were 'twinned' in July 1987 which gives official approval to their joint cooperation. Cooperative activities occur at the administrative level, between scientists and in joint promotion. Relations between the two parks are excellent except for some complications with customs officials which should be resolved by 1992.

1. INTRODUCTION

La protection de la nature devint, de jour en jour, un problème de caractère international. La pollution ne connaît pas de frontières et les catastrophes écologiques peuvent avoir des conséquences dramatiques très loin du lieu où elles se produisent.

C'est pour cela qu'une coopération internationale devient indispensable: au niveau des organisations (comme la Fédération Européenne) mais aussi au niveau local. A ce niveau les parcs supraf frontaliers sont la manière la plus concrète de réaliser une coopération.

En tant que Directrice du Parc naturel de l'Argentera j'ai été chargée de préparer un rapport sur l'expérience de collaboration entre le Parc naturel de l'Argentera (Italie) et le Parc national du Mercantour (France). Ces deux zones protégées appartiennent à deux Etats différents mais elles ont une extraordinaire histoire commune.

Tout commença par une visite du roi Victor Emmanuel II à la Vallée Gesso. C'est ainsi qu'en 1857, ces territoires devinrent une réserve royale de chasse. A cette époque, le royaume de Savoie ne comprenait pas seulement la Savoie, le Piémont et la Sardaigne, mais aussi le comté de Nice.

Après le traité de Plombières, le duché de Savoie et le comté de Nice passèrent à la France, en échange de l'appui fourni par Napoleon III dans la guerre contre l'Autriche: mais, grâce à un accord entre les deux monarques, Victor Emmanuel II conserva ses réserves de chasse.

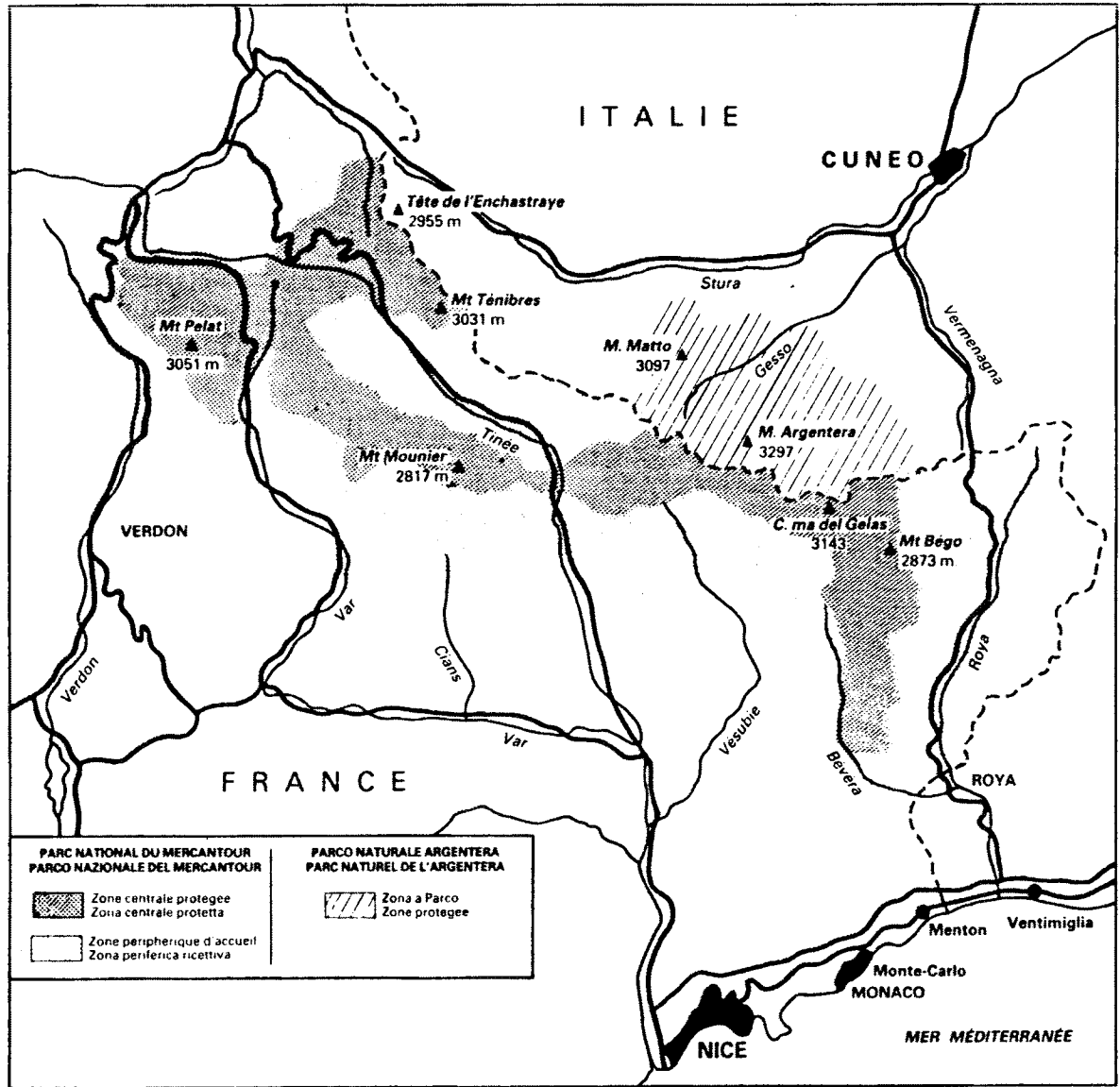


Figure 6: Parc national du Mercantour et Parc naturel de l'Argentera

En ce temps-là (et encore aujourd'hui) les montagnes étaient uniquement une frontière politique: les habitants des deux versants avaient les mêmes us et coutumes, les mêmes commerces, la sentier de fond de vallée et cela pour des raisons non seulement commerciales, mais aussi religieuses et de coutume (pèlerinages, fêtes).

Après la Seconde Guerre mondiale, la frontière a été reculée sur la ligne de partage des eaux: mais l'histoire commune s'est poursuivie. Sur les deux versants du massif Argentera-Mercantour on a constitué deux réserves de chasse: la Réserve du Boréon en France et celle de Valdieri-Entracque en Italie. Dès cette époque, beaucoup de gens souhaitaient la protection du patrimoine naturel, vraiment unique, avec la création d'un Parc national: mais d'importantes difficultés émanaient d'intérêts particuliers et de la fière opposition des populations locales. Des années de débats et de consultations patientes ont abouti en 1979 à la création du Parc national du Mercantour en France (PNM) et, en 1980, du Parc naturel de l'Argentera en Italie (PNA).

Le Parc international est donc une réalité de fait: même si l'organisation est différente, depuis quelques années les responsables des deux zones protégées collaborent par des initiatives et des projets communs. Le jumelage signé à Tende le 10 juillet 1987 sanctionne cette collaboration d'une manière officielle.

Uniformité et diversité du paysage

Le massif Argentera-Mercantour constitue un ensemble unique: c'est un massif cristallin imposant (granite, gneiss) de morphologie escarpée et accidentée, marqué par l'érosion glaciaire et jonché de lacs. On trouve, tout autour, des terrains sédimentaires, en Italie mais surtout en France. Ce territoire géologiquement très divers, qui n'est pas loin de la mer, avec plusieurs cimes à plus de 3000 mètres (Argentera 3297m) et avec les glaciers les plus méridionaux des Alpes (Gelas 3143m) présente une flore très variée et très riche avec une grande quantité d'espèces rares et endémiques. L'influence du climat maritime se fait sentir sur le versant français où, aux altitudes les plus basses, la végétation comprend le chêne vert, l'olivier, l'ostraya; sur le versant italien, plus frais, c'est le hêtre qui prédomine. La faune est riche et bien représentée: lièvre variable, marmotte, mustélidés, aigle royal, perdrix blanche, petit coq de bruyère, etc. Parmi les insectes, il y a plusieurs espèces endémiques très colorées.

A cause des migrations saisonnières entre les deux versants, les populations d'ongulés constituent des ensembles uniques. Les plus nombreux sont les chamois (symbole du PNA). Il y a aussi des mouflons de Corse, introduits il y a vingt ans du côté français, et des bouquetins, qui font l'objet d'une importante opération scientifique menée conjointement par les deux parcs.

Deux exemples de zones protégées

Au niveau administratif, le PNM dépend directement de l'Etat, du ministère de l'Environnement. Il a son propre budget ainsi qu'un Conseil d'administration, composé par les représentants des collectivités locales, des Ministères concernés, d'organismes socio-professionnels, d'associations du protection de la nature et de l'environnement, d'organismes scientifiques, culturels et touristiques. Le PNA est un organisme autonome qui est contrôlé par la Région Piémont, Service de l'aménagement du territoire. Il a son propre budget et un conseil d'administration qui se compose de représentants des municipalités, des communautés montagnardes et de la Région Piémont.

ACTIONS CONCRETES DE COOPERATION

Au niveau administratif

- jumelage, effectué à Tende, le 10 juillet 1987, dans le cadre de l'Année Européenne de l'Environnement;
- échange entre élus des deux versants du massif, avec invitations réciproques aux réunions des Conseils d'administration des deux parcs;
- échange et formation réciproque des personnels;
- contacts presque quotidiens pour la solution des problèmes d'intérêt commun;
- réunions techniques fréquentes au niveau de la direction à Nice (siège du Parc national du Mercantour), à Valdieri (siège du Parc naturel de l'Argentera) ou à Tende (sur la frontière).

Au niveau scientifique

- suivi en commun des populations transfrontalières d'ongulés sauvages (bouquetins, chamois, mouflons) avec comptages et marquages;
- OPERATION BOUQUETIN: opération de réintroduction du bouquetin, pour la création de nouveaux noyaux de population, dans le Parc national du Mercantour et dans le Parc naturel de l'Argentera.

Largement décimé, à la fin du 19e siècle le bouquetin disparaît de l'Argentera-Mercantour. Sur l'ensemble des Alpes, il n'existe plus, en 1920, que la petite colonie d'une centaine d'individus du Grand Paradis (Vallée d'Aoste, Italie): le bouquetin est au bord de l'extinction. Mais, suite à la création du Parc national du Grand Paradis, de 1920 à 1933, un noyau de 24 bouquetins est réintroduit dans l'Argentera-Mercantour à l'initiative du roi d'Italie, à partir de la colonie du Grand Paradis. Durant les premières années, la croissance de la population est lente, mais aujourd'hui on compte presque 400 animaux. Ils hivernent en plusieurs groupes sur les versants déneigés du Parc naturel de l'Argentera. Au printemps, ils remontent progressivement avec la fonte des neiges et occupent les barres et falaises jusqu'aux crêtes. Mais quelques groupes franchissent les cols avant même la fonte des neiges et rejoignent le bas des versants français. Enfin, au moment du rut, tous les bouquetins se retrouvent sur le versant italien.

Chaque année, le Parc naturel de l'Argentera et le Parc national du Mercantour organisent en commun des comptages pour suivre l'évolution de la population et connaître sa structure. Par ailleurs, un programme annuel de capture permet de marquer les individus afin de suivre leur migrations transfrontalières. Le marquage se fait selon trois méthodes: boucles auriculaires colorées (les couleurs sont codifiées), radio collier-émetteurs, balises Argos (suivi par satellite). Deux nouvelles colonies ont été créés, une en Italie et une en France, les animaux étant transférés par hélicoptère. Entreprise en 1987, l'opération sera poursuivie en 1988: cette fois, les animaux seront transférés de l'Italie à la France. L'Opération Bouquetin a reçu le label de l'Année Européenne de l'Environnement.

Dans le cadre de l'opération bouquetin, on a organisé un Colloque Scientifique International sur le Bouquetin, tenu aux Thermes de Valdieri (PNA) en septembre 1987, avec la participation des plus importants spécialistes scientifiques du bouquetin à niveau européen. L'édition des actes du colloque, en français et en italien, est en preparation.

- **PROJET GYPAETE:** travail commun pour l'intégration du massif Argentera-Mercantour dans les sites de lâcher prévus par le Projet International WWF-UICN pour la réintroduction du gypaète barbu dans les Alpes.

Le projet comprend:

- étude des caractéristiques du massif Argentera-Mercantour pour la réintroduction du gypaète barbu et préparation d'un dossier commun pour mettre en évidence: morphologie, climat, données historiques et observations récentes, présence d'ongulés sauvages et de troupeaux domestiques, superficie et gestion des deux zones protégées, attitude des populations et des autorités;
- participation à la réunion de la Commission internationale WWF-UICN (16 décembre 1987 à Zurich) avec exposé commun et présentation officielle de la candidature du massif Argentera-Mercantour comme lieu de réintroduction;
- organisation de la visite des experts de la Commission internationale pour l'évaluation de la zone proposée pour la réintroduction;
- aménagement de 'charniers' dans les deux zones protégées;
- récolte de données historiques et recherche des anciennes aires de nidification;
- préparation de matériel d'information dans les deux langues et organisation de la campagne d'information.

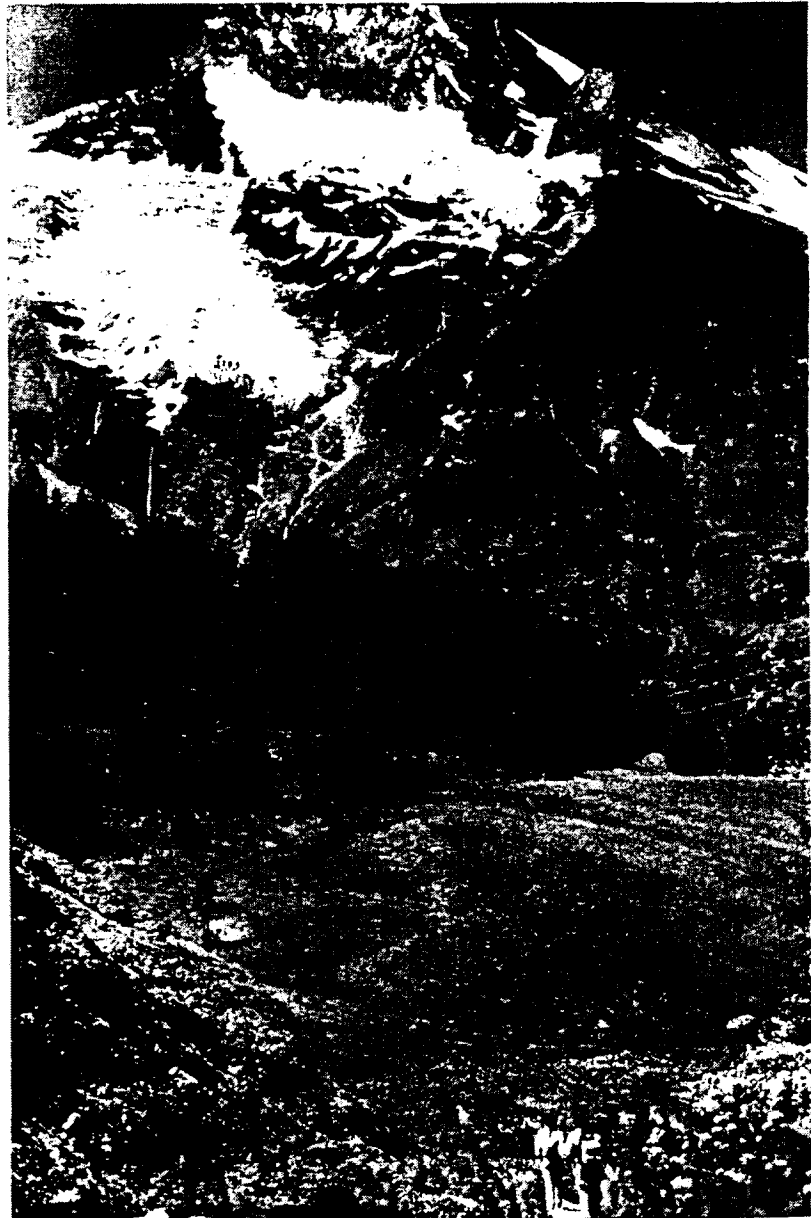
Au niveau de la promotion

- édition de deux dépliants et d'une affiche franco-italiens (dans les deux langues);
- participation commune (stand commun) au Salon 'Mer-Montagne Loisirs' de Nice (automne 1987);
- participation commune à l'exposition sur les Parcs suprafrontaliers lors de l'Assemblée fédérale de la Fédération européenne des Parcs naturels et nationaux (Belgique, juin 1988).

Actions nouvelles et prochaines

- lancement d'études sur la réglementation et les structures administratives dans les deux espaces naturels, dans la perspective de l'Acte unique européen de 1992;
- harmonisation des aménagements et de la signalétique;

- travaux communs relatifs à l'accueil, en commençant par des présentations informatiques et par la création de produits touristiques communs;
- études des flux touristiques transfrontaliers.



Vanoise/Gran Paradiso Parc National - France/Italie

QUELS SONT NOS PROBLEMES

Du point de vue pratique, les rapports entre les organismes de gestion des deux parcs sont vraiment excellents. Nos difficultés viennent uniquement des douanes. Dans le parcours entre Nice , siège du Parc national du Mercantour et Valdieri, siège du Parc naturel de l'Argentera, il n'y a rien de moins que cinq postes de douane avec des contrôles fastidieux sur le personnel, les voitures de service, et le matériel transporté (publications, affiches, etc). Pendant les opérations de surveillance organisées en collaboration, il faut passer la frontière en haute montagne où il n'y a pas de postes des douanes. Cela nous a créé des difficultés avec les autorités de frontière des deux pays. Mais le cas limite, c'est lorsque nous devons faire passer la frontière, avec l'hélicoptère, à des animaux capturés spécialement pour des réintroductions. Pour faire cela, nous avons besoin de nombreuses autorisations (vétérinaires, des douanes, de cinq ministères, des offices de chasse, etc) qui prennent beaucoup de temps et sont difficiles à obtenir. C'est tout simplement ridicule, parce que les mêmes animaux traversent eux-mêmes normalement la frontière dans les deux sens sans certificats ni passeports! Nous espérons vivement qu'il soit possible de résoudre ces problèmes avant l'année fatidique de 1992!



PROSPECTS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR AN INTERPROVINCIAL PARK IN THE CYPRESS HILLS OF ALBERTA AND SASKATCHEWAN

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Cypress Hills Provincial Park - Alberta/Saskatchewan, Canada

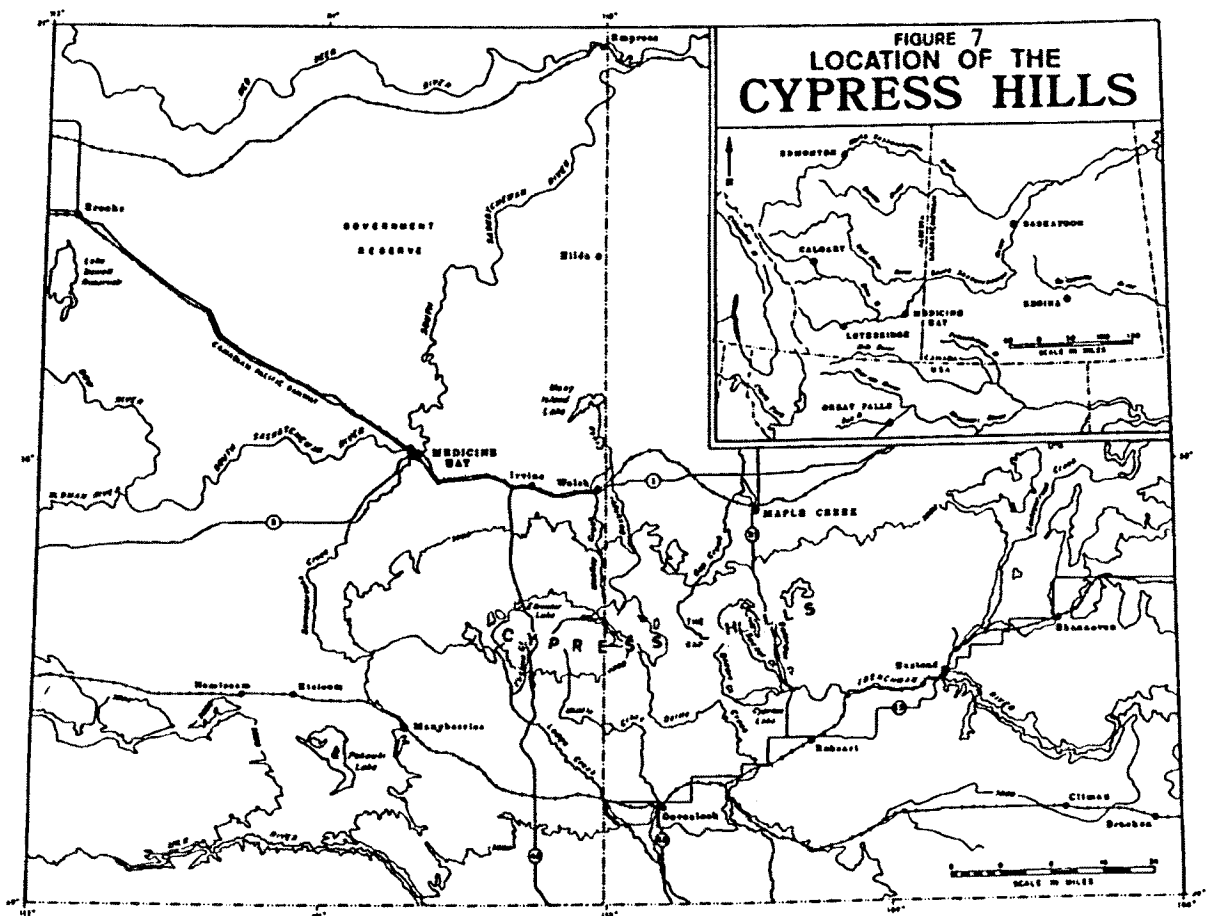


Figure 7: Location of the Cypress Hills

PROSPECTS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR AN INTERPROVINCIAL PARK IN THE CYPRESS HILLS OF ALBERTA AND SASKATCHEWAN

Abstract

There is a long standing interest in the role adjacent border parks may play in promoting harmony among peoples and in facilitating resource management and visitor use. Cross border park arrangements usually are considered in terms of international opportunities. Now the Governments of Alberta and Saskatchewan are evaluating the prospect of interprovincial parks at selected locations along their common border. The Cypress Hills provincial parks possess great potential for implementation of coordinated programmes, including tourism. The natural and cultural landscapes of the Cypress Hills and prevailing park management and use are conducive to interprovincial park designation. The advent of a Cypress Hills Interprovincial Park should activate assessment of associated linkages in western Canada and internationally with the United States. This interprovincial initiative bespeaks a need to more thoroughly evaluate and promote potential benefits to mankind arising from all categories of cross-border parks.

1. BACKGROUND

The idea of establishing protected areas along international borders was introduced about 75 years ago in North America, and more than 50 years ago in Europe (Scace 1970, 1978b). Today parks and reserves are situated on frontiers at 70 places in 60 countries around the world (Thorsell and Harrison, this volume). These contiguous protected areas (variously known as international peace and historic parks, transfrontier parks, and borderline, border or cross-border parks) now elicit increasing attention. Their significance is viewed both as an expression of peace and understanding between nations and as a means to better facilitate cooperative approaches and shared responsibilities in conservation of heritage resources. These roles are respectively symbolic and practical in orientation, providing both challenge and opportunity in instances where they are implemented simultaneously. Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park is an excellent example of the role and function of border parks (Scace 1978b).

Proposals to increase the number of border parks have included suggestions for individual sites, for networks that comprise international 'zones of peace' and even systems of international parks along common frontiers. Carroll (1979, 1980), for example, identified almost twenty potential locations for international peace parks on the Canada-United States border, and stated (1980:15):

"Given the increasing trend to commemorate and preserve areas and structures of broad cultural importance in parks and to relate man and society to natural landscapes and natural ecosystems, the time has arrived to propose a wholly new *system* of international peace parks, to be established along the entirety of our joint borders. Such a system would be established, administered, and managed jointly by regular personnel of both the Canadian Parks Service and the US National Park Service in roughly equal numbers. All planning, budgeting, and decision-making would be joint, and funding would be provided equally from both federal governments."

Some of the units of this new system would be basically ecological in orientation, whereas others would be basically historical. But each unit, as well as the system as a whole, would have a common theme - aiming to interpret the Canadian and US landscapes and the human heritage of those areas (such as the epic struggle to survey and mark the boundary); to describe the settlement and the society and economy of the broader region; and most important, to interpret the totality of Canadian-American interaction of the interdependency of our two nations. At the same time the system would provide recreation and would preserve areas of natural historic significance.

Opportunities for international border zone cooperation have been increased too, through extension of the idea of transborder heritage conservation to other categories of protected areas, such as World Heritage Sites, biosphere reserves and wildlife areas. The adjoining parks in Argentina and Brazil which surround the Iguazu Falls are now on the World Heritage List, for example. In Central America, Guatemala, Honduras, and El Salvador are examining a proposal to establish 'La Fraternidad' biosphere reserve which would consist of portions of each of the three countries (Thorsell and Harrison, this volume). Similar initiatives are under way in Canada and the USA to create biosphere reserves that incorporate national parks and national seashores. Another dimension of international cooperation lies in the wildlife conservation area. This approach is epitomised by passage on 17 July 1987 of the Canada - USA International Agreement on the Conservation of the Porcupine Caribou Herd in Alaska and the Yukon (see Struzik 1988).

Three important considerations emerge from these ideas and from experience to date with border parks and reserves:

- the focus in creating border parks is upon opportunities presented along *international* borders
- notwithstanding their role to further understanding and facilitate resource management, there are a few situations whereby *formal procedures* permit joint management of contiguous reserves
- identification and nomination of parks as contributions to bilateral arrangements are usually accomplished under *ad hoc* or opportunistic circumstances rather than as the product of systematic planning endeavours.

2. FOCUS ON INTERNATIONAL BORDERS

While there is no reason to suppose that coordinated heritage conservation and other benefits intended to flow from bilateral parks arrangements on international frontiers cannot be similarly achieved along territorial boundaries inside nations, the record is sparse, the efforts sporadic. One notable initiative has been undertaken in Australia. Ten protected areas in the Australian Alps are managed by four agencies - two federal bodies, and the States of New South Wales and Victoria. In 1986, a Memorandum of Understanding for cooperative management of the park system in the Alps was signed by the respective federal and state ministers. Thorsell and Harrison (this volume) consider this to be the most advanced operating border park arrangement in existence.

In North America the United States has no apparent record of deliberate creation of interstate parks, although the National Park Service does function as a coordinating agency, particularly in regard to park planning and the design and operation of various facilities and programmes. Another federal role is also expressed in trans-border resource management under the auspices

of the National Wilderness Preservation System, whereby joint plans are created among states for wilderness units.

In Canada there are no examples of fully integrated parks between provinces or territories. Manitoba and Ontario do possess an informal Boundary Waters Agreement respecting fisheries and water resources management on rivers and lakes along their border. The two provinces are also considering complementary wilderness park planning processes respecting Atikaki Park in Manitoba and Woodland Caribou Park in Ontario. The federal presence has best served to further elements of integration, cooperation and coordination among provinces and territories. These circumstances are demonstrated where contiguous national parks lie along provincial borders (e.g. Banff, Jasper, Kootenay, and Yoho National Parks; Canada, Department of Environment 1976), in the emerging national marine park programme, and in the Canadian Heritage Rivers System in which seven provinces and the two territories now cooperate with the Government of Canada (Canadian Heritage Rivers Board 1983, 1988).

There is merit in exploring opportunities for Interprovincial Parks and similar arrangements within countries. Such arrangements may hold unrealized potential for cooperative and coordinated arrangements that benefit environment and the economy, and by encouraging associated tourism, further the contribution of parks to a peaceful society.

3. FORMAL PROCEDURES FOR MANAGEMENT

Border parks are usually autonomously administered units. Each unit is created under its own Parks Act, possesses its own regulations, and is funded separately. Even in instances where individual parks have been decreed to be part of a formally designated international park, formal agreements do not necessarily provide for coordinated management and operation of the entire international reserve. Rather, there is the likelihood of some arrangements for communication, consultation, and cooperation on predetermined matters. Bilateral activities such as parks planning, wildlife management, interpretation, and fire, search and rescue, or other emergency responses, typically flow from the initiative and enthusiasm of local park staff in the respective park units who collaborate to put a practical face on a symbolic body. Indeed border park staff have averred on occasion that the very lack of formal language in the management and use of an international park has simplified their task in circumstances that are otherwise cocooned in international 'red tape'.

North American situations in which international reserve agreements provide unequivocally for joint management and operation include the International Peace Garden on the Manitoba-North Dakota boundary (Stormon 1964) and the Roosevelt-Campobello International Historic Park at Campobello, New Brunswick and Lubec, Maine. In both situations the managing body draws representatives from both countries. A third, recent initiative in the case of Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park provides evidence that effective, regular, coordinated bilateral arrangements between border parks can evolve from essentially informal circumstances into something more formal, more binding. On 3 June 1987, representatives of the respective national park services signed the Waterton-Glacier International Peace Park Days of Peace and Friendship Accords. These Accords formally recognized ongoing joint resource management, staff exchange, training and other arrangements, but also included desirable objectives such as working towards an international boundary clearing exemption on the 30 km common boundary of the parks and obtaining a reciprocal entrance fee. The latter objective will be achieved in 1989 (Lieff and Lusk this volume).

4. SYSTEMS OR NETWORKS OF BORDER PARKS

Contiguous border parks established to date have been created more in response to favourable opportunities than to systematic evaluation of resources along common boundaries. Similarly reasons espoused for their establishment are occasionally multifaceted with conservation of resources representing only one of the objectives. Because unique local circumstances may largely determine whether or not border parks will be established, the concept of a *system* of border parks in a strict systems planning context may be laudable but untenable. Greater benefit may lie in the idea of a network of border parks whereby member units draw on each other's practice and experience and the whole becomes a visible, tangible expression of harmonious relationships between geographical units and between man and the global environment.

5. A COMMON HERITAGE: INTERPROVINCIAL PARKS

In 1988 the Governments of Alberta and Saskatchewan struck a joint committee to address the prospect of creating 'interprovincial parks' at selected existing provincial park locations along their common border. The objective of an Interprovincial Park designation would be to 'coordinate park management where it would have mutual benefits and enhance the character of each individual provincial park' (Alberta and Saskatchewan, Governments 1988a). Four programme areas where coordination might take place were set out to facilitate the work of the committee and to assist the public present ideas 'on what an interprovincial park could be, how it might operate, and benefits that might be gained by both provinces' (Alberta and Saskatchewan, Governments 1988a) (see *Table 2*). A summary of public response to these preliminary proposals was released in September, 1988 (*Table 3*).

Two candidate areas with existing adjacent provincial parks have been selected to test the Interprovincial Park idea: Cold Lake/Meadow Lake and the Cypress Hills. This paper examines the prospects and possible consequences of Interprovincial Park status in the Cypress Hills of Alberta and Saskatchewan. The assessment first addresses the subject from the perspective of the public reserves history and heritage landscapes of the Cypress Hills.

The implications of a Cypress Hills Interprovincial Park and other similar endeavours along the Alberta-Saskatchewan border are then discussed in terms of the foregoing background observations on the present status of cross border parks. The contribution Interprovincial Parks can make in the four suggested programme areas (*Table 2*) and to harmonious relationships among peoples is a focus of the paper.

6. THE CYPRESS HILLS: DESCRIPTION AND HISTORY*

The Cypress Hills are a prominent landmark in the semi-arid southern Canadian plains. They form an elongated, discontinuous, and partially treed plateau in south-eastern Alberta and south-western Saskatchewan (*Figure 7*). Public reserves created in the area occupy the highest parts of the Cypress Hills, and lie almost entirely above the 3500 feet (1150m) contour. Coincidentally, this is the outer limit of many of the ecological, hydrological, biological, cultural, and other features which so differentiate the hills from the surrounding plains and which are important in discussions concerning future designations and uses of public reserves and other lands.

* Ed. note. This section has been shortened for the purpose of this publication.

The principal institutional means to restore the Cypress Hills was through establishment of public conservation reserves. Most of these reserves remain with us today - as contiguous provincial parks in Alberta and Saskatchewan respectively, and Fort Walsh National Historic Park in Saskatchewan. Between 1906 and 1916 the Government of Canada placed under public ownership practically all of the forested areas or potentially forestable areas, the principal stream headwaters, the best forage resources, the most varied game habitat, and the most scenically attractive portions of the Cypress Hills. These areas were to be managed on a multiple use, sustained yield basis. After 1930 when the provinces assumed control of natural resources, the public reserves remained intact, multiple use policies persisted, and many of the federal field staff transferred to the provinces.

Subsequent events in the period 1930-1970 are important to an Interprovincial Park or similar designation from two important standpoints. First, unilateral actions produced consequences that affect management and planning in both provinces today. For example, at various times there was the reintroduction of native species (e.g. elk) and the introduction of exotics (moose, red squirrels, Merriam's turkeys, Norway rats, ring tailed grouse, Hungarian partridge, etc.) in one or other of the provinces, and these populations spread to adjacent lands. Duplicated recreational facilities such as ski hills, golf courses, subdivision development, and redevelopment in the townsite cores, and arbitrary upgrading of various park roads contributed to the image of a common landscape, with generally common management objectives, administered quite independently from Edmonton, Regina, and Winnipeg.

The second important consequence of the transition period was affirmation of symbiosis between the reserves and adjacent Cypress Hills lands - through societal and economic ties associated with haying, grazing, and other pursuits - just as there was acknowledgement of the need to manage the reserves to conserve their special biophysical and cultural attributes, but to provide varied recreational opportunities. Therefore, to think about the reserves in management and planning terms, was to automatically take into account the lifestyles, expectations, and, in some cases, traditions of user groups in and about the Cypress Hills. This framework provided for vigorous debate on specific issues such as townsite and stock leases, changes in annual management practices, changes in land use, and so on; but the whole pointed to the indivisible relationships between the reserves and their surrounds - which, of course, included the other reserves.

7. PLANNING, DEVELOPMENT, AND LANDSCAPE

The past two decades have witnessed considerable efforts on the part of the Governments of Canada, Alberta and Saskatchewan to plan and develop their respective parks in the Cypress Hills in a comprehensive and systematic way. Indeed, the efforts may be considered as intense relative to initiatives in the preceding decades. The 1970s were very much a decade of appraisal, plan formulation, and public debate on preferred policies, land uses, and facilities for the parks. There were considerable developments too, in regard to the recreational facilities and the upgrading of various infrastructures.

The benefits to be derived from communication and cooperation in park planning, management and use have not been ignored during this period and there have been initiatives that clearly reflect upon the necessity for ongoing dialogue in resource management, facility development, and other matters. Communications occurred during the master planning process, resulting in some coordination of objectives and activities. The long-standing arrangement respecting fire

emergencies remains in place, and in the early 1980s the two provincial governments established a technical committee charged with creating interprovincial cooperative arrangements for various wildlife species. Seemingly too, informal arrangements exist respecting forestry and forest pest management, and there is some reference during interpretive programming, to opportunities available in other park jurisdictions. The extent to which such informal initiatives continue and become more numerous, under present arrangements, will depend upon the vision, energies and resources of individuals in head offices and in the field - just as is the case in other border parks. In this context the significance of the present evaluation of Interprovincial Park status for the Cypress Hills must be fully appreciated.

The author has suggested on previous occasions (Scace 1972, 1978) that the single most unifying force in the Cypress Hills from the perspective of cooperative management and use, is its *landscape*. The Cypress Hills is profoundly blessed in biophysical and cultural attributes; the landscape is a mosaic of varied biota, human artifacts and cultural endeavours; in all, a living expression of the human ecology of conserved lands under multiple use conditions. Landscape management towards predetermined goals already motivates actions at Fort Walsh and in the other parks management objectives implicitly point to preferred future landscapes. Suitable *cooperating mechanisms* are required to carry forward the landscape idea, and circumstances may now have provided the means.

8. AN INTERPROVINCIAL PARK - AND A BIOSPHERE RESERVE?

There is a citizen support in Alberta and Saskatchewan for a Cypress Hills Interprovincial Park (*Table 4*). Recommendations of the joint committee are now before the respective Park ministers. Hopefully, whatever merits have been argued on behalf of the concept will encourage further explorations - and actions. Guiding principles are required to determine the standing of the term 'interprovincial park'. There is the need to further explore programming possibilities, such as those introduced in *Table 2*: infrastructural, financial, and other consequences warrant investigation, as do matters such as the implications for visitor numbers, facilities needs, and landscape impacts, to be attached to a joint initiative. What public profile is to be attached to a Cypress Hills Interprovincial Park? Does it simply become a more prominent expression of the gradual build-up of cooperative ventures already in place; or does it become a marketing tool to make the Cypress Hills better known, more visited?

There is potential to link coordinated planning, programming, and marketing of the Cypress Hills Interprovincial Park to any of a range of regional, national and international tourism, recreation and interpretation strategies. Grasslands National Park, Canadian and American fur trade history in the Saskatchewan and Missouri basins, the Euro-American ranching industry, the World Heritage Sites at Dinosaur and Head-Smashed-In, continental deglaciation come to mind as a few random thoughts.

The Cypress Hills have experienced a century of dramatic landscape transformation, paralleling the story of careless resource exploitation and subsequent dedicated restoration throughout the western interior - but with unparalleled visibility and consequence for contemporary resource management. To members of the Palliser Expedition in the mid-nineteenth century, the Cypress Hills were a 'perfect oasis in the desert we have travelled' (Spry 1969); and fur trader Isaac Cowie recalled that in 1871-72;

"Incredible numbers of grizzly bears and red deer (elk) were killed in the (Cypress) Hills that year, of which our share of the skins numbered 750 and 1,500 respectively, and probably the traders and Metis ... got as many more" (Cowie 1913:436).

Cowie might have added that wolf, bison, pronghorn, and many other species of wildlife could also be found in abundance in the area. However, events of great complexity terminated during the 1870s what had been an extended period of Indian control of the Hills, rendering the hills instead a 'last refuge' of the northern plains Indians (Nelson 1973).

With the onset of white settlement by ranchers and farmers in the 1880s a multiplicity of uses were identified for the natural resources of the Hills. An immediate consequence was the transformation of the landscape to one of much diminished resources and extirpated species (Scace 1972). The last grizzly was killed in the 1890s. Elk disappeared from the area in 1909; cougars were eliminated in 1914. Pronghorn antelope were rare after 1900. Seventy-six wolves were killed in 1906 alone; they had disappeared by 1925. Forest destruction for building purposes, for fuel, and through repeated burnings, was such that before the century's end serious reservations were expressed about future timber supplies: following the Great Fires of 1886 and 1889, fire ceased to be an active ecological force in the Cypress Hills. Clearly, if there were to be sustained yield, attitudes would have to change and institutional arrangements introduced to control use of resources and restore the landscape.

The Cypress Hills parks and surrounding landscape may be appropriate for an International Biosphere Reserve Program designation. Under this program, the parks and surrounding landowners cooperatively manage the landscape and mutually discuss management issues on a regular basis. An Interprovincial Park appeals too, as an obvious statement on maturation of a sequence of landscape conservation and resource management arrangements applied to the Cypress Hills throughout this century. The idea also acknowledges the place today of cooperation among agencies and organizations in the conservation of heritage lands (see, e.g., Scace and Nelson 1986, Volume 1). Cooperation is a unifying theme whether applied to matters of resource management, marketing, or regional economic opportunities.

The circumstances seem appropriate too, for an appeal to assess the potential of a Cypress Hills Interprovincial Park as a core area in what one day might become a biosphere reserve in the Cypress Hills (Canada/MAB 1987; IUCN 1979). Useful regional guidance in this regard is found in growing understanding of the role of the Waterton Lakes Biosphere Reserve (Lief 1985), itself a constituent part of the world's first (albeit informal) trans-boundary biosphere reserve (Scace and Martinka 1983). The door having been opened to an appraisal of possible future arrangements for cooperation in the Cypress Hills, the intimate relationship between the parks and their surrounds should not be excluded from the process. Mindful of past tensions and the need to work slowly towards an understanding of what is entailed in such designations, the local population and the public generally should have continuous access to the evaluation process.

9. TOWARDS A NETWORK OF CROSS-BORDER PARKS

The efficacy with which borderline parks can fulfill multiple roles has been demonstrated by established sites around the world. Additions to the international list continue around the globe (Thorsell and Harrison this volume). The current Interprovincial Park assessment by the Governments of Alberta and Saskatchewan is a test to determine whether at least some of the

functions ascribed to international border parks can be applied on the Alberta-Saskatchewan border. This paper has suggested that both in principle and in practice, the idea of an Interprovincial Park is entirely appropriate for the Cypress Hills area: the challenge is to develop suitable guiding principles and practical mechanisms that confer legitimacy upon the title.

But what of a possible system of Interprovincial Parks? Some public support also has been forthcoming for Cold Lake/Meadow Lake in the initial testing of the idea, and doubtless other areas along the border could be considered. A primary candidate in this regard is Dillberry Lake Provincial Park in Alberta. Though possessing no Saskatchewan counterpart, the park demonstrates intimate biophysical, and recreational and other land use associations with a contiguous area in Saskatchewan that warrant serious consideration of a matching reserve. The problem attached to the systems connotation, at least from a planning perspective, is that border parks seem more the product of appropriate local opportunities than systematic planning initiatives.

Much more successful, it appears, would be the creation of a network of Interprovincial Parks, drawing on a community experience, with each unit retaining flexibility in matters pertaining to administration, planning and use. The present conference is to address suggested policies and guidelines for future promotion of the concept of international peace parks: is there not merit in broadening the concept to address borderline parks generally, so that benefits inherent in such reserves are applied *within* national borders as much as *between* nations? In an uncertain world 'Parks for Peace' may have as much to contribute to domestic harmony as on an international scale!

The Interprovincial Park concept holds potential for growth in tourism, principally through the vehicle of joint marketing and promotion, either of the Interprovincial Park itself, or in the context of regional opportunities in both provinces. Research needs to be conducted in this area, as well as in other programme areas to maximize all the benefits to be derived from designation of an Interprovincial Park. For the Cypress Hills and other potential parks along the Alberta-Saskatchewan border, the Interprovincial Park concept is one worthy of dedicated attention.

TABLE 2: INITIAL SET OF SUGGESTED PROGRAM AREAS FOR INTERPROVINCIAL PARKS

Marketing & Promotion Opportunities

An Interprovincial Park designation could provide new opportunities for marketing and promotion of tourism and recreation opportunities in both park areas. This could include:

- A special brochure and map showing the recreation facilities and opportunities in the Interprovincial Park.
- Interprovincial Park signs along major highways.
- Interprovincial Parks highlighted in provincial tourism brochures and highway maps.

Regional Economic Opportunities

An Interprovincial Park designation could enhance regional tourism and economic development opportunities by:

- Enhancing interprovincial commercial recreation programs - bus tours, trail rides, etc.
- Encouraging the development of complementary private sector opportunities in suitable park locations.
- Identifying and encouraging tourism development opportunities in the region surrounding an interprovincial park.

Opportunities for Visitor Services - Programs and Facilities

An Interprovincial Park designation could provide an opportunity to expand and improve integrated recreation and interpretive programs and facilities. The provinces could:

- Develop interprovincial links - hiking and equestrian trails, canoe routes, scenic parkways, etc.
- Develop complementary facilities in appropriate locations to retain the natural character of each park.
- Coordinate interpretive programs to accommodate and encourage interprovincial travel - autotour, complementary nature programs, etc.
- Coordinate visitor information campsite availability and reservations, road and weather conditions, etc.

Resource Management Coordination

An Interprovincial Park could better coordinate management of the natural environment, which knows no administrative boundaries. The province could:

- Coordinate management of regionally significant interprovincial resources (vegetation, heritage, fisheries, wildlife).
- Coordinate resource protection activities related to hunting, fishing and fire control.

Source: Alberta and Saskatchewan, Governments 1988a.

TABLE 3: PUBLIC COMMENTS ABOUT THE CONCEPT OF INTERPROVINCIAL PARKS ALONG THE ALBERTA/SASKATCHEWAN BORDER

- Each provincial park should remain a separate administrative entity, however, cooperative agreements relating to promotions, resource management coordination and program and facility development could be pursued.
- Separate administrations should be maintained with entry fees, fishing and hunting licensing and regulations not affected. In the future it may be possible to equitably coordinate entry permits, licences and regulation but only after further examination.
- There should be a coordinated approach to park zoning which would preserve the natural character and integrity of each park. In particular, the west side of Meadow Lake Provincial Park, and the border area of the Cypress Hills should be maintained as natural areas. This would focus park developments in more appropriate locations.
- The current approach to resource uses, especially grazing and fisheries, should be maintained.
- Focus tourist services and facilities in the communities surrounding each park to contribute to regional economic development.
- Coordinate trail developments across borders.
- Joint maps, brochures and highway signing should be used to show an Interprovincial Park as one land base with opportunities for visitors on both sides of the border. A new marketing strategy is required, marketing the park experience, not the attractions.
- All park staff should be made aware of the range of opportunities which are available for visitors throughout the Interprovincial Park and surrounding region.

- The potential for increasing use in shoulder seasons was recognized.
- Less duplication of marketing and promotions and recreation facilities may mean resources could be allocated to improving resource management and interpretive programs.
- Interprovincial Parks need to be integrated into the existing provincial park systems.
- The objective should not be to increase usage of the parks or encourage development.
- Any developments which are proposed for the park areas should be planned to avoid fragile and important ecosystems and environments.
- Interpretive programs should be planned to both protect the environment from over-use and educate visitors about the fragile nature of the resource.
- Integrated interpretive storylines should be developed along auto routes in Interprovincial Parks.
- Interprovincial parks are an excellent marketing tool for the park areas.
- New lands should be considered for Interprovincial Park designation.

Source: Alberta and Saskatchewan, Governments 1988b.

TABLE 4: PUBLIC COMMENTS ABOUT THE CYPRESS HILLS AREA AT OPEN HOUSES IN ALBERTA AND SASKATCHEWAN

- The Cypress Hills is a unique and nationally significant area and a good candidate for an Interprovincial Park.
- The road connecting the Cypress Hills Centre Block with Elkwater Townsite via the Gap should be upgraded but only to a low speed parkway standard. Concern was expressed over the potentially negative impact on the West Block. Developing a road link could lead to incremental demands for facilities in the West Block which might eventually degrade the natural landscape.
- An integrated historical and natural history storyline should be used for interpretive facilities along the connecting road.
- Fort Walsh National Historic Park should be integrated into the interpretive storyline.
- The historical significance of ranching in the Cypress Hills should be included in the interpretation of the area.
- Opportunities for trail rides and wagon rides on either side of the border in the Cypress Hills should be developed.
- Upgrading for camping, equestrian group camping and day-use facilities in the Cypress Hills are needed.
- Auto access should be reduced in some parts of the Cypress Hills in order to reduce potential conflicts with trail users and reduce dangers of fire.
- Elk management could benefit from additional cooperation between the provinces in the Cypress Hills.
- Vegetation management needs to be improved and a consideration when hiring staff.
- All forested land in the Cypress Hills should be protected.
- Development of a joint interpretive centre was suggested.
- There may be an opportunity for joint promotions of the ski hills and golf courses. The operators should be encouraged to cooperate on golf tournaments and/or ski races using the facilities on both sides of the border.
- The opportunity for protecting the Cypress Hills and improving resource management was considered a paramount reason for Interprovincial Park designation.

Source: Alberta and Saskatchewan, Governments 1988b.

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PARKS FOR PEACE

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Wheeler Peak in the Kluane/Wrangell/St.Elias International World Heritage Site - Canada/USA



PARKS FOR PEACE

Abstract

One-sixth of the common US border with Canada and one-fifth of the common border with Mexico are covered by parks or protected areas. Examples of five different management agreements are given and a set of recommendations to the tourism industry are suggested.

On behalf of The Honorable Donald P. Hodel, Secretary of the Department of the Interior, and National Park Service Director William Penn Mott, it is my privilege to be here representing the US National Park Service and to compliment Canada - its Government, businesses, industries, and citizens, for taking the lead in developing this first Global Conference - Tourism - A Vital Force for Peace. From our viewpoint perhaps, it is only fitting that we meet here, in Canada, since it was here, in Canada in 1911, that the world's first national park service was established.

With deep respect for all views and beliefs as to the origin of the world, as to the origin of all of its animals, vegetables, and minerals - our world is one big park. We cannot create parks. But we can protect areas, we can cooperate with nature, and we can aid the citizens of this world - of this globe - aid them in understanding their fellow man and, through that understanding - gain peace.

I make this observation as I shall not only cover border parks but also parks across the border. I shall do this for two reasons:

- 1) the non-border parks are just as important; and
- 2) in 1872 when the world's first National Park (Yellowstone) was established, there were 95 countries in the world. Today there are 174. That is a lot of changing of borders. In fact much more recently - between 1972 and 1982 - there were 70 boundary changes. (Source: *Borders and Territorial Disputes*).

I have been asked to present:

- An overview of border parks between the United States and Canada and the United States and Mexico.
- A summary of any cooperative agreements that are in force.
- What might I consider to aid the overall thrust of peace through tourism.

First, then, an overview of border parks. Approximately one-sixth of our common border with Canada and one-fifth of our common border with Mexico are in parks and protected areas. These range from the far northwest in Alaska with the Wrangell/St Elias/Kluane (first jointly nominated World Heritage Site) to the far northeast with Roosevelt Campobello International Park in New Brunswick, Canada. Between these two border parks are a great variety including the first international peace park - 1932 - at Waterton Lakes/Glacier, and Fort Malden, Ontario/Perry's Victory, Ohio. In all, eleven US national park areas border with Canada while seven border with

Mexico including Oregon Pipe Cactus National Monument in Arizona, Chamizal National Memorial and Amistad National Recreation Area in Texas.

It is also fitting to note that there are many border parks which have been established by other levels of government such as 'Peace Arch Park' at Blaine, Washington, and White Rock, British Columbia, and the International Peace Garden between North Dakota and Manitoba.

My second objective is to present a summary of cooperative management agreements in force. Again, there are many, but five different types give a general idea.

- Roosevelt Campobello. Equally funded by Canada and the United States with a six member commission; three appointed by the Prime Minister and three by the President.
- St Croix Island National Historic Site - a memorandum of understanding for interpretation and development.
- Voyageurs National Park/United States Forest Service/State of Minnesota/Ontario, Canada. Cooperation in combatting fire.
- Waterton/Glacier. Reciprocal agreement for emergencies.
- Manning Provincial Park and the North Cascades National Park Complex. A treaty provides for energy while also providing funds for protection and understanding of the environment.

I should now like to comment on my third and last objective - peace via tourism. McNeil (this volume) has listed three primary possible functions for international parks: promotion of peace; protection and management of resources and the environment; and preservation and enhancement of cultural values. I believe there is one more - understanding of culture - our own and others - and, through understanding - Peace.

Thorsell and Harrison (this volume), in writing about Australia's Alps, noted that ten protected areas are under four management agencies. I would like to note that there are many such places in America, such as Pipestone National Monument in Minnesota, where the native Americans had many management agencies called tribes and nations, many of whom protected an area where all of them could come but only for peace.

I believe that mankind will have a greater chance of peace if he understands his own culture, and that of other nations - or even sections of nations. To that end, I suggest the following for your consideration. Man has always been a tourist - he has expanded his scope and his speed of travel - but always a tourist, and for many different purposes. But, there has always been a 'lack of peace'. I believe that peace can be achieved with tourism playing a major role, that peace can be achieved if the custodians of parks, and the promoters of tourism will cooperate.

For years there have been worldwide agencies addressing the food situation - from helping people learn how to produce it, to harvesting and sharing. This is also true concerning shelter. But although we have scratched the surface on cultural understanding, there is so much more that can be done. I am proposing that the tourist industry formally recognise that it is both financially profitable, as well as humanitarian, for the countries of the world to have national parks and reserves, not only for tourists to enjoy, but also for the very existence of the world.

Furthermore, the tourist industry will not only utilise the world's national parks and cultural shrines - the Taj Mahals, the Hermitages, and the Great Walls, but they will expand their efforts to achieve the preservation, conservation, and interpretation of these areas.

As Carl Sagan wrote in his article *A Piece of the Sky is Missing* in the September 11 1988 issue of *Parade* magazine, 'We must develop higher standards of planetary hygiene and begin to think and act on behalf of the entire human species and the generations to come.' As President Reagan stated in his message to Congress on February 6 1986, 'Recognising that environmental problems do not stop at national boundaries, we will collaborate closely with other nations.'

How might the tourist industry aid with this preservation, conservation, and interpretation of parks, preserves, and cultural areas? I suggest that the Action Task Groups consider, and subsequently develop, a programme to implement the following for the global tourist industry to implement:

- Recommend to every country that it preserve and interpret one additional natural area during each of the next ten years.
- Recommend to every country that it preserve and interpret one cultural area during each of the next ten years.
- Ask the appropriate agency to develop a worldwide network for the training of park professionals.
- Urge each nation's tourist agency to commit itself to high standards of cooperation with the custodians of the resources.
- Recommend that the tourist industry bring to bear its considerable influence to place an additional per person debarkation fee - perhaps US\$10 - a fee on all people departing to a different country via ships, trains, or aircraft, said funds to be placed in an international fund. These funds would be provided to countries, by priority or economic need, based on GNP or some other such criteria.

I have shared with you an overview of the United States parks that border with Canada and Mexico and have given you examples of different types of in-force cooperative agreements. For more information concerning border parks and cooperative agreements, please write to our International Affairs Office in Washington DC.



Iguaza/Iguaçu World Heritage Site - Argentina/Brazil

PROMOTING EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT OF TRANSFRONTIER PARKS AND RESERVES GUIDELINES

by

Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas
International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources, Gland, Switzerland



Victoria Falls/Mosi-oa-Tunya International World Heritage Site, Zimbabwe/Zambia



PROMOTING EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT OF TRANSFRONTIER PARKS AND RESERVES GUIDELINES

Management of large natural areas is a complex process involving scientifically-based selection of key habitats, establishment of objectives, definition of management steps required to attain the objectives, implementing action, monitoring results and feeding adjustments back into the management system. Managers usually regard their business of managing a park within national frontiers as difficult enough without adding the complication of the cooperative effort required when dealing with international frontiers. Although there are practical pressures and limits to what can be accomplished, the conservation benefits and political advantages of border parks are worth the extra effort. Without political and managerial commitment, border parks have no better hope of success than any other, but the very fact that these areas do meet on a border may be a contributory factor in ensuring that commitment.

The following guidelines, prepared first in draft and discussed at the First Global Conference on Tourism - A Vital Force for Peace (Vancouver, Canada, October 1988), are proposed to promote effective management of trans-frontier reserves:

- a) *Review existing protected natural areas along the border of the nation.* Each country should possess an inventory of shared natural sites along their frontiers such as waterfalls and mountain complexes and be aware of cross-border movements of migratory species, tourism patterns and other trans-boundary interactions.
- b) *Examine potential border areas to complement the existing protected area system.* Ideally, the boundaries of trans-frontier parks are coincident and incorporate the main ecological values of the border area. More commonly, however, selection has been based on other criteria and boundaries either do not match up or do not include all the key biophysical elements. A map of potential additions and boundary adjustments should be available to display the gaps.
- c) *Formulate cooperative agreements for integrated management of border protected areas.* Once border parks are recognised as areas of special importance by governments, the agencies concerned should develop a set of detailed measures for cooperative management. This may involve ensuring that management plans prepared for each side are consistent, that a working-level consultative committee is established, law enforcement regulations are harmonised, and other mechanisms are designed to foster neighbourly relations. As the sovereignty question can often be a sensitive one, care must be taken to avoid the inference that such agreements imply relinquishing control over national territory. Private associations (NGOs) should be encouraged to initiate action where government 'officialdom' is slow to act.

- d) ***Identify practical management activities in border parks to facilitate more effective conservation.*** Day-to-day concerns of the border park field manager include law enforcement, search and rescue, border crossing points, indigenous populations, fire prevention, wildlife disease and re-introductions among others. Close liaison with park staff in the adjoining country is necessary to address all of these types of activities. Regular staff exchanges and compatible communication systems are two means that are in operation in some border parks. Special allowances to facilitate and accommodate sustainable activities of resident human populations should be given careful attention
- e) ***Design joint visitor use facilities and programmes.*** Trans-frontier parks can benefit from joint tourism marketing efforts and also ensure that certain facilities and publications can be shared and are complementary. Acting together, border park administrations can better influence the location of and access to visitor facilities and development of areas adjacent to the parks themselves, thereby enhancing their role in regional development. Public education programmes can emphasise the symbolic message that international peace parks should represent.
- f) ***Formulate cooperative research programmes and share results.*** Cost-savings and sharing of research results are potential benefits of cooperative border park management. Clearances for customs permits and exchange of bona fide specimens can often be facilitated between adjoining park agencies.
- g) ***Build on bilateral and international agreements related to boundary cooperation.*** Some countries have established special legal and administrative commissions to deal with boundary questions (such as cross-border poaching) and to promote good relations. The protected area agency should be familiar with these as well as articles of international conservation conventions that encourage such cooperation (e.g. the the World Heritage, Wetlands and Migratory Species Conventions).
- h) ***Prepare joint nominations of border parks meriting inclusion on the World Heritage List.*** There are currently 16 natural World Heritage properties found along international boundaries. Only two of these were jointly inscribed (Kluane and Wrangell-St. Elias in the United States and Canada, and Mt. Nimba in Guinea and Ivory Coast). In the spirit of the Convention, countries are encouraged to nominate their adjacent reserves and consider joint nominations of others. International biosphere reserves and Ramsar sites should be similarly pursued.

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