

Mountain Tourism for Local Development

Training Manual for
Local Community Groups and Organizations



International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development
and
Centre for Resource and Environmental Studies

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Local Community Groups and Organizations

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AND
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International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD)
and
Centre for Resource and Environmental Studies (CREST)
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Top: Shringi Himal (7,187m), Gorkha - CREST

Bottom: Participants in a Trekking Lodge Operators' Training Course - ACAP

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Preface

The present manual is part of a series of studies and manuals resulting from the second phase of the NORAD -funded Project entitled Mountain Tourism for Local Community Development. The major objective of the Project is to develop training modules and material on mountain tourism for local community development for policy makers, program managers, private sector agencies and local community based organizations and entrepreneurs and impart training to these audiences in participating countries on a pilot basis. As part of the Project a number of thematic studies and manuals have been prepared.

The present Manual comprises training modules for Local Community Groups and Organizations concerned with local development in its broadest sense. The emphasis is in providing the local community groups and organizations an awareness of the major issues of local development related to mountain tourism. It also presents and elucidates the key issues and approaches related to the environmental, economic, social, and cultural aspects of mountain tourism and the ways and means of enhancing linkages of mountain tourism with local development. The manual presents and elucidates the likely opportunities for local development that tourism would open, the problems that may emerge as a consequence of tourism and the role that government, non-governmental agencies, community organizations and the private sector could play in the organization and management of sustainable tourism in the mountains. It also introduces appropriate technologies that have implications for mountain tourism. A major emphasis is on the development of participatory institutions that would set in motion a process of participatory planning of tourism so that mountain tourism may contribute to the three cardinal concerns of mountain development in the Hindu Kush Himalayas, namely, poverty alleviation, environmental care and empowerment of local communities.

These manuals build on the country overview studies, regional case studies and micro case studies undertaken during the earlier and the present phase of the NORAD supported Mountain Tourism for Local Development Project. The present manual is basically intended for Local community Groups, Organisations and entrepreneurs in tourism and related areas in Nepal. Separate manuals have been developed for the Policy planners and Programme Designers and Implementors of tourism and related activities in Nepal. Also, similar manuals have been developed for different target audiences in India and Pakistan. Pilot trainings through the use of these manuals have also been conducted in these countries in association with key institutions related to tourism and local development. We hope that these manuals will contribute in the process of institutionalizing the trainings in respective country contexts and facilitate the conceptual and operational integration of mountain tourism with local development.

We would like to thank the Centre for Resource and Environmental Studies (CREST) our collaborating institution in the Mountain Tourism for Local Community Development Project in Nepal, particularly Dr. Kamal Banskota and Bikash Sharma for developing these manuals.

On behalf of ICIMOD, Dr. Pitamber Sharma is the Project Coordinator as well as the technical editor of these manuals.

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Introduction

The mountain areas of Nepal, by virtue of their remote and inaccessible nature, have limited scope for modern development in a cost-effective manner. The majority of people who live in the mountains practice subsistence agriculture and animal husbandry. Their dependence on natural resources for survival is critical. Rampant poverty is a characteristic of mountain areas, and development so far has not been able to reach most mountain areas. Over time, growing population and declining per capita food availability are continuing to add pressure to the resource base of mountain areas. This problem is further accentuated by declining agricultural yields. New opportunities are not forthcoming to mitigate the hardships faced by the mountain people.

Despite these problems, mountain tourism development provides the hope of mitigating some of these problems in some areas with potential. Nepal has already witnessed positive contributions made by mountain tourism in remote and inaccessible areas such as Namche Bazaar and Ghandruk. However, other areas, despite mountain tourism practices, have not been so fortunate, for reasons that are beginning to be better understood.

Nepal's mountain tourism has been essentially demand led, and the entire supply aspects of mountain tourism (responsibility of the host at the national, regional, destination and site levels) have been very weak. This weakness has constrained benefits that have been realised only in terms of the expenditure made by tourists, when their willingness to pay (which is believed to be much higher than what they actually spend) has not been realised. Unless the overall supply side consisting of attractions, services, transportation, marketing, and promotion all improve, mountain tourism development is not likely to generate spontaneously and shower benefits into remote and inaccessible mountain areas. Concerted efforts to improve and develop the supply side of mountain tourism have to be made. Continuing to rely on demand-led tourism in mountain areas severely undermines the scope of mountain tourism and hence the benefits it can generate. A further important weakness of mountain tourism in Nepal has been its extremely poor linkage with local communities. Efforts have to be made to link mountain tourism and community development so that a wider mountain community can benefit from mountain tourism development.

Having said this, it is also important to realise that not all mountain areas may qualify for tourism development. Mountain areas must possess the necessary tourism assets. Such assets mostly exist *in situ* and need human intervention. Human skills have to be improved to manage the assets better, provide better services to visitors, and develop local institutions to promote and develop mountain areas with mountain tourism leading the way.

This trainers' manual is designed to highlight the important issues and problems that have evolved in the context of mountain tourism in Nepal. The manual makes an attempt to highlight various issues that local people need to be made aware of while different types of training and skills are imparted to them in the context of mountain tourism. The issues and concepts that have been developed in the manual are the result of several years of research sponsored by ICIMOD and carried out by CREST in the context of mountain tourism development. These have been supplemented with work carried out by other scholars who have conducted work in mountain tourism during the last two and a half decades.

Objective

The objective of this training manual is to create awareness among local communities on various issues and options for managing mountain tourism at the local level on a sustainable basis. This manual provides sufficient materials for trainers to impart awareness on mountain tourism to different target audiences at the local level (e.g., local government officials, local communities, NGOs, and private entrepreneurs).

The success of this training manual will be largely contingent upon the skill and ability of trainers to transmit all necessary information to target audiences at the local level effectively in a participatory manner. More specifically, the following approaches and emphasis merit attention while using this training manual as a tool for imparting training at the local level.

First of all, the basic approach to training should not be merely to transmit information but rather more importantly to assist trainees to learn to think for themselves and be aware of the complexity of interventions required for sustainable tourism management at the local level.

Second, the emphasis should be upon training through practical experiences rather than formal classroom activities.

Third, training itself should be participatory. For this purpose, the trainer or project agent needs to be trained on the objectives of the participatory process.

Finally, training is not a one-time affair but a continuous process, i.e., training should be treated as an evolving process of the work with periodic refresher/follow-up sessions to review practices and adjust them accordingly over time. From this perspective, the training manual will sow its own seeds for continuous development.

Organization

The eight training sessions are to be conducted in five to six days. Slide shows and a video presentation should be made to highlight the different dimensions of mountain tourism during the main training sessions. It is recommended that some sessions be carried out with practicals (Sessions 6 and 7, for example). Questions are also provided to help the trainer bring about a lively participatory discussion during the workshop. Supplementary reading materials are provided.

SCHEDULE AND TIMING

Day 1

Session 1:	Introduction and Tourism Awareness
Session 2:	Mountain Tourism Impacts, Opportunities, and Limitations
09.00 - 09.30	Registration
09.30 - 10.30	Inauguration
10.30 - 11.00	Tea break
11.00 - 12.00	Introduction to the Workshop
11.30 - 12.00	Slide Show Presentation and Discussion
12.00 - 13.00	Session 1: Introduction and Tourism Awareness
13.00 - 14.00	Lunch Break
14.00 - 15.30	Session 2: Mountain Tourism Impacts, Opportunities, and Limitations
15.30 - 16.00	Tea Break
16.00 - 17.00	Discussion

Day 2

Video Presentation

Session 3:	Participatory Planning of Mountain Tourism
Session 4:	Grassroots' Institutions for Participatory Planning at the Local Level
09.00 - 10.00	Video Presentation and First Part of Session 3
10.30 - 10.45	Tea Break
11.15 - 13.00	Session 3: Participatory Planning of Mountain Tourism
13.00 - 14.00	Lunch
14.00 - 15.30	Session 4: Grassroots' Institutions for Participatory Planning at the Local Level
15.30 - 15.45	Tea Break
15.45 - 17.00	Discussion

Day 3

Session 5:	Use of Alternative Sources of Energy and Technologies
Session 6:	Management of Solid Waste and Garbage and Management of Lodge and Campsite
09.00 - 16.00	Session 5: Use of Alternative Sources of Energy and Technologies Session 6: Management of Solid Waste and Garbage and Management of Lodge and Campsite
11.00 - 11.15	Tea Break
11.15 - 13.00	Demonstration and Discussion on Session 5
13.00 - 14.00	Lunch
15.30 - 15.45	Tea Break

Day 4

Session 7: Local-level Enterprise Opportunities
(To be carried out by Industrial Enterprise Development Centre)

Session 8: Monitoring and Evaluation

09.00 - 10.30 Session 7: Local Level Enterprise Opportunities

10.30 - 10.45 Tea Break

10.45 - 11.30 Session 8: Monitoring and Evaluation

13.00 - 14.00 Lunch

14.00 - 15.30 Discussion on Session 7 and 8

15.30 - 15.45 Tea Break

15.45 - 17.00 Closing

Slide Shows

Video Shows

Field Visit

SESSION 1

DURATION: ONE HOUR

INTRODUCTION AND TOURISM AWARENESS

Objective

To provide an overview of why tourists come to visit mountain areas and what new tourism products can be offered to them in order to maximise benefits (opportunities) from tourism on a sustainable basis

Contents

What are meant by Himalayan Environmental Resources?
Travelling and Viewing the Bounties of Nature give Visitors Satisfaction
Tourism Resources: Natural and Man-made Assets
Tourism Products

Methodology

Short presentation followed by group discussion

Objectives

To provide an overview of why tourists come to visit mountain areas and what new tourism products can be offered to them in order to maximise benefits (opportunities) from tourism on a sustainable basis.

Nepal is a country rich in natural and cultural diversity, and it also has the highest mountain chain in the world. Given its small size (147,186sq km.), the biodiversity is also immense. In order to protect this biodiversity, 14 protected areas, covering roughly 14 per cent of the country, have been created. Trekking tourism is the most popular type of mountain tourism in Nepal, followed by mountaineering and rafting. The mountain areas of Nepal contain rich resources, and tourists from all over the world come to enjoy them. These resources are called Himalayan Environmental Resources and consist of the following.

What are meant by Himalayan Environmental Resources (HER)?

- Mountains are unique environmental resources that have no substitutes.
- The mountain environment is home to many ethnic groups with rich and a diversified cultural heritage.
- Mountain people depend on HER (firewood, pastures, etc) for their livelihood.
- Mountain environments contain many endemic and threatened species whose potential value to mankind may be enormous.
- Mountain areas provide aesthetic value and high recreational value, i.e., tourism.
- Mountain environments have immense downstream values in terms of soil erosion control, watershed protection, and hydropower generation.
- Clearly, HER can truly be considered as economic assets that generate income.

Mountain tourism development is a concept that should encompass the characteristics of the mountain environment and the values of the different environmental resources that mountains harbour. Efforts to develop tourism in the mountains without duly addressing mountain characteristics can do more harm than good to the mountain environment and its economy.

Tourists come to visit mountain areas to enjoy a variety of things for which Nepal is famous.

Nepal is rich in mountains, flowers, animals, birds, and scenic beauty.

- It has the world's highest peak - Sagarmatha.
- It has the world's longest and highest Himalayan range.
- Nepal has many of the world's highest mountains: Sagarmatha, Kanchenjunga, Lhotse, Makalu, Dhaulagiri, Manaslu, and Cho Oyu.
- The Himalayas harbour unique ecosystems, flora, and fauna.

Nepal is also famous for its people and rich cultural heritage.

- The mountain people have a rich cultural diversity.
- For ages, mountain people have been living in harmony with the environment.
- Over the last three decades, the number of tourists to Nepal has been increasing (Figure 1).

Travelling and Viewing the Bounties of Nature give Visitors Satisfaction

This satisfaction is also unique in the sense that the tourist can only see and enjoy the scenery. They cannot physically take it back with them. They are happy and satisfied with the pictures and written words they take back with them after leaving the mountains.

Tourism Resources: Natural and Man-made Assets

- Many of the natural resources that tourists like, are found in their natural form in mountain areas.
- It is necessary to leave as many natural resources as possible in their raw form, so that our children and their grandchildren can enjoy nature in its pure form.
- At present, trekking is one of the main activities of mountain tourism in Nepal.
- Rafting is a growing tourism activity. Other products have not been developed in Nepal. (See Box 1.1 for Tourism Assets of Upper Mustang.)

Tourism Products

Tourism products are a combination of services and facilities offered to tourists. They include attractions (natural and man-made) and other necessities such as food, lodging, transportation, guide, and information services, etc.

Developing new products enables the host country in general and mountain areas in particular to offer a variety of enjoyable products to tourists. (See Box 1.2 for recognising opportunities for the development of new products.) This approach has two advantages.

Figure 1: Trend in Visitors to Nepal
1965-1995



- In the first place, night stays for visitors in local areas can be promoted.
- A new market for local products is created as visitors' night stays increase and thus a wider mountain community can benefit if community participation is mobilised and harnessed to develop and manage the products. (The community participation issue will be taken up later.)

Nepal has not been able to develop new products for trekking activities. Infrastructures, especially transportation to mountain areas rich in nature are severe handicaps for developing new products. But if helicopter services can be provided and new products can be developed transport may not be a problem. However, providing better transport services such as helicopter services should not be done if new products are not developed and if local people are unable to benefit from mountain tourism (Box 1.3). Such an approach would perhaps be against sustainability.

Environmental conservation and human safety must never be compromised while developing new products.

Box 1.1: Tourism Assets of Upper Mustang

Lack of any form of modernisation is itself a unique attribute of the area and, when blended with the natural setting, makes Upper Mustang very unique. Upper Mustang is in the trans-Himalayan region, from where one can gaze south to look at the main Himalayas. The people practice a custom that continues to thrive fairly independently, despite the twin influence of the main Nepali polity and Tibetan culture. Its remoteness adds to its attraction. The sheer beauty of this cold-natural-wilderness desert, north of the majestic Himalayas, is in itself an important tourism asset. In general, the tourism assets of Upper Mustang may be classified into several categories, namely, natural and man-made. Natural assets include the endowments of nature and man-made assets could be tangible (monastery) as well as intangible (culture).

Natural Assets

Damodar Kund

Damodar Kund is a sacred site for Hindus and, at the same time, provides a unique opportunity to observe a glacial lake that abounds in pristine forests and wildlife. Many of the wildlife found in the Damodar Kund area as well as in Upper Mustang are uncommon and some are endangered species.

Fauna and Flora

Occurrence of three endangered species, namely wild yak (*Bos grunniens*), Tibetan wild ass (*Equus hemionus kiang*), and the Nayan or great Tibetan sheep (*Ovis ammon haggisoni*) in northern Mustang have been reported. Additionally, the area abounds in pristine forests and harbours many floral species.

Mustang Gate

Kali Gandaki at a certain point along the trail can be seen to flow through a big rock face and is a spectacular natural site. This is called the Mustang Gate.

Man-made Assets

The cultural and religious practices of the people of Upper Mustang dates back to the 14th century and are still practised to this day.

Historical Assets

Ancient texts, scriptures, and paintings depict the area's antiquity.

Jhampa *Gomba* is the oldest monastery in Lomanthang and was built in 1387. Its uniqueness lies in its mysterious and excellent mandala wall paintings printed in gold.

Thubchhen Monastery was built in 1412 A.D. The monastery has an imposing two-storied building consisting of beautiful art works and woodwork inside its interior. The main image inside the monastery is made of gold-plated copper sheets.

Fort Towers

Two forts stand just north of Lomanthang. From the fort towers, it is possible to get a clear view of the Tibetan plateau. It is reported that these towers were built to watch enemy attacks from Tibet.

Longest Prayer Wheel Wall

Upper Mustang also boasts of having one of the longest row of prayer wheels in the country, which is located in Ghami VDC.

Chhosser Cave

Among the numerous caves found in this area, Chhosser Cave is five storeys high and consists of about 85 rooms. The sizes of most rooms are about 120 sq. ft. with the exception of one big room that is about 400 sq. ft. Besides a kitchen and toilet facilities, there are shelves in all the rooms, perhaps made for storing food and other materials. The walls of the caves are painted with turpentine extracted from blue pine.

Lomanthang Wall

Built in the 15th century, the wall surrounding the city is another cultural heritage of the people of Lomanthang. A unique city with a wall and a gate that closes every night at 10 p.m. is rare.

Festivals

Losar

The Losar marks the Tibetan new year and is an important festival celebrated by the people in Upper Mustang.

Teeji Festival

The Teeji Festival is celebrated for three days. Teeji commemorates the victory of Buddha's incarnation over a demon. This festival can be an interesting event to tourists since it takes place in May.

Yartung

This is a harvest or horse festival that takes place on the 15th of the seventh month.

Source: Basukota and Sharma 1996

Box 1.2: New Products that Can Be Developed

Pure Nature Trails. The environment on both the southern and northern foothills still remains pristine. The quality of this pristine environment is second to none in the entire Himalayas.

Sightseeing Adventures. Some areas in a given destination may present more spectacular scenes than along the main trekking trail or where campsites and lodges are located. Such areas can be identified and developed.

Biodiversity Tours. The pristine nature of the Himalayan environment found in these areas provides enormous scope for developing biodiversity tours. There are many species endemic to Nepal. Although observing mammals is more difficult, many mountain areas are rich in this kind of tourism asset. Birds are plentiful in Nepal (over 850 species). With the growing interest in the global environment, biodiversity tours have become important dimensions of international tourism.

Glacier Tours. Glaciers are accessible from both sides of the region, but as with all glaciers, such tours can be risky. However, reasonably accessible glaciers can be identified and tours can be developed.

Camping Tours. Many tourists that visit the hubs may also want to experience pure wilderness camping.

Cultural Tours and Village Tourism. Many tourists are interested in visiting local communities, observing their lifestyles, tasting their food, and enjoying other aspects of the local community's cultural assets.

Helicopter Tours. Helicopter tours can be scheduled on a demand basis to provide panoramic views of mountain areas.

Others. Many other activities can be identified such as rock climbing, tobogganing and skiing (which may be seasonal), white water rafting, etc.

Box 1.3: Flying Helicopters in Mountain Areas

The disturbance to wildlife and the trekker's sense of peace and wilderness experience caused by the noise of helicopters and doubts about the safety of landing helicopters at high altitudes and the possible high altitude sickness that may result are some of the serious concerns already raised by both the tourist and host population. Some lodge owners have even experienced shortfalls in their business income by 50 per cent during the tourist season and after as a result of the opening of flying services in Langtang National Park (LNP). Another closely related issue of significant concern is that helicopter services pay a royalty fee to LNP that could be used for tourism infrastructure, skill development, and conservation to mitigate the disturbing impacts of flights.

Source: Banskota and Sharma 1996

SESSION 2

DURATION: ONE HOUR

MOUNTAIN TOURISM IMPACTS, OPPORTUNITIES, AND LIMITATIONS

Objectives

To highlight the main impacts of mountain tourism and provide some ideas on opportunities and limitation of tourism to ensure sustainable mountain tourism

Contents

Mountain Tourism Impacts

Environmental

Economic

Sociocultural

Impacts on Women

Infrastructural Development

Other Impacts

Opportunities and Limitations: Understanding Sustainability and Carrying Capacity

What does Sustainable Mountain Tourism Development Mean at the Local Level?

Methodology

Short presentation followed by group discussion

Objectives

To highlight the main impacts of mountain tourism and provide some ideas about the opportunities and limitations of tourism in regards to ensuring sustainable mountain tourism.

The mountain people's daily needs are met through resources found in the Himalayas, as local people have no option but to continue to use the resources. Development has not been able to mitigate poverty and generate new employment opportunities in most of the remote mountain areas. Tourism in the Himalayas has been gaining in popularity, and it has provided new opportunities and challenges. It has been able to provide income and employment opportunities in remote and relatively inaccessible areas and causes both positive and negative impacts. Mountain tourism creates jobs for mountain people annually in the form of porters and other staff. Also, many women are employed in lodges and tea houses. However, the jobs created by tourism in mountain areas are seasonal.

Mountain Tourism Impacts

The impacts of mountain tourism may be grouped into three main headings. It is not always possible to discern whether the impact is positive or negative, since its true manifestation may take many years. Also, tourism may not alone be responsible for the impact, as many other factors may be inducing changes in the mountain environment, economy, and sociocultural practices of mountain people. Thus, the impacts listed could be either positive or negative (Box 2.1).

Box 2.1: Types of Mountain Trekkers

FITs are 'free independent trekkers' who carry their own backpacks or hire a guide/porter to assist them and eat and sleep in local lodges or tea houses.

Group trekkers come on a scheduled trip or join up with friends for a customised, self-contained trek, organized by an overseas adventure travel company or with a Kathmandu-based trekking agency. The full service includes all camp equipment: sleeping bags, dining and toilet tents, cooking gear, three meals a day, guides, cooks, and porters.

Each group makes a different impact (income and employment generation, cultural and environmental) on the areas they visit. His Majesty's Government (HMG) currently has different regulations for each group, which have implications on the local economy. Available information indicates that the distribution of group tourists and FITs varies by region as well as over time. No clear trend can be discerned from the data on the future trend in FITs or group tourists. In Langtang National Park, the region most accessible from Kathmandu, FITs constitute a larger percentage over group trekkers. In other parks and areas less accessible, group trekkers constitute a majority.

Environmental

Pollution, Littering

- Growing and selling new crops (potatoes, fruit, and vegetables) have become profitable because of tourism, even though this may be limited in scale.
- A lot of land is being used to build lodges, tea stalls, and camp grounds.
- In some places, land is left fallow to provide camp grounds.
- Plastic in different forms (bags, bottles, etc) can be seen littered along many trekking trails.
- Litter is also left behind on mountains used for expeditions. The problem is at its worst on Mt. Everest.
- Sign boards (Coca Cola, Pepsi, Wai Wai, etc) are put up along trekking trails and disturb the beautiful view of mountains. Tourists are not pleased to see such things in remote mountain areas.
- The toilet habits of local people as well as the toilet tents for tourists (during group treks) are sources of water pollution in some places.
- Estimates indicate that an average trekking group of 15 people generate about 15 kg of non-biodegradable, non-combustible garbage in 10 days. With 70,000 trekkers visiting mountain areas, this problem is serious.

- Many local people are also beginning to use plastic and proper disposal is not practised.

Forests and Firewood

- Tourists outnumber local people in some mountain areas where tourism is practised.
- Although group tourists are expected to use alternative sources of energy, FITs depend on lodges who continue to use firewood, and porters who accompany both types of tourists have to rely on firewood.
- Vegetation seasons in the mountains are extremely short.
- Selling firewood has become an occupation for some people in mountain areas because of tourism.
- The growth of firewood and timber in some mountain areas is higher than in other areas.

Economic

Tourists spend a lot of money visiting mountain areas. First they have to get a visa, air ticket, pay hotels, and purchase food. Other expenses are also involved. Some of this expenditure accrues as income to different service providers in the host country. When tourists visit mountain areas the local people derive some benefits.

- The government benefits through the foreign exchange it earns from tourism as well as the taxes tourists have to pay when they consume different services.
- The gross earnings from tourism increased from Rs 636.8 million in 1980 to Rs 8,251 million in 1994, at current prices.
- The share of tourism earnings in the total value of merchandise exports has fluctuated between 35-55 per cent.
- Its share in total foreign exchange earnings has fluctuated between 20 to 30 per cent.
- The average contribution of tourism earnings to GDP has increased from 2.3 per cent in 1980 to about 4.2 per cent in 1994.
- Mountain areas also generate income from tourism in terms of trekking fees, park entrance or conservation fees, and mountain climbing permits.
- When they travel to mountain areas, tourists, like all other people, have to sleep and eat. They hire porters to carry their baggage. Tourists have to spend money to obtain these services in mountain areas.
- The expenditure made by tourists in mountain areas thus becomes income to those mountain people who are able to provide such services to tourists. This income can be substantial (Table 2.1). However, local people are unable to retain large parts of this income as it leaks out in the form of purchases they have to make to produce the different services required by tourists (discussed later).
- Estimates indicate that mountain tourism revenue is substantial with food and accommodation sources accounting for the largest shares (Table 2.1).
- The price of services, among other things, depends on the quality of services provided.
- Benefits from tourism can be maximised by offering quality services and providing new avenues for visitors to enjoy.

**Table 2.1: Mountain Tourism Generated Monetary Benefits at the Local Level - A
Community in the Annapurna Area**

in Rs '000

	Accom	B-fast	Lunch	Dinner	Food	Local	Wages	FEE	Total	Per Trekker
Total Lodge (Rs)	17,964	10,278	16,488	18,729	45,495	0	0	0	63,459	1493
Community	6,979	5,747	2,762	4,780	13,289	27,204	10,7483	27,621	182,576	4,297
ACAP Area	24,943	16,025	19,250	25,510	58,784	27,204	107,483	27,621	246,035	5,790
Local Economy As % of ACAP Area	10.14	6.51	7.82	9.56	23.89	11.06	43.69	11.23	100.00	na

Source: Banskota and Sharma; *Contribution of Tourist Expenditure to Local Economy in the Annapurna Area* Project Report No. 1196, CREST to ICIMOD, January 1996

An idea of the contribution made by mountain tourism to the local economy of the Annapurna area indicates that, besides the substantial revenue that accrues to the ACAP project, lodges and the community also benefit substantially through tourism (Table 2.1).

- Despite mountain tourism's contribution to the local economy, there are substantial leakages as well, some of which can be minimised through the local production of many food items.

Linkages and Leakages: Tourism Community Complementarity

Although mountain tourism generates benefits, a large part of it leaks out in the form of purchases made to provide tourists with different services. For example, mountain lodges purchase many food items from Kathmandu, Pokhara, etc. In most mountain areas, even items such as rice, vegetables, milk, eggs, and meat are purchased from outside the community. These purchases give rise to leakages. These leakages can be minimised if such items can be produced locally (see Session 7 for more details). Note, however, that leakages can never be reduced to zero, they can only be minimised. Encouraging the production of different food items can thus benefit the local community. In addition, many infrastructures can be developed that will benefit not only tourists but also the local community (See Box 2.2). Developing a greater complementarity between tourism and the local community is one sure way of enhancing sustainability.

Box 2.2: Drinking Water Project: Linking Tourism with Local Community Development

The water source of the drinking water project under the Project for Quality Tourism (PQT) was currently constructed in the uphill community (Kami *Gaun*) on the west bank of the Bhoite Kosi River. Initially, there was disagreement from this community about allowing their water source to be used to the population below (lodge community mostly). CDC took an active role and decided to contract out the project to the community and also provided several water taps. Since the community was able to make monetary gains and also enjoyed easy access to water, an agreement was quickly reached and the water project was undertaken. Each user unit has to pay a differential tariff for the use of water. The funds are collected by CDC, who uses it for maintenance. A new relationship and solidarity between the two communities have thus been fostered and a link between tourism and the community was established.

Source: Bandista and Sharma, 1997. *Capacity Building for Mountain Tourism and Management: Study Methodology and Case Study Reports*. Submitted by the Centre for Resources and Environmental Studies (CREST) to ICIMOD.

Sociocultural

The impact of tourism on local cultural traditions and values is difficult to assess. In the short run, impacts may be observed to be negative (positive) and in the long run these impacts may be positive (negative). Besides, it is not easy to separate out the impact of tourism on cultural practices, as changes in the community are also brought about when people travel, educate themselves, and trade, etc. Changes in people's behaviour, dress and lifestyle, family and social structure, values and expectations; the decline in local support for local traditions and institutions; people's preference for tourist-related jobs over education; pollution of sacred places; and changes in traditional architecture are generally cited as instances of tourism's negative impacts on culture.

Impact on Women

- Many mountain lodges are managed by women.
- Tourism has also helped women to undertake highly specialised and skilful activities, such as climbing Mt. Everest, which undoubtedly increase their morale.
- Women from the Sherpa and other communities have been trained as doctors and an increasing number of Sherpa women are going for higher education. Perhaps, the full impact of tourism on women is just beginning to unfold; in a few decades, the impact will be visible.

Infrastructural Development

- Tourism may partially be the reason for infrastructural development in some remote areas. It is most likely that airstrips, bridges, and trails would not have developed so early if tourism had not been introduced in these areas. Without the development of tourism, the limited resources of the government and local people would perhaps not have been adequate to build all the infrastructures available in areas such as Sagarmatha National Park (SNP), Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP), and Langtang National Park (LNP). For example, the various infrastructures that have been created through the Hillary Trust in the Khumbu Region. This is a clear example of how mountain tourism has helped community development in remote mountain areas.

Other Impacts

- Running lodges and tea houses in many mountain areas has helped many households to earn better incomes. This is evident if one compares areas such as Langtang, Annapurna, and Sagarmatha with similar mountain areas.
- Benefits from mountain tourism have, however, been limited as a wider mountain community has not been able to participate in sharing the benefits from mountain tourism.
- Some basic understanding of a second language (usually English) is required among local people where tourism is practised (for e.g., Sagarmatha, Annapurna, and Langtang areas).
- Among the people of these regions, the awareness about health and hygiene is higher than in other mountain pockets not frequented by tourists.
- The relatively greater awareness about conservation of cultural sites and nature may also be different among two groups of mountain people.
- Tourism has helped preserve local monuments, as in the case of the Tengboche Monastery.

Opportunities and Limitations: Understanding Sustainability and Carrying Capacity

Table 2.2: Austria vs Nepal: Carrying Capacity

Indicator	Unit	Austria	Nepal	Variance
Land area	Km ²	83,856	147,181	Nepal is almost double
Population	million	7.82	19.2	Nepal is 2.5 times larger
GNP per capita	US\$	20,380	180	About 113 persons' income in Nepal is one person's income in Austria
Tourists	000	19,092	293	For one visitor to Nepal, there are about 65 visitors to Austria
Tourist receipts	Million US\$	13,956	126	Austria exceeds by 110 times

Carrying capacity is the maximum number of tourists that can be accommodated in mountain areas without degrading its environment. This capacity is never a fixed number, but will vary from place to place over time, depending, among other things, on management practice, technology, investments, and state of infrastructure (Table 2.2).

What does the result in the above table indicate?

Nepal is larger than Austria, both in terms of population and area. Yet there are more tourists visiting Austria than Nepal and tourists are spending more in Austria than in Nepal.

Of course, Austria is far more developed than Nepal, and it is amidst the most developed countries in the world, which is a comparative advantage to Austria. From this example, it can be safely said that carrying capacity cannot be a static number and that ways and means exist for Nepal to improve benefits from tourism. There is no question that, if tourism is properly managed, the benefits from tourism in Nepal can be increased significantly. How can these benefits be increased?

There are different ways to reduce leakages.

- Reduce possible leakage through community development so that many purchases that are made from outside the area to cater to the tourists can be produced locally.
- Improve services and be able to charge higher prices (Box 2.3).

In the long run, many new opportunities can be developed to improve income.

- Increase the number of visitors
- Develop new tourism products
- Develop and strengthen tourism and community linkages

Remember

Many opportunities are provided by mountain tourism and need not only be confined to economic benefits. However, in the context of poverty, mountain tourism must enable local people to earn better incomes to improve their living standards. But note that mountain tourism also generates undesired impacts - negative benefits - which need to be minimised. Over time negative impacts must be mitigated or else tourism will suffer. This is likely to accentuate the problem further. Thus tourism should not be seen as solving all the problems in the mountains. There are limitations to mountain tourism that need to be recognised if it is to provide sustained benefits to the local people.

What does sustainable mountain tourism development mean at the local level? (Box 2.4)

Box 2.3: Quality is Important

It is very important to note that the maximisation of benefits can result only if visitor satisfaction increases. It is wrong to expect that benefits from tourism can be maximised by providing poor quality services to visitors. Quality does not necessarily mean expensive things - smiles, cleanliness, and hygiene are more important. This point should always be kept in mind in any form of tourism.

Box 2.4: Basic Guiding Principles of Sustainable Mountain Tourism

Sustainable mountain tourism development is defined as a state of development in which the quality of life of the mountain people and visitor satisfaction are improved without degrading the environment for future generations.

1. Environmental conservation must be at the priority of programmes.
2. Use of natural resources should not be greater than nature can produce.
3. Tourism should be able to benefit a wider community by increasing tourism-community complementarity.
4. Services provided must be of a high standard.
5. All stakeholders must be involved in the planning process for mountain and community development.
6. Monitoring must be an essential part of the development process to correct negative impacts.

SESSION 3

DURATION: ONE HOUR

PARTICIPATORY PLANNING OF MOUNTAIN TOURISM

Objectives

To familiarise local communities with the importance and utilities of participatory planning of tourism at the local level

Contents

What is Participatory Planning ?

Prerequisites for Participatory Planning

Some Guiding Principles on How to the Make Participation Possible

Obstacles to Participation

Need assessment as a tool for identifying activities/components in the participatory action plan

How to ensure a wider sharing of benefits to the poor and disadvantaged groups

How can Women Benefit

Benefits from Tourism Development

Methodology

Short presentation followed by a group discussion

To familiarise local communities with the importance and utilities of participatory planning of tourism at the local level

Participatory planning of mountain tourism at the local level provides an important stepping stone for the achievement of sustainable mountain tourism development. It is only at this level (destination and site levels) that planning is actually implemented and can have the greatest impacts. Participatory planning requires the involvement of different groups from the community in the decision-making process. These groups may include a) residents of the destination or site who may or may not have a group organization and the local NGO working at the location; b) property owners/ private entrepreneurs who may or may not be residents; and c) local government authorities. These three broad groups may have different needs and interests, may perceive benefits from tourism in different ways, and thus may attempt to exercise different levels of power and hence influence decisions. In order for tourism planning and management to be participatory and sustainable, it is essential to identify key partners and their interests and the power and influence each may exercise. Identification of stakeholders is essential in order to minimise obstacles that may arise during implementation and management of sustainable mountain tourism development.

Involvement of stakeholders from the early stage of the project will generate motivation and responsibilities. Tribal and indigenous people, who are weak socially, economically, and politically, need special attention. The local authority must therefore respect the diverse elements of the community, facilitate broad participation, and ensure each group an equitable share of benefits from mountain tourism development. Failure to recognise the diverse elements of the community and ensure community participation from the early stage of planning will not bring benefits to the local community (Box 3.1). The effective rate of participation will depend mostly on the size of benefits that accrue to members. Participatory planning thus provides scope to develop group understanding on the benefits to be generated, benefits shared, and responsibilities assigned and enforced.

Box 3.1: Project Failure due to Lack of Participation

Swayambhu Maha Chaitya, a World Heritage Site, was selected as a pilot 'Urban Attraction' improvement scheme by the UNDP supported Partnership for Quality Tourism Project (PQT). The surrounding areas of the World Heritage Site lacked hygiene and sanitation facilities and was filled with garbage. There was no effective management. The project goal was to establish and test an active and functioning and self-sustaining urban heritage site management model for possible replication in other such areas in Nepal. A massive clean up campaign, toilet construction, and participatory institutional building process were launched.

One year after implementation, successes achieved at the beginning could not be sustained. Some critical factors identified for the failure of the project were mainly related to the crucial element of participatory institution and its sustainability. The first critical failure factor was that initiatives did not originate from within the community nor, were they in control of the experimental process. Local people had never been consulted or made aware by their leaders of what this social experiment was about.

On the whole, the lack of local initiation and control, limited transparency in project information among local people, lack of coordination between organizations, and, above all, the limited participation of local people in the decision-making process were some critical factors responsible for the failure of the PQT Project. Participation did not work, as its foundation from the very beginning was set on a wrong footing.

Source: Adapted from Banskota, K.; Sharma, B.; Neupane, I.; and Gyawali, P., 1995. *Evaluation of the Partnership for Quality Tourism Project*. Centre for Resource and Environmental Studies (Crest) for United Nations Development Programme.

A variety of participatory planning and management tools exists: stakeholder analysis, data collection, and participatory action planning (see Programme Designer Manual for more details). This manual will only illustrate and elucidate major themes of the participatory planning process with examples.

What is Participatory Planning?

Participatory planning of tourism at the local level is basically a process designed to ensure participation of all segments of the community or local partners (local community organization, community workers, local government officials, NGOs, private entrepreneurs - including women) in making decisions at all stages of the project. In this context, participation should be understood as the process in which all the people expected to be impacted are able to organize themselves and through their organizations are able to identify their needs and share in the design, implementation, and evaluation of the action plan (see Session 4 for details).

Why is Participatory Planning Needed?

The importance of participatory planning in the context of mountain tourism is more visible given the close interaction between tourism and community assets and the varying levels of power and influence of different interest groups to ensure that tourism assets are used in a sustainable way. Such a thing is possible only if the benefits generated are greater than the cost of participation and equitable sharing of benefits (Box 3.2).

Box 3.2: Social Fencing through the Participatory Approach by the Women in Gorkha

The Deurali forest in Churling Village of Gyalchock is among the best locally-managed systems. It is unique as it is managed entirely by a women forest users' committee. With the initiation of SAPPROS-Nepal, the women of the village decided to take over the management of the forest a year ago. Users include women members from 44 households of different ethnic composition. The households formed a committee of five women. This committee carried out social fencing of the forest by gathering villagers together and carrying out a procession that circumscribed the forest perimeter. The objective was to let people know that the area circumscribed was restricted in use. The chairwoman stated that user households spent about Rs 2,000 on this function alone. They painted signboards and placed them at various places on the trails and other sites frequented by people. The committee also drafted detailed rules and regulations. A charter was being prepared and it was planned to send it to the District Forest Office and have the forest register to obtain legal ownership and the right to use the forest. This ownership rights' transfer would provide added impetus to the conservation efforts that had been initiated. The women are, however, worried about the potential smuggling of the valuable *Sal* timber, which has now become easier after the construction of a bridge in Dhawadighat over the Trishuli River.

The forest has a five year management plan, which means harvesting will be prohibited for five years. Five blocks are made for weeding and pruning. Two fire lines have already been constructed by the users on the initiative of the committee. Women from all households on the users' committee volunteer as forest guards on a daily rotation basis and visit and inspect the forest. Absent women members are exempted from fines for the first time, but face fines if they become absent for the second time. However, after six months of practice, the need for strictly guarding the forest was realised as people in the area had become conscious and aware of the need to conserve their forests. Within a year of protection, biomass growth has been satisfactory and the regeneration of new *Sal* plants has been abundant. There are numerous rules against violations, some of which are as follows.

- Livestock grazing fine: cattle, Rs 10 per head; goats, Rs 20 per head
- Firewood collection without the consent of the committee: Rs 30 to 100
- Setting forest fires: Rs 1,000 to Rs 5,000
- Felling *Sal* trees: Rs 500 to Rs 1,000 per tree
- Cutting *Sal* saplings: Rs 100 to Rs 500 each
- Leaf collection: Rs 10 to Rs 50 per *bhari*
- Grass and fodder cutting: *Sal* fodder, Rs 50-100 per *bhari*, and green grass Rs 20 to 50 per *bhari*
- Hunting: Rs 50 per bird

Source: Sharma, Banskota, Gyawali, and Neupane, 1995. *Evaluation of NGO Programmes in Selected VDCs of Gorkha District*. Centre for Resource and Environmental Studies for the Gorkha Development Project

More specifically, participatory planning is needed because of the following.

- It allows people to have a voice in determining objectives and programmes based on their needs, knowledge, skills, and resources. As such they become more motivated and responsible in their roles.
- It helps people to learn how to plan, implement, and monitor their own activities by themselves.
- It ensures equitable sharing of benefits among all groups.
- It helps increase people's confidence and promotes local initiatives and control over the issues that affect their lives.

Prerequisites for Participatory Planning

Group formation and building a grassroots' organization

People's participation can be best implemented through the formation of informal homogenous groups of people who share common social and economic interests. The fundamental principle in working with the rural poor is to develop a structure and organization that can help the disadvantaged and poor become self-reliant. Such organizations should be formed by the people themselves, managed by them, and structured in such a way as to avoid undue external dependence. The details of how such institutions should be created and strengthened and why such institutions are important will be dealt with in Session 4.

Identifying the Stakeholders' Interest, Power, Influence, and Roles

Having participatory institutions is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for the involvement of stakeholders. Equally important is understanding the various issues and perceived roles of different stakeholders to ensure their broad participation in the planning process. This calls for a proper identification of interests; power; influence; and roles of partners in planning, development, and management of tourism cum community development.

The next question is to know how stakeholders can engage in participatory planning and decision-making. Since the essential steps in participatory planning involve setting objectives, creating strategies, and formulating tactics, these steps are to be undertaken in collaboration with relevant stakeholders in participatory planning.

It is, however, important, to bear in mind that participatory planning should start by creating the 'mood' for learning rather than plunging directly into a problem. Such learning can be facilitated when participants are divided into small heterogeneous groups, and these groups are allowed to interact among themselves. This will help to bring forth group consensus in prioritizing objectives and setting the stage for action planning and collaboration.

Some Guiding Principles on How to Make Participation Possible

Emphasize the process of participation as opposed to immediate quantitative outcome

Projects that promote participation must be flexible and willing to experiment and must not allow the demand for immediate quantifiable impact to undermine the process of participation.

Focus on the rural poor and disadvantaged groups to ensure equitable sharing of benefits

Projects should be designed to focus on the rural poor and disadvantaged groups - including women - to ensure that programme benefits reach these groups as an incentive to make participation possible. Provision of economic incentives (e.g., income-generating activities) should help promote their confidence as well.

Participatory planning between awareness creation and economic activities since both aspects are mutually supporting

Just as a project that emphasizes awareness alone with no tangible economic gains is bound to run into failure, a project that over-emphasizes economic activities without due consideration of the capacity of members can run into failure as well. Thus balance is essential (Box 3.3).

Build where possible upon local bases

Include not only local people but traditional leaders, local development entrepreneurs, and other knowledgeable persons to the maximum extent possible (Box 3.4).

Maintain regular contact with the people and project staff

Initiating participation is a labour intensive process and develops better where there is continuity. External support is fundamental to this process, but it must be both reliable and regular. In this context, the strong support of motivators is necessary. However, a successful motivator is one who can gradually work to wards the redundancy of his/her role and help grassroots' institutions become empowered and self-reliant. Experience also suggests that as more and more groups increase in dynamism, the role of motivators becomes increasingly stressed. Hence, local development of skills is also equally important in making participation successful.

Maintain regular communication and sharing of experiences between individual groups and institutions

Communication and sharing of experiences is one of the most important means to achieve innovation and learning and thus overcomes problems. Enhancement of learning through specific communication situation needs good planning and preparation. Exposure visits of limited numbers of people over a limited time with specific topics and learning goals might be one of the best ways to speed up learning (Box 3.5).

Obstacles to Participation (Box 3.6)

- **Structural factors:** The political environment within a particular country can be either a supportive or destructive (obstacle) element of the participatory process.
- **Administrative structure:** Centralized decision making, inappropriate attitude and skill of project staff, and frequent transfer of personnel render the implementation of the participatory process extremely difficult.

Box 3.3: Skill based Training and Complementary Activities essential to develop Linkages between Communities and Tourism

With respect to developing linkages between the community and tourism in Syaphrubesi, two tangible efforts have been made. In the first place, drinking water has been provided to the non-lodge community located above the lodge area. The non-lodge community has thus been able to appreciate tourism since, without it, they would not have been able to enjoy the potable drinking water facility.

Second, women are involved in income generating activities, for which PQT involved Women's Entrepreneurship Association of Nepal (WEAN). Although the loan scheme of WEAN has helped women to set up various small-scale businesses, the size of the revolving fund from which the women can borrow is small. As such, the scale of intervention on income-generating schemes has not been strong enough to establish a strong linkage of tourism with the local economy. Leakage from tourism income can be minimised by developing stronger linkages between tourism and community production activities. Many of the lodge owners travel regularly to Dhunche (one hour bus ride) and Trishuli to purchase various items such as vegetables, milk, and meat that could be produced locally. Women were provided with short periods of training in income-generating activities (poultry raising, vegetable farming, weaving, etc).

Source: Banskota et al. 1995

Box 3.4: Local Development Entrepreneur

One example is the case of Bir Bahadur Ghale, who is a local development entrepreneur, nationally known for the efforts he made to bring electricity to his village in Barpark VDC. He has over time been able to use electricity for the production of Nepali paper and thus saved a great deal of firewood. Another innovation that has resulted from his efforts has been the establishment of a bakery, way out in the remote southern foothills of the Himalayas in Gorkha. He has now established a power company and goes from one village to another demonstrating electricity production and is helping village after village to produce electricity.

Source: Kievelitz and Banskota 1995

- **Sociocultural obstacles:** Widespread poverty and the deep-rooted mentality of dependence upon local elites coupled with the lack of leadership and organizational skills leave most rural people incapable of responding to the demand of participation. Likewise, existing sociocultural values and norms in which women live hinder their participation and prominence in development activities (Box 3.7).

Box 3.5: Observation Tour as an Effective Awareness Generating Tool

An observation tour as an exposure was critical to the emergence of a strong CDC in Syaphrubesi. During the observation tour to Ghandruk, the Syaphrubesi lodge owners were able to appreciate the need and importance of the CDC in making rules and regulations and enforcing them to their own advantage. Had they not been able to observe and appreciate the functioning of the CDC in Ghandruk, the formation of the CDC in Syaphrubesi would perhaps have not been as effective as it has in a short period of time. The CDC in Syaphrubesi makes its own rules and regulations and enforces them. Decisions are generally made through consensus. In the early stages, the CDC was not very effective but over time, a greater understanding among the members has developed, which has helped to strengthen the CDC. The CDC chairman in Syaphrubesi is a very dedicated lodge owner and his leadership qualities are appreciated by the community.

Source: Banskota and Sharma 1997

Box 3.6: Factors influencing Participation are both internal and external

Internal factors operating within the community

- Commitment of the community before the implementation of the project.
- Skill and knowledge of the group members.
- Quality of broad-based leadership.
- Dependence on a strong leader.
- Extent to which a local organization is based on a traditional structure or local base.
- Demand for service from outside.

External factors or Project Agent's characteristics

- Use of local knowledge in the project.
- Extent to which participation is made as a goal (end) rather than means.
- Implementation flexibility of the project.
- The consensus of objectives.
- Degree to which the project is driven by physical targets.
- Degree to which agencies incorporate local knowledge into project designs.

Box 3.7: Poor Policy Hinders Motivation and Sustainability

There are some issues that have not been adequately addressed in PQT. Some of the points discussed do not fall into the mandate of PQT, but in the government policy arena for which, in the context of tourism in the LNP, the Department of Tourism and the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Conservation are responsible agencies.

Although the number of visitors to LNP has not shown an increase, new lodge construction permits are being issued. This is not a responsible act on the part of the park authority. The park authority needs to assess the viability of investments and advise the lodge owners accordingly. This does not appear to be happening. On the part of the Department of Tourism, LNP is not being promoted adequately enough to attract more visitors.

Also, the steep rise in the royalty fee does not appear to be justifiable. Improvements in the tourism supply have only begun to take place and that also in Syaphrubesi, which by any means is not an important destination in LNP. Increasing royalty fees sharply when quality improvements and investments are just being made is a wrong step and can halt the process of Quality Tourism that has begun in LNP. This gives wrong signals to investors. Although an intervention made to improve the supply side of tourism in Syaphrubesi has been fairly successful, the policy and demand side issues related to visitors' needs have to be addressed to achieve overall success.

Source: Banskota and Sharma 1997

Identifying Tourism Assets

In Box 3.8, some tourism assets are provided that may be important in identifying such assets in other areas by local communities.

Box 3.8: Identifying Assets and Activities: What are the important Community and Tourism assets?

Natural Tourism Resources: Status and Characteristics	Area/Trail characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none">Specific scenic featuresForest condition and characteristicsGeneral land use and characteristicsProtected lands and areas (national parks and conservation areas)Wildlife (animals, birds, etc.)Vegetation and unique floraWaterfalls, lakes, rivers, caves, etc.Other most critical natural assets if any
Socioeconomic, Cultural/ Heritage Resources	Settlement characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none">Population of immediate area and regionExisting economic opportunities and productionSocial and economic infrastructureEthnicity and unique cultural elementsHistorical building, sites, monumentsArchaeological sites or collectionsFolklore and traditionsFestivalsHandicraftsVisual and performing and fine artsHeritage of scientific and technical interestsOther List and characteristics of the most critical resources
Infrastructure	Transportation and access <ul style="list-style-type: none">Road/trail networkEnergy sources (conventional/modern and intensity of use)Water sources (quality and quantity)Sanitary facilities (including management of solid waste and litter)Camping grounds and facilitiesMarketsCommunication facilitiesMedical emergency and other facilitiesOther List the most critical infrastructure gaps
Accommodation and Related Services (number, quality of facilities)	Accommodates <ul style="list-style-type: none">- hotel/lodges with bed capacity- Camping grounds/sites (capacity)- home stays and small inns- food services- local guides- recreation/entertainment- shopping/marketing (product specialities and convenience items)- sports (spectator/participation)- Labor pool for tourism related work (status need, availability, and training) Potential important acts of tourism on economic activities and production structure List the most critical services gaps

Source: Adapted from WTO (1993)

Mapping as a participatory tool for identifying assets

Maps are inexpensive tools which can be used to gather both descriptive and diagnostic information. Mapping exercises are multipurpose. They are useful for assessment, baseline data gathering, planning, monitoring, and evaluation. Other usefulness of this tool are:

- It can be used to generate discussion about local development priority and aspiration.
- Maps are useful as verification of secondary sources of information and as training tools.
- During monitoring phase the changes can be recorded on maps made during the planning phase.

Maps can be elaborately drawn on paper, painted, etched on sand, or even sewn or woven. Diagrams can be made into maps to stress the relationship between different sites. A variety of mapping exercises is given below.

- 'Historical Mapping' which stimulates discussion about how and why a certain situation or issue arose.
- 'Social Mapping' in which the villager shows the location of the households and their relative wealth, poverty, and relationships.
- Common Property Resources' Mapping
- Land Use Mapping
- Critical resource and area mapping for tourism and community development

Maps are often complemented by a 'transact walk' through the radius of the village to encourage local participants to recognise situations. Transacts are diagrams or maps which are products of a systematic tour of the community village or specific geographical area (e.g., zone of the protected area). Map transacts can make the relationship between zones in a particular area explicit. They can identify in advance the potential problems and opportunities in the village or agroecosystem.

Need assessment as a tool for identifying activities/components in the participatory action plan

This participatory tool helps draw out information about people's needs, raises participant's awareness of related issues, and provides frameworks for prioritizing needs in the formulation of the action plan. Under this method, participants are encouraged to interact freely with each other and come up with the most urgent needs and several activities needed to accomplish the task. Such participatory assessment will also make it possible to prioritize needs and overcome the difficulties based on the resources available at the community level.

How to ensure a wider sharing of benefits to the poor and disadvantaged groups?

Evidence from case study areas within Nepal reveals that existing forms of tourism being promoted in many mountain areas, particularly in Upper Mustang, provide limited scope for ensuring wider sharing of benefits to the local communities.

Tourism in mountain areas contributes to the local economy by providing direct and indirect employment opportunities and by stimulating well-planned local production activities. Tourism, however, does not spontaneously stimulate local production activities which have been well realised in the case of mountain tourism in Nepal. Such stimulus - the linkage of the local economy with tourism — has been fairly limited in Nepal and only a sporadic number of cases on a small scale has evolved slowly. These are confined mostly to vegetable production and poultry raising. Tourism has not been able to promote cottage industries in remote mountain areas. In Namche bazaar, the oldest area inside the Sagarmatha National Park, local production activities even after 30 years of tourism development are still not well developed. In a place like Mustang, where opportunities to develop agriculture and other natural resource based production is limited, it becomes necessary to make tourism a focal point of development as the area does appear to have resources that attract tourism.

In the absence of linkages of tourism with the local production system, indirect benefits of tourism, in the form of income from selling local products, is now non-existent. Besides, there is little to gain from

the sale of local food produce in areas where only group tourists are permitted who do not use lodges or restaurants. Usually they carry their own food.

This does not, however, necessarily mean that the area has limited scope for increasing the economic benefits to a wider section of the community. The potential benefits to be accrued from tourism are indeed substantial, provided there is an interrelated development of all supply side components of tourism through sound action planning. Opportunities exist to use the entry fee for development of infrastructural facilities. Likewise, benefits can be maximised by establishing cross-sectoral linkages and promoting income-generating activities through proper training and extension support. Above all, in order to fully realise these potentials and sustain the impacts, capacity building of local participatory institutions is vital.

How can Women Benefit?

The central issue of women's development is to enable them to take an equal place with men and to encourage them to participate equally in the development process to achieve control over the factors of production. If such gender concerns are properly integrated into the planning process, women can benefit from environmental management and tourism and community development in a number of ways.

Benefits from Environmental Management

As a principal user/collector of natural resources, women have to bear the brunt of resource scarcity problems in the form of increased work burdens. As such, the desire of rural women to improve their living conditions through participating in environmental protection management is universal. In many cases, the involvement of women in forestry programmes has not only benefitted them in terms of a reduction in time spent to collect firewood and fodder but also fostered their decision making capabilities and empowerment. Evidence suggests that forests are better managed when there is an exclusively women's group/committee.

Benefits from Tourism Development

Some potential areas from which women can benefit from tourism development include the following, as is evident from Annapurna

- Accommodation (hotels, lodges, etc)
- Restaurants/tea stalls along the trekking trails
- Camping arrangements
- Porter services
- clothing equipment/accessories, rental
- Dance performances
- Traditional music performances
- Handicraft production and sales
- Other public and private sector employment in tourism

ACAP's women's development programme in Dhampus Village provides an example of how women's involvement in tourism could be promoted through establishing linkages with training institutions (Box 3.9). Likewise, the UNDP Funded Partnership for Quality Tourism Project in Syaphrubesi offers another example of an incentive for involving women's participation in tourism through establishing a linkage with WEAN (Box 3.10).

Box 3.9: ACAP Incentive Programme for Promoting Women Participation in Tourism

ACAP's women's development programme aims to provide women with greater opportunities and independence by imparting new skills and helping them to generate income on their own. For this purpose, ACAP has been implementing a Developing Women's Entrepreneurship in Tourism (DWET) programme (launched by HMG with the financial assistance of UNDP/ILO) in Dhampus Village. This programme is specifically geared towards building the entrepreneurship skills of women in the field of tourism. The participatory approach has been used in DWET in trainee selection and most of the trainees are from poor families. Another special feature of DWET is the provision of loans to women to carry out various income-generating activities without being restrictive in terms of collateral requirements or group formation. DWET offers full-time trainers and facilitators who play crucial roles in regularly monitoring/supervising women's enterprises and assisting them to gain confidence and experience in mountain tourism enterprises as their occupations. Experience, however, suggests the need for establishing strong linkages between training and follow-up activities.

Source: Gurung, D., 1995. *Tourism and Gender: Impact and Implications of Tourism on Nepalese Women*. International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD). Discussion Paper Series No. MEI 95/3.

To familiarise the local community with the importance and utilities of the grassroots' institutions and ways and means of developing such institutions

Contents

What are Grassroots' Institutions?

Box 3.10: WEAN Micro Credit and Saving Programme

WEAN started a Micro Credit and Savings' Programme since March 1995. The main objective of this programme is to arrange capital for micro-level women's entrepreneurs and help them to develop a saving habit. WEAN started this programme from its capital of Rs 2 lakhs. In this programme, there are 17 groups in the Kathmandu Valley and 25 groups in Syaphrubesi. In the Syaphrubesi program, the fund has been further expanded by an additional amount of Rs 206,000. The general features of this programme are as follow.

Making groups consisting of five to 15 members.

- Start saving on the basis of the capacity of the members
- Extend a loan up to an amount of Rs 15,000 for a period of one year
- Interest will be charged at a rate of 18 per cent
- Repayment should be done on a monthly basis
- No collateral is needed and the group itself stands guarantee

Source: Banskota and Sharma, 1997. *Capacity Building for Mountain Tourism and Management: Study Methodology and Case Study Reports*. Submitted by the Centre for Resources and Environmental Studies (CREST) to ICIMOD.

SESSION 4

DURATION: ONE HOUR

GRASSROOTS' INSTITUTIONS FOR PARTICIPATORY PLANNING OF TOURISM AT THE LOCAL LEVEL

Objective

To familiarise the local community with the importance and utilities of the grassroots' institutions and ways and means of developing such institutions

Contents

- What are Grassroots' Institutions?
- How to Develop Grassroots' Institutions?
- Community Driven Projects
- What Makes Community Driven Projects Sustainable
- Resource Mobilization through Participatory Institutions
- Examples of grassroots' institutions in action

Methodology

Short presentation followed by group discussion

Objective

To familiarise the local community with the importance and utilities of grassroots' institutions and ways and means of developing such institutions

There is little to hope that continued reliance on old policies and interventions will lift the poor out of poverty. Experience in Nepal and elsewhere in South Asia provides the common lesson that social organization of the poor is the main starting point for overcoming poverty. Poverty alleviation requires that the poor be organized and their capacities to claim for their rights (empowerment) need to be strengthened, human development issues relating to them have to be supported, their ability to save and invest needs to be promoted, and obstacles that separate the poor from using their capacities need to be removed. As the poor individually are hopelessly surrounded by problems, it is only through collective strength that they can begin to overcome the forces that are against them. This strength goes in two directions: on one hand it makes it possible for groups of the poor to solve problems by themselves (self-help approach) and on the other hand, it also makes it possible - at least for larger groups of people - to start claiming their rights from different governmental and other institutions, i.e., empowerment (Kievelitz and Banskota 1995).

Poverty alleviation is not all about generating income alone, but also building social capital. Social capital is concerned with developing the roles and responsibilities of individuals and their institutions, and it is created through changes in the relationship between persons that facilitate collective actions in the form of new relationships between individuals. Shared learning; the devolution of responsibility; the establishment of working rules; how activities are undertaken, monitored, and enforced; and so on are forms of social capital. Social capital formation describes the improvement of the ability of a community to make decisions and increase their choices and capabilities. Currently, however, there is little knowledge about accumulating and developing social capital. Organizing people is the first important step in building social capital — a vital necessity for mountain tourism development and poverty alleviation.

The process of social mobilization and capacity building of the poor is rarely a spontaneous phenomenon and involves a number of steps and challenges. Awareness creation and sensitizing the poor to the cause of poverty and assisting them to initiate actions for change through animation and facilitation all become important in this process. They should be allowed to take on their own initiatives. They should be motivated to organize themselves to initiate action according to their needs. Once success is being realised through small group action, larger actions may take place which involve claiming and using resources from outside. This is how the capacity of the poor to claim and demand from government agencies begins to emerge in the form of pressure groups.

Organized capacity building of the poor can evolve slowly through various measures. Initial exposure to the problem through discussion and integration forms the basis for transforming new knowledge, skills, and attitude, which, in turn, leads to concrete change in the way things are done. As others also begin to support the innovative way of dealing with problems, this level increases to the point at which introducing the changes can become institutionalized. Once they are institutionalized, it begins to strengthen their socio-political influences and hence economic strength. In this way, social mobilization and the institutional process at the grassroots' level are developed.

What are Grassroots' Institutions?

Grassroots' institutions are organized groups of people (membership organizations) at the local level who carry out decision-making and collective actions for their common goal or interest. When such organized groups have their own set of working rules and regulations which are continuously used for a period of time, they become institutionalized. Organizations with such long functioning rules and regulations may be called institutions. Although all institutions are organizations, not all organizations may be called institutions. Institutions generally are more mature with stronger capabilities than organizations.

'Capacity Development' is about learning new ideas, values, rules, and behaviour that must be institutionalized. It is the ability of the people within a society to collaborate and maintain a basic level of

trust and unity, which allows them to make decisions, take actions, and enforce them in a collective way.

How to Develop Grassroots' Institutions?

Social Mobilization and Organizing the Poor

Mobilizing and organizing the poor in a homogenous group through motivation, sensitization, and animation and facilitation constitutes the first important task for developing grassroots' institutions at the local level (Boxes 4.1 and 4.2).

Box 4.1: The Programme Approach of SAPPROS* to Develop Self-Governing Types of Grassroots' Institutions

The strategy adopted by SAPPROS fosters grassroots' institutions' development process. The group was organized through initial training of local contact persons (LCPs) who acted as catalysts for programme implementation. LCPs were selected by the communities for each ward. It was mandatory that in each VDC there had to be at least 3-4 women LCPs. Once the village-level groups were formed, they were made into a federation of intergroups at the ward level, and these intergroups were further brought together into a main committee at the VDC level. So far, two such committees, one each at Gyalchok and Bhumlichhock VDCs of Gorkha District, have been established and registered under the institutional registration act, 1978, as a local NGO.

As the SAPPROS programme implementation went on, it was later realised that the above described process of vertically integrated institutional structure was weak in promoting the participatory approach. The problem was the result of rapid group organization without adequate sensitization and management training, i.e., capacity building was not strong. SAPPROS abandoned this approach in new programme VDCs where it took on the task of facilitating the self-evaluation of grassroots' institutions through a process of intensive sensitization and motivation. This approach was also used in Makaising and Ghairung.

* Support Activities for Poor Producers of Nepal (SAPPROS)

Human Resource Development

Developing grassroots' institutions is essentially an educational process and as such requires a great deal of effort to create awareness, skill, and knowledge through education and training (both managerial and skill development) and exposure visits.

Promoting the Degree of Participation in the Decision-making Process

The decision-making process may involve members' participation during meetings while a decision is made with regard to rules and regulations/penalties and programme selection, its implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. There are good reasons to believe that if decisions are not made through full participation and consensus of the members, institutional building is unlikely to emerge and be sustained.

Programme Knowledge/Transparency

Each member of the grassroots' organization must be fully aware of the programme goal. They must be informed of the sources and uses of their group funds and the overall decision-making process has to be transparent.

Women's Development

Participatory development should see women as partners and equal constituents among the rural people. This first requires changing the perceptions of male domination in development practice and then enabling them to improve the basis of their livelihood. Perceptive judgment of male members on gender

Box 4.2: Grassroots' Institution Development: Rural Self-reliance Development Centre (RSDC) Approach

Established about a decade ago, RSDC (now split into RSDC and SAMAGRA) is a national-level NGO dedicated to reducing poverty through promoting participatory institutions as basic building blocks of social capital formation.

Field Motivator

The success of the programme is contingent upon the motivator's vision of the programme, his/her motivational skills, and know-how related to different social and technical aspects covered by the programme. This person generally stays full time in the village and wins the villagers' confidence.

Group Formation or Social Capital Formation

The programme begins by organizing people into homogeneous groups based on some predefined criteria. Once organized, these groups are called income-generating groups (IGG). Such IGG groups can have entirely male, female, or mixed members.

Group Saving and Resource Mobilization

Group saving generated through membership fees and interest on loans (self-reliant development fund) serves as the entry point for organizing people into groups. Regular collection of membership fees and interest earned through it are made available as loans to members. Resource mobilization and self-reliance are thus simultaneously promoted. This fund is used to forward consumption loans for meeting the urgent needs of the members. Note that no institution in the public sector provides consumptive loans. Evidence indicates that the default rate on such loans is negligible.

Revolving Credit and Income Generating Activities are used to support the group savings and enlarge the credit fund available to group members. The revolving credit fund is managed by RSDC motivators. Various income-generating activities are supported by this fund.

Human Resource Development is carried out through adult literacy classes, ongoing regular training, and study tours for both villagers and motivators.

Building a Physical Infrastructure is necessary to increase the self-reliance and confidence of poor families. The focus has been on drinking water schemes, foot trails, mule tracks, community buildings, schools, and mini hydel schemes (including conservation of the environment, particularly forests).

sensitivity topics (e.g., awareness about women's rights, listening to women's problems, providing women with skills and income-generating opportunities, and involving them in community development activities, etc.) becomes important.

Leadership

The success or failure of village organizations as long enduring participatory institutions depends, among other things, upon how honest, devoted, responsible, and efficient their leaders are in managing group activities in a sustained way.

Coordination and Interdependencies

The sustainability and self-help capabilities of grassroots' organizations can also be judged from the extent to which village organizations have established their relationship and coordination with other organizations, both vertically and horizontally, for support and sharing of resources, experiences, knowledge/ information, and for collective action.

Developing New Forms of Relationships and Social Behaviour

Developing grassroots' institutions also requires fostering new forms of relationship between individuals through change in customs, habits, and behaviour among individuals. Group ability to settle internal disputes is an essential strength in the institutional building process or social capital formation.

Likewise, the long term dependency of grassroots' organizations on project agents also has implications on the self institutional building process. While the role of project agents as key animators, facilitators, and intermediaries in promoting participatory institutional development is important, the very success of such lies on how quickly they can prove bring about redundancy (activity wise) for the grassroots institution they help form. In other words, self-reliance among the members has to gradually grow in a tangible way.

Community Driven Projects

Community-driven projects, in most cases, are backed by sound grassroots institutions where the community initiates, organizes, and takes action to achieve common goals and interests. The community has some control and authority over decisions and resources.

What Makes Community Driven Projects Sustainable

- 'Participation' in information sharing, consultation, decision-making, initiating action, and control over resources
- 'Demand oriented agencies'
 - Respond to community initiative and priority
 - Require evidence of community interest and commitment
 - Offer a range of choice
 - Help the community make informed decisions
 - Give the community control and authority during implementation
- 'Local organizational capacity'
 - Norms shared increase value of reciprocity trust
 - Group ability to organize itself (mobilize people and resources) to solve problems and achieve common goals
 - Network and linkages with other institutions

Resource Mobilization through Participatory Institutions

Although NGOs have been able to demonstrate that even poor communities can save, if they are organized though the size of savings at times cannot meet the loans demanded by members of organized groups. When funds are not available to fulfill the credit demand, members' participation can be affected and destabilize the newly-formed group. Some grassroots' organizations have been fairly successful in mobilizing resources from a variety of sources besides membership fees and interest from loans as in the case of the CDC in Syaphrubesi (see Example 4.5). However, when organized communities begin to realise their potential, loan demand is likely to increase and new avenues for mobilizing resources have to be sought. Different ways and methods to mobilize resources from tourism exist—surcharge from lodging facilities, community-owned and operated outfits, ecotourism (see Box 4.4), etc. New sources for mobilizing resources are always an innovation, especially in poor rural communities. Resource mobilization will depend on the activeness of the group, the area's potential, and leadership. Here only some ideas can be presented in the context of mountain tourism.

- Recently HMG has given a development grant of Rs 500,000 to all VDCs. There is scope to channel some of this fund for community benefits through strong and effective grassroots' institutions.
- Community organization savings. The grassroots' organizations can have saving schemes which can be important sources of resource.
- Area permits. This source is similar to the current trekking, conservation areas or park entrance fees. ACAP receives the resources generated from a conservation fee to carry out its programmes in the Annapurna region. Likewise, the government is already committed to providing a certain percentage of resources raised from a trekking fee in the Manaslu region. Similar fees should be levied in the southern foothills and resources should be used to develop both mountain community development (MCD) and mountain tourism development (MTD).
- User fees. Along with area fees, local fees for various tourism activities can be charged to visitors. Potential for developing the following tourism activities as additional sources of revenue to the community exists.

- **Sightseeing adventures.** Some areas within the region contain spectacular scenes of the mighty Himalayas and the Mahabharat Range across the entire horizon. Ganesh Himal, Baudha Himal, Himalchuli, Manaslu, Annapurna, etc., can all be seen in one wide panorama.
- **Biodiversity tours.** The pristine nature of the Himalayan environment found in these areas provides enormous scope for developing biodiversity tours.
- **Camping tours.** Many tourists that visit the hubs may also want to experience pure wilderness camping.
- **Cultural tours and village tourism.** Many tourists are interested in visiting local communities, observing their lifestyles, experiencing their food, and enjoying other aspects of the local community's cultural assets.
- **Others.** Many other activities can be identified such as rock climbing, tobogganing and skiing (which may be seasonal), white water rafting, etc.
- **Labour certificate programmes** can be introduced as an innovative scheme to mobilize resources that can help local people channel their resources into productive investments (Box 4.3).
- Additionally, during the construction phase, **local raw materials** will be required for which the community should charge. This fund would be an additional source of revenue.
- **Income from sales of local produce.** Local people can produce vegetables, meat, and handicrafts to sell to tourists through the hub centres.
- Community lodges can also be built to generate revenue for community development (Box 4.4). Income can be raised by different communities in hub centres through the performance of **cultural programmes**.

Box 4.3: Labour Certificates as an Innovative Scheme for Resource Mobilization in Gorkha

Labour certificates constitute an innovative scheme tied to community development activities. This scheme aims to provide opportunities of creating productive assets to the poor. This scheme converts participatory labour input into capital resources by paying a certain percentage (50%) of the labour cost to labourers in the form of labour certificates. In the second phase, capital generated is used to encourage income-generating activities by holders of labour certificates. In the project VDC, the labour certificate scheme is used in almost all kinds of community development activities such as bridge building, drinking water schemes, and irrigation. The total amount of money collected in the form of labour certificates was Rs 225,508 in Ghyalchok and Rs 366,653 in Bhumlichok.

Box 4.4: Tourism Development in Ghale Kharka

Tourism development in the Ghale Kharka area was carefully planned to develop a new and distinctive product and to create a new demand for a wide spectrum of tourism opportunities that Nepal could provide.

In the Ghale Kharka area, the emphasis was laid on small-scale, community-owned lodges and campsites. The community leased lodges and campsites to individuals or managed them themselves.

KMTNC's experience in the Ghale Kharka area exemplifies four major working principles:

- the advantages of demand creation as opposed to demand-led tourism;
- an active approach to tourism planning and management as opposed to a reactive approach;
- community as opposed to private ownership of tourism infrastructure; and
- the operationalization of a decentralization framework based on coordination and control as opposed to consensus and independent action.

The result was a distinctive tourism product designed for a quality environment and cultural experience. The quality of visitor experience was improved. Small-scale and community-owned and managed tourism was helping to optimize tourism benefits for the local people. The coordinating efforts of various locally-formed groups or committees would in the long run contribute to improving the quality of resources on which tourism was based.

Source: Sharma, P., 1995. "Tourism for Local Community Development in Mountain Areas: Prospectives, Issues and Guidelines." Proceedings of the Hindu Kush-Himalayan Regional Workshop on Mountain Tourism for Local Community Development. Kathmandu: ICIMOD.

Examples of Grassroots' Institutions in Action

Grassroots' institutions have demonstrated their ability to ensure sound management of resources, basic facilities, and infrastructure apart from raising their empowerment and self-confidence. Some pertinent examples from different studies carried out by CREST and others are cited in the following pages to elucidate the merit of such institutions.

Example 4.1: Pressure Group and Service Demand in Northern Gorkha

A good example of the potential for changing the bureaucratic system through pressure from the grassroots comes from Northern Gorkha. An income-generating group supported by RSDC wanted to invest in fruit tree cultivation. They asked for seedlings from the District Agricultural Office and were promised services. After these promises were not realised for a long time, the group ventured to Gorkha Bazaar with all their members to protest against the bad services of JTA and DADO. Not only were they granted provision of the seedlings after a short time, but they also received extension support in their area in response to their pressure.

The bureaucratic system and local political bodies might rather change through pressure and demand from organized groups at the grassroots' level than have the entry of different types of leaders from the organized local population into the bureaucratic system or the local political bodies. A longer time frame is necessary to achieve such a march through the institution as the German experience given below shows.

Source: Kievelitz and Banskota, 1995. *Poverty Alleviation under a Regional Perspective: A Mid-term Project Review of Gorkha Development Project Center for Resource and Environmental Center for Gorkha Development Project, Kathmandu: GTZ.*

Example 4.2: March through the Institutions

A good example of this institutional change is the large-scale changes in the political stem of West Germany which took place over a period of about 25 years. It started out as a political and social protest of the student generation in the late 1960s and focussed a long time on non-parliamentarian activities with regard to local, national, and institutional ecological issues, which posed a bigger challenge to the existing political system. In this movement, new organizational approaches, including national demonstration referendums, etc, were developed. The political system tried for a long time to neglect and oppose this multifacet movement, which after some years became institutionalized as the Green Party. Today, this party is the third strongest force in the multiparty system of Germany.

Source: Kievelitz and Banskota, 1995. *Poverty Alleviation under a Regional Perspective: A Mid-Term Project Review of Gorkha Development Project Center for Resource and Environmental Center for Gorkha Development Project, Kathmandu: GTZ.*

Example 4.3: Difference between Active and Passive Self-Help Groups

In Gyalchok, the number of organized farmer groups presently amounts to an impressive total of 85. However, this is due to the very small size of each group in terms of members (7-10). SAPROS' motivators explained that out of 85 groups only 28 can be considered active and with a good potential. Therefore, in future, SAPROS motivation will concentrate only on these 28 groups. There are also groups that have only saved money and transferred it to the main communities without making productive use of it.

Source: Kievelitz and Banskota, 1995. *Poverty Alleviation under a Regional Perspective: A Mid-Term Project Review of Gorkha Development Project Center for Resource and Environmental Center for Gorkha Development Project, Kathmandu: GTZ.*

Example 4.4: Institutional Building and Empowerment Experience from the Annapurna Area

The ACAP experience in participatory development suggests the need to first win the villagers' trust and confidence in order to build a partnership with the local communities. At the heart of ACAP's participatory approach to conservation and development lies the concept of its Conservation Education and Extension Programme (CEEP). It is a participatory and multidisciplinary approach to addressing environmental and developmental issues. Unlike other environmental education programmes, CEEP neither intends to develop local literacy skills nor deliver ready-made solutions to the community or group. It rather aims at building confidence and institutional capabilities in addressing the issues raised and empowering the locals.

Seven years after CEEP came into being, there has been remarkable progress in local organizational capacity building. The Conservation and Development Committee (CDC) and sub-committee (sub-CDC), the Lodge Management Committee (LMC), and women's groups are now the hubs of ACAP's grassroots' approach in setting a bottom-up process for identifying and resolving issues. Institutional building at the grassroots' level has facilitated the real participation of people in addressing their own village affairs through adopting the most effective and efficient conservation strategy for sustainable development. CDC makes the decision about how, where, and how much the local people are to be allowed to use their forest products. LMC encourages their members to use alternative energy resources and firewood saving devices to lessen the burden on forest resources.

There is enough indication that the partnership between ACAP and the local institutions can now be carried forward solely by the local beneficiary, which is perhaps a vision of CEEP and a parameter to measure ACAP's success in promoting community participation in tourism management and mountain community development.

Source: Banskota, K. and Sharma, B., 1995b. *Tourism for Mountain Community Development: Case Study Report on the Annapurna and Gorkha Regions of Nepal*. Discussion Paper Series No. MEI 95/11. Kathmandu: ICIMOD.

Example 4.5: Participatory Institutional Building Process (CDC) - Syaphrubesi

PQT has been successful in establishing a fairly strong institutional foundation at the grassroots' level through good representation of both lodge owners and non-lodge owners in the Community Development Committee (CDC) in Syaphrubesi. CDC carries out its duties and responsibilities fairly effectively. The duties and responsibilities were agreed upon by the Syaphrubesi community themselves. Guidelines for CDC in Tourism Promotion and Environment of Management were also designed and developed by the project with a view to enabling the CDC to be an effective grassroots organization to manage tourism promotion, resource generation, and environmental management of the area.

First hand knowledge acquired by lodge owners through their observation tour to Ghandruk was instrumental in setting up CDC in Syaphrubesi. During the observation tour to Ghandruk, lodge owners from Syaphrubesi had an opportunity to interact with a similar committee (CDC). The starting phase was difficult since not all lodge owners were pleased with the rules made, and there was tension between lodge owners and the village community. Initially, CDC lacked a good representation of members from the village community on an institutional basis. This made it difficult to ensure real participation of villagers from the surrounding village area. As such, the enforcement was weak initially. This situation has now been rectified as the CDC is also represented by some members from the village community on an institutional basis. CDC has thus become a fairly strong participatory institution in Syaphrubesi.

Prior to this committee formation and training, lodges were setting their own prices to attract visitors. A price war prevailed which did not benefit any lodge and recovering investments was also made difficult. All the lodges have now established a standardized menu and a fairly effective enforcement of rules and regulations. Transparency in decision-making in the CDC was fairly apparent. Decisions are carried out only after a consensus is reached in most cases. The decisions made appear to be enforced and abided by the most. A secretary, one of the lodge owners, maintains a log book and minutes of all the meetings held.

In a short period of time, CDC has been able to generate revenue from various sources in order to be a financially self-sustaining institution in the long run.

- Membership fee of Rs 100 per annum
- Rs 5 from the sale of menu cum brochure
- Rs 2 per guest (lodge visitors as well as those from camp tents)
- Rs 5 from households in the community
- Rs 10 per month from each tea shop
- Rs 20 per month from each lodge
- Rs 500 from any new tea shop built in Syaphrubesi
- Rs 1000 from any new lodge built in Syaphrubesi
- Rs 500 for any violation of rules made by CDC by trekking parties
- Rs 5 per visitor for use of hot springs
- Rs 2 per Nepali for use of hot spring

Source: Banskota and Sharma, 1997. *Capacity Building for Mountain Tourism and Management: Study Methodology and Case Study Reports*. Submitted by the Centre for Resources and Environmental Studies (CREST) to ICIMOD.

Example 4.6: Grassroots' Institution Building in Upper Mustang (ACAP/UMCDP)

Conservation and Development Committee (CDC)

CDCs are the main institutions responsible for policy and programme formulation related to natural resource management and community identified programmes such as the construction or renovation of trails, bridges, schools, and drinking water schemes. CDCs are formed at the VDC level and there are 15 in all. The CDCs meet once a month to discuss and decide on important community matters related to forest use and conservation.

Sub-Conservation and Development Committee (sub-CDC)

CDCs are supported by a number of sub-CDCs. Sub-CDCs are formed to allow autonomy and traditional rights to the maximum extent possible. As such, a sub-CDC may look after one or more village wards and thus does not usually compete with the traditional institution if such exists (at least theoretically).

Lodge/Campsite Management Committee (L/CMC)

The L/CMC is formed by the lodge/campsite owners and is mainly concerned with tourism related matters, but they have not been effective.

Electricity Management Committee (EMC)

EMC is responsible for the management of the micro-hydropower plants, for repayment of loans raised for construction, and for raising revenue from electricity tariffs. The committee is also responsible for fixing the tariff rate. EMC is supported by a small technical staff to execute day-to-day affairs.

Mothers' Groups (Ama Toli)

The Ama Toli or mothers' groups initiate community activities such as clean-up campaigns, trail repairs, and community plantations in their own communities. The core Ama Toli's comprised of 11 to 15 women. Any woman in the village automatically becomes a member of the mothers' groups.

Gomba Management Committee (GMC)

GMCs are responsible for supervising and managing work related to gombas, and these are mainly concentrated in Lo Manthang.

Source: Banskota and Sharma, 1997. "Capacity Building for Mountain Tourism and Management: Study Methodology and Case Study Reports". Submitted by the Center for Resources and Environmental Studies (CREST) to ICIMOD.

Example 4.7: Women in Community Development Activities

Women in the Annapurna region have become aware of their potential to organize themselves as a group. Several women's groups have been formed. The funds raised by these groups from cultural programmes have played an important role in their decision-making at the community level through their participation in various community development activities such as construction and maintenance of small-scale drinking water systems, school buildings, bridge irrigation systems, drainage systems, and so on. ACAP has modified its working policy and approach in the implementation of its project to ensure women's participation at all levels.

Source: Gurung, D., 1995. Tourism and Gender: Impact and Implications of Tourism on Nepalese Women. Discussion Paper Series No. MEI 95/3. Kathmandu: ICIMOD.

Example 4.8: Reduced Dependency on Money Lenders

The positive impact on the household economy is also reflected in the general perception of 73% of respondents who said "overall dependency" on money lenders is decreasing. Also, a large proportion (64%) feel that dependency on money lenders for subsistence has decreased. This feeling of decreasing dependency on money lenders is more pronounced (71%) in poor groups (subsistence status of less than six months) than in well-off groups who have enough to live on throughout the year (54%), indicating that the welfare of the poorer section has increased. It should be mentioned that only a general perception indicates the trend and the actual impacts realised by the household. This tendency has also been confirmed by responses from key informants and others during non-formal interaction.

Source: Ojha, D.P. and Shrestha, B.K., 1996. *Impact Assessment of the Swabalamban (RSDC) Programme in Dhading and Gorkha Districts*. Impact Monitoring Unit GTZ.

Example 4.9: Critical Variables for the Participation of the Poor

Three factors have contributed to making 'participation' happen. Firstly, those who are well-off have been drawn into groups for their own vested interests, which include both material benefits and the psychological gratification of being participants in the principal happenings in the community, i.e., the Swabalamban Act. Secondly, all members contribute equal amounts of money in savings to the group. That gives equal leverage to the poor to be able to assert themselves and participate fully in the affairs of the groups. And, thirdly and more importantly, decision-making in the groups has been fully transparent, and in such a situation it is only natural that the majority who prevail are poor. Thus, the countervailing force comes not from the organization of the poor to the exclusion of those who are well-off, but by the cash contributions of the the poor and the transparency in decision-making for the allocation of programme resources. Resource contribution and participatory and transparent decision-making have been two critical variables in prioritizing the access of the poor to development resources.

Source: Ojha, D.P. and Shrestha, B.K., 1996. *Impact Assessment of the Swabalamban (RSDC) Programme in Dhading and Gorkha Districts*. Impact Monitoring Unit GTZ.

SESSION 5

DURATION: TWO HOURS

USE OF ALTERNATIVE SOURCES OF ENERGY AND TECHNOLOGY

To be conducted by the Centre for Rural Technology

Objectives

To familiarise local communities with the importance and utility of the different alternative sources of energy and technology for mitigating negative environmental impacts

Contents

- Alternative Sources of Energy and the Role of Technology
- Energy Technologies for Sustainable Mountain Tourism
 - Peltric Set
 - Cooking by Electricity
 - Biogas
- Water Heating Technology
- Government Policies and Institutional Efforts
- Improved Cooking Stoves (ICS)

Methodology

Short presentation followed by group discussion

Objectives

To familiarise local communities with the importance and utility of the different alternative sources of energy and technology for mitigating negative environmental impacts

In Session 2, it was pointed out that due to tourism there has been additional demand for firewood in mountain areas. His Majesty's Government (HMG) has restricted the use of firewood by group trekkers in most national parks and mountain protected areas, but this restriction has not been totally successful. This may be due to the lack of enforcement and the lack of cheap alternative energy sources. The mandatory use of kerosene in protected areas by group tourists has helped, but effective enforcement still remains to be carried out. At the same time, FITs continue to depend on local resources for food and accommodation, and the demand for firewood by lodges, hotels, tea houses, and private homes cannot be assumed to have decreased. Tourist porters have to rely on firewood since they have no alternatives.

An important concern in mountain tourism has been the increasing use of firewood. Mountain areas are cold and firewood, being the only source of affordable energy, places additional pressure on forests. The energy needs of mountain people as well as tourists have to be met somehow. Continuing reliance on firewood alone may not be a viable solution if forests continue to be degraded and destroyed. Hence, alternative and affordable energy sources and technologies suitable to mountain areas need to be sought.

Alternative Sources of Energy and the Role of Technology

The energy situation in Nepal is dominated by traditional energy, particularly fuelwood, to meet the bulk (91%) of the energy requirements. This heavy reliance on fuelwood has been one of the reasons for the large-scale deforestation of accessible forests in the country, in the absence of affordable energy alternatives. Destruction of forests is a common phenomenon in many parts of the country. The dwindling supply of fuelwood has also forced people to burn increasing quantities of dung and agricultural residues for fuel, thereby depriving the soil of valuable nutrients and organic materials. As a result, soil fertility is also believed to be declining in many parts, thus affecting agricultural productivity.

Alternative energy technology is synonymous with new, renewable, and non-conventional forms of energy. The most important renewable energy technologies in the context of Nepal are related to micro-hydropower, biomass energy, and solar energy. Some efforts have been made to develop renewable energy technologies, particularly in the private sector. HMG's policy regarding the development of renewable energy technology in the past has been much criticized for its inconsistency and irregular nature. Only lately has the importance of renewable energy been realised at the policy and decision-making level, as reflected in the Eighth Five Year Plan. The objective is to gradually replace imported fuel by indigenous energy sources that can be locally exploited. The role of renewable energy technology in transforming the mountain economy is crucial as it can:

- help to reduce the drudgery of the mountain population by cutting down the time required to collect and use traditional forms of energy such as firewood, animal dung, and waste;
- provide a cleaner cooking environment;
- combat the environmental effects, forest depletion, etc by reducing and replacing the use of traditional as well as commercial forms of energy;
- save convertible foreign currency by curtailing the need for imported fuel;
- be exploited on different scales and sizes to suit local needs in remote locations; and
- promote end-use efficiency.

Energy Technologies for Sustainable Mountain Tourism

Many streams and rivers in the mountain areas have scope for generating hydropower, which can be used for lighting, cooking, and heating (water and space) in different ways. Various kinds of water technologies, e.g., propeller turbines, cross-flow turbines, pelton wheels, multipurpose poser units (MPPUs) peltric set, and improved *ghatta(s)* have been developed in the past to tap water resources more effectively.

Most rural mountain communities continue to use kerosene for lighting purposes. In some cases, people have to depend on the light from cooking fires. Hence, affordable and acceptable lighting technology is important in the context of MTD and MCD. Some successful technologies are the peltric set and biogas.

Peltric Set

The peltric set is a miniaturized local version of a peltron turbine used to generate electricity for a variety of end uses such as lighting, charging batteries, and operating radios, TVS, etc. A small stream with a small quantity of water can be used effectively to generate electricity from this technology. The power generated by the peltric set is generally of 1 KW and can light between 10-12 light bulbs. Output depends on the quality of the set as well as civil design (Box 5.1).

Advantages

- It is easy to install (2 days), operate, and maintain.
- It is made in Nepal and is light (35kg).
- It can run on a low water volume with enough gross head.
- It can be installed when 5 to 10 households organize themselves, and if water is available.
- Electricity generation is, relatively, not very expensive, and hence it is affordable.
- It is durable and the manufacturer generally guarantees it for ten years.
- It does not have any negative effects on the environment.

Cooking by Electricity (Box 5.2)

The low wattage cooker, *Bijuli Dekchi*, was developed in Nepal by DCS and is in use in different parts of the country. Water heating is also possible. This has resulted in some substitution for firewood. So far, about 1,400 such cookers have been produced in two and a half years. The heat storage cooker is another cooking technology being developed by the INGO in collaboration with KMI. Such cookers are in operation in Ghandruk, near Pokhara.

- In Gajuri of Dhading district and Barpak VDC of Gorkha unused electricity in the afternoon is used to process (beating and digesting pulp) *lokta* to make Nepali paper.
- A 3 kW add-on micro-hydropower plant at Gajuri in Dhading district is operating a small chilling plant producing ice blocks and ice cream.
- In Jomsom and Marpha apricots and peaches are produced and processed into dried fruit, jam, jelly, cider, juice and brandy.

Biogas

Popularly known as gobar gas, this technology operates on animal excrement, human night soil, tender plants, or plant residues which are packed in air- and water-tight containers to generate methane gas which is combustible. The gas is poisonous if inhaled. The gas can be used for cooking, lighting, running internal combustion engines, generating electricity, etc.

Box 5.1: Samagoan Lights Up

This is a remote village, the last one encountered on the 12-day long trail from Gorkha Bazaar to the Tibetan border in Gorkha District. It is unlikely that development will reach this village in the near future. However, efforts made by IUCN, GDP, and the local people have enabled households in this village to enjoy electricity through the peltric set. Seeing how quickly this set can be installed at a low cost, many villages in Gorkha are installing peltric sets to light their homes

Box 5.2: Cooking by Electricity

In Ghandruk, ACAP has subsidized all the capital costs of *Bijuli Dekchi* (BD) under 20 litres capacity by 30 per cent and all transportation and repair costs for the first year. BD is a low wattage cooker consisting of a cooking pot. Water takes an estimated two hours to heat for cooking rice, meat, and other boiled food but not fried food. In the first two years of the programme, 85 cookers were sold in Ghandruk with the initial demand coming mostly from lodges. Large (20 litre cookers) used exclusively by lodges are, however, not subsidized. A revolving fund has been set up to provide subsidies on BD to encourage households to buy them.

Source: Banskota, K. and Sharma, B., 1996. *Impact of Alternative Energy Technology in Reducing Pressure on Forest Resources in Ghandruk*, Centre for Resource and Environmental Studies (CREST) for International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD).

Biogas technology is considered to be one of the most promising and sustainable sources of renewable energy in Nepal. About 24,000 biogas plants of different sizes (4m³, 6m³, 8m³, 10m³, 15m³, 20m³) have so far been constructed in the country. There is scope for installation of an estimated 1.3 million units throughout the country.

Biogas Support Programme (BSP) and Policy

Currently, there is a government subsidy programme in some areas for biogas plant construction. The subsidy is as follows.

- 50 per cent interest subsidy.
- 25 per cent capital subsidy and 50 per cent interest subsidy.
- 25 per cent capital subsidy only.
- A fixed subsidy of Rs 700 for the *Tera*i and Rs 10,000 for the hills, which currently prevails.

Experience shows that by getting the subsidy and structure right and reducing associated transaction costs, the BSP can have a profound influence on the dissemination of biogas plants (Box 5.3).

Economic Benefits of Biogas

The benefits of the biogas programme are multi faceted and can be listed as follows.

- Reduced work load for women and girls
- Reduced smoke pollution and fire hazards
- Sanitation benefits resulting from integration of toilets with biogas plants and the composting of slurry
- Rural employment generation due to construction, extension, and service programmes
- Savings in kerosene expenditure by households and kerosene subsidy savings by the government
- CO₂ emission from burning kerosene and fuelwood is reduced
- Nitrogen, phosphorous, potassium and micronutrient losses from dung through volatilization and leaching are checked by proper composting of the biogas slurry.

Advantages

- It is a proven technology.
- It uses otherwise waste materials.
- It is an environmentally friendly technology.
- It is more efficient than firewood in terms of heat generation and hence a good substitute for firewood.
- It is non-polluting.
- It gives cheap energy.
- Its slurry can be used as an excellent manure.
- It saves time in rural areas (firewood collection).
- It is durable (20 years).
- It is easy to construct but requires skilled labour.
- It encourages livestock stall feeding.
- The government provides a subsidy (up to 60%).

Disadvantages

- It requires livestock for the daily supply of dung.
- Its initial cost is fairly high and is the main limiting factor for many poor households.

Box 5.3: Limiting Factor in Technology Adoption

Despite subsidies, farmers need to invest between Rs 10,000 to Rs 12,000 for the installation of a 8 m³ plant. Loans are obtained from ADB at 18 per cent interest and the repayment period is six months with Rs 1,500 as an installment payment. A large majority of rural families cannot afford this investment. Additionally, manufacturing biogas plants in rural and inaccessible areas is constrained as materials such as cement, GI pipes, biogas lamps, and other appliances are not available.

Source: Banskota and Sharma, 1997. "Overview of the Nepalese Energy Sector." Study by CREST for ICIMOD

- It cannot be used in areas that are above 2,000m asl (most tourist areas in the mountains are above this altitude).
- Low gas yield during winter and rainy periods.
- Occasional blockage and leakage of gas in the pipeline.
- Frequent burning out of lamps.
- Serious lack of trained manpower to repair and maintain biogas digestors.

Water Heating Technologies

Back boiler, solar heater, and *bijuli dekchi* are among some of the most popular water heating technologies that have scope for wide dissemination in mountain areas.

Back boiler

The back boiler is a water heating technology in which cold water is circulated through a hearth and hot water is received continuously.

Advantages

- It is a very simple and inexpensive-Rs 600-800 for 100 to 200 litre drum.
- It is easy to build and operate.
- It can be used in lodges/guest houses, and local residences.
- It can save an average of 675 kg of firewood per month per lodge during peak tourist season, a net reduction of 23 % in fuelwood (evidence from Ghandruk).

Disadvantage

- Frequent leakage in drum and blockage in pipes.
- The water drum has to be transported up the hills and hence transport costs can be high.

Solar Water Heaters

These heaters are suitable for application throughout the country except in cold areas where temperatures can fall below freezing point.

Advantages

- The operating cost is almost zero as sunlight is freely available.
- The amount of water that can be heated is limited by the size of the panels and drum.
- This technology is efficient and environmentally friendly.

Disadvantages

- The initial cost is very high(Rs 23,000 for a 200 litre system).
- Generally the poor cannot afford this technology.
- Not useful in areas that have temperatures below freezing.

Government Policies and Institutional Efforts

Recently NGOs, donor agencies, and research organizations are giving attention to the use of solar energy through intermediate technologies. The use of solar cookers, and solar crop and spice dryers is being aggressively pursued by these agencies. So far no definite plan and programme have been formulated by the government for the development of solar technology. The capability of manufacturing such equipment in the country has not received adequate attention in the private sector. There is no direct government subsidy provided for the use of solar energy, as in the case of biogas and micro-hydro electricity. However industries manufacturing solar PV systems are entitled to a seven year tax holiday, including two additional years for energy-related manufacturing. The government also provides an

exemption in duties and taxes for the import of raw materials and equipment required by solar power manufacturers. NEA is the principal implementing agency in the field of solar PV systems in the country. No central institution leads in the development of other solar instruments such as dryers, cookers, etc. Some R&D is conducted by RECAST.

Improved Cooking Stoves (ICS)

Improved cooking stoves have the potential to save fuelwood. Annually, about 11 million tonnes of fuelwood are burned for cooking alone. Theoretically, it is possible to reduce fuelwood consumption for cooking by 50 per cent. The ICS has an efficiency factor in the range of 15 to 30 per cent compared to the traditional mud stove, the efficiency of which varies between 3 to 15 per cent.

There are various types of ICS and the efficiency of these stoves in saving firewood varies from 21.5 to 26.7 per cent. The amount of fuelwood saved also depends on the type of ICS developed and the condition of the fuelwood, the type and amount of food prepared, and the type of pots used for cooking. Even with a low performance of 11 per cent fuelwood savings, estimates indicate that one ICS can save on an average one tonne of fuelwood annually.

What can be done to Acquire the Technology?

First make sure you want the technology. Visit an area where it is being used and discuss his experience with the owner. Discuss with the experienced user your own needs and try to find out if your needs can be fulfilled. Then visit the Centre for Rural Technology to find out how the technology can be transferred to your area.

To be conducted by the Centre for Rural Technology and Hotel Management and Tourism Training Centre

Objective

To familiarise communities with methods and ways of managing solid wastes and garbage, including the management of lodges and campsites

Contents

Garbage and Waste Management
Composting
Sanitation and Toilets
Incinerators
Lodge Management
Campsites

Methodology

Short presentation followed by group discussion

SESSION 6

DURATION: TWO HOURS

MANAGEMENT OF SOLID WASTE AND GARBAGE AND MANAGEMENT OF LODGES AND CAMPSITES

To be conducted by the Centre for Rural Technology and Hotel Management and Tourism Training Centre

Objective

To familiarise communities with methods and ways of managing solid wastes and garbage, including the management of lodges and campsites

Contents

- Garbage and Waste Management
- Composting
- Sanitation and Toilets
- Incinerators
- Lodge Management
- Campsites

Methodology

Short presentation followed by group discussion

Objectives

To familiarise communities with methods and ways of managing solid waste and garbage, including the management of lodges and campsites

Garbage generation is already becoming a serious problem in mountain areas. Garbage may be of three types, namely, biodegradable, non-degradable, and toxic. A great deal of this garbage is non-biodegradable, i.e., it does not disintegrate naturally over time. Toxic waste results from batteries and other materials that contain heavy minerals. Biodegradable waste generated ruins cleanliness and hence visitor satisfaction. These wastes can be harmful to human and livestock directly or indirectly. Seepage can result and water sources can become polluted. A third problem is human waste management, as many people in rural areas do not own toilets and use open spaces. When this activity takes place near water sources, it pollutes the water and has direct implications on health. Tourism can also be affected.

Garbage and Waste Management

In Table 6.1, an idea about how much garbage tourism generates in mountain areas is provided. This garbage is unmanaged, i.e., usually left behind without being taken care of. If garbage was biodegradable the problem would not be very serious, except for its unpleasant appearance and smell, since gradually it would decompose into the soil. However, not all areas have the temperature needed for decomposition. Biodegradable garbage and two other forms of garbage are also generated which are non-biodegradable. They are non-degradable and toxic.

- A great deal of this garbage is non-biodegradable, i.e., it does not disintegrate naturally over time. Toxic waste results from batteries and other materials that contain heavy minerals.
- All three forms of garbage, if not managed well, can lead to seepage, which will eventually contaminate water sources causing harm to humans (including tourists), livestock, and vegetation.
- Another problem in many rural areas is human waste management, as many people in rural areas do not own toilets and use open spaces for defaecation. When this activity is conducted near water sources, it pollutes the water and has direct implications on health.
- Many of these problems are due to lack of appropriate facilities and poor awareness about the harmful effects from environmental pollution among both host and tourist populations.

Garbage generation cannot be avoided, but it can be minimised and managed. To minimise garbage generation it is essential to do the following.

- Reduce the amount of garbage produced.
- It is possible to reuse many materials. Soft drink bottles, beer cans, plastic mineral water bottles, etc., are reusable, if not directly in their original form but in some other form.
- Recycling is yet another way to reduce garbage, whereby the original product is transformed into some other useful purpose. All non-biodegradable products can be recycled. Beer cans can be used as pots to make ashtrays. Mineral water bottles are used as pots to grow tree saplings.
- Replacing materials that are non-reusable with reusable materials also reduces garbage. For example, using jute bags instead of plastic bags.

Table 6.1: Litter Deposits in the Mountain Environment, 1988 (in kg)

Area	Number of Trekkers	Average Deposited	Total Deposited	
Annapurna	37,902	15	56,853	
Khumbu	11,366	15	17,049	
Langtang	8,423	15	12,635	
Other	3,582	15	5,373	
Cumulative total (1976 to 1993)		640mt		
Mountaineering (1979-1988): Garbage Cleared from Everest Base Camp, Spring 1993				
	Disposable Garbage	Non-disposable Garbage	Oxygen/Gas Cylinders	Total
14 expeditions	7,030	2,350	3,444	1,2824
Average team	502	168	246	916
Range	90-1350	60-360	356-540	390-1820
Nepal total (1979-1988) for 840 teams:				
	421,680	141,120	206,640	769.44mt

Source: Lama and Sherpa 1994

Tourism is especially, affected by scenes of garbage. In the visitor's country, garbage is not thrown around and it is properly managed. Table 6.2 shows some visitors' opinions on the garbage and sanitation situation in LNP.

Composting

Composting is a natural process of decomposing organic materials which become rich nutrients for the soil. Thus, it is form of rich fertilizer. All forms of biodegradable waste generated can be composted. This technology is, however, not suitable in higher mountain areas where the air temperature is low all year round. Composting has proved to be effective at altitudes below 2,000m.

Advantages

- It is cheap and is a good substitute for chemical fertilizers.
- It enriches the soil and hence increases crop productivity.
- It is an effective way of reducing garbage.
- It reduces air and water pollution.
- Since garbage is not scattered, it makes the environment look clean, and hence such an environment appeals to tourists.
- It can be made at low cost.
- Rural people can quickly learn this technology.

Disadvantages

- It cannot be used in colder regions.
- It is labour intensive.

Sanitation and Toilets

Poor sanitation is blamed for many diseases that kill thousands of people in rural areas. Tourists also often suffer from this problem while traveling in mountain areas (Table 6.3). The main reason for this is the lack of knowledge about health, cleanliness, and toilets in rural homes. Human waste is thus disposed of in open areas, and thus invites different diseases through various carriers such as insects, water, and air. Hygienic disposal of human excreta is important for improving the health of the people. It is cheaper to protect people's health and the local environment from a faecal pollution than to undertake expensive measures to care for the diseased and reduce pollution when problems occur. Thus, the construction of cheap toilets is an important step in improving the health of rural people. When tourists get sick on their treks due to sanitation problems, they are not likely to spread good news of the area or the country (Boxes 6.1 and 6.2).

Types of Cheap Toilets that can be Built in Mountain Areas

- Pit type
- Sulav latrine
- Solar toilets are effective in colder regions as well.

Table 6.2: Trekkers' Opinion on the State of Sanitation and Garbage in Langtang National Park

Place	Sanitation		Garbage	
	Adequate	Inadequate	Adequate	Inadequate
Lodge	26 (32)	53 (67)	47 (59)	33 (41)
Campsites	17 (35)	31 (65)	17 (31)	29 (63)
Private Homes	5 (24)	16 (76)	9 (39)	14 (61)
Trekking Routes	25 (34)	49 (66)	16 (20)	62 (79)

Figures in parentheses are in per cent.

Source: Banskota and Upadhyay 1989, Table 29

Box 6.1: Community Toilet on Private Land in Syaphrubesi

Prior to PQT there was no habit of using closed toilets by the local people and open areas were for the purpose. In response to this poor sanitary situation, a clean up campaign was launched by the project, including the construction of two public toilets on private land. Lodge owners were also encouraged to build their own toilets. The use of private property for public use though created some sense of dissatisfaction, initially, but such a decision ensured that the public toilets constructed would continue to be maintained. This is exactly what has happened and, after nearly two years, these toilets are functioning and well maintained.

Source: Banskota and Sharma 1997: "Capacity Building for Mountain Tourism and Management: Study Methodology and Case Study Reports. Submitted by the Centre for Resources and Environmental Studies (CREST) to ICIMOD

Box 6.2: Drive Towards Better Sanitation Facilities in the ACAP Region

ACAP policy requires villagers to construct pit latrines before undertaking their community development programmes. Women's groups, health volunteers, and extension staff have played a key role in motivating local residents to build private toilets. The result has been very encouraging, with 885 toilets in Ghandruk VDC, 118 toilets in Panche VDC, and over 210 in Luwang and Revan VDCs. ACAP has been adopting a trade-off deal approach under which it provides assistance for community development projects only if each household builds a private toilet. While toilet facilities in the phase I area are found to be well designed and located, information and education about them need to be further improved. Management of toilet paper by tourists also needs to be improved. A clean-up campaign is another component of sanitation. The objectives of the campaign are fivefold:

- collection and disposal of litter along the trekking route;
- inspection of latrine and rubbish pits at lodges along the way;
- raising health awareness among both trekkers and lodge owners;
- teaching students about conservation and development; and
- suggesting appropriate locations for rubbish pits and latrines.

Construction of rubbish pits and regular clean up campaigns have reduced the amount of litter on trails and in villages, especially in the phase I area (Ghandruk, Chhomrong, and Ghorepani). Information available from studies indicates that many villagers continue to throw trash on trails or simply in front of their home, and many residents do not bury their rubbish. This implies that educational programmes need to be made more effective in this area.

Source: Banskota and Sharma, 1995. *Tourism for Mountain Community Development. Case Study Report on the Annapurna and Gorkha Regions of Nepal*. Kathmandu: ICIMOD, MEI Series No. 95/11.

Incinerators

Wastes that are non-biodegradable and non-recyclable can be burned in an appropriate way with the help of an incinerator. An incinerator helps burn safely without causing much harm to the environment. Thus paper, plastics, bandages, etc., can be burned inside the incinerator.

Advantages

- Effective way to dispose of solid waste with little effect on the environment.
- Thus, pollution is reduced.
- It is a good substitute for dumping sites and helps control pollution through seepage.
- It does not require firewood to burn the waste.
- It can be made locally if iron sheets and welding machines are available.

Disadvantages

- It produces smoke and dust and hence creates pollution (which can be minimised through proper design).
- Burning plastic generates harmful gas which, if inhaled by humans, can be harmful.

Any wide open flat space is suitable for developing campsites. The spot selected should, however, be safe from rockfalls, landslides, floods, and other natural factors. Campsites must have certain minimum facilities to make them useful. A campsite must include:

- shelter for porter;
- separate cooking space with shelter for trekking teams and porters;
- drinking water;
- toilet; and
- two refuse disposal pits for bio and non-biodegradable garbage.

Table 6.3: Trekker Reporting of at least One Member being Sick and by a Specific Reason

Type of Trekker	Reason for being sick		Total
	Drinking Water	Food	
FITS	13 (37)	19 (54)	35
Group	2 (20)	1 (10)	10

Figures in parentheses are in percent.
Source: Banskota and Upadhyay 1989, Table 23.

Lodge Management (Boxes 6.3 and 6.4)

ACAP has attempted to counteract a number of problems associated with tourist lodges. Before the operation of ACAP, tourist lodges were of poor quality. Lodge owners used to make no profit from room rent and only made marginal profits from food, mostly imported from Pokhara. The leakage was considerably high. Only seven per cent of every dollar spent by tourists remained in the village. ACAP has initiated the following programmes to counteract the above problem.

- Food preparation and lodge management training
- Village-based lodge management committees
- Standardized menu and pricing

Lodge owner and operator training are provided on:

- identification of tourist needs,
- promotion of hospitality to keep tourists happy,
- maintaining kitchen hygiene and sanitation,
- teaching how long to boil water and cook food for safety's sake,
- teaching how to sell and buy goods and services, and
- keeping audits for their business.

While almost all lodge managers in the phase I area have received at least one training session, their interest in acquiring further training, especially in the English language to improve communication with foreigners, is increasing. Continuation of periodic refresher training courses and more advanced training on the above issues need to be gradually complemented by language training in English.

Campsites (Box 6.5)

Any wide open flat space is suitable for developing campsites. The spot selected should, however, be safe from rockfalls, landslides, floods, and other natural factors. Campsites must have certain minimum facilities to make them useful. A campsite must include:

- shelter for porters;
- separate cooking spaces with shelter for trekking teams and porters;
- drinking water;
- toilet; and
- two refuse disposal pits for bio and non-biodegradable garbage.

Guidelines for Campsite Management

Along trekking trails, most campsites, both privately owned and public, are poorly managed and lack the minimum facilities. Poor management often reflects lack of awareness on the part of the manager about garbage and waste management issues. Users of the facilities, namely, the trekking agency staff, are also often unaware of the implications of disposing garbage and waste.

The following guidelines are addressed to sirdars and owners of campsites.

- Training needs to be provided about choice of location, planning, and construction. Financial support in the form of credit must be made available.
- Technical assistance to establish campsites must be provided.
- Trekking agents and their staff must be made aware of using campsite facilities appropriately as well as carrying materials that are biodegradable and avoiding, as much as possible, the use of non-biodegradable and toxic wastes. Overall, garbage generation must be minimised. Toxic waste must be carried back to appropriate designated locations and handed over to the authorities concerned.
- Rubbish must be disposed of in appropriate pits.
- Pits and latrines must be built safely away from any water sources.
- All fires must be put out before retiring at night and before leaving the campsite.
- Ashes should be scattered away from the camp site.
- The campsite must be left clean for other parties' use.

Box 6.3: Some Key Factors in Upgrading Lodge Quality - Example from Syaphrubesi

Observation Tour

- The observation tour has been an effective way of increasing participation, generating awareness, and disseminating new knowledge.
- The observation tour was crucial for developing a vision.
- The observation tour provided motivation to the lodge community to upgrade their tourism standards.
- The observation tour inculcated a sense of competition among the lodge owners in Syaphrubesi as they realised that, if their standards did not improve, they would have difficulty competing with mountain tourism areas such as Ghandruk.

Training

- The training provided was quickly internalized by the lodge owners and helped to improve tourism services.
- Without the follow-up training, it would not have been possible to create confidence and improve the lodge owners' capabilities.
- Since some training was organized at the beginning of the trekking season, lodge owners were able to use the skills immediately.
- Training should be carried out jointly by experts such as HMTTC (mobile training unit) as they are fully experienced and equipped with facilities.
- Group training, followed by practical demonstration in most of the individual lodges, was extremely useful for the lodge owners.
- Since there are many women involved in lodge management, having women trainers is essential.

Hygiene and Sanitation Campaign

- Initiating a clean-up campaign created an immediate visual impact on the local community.
- Involving local people in designing activities they were interested in was vital for ensuring participation. The donation of land by two people to construct a community toilet is a case in point.
- When local people see immediate benefits from new interventions, they are motivated to sustain the benefits.
- Hygiene and sanitation training should focus more on women/mothers.

Hospitality Training

- Hospitality training should be of a longer duration.
- Hospitality training should focus more on women as they are equally involved in lodge management.

Standardizing Quality

- Standardizing the menu has helped to maintain a standard in lodges and in marketing their products to visitors.
- Standardization in rates has brought improved understanding among lodge owners.
- The menu cum brochure helps to provide financial contribution to the CDC.

Institutional Building

- It is essential to incorporate all the key people of the community in the Conservation and Development committee (CDC).
- Selection of various office bearers should be left to the CDC members themselves.
- Guidance from PQT (external agent) is necessary.
- The drinking water project has helped sustain cleanliness in lodges.
- The local non-lodge community has been able to appreciate tourism development in Syaphrubesi as they too have benefitted from the drinking water project.
- Construction of public toilets on private land has been an effective way of maintaining toilets.
- Construction of toilets and provision of water have been important in improving tourism quality.
- The community feels proud because projects identified by them have also been addressed by PQT.

Women's Involvement and Income Generation

- WEAN has been instrumental in capitalizing on and motivating non-lodge community women to form groups and engage in income-generating projects.
- The loan scheme is currently too small for a greater participation of women in income-generating activities.

The village blacksmith can be trained on construction, installation and repair, and maintenance of incinerators. The lodge owner and camp supervisor should be oriented on the usefulness of incinerators. Villagers should be trained on improved composting and toilet-making technology.

Box 6.4: Improving Tourism Products

Field observation revealed visible impacts. Kitchens were kept clean. Kitchen utensils were organized on shelves. The dining area was also generally clean. Food was served on trays and plates and spoons and other utensils were wiped by kitchen towels. In most lodges, the rooms had white sheets. Lodge owners who had not begun using white sheets indicated they were planning to make the change. The cooks, generally females or wives of the lodge owners, used aprons while cooking and serving guests. The lodge yards were also kept fairly clean. The lodge owners indicated that they had realised the importance of cleanliness since visitors would generally opt for a cleaner lodge. Six rubbish pits were dug in separate places for dumping garbage and litter. In the morning, a member from each lodge could be seen sweeping the road in front of their lodges. The trash was collected and dumped in the garbage pits. The pits had two compartments, one for dumping biodegradable garbage and the other for non-degradable. Glass and bottles were kept separate. Villagers were found to separate the garbage and throw them accordingly. Although the hygiene and sanitation condition in Syaphrubesi could still be improved, the condition is far better than prior to PQT. The participation of the local community was instrumental.

Source: Banskota and Sharma, 1997. *Capacity Building for Mountain Tourism and Management: Study Methodology and Case Study Reports*. Submitted by the Center for Resources and Environmental Studies (CREST) to ICIMOD. DP MEI/98.

Box 6.5: Determining the Carrying Capacity of the Campsite

- The following factors need to be assessed:
- available camping space,
- water supply,
- fuel/food supplies for local porters,
- capacity to recycle biodegradable garbage, and
- garbage and waste disposal management.

Source: Shrestha, *Mountain Tourism and Environment in Nepal*, MEI Series No 95/4. Kathmandu: ICIMOD.

SESSION 7

DURATION: ONE HOUR

Table 7.1. Source of Community Income and its Retention

	Rs in '000s			
	Lodge	Community	Fee	Total
With fee				
Tourist income	21,479	182,578	246,035	
Per cent	26	74	76	100
Total expenditure	52,034	142,578	234,612	
Per cent	22	73	100	
Retained	33,821	111,299	148,525	
Per cent	21	71	100	
Total retention as % of total income	33	61	80	
Without fee				
Tourist income	23,479	218,214		
Per cent	10	73	100	

LOCAL-LEVEL ENTERPRISE OPPORTUNITIES

To be conducted by
The Industrial Enterprise Development Centre

Objective

To highlight the opportunities and constraints for developing local-level enterprises

Contents

- Preamble
- Opportunities
- Recognizing Opportunities
- Seeking Help from Micro Enterprise Development Agencies

Methodology

Short presentation followed by group discussion

Community and Tourism Linkages: Overall Retention of Tourist Spending

The dependency of lodges on imports for food supplies to cater to tourists will provide some idea of the linkage between tourism and community. Lodge owners derive their income from tourists by providing them with services. They are required to purchase a variety of items from the local community and perhaps from other areas to cater to tourists, unless they are able to draw on their own sources. In the latter case too, imports of basic food items should be low. Even though many lodge owners may supply different food items from their own (i.e., local) sources, some items nevertheless will have to be purchased. Thus, lodge owners were asked to provide information on the share of expenditure for different items by source of purchase (local or import) in order to understand lodge dependency on the local community in catering to tourists.

The overall retention of tourist generated lodge and community income is presented in Table 7.1. The magnitude of retention is found to be similar among both communities (54%) and lodges (55%), when the ACAP fee is not considered to be part of the community income. However, if the fee is considered to be part of the community income, the retention scenario changes somewhat, with higher retention reflected in the community (61%). If the total income retention for the Annapurna area as a whole is considered, (lodge + community) then the retention rate is about 60 per cent, when the fee is treated as part of the income. Likewise, when the fee is not treated as income, the overall retention is about 54 per cent.

Table 7.1: Source of Community Income and Its Retention

	Rs in '000s		
	Lodge	Community	Total
With fee			
Tourist income	63,459	182,576	246,035
Per cent	26	74	100
Total expenditure		52,036	182,576
Per cent	22	78	100
Retained	35,021	111,599	146,620
Per cent	24	76	100
Total retention as % of income	55	61	60
Without fee			
Tourist income	63,459	154,955	218,414
Per cent	29	71	100
Total expenditure	52,036	154,955	206,991
Per cent	25	75	100
Retained	35,021	83,977	118,998
Per cent	29	71	100
Total Retention as % of income	55	54	54

Detail discussions are provided in Banskota and Sharma, 1996. *Contribution of Tourist Expenditure to Local Economy in the Annapurna Area*. Study conducted by CREST for ICIMOD.

The retention of tourism income estimated should be taken as an upper limit. In the first place, the leakages taken into account are only first round leakages. Other rounds of expenditure and their leakages have not been taken into account. Also, it is likely that not all conservation area fees will be retained. It is difficult to provide an estimate of the leakages that will occur in the other rounds of expenditure due to lack of information.

Results in Table 7.2 provide an idea of the leakage of income.

Discussion

Rice is the prime food item required for catering to tourist needs. In Ghorepani, lodges indicated that rice was bought in Pokhara or other towns or areas. Ghorepani does not produce its own rice. In Ghandruk, households cultivate rice, but, as implied by local households and indicated by lodge owners, rice is bought in Pokhara. Of the total expenditure on rice by lodges in Ghandruk, local purchases account for only three per cent compared to 97 per cent through imports.

Lodge owners in Ghorepani spend more on imported flour than lodge owners in Ghandruk. Flour is locally processed from grains if flour mills exist. Value-added is generated which can be retained in the community. Flour mills can thus be seen as part of community development, generating not only value-added but also employment. From this point of view, the linkage between community development and tourism is stronger in Ghandruk than in Ghorepani, as 48 per cent of expenditure for flour accrues locally. In Ghorepani, the local purchase of flour accounts for only about four per cent.

Bread requires flour, and its preparation generates employment and value-added. Specialised techniques, as well as technologies, are required, and they in turn affect community development. In Ghandruk, 48 per cent of expenditure by lodge owners accrue to local breadmakers and, in Ghorepani, this percentage is much lower (15%), indicating a weaker linkage between tourism and the community.

Vegetables can be cultivated in almost any place. From the angle of vegetable production, the linkages between tourism and community development in both areas appear to be relatively stronger than in the above cases discussed. In Ghandruk and Ghorepani, local purchase of vegetables accounts for 79 and 85 per cent of the total expenditure for vegetables respectively as reported by lodge owners.

Similar responses were obtained in the case of meat and furniture expenses. In other items, such as eggs, milk, and fruits, both areas rely heavily on imports. Again, items such as cloth, drinks, jam, and butter have to be imported, since they cannot be produced cost effectively in areas such as Ghandruk and Ghorepani. However, items such as eggs and milk have the potential to be produced locally.

Lesson

Based on the information presented above, the linkage between tourism and community development is not very strong. Many items, such as eggs, milk, and fruits, can be locally produced, but such does not appear to be happening. If the market for these products did not exist, lodge owners would not be importing these items. Imports of these items add to the cost which tourists have to pay. In addition, such purchases of imports are leakages which the community could retain if they were to be produced locally. The scope for exploiting tourism for local community development can be widened given that about 50 per cent of the GT purchase most of their food in Pokhara. If perishable food items can be grown locally and their supply is assured, it is very likely that tour operators will opt for local purchases, since the availability of such items will save them the cost of transporting food purchased to the area.

Therefore, the scope for further linking tourism with community development does exist. What is called for is improving local production activities, the production base, and cross-sectoral linkages. Such links not only promote tourism and community development directly, but also generate multiplier effects in the community. It should, however, be noted that not all leakages can be avoided, since many tourist needs require the purchase of commodities that are not locally produced.

Furthermore, only those households that operate lodges reported direct links with tourism, and only 10 per cent reported an indirect linkage. Thus, in an overall sense, the results do not indicate that tourism and community development complement one another strongly.

The forward linkages of agricultural and non-agricultural activities in the study area are low, but the backward linkages of tourism especially with community development are also weak. Although households did perceive benefits from tourism, these benefits are mostly in the form of employment, namely, portering so that a strong link between tourism and community development appears to be lacking. Income-generating activities need to be adequately developed in the area to improve this link.

Table 7.2: Sources of Possible Leakages from Tourist Generated Income in per cent

Items	Ghorepani		Ghandruk	
	Local%	Import%	Local%	Import%
Rice	0.00	100.00	3.18	96.82
Flour	4.12	95.88	48.41	51.59
Bread	14.71	85.29	42.42	57.58
Vegetables	85.25	14.75	79.09	20.91
Meat	75.00	25.00	81.94	18.06
Eggs	0.00	100.00	1.14	98.86
Milk	0.00	100.00	21.14	78.86
Fruit	0.88	99.12	0.00	100.00
Jam/butter	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00
Furniture	90.29	9.71	85.45	14.55
Cloth/drinks/mattresses	5.56	94.44	0.00	100.00
Total:	23.59	76.41	31.91	68.09

Source: Banskota and Sharma 1996, *Contribution of Tourist Expenditure to Local Economy in the Annapurna Area*. Study conducted by CREST for ICIMOD.

Opportunities

Although mountain tourism has generated benefits in some remote and inaccessible mountain areas, these benefits have been narrowly confined to the lodge operating community and porters. Benefits have not been spread out in the villages. It should be noted that tourism alone cannot be assumed to generate benefits on a very large scale, unless there is proper planning, investments, development of skilled manpower, and infrastructural development, i.e., community development. It is beyond the scope of this training manual to deal with community development. However, basic steps to recognise opportunities to develop small enterprises in mountain areas are presented below.

Within the context of mountain tourism, scope exists to generate income and employment opportunities in several ways.

- In the first place, the tourism income accruing locally (first round) needs to be more thoroughly pinned down and analyzed. Local production of perishable items need to be promoted. This is a short-term approach and one cannot expect income and employment opportunities to rise significantly for the given number of visitors.
- Secondly, carrying capacity needs to be enlarged through appropriate management of mountain areas so that visitor numbers can be increased. Such an intervention, with the preceding one, will increase the scale of tourism demand and hence income and employment opportunities are likely to expand. This action is for the medium term.
- A third way of possibly generating income and employment through tourism is to be able to increase visitor nights in the area by developing a variety of tourism products under the concept of a tourism hub so that tourists have a range of options. The more varied these products are, the greater the scope for benefitting a wider section of the community. This option is a long term one and needs to be integrated with overall community development planning.

Recognizing Opportunities

Window Shopping

The basic characteristics of all mountain areas in Nepal are poverty and lack of opportunities. Opportunities are unlikely to come spontaneously and need to be generated. Other characteristics of the mountains are renewable natural resources and man-made cultural resources. Development of new opportunities should not be thought of along the narrow confines of mountain tourism, since in the short run mountain tourism cannot generate opportunities on a large scale. Local demand and interregional trade and export (domestic and overseas) need to be considered to make enterprises successful. At the same time, constraints need to be carefully assessed, so that such plans do not become over ambitious and succumb to failure.

Limitations

The main limitations in mountain areas are lack of infrastructures, especially transport and efficient energy; distance from market centres; and lack of skilled manpower and entrepreneurial skills.

Identifying Potentials: A Check List

- What are the main renewable natural resources in the area?
- What are their stock and yield rates?
- What are their different uses?
- Are local people cultivating, harvesting, or uprooting them?
- What is the current rate of use?
- What can be said about the depletion of resources? Is the stock being threatened or not?
- What resources are found abundantly but are not being used?
- Do some crops have comparative advantages?
- What is being done with them currently?
- Are the products being produced/cultivated/consumed locally only or is there demand outside the area or in the world market?

- Who are the current producers? How many are there?
- Since when have they been producing?
- How much are they producing?
- What is the technology used?
- What are the other raw materials used?
- Where do these raw materials come from? Natural or market sources?
- If they come from the market, how are they purchased?
- What is its value?
- From where is it purchased?
- What energy is being used? How much? Where is it obtained from, at what price?
- What are the producers' educational/skill backgrounds?
- Have any received any training? (Get details).
- Has any credit been taken?
- How much, when, and from which institution/money lender or individual? At what interest rates?

A long list of ideas can be developed by following the above procedure. After this stage, it becomes fairly technical for local people or communities to be actively involved before implementation.

Screening becomes necessary to identify the ones that have the best comparative advantages. Noting the limitations identified as well, it is reasonable to suggest that for mountain areas the comparative advantages lie in developing products with low volume and high value. This in itself screens out many ideas that have to depend on raw materials that need to be imported.

At best, most local communities can collect the information on different ideas. They will most likely be unable to process the information, analyze it, and screen ideas to arrive at specific potential projects. At least from the point of view of project identification, the role of local community ends.

Seeking Help from Micro Enterprise Development Agencies

In Nepal, there are currently several institutions established by the government for enterprise development. These institutions provide support in a variety of ways.

Industrial Enterprise Development Centre (IEDC)

Established in 1983, IEDC aims to:

- provide services to entrepreneurs in urban and semi-centres;
- assist small-scale industries in increasing output, profitability, and business management skills through information, consultancy, and training services;
- identify investment and marketing opportunities on behalf of small entrepreneurs;
- provide technical and business information to small business persons;
- help other organizations that wish to offer promotional services to potential and existing micro entrepreneurs;
- share skills and expertise with others who have similar goals; and
- contribute towards the creation of an environment conducive to small businesses.

Its main programmes are:

- small business creation;
- small business consultancy;
- business information services;
- small business management training;
- research, development, and testing; and
- training of trainer courses in income generation, entrepreneurship development, consultancy, and business management.

As of July 1995, a total number of 10,775 groups has been formed with a total of 52,125 members of whom 26,974 are credit members. A total of Rs168,083,000 has been disbursed as loans to beneficiaries

Source: Industrial Enterprise Development Centre for ICIMOD, 1996

At present IEDC is providing services through its head office (Kathmandu) and branch offices located in Nepalgunj, Pokhara, Butwal, Bhairahawa, Narayanghat, Bhaktapur, and Dharan.

Women's Development Division (WDD)/Ministry of Local Development

WDD is mandated to improve the quality of life of rural women. It executes two major programmes directed towards women, namely Production Credit for Rural Women (PCRW) and Micro Credit Project for Women (MCPW).

WDD carries out work in the following areas:

- institution building;
- training group formation, mobilization, leadership development, skills, and service;
- income-generating activities (agriculture, nonagriculture, cottage industry, and saving and credit mobilization);
- community development (social projects); and
- environment and appropriate technology.

Cottage and Small Industry Development Board (CSIDB)

CSIDB provides support in:

- skills' development;
- entrepreneur development;
- scheme preparation;
- technical counseling;
- supply of raw materials;
- conducting feasibility studies;
- registration and renewal of cottage and small industries; and
- supply of design, raw materials, machines, and equipment.

CSIDB operates in 48 hill and mountain districts of Nepal. Training has been provided in a variety of skill development activities such as bee keeping, tailoring, wax making, fruit and vegetable processing, etc. It was established in 1993.

Source: Industrial Enterprise Development Centre for ICIMOD, 1996

The Council for Technical Education and Vocational Training (CTEVT)

CTEVT has technical schools in nine different zones. Training is provided in mechanics, electricity, sanitary fitting, agricultural construction, and health. The Dhaulagiri Technical School established in 1994, conducts training on hotel and lodge management, cooking, food processing, and vegetable farming, etc.

Hotel Management and Tourism Training Center (HMTTC)

This centre specializes in different training aspects related to hotels and lodges and the tourism industry in general. Training programmes are conducted in the following areas:

- food and beverage,
- house keeping,
- food preparation and control,
- sweets and bakery,
- tourist guide,
- trekking guide,
- trekking cook; and
- lodge operation and management through on the spot mobile training.

Agro Enterprise Development (AED)

Jointly established by FNCCI and USAID, the objective of this enterprise is to accelerate market-driven and private sector-led agricultural development. It provides services to entrepreneurs and exporters, commodity associations, and producer groups. Its main focus is on off-season vegetables, angora wool, flowers (including orchids, agroforestry products, herbs and aromatic plants, silk, fresh fruit, tea and coffee, vegetable seeds, mushrooms, ginger seeds, honey, spices, dairy products, and many other high-value products. AED acts as a catalyst between the business community and technology providers.

SESSION 8

DURATION: ONE HOUR

MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Objectives

To familiarise the local communities with the importance and utility of monitoring and evaluation and their role in monitoring

Contents

Understanding the Importance of Monitoring and Evaluation

What needs to be Monitored at the Local Level?

Indicators for Monitoring Capacity Building

Indicators for Monitoring Carrying Capacity at the Local Level

Participatory Monitoring and Its Institutionalization at the Local Level

Methodology

Short presentation followed by group discussion

Objectives

To familiarise the local communities with the importance and utility of monitoring and evaluation and their role in monitoring

A large number of projects continues to be implemented in developing countries, and these directly or indirectly aim to improve the living conditions of the rural poor. Despite the large number of projects implemented, many have failed to achieve their stated objectives. If projects are considered in terms of the provision of service delivery and impacts after their implementation is over, evidence suggests even less success. Over time, as resources become increasingly scarce, the interest to understand more about successful past projects, how they were implemented, in finding cost reducing methods, delivering benefits more effectively, and interest in monitoring and evaluation take on a new dimensions.

The need for monitoring and evaluation in development work of any nature has been realised to be important elements of the development process itself. With growing concern over sustainable development, where the environment is an important focus, monitoring development has become even more necessary as well as complex. However, lessons learned to date suggest that the more monitoring and evaluation are integrated into the project and built on the existing information system, the more the real objective of improving the projects' performance can be achieved. Experience also suggests the need for flexibility in the M and E system to ensure better performance of the project over time through corrective action based on M and E findings.

A sound M and E system should not only rely on quarterly reports and ongoing evaluations, which has generally been the case, but also on participatory evaluation conducted by the beneficiaries of the project. Both monitoring and evaluation are tools used to manage a project better, and they are basically meant to ensure that a project is progressing according to plan and that the objectives (purposes) are being realised as scheduled and desired.

Generally, development projects involve multiple components. These components are carried out by different institutions during different time periods and require different inputs. Often activities of one institution become inputs to activities carried out by other institutions. For the successful execution of activities, it is important to pinpoint inadequacies in the ways activities are carried out. Such information becomes important subsequently when taking remedial action. Hence, monitoring becomes important in checking mistakes and designing remedial action. Furthermore, a sound monitoring system should also serve as a warning mechanism for project management.

Trying to monitor everything will never be possible, and, hence, there is a need to set priorities by monitoring selected attributes of the mountain environment that are of primary relevance to mountain tourism. The critical factor approach already discussed provides a strong basis for developing monitoring indicators.

Understanding the importance of Monitoring and Evaluation

Both monitoring and evaluation are tools used to manage a project better so as to ensure that the project is progressing according to plan and that the objectives (purposes) are being realised as scheduled and desired.

Monitoring is usually understood to mean the process of providing timely information on the progress and problem of the project in the process of implementation. It is the continuous assessment of the functioning of the project activities according to schedules of implementation and the measurement of the quality and timing of inputs delivered and outputs produced.

Evaluation is considered as the assessment of the result of implementing the programme. It is the assessment of the project impact after the implementation is complete. It determines how effectively a project and its components have been in attaining the project goal. There are different types of evaluation depending on whether they are conducted during or after the completion of the project.

Monitoring and evaluation are the continuous process of collecting, processing, and assessing selected information about the project.

- Implementation
- Progress
- Impact and effects

All the above need to be studied in order to determine whether the project will be able to

- carry out the activities,
- achieve the planned results and goals, and
- have the desired effects.

or whether it is necessary to take corrective measures to:

- modify and adapt or update the plan and change the basic project approach, and
- end the project.

Planning is the basis of monitoring and evaluation. Monitoring and evaluation are the basis for project steering (corrective measures, replanning, and no intervention). Thus, monitoring is in itself a planned feedback system insofar as project management is responsive and flexible enough to modify the project management process based on the monitoring results.

Effective monitoring and evaluation, however, require the participation of all those who are involved in the programme or project. Experience reveals that economic and social performances are better and development becomes more sustainable in a situation in which people are consulted and when their needs and priorities are given primacy in project identification, designing, implementation, and monitoring.

The method and approach to monitoring generally differ among projects depending on how the following critical aspects of monitoring processes are pursued.

- What is to be monitored? (the selection of the indicators).
- How and how often should the project be monitored? (the methods and instrument to be used in collecting monitoring information and their periodicity).
- Who is to do the monitoring? (peoples' self-evaluation and internal and external monitoring).

What Needs to be Monitored at the Local Level?

Although it is essential to monitor both quantitative and qualitative changes brought about by tourism development in environmental, economic, and sociocultural aspects, monitoring at the community level should be limited to aspects (mainly qualitative or perceptive judgment of host population; not visitors' perception) that are easy to observe, understand, and monitor by community-based organizations. Over time, as these community organizations develop their capacities through education, training, and learning, monitoring tasks can be gradually passed on to them. Monitoring tasks at the community level can be divided into two parts, namely, monitoring capacity building and carrying capacity.

Indicator for Monitoring Capacity Building

The regular assessment of the capacity building process of community-based organisations should mark the beginning of a monitoring process at the community level. The central focus of such monitoring should assess how effective grassroots' institutions are in making participatory decisions and actions for sustainable management of tourism and community development activities in their community. Critical factors underlying the capacity building process of grassroots' organizations, as described in Session 4, will provide some idea about selecting monitoring indicators of organizational capacity building (Box 8.1 provides a check list of selected indicators for monitoring capacity building). It is, however, important to note that the type of indicators to be monitored at the community level should be determined through participatory discussion. The more a community is involved in the monitoring and evaluation activities, the more they will attain empowerment.

Box 8.1: Indicators for Monitoring Capacity Building

Capacity building for grassroots' institutions is an important dimension of the institutionalization process. New grassroots' institutions may not be able to monitor their own capacities and capabilities, but if the process begins within a few years, self-monitoring can also be achieved by such institutions. A number of qualitative indicators on important dimensions of the capacity building process are suggested below, and, for any specific project, these can be modified and others added if necessary. It is customary to use some kind of weightage ranking system and derive an aggregate index over the main dimensions as well as an overall aggregate. This type of exercise will be complicated for the local community and should be carried out by the programme managers or implementors. However, through the participatory approach, such rankings can be developed that will be necessary and effective for the local community to monitor their own capacity building.

Participation	Rules and Regulations Programme Selection and Implementation	Women's income opportunities Women's participation in development Overall women's development
Implementation	Community Development Operation and Maintenance Overall Participation	Leadership Honesty Devoted Responsible Efficient Overall Leadership
Decision-making	Rules and Regulations Programme Selection Implementation Overall Decision-Making	Independence and Coordination Other VOs VDCs DDC District Line Agencies Mothers' Club Overall Independence & Coordination
Transparency and Programme Development	Programme Goal Saving & Disbursement of VO fund Seed Capital Fund VDC Fund to VOs VOs' Rules and Regulations Transparency and Programme Knowledge	Empowerment Recognition of Rights Capability of forming pressure groups Availability of Services Overall Empowerment
Social Welfare	Mutual Understanding Helping One Another Self-confidence New Habits, Customs, and Behaviour Conflict and Quarrels among Villagers Untouchable Feelings Inspiration/Encouragement Improvements of Skills and Capabilities Overall Social Welfare	Self-confidence Dependency on Money Lender Dependency on Social Mobilizer New Knowledge and Skill Income-generating Opportunities Improved Access to Credit Drinking Water Status Irrigation status Health status Education status Community Forestry Overall Self-confidence
Women's Development	Women's awareness Habit of listening to women's problems Women's skill improvements	

Indicators for Monitoring Carrying Capacity at the Local Level

The basic idea of operationalising the concept of carrying capacity at the local level is to evolve a range of changes or impacts on environmental, economic, and social aspects that are being judged to be acceptable to the concerned community at large. There can be a long list of such indicators related to environmental, economic, and social aspects in the community, but it is essential to identify only critical impact factors using the participatory discussion process (Box 8.2).

- In old tourist areas, changes (both negative and positive) brought about by tourism and level of impact perceived to be tolerable/acceptable need to be identified following participatory discussion.
- Even in new tourist areas where tourism has not begun, it is equally important to establish different kinds of changes the community is willing to accept based on experiences in other mountain areas as a basis for planning.

In any case, establishing some critical impact indicators based on the perceptive judgment of all segments of the community marks the beginning of internalizing the concept of carrying capacity at the local level. In this context, the following list of perceptive indicators can be used as a guide to monitoring and assessing different dimensions of carrying capacity at the local level in a qualitative manner (Tables 8.1 to 8.3).

The checklist provided below basically involves three steps which are analyzed to provide qualitative assessment of the carrying capacity of Upper Mustang.

- Identification of a set of critical factors that describe the environmental, economic, and sociocultural dimensions of carrying capacity.
- Assessment of the current status (scarcity, adequacy, plentiful, favourable, etc.) of the factors based on discussions with the local people, personnel of ACAP/UMCDP, and other institutions in Upper Mustang.
- The implications of the status of the on carrying capacity indicator. Given the current status of the indicator what impacts (minor, moderate, or high?) does it have on the carrying capacity? (Are the impacts acceptable to the concerned community groups?)

Participatory Monitoring and its Institutionalization at the Local Level (Box 8.3)

Participatory impact monitoring is people centered, whereby all sectors of the community are the key actors and not mere objects of the monitoring and evaluation process. Monitoring and evaluation activities at the local level need to be institutionalized by the grassroots' institutions within each local community. Institutionalization at the local level improves the capabilities of the groups to monitor and follow-up on their planned activities as well as to enable them to assess their own performances. Without nurturing community-based institutions, participatory monitoring cannot be firmly rooted or institutionalized in the long run. With the institutionalization of such a system, local people will enjoy a creative learning process that will help them improve their capabilities to analyze their own achievements and carry out corrective actions to improve their programmes. More specifically, group based participatory monitoring is a qualitative approach to learning in which each member of the group is involved not only in identifying the monitoring indicators but also in assessing the perceived impacts of development activities.

Box 8.2: Use of Communicable Indicators

The use of communicable indicators becomes more relevant in the environmental aspect. For example, local people have long been familiar with the movements and sounds of animals and birds; they are equally acquainted with the functioning of plant systems. Such indicators should be identified through the participatory process while investigating the environment. Communicable indicators should have local names, local measurements, volumes, and weights, and local occurrences.

Box 8.3: Limitation of Participatory Monitoring

One inherent limitation of participatory monitoring in the initial stages of organizational development is that the presence of powerful members/ village leaders in the group meeting largely influences the responsiveness of shy members. Such a biased response, however, tends to decrease once every community member based organizations become fully stimulated towards critical awareness issues depending on the extent to which programmes are designed to initiate participatory actions as a process.

Table 8.1: Sociocultural Monitoring Indicators

Broad areas	Indicators	Current Status of Indicators (select)
Host's perception towards tourism	Well-off people	Favourable, unfavourable
	Poorer sections	Favourable, unfavourable
Cultural heritage	Religious monuments	rich but dilapidating
	Religious values	high, low
	Dance, music, festivals	Good, fair
	Crafts	Rich, fairly rich, poor
Social indicators	Crime and theft	high, low, bad
	Overall literacy	High, low, poor
	Female literacy	high, low
Host perception	Cleanliness	Good, fairly good, poor
	Hospitality	Good, fairly good, poor
	Information	Good, fairly good, poor
	Quality of services	Good, fairly good, poor
	Maintenance of tourism assets	Good, fairly good, poor
	Conservation efforts	Good, fairly good, poor
	Quality of services	Good, fairly good, poor

Table 8.2: Economic Monitoring Indicators

Broad areas	Indicators	Current Status
Agriculture	Cultivated land	Scarce, abundant
	Agricultural productivity	High, medium, low
	Irrigation facility	Abundant, limited
	Manure availability	Plenty, declining
	Livestock population	High, fairly high, low
Food sufficiency	Percentage of households	High, medium, low
Poverty	Percentage of households	High, medium, low
Migration	Percentage of households	High, medium, low
Dependency on trade	Percentage of households	High, medium, low
Employment opportunities	Tourism-induced	High, medium, low
	Off-farm-induced	High, medium, low
Income opportunities	Tourism-induced	High, medium, low
	Off-farm	High, medium, low
Linkages between tourism and community	Traditional sector	High, medium, low
	Tourism sector	High, medium, low
Income disparity	Community	High, medium, low
Knowledge and technology	Human resource development	High, medium, low
	New technology	High, medium, low

Table 8.3: Environmental Monitoring

Broad Areas	Indicators	Current Status
Forestry	Forest cover	Sparse, dense, worsen
	Firewood supply	Deficit, surplus, worsening
	Fodder supply	Deficit, surplus, worsening
Private tree plantation	Number per household	Low, medium, high
Pasture land	Livestock/ha	Low, medium, high
General landscape	High visibility	Highly attractive, attractive, not attractive
Littering/garbage/pollution	Perceptive visibility	Fairly low, moderate,
Wildlife habitat	Quality	Deteriorating, moderate, high
Unique fauna	Density	Deteriorating, moderate, high
Unique flora	Density	Deteriorating, moderate, high
Alternative energy	Use of non-wood fuel for cooking	high, medium, low

EDUCATING VISITORS

What visitors need to know

It is important to inform tourists about various things such as local environmental conservation policies and rules, local customs, acceptable social behaviour, minimum environmental impact code, how to conduct themselves in religious places, courtesies to observe in taking photographs, and other matters showing respect for local value and culture. Information for tourist should be available about places they are visiting - the attraction, facilities, and services. Tourists themselves also have obligations in seeking information. On the whole, the visitors' information system should be designed and communicated in such a way that tourists should be conscious of how best to promote sustainable tourism in their travels.

Tourists need to be informed in various ways

Brochures

- Make them colourful, attractive, and interesting
- Must allure visitors
- Must describe how to reach the place, identify any special requirements such as reservations, permits, equipment, etc
- Must outline costs, conditions, and facilities available in and around the site or destination
- Must provide a map and list of regulations

Visitor Information Centre

- Have a Visitor Information Centre to display exhibits (photos, maps, diagrams, etc)
- Have as much information as possible about destinations and sites being promoted through the Centre
- Have books, souvenirs, etc on sale
- Preferable to have class or discussion sessions equipped with audio visual equipment

The Himalayan Code of Conduct

Camp Site

Remember that another party will be using the same camp site after you have vacated it. Therefore, leave the camp site cleaner than you found it.

Limit of Deforestation

Make no open fire and discourage others from doing so on your behalf. Where water is heated by scarce firewood, use as little as possible. When possible, choose accommodation that uses kerosene or fuel efficient firewood stoves. You will help the cause greatly by taking with you some sapling and planting these on the trail.

In a Safe Place Burn Paper and Packets

Bury other waste paper and other biodegradable materials, including food. Carry back all non-biodegradable litter. If you come across other people's rubbish, remove their rubbish as well.

Keep Local Water Clean and Avoid Using Pollutants Such as Detergents in Streams or Springs

If no toilet facilities are available, make sure you are at least 30m away from water sources and bury or cover wastage.

Plants Should be Left to Flourish in Their Natural Environment

Taking cuttings, seeds, and roots is illegal in many parts of the Himalayas.

Help Your Guides and Porters to Follow Conservation Measures

Do not allow the cooks or porters to throw garbage in the nearby streams or rivers.

When Taking Photographs Respect Privacy

Ask permission and use restraint.

Respect Holy Places

Preserve what you have come to see, never touch or remove religious objects. Remove shoes when visiting temples and shrines.

Refrain from Giving Money to Children Since It Will Encourage Begging.

A donation to a project, health centre, or school is a more constructive way of helping.

Respect for Local Etiquette Earns Your Respect

Loose light clothes are preferable to revealing shorts, skimpy tops, and tight-fitting action wear. Hand holding or kissing in public are disapproved of by local people.

The Himalayas may change you, please do not change them.

Adapted by Union International Des Association D'Alpinisme (U.I.A.A.).

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

Session 1: Introduction and Tourism Awareness

Session 2: Mountain Tourism Impacts, Opportunities, and Limitations

Session 3: Participatory Planning of Mountain Tourism

Session 4: Grassroots' Institutions for Participatory Planning of Tourism at the Local Level

Session 5: Use of Alternative Sources of Energy and Technology

Session 6: Management of Solid Waste and Garbage and Management of Lodges and Campsites

Session 7: Local-level Enterprise Development Opportunities

Session 8: Monitoring and Evaluation

SESSION 1 Introduction and Tourism Awareness

1. Why do tourists from all over the world come to visit Nepal?
2. What do they want from us and how can we satisfy them?
3. What is a tourism product and why is it different from other market products?
4. What new tourism products can we offer to tourists and how?
5. How do you classify tourism assets in your community?
6. What is the basis for identifying mountain communities as being potential factors for tourism development?
7. What are some of the important factors that influence tourists' expenditure and duration of stay in mountain areas?
8. How and why does the environment play an important role in mountain tourism?

SESSION 2 Mountain Tourism Impacts

1. How can mountain tourists be classified and what types of mountain tourists are more popular in Nepal?
2. What are the major environmental effects associated with mountain tourism?
3. How serious are these problems?
4. What are the main reasons for observed negative impacts?
5. To what extent can observed negative environmental impacts be attributed to tourism?
6. How do negative environmental impacts affect the mountain community's welfare?
7. Does seasonal mountain tourism have any effect on the mountain environment?
8. How do mountain communities benefit from mountain tourism?
9. How does the government derive benefits from mountain tourism?
10. From which group (FITs or GTs) do you think mountain communities benefit more and in what ways?
11. What are some of the important reasons for the poor economic impacts of mountain tourism?
12. Are the linkages between tourism and mountain communities strong?
13. What do you mean by leakage of tourism income and how can it be reduced?
14. How can the economic impacts of mountain tourism be improved?
15. What have been the observed sociocultural impacts of mountain tourism?
16. How have women been affected by mountain tourism?
17. What do you mean by carrying capacity of the environment in the context of mountain tourism?
18. Can the area of the country or mountain community be always a limiting factor for improving carrying capacity?
19. What lesson have you learned from the comparative picture of tourism between Nepal and Austria?
20. What makes tourism sustainable at the local level?
21. What opportunities are available to maximise the opportunities provided by tourism?
22. What are the major impediments or limitations for sustainable promotion of tourism in mountain areas?

SESSION 3 Participatory Tourism Planning at the Local Level

1. What is participatory planning at the local level and why is it needed?
2. What are some of the prerequisites for participatory planning and what are the preconditions?
3. Why is community participation necessary from the early stage of tourism planning at the local level?
4. What makes participation possible? Identify both internal and external factors influencing participation?
5. What are some of the potential areas of community participation in mountain tourism development, especially for the disadvantaged, poor, and women?
6. What are the important community and tourist assets and how can they be identified in participatory planning?

7. What is the usefulness of mapping for identifying such assets?
8. Why is need assessment important in developing participatory action plans?
9. What additional method and tools do you think are useful in participatory planning at the local level?
10. What can be done to ensure a wider sharing of tourism benefits among the poor and disadvantaged groups? How can women benefit?

SESSION 4 Grassroots' Institutions for Participatory Planning of Tourism at the Local Level

1. What are grassroots' institutions and how are they different from grassroots' organizations/groups?
2. Why is grassroots' institutional building necessary for promoting community participation?
3. What are the necessary steps for developing such institutions? What can make these institutions more participatory and sustainable?
4. What are some of the innovative ways of mobilizing the resources for participatory planning and development at the local level?
5. What lesson have you learned from the example of grassroots' institutions in action in Nepal?
6. What difficulties do you consider in developing such institutions in the mountain communities?

SESSION 5 Use of Alternative Sources of Energy and Technology

1. What do you mean by alternative energy technology and how can they play an important role in making tourism sustainable in mountain communities?
2. Which alternative energy technology do you think is promising for reducing the pressure on forests in mountain areas? Why?
3. What are the major technical and institutional constraints to promoting energy technologies in mountain areas?
4. Do you think subsidizing technologies is a way of reducing environmental pressure in mountain areas? Discuss.

SESSION 6 Use of Alternative Sources of Energy and Technology

1. What are the types of garbage and waste found in mountain areas?
2. What technologies are available to address this problem? And what are the main constraints to widespread adoption of these technologies at the community level?
3. What lessons have you learned from ACAP and from other tourist areas about making lodge management more effective?
4. Do you think it is necessary to have an equal representation of local people on the lodge management committee? If so why?
5. What sort of lodge management training do you think is more effective at the community level?
4. What should be the role of the community in campsite management?

SESSION 7 Local Level Enterprise Opportunities

See manual for questions for discussion.

SESSION 8 Monitoring and Evaluation

1. Why should the community be involved in monitoring?
2. What is participatory monitoring and why is it important at the community level?
3. Why is it necessary to monitor capacity building?
4. Why is it necessary to monitor carrying capacity in three main areas?
5. Do the suggested indicators on capacity building and carrying capacity appeal to you?

SESSION 1 Introduction and Tourism Awareness

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SESSION 4 Grassroots Institutions for Participatory Planning

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SESSION 7 Local Level Enterprise Development

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SESSION 8 Monitoring and Evaluation

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