

Instrumentos políticos para la gestión sostenible del turismo en Parques Nacionales: Una comparación entre Colombia, Costa Rica y España

Policy instruments for sustainable tourism management in national parks: A comparative analysis of Colombia, Costa Rica, and Spain

Alejandra Téllez¹

alejatellez@gmail.com

Laura Durán²

lauradm647097@gmail.com

Marianna Chmielewska²

maniachmlv@gmail.com

Raquel Santos-Lacueva³

rsantos@ostelea.com

¹ Fundación Universitaria Cafam-CPTUR

² Ostelea, Universidad de Lleida

³ Ostelea (Universidad de Lleida) y UOC; Investigadora en GRATET-URV.

Abstract

This paper aims to analyse the policy instruments for sustainable tourism management in national parks. The research focuses on three countries and two national parks per country: Los Nevados and Chingaza in Colombia, Manuel Antonio and Volcán Poás in Costa Rica, and Teide and Sierra de Guadarrama in Spain. A content analysis of official documents is carried out to identify organizational, normative and programmatic instruments.

Organizational instruments for both tourism and the environment are represented graphically for each country, keywords are used to analyse normative instruments, and eleven topics and thirty-five subtopics are proposed as a means of exploring the inclusion of sustainable tourism criteria in programmatic instruments. The results show the areas where there is room for improvement. These include coordination between those organizations in charge of protecting the environment and natural areas and those in charge of tourism, the inclusion of sustainable tourism in normative instruments, and greater emphasis to be placed on key topics for sustainability in the programmatic instruments, including carbon footprints and accessibility.

Keywords: National parks, sustainable tourism, policy instruments

Resumen

El objetivo de este trabajo es analizar los instrumentos políticos para la gestión sostenible del turismo en los Parques Nacionales. La investigación se desarrolla en tres países y en dos Parques Nacionales para cada país: Los Nevados y Chingaza (Colombia); Volcán Manuel Antonio y Poás (Costa Rica); y Teide y Sierra de Guadarrama (España). Se ha llevado a cabo un análisis de contenido de los documentos oficiales para instrumentos organizativos, normativos y programáticos. Concretamente, los instrumentos organizativos de turismo y de medioambiente se representan gráficamente para cada país; los instrumentos normativos se analizan mediante palabras clave; y se proponen once temas y treinta y cinco subtemas para explorar la inclusión de criterios de turismo sostenible en los instrumentos programáticos. Los resultados detectan áreas de mejora, como la coordinación entre las organizaciones relacionadas con el medioambiente y las organizaciones de turismo; la inclusión del turismo sostenible en los instrumentos normativos; o el refuerzo de temas clave para la sostenibilidad en los instrumentos programáticos, como la huella de carbono y la accesibilidad.

Palabras clave: Parques Nacionales, Turismo Sostenible, instrumentos políticos.

1 Introduction

As tourism continues to be one of the world's fastest-growing industries, many regions have become socio-economically dependent upon it (Min et al., 2016). Although presented as a non-polluting industry, tourism can have other impacts, even apart from generating employment and income. Cañada (2018) has identified several social conflicts involved in the development of tourism projects, including the dispossession of natural resources, the dismantling of pre-existing territory, intensive population movements that expel some groups and attract others, and the subordinate integration of people from rural communities into new tourism activities that are central to the economy in those areas.

The purpose of establishing protected areas is to ensure the conservation and preservation of the environment. Tourism can provide additional financial resources needed to manage those protected areas and, by extension, to secure alternative economic resources for locals living there and for the purposes of education about the environment. Even so, tourism in protected areas requires infrastructure that may negatively impact the natural and cultural values preserved there. The number of visitors and the inappropriate behaviour of some of them can also exert negative effects (McCool, 2009). Indeed, tourism can bring about changes in the composition of species of flora and fauna, for example, as well as changes in animals' reproductive habits and vegetation cover, water pollution due to sewage or oil spills, air pollution due to vehicle emissions, noise pollution, soil erosion, and so on (Toro, 2013). Against those trends, various tourism and wildlife organisations have promoted ecotourism as a tool for supporting conservation, sustainable development, and education (Caletrío, 2020). In view of those competing forces, McCool (2009) has argued that the management of sustainable tourism in protected areas requires trade-offs between two goals: protecting key values that form the basis for preservation and granting visitors access to protected areas in order to enjoy and appreciate those values. In short, whenever tourism is introduced into protected areas, the conservation and preservation of the environment have to be ensured.

The International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN, 2008) has identified seven categories of protection: (1) strict nature reserves, (2) wilderness areas, (3) national parks, (4) monuments or natural features, (5) habitat and species management areas, (6) protected

lands or seascapes, and (7) protected areas whose natural resources are used sustainably. Since then, the IUCN (2013) has stated that tourism focuses primarily on wilderness areas, national parks, and habitat and species management areas, and in our research, we focused exclusively on national parks. The chief aim of the management of national parks is to protect natural biodiversity along with the underlying ecological structure and environmental process while promoting education and recreational use.

Developing tourism in national parks requires knowing how to do so properly. Per the UN Environment Programme and World Tourism Organization (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005), governments need to take a leading role for truly significant progress to be achieved in making tourism more sustainable, even if most of tourism's impacts are the result of actions taken by private enterprises and tourists themselves. For that reason, our research focused on analysing public policy, with *public policy* understood as a set made up of one or several collective objectives considered necessary or desirable, and by means and actions, which are treated, at least partially, by an institution or government organization to guide the behavior of individual or collective actors to modify a situation perceived as unsatisfactory or problematic (Roth, 2010).

Public policies seek particular objectives, and various factors determine their success in doing so. For example, Howlett (2011) has outlined important factors in the design of public policies, including a set of principles to know which policy instruments should be used and in which circumstances. By extension, Velasco (2007, 2011, 2016) has differentiated the policy instruments applied in tourism policy into six types of instruments: organisational, programmatic, normative, financial, knowledge-improving, and communicative. In our research, conducted at a micro level of policy analysis with a focus on specific elements of policies (Subirats et al., 2008)—for instance, how they address sustainability, how tourism and environmental policies are organised, and how sustainable tourism management in national parks is regulated differently in different countries—we followed Velasco (2007) in studying organisational, normative, and programmatic instruments.

To that purpose, we first needed a clear understanding of what can be regarded as sustainable tourism in national parks, while recognising that the term *sustainability*, since its emergence, has exhibited significant ambiguity (Naredo, 1997). In our analysis, we included

different definitions and criteria of *sustainable tourism* and *ecotourism*. The UNWTO, for instance, has defined *sustainable tourism* as “tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities” (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005). By contrast, the term *ecotourism*, perceived as an alternative to conventional tourism, has been defined as “responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of the local people, and involves interpretation and education” (TIES 2015). Because ecotourism is a concept applicable to national parks and exhibits less ambiguity than sustainable tourism, policy instruments mentioning ecotourism were equally relevant in our analysis. Another type of tourism in natural environments is *nature-based tourism*, defined as any form of tourism in which relatively undisturbed natural environments are the primary attraction or setting (Buckley & Caughlan, 2012).

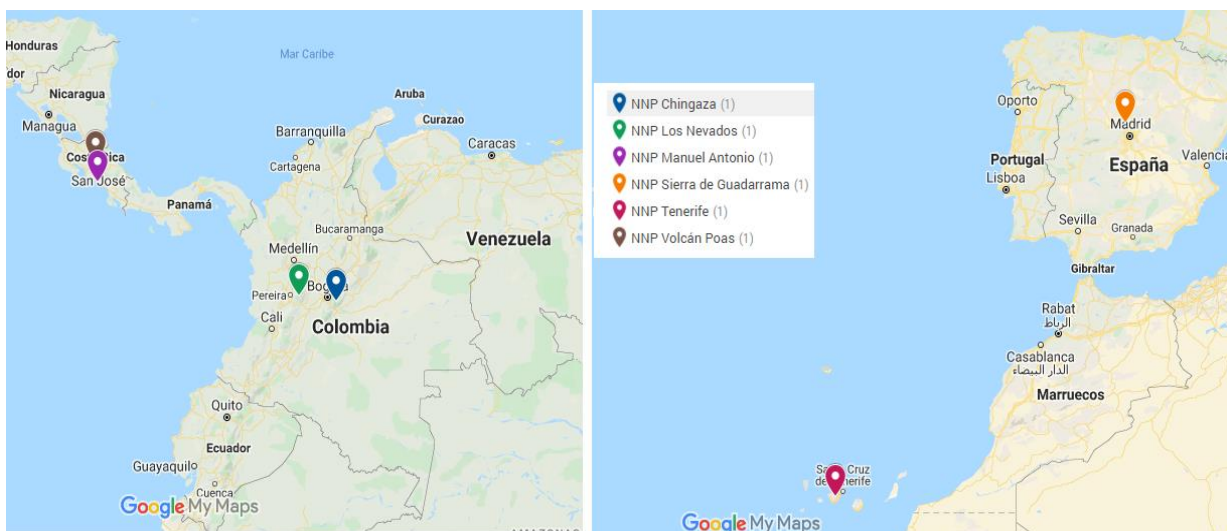
Considering all of those conceptualisations of tourism in natural environments, we developed the following question for our research: In what ways are criteria for sustainable tourism included in public policies concerning tourism in national parks? By answering that question based on a comparative content analysis of official documents addressing organisational, normative, and programmatic instruments, our research contributes to extending current knowledge on public policies in tourism (Jenkins et al., 2014; Dredge & Jamal, 2015). The relevance of that topic has grown amidst the ongoing health crisis stemming from the COVID-19 pandemic that has weakened the tourism industry. Even so, global trends indicate that tourism worldwide will rise again, especially in natural areas, which are perceived as being not only safer but also healthier than other tourist destinations (Simancas Cruz et al., 2020). Such growth in tourism can threaten protected ecosystems, as demonstrated during severe overcrowding in natural areas during the summer of 2020 (e.g. *El Periódico*, 2020; Carranco, 2020) due to changes in demand based on new preferences. Although the health crisis drives such trends, it also affords an opportunity to analyse how tourism is being managed in those fragile environments and how it can be improved.

In what follows, we present the three case studies. Section 3 explains our methodology, while Section 4 reports the results of our analysis by type of instrument and country. Section 5 discusses the results, and Section 6 presents our conclusions.

2. Case studies

Our research focused on six national parks in three countries: Los Nevados and Chingaza National Parks in Colombia, Manuel Antonio and Volcán Poás National Parks in Costa Rica, and Teide and Sierra de Guadarrama National Parks in Spain (see Figure 1). Those cases were chosen because two of the countries are members of the Group of Like-Minded Megadiverse Countries (Costa Rica and Colombia), because they represent locations on three continents (America and Europe)), and because they are all managed in the same language (Spanish), which facilitated their comparison and analysis. Table 1 provides a general description of the major features of the three countries in relation to their general location, tourism, and their protected natural areas.

Figure 1. Location of case studies.



Source: authors elaboration in Google My Maps

Table 1. The three selected countries in terms of location, tourism, and protected natural areas.

Country	Colombia	Costa Rica	Spain
Region	Northern South America	Central America	South-western Europe
International tourist arrivals in 2019*	4.2 million	3.1 million	83.5 million
Protected natural area	More than 14%**	26%***	27%
National parks	59 national protected areas	28 national parks	15 national parks
UNESCO World Heritage Natural Sites	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Los Katíos National Park 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talamanca Range-La Amistad Reserves / 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Garajonay National Park

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Malpelo Fauna and Flora Sanctuary • Chiribiquete ('The Maloca of the Jaguar') National Park 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • La Amistad National Park • Cocos Island National Park • Area de Conservación Guanacaste 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doñana National Park • Teide National Park
--	--	---	---

Sources: *UNWTO (n.d.) ** Parques Nacionales (n.d.) *** González-Maya (2015)

2.1 Colombia

The Andes Mountains divides Colombia into three regions, meaning that much of the territory is mountainous and covers altitudes ranging from sea level to 5775 m above sea level. Partly due to that reason, Colombia is one of the most biodiverse countries in the world. It has more bird and orchid species than any other country and ranks second in plant, amphibian, butterfly, and freshwater fish species, third in palm and reptile species, and fourth in mammals (Instituto Humboldt, 2017).

Although Colombia has 59 national parks, ecotourism is permitted in only 25 of them. Table 2 shows that the number of visitors to Colombia's national parks trended upward until 2018. In our study, we focused on two national parks ranked amongst the 10 most-visited areas in the country: Los Nevados National Park and Chingaza National Park. On the one hand, Los Nevados is in the heart of the Colombian coffee region within the northern volcanic complex formed by Nevado del Ruiz, with the La Olleta and La Piraña craters, as well as by the Nevado de Santa Isabel, the Nevado del Tolima, and the peaks of El Cisne, Santa Rosa, and Quindío.

Table 2. Numbers of visitors to national parks in Colombia.

National park	2016*	2017*	2018**
Los Nevados	39.904	50.896	54.095
Chingaza	23.248	28.353	24.831
Total national parks	1.446.273	1.653.090	1.831.192

Sources: * Parques Nacionales (2018), ** Parques Nacionales (2019)

On the other hand, Chingaza is located in central Colombia within the eastern Andes north-east of the capital Bogotá. It stretches across 11 municipalities: seven in Cundinamarca and four in Meta. Although no indigenous communities currently live in the area, it was once home to the Muiscas and the Guayapes, whose roots remain visible and relevant due to their use of nearby lagoons, mountains, and water as sacred sites of worship for their traditional ceremonies. Today, the area is inhabited by farming communities settled near the national park. The basis of Chingaza's rich biodiversity is Andean fauna and flora within an array of ecosystems, including high Andean, sub-Andean Forest, and moorland. The park also includes the Chingaza lacustrine system, which comprises 20 lakes and wetlands.

2.2 Costa Rica

Costa Rica is considered to be a megadiverse country, one with incredible diversity given its small size. Tourism is essential to Costa Rica's economy. Although tourists had visited the country for decades, government action in tourism began only in the 1930s with the promotion of a top-class hotel in the capital of San José (Matarrita-Cascante, 2010). Since the 1960s, Costa Rica has been highly regarded amongst scientific and nature tourists, a trend that was strengthened with the creation of the National Parks System in 1970. By the 1990s, tourism was Costa Rica's third-largest industry. However, detecting the negative impacts of tourism, the government introduced strategies to promote sustainable tourism. According to the Costa Rican Embassy in Washington, DC (2020), the country earns an excess of US \$1.7 billion per year from tourism, and up to 80% of all visitors travel there for ecotourism-related activities.

Costa Rica’s two most-visited national parks are Manuel Antonio and Volcán Poás, as shown in Table 3. Manuel Antonio National Park was established following pressure from local communities who resisted the privatisation of the area for the purposes of tourism. Following demonstrations in 1972, the park was created with the name “Beaches of Manuel Antonio National Leisure Park” under Law No. 5100. Today, the park includes a variety of environments, including tropical rainforest, beaches, and marine habitats. According to Costa Rica’s National System of Conservation Areas (SINAC, 2020a) The park has a very high level of biodiversity and is of great interest to tourists.

Meanwhile, Volcán Poás National Park was established in 1955. The Poás volcano has erupted throughout history, perhaps most notably in 1910. One of the best-known, most attractive natural destinations in Costa Rica for both national and international tourism, the park covers 5600 hectares at altitudes ranging from 2400 to 2708 m and encompasses both cloud forest and tropical rainforest habitats (SINAC, 2020b).

Table 3. Numbers of visitors to national parks in Costa Rica.

National parks	2016*	2017**	2018***
Manuel Antonio	437.430	475.052	524.835
Volcan Poas	402.126	143.933	49.785
Total national parks	2.002.846	1.912.794	2.004.149

Sources: *MINAE / SINAC (2017) ** MINAE / SINAC (2018) *** MINAE / SINAC (2019)

2.3 Spain

Spain is one of the most-visited countries in the world, largely due to its privileged geographical position and Mediterranean climate, together with its cultural and environmental diversity. Several mountain ranges shape the country’s different landscapes, and the country’s long, varied coastline has given rise to diverse bioclimatic regions. According to the IUCN (2020), Spain has some of Europe’s greatest biodiversity and the

most protected areas. Nature tourism in Spain has increased in terms of overnight stays and visitors in rural accommodations and campsites (Instituto Nacional de Estadística [INE], 2019a). The number of visitors to its national parks has also grown year after year and reached a total of approximately 15.4 million in 2017 (INE, 2019b).

The two most-visited national parks in Spain are Teide and Sierra de Guadarrama, as shown in Table 4. On the one hand, Teide National Park, established in 1954, is centrally located on the island of Tenerife in the Canary Islands. Its name derives from Mount Teide, the highest summit in Spain and the third-tallest volcanic structure in the world. The park covers 18,990 hectares and is the sixth-biggest in Spain and was the most-visited park in 2020. In 2007, Teide National Park was listed as a UNESCO World Heritage Natural Site owing to its rich diversity, striking volcanic landscape, and spectacular environments.

Table 4. Numbers of visitors to national parks in Spain.

National parks	2016	2017
Teide	4.079.823	4.327.527
Sierra de Guadarrama	2.440.128	2.691.890
Total national parks	15.010.275	15.510.590

Source: Ministry for Ecological Transition and the Demographic Challenge (2017).

On the other hand, Sierra de Guadarrama became a national park in 2013. Whereas 64% of the park falls within the Autonomous Community of Madrid, the other 36% belongs to the Autonomous Community of Castile and Leon. Covering an area of 33,960 hectares of mountain and high mountain formations, the park's highest peak is Peñalara (2428 m above sea level), which forms the Peñalara Massif along with four other summits. Sierra de Guadarrama boasts diverse natural systems, including pinewoods of great environmental value and rock geomorphology involving unique landscape formations of glacial and periglacial origin. In addition to its flora, fauna, landscapes, and extraordinary geological formations, the park encompasses cultural sites in which tourists can enjoy printing, literature, architecture, and educational activities.

3 Methodology

Policy analysis can entail different kinds of research and examine, for instance, the process, content, and evaluation of policies (Parsons, 1995). Our research concentrated on the content of policies, namely in an analysis of the policy instruments used for sustainable tourism management in national parks. The research was carried out in 2020 using official public policy documents as sources of data. As mentioned, following Velasco (2011), we focused on organisational, normative, and programmatic policy instruments.

- *Organisational instruments:* We identified national organisations connected to either tourism or national parks while considering different types of instruments, including administrative, executive, coordinating, and cooperative ones (Velasco, 2011), and identified relationships between the various organisations.
- *Normative instruments:* Normative instruments represent any legally binding norm with direct application. Initially, we sought legal norms in each country that may apply to the management of national parks and conducted keyword searches in each PDF specifically for “sustainable tourism” and “ecotourism” (i.e. in Spanish) for later, more detailed study. Because we did not find any explicit mention of many normative instruments in relation to Costa Rica and Spain, in those cases we analysed some documents and searched implicitly for sustainable tourism. In those cases, we also closely read documents written by different researchers several times and extracted the principal ideas related to sustainability. We contrasted our independent conclusions with the other researchers on the team to guarantee the objectivity of the content analysis.
- *Programmatic instruments:* We analysed current plans for managing tourism in the national parks in terms of the various topics and subtopics that we identified during a literature review (see Table 5) and classified by colour (see Table 6). Whereas Colombia and Costa Rica have specific documents concerning the management of tourism in their national parks, Spain does not. Therefore, for Spain, we used the parks’ management plans and the tourism plans of the autonomous communities in which the parks are located.

Our analysis took the form of three case studies of Colombia, Costa Rica, and Spain, respectively. The methodology enabled us to compare the different national parks and to identify the strengths and weaknesses of each model in order to improve management systems. As a result, our work can contribute to establishing recommendations aimed at increasing the sustainability of tourism in those natural areas. We selected our cases according to the following criteria:

- At least two megadiverse countries;
- At least one European country in which tourism development is consolidated in order to enable the comparison of different perspectives;
- Latin American countries, in order to contribute to filling the knowledge gap regarding tourism and public policies (Fountainne, 2015); and
- All countries using the same language (Spanish) in order to facilitate the analysis and comparison of documents.

Two national parks from each country were thus chosen according to the information available for them and the highest number of visitors.

Table 5. Topics and subtopics of sustainable tourism for the analysis of programmatic instruments.

TOPIC		SUBTOPIC	
A	Site planning for conservation	A1	Establishment of carrying capacity
		A2	Clear spatial planning policies
		A3	Zoning of the site for tourism
B	Site protection and optimal use of environmental resources	B1	Tourism activity adapted to the site's conservation measures
		B2	Water management
		B3	Energy management
		B4	Carbon footprint
C	Respect for local communities and cultural heritage	C1	Identification of local communities and their needs
		C2	Identification of the community's sociocultural authenticity
		C3	Tourism intended to contribute to intercultural understanding and tolerance
D	Economic impacts and appropriate distribution of benefits	D1	Fair distribution of socioeconomic benefits to all stakeholders
		D2	Participation of local people in tourism and income-earning opportunities
		D3	Direct financial benefits for conservation (admission fee)

E	Participation and consensus between stakeholders and public administration	E1	Anticipation, monitoring and minimization of existing and potential conflicts with local residents
		E2	Good communication and engagement between local residents, businesses, visitors and the authority in charge of the protected area
		E3	Encouragement and development of appropriate partnership activity with and between stakeholders
F	Monitoring tourism performance and impacts	F1	Establishment of monitoring programmes and indicators
		F2	Identification of impacts generated by tourism activity
		F3	Application of corrective measures for negative impacts
		F4	Preventive measures where necessary.
G	Tourist satisfaction and experience	G1	Tourist satisfaction
		G1	Quality standards
		G3	Tourist needs taken into account to improve facilities or activities
H	Environmental education, training and sensitization	H1	Training programmes for staff and local population
		H2	Training in sustainable tourism for locals and staff
		H3	Interpretative experiences for visitors to help raise environmental sensitivity
I	Infrastructure and low impact facilities	I1	Identification of infrastructure needed for those tourism activities permitted in areas where ecotourism takes place
		I2	Design, construction and operation of low-impact facilities
		I3	Accessibility for disabled people
J	Risk management	J1	Identification of possible risks in the area
		J2	Safety procedures in case of emergency
K	Communication and promotion	K1	Identification of the site's natural and cultural attractions for tourism
		K2	Identification of tourism activities that can be done in the area
		K3	Market research and design of the ecotourism product
		K4	Promotion of the park for the type of tourism expected

Source: Authors' elaboration

Table 6. Presence of subtopics in programmatic instruments.

PRESENCE OF THE SUBTOPIC	ABBREVIATION	COLOR
The subtopic was not mentioned	NM	
The subtopic was mentioned but without any specific action to be implemented	M	
The subtopic was mentioned in connection with a specific action in the plan	MW	

Source: Authors' elaboration

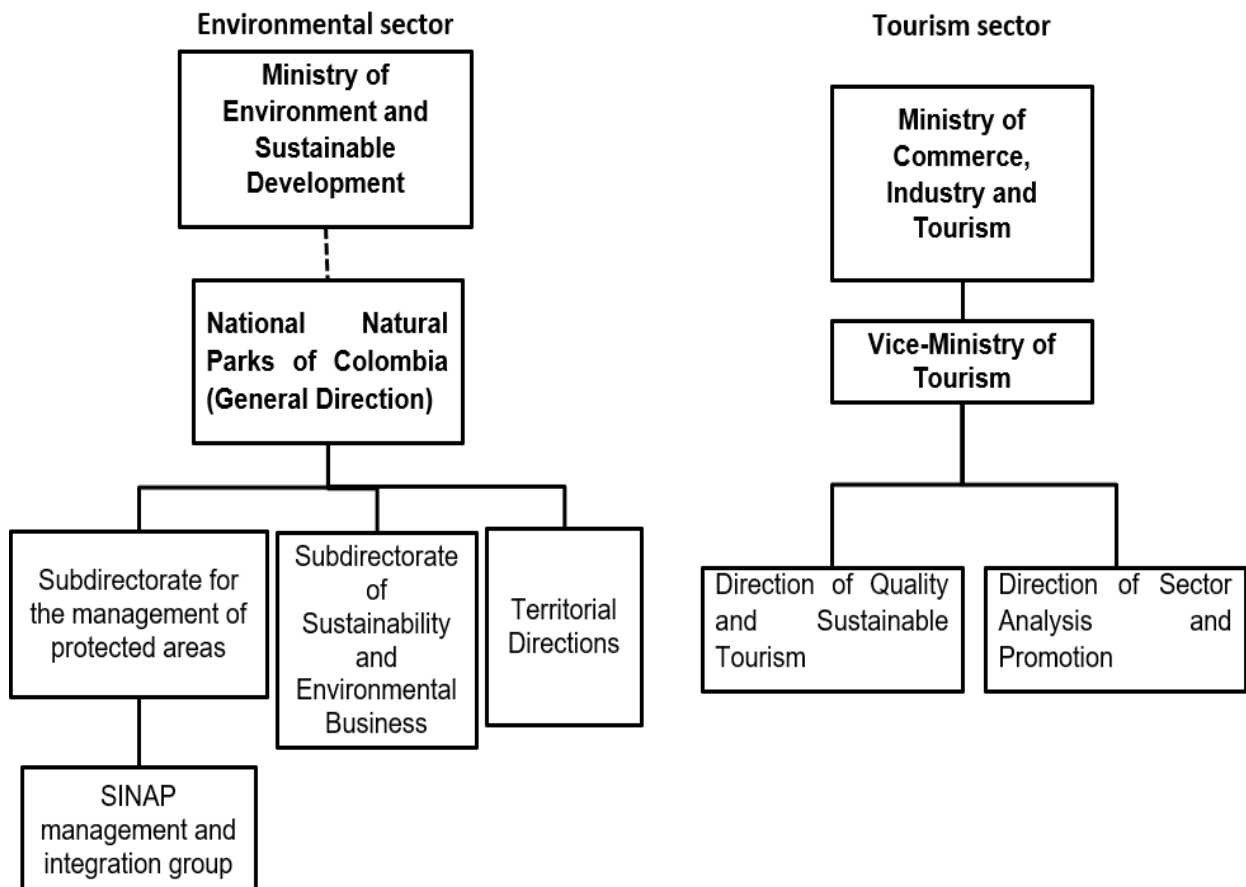
4. Results

4.1 Organisational instruments

4.1.1 Colombia

Figure 2 details the organisational instruments governing tourism and the management of national parks in Colombia, including not only ones associated with the Ministry of Environment and Sustainable Development but also ones issued by the Ministry of Trade, Industry and Tourism.

Figure 2. Organizational instruments for the management of national parks and tourism in Colombia.



Source: authors elaboration.

Colombia's National System of Protected Areas brings together all of the country's protected areas, social actors, and strategies, along with the instruments of management used to coordinate them in order to achieve Colombia's conservation-oriented objectives. The system encompasses all protected areas under public, private, or community governance at the national, regional, and local management levels. Protected areas in Colombia include (1) public protected areas, (2) areas included in the National Natural Parks System (NNPS), (3) protective forest reserves, (4) regional natural parks, (5) integrated management districts, (6) soil conservation districts, (7) recreation areas, and (8) private protected areas (i.e. Natural Reserves of Civil Society).

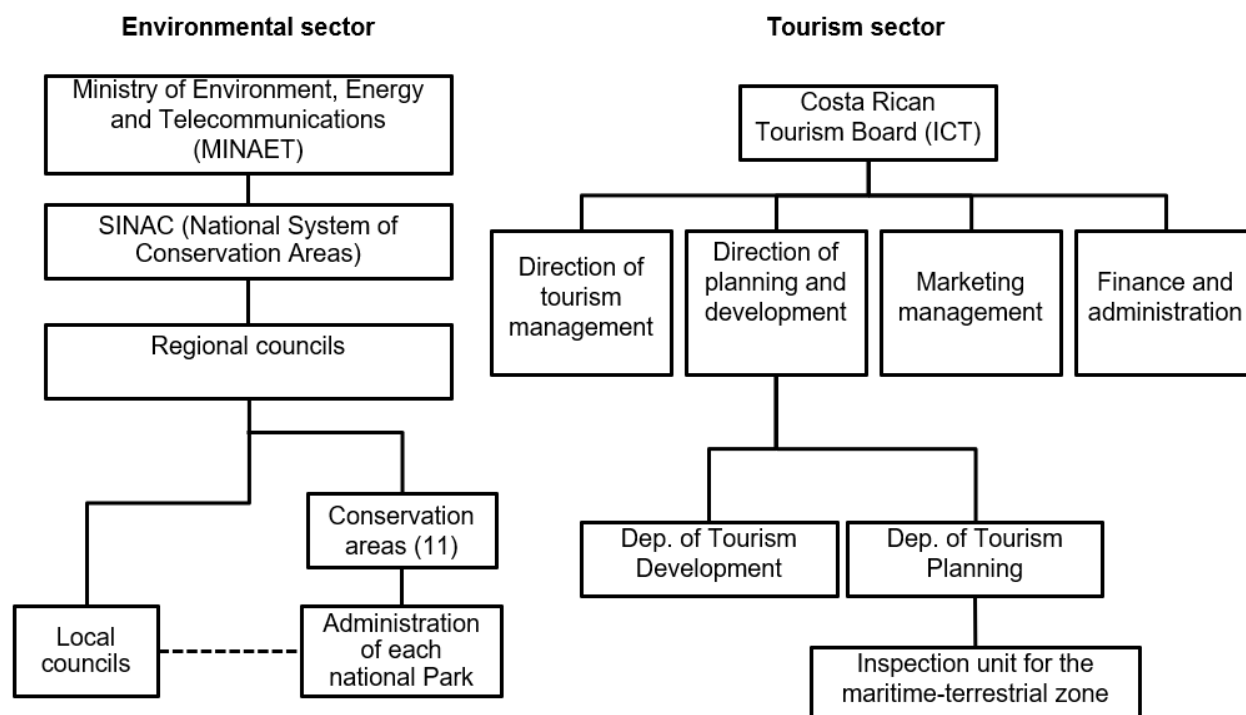
Regarding organisational instruments used in Colombia, we focused exclusively on national natural parks. Colombia's NNPS comprises a group of areas of exceptional national heritage value either for the benefit of the nation's inhabitants or due to their natural, cultural, and/or historical characteristics. A national body with administrative and financial autonomy, the NNPS has jurisdiction throughout the nation's territory and manages the national protected areas that together constitute the system. As such, the NNPS is in charge of Colombia's national natural parks, each of which has its own administration comprising a central level plus six territorial divisions according to its location and the ecosystems therein.

Concerning tourism in those areas, the Ministry of Trade, Industry and Tourism is home to the Vice-Ministry of Tourism, which is responsible for the Office of Quality and Sustainable Tourism and the Office of Sector Analysis and Promotion. In particular, the Office of Quality and Sustainable Tourism oversees standardisation in the sector and in recent years has compelled tourism companies to implement and meet requirements for sustainability.

4.1.2 Costa Rica

Figure 3 shows the organisational instruments governing tourism and the management of national parks in Costa Rica.

Figure 3. Organizational instruments for the management of national parks and tourism in Costa Rica.



Source: authors elaboration.

In Costa Rica, the management of natural and protected areas falls to SINAC, a branch of the Ministry of the Environment, Energy and Telecommunications that has legal authority over the management, protection, and use of Costa Rica's natural assets, including forests, wildlife, water basins, and rivers. SINAC also plans and implements sustainable measures in those areas via management plans for development and tourism.

SINAC relies on the participation of various stakeholders including the state, private companies, and residents who are committed to building and maintaining an ecologically balanced environment. In terms of territory, SINAC's work extends to 11 conservation areas where public and private actors collaborate to identify and provide solutions to better manage conservation strategies and sustainable development in Costa Rica's protected natural areas. SINAC is also responsible for designing, updating, monitoring, evaluating, and

systematising policies, plans, programmes, projects, procedures, and manuals to be applied in terrestrial and marine protected wild areas under its administration at the national level.

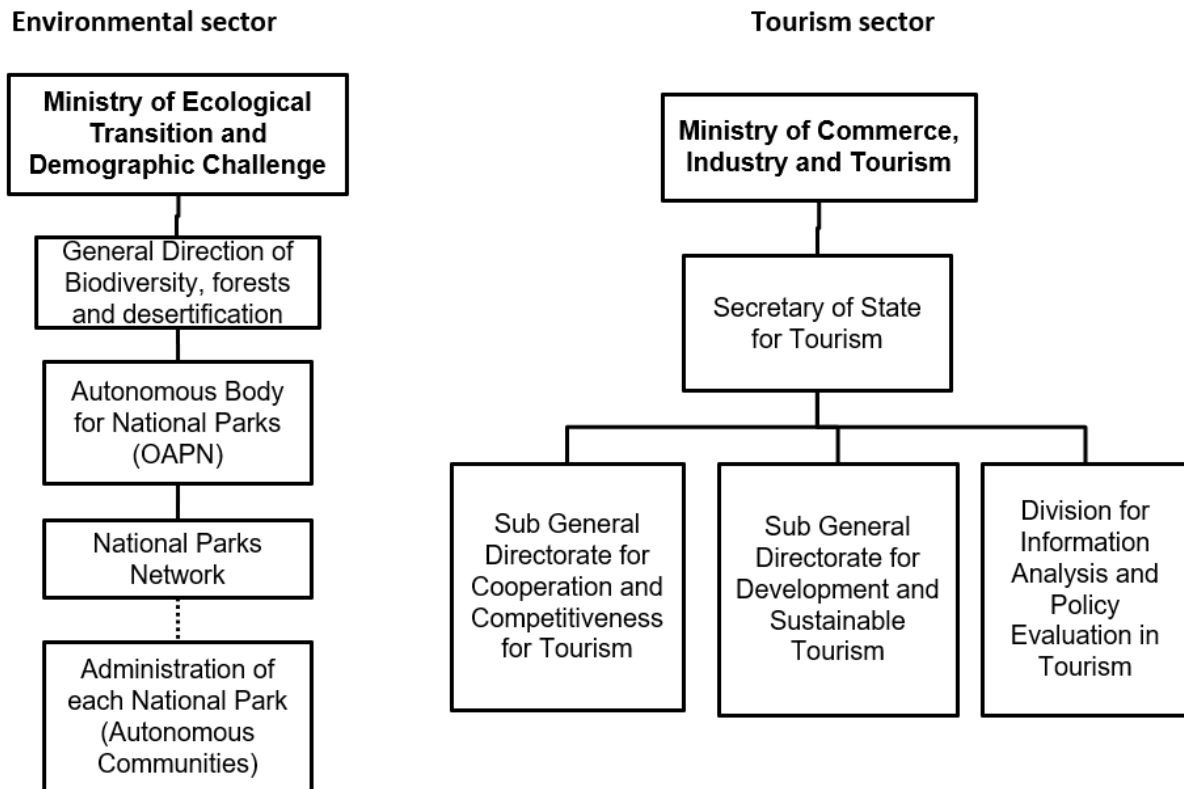
The other entity responsible for managing tourism in natural areas in Costa Rica is the Ministry of Tourism, namely via the work of the government's Costa Rican Institute of Tourism, which maintains several departments responsible for tourism planning, promotion, finance, and administration as well as planning and development.

4.1.3 Spain

Figure 4 shows the organisational instruments governing tourism and the management of national parks in Spain. We focused on two major organisations: the Ministry for the Ecological Transition and the Demographic Challenge and the Ministry of Industry, Trade and Tourism. The first is in charge of the National Parks Autonomous Agency, which establishes the basic regulation of national parks following the directives of the National Parks Network (NPN) and is responsible for the coordination, collaboration, and cooperation between all actors representing natural systems in Spain in order to ensure the preservation of values in those areas. Local administrations (Autonomous communities), meanwhile, are in charge of the management of the parks.

The Ministry of Industry, Trade and Tourism, by contrast, is responsible for the Deputy Directorate-General for Tourism Cooperation and Competitiveness, the Deputy Directorate-General for Development and Tourism Sustainability, and the Division of Information Analysis and Evaluation of Tourism Policies, which are in charge of analysing, managing, and evaluating the tourism sector in Spain.

Figure 4. Organizational instruments for the management of national parks and tourism in Spain.



Source: authors elaboration.

4.2 Normative instruments

4.2.1 Colombia

We identified and analysed several normative instruments governing tourism and environmental regulation in Colombia. For tourism, the instruments were Law 300 of 1996 (i.e. General Tourism Law) and Law 1558 of 2012. As for the environment, the instruments were fivefold: (1) Law 2 of 1959 (i.e. Forest Economy of the Nation and Conservation of Natural Renewable Resources), (2) Decree 2811 of 1974 (i.e. National Code of Renewable Natural Resources and Protection of the Environment), (3) Decree 622 of 1977, (4) Law 99 of 1993, and (5) Resolution 531 of 2013.

First, Law 300 of 1996, the General Tourism Law, establishes that *ecotourism*, defined as a “form of specialised and directed tourism that takes place in areas with a special natural attraction and is framed within the parameters of sustainable human development” , has to be coordinated between the organisations of the environmental sector. Per Article 26 of the law, ecotourism facilitates recreation and visitor education through observation, the study of natural values, and the cultural aspects related to them. The law also defines *carrying capacity* as “the level of tourist use (number of people) that an area can support, ensuring maximum satisfaction for visitors and minimal impact on natural and cultural resources” .

Sixteen years later, Law 1558 of 2012 modified some of the articles of the General Tourism Law to give greater importance to the sustainable development of tourism and to establishing mechanisms for the participation and consultation of public and private sectors therein. It also made it mandatory for service providers to meet standards of quality, including ones for sustainable tourism.

Concerning the environment, Article 13 of Law 2 of 1959 introduced the concept of natural national parks as a strategy for conserving Colombia’ s flora and fauna. It established the peremptory prohibition of adjudicating vacant lots, buying and selling land, hunting, fishing, and carrying out any industrial, livestock or agricultural activity other than tourism or activities that the government considers to be suitable for conservation.

Next, Decree 2811 of 1974 set out the National Code of Renewable Natural Resources and Protection of the Environment. It designates the NNPS as the group of areas of exceptional national heritage value either for the benefit of the nation’ s inhabitants or due to their natural, cultural, and/or historical characteristics. The law also allows certain activities within NNPS areas, namely conservation, recovery and control, research, education, recreation, and cultural.

Three years later, Decree 622 of 1977, now contained in Decree 1076 of 2015, regulates some of the activities of the NNPS. Regarding tourism, it allows recreational activities in general outdoor recreation zones with a high density of use, which has to be defined in the zoning plans for those areas in their respective action plans. Colombia’ s NNPS is in charge of regulating visitors’ use, establishing corresponding rates of use, and setting maximum

quotas for visitors. Recreation activities are permitted as long as they do not cause significant changes to the natural environment. Hotels, for example, are prohibited.

More recently, Resolution 531 of 2013 provides guidelines for the planning and ordering of ecotourism activities in NNPS areas. Last, Decree 1076 of 2015 is the single regulatory decree for the environment and sustainable development sector. In 2015, Colombia's government compiled all decrees in force to date by sector and has kept it updated since. The resolution also defines the functions of the NNPS.

4.2.2 Costa Rica

We identified and analysed several normative instruments governing tourism and environmental regulation in Costa Rica as well. Regarding tourism, they were the Law on Incentives for the Development of Tourism No. 6990 of 1985, the Law on the Terrestrial Maritime Zone No. 6043 of 1977, and the Law on the Promotion of Rural Community-based Tourism No. 8724. Regarding the environment, the laws were sevenfold: (1) the SINAC Environmental Compendium, (2) Water Law No. 276, (3) Biodiversity Law No. 7788, (4) Law on the Conservation of Wildlife No. 7317, (5) Law on the National Park Services No. 6084, (6) Forestry Law No. 7575, and (7) Organic Law of the Environment No. 7554. Of them, only the SINAC Environmental Compendium, Forestry Law No. 7575, and Biodiversity Law No. 7788 refer explicitly to ecotourism or sustainability.

The SINAC Environmental Compendium (2017) is a document combining the various laws governing biodiversity, forestry, and the environment that are applicable in protected areas in Costa Rica. The keywords used in our search fell within the context of building infrastructure related to ecotourism or ecotourism-related activities permitted in some natural protected areas, including national parks. Those key words generally formed part of the Forestry Law.

In the Biodiversity Law, any mention of ecotourism refers to state-owned animal refuges to be managed and used exclusively for the purposes of scientific investigation, training, and ecotourism. We also found implicit mentions of sustainable tourism practices in the Law on the Promotion of Rural Community-Based Tourism No. 8724. That law's chief aims are fourfold:

1. To make optimal use of environmental resources that are a fundamental element of tourism development, maintain essential ecological processes, and help to conserve natural resources and biological diversity.
2. To respect the sociocultural authenticity of host communities and to preserve their architectural and living cultural assets and their traditional values while contributing to intercultural understanding and tolerance.
3. To ensure the long-term viability of economic activities that provide well-distributed socio-economic benefits, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities, along with social services for host communities in order to contribute to reducing poverty; and
4. To ensure that tourists derive a high degree of satisfaction from tourism in rural communities and that such tourism represents a meaningful experience for them, makes them more aware of the problems of sustainability, and encourages responsible tourism practices.

The law also addresses issues such as nature conservation, respect for traditional values, and the equal distribution of benefits amongst stakeholders, including local communities.

4.2.3 Spain

Regarding the normative instruments governing Spain's national parks, we analysed various legislation applicable to tourism at both the national level and the level of autonomous communities. Regarding tourism, the laws were sixfold: (1) Royal Decree 1274/2011 of 16 September, (2) Law 7/1995 of 6 April 1995 on the Regulation of Tourism in the Canary Islands, (3) Law 19/2003 of 14 April 2003, which approves the General Ordinance Guidelines and Ordinance Guidelines for Tourism in the Canary Islands, (4) Law 6/2009 of 6 May on Urgent Measures in the Matter of Spatial Planning for the Sectorial Dynamization and the Planning of Tourism in the Canary Islands, (5) Law 2/2013 of 29 May on the Renovation and Modernisation of Tourism in the Canary Islands, and (6) Law 1/1999 of 12 March 1999 on the Regulation of Tourism in the Community of Madrid. Regarding the environment, the laws were also sixfold: (1) Royal Decree 389/2016 of 22 October, (2) Law 5/2007 of 3 April on the National Parks Network, (3) National Parks Act 30/2014 of 2 December, (4) Law 42/2007 of 13 December on Natural Heritage and Biodiversity, (5) Law

4/1989 of 27 March on the Conservation of Natural Spaces and Wild Flora and Fauna, and (6) the European Charter for Sustainable Tourism (EUROPARC Spain, 2020).

First, Royal Decree 1274/2011 of 16 September 2011 approved the sectoral plan for nature tourism and biodiversity for 2014-2020. It commits Spain to the creation and promotion of nature tourism products and services aimed at providing unique tourism experiences in keeping with the importance and exclusivity of the country's biodiversity. It also seeks to improve the management of activities involving the natural environment in order to avoid negative impacts on biodiversity, raise awareness of its value, and attract demand for natural tourism to the country.

Tourism activity in Spain is regulated by autonomous communities, each of which provides its own legislation in line with the Ministry of Industry, Trade and Tourism. Teide National Park is in the autonomous community of the Canary Islands, and regarding its legislation, we focused on Law 7/1995 of 6 April 1995, which addresses the conservation, protection, and rational use of resources, especially the environment, landscapes, and native culture. Under European and Spanish law, urban and territorial adaptation plans, and regulations are required to achieve sustainability-oriented objectives as well as the relevant economic dynamism.

By contrast, Sierra de Guadarrama National Park stretches across two autonomous communities: Madrid and Castile and Leon. Because the Community of Madrid has the greatest jurisdiction—most of the park falls within its territory—we focused on Law 1/1999 of 12 March 1999, the general aim of which is to promote the development of sustainable tourism while protecting the environment and conserving nature.

On the subject of instruments for managing tourism in national parks, the directives of the National Parks Autonomous Agency come into play, the most relevant of which is the National Parks Act 30/2014 of 3 December 2014. That law establishes the basic legal framework to ensure the conservation of national parks in Spain, the network that they form, and the various instruments available for coordination and collaboration between public and private stakeholders and the local population. Any actions taken in those areas have to be of public utility or social interest and of benefit to the rural properties located within them. It stipulates that national parks are not available for urban development or construction. Such

activities that are already established in the territory when it is declared a national park are to be studied in order to gauge whether they are compatible with the conservation and management of the space. Sport, recreational fishing, and commercial hunting are wholly incompatible activities, as are hydroelectric operations, communications, and power networks. The parks' administration has a certain amount of control over activities involving the restoration of habitats and populations and can also define those hydroelectric, communication, and power networks if no other satisfactory solution exists. The other laws listed above do not include ecotourism in their texts.




4.3 Programmatic instruments

Most of the topics that we analysed concerning the sustainable management of tourism in national parks were considered (See Table 7). Ultimately, however, only six topics were found to be accompanied by a specific action plan: clear spatial planning policies (A2), zoning of the site for tourism (A3), the encouragement and development of appropriate partnership activity with and between stakeholders (E3), the identification of impacts generated by tourism activity (F2), the application of corrective measures for negative impacts (F3), and taking tourists' needs into account to improve facilities and/or activities (G3). The carbon footprint (B4) is not mentioned whatsoever in the management plans for the parks in Colombia and Costa Rica. In Spain's case, the topic is mentioned, but no specific actions are proposed. Actions aimed at improving accessibility for disabled people (I3) are included only in the case of the Teide National Park. Neither of the Costa Rican national parks mentions the identification of the community's sociocultural authenticity (C2), the intention to contribute to intercultural understanding and tolerance (C3), or the design, construction, or operation of low-impact facilities (I2). The Spanish cases also exclude actions on both subtopics. In the following sections, we delve deeper into each country's use of programmatic instruments to manage their national parks.

Table 7. Sustainable tourism topics and subtopics included in programmatic instruments for the management of national parks.

Topic	Sub-topic	Colombia		Costa Rica		Spain	
		LN	CH	MA	VP	TE	SG
A	Site planning for conservation	A1					
		A2					
		A3					
B	Site protection and optimal use of environmental resources	B1					
		B2					
		B3					
		B4					
C	Respect for local communities and cultural heritage	C1					
		C2					
		C3					
D	Economic impacts and appropriate distribution of benefits	D1					
		D2					
		D3					
E	Participation and consensus between stakeholders and public administration	E1					
		E2					
		E3					
F	Monitoring tourism performance and impacts	F1					
		F2					
		F3					
		F4					
G	Tourist satisfaction and experience	G1					
		G2					
		G3					
H	Environmental education, training and sensitization	H1					
		H2					
		H3					
I	Infrastructure and low impact facilities	I1					
		I2					
		I3					
J	Risk management	J1					
		J2					
K	Communication and promotion	K1					
		K2					
		K3					
		K4					

LN=Los Nevados; CH=Chingaza; MA=Manuel Antonio; VP=Volcán Poas; TE=Teide; SG= Sierra de Guadarrama.

The subtopic was not mentioned 
 The subtopic was mentioned but without any specific action to be implemented 
 The subtopic was mentioned in connection with a specific action in the plan 

Source: Author's elaboration.

4.3.1 Colombia

The documents analysed for Colombia were the Los Nevados Ecotourism Management Plan (Parque Nacional Natural Los Nevados, 2017) and the Chingaza Ecotourism Management Plan (Parque Nacional Natural Chingaza, 2015).

For Los Nevados National Park, 29 of the 35 subtopics were mentioned along with specific actions. Four subtopics, albeit included, were not accompanied by actions: energy management (B3), anticipating, monitoring, and minimising existing and potential conflicts with local residents (E1), good communication and engagement between local residents, businesses, visitors, and the authority in charge of the protected area (E2), and the promotion of the park for the type of tourism expected (K4). Carbon footprint (B4) and accessibility for disabled people (I3) were not included.

For Chingaza National Park, 28 of the 35 subtopics were mentioned along with specific actions. Five subtopics, though included, were not accompanied by actions: water management (B2), the fair distribution of socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders (D1), anticipating, monitoring, and minimising existing and potential conflicts with local residents (E1), accessibility for disabled people (I3), and safety procedures in the case of emergencies (J2). Energy management (B3) and carbon footprint (B4) were not included.

4.3.2 Costa Rica

For Costa Rica, we analysed Manuel Antonio National Park's Sustainable Tourism Plan (SINAC, 2015a) and Volcán Poás National Park's Sustainable Tourism Plan (SINAC, 2015b). For Manuel Antonio National Park, 24 of the 35 subtopics were already developed or included in the action plan, while another seven subtopics were mentioned without any specific action plan: the identification of the community's sociocultural authenticity (C2), the fair distribution of socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders (D1), tourists' satisfaction (G1), quality standards (G2), accessibility for disabled people (I3), the identification of possible risks in the area (J1), and safety procedures in the case of emergencies (J2). Four subtopics were not included: carbon footprint (B4), tourism intended to contribute to intercultural understanding and tolerance (C3), interpretative experiences

for visitors to help to raise environmental sensitivity (H3), and the design, construction, and operation of low-impact facilities (I2).

For Volcán Poás National Park, 22 of the 35 subtopics were already developed or included in the action plan, while another six were mentioned without any specific action plan: water management (B2), energy management (B3), tourism intended to contribute to intercultural understanding and tolerance (C3), direct financial benefits for conservation (i.e. admission fee; D3), quality standards (G2), and the identification of possible risks in the area (J1). Seven subtopics were not included: carbon footprint (B4), the identification of the community's sociocultural authenticity (C2), the fair distribution of socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders (D1), training in sustainable tourism for locals and staff (H2), the design, construction, and operation of low-impact facilities (I2), accessibility for disabled people (I3), and safety procedures in the case of emergencies (J2).

4.3.3 Spain

In Spain's case, we analysed the Sector Plan for the Use and Management (PRUG) of Teide National Park (PRUG, 2002) and the Tenerife Tourism Strategy 2017-2020/2030 (2017), specifically those parts directly related to tourism at the site. For Sierra de Guadarrama National Park, we analysed the Autonomous Community of Madrid's PRUG of the Sierra de Guadarrama National Park (PRUG, 2020) and the Report on Activities in the National Park in 2017 (Parque Nacional Sierra de Guadarrama, Comunidad de Madrid & Junta de Castilla y León, 2018). In the case of Teide National Park, all subtopics were present in the documents. Whereas 21 of the 35 subtopics were mentioned with specific actions, 14 others, albeit included, were not accompanied by actions: tourism activity adapted to the site's conservation measures (B1), carbon footprint (B4), the identification of local communities and their needs (C1), the identification of the community's sociocultural authenticity (C2), tourism intended to contribute to intercultural understanding and tolerance (C3), the fair distribution of socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders (D1), good communication and engagement between local residents, businesses, visitors, and the authority in charge of the protected area (E2), the establishment of monitoring programmes and indicators (F1), preventive measures where necessary (F4), tourists' satisfaction (G1), quality standards

(G2), training programmes for staff and the local population (H1), training in sustainable tourism for locals and staff (H2), and the identification of the site' s natural and cultural attractions for tourism (K1).

In the case of Sierra de Guadarrama National Park, 17 of the 35 subtopics were mentioned with specific actions, while 13 subtopics, though included, were not accompanied by actions: the establishment of carrying capacity (A1), clear spatial planning policies (A2), carbon footprint (B4), the identification of local communities and their needs (C1), the identification of the community' s sociocultural authenticity (C2), good communication and engagement between local residents, businesses, visitors, and the authority in charge of the protected area (E2), the application of corrective measures for negative impacts (F3), tourists' satisfaction (G1), quality standards (G2), training programmes for staff and the local population (H1), accessibility for disabled people (I3), the identification of possible risks in the area (J1), and the promotion of the park for the type of tourism expected (K4). Amongst other results, five topics were not mentioned: the participation of locals in tourism and income-earning opportunities (D2), direct financial benefits for conservation (i.e. admission fee; D3), anticipating, monitoring, and minimising existing and potential conflicts with local residents (E1), the identification of the site' s natural and cultural attractions for tourism (K1), and market research and design of the ecotourism product (K3).

5. Discussion

We found that all of the organisational instruments for the national parks in all three countries are divided between those related to the environment and its protection and those related to tourism. Coordination between the different sectors involved is therefore important in managing national parks. In Spain, local administrations are highly relevant, whereas park management is centralised in Colombia and Costa Rica.

Our comparison of the three countries revealed dissimilarities in the territorial organisational instruments, including natural boundaries that do not coincide with administrative boundaries, that might complicate the management of national parks in Spain. Although Costa Rica and Colombia have divisions according to ecosystems in order to conserve the territory and improve the governance of national parks, Spain has sites such as the Sierra de

Guadarrama that span multiple autonomous communities and are managed differently by their regional governments. Even though we did not intend to draw conclusions concerning the centralised versus decentralised management of parks in our research, we did observe that the information was better standardised when central requirements and guidelines for planning were in place. The decentralised structure of the parks in Spain, especially in Sierra de Guadarrama, makes normative and strategic homogenisation relatively difficult, which in complicating the guidelines and management of the park could have negative consequences for sustainability. Chingaza National Park also shares territory in different departments, but its centralised management contributes to the better management of the park.

Although the environmental sector should continue to head the management of national parks, Costa Rica and Colombia should consider how to involve more local administrations. However, in all cases, it is important for the different organisations to work in a more coordinated way, not only regarding tourism and the environmental but also at different administrative levels, from the state to municipalities. In fact, Colombia's government has recognised a weakness in incorporating criteria for sustainability, especially concerning environmental issues, in planning processes and tourism management, as well as in the articulation of authorities in the tourism and environmental sectors (Mincomercio, 2021). Such delineation is a common challenge in various destinations, even when natural resources are their core attraction (Santos-Lacueva et al., 2017, 2019).

The ways in which national parks are supervised by organisations in the three countries also differ. Spain and Colombia each have a body that is directly responsible for the management of all national parks: the NPN in Spain and the NNPS in Colombia. In Costa Rica, however, national parks are overseen by the same body responsible for all natural conservation areas (i.e. SINAC) and are therefore managed alongside all other types of protected areas. In Spain's case, the management of national parks is shared between the NPN and the autonomous community or communities in which the park is located.

Regarding normative instruments related to tourism and the environment, more laws in Colombia mention sustainable tourism or ecotourism than in the other two countries. Nevertheless, we found references to sustainable tourism in all countries. In Colombia, they are mentioned in the national regulation of tourism and in environmental legislation on the

management of national parks, which define *ecotourism* as the sort of tourism permitted in those areas. Moreover, at national level, mandatory standards for sustainable tourism have been developed for major tourism providers. In Costa Rica, sustainable tourism is clearly present in legislation aimed at tourism and includes incentives for participation in the Certification for Sustainable Tourism as well as taxes specifically used in the development of sustainable destinations. In Spain, because tourism is regulated by autonomous communities, there are differences between regions.

At the European level, there is a voluntary commitment to the management, promotion, communication, and awareness of natural protected areas. The European Charter for Sustainable Tourism (EUROPARC Spain, 2020), an initiative of the EUROPARC Federation, aims at promoting the development of sustainable tourism in Europe's protected natural areas. Future research should therefore study the results of such voluntary options versus mandatory regulations.

Another set of differences can be observed in what terms are used and where. In Colombia, national regulations for tourism and environmental legislation on the management of national parks use *ecotourism*, defined as the tourism permitted in those areas. Spanish legislation, by contrast, uses the term *sustainable tourism* based on the European Charter for Sustainable Tourism. In Costa Rica, *sustainable tourism* is clearly present in legislation aimed at tourism, as mentioned.

Regarding programmatic instruments, we found mentions in the strategic plans of various issues involving the sustainability of tourism, as summarised in Table 6. However, according to Santos-Lacueva and Velasco González (2018), their presence does not mean that solutions for those issues are provided or that any solutions provided would necessarily be implemented. Going deeper, Colombian parks included 29 and 28, Costa Rican parks 24 and 22, and Spain parks 21 and 17 subtopics regarding tourism and the environment, respectively. The national parks in Colombia and Costa Rica reflected the most internal consistency; their cases varied in only five subtopics. In Spain's case, differences surfaced in 16 subtopics between the two parks analysed.

In view of those results, we identified major room for improvement in three areas: (1) climate change, for if it and greenhouse gas emissions are not considered, then we cannot talk about

sustainable tourism (Scott, 2011); (2) accessibility for disabled people, which should be a central element of any responsible and sustainable tourism policy (UNWTO, 2013); and (3) the reinforcement of the social dimension of sustainability by paying more attention to local communities and cultural heritage.

Last, compared with Colombia and Costa Rica, Spain lacks specific programmatic instruments for the clear, well-planned management of tourism in its national parks. Whereas Colombia has an Ecotourism Management Plan for each park and Costa Rica has Sustainable Tourism Plans, Spain has no specific tourism management plan for each of its national parks.

6. Conclusion

Our research has revealed how the comparison and analysis of policy instruments enable the detection of areas for improvement in the sustainable management of tourism in national parks. Because sustainability and sustainable tourism are broad concepts that can be interpreted in various ways by various actors, it is important to have common definitions of them and clear goals for them. Even if the governance of a national park is decentralised, consensus regarding the minimum criteria to be met remains necessary. The indicators proposed in this article may facilitate the implementation of assessment systems to monitor progress on the sustainable management of tourism in national parks.

Tourism tendencies since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic reveal that natural areas are more attractive for tourists, which implies more intense pressure on natural resources. In turn, the improvement of managerial instruments to guarantee the sustainability of national parks has become more urgent than ever. In that context, our research has highlighted (1) the necessity of homogeneous instruments for national parks belonging to different regions, (2) the utility of normative instruments to prioritise certain issues that condition sustainability and that need to be compulsory for managers, businesses, and visitors, and (3) the need to address climate change, accessibility, and local communities in the management of national parks in order to guarantee the sustainability of tourism therein.

Future research should analyse other instruments, including ones pertaining to finances, communication, and improving knowledge (Velasco González, 2016), with the aim of

elucidating how tourism policies influence the development of sustainable tourism in national parks.

Acknowledgment

This publication is part of the R+D+i project ADAPTOUR (contract number PID2020-112525RB-I00) funded by MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033

References

Alarma por la masificación en algunas zonas de baño (August 16th, 2020). El Periódico de Aragón. https://www.elperiodicodearagon.com/noticias/aragon/alarma-masificacion-algunas-zonas-bano_1431940.html

Buckley, R., & Caughlan, A. (2012). Nature-Based Tourism in Breadth and Depth. In T. Singh. (Ed.) *Critical Debates in Tourism*. (pp.304-306). Channel View Publications.

Caletrió, J. (2020, March 9). Ecotourism: Is my flying saving the planet? Mobile Lives Forum <https://en.forumviesmobiles.org/2020/03/10/ecotourism-my-flying-saving-planet-13259>

Cañada, E. (2018) Dispossession, displacement and subordination in the construction of tourist areas: Central America as a conflict scenario. *Norois*, 247, 49-62. <https://doi.org/10.4000/norois.6568>

Carranco, R. (2020, September 13th). La Generalitat regulará el acceso a la Pica d'Estats por la masificación en la cima. El País. <https://elpais.com/espana/catalunya/2020-09-13/la-generalitat-regulara-el-acceso-a-la-pica-destats-por-la-masificacion-en-la-cima.html>

Decreto - Ley 2811 de 1974, por el cual se dicta el código nacional de recursos naturales renovables y de protección al medio ambiente. Diario Oficial No. 34.243, de 27 de enero de 1975. <https://funcionpublica.gov.co/eva/gestornormativo/norma.php?i=1551>

Decreto 622 de 1977, por el cual se reglamentan parcialmente el capítulo V, título II, parte XIII, libro II del Decreto- Ley número 2811 de 1974 sobre «sistema de parques nacionales»; la Ley 23 de 1973 y la Ley 2 de 1959. 16 de marzo de 1977. https://www.funcionpublica.gov.co/eva/gestornormativo/norma_pdf.php?i=8265

Dredge, D. & Jamal, T. (2015). Progress in tourism planning and policy: A poststructural perspective on knowledge production. *Tourism Management*, (51), 285-297. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.06.002>

Embassy of Costa Rica in Washington DC. (2021). About Costa Rica. Retrieved 16 March 2021, from <http://www.costarica-embassy.org/index.php?q=node/19#:~:text=Costa%20Rica%20receives%20over%201.7,%20eco%2Dtourism%20related%20activities.>

EUROPARC - España. (2020) Carta Europea Turismo Sostenible. Retrieved from <http://www.redeuroparc.org/actividades/carta-europea-turismo-sostenible>

Fontaine, G. (2015). *El análisis de políticas públicas: conceptos, teorías y métodos*. Anthropos Editorial y Flacso Ecuador.

González-Maya, J. F., Viquez-R, L. R., Belant, J. L., & Ceballos, G. (2015). Effectiveness of protected areas for representing species and populations of terrestrial mammals in Costa Rica. *PloS one*, 10(5), e0124480. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0124480>

Howlett, M. (2011). *Designing Public Policies: Principles and Instruments*. Abingdon, Routledge. Instituto Humboldt (2017, September 11). Biodiversidad colombiana: números para tener en cuenta. <http://www.humboldt.org.co/es/boletines-y-comunicados/item/1087-biodiversidad-colombiana-numero-tener-en-cuenta>

INE. (2019a). Encuesta de ocupación en alojamientos de turismo rural. <https://www.ine.es/jaxiT3/Datos.htm?t=7907#!tabs-tabla>

INE. (2019b). Anuario Estadístico de España 2019. https://www.ine.es/prodyser/pubweb/anuario19/anu19_completo.pdf

IUCN. (2008). Directrices para la aplicación de las categorías de gestión de áreas protegidas. <https://www.iucn.org/es/content/directrices-para-la-aplicacion-de-las-categorias-de-gestion-de-areas-protegidas>

IUCN. (2013). Guidelines for applying protected area management categories.. ISBN: 978-2-8317-1636-7 <https://portals.iucn.org/library/sites/library/files/documents/PAG-021.pdf>

IUCN. (2020). Spain. <https://www.iucn.org/regions/europe/resources/country-focus/spain>

Jenkins, J.M., Hall, C.M. y Mknó, M. (2014). Tourism and Public Policy: Contemporary Debates and Future Directions. In A. Lew, C. Hall & A. Williams (Eds.) *The Wiley Blackwell Companion to Tourism* (pp. 542-555). John Wiley & Sons. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118474648.ch43>

Ley 1/1999, de 12 de marzo de 1999, de Ordenación del Turismo de la Comunidad de Madrid. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 128, de 29 de mayo de 1999. <https://www.boe.es/buscar/pdf/1999/BOE-A-1999-12089-consolidado.pdf>

Ley 2/2013, de 29 de mayo, de renovación y modernización del turismo en Canarias. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 145, de 18 de junio de 2013. <https://www.boe.es/buscar/pdf/2013/BOE-A-2013-6584-consolidado.pdf>

Ley 4/1989, de 27 de marzo, de Conservación de los Espacios Naturales y de la Flora y Fauna Silvestres. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 74, de 28 de marzo de 1989, pp. 8262-8269. <https://www.boe.es/eli/es/l/1989/03/27/4>

Ley 5/2007, de 3 de abril, de Red de Parques Nacionales. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 81, de 04 de abril de 2007. <https://www.boe.es/buscar/act.php?id=BOE-A-2007-7108>

Ley 6/2009, de 6 de mayo, de medidas urgentes en materia de ordenamiento territorial para la dinamización sectorial y ordenación del turismo. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 132, de 01 de junio de 2009. <https://www.boe.es/eli/es-cn/l/2009/05/06/6/con>

Ley 7/1995, de 6 de abril de 1995, de Gestión del Turismo en Canarias. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 122, de 23 de mayo de 1995. <https://www.boe.es/eli/es-cn/l/1995/04/06/7/con>

Ley 19/2003, de 14 de abril de 2003, por la que se aprueba la Ordenanza General de Orientación y la Ordenanza de Orientación del Turismo en Canarias. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 162, de 8 de julio de 2003. https://noticias.juridicas.com/base_datos/CCAA/ic-l19-2003.html

Ley 30/2014, de 3 de diciembre, de Parques Nacionales. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 293, de 4 de diciembre de 2014. <https://www.boe.es/buscar/pdf/2014/BOE-A-2014-12588-consolidado.pdf>

Ley 42/2007, de 13 de diciembre, de Patrimonio Natural y Biodiversidad. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 299, de 14 de diciembre de 2007. <https://www.boe.es/eli/es/l/2007/12/13/42/con>

Ley 99/1993, por la cual se crea el Ministerio del Ambiente, se reorganiza el Sector Público encargado del manejo y conservación del medio ambiente y los recursos naturales renovables, se organiza el Sistema Nacional Ambiental, SINA, y se dictan otras disposiciones. Diario Oficial 41146, diciembre 22 de 1993. <https://funcionpublica.gov.co/eva/gestornormativo/norma.php?i=297>

Ley 276/1942, ley de aguas, http://www.pgrweb.go.cr/scij/Busqueda/Normativa/Normas/nrm_texto_completo.aspx?nValor1=1&nValor2=11950&nValor3=91553

Ley 300/1996, por la cual se expide la ley general de turismo y se dictan otras disposiciones. Diario Oficial 42845, julio 30 de 1996. <https://funcionpublica.gov.co/eva/gestornormativo/norma.php?i=8634>

Ley 1558/2012, por la cual se modifica la Ley 300 de 1996 - Ley General de Turismo, la Ley 1101 de 2006 y se dictan otras disposiciones. Diario Oficial 48487, 10 de julio de 2012. http://www.secretariassenado.gov.co/senado/basedoc/ley_1558_2012.html

Ley 6990/1985, ley de incentivos para el desarrollo del turismo. La Gaceta No.143, 30 de julio de 1985. <https://www.ict.go.cr/es/documentos-institucionales/legislaci%C3%B3n-de-empresas/leyes-y-reglamentos/604-ley-de-incentivos-para-el-desarrollo-turistico-1/file.html>

Ley 6043/1977, ley sobre la zona marítimo terrestre. La Gaceta No.52, 16 de marzo de 1977. http://www.pgrweb.go.cr/scij/Busqueda/Normativa/Normas/nrm_texto_completo.aspx?nValor1=1&nValor2=32006

Ley 6084/1977, ley del servicio de parques nacionales. La Gaceta No. 169, 7 de septiembre 1977.

<http://www.sinac.go.cr/ES/normativa/Leyes/Ley%20del%20Servicio%20de%20Parques%20Nacionales%20N%C2%BA%206084.pdf>

Ley 7317/2015, ley de conservación de la vida silvestre.
<https://www.conagebio.go.cr/Conagebio/public/documentos/legislacion/Leyes/Ley%20de%20Conservaci%C3%B3n%20de%20la%20Vida%20Silvestre.%20N%C2%B0%207317.pdf>

Ley 7554/1998, ley orgánica del ambiente. La Gaceta No. 101, 27 de mayo de 1998.
<http://www.sinac.go.cr/ES/normativa/Leyes/Ley%20Org%C3%A1nica%20del%20Ambiente%20N%C2%BA%207554.pdf>

Ley 7575/1996, ley forestal. La Gaceta No. 72, 16 de abril de 1996.
<http://www.sinac.go.cr/ES/normativa/Leyes/Ley%20Forestal%20N%C2%BA%207575.pdf>

Ley 7788/1998, ley de biodiversidad. 23 de abril de 1998
http://registronacional.go.cr/propiedad_industrial/documentos/pi_normativa/leyes/Ley%20biodiversidad.pdf

Ley 8724/2009, fomento del turismo rural comunitario. La Gaceta 191, 01 de octubre de 2009.
http://www.pgrweb.go.cr/scij/Busqueda/Normativa/Normas/nrm_texto_completo.aspx?nValor1=1&nValor2=66357&nValor3=107458

Matarrita-Cascante, D. (2010). Tourism Development in Costa Rica: History and Trends. *E-Review of Tourism Research*, (8), 136-156.

McCool, S.F. (2009). Constructing partnerships for protected area tourism planning in an era of change and messiness. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(2), 133-148.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580802495733>

Parque Nacional Sierra de Guadarrama, Comunidad de Madrid & Junta de Castilla y León (2018.). Memoria de actividades 2017.
<https://www.parquenacionalsierraguadarrama.es/es/visita/descargas?task=download.send&id=327&catid=5&m=0>

Min, C., Roh T. & Bak S. (2016) Growth effects of leisure tourism and the level of economic development. *Applied Economics*, (48:1), 7-17.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/00036846.2015.1073838>

Ministry for Ecological Transition and Demographic Challenge (2017). Visitas Parques Nacionales. https://www.miteco.gob.es/es/red-parques-nacionales/la-red/gestion/visitasppnn_tcm30-67283.pdf

MINCIT (2020, February 14). En 2019, comercio y turismo, motores del crecimiento económico: ministro José Manuel Restrepo. - Retrieved May 15, 2020, from <https://www.mincit.gov.co/prensa/noticias/industria/comercio-y-turismo-motores-crecimiento-economico>

MINAE & SINAC. (2017) Informe anual Estadísticas SEMEC 2016, SINAC en Números. <http://www.sinac.go.cr/ES/transprncia/Informe%20SEMEC/Informe%20SEMEC%20016.pdf>

MINAE & SINAC. (2018). Informe anual Estadísticas SEMEC 2017, SINAC en Números. <http://www.sinac.go.cr/ES/transprncia/Informe%20SEMEC/Informe%20SEMEC%20017.pdf>

MINAE & SINAC. (2019). Informe anual Estadísticas SEMEC 2018, SINAC en Números. <http://www.sinac.go.cr/ES/transprncia/Informe%20SEMEC/Informe%20SEMEC%20018.pdf>

Ministerio de Comercio, industria y Turismo - Mincomercio (2021) Política de Turismo Sostenible: Unidos por Naturaleza. <https://www.mincit.gov.co/minturismo/calidad-y-desarrollo-sostenible/politicas-del-sector-turismo/politica-de-turismo-sostenible/politica-de-turismo-sostenible-9.aspx>

Naredo, J.M. (1997) Sobre el origen, el uso y el contenido del término sostenible. Recuperado el 5 de mayo de 2009 en <http://habitat.aq.upm.es/cs/p2/a004.html>

Parques Nacionales Naturales de Colombia. (2018). Informe Anual 2017 Comportamiento de Visitantes en Áreas Protegidas con vocación ecoturística. Colombia. <https://www.parquesnacionales.gov.co/portal/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/INFORME-VISITANTES-2017-FINAL.pdf>

Parques Nacionales Naturales de Colombia. (2019). Informe anual 2018 Comportamiento de visitantes en Áreas Protegidas con vocación ecoturística.

<https://www.parquesnacionales.gov.co/portal/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/INFORME-VISITANTES-2018-FINAL.pdf>

Parques Nacionales Naturales de Colombia (n.d.). Mapa de Parques Nacionales Naturales de Colombia. Retrieved May 14, 2020, from

<https://www.parquesnacionales.gov.co/portal/es/mapa-de-parques-nacionales-naturales-de-colombia/>

Parque Nacional Natural Chingaza. (2015). Programa de Ecoturismo Estrategia de Ordenamiento Ecoturístico Parque Nacional Natural Chingaza 2015-2019.

Parque Nacional Natural Los Nevados. (2017). Plan de Ordenamiento Ecoturístico. Manizales, Colombia.

[Parsons \(1995\)](#)

Real Decreto 1274/2011, de 16 de septiembre, por el que se aprueba el Plan estratégico del patrimonio natural y de la biodiversidad 2011-2017, en aplicación de la Ley 42/2007, de 13 de diciembre, del Patrimonio Natural y de la Biodiversidad. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 236, de 30 de septiembre de 2011, pp. 103071-103280.

<https://www.boe.es/eli/es/rd/2011/09/16/1274>

Real Decreto 389/2016, de 22 de octubre, por el que se aprueba el Plan Director de la Red de Parques Nacionales. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 257, de 24 de octubre de 2016, pp. 74051-74076.

<https://www.boe.es/eli/es/rd/2016/10/22/389>

Resolución 531 de 2013, mediante la cual se adoptan los lineamientos para la planificación y ordenamiento de una actividad permitida en las áreas del Sistema Nacional de Parques Nacionales. Diario Oficial 48.811, 4 de junio de 2013.

Roth, A.N. (ed.) (2010) Enfoque para el análisis de políticas públicas. Universidad Nacional de Colombia.

- Santos-Lacueva, R., Ariza, E., Romagosa, F. & Saladié, Ò. (2019). The vulnerability of destinations to climate change: A comparative analysis of contextual socio-political factors. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(8), 1217-1238
- Santos-Lacueva, R., Anton Clavé, S. & Saladié, Ò. (2017). Discontinuidades y limitaciones de los últimos planes turísticos de España en relación a la sostenibilidad ambiental del turismo de sol y playa. *Cuadernos de Turismo*, 40, 599-626
- Santos-Lacueva, R. & Velasco González, M. (2018) Policy coherence between tourism and climate policies: the case of Spain and the Autonomous Community of Catalonia. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(10), 1708-1727. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2018.1503672>
- Scott, D. (2011). Why sustainable tourism must address climate change. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, (19), 17–34.
- Simancas Cruz, M.; Hernández Martín, R. & Padrón Fumero, N. (2020). Eds. Turismo Pos-covid-19: Reflexiones, retos y oportunidades. La Laguna: Cátedra de Turismo Caja Canarias-Ashotel de la Universidad de La Laguna. ISBN: 978-84-09-21816-5 DOI: <https://doi.org/10.25145/b.Turismopos-COVID-19.2020>
- SINAC. (2015a). Plan de turismo sostenible del parque nacional Manuel Antonio.
- SINAC. (2015b). Plan de turismo sostenible del parque nacional Volcán Poás.
- SINAC (2017) Compendio ambiental. <http://www.sinac.go.cr/ES/normativa/Leyes/Compendio%20ambiental%20SINAC%20%28Pliego%29.pdf>
- SINAC. (2020a). Parque Nacional Manuel Antonio. Retrieved August 22, 2020, from <http://www.sinac.go.cr/ES/ac/acopac/pnma/Paginas/default.aspx>
- SINAC (2020b). Parque Nacional Volcán Poas. Retrieved August 22, 2020, from <http://www.sinac.go.cr/ES/ac/accvc/pnvp/Paginas/default.aspx>
- Suribats, J., Knoepfel, P., Larrue, C., & Varonne, F. (2008). *Análisis y Gestión de Políticas Públicas*. Barcelona: Ariel.

Gobierno de Tenerife (2017). *Tenerife Tourism Strategy 2017-2020/2030*.
<https://www.webtenerife.com/es/investigacion/informes-estudios/estrategia-planificacion/documents/tenerife-tourism-strategy-2017-2020-2030.pdf>

TIES (2015). What is ecotourism. <https://ecotourism.org/what-is-ecotourism/>

Toro, J. (2013). La vulnerabilidad ambiental en la planificación turística. In E. Molina & J. Toro, J. (Eds.) *Planificación turística y desarrollo sostenible visiones, enfoques y reflexiones* (pp.73-97). Instituto de Estudios Ambientales- IDEA.

UNEP & UNWTO (2005) *Making Tourism More Sustainable - A Guide for Policy Makers*

United Nations (1992). *Convention on Biological Diversity*.

<https://www.cbd.int/doc/legal/cbd-en.pdf> Velasco, M. (2007) Distintos instrumentos para un mismo fin. Los instrumentos de las políticas públicas como herramienta para el análisis. In VIII Congreso Español de Ciencia Política y de la Administración, 18-20 Septiembre 2007, Valencia. <https://eprints.ucm.es/id/eprint/12184/>

Velasco, M. (2011). La política turística: Una arena de acción autónoma. *Cuadernos de Turismo*, 27, 953-969. <https://revistas.um.es/turismo/article/view/140301/126541>

Velasco, M. (2016). Entre el poder y la racionalidad: gobierno del turismo, política turística, planificación turística y gestión pública del turismo. *Pasos. Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, 14(3), 577-594.
https://riull.ull.es/xmlui/bitstream/handle/915/11212/PS_14_3_%282016%29_02.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y