Journal of Sustainable Tourism

CORE

Provided by International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA)

Evolution of Tourism in a Flagship Protected Area of China

Journal:	Journal of Sustainable Tourism
Manuscript ID:	JOST-2337.R3
Manuscript Type:	Paper
Keywords:	Sustainable tourism, Conservation, Protected area, Tourism area life cycle, Tourism governance, Coupled human and natural systems
Abstract:	Nature-based tourism in protected areas is increasing worldwide and has strong potential to enhance biodiversity conservation, poverty alleviation, and ultimately sustainable development. Understanding the evolution of protected areas as tourism destinations and the causes and consequences of changing supply and demand elements is essential toward sustainably managing tourism in these critical ecosystems. This research applied the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) model to illustrate and analyze the 30-year evolution of tourism in Wolong Nature Reserve. Being inscribed in UNESCO Biosphere Reserve and World Heritage programmes, Wolong is a flagship protected area in China. We showed that the Reserve experienced exploration, involvement, and development stages of TALC before tourism growth was completely halted by the Wenchuan Earthquake in 2008. We systematically investigated the changes related to the evolution of tourism and identified various internal and external driving forces. We examined the dynamics among politics, economy, and tourism growth that might propel the Reserve through the life cycle and identified significant tourism governance structural changes through the stages. The results have implications for sustainable tourism development in China's protected areas and also contributes to a broader and general understanding of the complex relationships among tourism, protected areas, and community development.

SCHOLARONE[™] Manuscripts

	1	Evolution of Tourism in a Flagship Protected Area of China
	2	Abstract
)	3	Nature-based tourism in protected areas, which is growing worldwide, offers much potential to
<u>2</u> 3 4	4	enhance biodiversity conservation, poverty alleviation, and ultimately sustainable development.
)) 7	5	Understanding the evolution of protected areas as tourism destinations and the causes and
}))	6	consequences of changing supply and demand elements is an essential step toward sustainably
2	7	managing tourism in these critical ecosystems. This research applied the Tourism Area Life
5	8	Cycle (TALC) model to illustrate and analyze the 30-year evolution of tourism in Wolong Nature
) 7 }	9	Reserve. Being inscribed in UNESCO Biosphere Reserve and World Heritage programmes,
)) 	10	Wolong is a flagship protected area in China. We showed that the Reserve experienced
2 3 1	11	exploration, involvement, and development stages of the TALC before tourism growth was
5	12	completely halted by the Wenchuan Earthquake in 2008. We systematically investigated the
3	13	changes related to the evolution of tourism and identified various internal and external driving
) <u>2</u>	14	forces. We examined the dynamics of politics, economy and tourism growth that might propel the
3 - 5	15	Reserve through the life cycle and identified significant tourism governance structural changes
5 7 8	16	through the stages. The results have implications for sustainable tourism development in China's
))	17	protected areas and also contributes to a broader and general understanding of the complex
2 2 3 1	18	relationships between protected areas, sustainable tourism and community development.
5		

19 Introduction

Nature-based tourism is a significant and growing segment of tourism (Newsome et al. 2002). The conservation sector plays an important role in the development of nature-based tourism, mainly through establishing and maintaining over 210,000 protected areas worldwide (WDPA 2014). The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), the largest global environmental organization, defines a protected area as "a clearly defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values" (Dudley 2008: 8). Conserving ecosystems and biodiversity through effective protected area management is important for tourism and recreation. IUCN classifies protected area systems based on the management objectives of the many protected areas worldwide. Seven categories of protected areas are defined, recorded and classified under this most widely recognized and used system globally – Ia. strict nature reserve; Ib. wilderness area; II. national park; III. natural monument or feature; IV. habitat/species management area; V. protected landscape/seascape; and VI. protected area with sustainable use of natural resources. Tourism and recreation are primary management objectives for category II, III, and V protected areas and secondary management objectives for category Ib and VI protected areas (Dudley 2008). Other internationally designated protected areas, such as UNESCO World Heritage sites and Biosphere reserves, are also often important travel destinations. Around the world tourist visitation to protected areas continues to increase in most developed and developing countries (Balmford et al. 2009).

39	Protected area tourism has great potential to support biodiversity conservation and reduce	
40	poverty by replacing other destructive land uses (e.g., logging), directly financing protected areas,	
41	and providing income opportunities to local communities (UNWTO 2010, Buckley 2011, Coria	
42	and Calfucura 2012). In practice, however, tourism is often found to cause ecological	
43	degradation in protected areas (Klein et al. 1995, Farrell and Marion 2001, Grossberg et al.	
44	2003) with little or no benefit to the majority or the poor of the local community (Kruger 2005,	
45	He et al. 2008, Liu et al. 2012). The fact that tourism is naturally dynamic and the processes and	
46	impacts associated with tourism are highly susceptible to change makes it difficult to harness the	
47	power of tourism for the sustainable development of destinations (Butler 1999). Understanding	
48	the evolution of a tourism destination and the causes and consequences of changing supply and	
49	demand elements is a critical step toward sustainable tourism development.	
50	The tourism area life cycle (TALC) (Butler 1980) is one of the best known models of the	
51	evolution of tourism destinations. This model represents the relationship between an increasing	
52	rate of tourist visitation and the development of a tourist destination over time as a life cycle, and	
53	it offers a relevant framework for identifying development milestones for monitoring changes	
54	resulting from tourism development. The cycle includes several stages: exploration, involvement,	
55	development, consolidation, stagnation and post-stagnation. These stages have been supported by	
56	a number of case studies (Lagiewski 2006). In other cases inconsistencies between observed	
57	tourism destination development and the TALC model were found. For example, Hovinen (1981,	
58	1982) found that tourism development in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania deviated significantly	

from the TALC model in the later stages, while Bao (1995) found that some karst caves in China had no obvious exploration and involvement stages, and visitation declined sharply after the development stage. But overall, the TALC model is a useful descriptive tool for analyzing the evolution of tourism destinations (Johnston 2001, Lagiewski 2006). Past studies on the application of the TALC model (Johnson and Snepenger 1993, Oreja Rodríguez et al. 2008, Zhong et al. 2008, Garay and Cànoves 2011) usually involved qualitative analyses to relate information on a specific destination to different TALC stages to portray the historical progression of tourism development. These studies tend to be descriptive rather than normative (Lagiewski 2006). Some attempts have been made to examine the TALC model quantitatively (Lundtorp and Wanhill 2006), but their usefulness is limited by the need for long-term data on visitors to tourism areas. Alternatively, Johnson (2001) proposed to specify mechanisms through finding "critical events" and "blurry transitions" that can be used to interpret stage or sub-stage changes. The former refers to a key event that significantly influences the development of tourism. The latter focuses on a series of more subtle events that drive stage changes. Cutoff dates of stage or sub-stage changes identified in this way are then less arbitrary. There are few studies applying the TALC model to protected areas (Johnson and Snepenger 1993, Boyd 2006, Zhong et al. 2008), possibly because protected areas are often subjected to more regulations that may interrupt tourism growth and cause deviation from the theoretical structure of TALC (Weizenegger 2006). For example, Johnson and Snepenger (1993) found that tourism in Yellowstone was more intricate than the TALC model predicted, as

different sources of information did not detect whether the park was at development or consolidation stages. In another example, Zhong et al. (2008) showed that the TALC model was applicable to tourism development in the first forest park in China, but environmental degradation took place in early rather than later stages. As the model suggests, different decisions among public and private sectors play important roles in both the demand and supply side of tourism development (Lagiewski 2006) and in shaping the life cycle process (Johnston 2001). Thus, instead of trying to fit protected area tourism growth to TALC and regarding divergence from theory as a challenge to the concept, it might be more useful to treat the model as a descriptive framework and focus on identifying and explaining the major factors (e.g., government regulation, public and private investments) that cause stage progression during destination development or result in departures from theory. Understanding the roles and consequences of various political and commercial decisions during destination development can help design and plan sustainable nature-based tourism.

Description of case study and research questions

Increases in nature-based tourism are significant in developing countries and emerging economies (Balmford et al. 2009). China is one of the largest international tourism destinations and has the largest domestic tourism market (Lew 2003). Tourism in China's protected areas has grown rapidly during the past three decades (Wang et al. 2012). A survey on 100 nature reserves across 29 provinces in China in the late 1990s showed that 82% had developed nature tourism (Han and Zhuge 2001). In 2002, the first national nature reserve ecotourism master plan was

approved by the State Forestry Administration (SFA) to guide tourism development in Wolong
National Nature Reserve (Figure 1). This signaled a new round of tourism development into the
most restrictively managed and ecologically most important protected areas of China. Since then
similar ecotourism master plans have been approved for over 30 national nature reserves (Peng
and Zhang 2011).

Wolong Nature Reserve was established in 1963 and expanded to the current size of 200,000 ha in 1975. It is part of the Southwestern China Mountains global biodiversity hotspot and most famous for hosting the largest wild population of the endangered Giant Pandas (Ailuropoda melanoleuca) (Wolong Administration Bureau 2004). The Reserve is managed by the Wolong Administration Bureau, reporting to both SFA and Sichuan provincial government. The bureau is hierarchically structured with two townships, Gengda and Wolong, under its governance. There are \sim 5,700 people living inside the Reserve, including \sim 5,000 rural residents, about three quarters of whom are Tibetan and Qiang ethnic minorities, and ~700 urban residents, mostly Reserve employees and their family members. In the 20th century they survived primarily on a subsistence-based agricultural economy that was highly dependent on natural resources (Ghimire 1994). Resources extraction activities in the Reserve once caused severe destruction of wildlife populations and habitat (Li et al. 1992, Liu et al. 2001). Conservation challenges in the Reserve started to receive extensive attention both

117 domestically and internationally in the late 1970s. In 1979, the Reserve was promoted to a

118 national nature reserve and became one of China's first three UNESCO Biosphere Reserves (Li

119	and Zhao 1989). Biosphere reserves are internationally recognized protected areas that represent
120	main terrestrial and coastal ecosystems on earth and promote sustainable development based on
121	ecosystem management and local community participation. Biosphere reserves serve in some
122	ways as 'living laboratories' for testing out and demonstrating integrated management of land,
123	water and biodiversity (MAB 2012). Various conservation programs have been proposed and
124	implemented in Wolong to stem ecological degradation and reduce poverty. Special attention
125	was given to tourism as it was perceived as an environmentally clean industry that might provide
126	job opportunities for locals (Yin and Eagles 2005, He et al. 2008).
127	In this study, the TALC framework was applied to help describe tourism development in
128	Wolong Nature Reserve since the 1980s. Using longitudinal data and a comprehensive analysis
129	of tourism development in Wolong, this study provides an in-depth understanding of protected
130	area tourism development in China. By using the experience of China under the context of
131	economic transition and globalization, this research also aims to contribute to knowledge about
132	protected area tourism management in general. The research questions are 1) did the evolution of
133	tourism in Wolong adhere or follow the stages as defined in the TALC framework; 2) what were
134	the economic, ecologic, social, and governance changes associated with the evolution of tourism;
135	and 3) what were the critical drivers of the tourism stage change?

136 Methods

137	In this study, we examined whether the TALC model represents the observed tourism
138	development in Wolong Nature Reserve, China. Data used in this study were collected through
139	primary data sources such as in-depth interviews and surveys with various local stakeholders,
140	questionnaire surveys of tourists, field surveys, and secondary data sources, such as government
141	documents, as listed in Table 1. A combination of these methods allows a comprehensive study
142	on all major types of stakeholders, including residents, reserve managers, tourism officials, and
143	tourists.
144	The local rural households survey results reported are part of a longitudinal study on
145	coupled human and natural systems (Liu et al. 2007) in the Reserve (Liu et al. 1999, An et al.
146	2001). Details about the household survey can be found in Liu et al. (2012). During the summer
147	of 2005, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 68 local tourism-related small
148	businesses, including 40 hotel/restaurant owners or managers, nine leisure farm owners, eight
149	souvenir shop owners, five retail shop owners, and six street vendors. This sampled covered over
150	80% of each type of the small businesses, except the leisure farm owners (~45%). The others
151	either were not reachable or refused to be interviewed. The information collected included
152	business conditions, perceptions of tourism development, and knowledge about tourists' activities
153	inside the Reserve.
154	In 2005, 15 government and reserve officials were surveyed about the history of tourism

155 development in the Reserve and their perceptions on development. While the individuals were

	156	not randomly selected, they cover a range of age (23-52 years old), education levels (primary to
	157	college education), and working experience in the Reserve (3 to >20 years). In 2007, a focus
)	158	group on tourism development issues in the Reserve was organized with the participation of 12
3	159	managers. These managers were specifically selected from the tourism-related government
+ 5 6	160	segments, such as tourism, natural resource management, and socioeconomic development
, 3 9	161	departments. Interviews and in-depth discussions with the director and two vice directors of the
) 2	162	Reserve were conducted at various times in 2007-2009 and 2012-2014.
3	163	A tourist survey was conducted at the most visited attraction in the Reserve, the China
5	164	Conservation and Research Centre for the Giant Pandas (CCRCGP), where the world's largest in-
3))	165	captive panda population was located. Random intercepts were conducted at the exit of
2 2 3	166	CCRCGP during July and August of 2006 (54 out of 62 days) and June to October of 2007 (62
+ 5 5	167	out of 153 days). The first tourist leaving the center every 15 minutes during the day time was
3	168	intercepted. The structured survey questionnaire covered basic information about the tourist's
,) 	169	trip characteristics, trip motivation, and main activities in the Reserve. A total of 1,663 tourists
2 3 1	170	were intercepted, including 502 international tourists (30.2%) and 1,161 domestic tourists
5	171	(69.8%). The non-response rate for international and domestic tourists are 13.8% and 43.5%
3))	172	respectively, resulting in a final sample size of 1,090.
2	173	A tourism infrastructure inventory was conducted in 2006 and 2007 to record the
5	174	locations of the main tourism attractions, hotels/restaurants, and most used trails in the Reserve
) 7	1.7.5	

175 using a Global Positioning System receiver.

Secondary data used in this research included local government's annual statistical reports about visitor arrivals, annual tourism receipts and other tourism-related information, publications (i.e., peer-reviewed journals, books, news articles) about the Reserve, and road and zoning maps. A four-category giant panda habitat suitability map (highly, moderately, marginally, and non-suitable) was reviewed (Viña et al. 2007). Based on annual visitor volumes, tourism receipts (Figure 2), and the change in accommodation capacity (Figure 3), tourism development in the Reserve was segmented into five stages by identifying critical events and the occurrence of major changes in tourism. Key indicators and their ecological, social, and economic impacts were summarized and compared within stages. Major changes in tourism planning and governance through the stages, some as driving forces and others as consequences of tourism development, were investigated. Results **Tourism development stages and driving forces** A summary of five tourism development stages in the Reserve over the past three decades, including key events that are critical in causing and defining stages, is provided in Table 2. Exploration stage (1980-1990) The late 1970s and the early 1980s mark the initiation of China's recent economic boom, which was also the onset of China's tourism development (Zhang 2003). In 1980 an internationally collaborative giant panda research project was initiated in Wolong Nature Reserve

by the Chinese Ministry of Forestry (now State Forestry Administration) and the World Wildlife Fund (WWF). This event attracted global attention as it was the first ever scientific collaboration on conservation between China and the Western world. The collaboration led to fruitful research findings on wild giant panda ecology and also resulted in the establishment of the world's first giant panda breeding facility in the Reserve, which was later named the China Center for the Research and Conservation of the Giant Pandas (CCRCGP) (Schaller 1994). In 1983, a mass flowering and die-off of arrow bamboo (Bashania fabri Yi), a major staple food species for wild pandas, swept across the Reserve (Linderman et al. 2005). Field research showed that giant pandas did not change their daily and seasonal behavioral patterns despite the significant decline of their food base (Johnson et al. 1988), however, it was widely, though mistakenly, believed by the public and the government that the bamboo flowering would lead to panda starvation and mortalities (Schaller 1994, Pan et al. 2001). News about the pandas and the Reserve made headlines on both domestic and international media and soon brought to the Reserve donations and aid from around the world. This attracted thousands of visitors every year, mostly "foreign scientists and delegates and domestic and international panda fans" (Wolong Administration Bureau 2004), even though at the time all foreigners were required to get special entry permission from the Minister of Forestry (Sichuan Province Committee on Annal Compilation 1996). Throughout the 1980s, CCRCGP's efforts to breed pandas in captivity were largely

unsuccessful. The first and only surviving panda bred in1980s was born in 1986 (Schaller 1994).

Britain's Prince Phillip visited the Reserve as the president of WWF and named the panda "Blue Sky" (Wolong Administration Bureau 2004). With the increasing media exposure, the Reserve started to establish its fame as the "Hometown of the Giant Pandas" both internationally and domestically. During this period, annual tourist arrivals in the Sichuan province increased at a rate of almost 25%, but the annual tourist arrivals to the Reserve fluctuated between 10,000 and 20,000 (Figure 2). This was partly due to the poor road and the lack of tourism infrastructure in the Reserve. For example, it was recorded that over 3000 tourists from Chengdu city, including 200 foreigners, visited the Reserve during the Labor Day holiday (May 1st) in 1983. Only a small proportion of the visitors were able to stay in the Reserve's government guesthouses with a total of 120 beds, and many others had to stay in reserve staff dorms (Wolong Administration Bureau 2004).

The lack of tourism growth in the 1980s was due to the lack of infrastructure for accessing the Reserve, available basic tourism services, and ultimately the cautiousness of the Reserve administration. The earliest plan to develop tourism was prepared in 1982 (Li et al. 1992). The discussions on whether and how to develop tourism in the Reserve continued throughout the decade. The Reserve authorities thought there was not enough knowledge to support a tourism development plan that would result in minimal potential negative impacts on the ecosystem and the endangered pandas. During this period, while visitors were generally welcomed, there was no specific government segment on tourism management and local people had little involvement in tourism.

Involvement stage (1991-1997)

236	In the 1990s, China's economic reform and "open-door" policy entered a new era and the
237	country started to receive more international visitors (Yu 1992, Zhang 2003). In Sichuan
238	province, giant panda habitat was identified as its top tourism resource and the previous
239	restrictions on tourist visitation (i.e., requirement of entry permission) to Wolong Nature Reserve
240	were lifted (Sichuan Province Committee on Annal Compilation 1996). Further discussions on
241	developing tourism in the Reserve led the managers to believe that carefully planned and
242	managed tourism might bring multiple benefits. The perceived benefits included: a) using tourism
243	income to supplement support from the central government and improve the financial status of
244	the Reserve administration and their employees, b) diversifying the income sources of local
245	residents to help reduce their extraction and consumption of natural resources (e.g., through
246	fuelwood harvest and illegal logging) so that habitats of wildlife, such as the giant pandas, could
247	be better protected; c) providing job opportunities for family members of the Reserve
248	administration officials; and d) enhancing communication and information exchange with outside
249	parties for obtaining more external support (Li et al. 1992).
250	The Wolong Tourism Development Inc., a government-owned company, was formed in

1991 to organize and regulate the increasing visitation to the Reserve. This marked a major change in the government's role in tourism development from reactive to active tourism

management. In 1997 the company was reformed into Tourism Department, an official

governmental section under the Wolong Administration Bureau, to take charge of all tourism

planning and management issues. Potential attractions were carefully selected by the Reserve administration to balance the economic and conservation needs, and all were distributed along the main road to avoid disturbing wild pandas. These attractions included CCRCGP, a wild animal and plant specimen museum at Wolong township, and short trails into two valleys (Li et al. 1992). During this period, the CCRCGP achieved ground-breaking successes for in-captive panda breeding. In 1991, twin pandas were born in CCRCGP with one cub surviving to adult age. Every year since then, at least one new panda cub was born and survived in CCRCGP. In 1996 the first captive born and surviving panda was relocated to San Diego Zoo in the US as one of a pair of pandas in a new cooperative breeding and conservation program between the two countries. This panda, named Bai Yun, became the most productive female panda outside China and has so far given birth to five cubs. These pandas continued to put Wolong Nature Reserve in the global media. The successful panda breeding program at CCRCGP further publicized the Reserve. The

268 annual tourist arrivals doubled from the previous period to about 25,000-30,000 (Figure 2). The 269 situation started to change since a multi-year provincial road construction project, funded by the 270 provincial government, was initiated in 1992. The main goal of this project was to strengthen the 271 economic, social, and political linkage between the eastern urban regions of the Sichuan province 272 and the mountainous regions in the west, where ethnic minorities, such as Tibetan and Qiang 273 people, reside. The improved road in the Reserve made large-scale infrastructure construction 274 possible and more efficient. In 1995, Wolong Hotel, the first of its kind in the Reserve with 126 beds, was built with partial financial support from the provincial government. In 1996 another hotel, Sitongyuan Hotel, was constructed with investments from the Sichuan Department of Transportation (Wolong Administration Bureau 2004). During this period some small businesses, almost all owned and managed by the relatives of the Reserve officials, emerged to provide food and lodging to tourists. Some rural residents started to sell local products, mainly non-timber forest products (NTFPs) such as mushrooms and herbal medicines, to tourists (He et al. 2008). Development stage I (1998-2004) By the late 1990s, forest and panda habitat loss and degradation in the Reserve peaked. largely because the "fence and fine" type of conservation policies in the past failed to address local people's livelihood needs (Liu et al. 2001). To change this situation, a new comprehensive conservation plan, the Wolong National Nature Reserve Master Plan, was developed by the Reserve and approved by the SFA in 1998. The plan officially aligned tourism as a new strategy within a larger conservation framework. Outcomes of the plan were to draw funds from tourism revenue (e.g., admission to attractions) for forest and panda habitat conservation and provide alternative income for local farmers through tourism-related activities. A zoning management system, including experimental, buffer and core zones, was established as a guideline for regulating human activities and mitigating negative human impacts across the Reserve (Figure 4). Also in 1998 the Sichuan province government announced the first Sichuan Province Tourism Development Master Plan (Wu 2001), in which giant panda was branded as the

province's tourism image marker and Wolong panda tourism was given special development
priorities. In 2000 the giant panda was further promoted as one of the top three tourism brands of
the province. Two government agencies, the Sichuan Department of Tourism and the Sichuan
Department of Forestry, were identified to work with Wolong Administration Bureau to make a
panda tourism plan, which later evolved into the *Wolong National Nature Reserve Ecotourism Development Master Plan* and was officially approved by SFA in 2002.

The completion of the provincial road in 1999 connected the Reserve to an important tourism destination cluster in Sichuan, collectively called the Greater Jiuzhaigou Loop Touring Area (Figure 1), which covers several National Scenic Areas and World Heritage Sites and receives millions of domestic and international tourists every year. As a result annual tourist arrivals in the Reserve almost tripled in the development stage I compared to the involvement stage (Table 3).

A new round of tourism infrastructure development was implemented in this period. The first project was the new Panda Hotel constructed by CCRCGP in 1999. In 2001 Wolong Investment Co., Ltd. was established by the Reserve administration with tourism management and promotion as one of its key businesses. But the escalating demand for tourism soon dwarfed the Reserve's limited financial (e.g., investment), physical (e.g., infrastructure), and human (e.g., tourism management expertise) capital. In 2002 the Reserve signed a contract with the Luneng Xinyi Ltd. Co., a state-owned enterprise from Eastern China, to set up a new non-listed shareholding tourism corporation, with the Reserve receiving 45% of the total shares and Luneng

55% (Su et al. 2007). Luneng invested 42 and 30 million Yuan (1 Yuan = 0.1208 US Dollar in 2002) respectively to build a new four-star level Wolong Hotel with 668 beds (a five-fold increase from the 126 beds in the old Wolong Hotel), which was completed in 2004 and operated by Luneng), and the Wolong China Giant Panda Museum, completed in 2003 and operated by the Reserve. Another tourism development project in this period took place in the Zhonghe river area of the Reserve, which administratively belongs to the Sanjiang Township of Wenchuan County (Figure 4). Limited by steep mountain ridges, the Reserve's capacity in monitoring human encroachment in this area was low. Since the late 1990s, the Wenchuan county government developed tourism infrastructure in the area (State Forestry Administration 2006). In 1999, the Reserve established a tourism development agreement in this area with the Wenchuan county government under the supervision of Sichuan Department of Forestry. Not only the existing tourism infrastructure in the buffer zone around Zhonghe (Figure 4) was kept, a new three-star hotel in the buffer zone and a series of tourism facilities penetrating three kilometers into the core zone of the Reserve were also constructed. During this stage local participation in tourism increased significantly. Over 30 household-owned hostels and restaurants, almost all distributed around the township centers and

of micro-businesses emerged, mainly to sell local products and souvenirs to the tourists. Souvenir
demand stimulated the establishment of a family workshop factory in the Wolong Township.

beside the main road, were constructed, together providing over 1000 beds. A significant number

335 Development Stage II (2004-2007)

In 2004, the Reserve and Luneng decided to terminate their contract and all shares of Luneng were transferred to Wolong Investment Co., Ltd.. In 2005, another collaboration was established between the Wolong Administration Bureau and the Jiuzhaigou National Scenic Area Administration. Jiuzhaigou was the first World Natural Heritage Site and the most popular nature-based tourism destinations in Sichuan with over 2,000,000 annual arrivals (Lew 2003). A new Jiuzhaigou-Wolong Giant Panda Ltd. Co. was formed to manage tourism in the Reserve, in which Wolong had 20% of the total shares and Jiuzhaigou 80%. Full tourism managerial power over all major tourism attractions (e.g., CCRCGP, panda museum) and facilities (e.g., Wolong Hotel) was given to the more experienced Jiuzhaigou side in order to intensify tourism marketing using the brand of Wolong pandas, construct new tourism facilities and attractions to enrich visitor experiences, and enhance the underdeveloped services and transportation systems. Between 2005 and 2007, over 80 million Yuan were spent in infrastructure construction in the Reserve (Wolong Administration Bureau 2009). In 2006, a World Natural Heritage site, namely Sichuan Giant Panda Sanctuaries, was officially designated by UNESCO, with Wolong Nature Reserve as its most important part (IUCN 2006). A new ecotourism development plan (2006-2015) was developed by the Wolong Administration Bureau and approved by the Sichuan provincial government. Another round of

353 construction was implemented to further widen and upgrade the provincial road.

354	Although the road construction and the related traffic restriction significantly limited and
355	reduced the visitation to the Reserve in 2007, the rise of tourist arrivals in the Reserve was
356	apparent (Figure 2). Tourists came from around the world. Our sample at CCRCGP between
357	2006 and 2007 included 434 international tourists from 27 foreign countries and 656 domestic
358	tourists from 29 provinces in China. The top five origins of foreign tourists were Japan (13.3%),
359	the United States (7.9%), the United Kingdom (5.0%), France (2.8%), and the Netherlands
360	(2.6%). The top five origins of domestic tourists were Sichuan (28.6%), Chongqing (15.8%),
361	Guangdong (6.4%), Beijing (2.7%), and Shanghai (2.0%). Wild pandas, natural forests and
362	wildlife, and unspoiled air and water were the top three reasons that motivated the domestic
363	tourists to come to the Reserve; for international tourists, the top three were natural forests and
364	wildlife, wild pandas, and pandas in captivity (Table 4). Late spring to early fall marked the
365	main tourism season, with two peaks in early May (the labor day holiday in China) and early Oct.
366	(the national day holiday in China) (Figure 5).
367	Besides the day-trippers who spent time at the conventional attractions (e.g., panda center,
368	museum) in the Reserve, several new tourist groups emerged in this period. One group was
369	"Nong Jia Le" (or leisure farm) tourists, who visited the Reserve mainly for the cool weather and

370 unspoiled air and water in the summer. These tourists were mainly city dwellers from the nearby

371 Chengdu metropolitan area. They usually spent weekends in private hostels or stayed a

372 prolonged period in local people's houses, and some chose to walk the neighboring trails during

373 daytime. Another group was backpackers, who came mainly for hiking, camping, birding, or

enjoying the forest and alpine landscapes. The backpackers frequented the trails across the Reserve. These trails used to be the main routes connecting the reserve to outside and were mostly abandoned after the first road was paved into the Reserve in the 1960s. Backpackers followed these trails into the buffer and core zones of the Reserve, where highly suitable panda habitat is located (Figure 4). According to Regulations of the People's Republic of China on Nature Reserves (State Council of China 1994), tourists are banned from visiting areas outside the experimental zone in nature reserves. But the lack of monitoring staff and the low frequency (seasonal before 2008 and biannual after 2008) of field monitoring made it impossible to ban backpackers from entering the forests or collect enough disturbance data to inform management. As a result, almost none of the tourists' activities along trails have been regulated or controlled in the Reserve (field observation).

Earthquake and post-quake reconstruction (2008 – present)

The Olympic Games were held in Beijing, China in 2008. With the road upgrade completed in early spring, a peak tourism year for the Reserve was anticipated, but two unexpected events struck this region and resulted in a complete stop of tourism. The Tibetan unrest (Yeh 2009) in spring 2008 led the government to enforce travel restrictions to western Sichuan. The Labor Day holiday of 2008 witnessed a much lowered visitation to the Reserve. On May 12th of 2008, a 7.9 Mw earthquake struck the Reserve at its eastern boundary. The earthquake and its associated landslides led to 48 causalities (6 reserve employees, 35 rural residents, and 7 visitors), over 100 visitors missing and extensive damage to the infrastructure,

	394	including the road network and the tourism facilities in the Reserve (Viña et al. 2011). Many
	395	houses and other buildings collapsed or were damaged. All in-captive pandas raised in CCRCGP
)	396	were relocated to its branch base in Ya'an, Sichuan. A series of plans were drawn to rebuild the
	397	infrastructure and restore the ecosystem. Tourism was identified as the main tool of economic
	398	development after the completion of infrastructure reconstruction. Recently, a newer version of
;)	399	the ecotourism master plan has been proposed, with 1.382 billion Yuan (1 Yuan = 0.1464 \$US in
)	400	2009) to be spent by 2015 (Wolong Administration Bureau 2009). Plans call for the repair or
	401	replacement of damaged infrastructures, including roads and tourism facilities. To accommodate
) ; ,	402	the new demand for lands to build tourism infrastructure the zoning scheme was modified, with
;))	403	an extra 102 ha of highly suitable habitat allocated into the experimental zone (Hull et al. 2011),
	404	and many local households relocated and their cropland converted into built areas.
	405	Post-earthquake tourism development in the Sanjiang township territory within the
	406	Reserve was first revitalized. The Sanjiang area was promoted to a National Scenic Area in 2009,
)	407	the first of its kind in the Wenchuan Earthquake affected region (Xinhua News Agency 2012). A
-	408	new round of infrastructure development and tourism growth in this area may further encroach
, ,	409	wildlife habitat from southeast of the Reserve. Inside the Reserve, Wolong Administration
;	410	Bureau originally expected volumes of tourists would return soon and tourism would replace
-	411	agriculture and become the dominant economic segment after reconstruction (Wolong
	412	Administration Bureau 2009). However, frequent landslides and debris flow every summer since
	413	2008 recurrently damaged the newly reconstructed road and delayed the completion of new
)		

CCRCGP facilities in the Huangcaoping area of Gengda township to 2014 (Figure 4). A third round of road reconstruction was started in 2012 and will take at least four years. Because of the disaster risks, Wolong Administration Bureau declared the Reserve too dangerous to visit and thus closed for tourism until 2016. While some individual tourists and small groups still pass through the Reserve occasionally, no official tourist-related data have been collected since May 2008.

420 Changes related to tourism development

421 Economic changes

When tourism started in the Reserve in early 1980s, the local economy was a subsistence-based agricultural economy (An et al. 2006). Over the last 20 years per capita annual net income of local residents increased steadily from 1,297 Yuan in 1990 to 3,010 Yuan in 2006 (Table 3). Several factors contributed to the income increase: a) shifting crop type from corn and potato to cash crops (e.g., cabbage and radish); b) temporary labor jobs inside the Reserve on road or other infrastructure construction projects; and c) participating in commercial activities, mainly tourism-related. Based on a random sample of 220 local households, the percentage of tourism-participating households increased from 4% in 1998 to 27% in 2006. A multivariate analysis showed that households with greater financial (e.g., income), physical (e.g., access to key tourism sites), human (e.g., education), and social (e.g., kinship with local government officials) capital and less natural capital (e.g., cropland) were more likely to participate in tourism activities (Liu et al. 2012).

early 2013 (Table 3).

434	By 2006 the service industry (mainly tourism) was still a small part of the rural economy
435	in the Reserve, although its importance had been increasing since the 1980s (Table 3). Economic
436	leakage, flowing of tourist expenditures to outside investors or managers that does not directly
437	benefit local economy and community, was significant and the level of leakage continued to
438	increase. While the annual service industry total income in the rural community more than tripled
439	from Development I stage to Development II stage, the total share of tourism receipt by the rural
440	community was almost halved from 8.5% to 4.7% (Table 3). These statistics have been
441	confirmed by findings reported by He et al. (2008) and from the interviews with the tourist
442	business participants. In 2006, about 60% of the employees in the three government-owned
443	hotels were from outside the Reserve. About half of the employees in the private hotels and
444	restaurants were nonlocals, and they held higher-paying and more prestigious managerial jobs.
445	Almost all raw food products were purchased from nonlocal sources. The locally-owned souvenir
446	factory stopped its production in 2005, after which all souvenirs sold in the Reserve were
447	purchased from outside. Furthermore, opportunities to participate in tourism within the local
448	community were also unevenly distributed (Liu et al. 2012).
449	After the 2008 earthquake, tourism has not been an income source for local households
450	for five years and the local service industry has shrunk to the level of early 2000s. The annual

rural per capita net income plummeted in 2008, but increased significantly afterwards, mainly

from the highly-paid local laborer jobs in the reconstruction projects, which came to an end by

Ecological changes

Forests and panda habitat in the Reserve experienced severe destruction and degradation in the 20th century (Liu et al. 2001, Viña et al. 2007). This declining trend has recently been stopped, largely attributed to the implementation of two national forest conservation and restoration programs (Viña et al. 2011). Under these programs, logging in natural forests for any purpose was banned and over three quarters of cropland on steep slopes in the Reserve was reclaimed into tree plantation. Subsidies were provided to local households through these two programs. A large amount of labor was released from fuelwood harvesting and cropping, and tourism became one option for some of this labor. Households with less cropland tended to have a higher likelihood of participating in tourism, and households operating a private hostel, restaurants, or Nong Jia Le, tended to reduce fuelwood consumption more than those who did not (Liu et al. 2011). Tourism infrastructure construction in the Reserve, especially in the Development II stage, was mostly conducted with low direct impact on vegetation. Timber needed for construction was imported from outside and tree felling only occurred when the road was widened. Thus, tourism appears to have positively supported the forest recovery in the Reserve. Visitation to key panda habitats of the Reserve was increasing before the earthquake. The

471 current zoning scheme included less than half of the highly suitable panda habitat inside the core
472 zone and 15.4% and 39.6% of the highly suitable panda habitats are inside the experimental and
473 buffer zones, respectively (Figure 4). The core zone is not immune to tourists' disturbance.

474 Many trails extend well into the core zone through large patches of highly suitable panda habitat
475 (Figure 4). More than 95% of the locations where panda presence was confirmed in the Reserve
476 between 2005 and 2007 were at least 500 meters away from heavily used trails (Liu 2012).
477 Increasing road traffic of tourists may also discourage wildlife from visiting road side areas and
478 thus further segregate wildlife populations on the two sides of the road.
479 Social changes

The social impact of tourism in the Reserve was mixed. Tourism helped raise more awareness about conservation in the Reserve and made the Reserve more visible both domestically and internationally. Tourism induced more interactions and information exchanges between local people and outside visitors, although the information flows primarily from locals to tourists (Liu et al. 2012). People from households participating in tourism tended to perceive more non-financial benefits in addition to more negative environmental impacts of tourism, compared with households not participating in tourism. Interviews in 2005 and 2007 showed that most local residents considered tourism a good thing for the Reserve, and some complained about the unequal distribution of tourism job opportunities in the Reserve (Liu et al. 2012). Conflicts between local jobless young people and nonlocal tourism industry employees were on the rise. Overall, while many local residents, especially those who operated small businesses, embraced tourism, some others might react in different ways by tolerating tourists traveling through their villages or adjusting to the times when tourists were near their daily lives by being in their homes (Ap and Crompton 1993).

Governance change

The tourism governance structure in the Reserve changed substantially through the stages. In the Exploration stage, the Reserve administration was the main tourism management body and various international non-profit organizations (e.g., WWF) and national governance agencies (e.g., Ministry of Forestry) were also involved. In the Involvement stage, financial support from the provincial government played a critical role in tourism infrastructure development, such as road and hotels, and a local government-owned company, the Wolong Tourism Inc., emerged. Late in the Development I stages, an outside corporation, Luneng, become part of the management body. By the Development II stage, all attractions were operated and managed by a complex parastatal corporation, largely controlled by an outside public organization, Jiuzhaigou. Tourism development in the Sanjiang part of the Reserve was operated by the private sector with strong support from the Wenchuan County and Aba Prefecture governments. The alterations in tourism management body and emergence of new tourism governance structures in the Reserve are important indicators of stage changes. On the one hand, the local community and government lacked the necessary financial capacity and human resources to meet the increasing demands for tourism in the Reserve. On the other hand, regional and national authorities held increasing interests in regulating tourism development in the Reserve.

Discussion

	512	In this study we found that the observed tourism development in Wolong Nature Reserve
)	513	generally conforms to the exploration, involvement, and development stages described in the
<u>}</u>	514	TALC model. Although the Reserve has not completed a full cycle or even reached the
, ,	515	consolidation stage, the TALC model is useful in characterizing a general pattern of tourism
5	516	growth in the Reserve. Annual tourist numbers, tourism receipt, and tourism facilities all
)	517	increased significantly from stage to stage as one would expect from a TALC model. Key events
5 - -	518	that significantly affected relevant policies to tourism development in the Reserve were crucial in
; ,	519	modifying the speed and shape of tourism growth. The Reserve experienced prolonged
,))	520	exploration and involvement stages, and then fast development in the late 1990s and the early
) - 	521	2000s, when the Reserve's management master plan and tourism master plan were approved.
;	522	The World Heritage site designation in 2006 is another critical event boosting tourism growth;
, ;)	523	however the earthquake in 2008 changed its course. This study also creates a platform for
)	524	studying how tourism in the Reserve recovers from the disaster and starts another life cycle.
- - -	525	Strong fluctuation in visitor volume within stages is obvious, which was caused by
) ; ;	526	various endogenous and exogenous uncertainties. For example, the spike in tourist arrival in 1983
;))	527	was triggered by the media report on "panda starvation" due to bamboo flowering and die-off; the
2	528	reasons for the tourist number drops in 1989, 2003, and 2008 can be attributed to the Tiananmen
	529	square protest (Lüsted 2010), the burst of SARS (Liu 2003), and the 2008 earthquake (Figure 2).
) ,	530	These rises and falls suggest that tourism is an open and complex system exposed to risk and

Page 28 of 51

uncertainty from many sources. For example, the Reserve and the surrounding areas in western Sichuan mountains are within a global hotspot for landslide and earthquake disasters. Historically human population density in these regions was low as a result of low land fertility and high natural hazards. In a commentary on the Sichuan province's tourism development master plan, Wu (2001) pointed out that a major flaw of the plan was the high level of investment in developing mass nature-based tourism in the disaster-prone region of western Sichuan. Before the 2008 earthquake, landslides and debris flow were common in Wolong Nature Reserve, and in less than one hour, a flood in summer 2007 damaged millions of Yuan of infrastructure construction in the Zhenghe valley of the Reserve. The 2008 earthquake is a vivid example showing how fragile a tourism system can be when facing natural disasters. Landslide and debris flows induced by heavy rainfall events occurring every summer since 2008 have further damaged the newly re-constructed infrastructure and significantly impacted the local community's normal social and economic exchange with the outside. Based on current information, the Reserve will be classified as an officially inactive tourism destination for at least eight years following the earthquake. This is the first reported case of a natural disaster having such a profound impact on tourism growth as a factor within the TALC model. The case of Wolong offers an interesting laboratory for assessing the dynamics of governance in regulating tourism growth. Tourism is naturally multi-faceted and dynamic. Policy-making and management for tourism and protected areas can be distinct and fragmented

550 (Eagles 2009). Different organizations (government, private, non-profit, and community) deal

with different aspects of protected area tourism according to their respective interests and responsibilities and form various kinds of partnerships. Eagles (2009) used ten criteria for governance to evaluate eight common management models of tourism partnership development in parks and protected areas, and concluded that generally models with high degrees of for-profit operations ranked lower and high nonprofit sector involvement ranked higher in terms of the ideals of good governance. This is supported by a recent review of public-private partnerships on tourism in South Africa's national parks (Varghese 2008). Applying Eagles' management models to the case of Wolong, we found a series of changes in tourism governance structure through stages (Table 3). In the exploration stage, the Reserve adopted a national park model. With the establishment of Wolong Tourism Inc., a parastaltal model was taken in the involvement stage. In the early development stage, a public and for-profit combination model was used, which was considered an "theoretically viable" innovation in China's protected area tourism governance (Su et al. 2007), but lasted for only two years. Later a new partnership between two protected area agencies (Wolong and Jiuzhaigou) emerged to form another tourism enterprise. In this unique partnership one protected area agency transferred full tourism managerial rights to another protected area that was more experienced in developing tourism. Each change in governance structure was a critical event that can be used to interpret sub-stages or stage changes in the TALC model. Analyzing the governance structural changes also helped us understand how the major

570 driving forces of tourism development changed over time and across organizational scales. In the

early stages, internal financial needs of both rural residents and the Reserve's management body drove tourism growth. The national and international level partner agencies and provincial government (Table 4) mostly provided policy and intellectual support. In the later stages, tourism boomed in the surrounding region. By the early 2000s the Reserve had been surrounded by a cluster of nature and culture tourism destinations (Figure 1). Both the Aba prefecture and Sichuan provincial governments considered this "Hometown of the Giant Pandas" their greatest tourism asset and a critical piece to complete the regional tourism development arrangement. Therefore, a combination of internal needs and external pressure fueled the fast tourism growth in this period. By 2007, the Aba prefecture government had gained almost full control of tourism development in the Reserve through Jiuzhaigou National Scenic Area and Wenchuan County, which had caused serious concern for some senior officials of the Reserve. As a flagship reserve in China, Wolong's conservation and tourism management serves as a role model for many other reserves. In China nature reserves are disproportionally distributed in the economically underdeveloped western provinces, where tourism has been identified as a major economic development and poverty reduction strategy for over a decade (Yeung and Shen 2004). As demand for tourism resources increases in western China, these nature reserves inexorably become the targets. The approval of Wolong's ecotourism master plan by SFA in 2002 was a strong top-down signal to other reserves and their regional authorities about the national government's positive attitude toward developing tourism in these most strictly managed protected areas and has triggered a new wave of ecotourism development in national nature

reserves (Luo and Wang 2010). Considering the important role of tourism and recreation in national parks around the world, it can be expected that Wolong Nature Reserve will continue being a laboratory in testing sustainable tourism development models in China's protected areas. Conclusions Past tourism growth in Wolong shows a high level of dynamism in protected area tourism in the context of China during a period of great societal transition. As an important process of telecoupling (socioeconomic and environmental interactions over distances, (Liu et al. 2013)), tourism has connected Wolong with many distant parts of the world. Applying the TALC model to longitudinal data from one of China's prominent protected areas, we systematically tracked major changes in the system and explored the forces that drove those changes. This approach enabled us to "better understand the 'why' as well as the 'what' of destination development and cycles" (Butler 2011: please insert the page number for this quote here). While the tourism growth trend in Wolong before 2008 generally follows what would be predicted by the TALC model, this trajectory was significantly altered by a single event and its aftermath. This longitudinal analysis also sets ground for future research to systematically monitor recent and near-future tourism-related activities and understand how a complex and fragile tourism system (Farrell and Twining-Ward 2004) reorganizes in response to new destination characteristic and enters into the next stage of the destination life cycle.

1 2	
3	
2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
6 7	
8	
9 10	
11 12	
13	
14 15	
16 17	
18	
19 20	
21 22	
9 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30	
24 25	
26 27	
28	
29 30	
31	
33	
34 35	
32 33 34 35 36 37	
38	
39 40	
41 42	
43	
44 45	
46 47	
48	
49 50	
51 52	
53	
54 55	
56 57	
58	
59 60	

609	References
610	
611	An, L., He, G., Liang, Z., & Liu, J. (2006). Impacts of demographic and socioeconomic factors
612	on spatio-temporal dynamics of panda habitat. Biodiversity and Conservation, 15(8), 2343-
613	2363.
614	An, L., Liu, J., Ouyang, Z., Linderman, M., Zhou, S., & Zhang, H. (2001). Simulating
615	demographic and socioeconomic processes on household level and implications for giant
616	panda habitats. <i>Ecological Modelling</i> , 140(1-2), 31–49.
617	Ap, J., & Crompton, J. L. (1993). Residents' strategies for responding to tourism impacts.
618	Journal of Travel Research, 32(1), 47–50.
619	Balmford, A., Beresford, J., Green, J., Naidoo, R., Walpole, M., & Manica, A. (2009). A global
620	perspective on trends in nature-based tourism. PLoS Biology, 7(6), e1000144.
621	Bao, J. (1995). A study on tourist development of karst caves. Acta Geographica Sinica, 50(4),
622	353–359.
623	Boyd, S. W. (2006). The TALC model and its application to national parks: A Canadian example.
624	In R. W. Butler (Ed.), The Tourism Area Life Cycle: Vol. 1. Application and modifications.
625	Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications.
626	Buckley, R. C. (2011). Tourism and environment. Annual Review of Environment and Resources,
627	<i>36</i> (1), 397–416.

1 2		
$\begin{array}{c} 3\\ 4\\ 5\\ 6\\ 7\\ 8\\ 9\\ 10\\ 11\\ 2\\ 3\\ 14\\ 5\\ 16\\ 17\\ 18\\ 9\\ 21\\ 22\\ 3\\ 4\\ 25\\ 26\\ 27\\ 8\\ 9\\ 30\\ 1\\ 32\\ 33\\ 45\\ 36\\ 37\\ 8\\ 9\\ 41\\ 42\\ 34\\ 45\\ 67\\ 8\\ 9\\ 51\\ 52\\ 54\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55$	628	Butler, R. (2011). Tourism Area Life Cycle, Contemporary Tourism Reviews. Series Editor:
	629	Chris Cooper. Goodfellow Publishers Limited, Woodeaton, Oxford. Retrieved December,
	630	12, 2012.
	631	Butler, R. W. (1980). The concept of a tourist area cycle of evolution: implications for
	632	management of resources. The Canadian Geographer/Le Géographe Canadien, 24(1), 5-12.
	633	Butler, R. W. (1999). Tourism - an evolutionary perspective. In J. G. Nelson, R. W. Butler, & G.
	634	Wall (Eds.), Tourism and sustainable development: monitoring, planning, managing,
	635	decision making (2nd ed., Vol. 52). Waterloo, Canada: University of Waterloo Department
	636	of Geography publication series.
	637	Coria, J., & Calfucura, E. (2012). Ecotourism and the development of indigenous communities:
	638	The good, the bad, and the ugly. <i>Ecological Economics</i> , 73(1), 47–55.
	639	Dudley, N. (Ed.). (2008). Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories.
	640	Gland, Switzerland: IUCN. Retrieved from http://data.iucn.org/dbtw-wpd/edocs/PAPS-
	641	016.pdf
	642	Eagles, P. F. J. (2009). Governance of recreation and tourism partnerships in parks and protected
	643	areas. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 17(2), 231–248.
	644	Farrell, B. H., & Twining-Ward, L. (2004). Reconceptualizing tourism. Annals of Tourism
	645	Research, 31(2), 274–295.
	646	Farrell, T. A., & Marion, J. L. (2001). Identifying and assessing ecotourism visitor impacts at
56 57 58 59 60	647	eight protected areas in Costa Rica and Belize. Environmental Conservation, 28, 215–225.

648	Garay, L., & Cànoves, G. (2011). Life cycles, stages and tourism history: The Catalonia (Spain)
649	experience. Annals of Tourism Research, 38(2), 651-671.
650	Ghimire, K. B. (1994). Conservation and social development: a study based on an assessment of
651	Wolong and other panda reserves in China. (p. 54). United Nations Research Institute for
652	Social Development.
653	Grossberg, R., Treves, A., & Naughton-Treves, L. (2003). The incidental ecotourist: measuring
654	visitor impacts on endangered howler monkeys at a Belizean archaeological site.
655	Environmental Conservation, 30, 40–51.
656	Han, N., & Zhuge, R. (2001). Ecotourism in China's Nature Reserves: Opportunities and
657	Challenges. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 9(3), 228.
658	He, G., Chen, X., Liu, W., Bearer, S., Zhou, S., Cheng, L. Y. Q., Liu, J. (2008). Distribution
659	of economic benefits from ecotourism: A case study of Wolong Nature Reserve for Giant
660	Pandas in China. Environmental Management, 42(6), 1017–1025.
661	Hovinen, G. R. (1981). A tourist cycle in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania. The Canadian
662	<i>Geographer</i> , 25(3), 283–286.
663	Hovinen, G. R. (1982). Visitor cycles: Outlook for tourism in Lancaster County. Annals of
664	Tourism Research, 9, 565–583.
665	Hull, V., Xu, W., Liu, W., Zhou, S., Vina, A., Zhang, J., Liu, J. (2011). Evaluating the
666	efficacy of zoning designations for protected area management. Biological Conservation,
667	144(12), 3028–3037.

2 3		
4 5	668	IUCN. (2006). Sichuan Giant Panda Sanctuary – Wolong, Mt. Siguniang and Jiajin Mountains.
6 7 8	669	World Heritage Nomination - IUCN Technical Evaluation. Retrieved from
9 10 11	670	http://whc.unesco.org/archive/advisory_body_evaluation/1213.pdf
12 13 14	671	Johnson, J. D., & Snepenger, D. J. (1993). Application of the tourism life cycle concept in the
15 16	672	Greater Yellowstone Region. Society and Natural Resources, 6(2), 127–148.
17 18 19	673	Johnson, K. G., Schaller, G. B., & Hu, J. (1988). Responses of giant pandas to a bamboo die-off.
20 21 22	674	National Geographic Research, 4(2), 161–177.
23 24 25	675	Johnston, C. S. (2012). Shoring the foundations of the destination life cycle model, Part 1:
26 27	676	Ontological and epistemological considerations. <i>Tourism Geographies</i> , 3(1), 2–28.
28 29 30	677	Klein, M. L., Humphrey, S. R., & Percival, H. F. (1995). Effects of ecotourism on distribution of
31 32 33	678	waterbirds in a wildlife refuge. Conservation Biology, 9(6), 1454–1465.
34 35 36	679	Kruger, O. (2005). The role of ecotourism in conservation: Panacea or Pandora's box?
37 38 39	680	Biodiversity and Conservation, 14(3), 579–600. http://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-004-3917-4
40 41	681	Lagiewski, R. M. (2006). The application of the TALC model: A literature survey. In R. W.
42 43 44	682	Butler (Ed.), The Tourism Area Life Cycle: Vol. 1. Application and modifications. Clevedon,
45 46 47	683	UK: Channel View Publications.
48 49 50	684	Lew, A. A. (2003). Tourism in China. New York: Haworth Hospitality Press.
51 52 53	685	Li, C., Zhou, S., Xian, D., Chen, Z., & Tian, Z. (1992). A study of the management of Wolong
54 55	686	Nature Reserve (in Chinese). In Wolong Nature Reserve & Sichuan Normal College (Eds.),
56 57 58		
59 60		

2
3 4 5
4
5
6
7
8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15
9
10
11
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
10
10
20
21
$\begin{array}{c} 16\\ 17\\ 18\\ 19\\ 20\\ 21\\ 22\\ 23\\ 24\\ 25\\ 26\\ 27\\ 28\\ 30\\ 31\\ 32\\ 33\\ 34\\ 35\\ 36\\ 37\\ 38\\ 39\\ 40\\ \end{array}$
23
24
25
26
20
21
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
42 43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

687

The Animal and Plant Resources and Protection of Wolong Nature Reserve (pp. 309–372).

688 Chengdu, China: Sichuan Publishing House of Science & Technology.

Linderman, M., Bearer, S., An, L., Tan, Y. C., Ouyang, Z. Y., & Liu, H. G. (2005). The effects of

690 understory bamboo on broad-scale estimates of giant panda habitat. *Biological*

- 691 *Conservation*, *121*(3), 383–390.
- 692 Liu, J. (2003). SARS, wildlife, and human health. *Science*, *302*(5642), 53–53.

693 Liu, J., Dietz, T., Carpenter, S. R., Folke, C., Alberti, M., Redman, C. L., ... Provencher, W.

- 694 (2007). Coupled human and natural systems. *Ambio*, *36*(8), 639–649.
- 695 Liu, J., Hull, V., Batistella, M., DeFries, R., Dietz, T., Fu, F., ... Zhu, C. (2013). Framing

696 Sustainability in a Telecoupled World. *Ecology and Society*, *18*(2).

697 Liu, J., Linderman, M., Ouyang, Z., An, L., Yang, J., & Zhang, H. (2001). Ecological degradation

698 in protected areas: The case of Wolong Nature Reserve for giant pandas. *Science*,

699 292(5514), 98.

700 Liu, J., Ouyang, Z., Taylor, W. W., Groop, R., Tan, Y., & Zhang, H. (1999). A framework for

701 evaluating the effects of human factors on wildlife habitats: The case of giant pandas.

702 *Conservation Biology*, *13*(6), 1360–1370.

To Liu, W. (2012). Patterns and Impacts of Tourism Development in A Coupled Human and Natural

- 704 *System*. Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, USA.
- Liu, W., Vogt, C. A., Luo, J., He, G., Frank, K. A., & Liu, J. (2012). Drivers and Socioeconomic
- The Impacts of Tourism Participation in Protected Areas. *PloS One*, 7(4), 35420.

2 3		
4 5	707	Liu, W., Yang, W., Luo, J., He, G., & Liu, J. (2011). Effects of payment for ecosystem service
6 7 8	708	programs on rural energy transition. Presented at the US Society for Ecological Economics
9 10 11	709	Annual Meeting.
12 13 14	710	Li, W., & Zhao, X. (1989). China's Nature Reserves. Beijing: Foreign Language Press.
15 16	711	Lundtorp, S., & Wanhill, S. (2006). Time path analysis and TALC stage demarcation. In R. W.
17 18 19	712	Butler (Ed.), The Tourism Area Life Cycle: Vol. 2. Conceptual And Theoretical Issues.
20 21 22	713	Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications. Retrieved from
23 24 25	714	http://books.google.at/books?id=AicuoXTVrU0C
26 27	715	Luo, J., & Wang, L. (2010). Problems on ecotourism in nature reserves in China. Journal of
28 29 30	716	Beijing Forestry University, 32(3).
31 32 33	717	Lüsted, M. A. (2010). Tiananmen Square Protests. ABDO Publishing Company. Retrieved from
34 35 36	718	http://books.google.com/books?id=bAoR-tiyrOoC
37 38 39	719	MAB. (2012). FAQ - Biosphere Reserves? Retrieved from
40 41 42	720	http://www.unesco.org/mab/doc/faq/brs.pdf
43 44	721	Newsome, D., Moore, S. A., & Dowling, R. K. (2002). Natural area tourism: ecology, impacts,
45 46 47	722	and management. Buffalo, N.Y.: Channel View Publications.
48 49 50	723	Oreja Rodríguez, J. R., Parra-Lopez, E., & Yanes-Estevez, V. (2008). The sustainability of island
51 52 53	724	destinations: Tourism area life cycle and teleological perspectives. The case of Tenerife.
53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	725	Tourism Management, 29(1), 53–65.

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
0	
0	
9	
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
$2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \\ 11 \\ 12 \\ 13 \\ 14 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 17 \\ 18 \\ 9 \\ 20 \\ 22 \\ 22 \\ 24 \\ 25 \\ 26 \\ 27 \\ 28 \\ 9 \\ 31 \\ 32 \\ 33 \\ 34 \\ 35 \\ 6 \\ 37 \\ 8 \\ 30 \\ 31 \\ 32 \\ 33 \\ 34 \\ 35 \\ 6 \\ 37 \\ 8 \\ 30 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31$	
21	
22	
23	
24	
25	
26	
27	
28	
20	
20	
21	
21	
<u>ఎ</u> 2	
33	
34	
35	
36	
37	
38	
39	
40	
41	
42	
43	
44	
45	
46	
47	
47	
40 49	
49 50	
51	
52	
53	
54	
55	
56	
57	
58	
59	
60	

726	Pan, W., Lv, Z., Zhu, X., Wang, D., Wang, H., Long, Y., Zhou, X. (2001). A chance for
727	lasting survival. Beijing, China: Beijing University Press.
728	Peng, L., & Zhang, Q. (2011). How many nature reserves have been eroded. Southern Weekend.
729	Retrieved from www.infzm.com/content/57363
730	Schaller, G. B. (1994). The last panda. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
731	Sichuan Province Committee on Annal Compilation (Ed.). (1996). Annals of Tourism in Sichuan
732	Province. Chengdu: Sichuan People's Press.
733	State Council of China. Regulations of the People's Republic of China on Nature Reserves
734	(1994).
735	State Forestry Administration. (2006). The third national panda survey report. Beijing: Chinese
736	Forestry Press.
737	Su, D., Wall, G., & Eagles, P. F. J. (2007). Emerging governance approaches for tourism in the
738	protected areas of China. Environmental Management, 39(6), 749–759.
739	UNWTO. (2010). Tourism and the millennium development goals. Madrid: United Nations
740	World Toruism Organization. Retrieved from http://www.unwto.org/tourism&mdgsezine/
741	Varghese, G. (2008). Public-private partnerships in South African national parks: The rationale,
742	benefits and lessons learned. In A. Spenceley (Ed.), Responsible tourism: Critical issues for
743	conservation and development (pp. 69-84). London: Earthscan. Retrieved from
744	http://www.artyforum.info/documents/MicrosoftWord-VARGHESE.pdf

2 3		
4 5	745	Viña, A., Bearer, S., Chen, X., He, G., Linderman, M., An, L., Liu, J. (2007). Temporal
6 7 8	746	changes in connectivity of Giant Panda habitat across the borders of Wolong Nature
9 10 11	747	Reserve, China. Ecological Applications, 17(4), 1019–1030.
12 13 14	748	Viña, A., Chen, X., McConnell, W. J., Liu, W., Xu, W., Ouyang, Z., Liu, J. (2011). Effects of
15 16	749	natural disasters on conservation policies: The case of the 2008 Wenchuan Earthquake,
17 18 19	750	China. Ambio, 40(3), 274–284.
20 21 22	751	Wang, G., Innes, J. L., Wu, S. W., Krzyzanowski, J., Yin, Y., Dai, S., Liu, S. (2012). National
23 24 25	752	park development in China: conservation or commercialization? Ambio, 41(3), 247-61.
26 27	753	WDPA. (2014). World Database on Protected Areas. Retrieved from www.ProtectedPlanet.net
28 29 30	754	Weizenegger, S. (2006). The TALC model and protected natural areas: African examples. In R.
31 32 33	755	W. Butler (Ed.), The Tourism Area Life Cycle: Vol. 2. Conceptual And Theoretical Issues.
34 35 36	756	Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications. Retrieved from
37 38 39	757	http://books.google.at/books?id=AicuoXTVrU0C
40 41	758	Wolong Administration Bureau. (2004). The History of Wolong Nature Reserve (in Chinese).
42 43 44	759	Chengdu, China: Sichuan Science and Technology Press.
45 46 47	760	Wolong Administration Bureau. (2009). Wolong National Nature Reserve Ecotourism
48 49 50	761	Development Plan.
51 52 53	762	Wu, B. (2001). A commentary on the Sichuan Province Tourism Development Master Plan (in
54 55 56 57	763	Chinese). City Planning Review, 25(4), 21–25.
58 59 60		

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
<i>i</i>
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
$\begin{array}{c} 2\\ 2\\ 3\\ 4\\ 5\\ 6\\ 7\\ 8\\ 9\\ 10\\ 11\\ 12\\ 13\\ 14\\ 15\\ 16\\ 17\\ 18\\ 19\\ 20\\ 22\\ 22\\ 24\\ 25\\ 26\\ 27\\ 28\\ 29\\ 30\\ 13\\ 23\\ 34\\ 35\\ 36\\ 37\\ 8\\ 20\\ 20\\ 20\\ 20\\ 20\\ 20\\ 20\\ 20\\ 20\\ 20$
19
20
21
22
22
23
24
20
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
40 41
41
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
50 57
58
50 59
60

764	Xinhua News Agency. (2012). Sanjiang township at Wenchuan, China: From a disaster area to a
765	4A level scenic spot. Retrieved from http://news.xinhuanet.com/2012-
766	09/23/c_113174917.htm
767	Yeh, E. T. (2009). Tibet and the Problem of Radical Reductionism. Antipode, 41(5), 983–1010.
768	http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8330.2009.00704.x
769	Yeung, Y. M., & Shen, J. (2004). Developing China's West: A Critical Path To Balanced
770	National Development. Chinese University Press. Retrieved from
771	http://books.google.com/books?id=qS6vcLH5nQAC
772	Yin, W. C., & Eagles, P. F. J. (2005). Development and Ranking of Tourism Management Goals
773	for Wolong and Wangland Giant Panda Reserves, China. International Journal of
774	Biodiversity Science and Management, 1(3), 137–149.
775	Yu, L. (1992). Emerging Markets for China's Tourism Industry. Journal of Travel Research,
776	<i>31</i> (1), 10–13. http://doi.org/10.1177/004728759203100103
777	Zhang, G. (2003). China's Tourism since 1978: Policies, Experiences and Lessons Learned. In A.
778	A. Lew, L. Yp, J. Ap, & G. Zhang (Eds.), <i>Tourism in China</i> (pp. 13–34). Binghamton, NY:
779	The Haworth Hospitality Press.
780	Zhong, L., Deng, J., & Xiang, B. (2008). Tourism development and the tourism area life-cycle
781	model: A case study of Zhangjiajie National Forest Park, China. Tourism Management,
782	29(5), 841-856. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.10.002
783	

21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 99 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52
40 41 42 43 44 45 46

786 Tables

787 Table 1. A summary of the data used in this study.

Data	Years	Sources	
Reserve official interviews	2005–2014	Conducted by authors	
Reserve official focus group	2007	Conducted by authors	Duimen
Tourism infrastructure inventory	2005-2007	Conducted by authors	Primary data
Tourist survey	2006-2007	Conducted by authors	uata
Local business survey	2005	Conducted by authors	
Local business survey	2003	He et al. 2008	
Local household survey	2005, 2007	Liu et al. 2012	
Panda habitat assessments	2001, 2007, 2008	Viña et al. 2011	
Annual rural economic statistics	1980s-2012	Government data	Secondary
Annual tourist arrivals	1980-2007	Government data	data
Annual tourism receipt	1997–2007	Government data	
Reserve management master plan	1998, 2014	Government document	
Reserve tourism master plan	2001, 2007, 2009	Government document	

er plan 2001, 2007, 2009 Government weeksen

TALC Stage	Year	Key events
	1979	The Reserve was designated as a UNESCO Biosphere Reserve
Exploration	1980	An internationally collaborative giant panda research project winitiated in the Reserve by the Chinese Ministry of Forestry ar WWF.
	1983	Mass flowering and die-off of bamboo in Wolong Nature Rese attracted global media attention; the Chinese Conservation and Research Center of Giant Pandas (CCRCGP) was established.
	1991	The government-owned Wolong Tourism Development Inc. w formed to organize and regulate the increasing visitation to the Reserve.
Involvement	1996	Two pandas from CCRCGP were sent to San Diego Zoo in the United States as part of a new cooperative breeding and conservation program between China and the US.
	1997	The Tourism Department under the Wolong Administration B was established.
	1998	The Wolong Nature Reserve Master Plan was approved.
Development	1999	A provincial highway connecting the Reserve to outside was completed.
I	2000	The Wolong Nature Reserve ecotourism master plan (2001-20 was approved by the Sichuan provincial government.
	2002	The Wolong Nature Reserve ecotourism master plan (2001-20 was approved by the State Forestry Administration.
	2004	The construction of Wolong Hotel, the only four-star hotel in reserve, was completed.
Development II	2006	The Sichuan Giant Panda Sanctuaries World heritage site was designated by UNESCO; a new round of road upgrade was sta
	2007	Tourism master plan II (2007-2015) was approved by State For Administration.
	2008	The 7.9 Mw Wenchuan Earthquake struck the reserve on May
	2009	Tourism master plan III (2009-2015) was compiled.
Post-quake reconstruction	2012	The third round of road reconstruction was started.
reconstruction	2013	The Reserve was identified as one of the two nature reserves i Sichuan Department of Forestry's pilot effort in national park development.
	2014	The Reserve, supported by Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, organized the first all-stakeholder workshop to discus future tourism development.

58

Stage	Exploration	Involvement	Development I II		Post-quake Reconstruction	
Years	1980-1990	1991-1997	1998- 2003	2004- 2007	2008-present	
Mean annual tourists (thousand)	14.1	27.9	77.5	180.0	N/A	
Mean annual tourism receipt (million Yuan)	N/A	1.40	5.51	32.40	N/A	
% International tourist	1.93%	2.15%	12.43%	6.72%	N/A	
Total number of panda cubs born and survived at CCRCGP	0	14	38	51	63	
Per capita annual net income of rural residents *(Yuan)	1247	1795	2415	3010	1860 ('08) 6628 ('12)	
Rural community annual service industry income (million Yuan)	0.02	0.10	0.42	1.42	0.91	
% Service industry income in rural economy	0.7%	1.9%	3.3%	7.1%	2.7%	
% tourism receipt to rural residents	No Data	No Data	8.5%	4.7%	N/A	
Tourism management body	Wolong Wolong Wolong			ourism Department, nvestment Co., Ltd.		
Major external partners	Ministry of Forestry, WWF	Sichuan Provincial Government	Lunen Xinyi L Co.	g	zhaigou National Scenic Area, Aba Prefecture Government	
Tourism management model	National park model	Parastatal model	Public a for-pro- combinat mode	fit tion	Mixed model	

Table 3. Major changes across the tourism area life cycle stages in Wolong Nature Reserve.

* Data from the years 1990, 1997, 2003, 2006, 2008, and 2012 (inflation adjusted to year 2012) were used to represent approximately the end of each stage. Year 2007 and 2013 data were not available.

Page 45 of 51

Table 4. Importance of different tourism resources in the Reserve as perceived by the tourists
(n=1,090) (measured using a five-point Likert scale: 1. Not important; 2. Somewhat important; 3.
Important; 4. Very important; 5. Extremely important) based on surveys at CCRCGP in 2006 and
2007. Student's t-tests were conducted for comparison between domestic and international
tourists.

Mean SD Mean SD p-value Giant pandas in the wild 4.39 0.89 4.14 1.06 <0.0001 Giant pandas in captivity 3.74 1.08 4.07 1.02 <0.0001 Unspoiled air and water 4.19 0.94 3.91 1.11 <0.0001 Natural forest and wildlife 4.27 0.91 4.21 0.95 0.13 Tibetan & Qiang culture 3.24 1.23 3.32 1.27 0.86	т • р	Dome	estic	Interna	tional	
Giant pandas in captivity 3.74 1.08 4.07 1.02 <0.0001 Unspoiled air and water 4.19 0.94 3.91 1.11 <0.0001 Natural forest and wildlife 4.27 0.91 4.21 0.95 0.13	Tourism Resources	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	p-value
Unspoiled air and water 4.19 0.94 3.91 1.11 <0.0001	Giant pandas in the wild	4.39	0.89	4.14	1.06	< 0.0001
Natural forest and wildlife 4.27 0.91 4.21 0.95 0.13	Giant pandas in captivity	3.74	1.08	4.07	1.02	< 0.0001
	Unspoiled air and water	4.19	0.94	3.91	1.11	< 0.0001
Tibetan & Qiang culture 3.24 1.23 3.32 1.27 0.86	Natural forest and wildlife	4.27	0.91	4.21	0.95	0.13
	Tibetan & Qiang culture	3.24	1.23	3.32	1.27	0.86

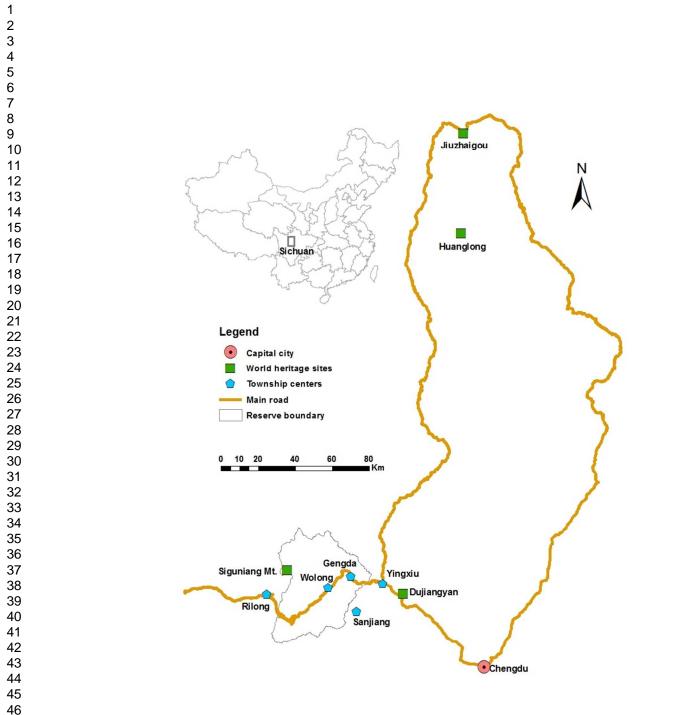
801 Figures legends

Figure 1. The location of Wolong Nature Reserve in the Greater Jiuzhaigou Touring Area inSichuan, China.

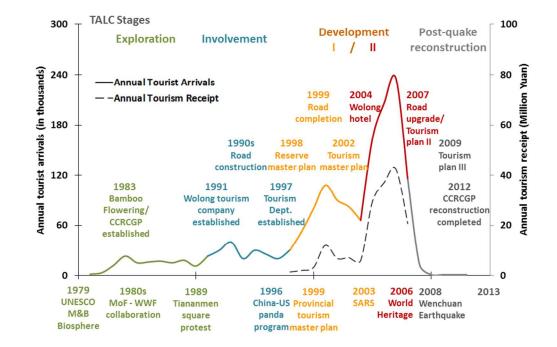
Figure 2. Trends of annual tourist arrivals (solid line) and tourism receipt (dashed line) in
Wolong Nature Reserve from 1980 to 2013 (Data on tourism receipt were only available since
1997, when the reserve's Department of Tourism was established).

- Figure 3. Numbers of hotels and beds available in Wolong Nature Reserve from 1993 to 2007.
- Figure 4. Distribution of trails and natural attractions with tourist activities across Wolong Nature
 Reserve in Development II stage. Township names are shown with underscores.
- 21 ⁸¹³ 22 814
- ²³ 815 Figure 5. Seasonality of tourist visitation to the China Center for Research and Conservation of
 ²⁴ 815 Figure 5. Seasonality of tourist visitation to the China Center for Research and Conservation of
 - 816 the Giant Pandas (CCRCGP) at Wolong Nature Reserve in Development II stage (2004-2006
 - 817 data used).



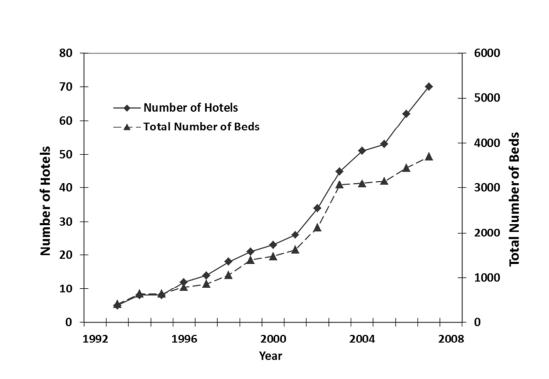


The location of Wolong Nature Reserve in the Greater Jiuzhaigou Touring Area in Sichuan, China. 215x279mm (96 x 96 DPI)

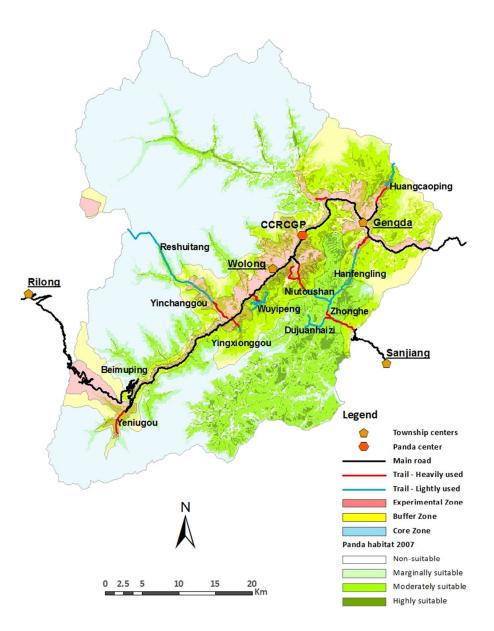


Trends of annual tourist arrivals (solid line) and tourism receipt (dashed line) in Wolong Nature Reserve from 1980 to 2013 (Data on tourism receipt were only available since 1997, when the reserve's Department of Tourism was established).

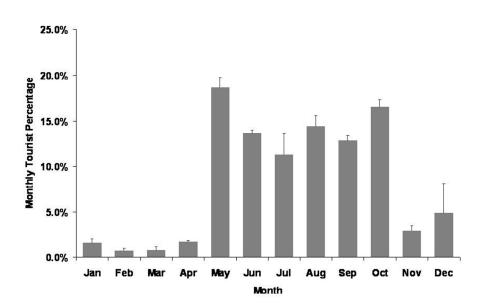
254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Numbers of hotels and beds available in Wolong Nature Reserve from 1993 to 2007. 254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Distribution of trails and natural attractions with tourist activities across Wolong Nature Reserve in Development II stage. Township names are shown with underscores. 215x279mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Seasonality of tourist visitation to the China Center for Research and Conservation of the Giant Pandas (CCRCGP) at Wolong Nature Reserve in Development II stage (2004-2006 data used). 254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)