Partnership for Facilitating Sustainable Protected Area Management:

A Case Study of Jiuzhaigou National Park in South-Western China

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Philosophy in Development Studies

At

Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand

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2011
Abstract

The number of global protected areas is continuously increasing and nearly 13% of the earth’s land area is now covered by protected areas. How to manage protected areas — over the long-term and in a sustainable way — has become critical. The protected area management paradigm has shifted, in order to promote inclusive practices, such as the involvement (and thus the participation) of multiple stakeholders within management. This participation is about the local community, tour operators, research agencies, NGOs and government agencies working in partnership. However, what partnership actually means in practice is not so easily understood. Using a case study approach, this thesis examines three different partnerships within a Chinese National Park — Jiuzhaigou National Park — in order to provide a thorough understanding of partnership in practice, within the context of the sustainable management of protected areas.

This thesis concludes that partnership is important for the facilitation of management of protected areas in a sustainable way. However, in practice, partnership does not necessarily have to be strong in all the areas of partnership principles. The partners in this study are not really sharing power in regards to decision-making but, nevertheless, these particular partnerships demonstrate three positive elements: the stakeholders hold a strongly shared goal that is compatible with the management objectives for protected areas; the stakeholders hold different resources that can be pooled to achieve the shared goal; and stakeholders perceive and gain mutual benefits, through working together. It is suggested, however, that an effective protected area partnership should consider the role of mutual transparency, accountability, trust, respect and influence. These key elements would further strengthen harmony within the relationship between the partners and, as a result, it would lead to more desirable long term management and sustainable outcomes for protected areas.
Acknowledgements

I am heartily thankful to my first supervisor, Prof. Regina Scheyvens, for her guidance, solid advice and encouragement, from the initial to the final level, which kept me going, in order to develop a full understanding of the subject. Special thanks also go to my second supervisor, Dr. Rochelle Stewart-Withers, for her constructive feedback on my final draft, which has been very helpful at the completion of this study. My thanks also go to Prof. Steve Harrell and Tom Hinckley, from the University of Washington, for their insightful comments on some parts of the draft.

My heartfelt gratitude goes to my managers and colleagues in the Jiuzhaigou National Park, especially those people in the Science Department, whose generous support and sharing of their knowledge has made an enormous contribution to this study. In addition special gratitude must go to all the participants, without whose time and sharing of valuable insights, this research would not have been made possible.

My thanks go to my fellow postgraduate students-Jacqueline, Kate, Ed, Aaron, Joshua and Bruce. Your friendship has encouraged me to continue travelling on the journey of this thesis writing. To Dr. Maria Borovnik, Dr. Nawal El-Gack, Prof. Glenn Banks and Gerard Prinsen, my thanks for your academic advice during my study at the Institute of Development Studies. My special gratitude also goes to the Massey University NZAID officials, Sylvia Hooker and Olive Pimentel and my friends Andrew Scanlon, Aunt Han and Uncle Wang, for their help and support during my studies in New Zealand.

My immeasurable thanks go to my loving mom, Zezhuzuo, and my family in China, for their support and for taking care of my son, Yongzha, so that I could focus on my studies in New Zealand. To my beloved husband, Zhugang — your trust and encouragement has been a great inspiration in the making of this thesis.

I owe my deepest gratitude to NZAID, who granted this researcher an opportunity to undertake an academic experience in New Zealand. Finally, my thanks go to the Massey University People and the Environment and Planning Graduate Research Fund for their financial contribution to this research.
Dedication

This thesis is dedicated, in loving memory, to my father: Yang Zerenbuqiu, who passed away on 19 January 2005, when he retired from his beloved job at the Jiuzhaigou National Park. I know how delighted he would have been, if there had been an opportunity for him to have read this thesis.
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# Acronyms and Abbreviations

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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CBD</td>
<td>Convention on Biological Diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IUCN</td>
<td>International Union for Conservation of Nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M&amp;B</td>
<td>Man and Biosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>Protected Area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Environment Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Environmental, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WDPA</td>
<td>World Database on Protected Areas</td>
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<tr>
<td>WCMC</td>
<td>World Conservation Monitoring Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>WCPA</td>
<td>World Commission on Protected Areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHS</td>
<td>World Heritage Site</td>
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<td>WPC</td>
<td>World Parks Congress</td>
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Chapter 1 Introduction

The number of protected areas in the world exceeded 120,000 by 2008 (UNEP-WCMC, 2009) and 12.9% of the earth’s land surface is now covered by protected areas (Jenkins & Joppa, 2009). This success in the establishment of protected areas is recognised as a key indicator for assessing the achievement of global biodiversity conservation and sustainable development objectives, in regards to the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs): specifically Goal 7, which aims at ensuring environmental sustainability. However, the question of how to manage these protected areas, in the long term and in a sustainable way, has raised a number of concerns, specifically the concern relating to an understanding that protected areas are not isolated from society: rather, they link people to their surrounding environment, locally, nationally and globally.

As such, the protected area management paradigm has shifted from an exclusive approach to an inclusive approach, which seeks to promote inclusive practices that involve and empower multiple stakeholders. These stakeholders include the local communities and indigenous people, private enterprises, research agencies, NGOs and government agencies. In regards to this paradigm shift, partnership is increasingly recognised as an important approach, which brings together various stakeholders, in order to work towards the sustainable management of protected areas. However, what partnership actually means in practice is not so easily understood. Therefore, this thesis intends to investigate how partnerships are practiced within the context of the sustainable management of protected areas, by using a qualitative case study approach, in order to examine partnership practice within a Chinese National Park: Jiuzhaigou National Park.

This introductory chapter comprises an explanation of the research rationale, a description of the research aim, objectives, questions and methodology and an outline
of the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Research Rationale

In September 2007, through partnership connections between Jiuzhaigou National Park (where I was employed) and the University of Washington, my colleague and I were hosted by the University of Washington for six months training on cultural resources management and environmental education within the USA. During that period, Professor Steve Harrell and Tom Hinckley arranged a range of training opportunities for us, which included:

- participation in a Yellowstone-to-Yukon seminar series at the Burke Museum of Natural History and Culture;
- attending several classes at the university on topics related to Environmental Anthropology and China’s Environment;
- observation and learning visits to local Indian tribes, including six days observing cultural preservation and conservation education activities at the Makah Nation Cultural Centre, two visits to the Confederated Tulalip Tribes and a visit to the Daybreak Star Cultural Centre;
- visits to three environmental learning centre in the Seattle area;
- a two-week short training session covering all aspects of national park management at Yosemite National Park in California;
- participation in the ‘Fundamentals II’ training course for US National Park Service employees, conducted at the Grand Canyon National Park;
- participation in a public panel on ‘Indigenous Peoples and Climate Change’ organised as part of the ‘Focus the Nation’ nationwide forum on climate change.

This training gave me an opportunity to view the importance of partnerships between individuals and organisations, when achieving different objectives, including education, conservation and social-economic development. In particular, it provided
me with the opportunity to observe how the USA’s national parks, such as Yosemite and the Grand Canyon, work closely with partners, in order to balance natural and cultural resource conservation and tourism management. These national parks have many successful partnership programmes and projects, in relation to trail repair; habitat restoration; cultural and historic preservation; visitor services and education; scientific research; and wildlife management. This specific experience broadened my thinking on the importance of partnerships within protected area management.

However, I noticed a difference in the management systems between the USA’s national parks and China’s national parks, which needs to be considered. For instance, there is a difference in management funding sources. The national parks in the USA have tax-based budgets and they are mainly supported by the federal government, whilst the majority of China’s national parks are reliant on their own earnings from a park entrance fee. A further example is that many national parks in the USA were historically inhabited by Native Americans. However, after being established as national parks, these Native Americans were no longer allowed to live inside the park’s boundary, whereas, in China, there are different ethnic minority groups or Han-Chinese still living inside many national parks. Therefore, the choice of the Jiuzhaigou National Park, as the research area, is meaningful not only because its management has to consider the sustainable livelihoods of the local community living inside the park, but also because it is more relevant to protected areas within developing countries. It is also relevant to developed countries who are dealing with the challenges of seeking adequate funding for their operations, sustainable tourism development and community development, besides balancing development and conservation.

Additionally, in China, Jiuzhaigou National Park is recognised as a model national park which is promoting best management practices within a complex setting. As an
employee of Jiuzhaigou National Park, I have noticed that it has taken the lead in the development of international partnerships with organisations, such as the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). They also have partnerships with international universities, such as the University of Washington and the University of California in the USA, Chemnitz University in Germany and Osaka University in Japan. Jiuzhaigou National Park has also created sister park relationships with Plitvice Lakes in Croatia, Cradle Mountain in Tasmania, Yosemite, Yellowstone and Olympic National Parks in the USA. Jiuzhaigou National Park managers also attended the World Parks Congress in South Africa, for the first time in 2003. Through these partnerships, Jiuzhaigou National Park seeks to assess itself against the experiences and challenges in conservation management and tourism development, community development and environmental protection, in a variety of different environments and settings around the world. Therefore, the Jiuzhaigou National Park may help us to understand protected areas in other developing countries, which are practicing international partnerships.

My experience of coming from an ethnic minority within the local community inside the Jiuzhaigou National Park (and also being an employee of Jiuzhaigou National Park) enabled me to be involved in various partnership projects and to gain specific insights into how these partnership projects were operating, in order to achieve different management objectives. Therefore, I have a particular interest in providing a deeper understanding of how the partnership between Jiuzhaigou National Park and the local community living inside the park works; how partnerships have been built between the Jiuzhaigou National Park, tour operators and universities, which are leading towards sustainable management of the park; and what are the benefits and challenges of these partnerships.

Finally, I have found that being a student, within development studies, has made me
curious about the practice of partnerships between different organisations or stakeholders (see e.g. Abrahamsen, 2004; Allaby & Preston, 2005; Ashman, 2001; Brinkerhoff, 2002; Curtis, 2004; Hodge & Greve, 2007). Learning development management theory has encouraged me to examine the interests and roles of different stakeholders; to identify the challenges inherent in partnerships; and to consider how partnership actually works. Moreover, the acceleration of globalisation and a shift in the protected area management paradigm implies that more actors may be involved in protected areas in the future. Currently, research has not been conducted on partnership, as it relates to China’s Jiuzhaigou National Park. Therefore, this research provides a beneficial understanding of the partnership approach, in the context of China’s protected area management. The intention is to draw conclusions and reflect upon lessons for the global network, in regards to protected area management.

1.2 Research Aim, Objectives and Questions

This research aims to provide a deeper understanding about the practice of a partnership approach, in the context of sustainable management of a protected area, Jiuzhaigou National Park, South-Western China. One main research question is asked: ‘Do partnerships facilitate sustainable management of a protected area?’ In light of the research aim and the main question, this research intends to achieve two objectives:

- To examine what are the key elements of a partnership approach within protected area management

- To explore whether a partnership is an effective approach that facilitates the sustainable management of a protected area

In order to achieve these two specific objectives, five sub-questions are used to guide
the data collection during the fieldwork:

- How is sustainable management articulated in the context of protected areas?
- What are the interests of different stakeholders that motivate them to get involved in protected area management?
- How do the power and resources, held by different stakeholders, lead them to play different roles in protected areas management and do stakeholders work within partnerships?
- What benefits do stakeholders obtain from the partnership and what challenges do they face within the partnership relationship?
- What are the key elements of an effective partnership framework within protected area management?

1.3 Methodology

In view of the research aim, objectives and questions, three partnerships are studied within the research area (Jiuzhaigou National Park, South-Western China), by using a qualitative case study approach and multi-methods. Semi-structured interviews are the primary method used to obtain in-depth insights from the participants. These participants are selected from different partner organisations and individuals, including the organisations’ managers and key staff, who are in charge of partnership projects and activities, besides local residents who are involved in (and influenced by) the partnership process and its outcomes. Participant observation is used as a complementary method to the interviews, and secondary data and document analysis are employed, in order to construct the background of the partnership cases, in addition to the cross-checking of data gathered through interviews and participant
observation. My personal experience of being involved in partnership projects and activities, through being on the staff and also being a resident of the Jiuzhaigou National Park (and also having assisted in previous research within Jiuzhaigou) gives me specific insights into the research area. The quality and accuracy of the data is cross-checked through a triangulation process that combines the three research methods: the data is also checked by ‘insiders’, within these partnerships. Note there will be a more detailed discussion of methodology in Chapter 4.

1.4 Overview of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into six chapters. In Chapter 2, an overview of protected area management and different concepts relating to protected area management are critically discussed. A shift in the protected area management approach towards a new paradigm and current, commonly used, approaches to protected areas are outlined. Since China is the country where the case studies are located, its approach to protected areas and related issues are examined.

Firstly, in Chapter 3, a partnership framework is identified, by drawing on different perspectives on the concept of partnership, which are found in the literature. In the second half of Chapter 3, a review is provided, in order to demonstrate the application of the partnership approach in protected areas around the world. Finally, a partnership typology is introduced, in order to identify the partnership cases within the research area: Jiuzhaigou National Park, China.

In Chapter 4, the methodology used during the fieldwork undertaken in Jiuzhaigou National Park, China (during June and July 2010) is described, including a clarification of my position in the research; discussion relating to the methodological approach; a detailed description of the methods employed for data collection and analysis;
reflections on my fieldwork experience; and specific practical issues raised during this research.

In Chapter 5, following a general introduction of the research area, Jiuzhaigou National Park, the findings of the three partnership case studies are interpreted, with a focus on identifying stakeholders and their roles in each partnership, in addition to gaining an understanding of the relationships between stakeholders. The benefits that partnerships bring and the issues within these partnerships are also addressed. In the last part of Chapter 5, an assessment is made for each partnership case, according to some key elements of a partnership, which have been identified in Chapter 3.

In Chapter 6, insights gained from the case studies are situated within the wider context of the literature. The first part of Chapter 6 reflects on the articulation of ‘sustainable management’ in protected areas. How partnerships are practiced, in the context of sustainable management of protected areas, is then discussed, with a focus on the strengths and weaknesses of each case study. The issue of power sharing within partnership decision-making then follows. This chapter concludes the entire thesis with recommendations for possible directions for future research and suggestions for improving partnership practice within the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park.
Chapter 2  Shifting Approaches to Protected Areas

2.1  Introduction

The management approach for protected areas has been moving away from the traditional national park model, which was managed as an ‘island’ without considering its surroundings (Crofts, 2008; Shultis & Way, 2006). A new method, which seeks a more people-focused approach and an inclusive management model, is addressed by researchers and this is called the new paradigm for protected areas (Locke & Dearden, 2005; Phillips, 2003). The new paradigm attempts to bridge conservation and development by emphasising the involvement of multiple actors in the management of protected areas.

In order to understand this shift in the management approach of protected area, this chapter looks at the background of protected area management and different concepts relating to the management of protected areas. Firstly, this chapter looks to understand the history of protected areas; what are protected areas and their management objectives; and the changing views about protected areas. Secondly, the shift of protected area management towards the new paradigm is outlined. Thirdly, the classification of current protected area governance approaches worldwide is introduced. Finally, China’s approach to protected areas and related issues are examined, since China is where the case study is located.

2.2  Overview of Protected Areas in the World

In order to develop a comprehensive understanding of the central concept in this study, it is firstly important to gain a historical background of protected areas; to explain what protected areas are; and therefore to gain an appreciation of the
currently changing view on the protected areas concept.

2.2.1 History of Protected Areas

Protected areas are “an old but evolving concept” (Chape et al., 2008, p. 4) and they have a long history. The idea of setting aside areas for perceived cultural and spiritual value or resource uses has existed for centuries. For instance, in India, natural resource reserves were established to protect forests, elephants, fish and wildlife as far back as 300 BC, by the Mauryan kings (Chape et al., 2008). In Europe, areas were protected as hunting grounds for kings and rulers almost 1000 years ago. Places that were set aside for cultural values, such as sacred natural sites and for specific resource uses, are common in the traditions of many communities (Dudley, Higgins-Zogib & Mansourian, 2009). Whilst the protection of special places universally occurs amongst the traditions of many societies, hunting or game reserves in Europe or India were established for the benefit of the rich and powerful ruling elite (Eagles, McCool & Haynes, 2002). The concept of game reserves was brought to new nations, such as North America, with European settlement in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (Prato & Fagre, 2005). In the 19th century, it was also replicated by colonial powers in Africa (Chape et al., 2008).

As human populations continued to grow, the human demands and exploitation of nature increased. However, when people perceived a reduction in living space and natural resources their concerns about nature increased. The establishment of the first ‘modern’ protected areas was stirred by the apparent environmental impact of Western colonisation and conquest in Africa, the Americas, Asia, Australia and many Oceanic islands (Grove, 1995). When the colonists viewed the disappearance of local eco-systems under urbanisation, farms and plantations, parks were established, in order to conserve the leftovers of these eco-systems (Chape et al., 2008).
There are a few well-known ‘modern’ protected areas, in countries such as North America, Australia and New Zealand, which were established in the 19th century. In 1864, the USA president, Abraham Lincoln, signed a grant and gave Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Grove to the State of California for public use, resort and recreation. In 1872, Yellowstone National Park was established in the USA. It is widely recognised as the first national park in the World and it was “dedicated and set apart as a public park or pleasuring-ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people” (Prato & Fagre, 2005, p. 418). The declaration of the Royal National Park in Australia followed in 1879. Other well-known early national parks include New Zealand’s Tongariro National Park (1894), Canada’s Banff National Park (1898), Yosemite National Park (1890), and several forest reserves in South Africa, during the last years of the nineteenth century.

However, Phillips (2003, p. 12) noted that the establishment of many early protected areas favoured a top-down and exclusive approach, which he calls the ‘classic model of protected areas’. Under this approach, protected areas were normally set aside for protection and enjoyment of tourists or visitors and managed as ‘islands’ by central government, whilst very little concern was given to the opinions and rights of indigenous and local people, who had managed the landscape for millennia. Lockwood and Kothari (2006) also noted that indigenous and local people were disturbed or removed from their lands and excluded from protected area management in the history of such parks, for example, Yellowstone National Park, in addition to other sites in Africa and Latin America. The exclusion of local communities from the management of protected areas has resulted in various conflicts and issues, including dislocation, violence, poaching and poverty amongst indigenous communities (Nepal, 2002) and yet conservation is considered unsustainable without the integration of local communities as part of the protected area management (Infield & Namara, 2001). Fortunately, according to Scherl and Edwards (2007, p. 72), protected area management is moving away from the idea ‘that the interest and rights of local and
indigenous communities are in conflict with the objectives of protected areas’. Indeed, there is growing recognition of the role of indigenous peoples and local communities in the management of protected areas (Khan & Bhagwat, 2010; Kothari, 2008).

Whilst the modern protected areas concept originated mainly amongst the new nations, such as North America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa in the 19th century, other countries later started to create their own protected areas. In 1962, there were nearly 10,000 parks and reserves worldwide. As shown in Figure 1, 45 years later, this number exceeds 70,000 and globally 11.3 % of national territories (terrestrial and marine environments combined) are nationally designated as protected areas (Coad, Burgess, et al., 2008). In addition, nearly 5,000 are internationally designated areas, including the World Heritage Sites, the Biosphere Reserves and the Ramsar Sites (Chape et al. 2008). By 2009, there were more than 120,000 sets of protected area information held by the World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA).

The World Database on Protected Areas is a joint project of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), and its information is produced by the UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre (WCMC) and the IUCN World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA), which work with governments and collaborating NGOs. It is the most comprehensive assembly of data on the world’s terrestrial and marine protected areas.
Figure 1: Cumulative global growth in the area of nationally designated protected areas (1872-2007).

(Source: Coad, Burgess, et al., 2008, p. 37)

As mentioned previously, the international designation of protected areas includes World Heritage sites, Ramsar wetlands and UNESCO Man and the Biosphere (MAB) reserves. World Heritage sites are established under the World Heritage Convention, for protection of the world’s most significant cultural and/or natural values with outstanding universal value, which are important for present and future generations of all humanity. According to UNESCO (2009), there are 890 World Heritage sites in 148 state parties, comprising 689 cultural, 176 natural and 25 mixed properties, by 2009. The Ramsar wetlands were created under the Ramsar Convention, which was adopted in Ramsar, Iran, in 1971. The Ramsar Convention is an intergovernmental treaty that provides the framework for national action and international cooperation for conservation and sustainable use of wetlands. Biosphere reserves are areas of terrestrial, coastal, or marine ecosystems that are internationally recognised under
UNESCO’s Man and the Biosphere (MAB) Programme. The Biosphere reserve concept was introduced by UNESCO in the 1970s, with the aim of integrating biodiversity conservation and the sustainable development of local communities (Ma, et al., 2009).

2.2.2 What Are Protected Areas?

The widely used definition of a ‘protected area’ is the present IUCN definition, which was adopted at the Fourth World Parks Congress in 1992, with its emphasis on the protection of both natural and cultural resources:

*an area of land and/or sea especially dedicated to the protection and maintenance of biological diversity, and of natural and associated cultural resources, and managed through legal or other effective means* (1994, p. 1).

The IUCN definition of protected areas implies that protected areas are area-based concepts, which might be found everywhere and which need to be designated, dedicated or regulated for their different conservation, protection or maintenance objectives. In addition there is some type of management authority in position, to ensure conservation through legal or effective means (Phillips, 2003).

Protected areas differ from each other by factors such as size, location and management. They encompass various eco-systems, including alpine, wetland, tropical and temperate forests, savannah, desert and marine. Their locations can be in heavily populated urban areas or unpopulated wilderness areas. The areas covered by protected areas range from a few hectares to thousands of square kilometres (e.g. Great Barrier Reef in Australia). Most protected areas are publicly owned and managed (Prato & Fagre, 2005).

In addition, protected areas have a range of different management objectives.
According to Davey (1998) and IUCN (1994), the main management objectives of protected areas are defined as:

- scientific research;
- wilderness protection;
- preservation of species and genetic diversity;
- maintenance of environmental services;
- protection of specific natural and cultural features;
- tourism and recreation;
- education;
- sustainable use of resources from natural ecosystems;
- maintenance of cultural and traditional attributes.

Based on primary management objectives, the IUCN has developed a Protected Area Management Category system (Table 1), to establish order and to provide international consistency.

**Table 1: IUCN protected area management categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| CATEGORY Ia | Strict Nature Reserve: protected area managed mainly for science

Area of land and/or sea possessing some outstanding or representative ecosystems, geological or physiological features and/or species, available primarily for scientific research and/or environmental monitoring.

| CATEGORY Ib | Wilderness Area: protected area managed mainly for wilderness protection

Large area of unmodified or slightly modified land and/or sea, retaining its natural character and influence, without permanent or significant habitation, which is protected and
managed so as to preserve its natural condition.

CATEGORY II  
National Park: protected area managed mainly for eco-system protection and recreation

Natural area of land and/or sea, designated to (a) protect the ecological integrity of one or more eco-systems for present and future generations, (b) exclude exploitation or occupation inimical to the purposes of designation of the area and (c) provide a foundation for spiritual, scientific, educational, recreational and visitor opportunities, all of which must be environmentally and culturally compatible.

CATEGORY III  
Natural Monument: protected area managed mainly for conservation of specific natural features

Area containing one or more, specific natural or natural/cultural feature, which is of outstanding or unique value because of its inherent rarity, representative or aesthetic qualities or cultural significance.

CATEGORY IV  
Habitat/Species Management Area: protected area managed mainly for conservation through management intervention

Area of land and/or sea subject to active intervention for management purposes, so as to ensure the maintenance of habitats and/or to meet the requirements of specific species.

CATEGORY V  
Protected Landscape/Seascape: protected area managed mainly for landscape/seascape conservation and recreation

Area of land, with coast and sea as appropriate, where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of distinct character with significant aesthetic, ecological and/or cultural value, and often with high biological diversity. Safeguarding the integrity of this traditional interaction is vital to the protection, maintenance and evolution of such an area.

CATEGORY VI  
Managed Resource Protected Area: protected area managed mainly for the sustainable use of natural ecosystems
Area containing predominantly unmodified natural systems, managed to ensure long-term protection and maintenance of biological diversity, whilst providing at the same time a sustainable flow of natural products and services to meet community needs.

Source: IUCN (1994)

The same type of protected areas can have more than one global designation and they may have different designation criteria, in addition to being named in various ways in different countries. For instance, in China, people use the terms ‘nature reserve, forest park, geological park, scenic landscape and historic interest sites’ to refer to protected areas. The case study area for this thesis holds three national designations, namely, Jiuzhaigou Nature Reserve (JNR), Jiuzhaigou National Scenic Landscape and Historic Interest Areas (now seen as Jiuzhaigou National Park), and National Geological Park. It also holds two international designations: UNESCO’s Man and Biosphere Reserve (MBR) and the World Heritage Convention’s Scenic and Historic Interest Area (World Natural Heritage site).

Jiuzhaigou National Park falls under IUCN management category V (protected landscape/seascape), according to WDPA (2009), so therefore the primary management objectives can differ from those in other categories. As shown in the shaded column of Table 2, the primary management objectives for the Jiuzhaigou National Park should focus on the protection of specific natural and cultural features; tourism and recreation; and maintenance of cultural and traditional attributes (IUCN, 1994).
Table 2: Matrix of management objectives and IUCN protected area management categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management Objective</th>
<th>Ia</th>
<th>Ib</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>VI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scientific research</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilderness protection</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preservation of species and genetic diversity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of environmental services</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection of specific natural and cultural features</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism and recreation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable use of resources from natural ecosystems</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of cultural and traditional attributes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key:**
1. Primary objective
2. Secondary objective
3. Potentially applicable objective
   – Not Applicable objective

Source: IUCN (1994)

Although the IUCN protected area definition is widely accepted at international, regional and national levels and it is used throughout this study, there are other definitions that have been developed. For example, the world Convention on Biological Diversity (2000, p. 3) uses the definition: “a geographically defined area which is
designated or regulated and managed to achieve specific conservation objectives”. Although the CBD has been adopted by 188 countries and certainly the definition carries great weight, in comparison with the IUCN definition, Chape et al. (2008) pointed out that it is not in line with current thinking, since it does not mention the cultural aspects of protected areas.

### 2.2.3 Changing View of Protected Areas

Together with an increasing number of protected areas worldwide, the concept of protected areas has also evolved. Studies, such as Naughton-Treves, Holland and Brandon (2005) and Chape et al. (2008), have discussed the fact that the evolution of the concept of protected areas has occurred alongside the ‘repackaging’ of conservation concerns under the umbrellas of sustainable development and biodiversity, from the 1970s through to the 1990s. There are a number of critical international events and agreements that are considered important to this change including: the early 1970 launch of the Man and Biosphere programme at the UNESCO Stockholm Conference on Environment; the adoption of the World Heritage Convention in 1972; the 1980 World Conservation Strategy; the 1992 UN conference on Environment and Development; and the adoption of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) in the same year. In addition, the expansion of the World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA) network (originally formed as the Commission on National Parks in 1958) and the technical and scientific outputs of five World Parks Congresses held in 1962, 1972, 1982, 1992 and 2003, have been critical factors. A timeline showing these events is provided in Table 3. As Chape, et al. (2008, p 5) summarised, all of these factors resulted in:

> the formulation of specific protected area management categories that recognize the scope and values of different approaches to conserving natural areas; ‘mainstreaming’ of conservation concerns into development agendas;
rethinking the role of protected areas vis-à-vis conservation and sustainable human use; recognition of the importance of cultural values; recognition of the role of protected areas as key indicators for assessing achievement of global sustainable development objectives, and as contributing measures for combating desertification, climate change, and loss of genetic diversity.

Thus, protected areas are no longer viewed as isolated societies but they have been placed within a wider context (both ecological and social) (Phillips, 2003, Lockwood et al., 2008; Shultis & Way, 2006). This recognises the diverse social values placed upon them. Responding to this conceptual advance in the thinking of protected areas, management approaches have also shifted towards a more inclusive and participatory approach, which is called a ‘new paradigm’ for protected areas (see Chapter Two). Whilst partnership is one of the broadly practiced management tools under this new paradigm, a question that must be asked is: How is partnership applied to the management of protected areas around the world? The answer to this question will be explored in Chapter 3.

**Table 3: Historic milestones in the development of protected areas**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10000 BC</td>
<td>As agriculture began to transform the relationship between people and nature, local communities recognized specific sites as “sacred”, and protected them from certain human uses. Applied differently in different places, over the subsequent millennia, the concept was a widespread practical measure that people found beneficial in both material and spiritual ways.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>252 BC</td>
<td>Emperor Asoka of India established protected areas for mammals, birds, fish and forests, the earliest recorded areas where a government protected certain resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>684 AD</td>
<td>The first Indonesian nature research was established by order of the King of Srivijaya, on the island of Sumatra. Sumatra is now recognized as one of the world’s centres of mega-diversity, with numerous protected areas — the major sites comprising the recently declared 25 000 km² Tropical Rainforest of Sumatra World Heritage site.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1079</td>
<td>William the Conqueror claimed the New Forest (England) as a royal hunting reserve and protected it against illegal harvesting from rural people: poaching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
became a major law enforcement issue, but timber from the forest was essential to England’s war efforts in the 17-19th centuries. Today, the New Forest is still a valued protected area and it became the UK’s newest national park in 2005.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1865</td>
<td>Yosemite (California) was established by the US Congress as effectively the first of a new national-level model of protected areas: Yellowstone (1872) was the first to be called a national park.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1882</td>
<td>El Chico National Park established in Mexico, the first one in Latin America.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>The Society for the Protection of the Wild Fauna of the Empire was established in the UK, the first non-governmental organisation devoted to international conservation, now known as Fauna and Flora International (IFFI). Hundreds of other civil society conservation organisations now support protected areas in all parts of the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td>First ‘modern’ national park was established in Asia (Angkor Wat, Cambodia).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>South Africa’s Kruger National Park was established.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1934</td>
<td>Argentina’s Iguazu National Park was established.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>IUCN: The World Conservation Union was founded (as the International Union for Protection of Nature) as a means of promoting conservation worldwide, but especially in the former colonies that gained independence in the post-war period, based on a prediction of significant habitat loss if nothing was done. The establishment of protected areas has always been seen as an important area of focus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>WWF was set up (as the World Wildlife Fund) as a new international non-governmental organisation to mobilize support for conservation, especially from the general public. This marked the beginning of an era of growing funding for international conservation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>The First World Conference on National Park, in Seattle, Washington, began a more formal worldwide movement in support of protected areas. It called for a UN List of Protected Areas and recommended a category system. Prior to this, each country kept its own records, so nobody knew the extent of the world’s protected area system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>College of African Wildlife Management at Mweka, Tanzania was established. By 2003, more than 4,200 Africans had graduated from Mweka.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>UNESCO Man and Biosphere Programme began, establishing biosphere (529 reserves in 105 countries covering more than 5 million km², as of 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>Ramsar Convention adopted: 1,708 sites covering more than 1.5 million km² and 157 contracting parties, by the end of 2007.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>UN Conference on Environment and Development, Stockholm. Sweden endorsed new conventions affecting protected areas and this led to the establishment of the United Nation Environment Programme (UNEP) based in Nairobi. World Heritage Convention adopted. By 2006, 166 natural World Heritage sites and 25 mixed natural and cultural sites had been recognized, covering more than 1.8 million km².</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>Training programme for protected area personnel established at CATIE, Turrialba, Costa Rica. This continues until the present time and it has provided trained staff for a great deal of Central America.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>IUCN system of categories of protected areas published, which set a framework for worldwide assessment of protected area coverage. Latest revision in 1994, now being promoted for other management applications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>World Conservation Strategy, published by IUCN, WWF, and UNEP, popularized the concept of sustainable development and a partnership between conservation and development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>Protected Areas Data Unit established by IUCN and its Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas, at the IUCN Conservation Monitoring Centre, UK. This provided first worldwide database on protected areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>Third World National Parks Congress, Bali, Indonesia emphasized the importance of protected areas as a key element in national development plans. This set 10 percent protected area coverage of each of the world’s biomes as a target.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>Our Common Future (the Brundtland Report), the report of the UN Commission on Sustainable Development called for 12 percent of the land to be given protected area status and advocated global action to conserve biodiversity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Global Environment Facility (GEF) created by World Bank, UNDP and UNEP, providing a major new intergovernmental funding mechanism for protected areas, especially through the CBD then under negotiation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>The Earth Summit, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, produced Agenda 21 and approved the CBD and Framework Convention on Climate Change, both highly relevant to protected areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>UN General Assembly approved Millennium Development Goals, with Goal 7 calling for environmental sustainability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>World Summit on Sustainable Development, Johannesburg, South Africa, called for loss of biodiversity to be reversed by 2010 and for a comprehensive system of marine protected areas to be established by 2012.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Fifth World Parks Congress held in Durban, South Africa. Focused on “benefits beyond boundaries,” re-emphasizing the importance of protected areas for sustainable development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Seventh Meeting of the Conference of the Parties to the CBD adopted a comprehensive Programme of Work for Protected Areas to support implementation of the in-situ conservation components of the CBD.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Chape et al. (2008, p. 6)
2.3 Outline of Shift in Protected Areas Management Approaches

As discussed, protected areas have a historical origin that goes back thousands of years and the concept of protected areas is evolving all the time. In accordance with progress in the thinking and understanding of protected areas, a new paradigm for protected areas has emerged. With the recognition of the significant roles and values of protected areas in a wider context, the new paradigm seeks not only to involve broad participation, but it also promotes the mainstreaming of protected areas into social and economic development (Sandwith, 2008). This shift of paradigm was addressed by the Fifth World Parks Congress in 2003 and it is frequently discussed and recognised by many protected areas studies (Bushell & Eagles, 2007; Chape, et al., 2008; Hanna, Clark, & Slocombe, 2008; Hill, 2006; Phillips, 2003).

The Fifth World Parks Congress (WPC) was held in Durban, South Africa in September 2003. More than 3,000 key players, from protected areas around the world, gathered to celebrate the remarkable achievement of setting up protected areas, which meant that more than 11.5% of the earth’s surface was now under protection (Sheppard & Steiner, 2007). Importantly, the theme of this Congress ‘Benefit Beyond Boundaries’, revealed recognition of the roles of protected areas in bringing benefit to millions of people, besides the importance of understanding the physical, social, cultural and economic environment of protected areas. To place the protected areas in a broad context requires a shift in management approach from being managed as ‘islands’, with separation of nature and people, to a more people-focused, less centralised and inclusive approach and seeking trade-offs between conservation, social, economic, political and cultural objectives (Scherl & Edwards, 2007). This requires new approaches and new partnerships for protected area management (Bushell & Eagles, 2007) and the involvement and empowerment of more actors. Therefore, Lockwood et al. (2008) observed that protected area management is no longer just an action of the
state but it ranges from the traditional exercise of government authority to a broad variety of partnerships, co-management, and informal arrangements involving multiple agencies, interest groups and individuals.

In addition, as shown in Table 4, Phillips (2003) highlighted a shift from the old to the new paradigm, by contrasting factors such as the objectives of protected areas, attitudes towards local people and roles in the wider context. More importantly, Table 4 shows that protected areas are now managed by multiple partners, with local people and local knowledge playing important roles. It also shows protected areas are managed adaptively within a long term perspective and managed by multi-skilled individuals with the support of diverse income sources. Thus, involving multiple actors in protected area management becomes the main feature of current management approaches (Phillips, 2003) and these actors range from local to global, including different tiers of government, local communities, indigenous groups, the private sector, NGOs, and other stakeholders.

**Table 4: Comparing the old and new approaches to protected areas**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>As it was: protected areas were...</th>
<th>As it is becoming: protected areas are...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objectives</strong></td>
<td>Set aside for conservation</td>
<td>Run also with social and economic objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Established mainly for spectacular wildlife and scenic protection</td>
<td>Often set up for scientific, economic, and cultural reasons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managed mainly for visitors and tourists</td>
<td>Managed with local people more in mind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Valued as wilderness</td>
<td>Valued for the cultural and importance of so-called wilderness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>About protection</td>
<td>Also about restoration and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Current paradigm</td>
<td>New paradigm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governance</td>
<td>Run by central government</td>
<td>Run by many partners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local people</td>
<td>Planned and managed against people</td>
<td>Run with, for, and in some cases by local people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managed without regard to local opinions</td>
<td>Managed to meet the needs of local people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wider context</td>
<td>Developed separately</td>
<td>Planned as part of national, regional, and international systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managed as “islands”</td>
<td>Developed as “networks” (strictly protected areas, buffered and linked by green corridors)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions</td>
<td>Viewed primarily as a national asset</td>
<td>Viewed also as a community asset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Viewed only as a national concern</td>
<td>Viewed also as an international concern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management techniques</td>
<td>Managed reactively within short timescale</td>
<td>Managed adaptively in long term perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managed in a technocratic way</td>
<td>Managed with political considerations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>Paid for by taxpayer</td>
<td>Paid for from many sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Skills</td>
<td>Managed by scientists and natural resource experts</td>
<td>Managed by multi-skilled individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expert-led</td>
<td>Drawing on local knowledge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Whilst the new paradigm is widely shared through global networks on protected areas, some major problems within this new approach have been identified. As Phillips (2003) summarised, when the political power devolves from the centre to the local, cases such as the Gunung Leuser National Park in Sumatra, Indonesia, show how protected
area management agencies may survive, if there is a breakdown of central control and widespread corruption. Involving multiple stakeholders is vital, but their participation requires more resources, such as staff, time and money and this places more pressure on the already over-stretched protected area agencies and it could make the managers jobs unmanageable. In addition, he considers that whilst conservation professionals are enthusiastic about the people-focused new approach for protected areas, the achievements of government-managed, strictly protected areas cannot be underestimated. This is also addressed by Locke and Dearden (2005). The willingness or ability of local communities to ensure conservation and the sustainable use of natural resources also needs to be considered, since a community is not necessarily a homogeneous group (Jamal & Stronza, 2009).

Recognising these criticisms and analysing the wide involvement of multiple stakeholders and their roles, interests, benefits and challenges, under the proposed new approach of protected areas, is the focus of this study, which considers one Chinese protected area. To answer the question of whether the existing partnerships are facilitating the sustainable management of this protected area requires an understanding of the current different management approaches in place worldwide, and China’s approaches to protected areas.

2.4 Classifying Current Approaches to Protected Areas

Various approaches have been explored in response to the new paradigm’s call for participatory and inclusive management approaches for protected areas. From Integrated Conservation and Development Programmes (Brown, 2002) to Community-Based Conservation (Balint, 2006; Berkes, 2007), Community Co-management Projects, Joint Management, Incentive-Based Conservation Projects (Spiteri & Nepal, 2006) and adaptive co-management (Plummer & Fennell, 2009), differently labelled approaches have been initiated and implemented within world
protected areas, which attempt to integrate protected areas into a wider social and economic context — locally, regionally, nationally and globally.

Furthermore, these approaches emphasise the importance of involving local communities and indigenous people in protected area management and the need for collaboration between government agencies, indigenous people and local communities, the private sector and NGOs, in order to achieve sustainable management of protected areas. Working with multiple partners has become a trend, in the sense of managing the protected areas in a more effective and sustainable way (Lockwood et al., 2008).

Generally speaking there are four types of protected area management models which are frequently used. They are: (1) government managed protected areas; (2) co-managed protected areas; (3) private protected areas; and (4) community conserved areas. Since governance can determine the effectiveness of management, the current literatures discusses these models as protected area governance approaches (Eagles, 2008; Eagles, 2009; Lockwood et al., 2008) and distinguishes them from the IUCN management categories (Borrini-Feyerabend, Johnston, & Pansky, 2006; Negal Dudley, 2008). The four management models are explained here, focusing on who holds the decision-making authority, responsibility and accountability (Borrini-Feyerabend, et al., 2006).

2.4.1 Government Managed Protected Areas

As a traditional protected areas management model, Borrini-Feyerabend et al. (2006) explained that in government managed protected areas a government body, such as a Ministry or Park Agency, holds the authority, responsibility and accountability for managing the protected areas; making decisions on management objectives; and developing and implementing the management plan. Normally, the land, water, forest
and other resources in the protected areas are also owned by the government. As shown in Table 5, the management body can sit at the national, province or local tier of government and it also can be a government delegated parastatal organisation, NGO, or even a private operator or community. Government holds the land ownership, as well as the control of protected areas, but it delegates their management to a parastatal agency, private operator, NGO or community. In this model, “the government may or may not have a legal obligation to inform or consult other identified stakeholders prior to setting up protected areas and making or enforcing management decisions” (Borrini-Feyerabend, et al., 2006, p. 119). However, Dudley (2008) noted that participatory approaches are common and desirable in this model and this thesis also focuses on this model.

### Table 5: Different approaches to protected areas management and examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Government</strong></td>
<td>National</td>
<td>Taman Negara National Park, Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State or province</td>
<td>Big Basin Redwoods State Park, California USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>Waipa, New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parastatal organisation</td>
<td>The Kenya Wildlife Service, Kenya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NGO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Ojibway Provincial Park, Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private operator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Co-management</strong></td>
<td>Collaborative management</td>
<td>Bwindi Impenetrable National Park, Uganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joint management</td>
<td>Annapurna Conservation Area, Nepal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private</strong></td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Winlaton Grassland, Northern Victoria, Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not-for-profit organisation</td>
<td>Big Courtin Island, Prince Edward Island, Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For-profit corporation</td>
<td>Shumbe Island Coral Park Ltd, Zanzibar, Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Community</strong></td>
<td>Indigenous peoples</td>
<td>Reserve Etnica Forestal Awa, Ecuador</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local communities</td>
<td>Shimshal Community Conservation area, Pakistan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Chape et al. (2008)
2.4.2 Co-Managed Protected Areas

As Dudley (2008) explained, in co-managed protected areas, complex institutional mechanisms and processes are employed, in order to share management authority and responsibility amongst a wide variety of actors, ranging from national to provincial and local government authorities, from representatives of indigenous peoples and local communities to user associations and from private entrepreneurs to landowners. Two sub-types of co-management are identified as ‘collaborative management’ and ‘joint management’.

In collaborative management, decision-making authority, responsibility and accountability are held by one agency (often a national governmental agency), but this agency is required by law or policy to inform or consult other stakeholders. Participation in collaborative management can be strengthened, when multi-stakeholder bodies are assigned to develop numerous technical proposals in relation to protected areas’ regulation and management, although these will be later submitted to the decision-making authority for approval (Dudley, 2008).

In joint management, decision-making authority, responsibility, and accountability are shared by a variety of actors. Actors are entitled to one or more seats on a management body. Decisions may or may not be carried out by consensus. When decision-making is not carried out by consensus, the issue of power imbalance (for instance, where the government or landowner holds absolute majority of votes) may transform joint management into a different management model.

Co-management particularly suits trans-boundary protected areas, since various actors need to be involved, including two or more national governments (Borrini-Feyerabend, et al., 2006; Dudley, 2008).
2.4.3 Private Protected Areas

Private protected areas refer to land owned by individuals, communities, corporations or NGOs and managed for biodiversity conservation, with or without formal government recognition (Borrini-Feyerabend, et al., 2006). The motivation for landowners to develop a conservation area may be their sense of respect for the land; a desire to maintain the beauty and ecological value of the land; a desire to obtain revenue from eco-tourism; or to reduce levies and taxes. In this management model, the landowners hold the decision-making authority; they determine the conservation objectives; and they also develop and implement management plans. However, the accountability of private protected areas to society is fairly limited, unless it is negotiated with government, in exchange for specific incentives, as in the case of Easements or Land Trusts in the US and Canada (Borrini-Feyerabend, et al., 2006).

2.4.4 Community Conserved Areas

Community conserved areas are seen as the oldest management model of protected areas and these have been defined by IUCN:

\[\text{as natural and modified ecosystems, including significant biodiversity, ecological services and cultural values, voluntarily conserved by indigenous peoples and local and mobile communities through customary laws or other effective means (Borrini-Feyerabend, Kothari, & Oviedo, 2004, p. 51).}\]

In this model, authority and responsibility rests with the communities through various forms of ethnic governance. These forms and rules of customary law can be fairly complex. For instance, Dudley (2008) pointed out that the land and/or some resources may be owned and managed collectively, whilst other resources may be owned and
managed by individuals or managed on a clan basis. In addition, different indigenous peoples or communities may have rights over the same area at different times, or be in charge of different resources within the same area. Customary rules often interweave with cultural, religious and spiritual values.

The challenge for this management model is that it lacks legal recognition. Borrini-Feyerabend et al. (2006) highlighted that land and resources collectively owned and managed by communities through customary law are not usually recognised in national legal systems. They commented that this is mainly an issue in community conserved areas in Africa, Asia and Europe. However, they explained that there are successful cases where indigenous peoples and local communities have fought and won rights over their land, as seen in countries such as Bolivia, Colombia, Australia and Indonesia. Similar to private protected areas, Borrini-Feyerabend et al. (2006) pointed out the community's accountability to the wider society also remains limited within this management model.

In summary, the different approaches to protected areas (classified here) focus on who holds the decision-making authority, responsibility and accountability. It seems likely for a protected area to experience different management models, since transformation from one model to another is possible, when decision-making authority, responsibility and accountability shift.

However, there is another way to categorise these various approaches, through the use of their different elements. For example, Eagles (2008) and (2009) identified three elements of protected areas management: “(1) the ownership of the resources; (2) the source of income for management and (3) the management body” (2009, p. 234). Eagles offered four ownership types, three sources of income and five alternative management bodies and suggested that there can be 60 different combinations of management models for protected areas. The options for each element are shown in
Table 6: These 60 different models are not the focus of this thesis, but it is helpful to understand that there are multiple possibilities for the management of protected areas. However, as discussed earlier, we should be aware that it is possible for a protected area to be jointly owned and managed by multiple bodies with multiple income sources simultaneously. It can be noted, however, that Eagles’ (2009) categories do not include this type of protected area management model.

Table 6: Options within the elements of conservation management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ownership</th>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Management body</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government agency</td>
<td>Government grants</td>
<td>Government agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-profit corporation</td>
<td>Fees and charges</td>
<td>Parastatal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For-profit corporation</td>
<td>Donations</td>
<td>Non-profit corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td></td>
<td>Community</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Eagles (2009)

The next section moves on to consider China’s approach to the management of protected areas.

2.5 China’s Approach to Protected Areas

China’s approach to protected areas is not necessarily consistent with international or Western protected area management approaches and it needs to be understood within China’s specific historical, cultural, social, economic and political context. In general, most protected areas in China are managed in a strictly top-down approach by government agencies at different levels, from national to county (Han, 2000). There are
challenges within this management approach that make protected area management agencies, such as the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau (the case for this study) struggle to balance multiple management objectives and achieve sustainability in conservation, tourism and social-economic development. To explore new effective management approaches that deal with such issues and to fill gaps in the traditional management model is the current trend in China, since there is a global demand for a shift in protected area management approaches. By understanding China’s approach to protected areas and related issues, it is possible to identify challenges, when an attempt is made to develop and implement a new approach, such as partnership, within China’s context of protected areas’ management.

2.5.1 Overview of Protected Areas in China

Given that environment protection in China goes back to the Qin Dynasty (221-207 BCE), when the mountain areas were preserved as imperial hunting reserves and temple grounds were protected (Xu & Melick, 2007), the introduction of Western concepts of protected areas is quite recent. The first official protected area, the Dinghu Shan Nature Reserve, was established in Guangdong province in 1956. Following this, the development of protected areas was kept in a “stagnation and devastation” stage (Fu, et al., 2004, p. 788). Instead of establishing protected areas, extensive environmental degradation occurred, from the creation of enormous water control to industrial and agricultural projects under the influence of political movements associated with the Great Leap Forward (1958) and the Cultural Revolution (1965-1975) (Xu & Melick, 2007). By 1978, only 34 protected areas had been created under a centralised administrative approach (Jim & Xu, 2004).

However, protected areas began to boom after China initiated economic reforms and open-door (‘open the door of China to the outside world’) policies in 1978. As Table 7 shows, the number of protected areas increased from 34 in 1978 to 2195 in 2004. By
2009, there were 2541 protected areas, with a total area of 147,747,000 ha now accounting for 14.72% of China’s territory: This is higher than the global average. This trend will continue, as China has set an ambitious goal that 18% (172.8 million ha) of her land area will be covered by nature reserves by 2050 (SFA, 2006).

Table 7: Establishment of nature reserves in China

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of nature reserves</th>
<th>Protected area (10,000 ha)</th>
<th>Percentage of territory area of China</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>126.5</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>408.2</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>1933.0</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>2370.0</td>
<td>2.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>573</td>
<td>2706.3</td>
<td>2.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>606</td>
<td>4000.0</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>708</td>
<td>5606.7</td>
<td>5.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>763</td>
<td>6618.4</td>
<td>6.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>799</td>
<td>7185.0</td>
<td>7.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>926</td>
<td>7697.9</td>
<td>7.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>1146</td>
<td>8815.2</td>
<td>8.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1227</td>
<td>9820.8</td>
<td>9.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2001 1551 12989 12.90
2002 1757 13295 13.20
2003 1999 14398 14.37
2004 2194 14822.6 14.80
2005 2349 14994.9 14.99
2006 2395 15754 15.16
2007 2531 15188 15.2
2008 2538 14894.3 15.13
2009 2541 14774.7 14.72


2.5.2 Legislation and Programmes Relating to Protected Areas

There are a number of national laws, programmes and international conventions that facilitate the increase of protected areas in China. These are listed in Table 8 and discussed in more detail here. As Table 8 shows, protected areas were first mentioned in planning documents in 1979. The regulations for protected areas were promulgated in 1985 and revisions were endorsed by the State Council in 1994. Although direct legislation on protected areas has been limited, national laws and programmes related to protected areas have intensified, over the last two decades. Laws have focused on the protection of different eco-system types, including the Forest Law in 1981, the Grassland Law in 1985 and the Law of Wild Animal Protection in 1988.

In the 1990s, policies and programmes on the protection of degraded eco-systems and species were extended, whilst the state also enforced its legislation on the marine
environment, fisheries, pollution prevention, water and soil conservation and land management. The Natural Forest Protection Programme (NFPP) was established in 1998, which aimed to protect 61.1 million hectares of forests in the upper reaches of the Yangtze and Yellow Rivers and 33 million hectares in the Northeast and Inner Mongolia (McBeath & Huang McBeath, 2006). Furthermore, the premier Zhu Rongji banned logging in the middle and upper reaches of the Yangtze and Yellow Rivers (after the disastrous floods on the Yangtze in 1998) and the Grain for Green Programme (GGP) was also initiated. In 1999, both the Natural Forest Protection Programme and the Grain for Green Programme were incorporated into the Great Western Development Programme (Wang, Han, & Bennett, 2008).

**Table 8: Some of China’s key national policies, regulations and programmes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Instrument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First PA established in China</td>
<td>1956</td>
<td>Declaration of Dinghushan as PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAs recognized as important part of national planning</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Notice of Strengthening, Planning and Scientific Investigation in Nature Reserves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First three Man and Biosphere (MAB) reserves established</td>
<td>1980</td>
<td>National MAB Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAs recognized as legal entities</td>
<td>1981</td>
<td>Forest Law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulations for PAs promulgated</td>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Management Approaches of Nature Reserves of Forest and Wildlife, Law of Grassland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China recognizes heritage value of PAs and joins World Heritage Convention</td>
<td>1985</td>
<td>World Convention on Protection of Cultural and Natural Heritage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Description</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Document/Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA role in ecological conservation recognized</td>
<td>1987</td>
<td>Principles on China's Ecological Conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for species protection recognized</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Law of Wild Animal Protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition of important wetlands</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Ramsar Convention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China accepts global responsibilities and need to share benefits from uses of biodiversity</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Convention on Biological Diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition of need to protect geological sites</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Rules for Conservation Management of Geological Relics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulations for Marine reserves established</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Management Approaches of Marine Nature Reserves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide range of policy issues restated and approved</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>China Biodiversity Action Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logging ban applied to large areas following disastrous floods</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Prime Minister's Decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programme launched to reverse clearing of steep land for farms</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Programme for returning farmland to forest and grassland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programme launched to narrow economic gap between rural interior and urban east/south of China</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Great Western Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programme launched to improve rural livelihoods</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Decree Number One</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Source: Mackinnon & Xie (2008)

The Grain for Green Programme is alternatively known as the Conversion of Cropland to Forest and Grassland Programme (Wang, et al., 2008) or the Sloping Land Conversion Programme. It aims to replace farms with forest on mountain slopes and it “is budgeted at over US$ 40 billion, affects more than 15 million farmers across 25 provinces, and plans to convert 14.67 million ha of cropland to forests by 2010” (Xu & Melick, 2007, p. 319). Jiuzhaigou National Park, the case study area, is included in this programme and thus farming was banned here in 1999.

Moreover, a number of international conventions were adopted by the Chinese government, which also influenced the establishment and management of many protected areas in China, including Jiuzhaigou National Park. In 1978, China joined UNESCO Man and the Biosphere Programme and set up its own Man and Biosphere committee, in order to establish biosphere reverses. Later, China joined the World Cultural and Natural Heritage Convention in 1985 and the Ramsar Convention in 1992. Moreover, China became one of the first developing countries to accept the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) in 1992.

Although China has specific and significant legislation and programmes relating to protected areas, it still draws criticism, since there are still areas of overlap and gaps. For instance, McBeath and Huang McBeath (2006, p. 307) stated that “most of the laws are vague and ambiguous, reading more like policy statements than directive, which makes administration and enforcement difficult”. The Regulation on Protected Areas is criticised as being ‘inflexible and ill-matched’ to the real situation of most protected areas (PATF, 2004). Currently, China is working on a new and comprehensive law for protected areas and it may come into force in the near future.
2.5.3 Defining Protected Areas in China

The Regulation on Protected Areas of the People’s Republic of China (1994) defines a protected area as an area of land/or sea with representative natural ecosystems, rare species or endangered wildlife or significant natural relics, which are protected and managed through legal means. This definition has been criticised, since it is too strict and unrealistic in practice (Xu & Melick, 2007). It is true that many protected areas in China have been created in remote areas, where local communities have lived interactively with nature for many generations. However, the IUCN definition of a protected area does not mention any cultural aspects of a protected area.

Protected areas in China include nature reserves, scenic landscape and historic interest areas (national parks) and forest parks of which the majority are nature reserves. As shown in Table 9, these protected areas fall into three categories: natural ecosystems, wildlife and natural relics’ protection, which include nine specific types (Xue & Jiang, 1994) — although most reserves include elements of more than one type. Since this category does not illustrate the management objectives of protected areas, a new category (consistent with IUCN protected areas’ management category) has been recommended in recent reports and studies, such as PATF (2004) and Yu et al. (2007).

In addition protected areas are classified into national protected areas and local protected areas. National protected areas are normally administered by one or more central government agencies, whilst the local protected areas are administered by local tiers of government agencies. Three separate management zones are applied to each protected area (in theory): core area with no use, habitation or interference permitted, apart from limited scientific research; buffer zone, where some collection, measurements, management and scientific research is permitted; and experimental zone, where scientific investigation, public education, tourism and raising of rare and endangered wild species are permitted (McBeath & Huang McBeath, 2006). In practice,
however, the management of protected areas rarely follows the zoning systems and human settlements, farming or harvesting of resources occurs in many of the experimental zones (PATF, 2004).

Table 9: Types of nature reserves in China

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Number by end of 2002</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Natural eco-system</td>
<td>Forest</td>
<td>769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grassland and meadow</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Desert</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inland wetland and water area</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ocean and coast</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wildlife species</td>
<td>Wild plant</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wild animal</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural relics</td>
<td>Geological remains</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Archaeological remain</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>1551</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from PATF (2004)

2.5.4 Regulating Protected Areas

The regulation and designation of protected areas in China went through three periods of change, according to Jim and Xu (2004). Prior to 1979, protected areas were designated and managed directly by central government, which aimed at reducing logging and hunting in high-value natural areas. Jim and Xu (2004) considered this a
top-down approach that did not foster the participation of local government and communities and it also failed to cultivate a sense of ownership at local level.

Following this initial period, there was a period of deregulation and decentralisation, from 1979 to 1991. As Jim and Xu (2004) noted, when the numbers of protected area increased, central government was unwilling and unable to manage and finance all protected areas. The designation and management of protected areas were, therefore, devolved to local jurisdiction, with little transferring of funding and guidelines from central government. Protected areas were dependent on local financial, administrative and staff support. Many protected areas were poorly managed or existed only on paper (Jim & Xu, 2004).

According to Jim and Xu (2004), the last period, from 1991 to the present time, is where the central government has adopted statutory procedures to encourage and guide local governments to establish and manage newly protected areas. The administrative status is tied to the degree of disturbance and ecological value of an area: A site with high disturbance and no flagship species will be designated and managed at county level, whilst an undisturbed site of national importance will be designated and managed at national level.

After experiencing three periods of reform, the currently protected areas in China are managed under complex systems involving multiple ministries at national level and lower tiers of governments, from province to county level. As shown in Figure 2, there are more than 10 different ministries or administrative systems involved in the management of protected areas. Whilst the State Environmental Protection Administration (SEPA) is responsible for the comprehensive management of conservation zones, the State Forestry Administration is responsible for a massive 76% of the total area of protected areas (Figure 3). Other ministerial sectors, such as agriculture, land and resources and oceans and construction, are also responsible for
protected areas within their territories. In addition, lower tiers of governments have set up their own forestry or environmental protection bureaus or offices and they are also involved in the management of protected area within their jurisdictions.

Moreover, in these complex administrative systems, none of the agencies alone plays a leading role. Conflicts of interest, values and imbalance of power distribution can occur within both horizontal and vertical administrative systems. These issues have been broadly discussed by protected areas studies (Fu, et al., 2004; Han, 2000; PATF, 2004), in addition to studies on biodiversity conservation (Liu, et al., 2003; McBeath & Huang McBeath, 2006; Qi, Su, & Chen, 2006) and environmental governance (Xue, Simonis, & Dudek, 2007). Hence, the China Council for International Environment and Development’s (CCICED) Protected Areas Task Force has called for greater collaboration amongst government agencies. In addition, a new State Administration for Nature Reserves under the State Council (with increased authority and funding) has been suggested by Liu et al. (2003) and Han (2000) to play a leading role.
Figure 2: China’s environmental administration system

Source: Xu & Melick (2007)
Figure 3: Proportion of PA system in China managed by different agencies (by area, 2002)

Source: Mackinnon & Xie (2008)

2.5.5 Funding of Protected Areas

Lack of adequate funding is normally a large issue for protected areas in China. According to the PATF (2004), national Nature Reserves receive funding from ministries for infrastructure construction, but provincial reserves only receive infrequent allocations for specific projects. For all protected areas, the salaries and operational costs are generally paid by provincial, prefectural or county budgets. McBeath and Huang McBeath (2006) noted that one consequence of linking funding with levels of protection is that this may lead to an increase in the number of national-level reserves, although annual funding for national reserves is allocated in a competitive way by national government, whereby only 25-30 of the 226 national level reserves can obtain funding each year.
As McBeath and Huang McBeath (2006) and PATF (2004) pointed out, insufficient government funding for the operation of protected areas leads managers to set up their own sources of funding and increased revenue raising activities within protected areas, including tourism development and the use of natural resources. It is a common phenomenon, worldwide, with the development of tourism in protected areas (Buckley & Sommer, 2001; Bushell & Eagles, 2007; Eagles, et al., 2002). Income from tourism is crucial for protected areas with limited funding mechanisms. However, PATF (2004) noted that tourism is often operated by powerful companies with government concessions and it is difficult for protected area management authorities to enforce conservation policies. Thus, there is a call to increase government funding for protected area operation and management, in order that they can appropriately manage their operational goals.

In conclusion, a paradigm shift regarding protected areas has been difficult to apply in China, since there are many basic issues, such as lack of funding for and consistency within the national system of protected area management, which need to be considered and dealt with within the current management environment. However, the case study of Jiuzhaigou National Park may find a new way forward for protected area management in China, since Jiuzhaigou National Park has been dealing innovatively with the issues within China’s approach to protected areas. Their approach includes dealing with complex relationship with multiple stakeholders and seeking adequate funding for the park’s operation, mainly through tourism development, besides supporting the local communities.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the context of protected area management and the recent shift in a management approach towards a new paradigm. In a sense, the management of protected areas has become more complicated, since the new paradigm calls for the
recognition of protected areas in a wider social, economic, ecological and political context, from local to global, whilst involving more and more stakeholders in management. This may make protected area management more complex and result in greater challenges. Research by Jamal and Stronza (2009) concluded that protected area management has been very complex, involving nested systems of the park’s system, the tourism system, the ecological systems and the community-resident system as well as various stakeholders with diverse interests and views. China’s approach to protected areas also shows some difficulties and complexity within management, such as lack of funding for operations and multiple supervision from various government agencies.

The following chapter looks at partnership from different perspectives and it observes how partnership applies to protected area management, in response to the new paradigm, which calls for greater collaboration between government agencies, the private sector, NGO’s and local communities, within the management of protected areas, in order to manage the protected areas in a sustainable way.
Chapter 3  Partnership as a Management Approach for Protected Areas

3.1  Introduction

As discussed in Chapter 2, the new paradigm of protected areas seeks an inclusive management model, whereby different actors are involved in protected area management. Actors or stakeholders, in the words of Borrini-Feyerabend (1996, p. 8), are referred to as “various institutions, social groups and individuals who possess a direct, significant and specific stake in the protected area”. As he explained, the stake may originate from different sources, including institutional mandate, economic interest, dependence for livelihood and a variety of other capacities and concerns. These stakeholders can range from local-level to global-level, including indigenous people, local communities, government agencies, NGOs, private enterprises, academics and international organisations. Partnerships between these different actors have become important in protected area management and they are increasingly viewed as a hallmark of a new paradigm (Phillips, 2003, Crofts, 2008; Lockwood et al., 2008).

It is useful for this thesis to identify a partnership framework for protected areas. Borrini-Feyerabend (1996) listed some basic principles and assumptions of a partnership in protected area management that include: (1) partnership builds on the complementary and distinctive roles of stakeholders as different stakeholders hold different capacities; (2) protected areas should be managed effectively by treating the relevant people with respect and equality; (3) partnership should link management rights and responsibilities; (4) civil society increasingly holds important roles and
responsibilities in partnership; (5) partnership is an on-going process and requires continuing review and improvement. In this study, it is assumed that an effective partnership would facilitate protected area management in a sustainable way, so that multiple management objectives can be achieved and conservation and development can be bridged through collaborative efforts of the partners.

In order to identify an effective partnership framework for protected areas, this chapter, firstly, draws on different perspectives to understand what a partnership is; what are the key elements of an effective partnership; and what challenges there are in a partnership approach. Secondly, a brief review is provided, in order to demonstrate the application of a partnership approach towards sustainable management of protected areas around the world. Finally, a partnership typology is adopted for identifying partnership cases in my research site: the Jiuzhaigou National Park in China. Therefore, the identified partnership framework, throughout this chapter, will be applied to the case study, particularly within the context of the new paradigm of protected areas (see Chapter 5).

3.2 Understanding Partnership from Different Perspectives

As Edgar, Marshal and Bassett (2006) noted, partnership means different things for different people. In order to explore an effective partnership framework for protected area management, it is necessary to ask three questions: What is partnership? What are the key elements of an effective partnership? What are the issues within partnerships? These questions will be examined by drawing on three different bodies of literature, specifically, international development, sustainable tourism and natural resource management.
3.2.1 Partnership from International Development Perspectives

From an international development perspective, Brinkerhoff (2002) stated that partnership is the most effective and efficient means to deliver services and to make development possible. According to Brinkerhoff (2002), partnerships can contribute to effectiveness of development by providing actors with access to crucial resources, such as expertise, technologies and relationships that may otherwise not be accessible, and by strengthening an organisation’s power in mobilising resources through networks. The innovative use of effective problem solving is more possible when combining different perspectives and skills through partnerships. Partnerships can also contribute to the efficiency of development efforts, through identifying and utilising the comparative advantages of the actors involved. Assembling the efforts of multiple and diverse actors with different perspectives and expertise is important for achieving efficiency improvements. Moreover, Brinkerhoff (2002) listed other positives of partnerships, including: opening up the decision-making process; reducing information and transaction costs; enhancing actors’ capacity through the experience of working with other partners; and staff training and exchange. He comes up with an ideal definition of partnership results, as follows:

*Partnership is a dynamic relationship among diverse actors, based on mutually agreed objectives, pursued through a shared understanding of the most rational division of labor based on the respective comparative advantages of each partner. This relationship results in mutual influence, with a careful balance between synergy and respective autonomy, which incorporate mutual respect, equal participation in decision-making, mutual accountability, and transparency* (Brinkerhoff, 2002, p. 14).

Instead of seeing partnership as a dynamic relationship, Mallarangeng and Van Tuijl (2004) viewed partnership as a governance reform service organisation. They focussed
on the Partnership for Governance Reform in Indonesia, noting that partnership provides common ground for stakeholders to discuss and negotiate development goals, to foster reform and to identify and support the public good. Partnership promotes work with legitimacy of government, the credibility of civil society and the professionalism of the corporate sector (Mallarangeng & Van Tuijl, 2004). Partnership aims to combine these qualities into a new organisational culture and discourse, in order to shape the dynamic relationships between different partners (Mallarangeng & Van Tuijl, 2004).

Although partnership has these positive sides, critical views on partnership in international development see partnership as little more than rhetoric with links to power issues. For example, Crawford (2003) and Abrahamsen (2004) argued that there is no ‘genuine’ partnership which encompasses the key elements of partnership, including mutual trust, respect, influence, accountability, transparency, and equality in power sharing and decision-making. Using Crawford’s (2003, p. 142) words, a partnership can be an “Terminological Trojan Horse”, that is, an instrument for deeper, wider and more effective penetration into a country’s development choices and path. Partnership can still seek to maintain Western influence and control over development processes in developing countries (Abrahamsen, 2004), and it is a more subtle approach than explicit conditionality, such as the Sector Wide Approach or the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (Craig & Porter, 2003; Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 1998).

3.2.2 Partnership from Sustainable Tourism Perspectives

From a sustainable tourism perspective, Laing et al. (2008) have provided a fairly comprehensive review on the partnership literature. They observe that partnerships are desirable for achieving government policy objectives and gaining sustainable tourism products, although Wilson, Nielsen and Buultjens (2009) thought that partnership is somewhat based on an ideology of government and private sectors,
which promotes ‘doing more with less’. An effective partnership is developed for the mutual benefits of all partners, including a wide range of stakeholders from the local community (Lacy, Battig, Moore, & Noakes, 2002). From an economic point of view, partnerships are seen as a vehicle for drawing additional resources, such as labour, funding or skills (Laing et al., 2009). The pooling and sharing of resources, knowledge and experience from partners is crucial for problem analysis and for maximising opportunities for innovation that ultimately could lead to efficiency gains (Selin, 1999; Selin & Chavez, 1995).

In comparison with international development perspectives of power issues within partnership, Laing et al. (2008) noted that partnerships in tourism, especially around protected areas, are a way of dealing with power inequalities or imbalance, through involving a range of different stakeholders in decision-making that influences their lives, concerns or interests. Thus, tourism partnerships can be understood as a mode of governance. Since government business is increasingly conducted through partnerships between public and private sectors or between the public sector and civil society, partnerships in tourism are viewed as an effective means to handle change and complexity and deal with uncertainty and collective action problems that require collaboration between multiple actors (Laing, et al., 2008; Wilson, et al., 2009).

In order to understand what tourism partnerships are, Laing et al. (2008, p. 4) explained three perspectives, which are the normative, reactive and pragmatic analytical perspectives: (1) ‘the normative perspective’, considers a partnership as an end in itself, and argues that partnership should seek to maximize equity and inclusiveness, (2) ‘the reactive perspective’ tries to counter the critique on the normative perspectives and promote better public relations and (3) ‘the pragmatic analytical perspective’ considers partnerships as a means to reach other objectives, including efficiency gains. They came up with their own definition of partnership for
sustainable tourism as follows, by combining different elements from other partnership literature, such as the ideas of Brinkerhoff (2002):

*regular, cross-sectoral interactions over an extended period of time between parties, based on at least some agreed rules or norms, intended to address a common issues or to achieve a specific policy goal or goals which cannot be solved by the partners individually and involving pooling and sharing of appreciations or resources, mutual influence, accountability, commitment, participation, trust and respect and transparency* (Laing, et al., 2008, p. 5).

In relation to issues within partnerships, they noted that the development of partnerships has a potential risk of excluding the public, thereby creating privileged, small, powerful groups and favouring established interests. The shift from ‘government’ to ‘governance’, together with the neo-liberal economic rationality, may disempower groups who are promoting non-economic societal objectives (Laing, et al., 2008). Additionally, Selin and Chavez (1995) and Selin (1999) explained that tourism organisations operate in an unstable environment with various economic, social and political forces that influence policy and management direction. When tourism stakeholders face competitive pressures and challenges from an unstable environment, diverse partnerships are formed to deal with the problems or to take advantage of significant opportunities. Hence, tourism partnerships evolve dynamically in response to different internal and external forces and regular feedback and reshaping of issues become important in a tourism partnership (Selin, 1999; Selin & Chavez, 1995).

### 3.2.3 Partnership from Natural Resource Management Perspectives

Focusing on the relationships between corporate, non-profit and government agencies that aim to improve environmental quality or natural resource utilization in the United States, Long and Arnold (1995, p. 6) described partnerships as “voluntary
collaborations between two or more organisations with a jointly-defined agenda focused on a discrete, attainable, and potentially measurable goal”. Voluntary, jointly-defined activities and decision-making processes are key elements of this type of partnership. A ‘Partnership Life Cycle’ was introduced and used as an analytical device for environmental partnerships. The Partnership Life Cycle includes four stages: ‘Seed phase’ (gives birth to partnership); ‘Initiation phase’ (adolescent growth); ‘Execution phase’ (maturity); and ‘Closure/ Renewal phase’ (Long & Arnold, 1995, p. 11).

Regarding the issues in partnerships, Long and Arnold (1995) proclaimed that partnerships are entrepreneurial endeavours with calculated risks. They are complementary to environmental regulation goals, since regulation still plays a unique role in setting priorities and compelling a great number of organisations to adhere to standards that will help achieve environmental goals. They list issues that may influence the partnership throughout the Partnership Life Cycle, including: failure to engage critical decision makers; failure to clearly define a partnership agenda; lack of investment in relationship building and development of mutual respect; lack of flexibility in changing a partnership’s course when needed; failure to translate knowledge into progress and failure to share credit, evaluate results and sustain progress. They also addressed the critical roles of individuals who facilitate and implement partnership and their characteristics, skills and shortcomings in determining whether partnerships would succeed, partially succeed, or fail.

Similar to Long and Arnold (1995), Borrini-Feyerabend (1996) focused on partnership in protected areas, noting that partnership is not a valid and effective approach in all cases. In a situation that requires immediate decisions and actions, it is better to act rather than wait for a general consensus on what to do. Borrini-Feyerabend also recognised the roles of individuals in partnerships and stated that many partnership
agreements depend on the effort and commitment of one or more individuals and/or the presence of particular projects if the individual(s) are transferred or stop making a contribution, or if the project stops functioning, the partnership process may be blocked, disrupted and/or unsuccessful.

Different perspectives on partnership broaden our understanding of partnership, in addition to the key elements and challenges that occur in the partnership approach. It shows that partnership is an effective approach, in relation to combining different resources, capacities or knowledge held by different partners, in order to achieve some shared goals or objectives. However, to achieve power sharing in decision-making, or other elements such as mutual respect, influence, transparency and accountability between partners appears to be difficult, although these elements are desirable and important for a good partnership. For the purpose of this thesis, a working definition of partnership, at the present time, has been adapted and it is described in Box 1. This definition encompasses the elements of partnership discussed by Brinkerhoff (2002), Laing et al. (2008), Long and Arnold (1995), Selin (1999) and Wilson et al. (2009).

Box 1: Definition of partnership for protected areas

| Two or more actors, based on some agreed rules or norms, work together to address common issues or to achieve specific policy goal or goals, which involve the pooling and sharing of resources and knowledge, mutual benefit, influence, trust, respect, transparency and accountability. |

In the following section, the application of partnership to protected area management is examined.
3.3 Application of ‘Partnership’ in Protected Areas

We know that the key to a sustainable future for Protected Areas lies in the development of partnerships. It is only through alliances and partnerships that Protected Areas can be made relevant to the needs of society: Nelson Mandela, ‘2003 World Parks Congress’, Co-Patron Opening Speech (Bushell & Eagles, 2007, p. 1).

As noted in Chapter 2, there are a number of terms used to categorise a protected area’s management approach, for example, government managed, co-managed or community managed protected areas, I will not specifically refer to these terms here, since they all come under the broader umbrella of ‘partnership’. This section draws on empirical studies on protected areas and it examines the application of partnership within the management of protected areas.

The application of partnership in protected area management, in order to deal with challenges or to reconcile biodiversity conservation, tourism management and the social-economic development of local communities or indigenous people, is recognised in a great deal of the literature. For instance, Jamal and Stronza (2009) commented that partnership is important for bridging the ‘use-conservation gap’ in protected areas, by bringing the park system and the tourism (industry) system together, in order to work towards the sustainable management of tourism and protected areas. Mburu and Birner’s (2007) case study involved partnership projects for wildlife conservation in Kenya and they purport that partnerships reduce the level of human/wildlife conflicts and provide incentives for local communities, conservationists and donor organisations to continue contributing towards conservation. Partnership is argued to be an important approach, when enhancing the stewardship of protected areas (McCool, 2009; Phillips, 2004). The importance of partnership is further highlighted by the fact it is a response to “limited capabilities, reduced services and declining budgets” for
protected area tourism management and other management demands (Moore & Weiler, 2009, p. 129).

The benefits of a partnership approach are viewed both at the international level and local level. At the international level, with the increase in international parks located on different political borders, cross-border partnership becomes a practical means for utilising, developing and managing shared resources (Laing, et al. 2008). Partnerships amongst trans-boundary protected area management agencies and their adjacent communities are significant for the management of regional-scale eco-system components, such as important international populations of large mammals and other wildlife species and also vegetation communities (Danby & Slocombe, 2005).

At the local level, partnership is a constructive approach, which can deal with the challenges associated with conservation and development. For instance, in the context of tourism in protected areas, Eagles (2002, p. 145) observed that, whilst many governments attempt to demand that their parks earn most of their budget through tourism, tour operators are like “vultures, swooping into the political arena to seize the most important assets”, such as accommodation and food services. This not only denies the park management important income sources but it also places the protected areas in danger, since there is a lack of funding for the management agency to handle resource overuse and environmental degradation from tourism development. Therefore, working within a partnership could resolve this type of problem in a more positive and harmonious way.

Using protected areas management in Australia as an example, Laing et al. (2008) commented on the benefits of partnership for stakeholders. For instance, partnerships have been formed between government agencies and traditional land owners, for the purpose of maintaining the values and culture of the traditional owner, although normally the formation of the partnership focuses more on conservation achievements.
and/or economic benefits. Another example is the partnership between the Queensland National Park and the Binna Burra Mountain Lodge. Through this partnership, the lodge has gained financial benefits, through hosting various activities, conferences, workshops and conventions for the park and their staff have obtained educational benefits, through gaining knowledge about conservation and the surrounding environment (Laing, et al. 2008).

In addition, partnership is an important approach which involves local communities in the management of protected areas and this is especially discussed in the literature relating to community-based approaches. In a community-based natural resource management case study in Cambodia, Lo Cascio and Beilin (2010) noted that communities should be involved in the design and management of protected areas. The protection of biodiversity resources is only possible by providing alternatives for local livelihood options and by reducing local people’s dependence on natural resources, in order to avoid land clearing for agriculture and the harvesting of wild foods and animals. Nepal (2002) examined the involvement of indigenous people in protected areas by taking comparative perspectives from Nepal, Thailand and China. He also suggested that taking the livelihood of local people into account and involving them in resource management is the way to achieve conservation and sustainable management of protected areas.

There are definite challenges, however, in a partnership approach that involves local communities. For instance, Budhathoki (2004), in investigating the implementation of the community-based conservation approach in Nepal, argued that there is a need for the equal sharing of benefits coming from protected areas, in addition to empowering local people in the process of decision-making. In particular, this author considers that women, indigenous people and poor people should be part of decision-making and the distribution of conservation benefits. Using cases from El Salvador and Zimbabwe,
Balint (2006) illustrated that community-based conservation projects should consider rights, capacity, governance and revenue, which are four key development indicators, in order to gain improved outcomes for the socio-economic development of local communities and more desirable conservation of natural resources within protected areas. Spiteri and Nepal (2006) went on to argue that the implementation of incentive-based conservation programmes in developing countries, however, lacks a depth of understanding of the diversity and complexities inherent in communities and thus, programmes give too little consideration to issues of equity and the distribution of benefits. They suggested the identification of key beneficiaries, thus giving opportunities to marginalised community members, so they are able to become involved in programmes. This would improve the capacity of local people to understand and support conservation programmes, which is very important for the sustainability of this type of approach.

Hence, a more desirable partnership between the local communities and the protected area management agencies (for both biodiversity conservation and socio-economic development) are addressed in China, by studies, such as Han (2000), PATF (2004), Fu et al. (2004) and Chen, Yang and Xie (2005). Therefore, the partnership approach of providing the community with more participation in decision-making together with the park management can result, on the one hand, in socio-economic benefits for local communities (Nepal, 2002) and this will achieve sustainable management of protected areas, through the local people’s support (Jim & Xu, 2002), on the other hand.

In summary, partnership is an important approach for the sustainable management of protected areas. Protected area management needs partnerships, in order to bring key stakeholders, such as governments, NGOs, donor organisations, tour operators and communities together, if they are to achieve biodiversity conservation, tourism management and socio-economic development of local communities within/nearby
protected areas. As noted in this section, partnerships in protected areas are diverse, in regards to various management objectives and demands. The following section explores and identifies a framework for partnerships within protected areas.

3.4 Framework for Identifying Partnerships in Protected Areas

As discussed in the previous chapter, there are many different forms of partnerships in protected area management. Partnerships can be formed for different purposes according to management demands of protected areas. In order to identify different forms of partnerships in protected area management, a framework is needed for this thesis. Selin (1999) developed a typology of sustainable tourism partnerships by using five primary dimensions, including locus of control, geographic scale, legal basis, time frame and organisational diversity and size. The locus of control (Figure 4) was initially developed by Borrini-Feyerabend (1996) for partnerships in protected area management and it is adapted here, so as to later identify partnership cases in Jiuzhaigou National Park.

As shown in Figure 4, the locus of control continuum ranges from complete protected area agencies control at the left end of the scale, to complete stakeholder control at the right end of the scale. Selin (1999) explained that advisory groups may operate towards the agency control side of the continuum by serving in an advisory capacity to the management agency and thus providing input into decisions that the management agency is ultimately legally responsible for making. Towards the middle of the locus of control continuum, responsibilities and resources are negotiated and shared between a management agency and other stakeholders, through joint agreements and memorandums of understanding. Towards the right side of the continuum, authority and responsibility can be transferred from the management agency to some stakeholder groups. At the right end of the locus of control continuum, stakeholders take primary control of partnerships and management agencies serve as members of
the partnership or they are involved through technical assistance and grant support.

**Figure 4: The locus of control continuum**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protected area agency has control</th>
<th>Actively consulting</th>
<th>Seeking consensus</th>
<th>Negotiating agreements</th>
<th>Sharing authority</th>
<th>Transferring authority and responsibility</th>
<th>Stakeholders have control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Source: adapted from Steve Selin (1999, p.266), based on Borrini-Feyerabend (1996)

### 3.5 Conclusion

Through drawing on different perspectives on partnership, the first part of this chapter has shown that it is important to understand that partnership is complex in practice. It encompasses two or more diverse actors working together towards a shared goal, through pooling and sharing resources. The relationship between them is dynamic and there may or may not be a formal agreement between them. However, a partnership should be based on mutual benefit, trust, respect, transparency and accountability. Ideally, actors should have a share of power and participate in decision-making.

Secondly, it is recognised that partnership is important for the sustainable management of protected areas, not only for biodiversity conservation but also for tourism management and social economic development of local communities. Finally, considering different partnerships can be formed for different purposes according to protected area management objectives and demands, the locus of control continuum is adopted in this research to identify partnership cases in Jiuzhaigou National Park.

The following chapter will explain the research methodology and the techniques employed during fieldwork, which will demonstrate the reliability of this research and give validity to the findings in Chapter 5.
Chapter 4  Methodology

4.1  Introduction

In order to explore a partnership framework for the sustainable management of protected areas, the previous chapter reviewed the concept of partnership from different perspectives and it examined the application of partnership in protected areas. Subsequently this chapter illustrates the research methodology and it is comprised of five parts. Initially, I clarify my position in this research by making transparent the motivation for the research and I subsequently provide the background for the choice of methodologies employed in this study. Following a reflection on research ethics, in particular the issue of a conflict of roles, the specific methods applied to the fieldwork are described in detail and discussed, together with the fieldwork experiences. The data analysis strategies are then explained.

4.2  Justification of my Position within the Research

Generally, in social science research, there is a ‘push’ for the researcher to make transparent the motivation for the research (Scheyvens & Storey, 2003); to clearly show the positioning of the researcher and determine whether the research will be approached with objectivity, neutrality, or with named subjectivities (O’ Leary, 2004); to provide substantial documentation of the research methods; and to make the research process available to the public (Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002). Since my research investigated the practice of partnership within the Jiuzhaigou National Park, where I am employed and I am also a member of its local community, instead of claiming that I would occupy an unbiased objective position, I have recognised my subjective positioning within this research. However, I have attempted to ensure that
my research is open and transparent and the knowledge and information that is produced can be critically evaluated.

There were a number of complex and interrelated reasons that drew me towards studying ‘partnership’ in protected area management, particularly in Jiuzhaigou National Park. Firstly, being a local resident who was born and grew up inside Jiuzhaigou National Park, I had a passion and desire to gain a deeper understanding of how partnership was practiced in the area of engagement with the local community in the management of the protected area and whether the sustainable livelihoods of the local community was being considered within the partnership practice: This issue has been well documented in relation to protected area management around the world (see Chapter 3). Secondly, as an employee of Jiuzhaigou National Park, I was concerned about the sustainability of partnership practices between the Jiuzhaigou National Park and its partners, especially since I had been involved in partnership projects or programmes. Moreover, I had observed the important role of partnerships in the facilitation of management of Jiuzhaigou National Park, in addition to USA national parks, such as Yosemite National Park. Thus, I would treat this research as a process in which I could to learn about and evaluate partnerships within Jiuzhaigou National Park, in the hope that I could apply this knowledge to my practice when I returned to work. Thirdly, as a student within development studies, I sought a theoretical and conceptual framework for an understanding of what was ‘shifting’ in the protected area management paradigm (see Chapter 2) and what appeared to be a successful partnership for protected areas. I also wanted to attempt to assess partnership practice within a theoretical framework. Finally, as a researcher, I wanted to make a contribution towards the knowledge and practice of partnership, as an approach which involves and empowers multiple stakeholders in protected areas, as addressed by the new paradigm for protected areas. I anticipate that the lessons learned through this study will provide some useful reference for other protected areas, within the same
context.

4.3 Background of Research Methodology

My research sought an in-depth understanding of partnership practice within the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park and therefore, a qualitative case study approach was considered appropriate for a number of reasons. Firstly, Brockington and Sullivan (2003, p. 57) cited that qualitative research seeks to understand the world by ‘interacting with, empathizing with and interpreting the actions and perceptions of its actors’. Partnership practice is based on the actions of diverse stakeholders and it can be understood by obtaining the perceptions of those who are involved in (and influenced by) the actions. Secondly, qualitative research allows the researcher to seek a holistic understanding of complex realities and processes, instead of merely seeking numerical data (Mayoux, 2006). Thirdly, as Filstead (1970, cited Chadwick, Bahr, & Albrecht, 1984, p. 206) claimed, a qualitative approach permits the researcher:

To get close to the data thereby developing the analytical, conceptual, and categorical components of explanation from the data itself-rather than from the preconceived, rigidly structured, and highly quantified techniques that pigeonhole the empirical social world into the operational definitions that the researcher has constructed.

Although, in this research, a theoretical framework was considered for the purpose of contrasting partnership practice in the real world with theory, this did not constrain the depth of data collected, analysed and interpreted.

Whilst the qualitative approach has been well documented, O’Leary (2004, p. 116) summarised that a case study was an approach to ‘delve deeper’ and it “allows for in-depth exploration; is an examination of subtleties and intricacies; attempts to be
holistic; explores processes as well as outcomes; and investigate the context and setting of a situation”. Instead of seeking the large sampling size of a quantitative analysis, this case study approach allowed me to delve into each partnership in some depth, together with a combination of different data gathering methods, including open-ended semi-structured interviews, observations and secondary data and document analyses. Multiple sources of data and multiple data collection methods were documented, since this method is considered as being very important for a case study approach (Punch, 2005; Yin, 2009). A combination of different methods would complement my research questions and theoretical position and also allow me to capture rich data. More importantly, these methods were employed, in order to triangulate and cross-check the accuracy of data amongst the various stakeholders, in addition to controlling any possible biases caused by the researcher being an ‘insider’.

In light of my decision to use a qualitative case study approach and data gathering methods, a range of partnership populations (which have formed at different time periods and for different purposes in the management history of Jiuzhaigou National Park) were identified, based on personal communication between myself and the Science Department of Jiuzhaigou National Park. In consideration of the limited time for fieldwork, partnership selection was a criteria-based process. The framework introduced in Chapter 3, section 3.4 — the locus of control continuum — was one of the criteria which focused on who held the control rights within the partnership. In addition to the locus of control continuum, other criteria included: 1) the existing and operating partnerships; 2) a diversity of partners, from local to international, including the park management agency, the local community, tour operators, governments and universities; and 3) the significance of partnership for the achievement of management objectives within Jiuzhaigou National Park, particularly in the areas of conservation, tourism management, socio-economic development and environmental protection.
Based on these criteria, three partnership cases were selected for the purpose of this study, as shown in Table 10. The first partnership is with the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, which is an example of a partnership between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the local community. The second partnership is with Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory for Ecological Environment and Sustainable Development Research, which is an example of a partnership between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, domestic and international universities and an international national park. The third partnership is with the Jiuzhaigou Green Bus Company Ltd, which is a tourism partnership between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and different levels of government agencies.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Year formed</th>
<th>Stakeholders</th>
<th>Relationship to Management Objectives of Jiuzhaigou National Park</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nuorilang Tour Service Centre</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau; a Joint-Operation Company; and approximately 1000 local residents</td>
<td>Local community development; tourism management; environmental protection; and job creation for regional communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiuzhaigou Green Bus Company</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Prefecture Government; County Government; Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau; and a government owned tour operator</td>
<td>Tourism management; environmental protection; and regional socio-economic development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Yosemite National Park (USA); University of Washington (USA); University of California (USA); Sichuan University; and Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau</td>
<td>Science research and international cooperation and training</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author

4.4 Ethical Considerations

Formal Ethics Requirements

This study was evaluated by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee and it was judged to be low risk. An internal ethics review was also held (prior to commencement of the fieldwork) in which my supervisors and other Development Studies academics discussed various ethical issues, including recruitment of participants, obtaining informed consent, participant confidentiality, avoiding potential harm, the handling of data and any conflict of roles. Consequently, the fieldwork was conducted in line with Massey University Human Ethics Committee Code of Ethical for Research, Teaching and Evaluations involving Human Participants (Massey University, 2010).
Conflict of Roles

Being on the staff of the Jiuzhaigou National Park and a local resident — and an independent researcher — all during the same period, presented a conflict of roles within this research. However it also meant that I was in a privileged position, in terms of access to potential participants and the gathering of relevant data. Potential issues related to the conflict of roles were addressed at the internal ethics review meeting. Discussions included being aware of whether participants would feel pressure if I obtained permission from a leader to interview them; to negotiate appropriate venues for interviews in order to avoid participants’ concern over whether other people would notice that they are talking to me; and to proceed with caution when people were interested in gaining other participants’ perspectives on a specific issue, in order to protect participants. Whilst keeping in mind these types of potential issues, I planned to reflexively overcome problems during the fieldwork, by addressing the purpose and significance of the study, in addition to my position within the study. However, I shared the same social, cultural and linguistic characteristics with the majority of my participants and my work experience also gave me a unique insight into my research areas. Therefore, whilst I was aware of the research ethics issues, I believed that I could still conduct the research in a sensitive and responsive manner (Liamputtong, 2010).

4.5 Fieldwork Methods and Experience

The fieldwork was conducted within Jiuzhaigou National Park over a six-week period, between June and July 2010. This was a unique fieldwork experience for me because, not only was I involved in primary data collection through interviews, observations of people and the gathering of relevant documents and secondary data, it also provided me with an opportunity to return to my work area and get together with my family, friends and colleagues.
Preparing for Data Collection

During the first week, I went back to my village, Zharu, which is located inside Jiuzhaigou National Park. Since June and July is the peak season for tourism in Jiuzhaigou National Park, there were about 10,000 visitors per day. The local residents, who live in villages inside the park, were very busy running their tourism businesses or going to work. My sister and sister-in-law have souvenir stalls in Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, which was one of the partnership cases for this study and my brother works for the Residents’ Management Office of the Jiuzhagiou National Park Administration Bureau. I talked about my research with them, when we were together at our home. They were very supportive of my research and they put forward the names of key people who might hold great insights about the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre. My family told me where and when I could find these key people.

Subsequently, I returned to my work place to begin my research project, since I am on the staff of the Science Department Office of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau. There had been some changes in our office over the past two years: two former colleagues had just returned from Ireland after finishing their Master degrees; three new colleagues now worked in our Science Department Office; and one friend from the University of Washington was conducting her post-doc research. As usual, my colleagues were very busy and dedicated to their various projects or tasks. My return was not a surprise to them, since people frequently travel overseas or to other places in China for training, study or conferences. However, these were pleasant and knowledgeable people for whom I had the greatest of respect. My return was welcomed by them and they told me about what had happened in my absence, what had changed and what was ongoing. I could see there were many areas requiring my attention, but I reminded myself that this was my period for fieldwork.

In addition, as a staff member, I knew the organisation’s cultural norms, so therefore, I
first arranged meetings with the managers, in order to report on my study in New Zealand, in addition to my research and fieldwork plans. Following these meetings, I had a specific meeting with one manager from the Science Department Office, since he had provided constructive suggestions for this research, which ultimately helped me and my supervisor to decide which partnership cases could be studied for this thesis. We discussed potential participants drawing on a purposive sampling, which is a method used to select participants based on particular purposes of experiment (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Purposive sampling was followed by the ‘snowball’ method, which is based on extended associations through previous participants (Noy, 2008). The manager also informed me about where I could collect relevant documents and secondary data for the selected three partnership cases.

In the cases of the Nuorlang Tour Service Centre and the Jiuzhaigou Green Bus Company, which were local level partnerships, accessing potential interview participants within different partner organisations and the local community was relatively easy. However, the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is an international partnership and the partners are located in the USA and Chengdu City. Fortunately, leaders from the University of Washington and Sichuan University had planned a trip to Jiuzhaigou for a meeting, during my fieldwork period. This unexpected opportunity enabled me to interview two key interview participants, in the case of the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory.

**Interviews**

I used semi-structured, face-to-face interviews, as the primary fieldwork method of data collection, in order to gain deeper insights about each partnership. The interviews were guided by questions, such as: What were the interests of the stakeholders, which resulted in them being involved in the partnership? What roles had they played within the partnership? What benefits had they gained through the partnership? What
challenges did they face in the partnership? Details of these questions are attached in Appendix 1. The answers to these questions assisted in the construction of rich detailed information relating to partnership practice within the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park.

In order to gain a holistic understanding of each partnership, interviews were conducted with eight managers and 10 staff from different stakeholder organisations, who play important roles within the management and operation of the partnerships, in addition to five residents from various villages inside Jiuzhaigou National Park (see Table 11). As shown in Table 11, it is clear that I have used codes and abbreviations, in order to identify the interview participants and partnership cases throughout the research finding chapter (Chapter 5).
Table 11: Number of interview participants in the three cases, by occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Manager</th>
<th>Keys staff</th>
<th>Local Residents</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nuorilang</td>
<td>NTSC</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour Service Centre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiuzaigou</td>
<td>JIL</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Laboratory</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiuzaigou</td>
<td>GBC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Bus Company</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>23</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author

Whilst keeping the guiding questions in mind, the interviews were conducted in diverse ways and at different locations and questions were always open-ended. This process also challenged me to play different roles and to ask the questions in a sensitive and responsive manner. For example, when conducting the interviews with managers from Jiuzhaigou National Park, as a member of staff I appeared to be ‘consulting’ them, rather than just asking questions as a researcher. These interviews were normally conducted in the manager’s office over 30 to 40 minutes. However, the interviews conducted with staff members and colleagues were more informal. The interview (usually in a tea shop, restaurant or bus) opened with general conversation, followed by the questions and one interview continued for two to three hours. In addition, the
interviews with local residents were a completely different experience. The interview locations were the participants’ homes or souvenir shops. It was more appropriate to conduct these interviews with the resident participants as a natural but guided conversation, in which they also talked about their families and children and I spoke about my experiences in New Zealand. I always demonstrated my respect to them and I was honest about what I knew, what I was concerned about and what I was not sure about, so that they (in return) could express their opinions and understanding. This was not only because I am a member of the local residents’ community, I am also a staff member of Jiuzhaigou National Park and therefore they assumed that I would have more knowledge than them. No matter who was being interviewed, it was critical for me to open my mind and listen and learn from the participants (Brockington and Sullivan 2003).

Observation

Observation was a method I used to complement interviews at different locations and for different partnership cases. I went to the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre with my sister, in order to sell souvenirs to tourists, since this would be an excellent place for me to interview and observe local residents from the various villages in the park; it also give me an opportunity to observe the services provided, by the centre, for the tourists. I could even observe the truck which came to carry waste water from the centre. I also joined in the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory’s activities, which included presentations and visits to field research sites. An interview with a leader from Sichuan University was conducted during a field research site visit. Taking part in these activities allowed me to observe how people from different partner organisations (with different backgrounds) worked together on a research project. I also followed my friend, who provides an interpretation and guide service for tourists on the tour buses which operate inside the park. Since I had been an interpreter for the Green Bus Company in
2001, my friend was confident that I could provide a good service for the tourists, when she needed a few minutes rest. Whilst we were waiting for tourists at the bus station or during the lunch break, I opened conservations for interviews with interpreters and bus drivers, after I informed them about the research. This experience also allowed me to observe the interactions between the people from Jiuzhaigou National Park, the local community and the Green Bus Company, in addition to observing the convenient service delivered by the Green Bus Company for thousands of tourists every day.

**Documents and Secondary Data**

Documents and other forms of secondary data were collected for the purpose of cross-checking and triangulating the data gathered from the interviews and observations, in addition to verifying figures and constructing background information for each partnership. The range of documents collected included Jiuzhaigou National Park journals, research reports, partnership agreements, policy documents, organisational records, website news and personal communications. Secondary data included published articles and theses on Jiuzhaigou National Park, which were mainly used to understand the wider context of the research site.

**Capturing the Field**

My naïve decision prior to the fieldwork, to buy a high quality digital voice recorder in order to capture the interview data, soon proved to not be very wise. I asked participants if I could use the voice recorder and the main response was that they were not very comfortable with this idea, however, taking notes was fine. One example was when a participant said to me with a laugh: ‘**OK, if you use a voice recorder, then I need to think carefully about what I try to say**’. Thus, I could see that if I used the voice recorder, I would, in fact, be creating a space between me and the participants and this
Taking notes during interviews was an unexpected challenge for me at the beginning. I was conducting cross-cultural research without the use of a research assistant or translator. It was easier to take notes when the participant spoke Chinese, since I had been educated in Chinese since primary school. However, when the interviews were conducted with the local residents, we spoke in our local Tibetan language—and I took notes in Chinese. Sometimes, it was difficult to immediately find an exact word to note down what a person had said. Normally, I had to repeat what I had noted down, in order to confirm the data with the participant. Another difficulty occurred when I conducted an interview with a professor from the University of Washington during a lunch break. Due to my previous participants not wanting me to use a voice recorder I also tried to take notes during this interview. Soon I realised that almost two years training in the English language was not sufficient for me to conduct an interview in English, without using a voice recorder. This professor was very kind and understood my situation, so he helped me note down key points and later he and another professor from the University of Washington confirmed that part of the data by email.

Data from the interviews were first noted down by filling in a table, which showed the date, participant’s name, participant’s position or occupation and the location of the interview and time period. The guiding questions were printed out separately, so I could frequently refer to them during the interviews. Interview data was noted down as fast as possible, in no particular order. However, after each interview or observation, two to three hours work at home was necessary. I normally stayed in my apartment alone, firstly to read through the interview notes and check whether everything was clear and whether there were gaps that should be verified by revisiting participants.
Following this confirmation of my notes, I wrote my journal in English, in order to reflect on the interviews and observation process.

4.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis is a process which generates and interprets relevant themes, in order to achieve meaningful understanding. This involves the use of both inductive (discovering) and deductive (uncovering) reasoning (O’Leary, 2004). In this study, as noted by O’Leary (2004), themes were identified through engagement with the literature prior to commencement of the fieldwork and consideration of the research question, although the data collection was reflective and not limited by pre-identified themes. Upon returning to New Zealand, whilst my field experience was still exactly kept in my mind, I remained at home during the first week, in order to translate the interviews and observation data from Chinese into English. Subsequently, I directly worked on my field journal and translations of the data, documents and secondary data, by coding, annotating and searching for interconnections.

Cupples and Kindon (2003) contended that meanings attached to researchers’ fieldwork are neither pre-given nor decided during research, but they are invented and reinvented during the writing process. After data analysis, the research findings were identified (as described in detail in Chapter 5), by focusing on themes relating to the background of the partnerships; the stakeholders and their roles and relationships; and the benefits accruing from (and challenges within) each partnership. In consideration of potential biases that might be caused by my position in this research, the description of the partnerships was sent to people from organisations (who had insights into the partnerships) for verification. Findings from the field were subsequently assessed, according to the partnership framework (which was developed in Chapter 3) and discussed within the context of sustainable management of protected areas in Chapter 6, in order to answer the general research question ‘Do partnerships facilitate
4.7 Practical Issues

Liamputtong (2010, p. 111) argued that cross-cultural research should be undertaken by insiders who shared social, cultural and linguistic characteristics with the research participants, because insider status reduces cultural and linguistic barriers. Moreover, because the insider is socialised within the group’s culture they have unique insights into the group. Whilst this situation was an advantage to my research, there were also some practical issues raised during the research process. Firstly, I struggled to express my research in different languages. The research was designed in English and therefore, the research’s concepts, theories and framework were better understood in English. However, it took time to articulate this in Chinese and local Tibetan. Prior to the fieldwork, I began to explain general details of my research to my Chinese friends in New Zealand. The confusion, interest and doubt that they showed helped me reflect on how well I must explain my research. I also wrote down the research aims, objectives and questions in Chinese and sent these (by email) to my colleagues at the Jiuzhaigou National Park. Their comments helped me double check any unclear messages. I used the same method when I arrived home to Jiuzhaigou. I practiced explaining my research and interview questions with my family in my local Tibetan language. My brother and sister’s responses always helped me rethink and re-organise the way in which I explained my research and asked questions of the participants. This process enabled me to become familiar with and confident about my research, both in Chinese and the local Tibetan language. Consequently, I could more fluently and precisely describe the research and ask questions of my participants. Secondly (due to multiple roles and the position I held within this research), I had to work on finding a balance between my multiple roles and reflecting on my responsibilities towards the participants and my employer, in addition to the knowledge which would be produced.
through this study. Thirdly, I felt the limited time period for conducting the fieldwork actually helped me keep focused on the research, since I could act as an outside researcher, in order to delve into the data that was relevant to the research without becoming distracted by other matters. These practical issues were specific and they occurred during my research journey.

4.8 Summary

This chapter has set out the backdrop for the following ‘findings’ chapter, by describing the research approach in detail. Central to my research methodology was an awareness of my position within the research and my desire to negotiate and manage this position. I have strived to make the research transparent and open for the reader, in order that the reader can be in a position to evaluate the research. In addition, my research journey (described in this chapter) demonstrates the advantages and disadvantages of being an inside researcher, when conducting cross cultural research in their home area. It also shows some of the struggles I felt during the entire research process. The following chapter will now present the findings of the research.
Chapter 5  Partnership Approach in Practice: Case Study from Jiuzhaigou National Park China

5.1  Introduction

This chapter looks closely at the practice of a partnership approach, which has been adopted in the management of one of China’s national parks, regarding a new paradigm for protected areas. Firstly, this chapter provides a brief introduction to the research site: Jiuzhaigou National Park. Secondly, three different partnership cases are studied, in order to examine the practice of partnership, with a focus on identifying stakeholders and their roles in each partnership and also to understand the relationships between stakeholders. The benefits that partnerships bring and the issues within these partnerships are also critically presented. At the conclusion of this chapter, an assessment is made of each partnership case, according to the key elements of partnership which were outlined in Chapter 3.

5.2  Case Study Site: Jiuzhaigou National Park

As noted in Chapter 1, Jiuzhaigou National Park was selected as the research site, due to the complexities in its management and the challenges it faces, in addition to its efforts in the practice of a partnership approach. Jiuzhaigou National Park is located in Jiuzhai County within the Aba Tibetan and Qiang Autonomous Prefecture of Sichuan Province, in the northern Minshan Mountain Range, in the northeast of the Tibetan Himalayan Plateau (Figure 5). It covers an area of 720 square kilometres with 63.5% forest cover rate, 85.5% vegetation cover rate and elevations ranging from 1,996 to 4,764 meters. The main valley of Jiuzhaigou National Park is more than 60 kilometres long and it actually consists of three valleys — Shuzheng, Rize and Zechawa — which
connect in the shape of a Y. Geologically, Jiuzhaigou National Park is dominated by mountainous and karst topography. There are 114 mountain lakes, 17 groups of waterfalls and five shoal flows, forming a unique scenic environment within China. The climate is cool and dry in the winter (average temperature is 2.5°C and there is 43 mm of precipitation in January) and it is mild and wet in the summer (average temperature is 17°C, with 104 mm of precipitation in July). Biodiversity is rich in Jiuzhaigou National Park and there are 74 species of plants and 47 species of animals with national or provincial protection status.

Due to its primary forest and rich biodiversity, Jiuzhaigou was protected as a nature reserve in 1978, listed by UNESCO as a World Natural Heritage Site in 1992 and approved as a UNESCO Biosphere Reserve in 1997 (Table 12). It also has a Green Global 21 certification, which recognises its efforts in sustainable tourism (Green Globe International, 2010). The management history of Jiuzhaigou National Park and its significant dates and events are listed in Table 12.
Figure 5: Location of Jiuzhaigou National Park in China

(a) Location of Sichuan Province in China;
(b) Location of Jiuzhaigou County and Jiuzhaigou National Park in Sichuan Province, relative to Chengdu (the provincial capital);
(c) Location of roads, rivers, lakes and villages inside Jiuzhaigou National Park.

Source: Hinckley et al. (2008)


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Key Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1966-1978</td>
<td>Large-scale logging by two government owned forest farms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries studied Jiuzhaigou and recommended its conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>Sichuan Rare Animal Investigation Team proposed Nature Reserve status for Jiuzhaigou, mainly for the protection of Giant Panda habitat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>Jiuzhaigou Nature Reserve established</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>The State Council listed Jiuzhaigou as a National Key Place of Scenic Interest. Jiuzhaigou Nature Reserve Administration Bureau was established</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>Tourists began to visit (approximately 27,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Listed by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Joined the Man and Biosphere Conservation Networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>The Green Bus System was initiated and tourists’ vehicles were no longer allowed inside the park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Trails and boardwalks firmly established and board-walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Implemented ‘sightsee inside and stay outside’ policy. No hotels or public lodgings within the park (previously, there were approximately 7000 beds within the park, but today there are approximately 20,000 to 30,000 beds outside of the park entrance).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Park given the ‘Green Globe 21’ certification for sustainable tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>China’s State Council and the National Bureau of Tourism awarded the park the status of Key National Scenic Area and 4A Grade Scenic Area</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Unlike many protected areas in the world whose establishments displaced local people from the land (West, Igoe, & Brockington, 2006), Jiuzhaigou National Park is a nature reserve and also home to nine villages (Jiuzhai) comprising more than 1,000 Tibetan residents. In addition, Jiuzhaigou National Park is a popular national scenic area in China and tourist numbers have grown over the years. The number of tourists increased dramatically from 27,000 in 1984, to 800,000 in 2000 and it reached more than 2.5 million in 2007 (Figure 6). The most dramatic increase occurred after 1998, when the road from Chengdu city (the capital of Sichuan Province) to Jiuzhaigou National Park was improved. This road reduced the travel time from two days to 10 hours, thus contributing to the increase in tourist numbers. In 2003, the opening of Jiuzhai-Huangleong airport further reduced the travel time from 10 hours to 1.5 hours. Despite the fact tourism has grown rapidly in Jiuzhaigou National Park, Dombroski (2005) claimed that it has been managed quite carefully.

As the number of tourists increased, the revenue from tourism also grew, from CNY 4.5 million (US$ 562,500) in 1996, to CNY 453 million (US$ 56,625,000) in 2007 (Accounting Office of Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau). However, as shown in Figure 6, the number of tourists suddenly dropped to 640,000 in 2008, due to the Sichuan earthquake that destroyed the main roads from Chengdu to Jiuzhaigou. Although the
number of visitors is gradually recovering after the earthquake, the park management

**Figure 6: Tourist numbers in Jiuzhaigou National Park per year**

![Graph showing tourist numbers in Jiuzhaigou National Park from 1981 to 2009.](image)

Source: Tom Hinckley's presentation in Jiuzhaigou, 19 July 2010

authority — the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau — is still under great pressure, since there is a prefecture government policy goal that the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau should aim to receive 1,800,000 tourists in 2010 (*field note, page 22*).

### 5.3 Partnership Cases Studies

Jiuzhaigou National Park is practicing mass tourism, since this brings it significant benefits, in addition to local and regional economic development. However, the...
challenge for Jiuzhaigou National Park managers is to balance conservation of Jiuzhaigou National Park’s natural beauty, hydrologic cycle, uniqueness and ecological health, with protection of local culture and economic benefits from tourism (observation, as an employee of Jiuzhaigou National Park). This partnership approach is viewed as an important means to deal with challenges and gain significant support from others in the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park (Interview, M, Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, 19 July 2010). Hence, different forms of partnerships have been established according to management challenges and demands and they can be identified in the management history of Jiuzhaigou National Park. Three different cases are studied for the purpose of this research. The first is the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, as an example of a partnership between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the local community. The second case is the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory for Ecological Environment and Sustainable Development Research, which is an example of the partnership between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, domestic and international universities and an international national park. The third case is the Jiuzhaigou Green Bus Company Ltd, which is a tourism partnership between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and different levels of government. As stated, the findings from the fieldwork are presented with a focus on identifying stakeholders and the roles they play, in addition to the relationships between these stakeholders. The benefits that each partnership brings and the challenges faced within these partnership cases are also considered.
5.3.1 Nuorilang Tour Service Centre: A Partnership with the Local Community

Figure 7: Lunchtime tourists flow into the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre

Source: Author

Background of the Partnership

The establishment of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre has a specific historical background, which is associated with the local community’s involvement in tourism development and the environmental protection of Jiuzhaigou National Park. According to a document sourced from the Science Department of Jiuzhaigou National Park, the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre was established at a time when the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park was shifting from an explorative period (1978-2000) to a sustainable development period (2000-2008) (Jiuzhaigou National Park, 2008). According to the document, Jiuzhaigou National Park (2008), despite being set up as nature reserve in 1978 with a strict protected status, allowed tourism development in
1984 and this later expanded dramatically, when the local community was encouraged to run family hotels, restaurants and other tourism businesses and tourists were able to live inside the park during their visits. This period is considered to be an exploratory period within the management of the park.

From 2000, in order to remove all tourism businesses from inside the park, to the town located outside the entrance to the park, the management strategy was changed. The main reason for this shift in policy was the increasing growth of tourist numbers, including an increase in tourist vehicles and tourists staying inside the park, which resulted in great pressure on the environment. The turning point came in 1998, when thousands of tourists congregated in the national park during a weeklong public holiday. Since that time, it has been considered unsustainable for so many tourists to be staying within the park’s boundaries. The ‘sightsee inside and stay outside’ policy was implemented in Jiuzhaigou National Park, in order to resolve this issue. This policy resulted in the removal of commercial buildings, in addition to the closure of all existing hotels within the national park area. Tourists have not been allowed to stay inside the park since 2002. Whilst the park’s income is based on tourist entrance fees, the management increasingly pays great attention to balancing the conservation and socio-economic development of local and regional communities: This period is viewed as a sustainable development period within the management of the park (Jiuzhaigou National Park, 2008).

As the implementation of ‘sightsee inside and stay outside’ policy resulted in closure of family-owned hotels and community-owned restaurants, for compensation the local community received a fixed subsidy of CNY 8.36 million (USD 1.24 million) from ticket sales in 2001. According to the Residents’ Management Office, which is one of the departments within the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, this subsidy policy has since been changed and (from 2005) the community has received CNY 7, per
entrance ticket fee.

In 2003, the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre was built in the middle of the Y shape of Jiuzhaigou National Park, with the consideration of minimising damage to the environment, in addition to increasing community income. As a multi-functional centre, with a floor space of 12,000 square metres, it not only provides food and souvenir services but it also provides health, consultancy, emergency and complaint services for the tourists.

**Stakeholders of Nuorilang Tour Service Centre**

The Nuorilang Tour Service Centre was set up as a joint venture between the local community and Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and it is managed by the Joint-Operation Company. The ‘local community’ refers to approximately 1000 Tibetan residents, who live in nine villages inside the park boundary. It is necessary to explain the legal status of Tibetan people as an ethnic minority within China. Tibetans are one of 55 ethnic minority groups in China, who have been officially recognised by the central government. Tibetan people live in the Tibet Autonomous Region and also in other autonomous prefectures and, counties within Gansu, Yunnan, Qinghai and Sichuan provinces. The legal status and rights of Tibetans (in addition to other ethnic minority groups) are defined in China's Law on Regional Ethnic Autonomy (Information Office of the State Council of the People's Republic of China, 2005).

It is recognised within Jiuzhaigou National Park management that the local community has played an important role to safeguard the integrity of the Jiuzhaigou area, until two forestry investigation teams from the Forestry Department of Sichuan Province entered Jiuzhaigou National Park in 1966 (Jiuzhaigou National Park, 2008). A recent study on hill-slope terraces in Jiuzhaigou National Park also reveals that human interaction with the natural environment in Jiuzhaigou National Park has a long history (Henck, et al.,
The establishment of Jiuzhaigou National Park, in 1978, did not exclude the local community, but rather it sought to involve them in the conservation and the development of Jiuzhaigou National Park. However, their lifestyles have dramatically changed from practicing traditional agriculture, to being totally engaged in the business of tourism.

In comparison with communities outside the park, the local community has to comply with national regulations for protected areas (see Chapter 2), in addition to the park's administrative rules, which have been developed by the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau. For instance, they cannot use natural resources, raise animals or run a farm, family hotel or restaurant in the park. However, they are allowed to sell souvenirs in the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre and Shuzhang and Zechawa Villages. There are 198 souvenir stalls (see Figure 8) set up in the middle of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre. The local community is also able to rent out Tibetan costumes to tourists and provide photograph services at the main scenic spots in the park. In addition, there are other employment opportunities for the local community. According to data sourced from the Residents’ Management Office, there were 183 residents working for Jiuzhaigou National Park in 2006, including 75 permanent employees and 108 temporary employees.

Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau was the original park management agency and it was upgraded to a county-level institution in 2000, under the direct supervision of the Aba Tibetan and Qiang Autonomous Prefecture Government. The Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau is self-supporting with approximately 500 permanent employees. Tourists paying entrance fees are the main revenue for the

\[1\] Shuzheng and Zechawa are two of the nine Tibetan villages inside the park. Since their locations are close to road and bus stations, tourists are able to spend some time in these villages, where many souvenir stalls have been set up.
As partners in this joint venture with the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, the local community holds a 49 percent share, whilst the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau holds 51 percent of shares, according to a document sourced from the Residents’ Management Office of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau. However, a manager of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre made comments relating to local community participation and stated that the equal participation of the
1,000 residents in this joint venture was a “hard decision-making process”. The challenge faced at that time was that those families, who used to run tourism businesses such as family hotels, were rich and they wanted to invest more, whilst other families were poor, since their involvement in tourism businesses was limited. In fact, in Jiuzhaigou National Park, only three villages (which are close to the road) owned family hotels and a village restaurant and these were Shuzheng Village, Zechawa Village and Heye Village. Other villages, such as Zharu and Jianpan, are located in relatively remote areas and their involvement in the tourism business is mainly through renting Tibetan clothes or providing horse riding. In order to allow all community members equal participation and to gain benefits from the joint venture, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and community representatives held a series of meeting to discuss and negotiate. The final decision was that ‘each resident equally invested CNY 20,000 (USD 2,968) no matter how rich or poor they were’ and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau covered the remainder of the expenses (Interview, M1, NTSC, 2 July 2010).

The manager’s comments are verified by a resident from Shuzheng village, in addition to my own family’s experience since we live in Zharu village, which is a comparatively remote village with limited involvement in the tourism business of the park. When the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre was built, a policy was implemented that limited the amount of money that residents could invest in this venture. Whilst an equitable solution was devised, not all people agreed with this solution:

I could not understand why they had this policy. My family wanted to invest more. (Interview, R1, NTSC, 3 July 2010)

However, it is a different story for my family. When my family was asked to invest, my sister and I were still in college. We had used up most of my family’s cash income, which mainly came from father’s salary. CNY 20,000 (USD 2,968) per
person was a huge amount for a family such as ours and we ended up having to
borrow money from relatives. (*Field journal, page 7, 3 July 2010*)

Besides the local community and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau,
the Jiuzhaigou Joint-Operation Company is another large stakeholder in the Nuorilang
Tour Service Centre. The manager notes that the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre is
managed by the Jiuzhaigou Joint-Operation Company, which is administered by the
Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau. This was established in 1992, as a joint
venture between the local community hotel owners and the Jiuzhaigou National Park
Administration Bureau, in order to regulate the large number of family-owned hotels
and restaurants within the park, by having a unified management and standardised
pricing. The Jiuzhaigou Joint-Operation Company took over the management and
operation of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre following the ‘sightsee inside, stay
outside’ policy. Its management board is comprised of three staff members from the
Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and two elected representatives from
Shuzheng and Heye villages. Three other elected representatives, from Zharu and
Zechawa villages, form the supervisory board of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre.
Approximately, 400 employees (mainly from communities outside the park) are
working for this Joint-Operation Company.

**The Roles and Relationships of Stakeholders**

As shown in Figure 9, the relationship between stakeholders in the Nuorilang Tour
Service Centre can be described as a triangular shape. The Jiuzhaigou National Park
Administration Bureau plays the role of administrator, to ensure that the
Joint-Operation Company is managing and operating the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre
in accordance with park regulations and management goals, in addition to seeking to
ensure that the local community gains economic benefits from this tourism
development. The financial management is under the Jiuzhaigou National Park
Administration Bureau’s control.

**Figure 9: Relationships between stakeholders in the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre**

![Diagram showing relationships between stakeholders]

Source: Author

The Residents’ Management Office of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau is responsible for all business related to the local community. At the same time, the head of the Residents’ Management office plays the role of chairman of the board in the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre and he negotiates the relationship between the Joint-Operation Company and the community. Therefore, the Residents’ Management Office is placed in the middle of these relationships. The Joint-Operation Company is fully in charge of the operation of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre and it reports on their work to the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the local community.

In general, local community members as shareholders, whilst receiving annual dividends from the Joint-Operation Company, can also own stalls to sell souvenirs.
inside the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre. However, five resident shareholders can together share one stall as there are limited numbers of stalls that can be set up inside the Centre. The Resident’ Management Office of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau still charges CNY 500 (USD 74) rent, per year, for each stall.

**Benefits of the Partnership**

In terms of benefits, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau is proud of its benefits distribution policy. As the manager of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau noted, even though the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau holds a 51 per cent share and it has the controlling rights of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, 77 per cent of its annual profits is surrendered to the community and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau only receives 23 per cent of the profits (*Interview, M, Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, NTSC, 19 July 2010*). This is confirmed in a Jiuzhaigou National Park’s meeting minutes. In addition, a few resident shareholders, such as one 57 year old resident, agreed there were good community benefits:

> The Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau gives about 70 per cent of profits to community, this is a good policy, and we are satisfied with the policy. The only concern is we hope this policy will not be changed in the future. (*Interview, R2, NTSC, 6 July 2010*)

In addition, the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre is an important place for the community to sell souvenirs, since almost every tourist who travels within Jiuzhaigou National Park would visit the centre. According to the Residents’ Management Offices, the sale of souvenirs inside the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre is one of the main income sources for the local community, besides the rental of clothes and photographs services at scenic spots.
Figure 10: Tourists purchase souvenirs inside the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre

Source: Author

However, the local community is not the only beneficiary from this partnership, since the park management agency (the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau) benefits by improved environmental protection and community development. In July 2010, more than 10,000 tourists visited Jiuzhaigou National Park every day. Tourists are often looking to get away from the summer heat in the large cities, and they tend to come to the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre (between 11 am and 3pm) since the centre is the only place inside the park that provides a food service (*personal observation, NTSC*). This centralised food service contributes to the environmental protection of the park, through a centralised waste treatment and the fact that environment impact monitoring can more easily occur. Tourists can also get assistance while they have lunch, including consultancy, complaints, emergency and health services. Since the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre provides comparatively reasonable job opportunities and equal business opportunities for the local community, it prevents tourism businesses from spreading inside the park, to some degree. Communities from outside the park also gain benefits, as employees and suppliers of souvenirs and agricultural products.
Challenges within the Partnership

According to the field data, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau is satisfied with the structure and management of the partnership, but the general community appears to be less satisfied or empowered within decision-making within this partnership model. Since the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau controls the venture, it has power to influence other stakeholders. The Joint-Operation Company has the power to make decisions about the daily management and operation of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre. However, whilst in general the local community is satisfied with the current profits arrangement, they still report that the annual dividends they receive do not match their expectations. As one resident shareholder noted:

Every day we sit inside the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre and see so many tourists coming to have lunch. The price of the meal is clearly shown. We know the annual numbers of tourists and can estimate the income. But no matter how many tourists there are the annual dividends do not seem to change much at all. (Interview, R 3, NTSC, 6 July, 2010)

The manager of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre responded to this issue thus:

As shareholders, the residents want more dividends, I can understand. However, they do not know or care about the operational cost of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre. It is not cheap to run such a big company. (Interview, M1, NTSC, 10 July 2010)

According to the manager of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, the Joint-Operation Company does issue annual financial reports to the local community — and these are normally placed on the village’s announcement board by the Residents’ Management
Office, every year. Transparency appears to exist, to some degree. However, in general, local community members do not appear to trust the annual report — or the management of the partnership. As noted by one resident shareholder:

Everything on paper is unbelievable; it can be changed nicely as you want. Most people prefer to contract an outside company to operate the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre with specific amounts so we can clearly know how much dividends we can receive. (*Interview, R4, NTSC, 7 July 2010*)

Despite the community’s elected representatives being involved within the management board of the partnership, their involvement is unlikely to change any decision-making direction. According to an unpublished research report (Li, Shao, Shi, & Zhu, 2005), residents are disappointed about who has been elected as their representative, since they want a capable person, who can then speak for the interests of the local community. Since community representatives become part of the Joint-Operation Company and they are paid by the company, the local community asks how they can be ‘accountable’ and this situation is seen to be problematic in the view of the general community. The less empowered status of the local community leads them to question the credibility of their representatives and the Residents’ Management Office has consequently increased its complaints against the Joint-Operation Company — and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau. Moreover, the role of the Residents’ Management office is problematic. On the one hand, it plays the role of a local government agency that looks after the community and it is responsible for economic development, sustainable livelihoods and the well-being of the community. On the other hand, it is part of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and it is responsible for community management. Its performance has to comply with park management rules and objectives. Thus, it is difficult for the Residents’ Management Office to balance community demands and the
park’s interests. A majority within the community believes that the Residents’ Management Office is not accountable to them and therefore it prioritises the park’s interests over the community’s interests. This issue was also highlighted during interviews. For example, one resident shop-owner complained that the Residents’ Management Office does not pay attention to the rights, benefits and economic development of the local community and he states:

> In fact, what the Residents’ Management Office does is to keep an eye on residents to control and limit economic activities of residents. They do not consider the concerns and long-term livelihood support of the residents (Interview, R5, NTSC, 7 July 2010).

He notes that residents expect to develop and expand tourism activities inside the park, in order to increase their incomes, but this is difficult. This is because the current souvenir stalls are crowded into a limited space inside the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre and those stalls that face the flow of tourists have more opportunities to earn income from the tourists. However, the Residents’ Management Office strives to persuade the residents to move their economic activities outside the park. As the residents lack funds and the capacity to compete in the tourism market (against powerful outside tour operators), they are not willing to take that risk.

As noted by a manager of the Residents’ Management Office, under the development strategy of Sichuan province and Prefecture Government, transportation from Chengdu to Jiuzhaigou National Park is improving and a new railway will be built to link Chengdu and Gansu Province (going through Jiuzhai County), in the near future. This convenient and cheap transport will result in an increase in tourist numbers and accordingly more tourist infrastructure will be demanded inside the park. An expansion of the current scale of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre would become necessary under this trend. Thus, the partnership would face new challenges, in terms of redefining the rights and
responsibilities and benefits to stakeholders (Interview, M3, NTSC, 17 July 2010).

Summary

In summary, this partnership has been formed as a joint venture between the local community and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and it is managed by the Joint-Operation Company. Since this partnership contributes to the environmental protection of the park and there are equal economic benefits for the local community, from the park’s management point of view it is a fairly successful partnership with a good structure and a reasonable profit distribution policy. However, as the management body, the Joint-Operation Company does not generate community satisfaction: In relation to its level of profits and revenue consequently there are complaints from the local community about the management of the partnership and also complaints to the Residents’ Management Office of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau.

Since the partnership is centrally administered by the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, the local community seems to have less power in decision-making. This may be due to a conflict of interest between the economic interests of the local community (their lifestyle has been changed and now they rely completely on tourism) and the management priorities of the park. Although there is transparency between the stakeholders, the general community appears to be less trusting of the management of the partnership and they perceive that there is lack of accountability between the community representatives, the Residents’ Management Office and the general community, for two reasons. Firstly, the representatives are not able to adequately influence decision-making and that diminishes their role as community representatives and secondly, the Residents’ Management Office cannot speak for the local community, without first considering the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau interests. This relationship between stakeholders is complex and
interwoven within this partnership. Although this partnership is successful, the low level of trust from the general local community and their lack of power in decision-making may need to be considered — for the successful sustainability of this partnership, in the long term.

5.3.2 Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory: a Partnership between Universities and National Parks

![Image](image.png)

**Figure 11:** A multi-disciplinary research team from the University of Washington, Sichuan University and Jiuzhaigou National Park

Source: Author

**Overview of the Partnership**

The Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory was officially established in Jiuzhaigou National Park on 30 October 2006, as a partnership between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, Sichuan University and the University of California, the University of Washington and the Yosemite National Park. The purpose of the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is to provide strong scientific support to research on the ecological and environmental protection and sustainable development of Jiuzhaigou National Park, based on the principles of promoting sustainable
development, complementing comparative advantages and mutually sharing risks and benefits. Four research areas are listed: 1) the environmental factors and sustainable tourism development; 2) biodiversity conservation and sustainable socio-economic development; 3) an anthropological study of the Jiuzhaigou region; and 4) eco-material and environment assessment technology (document, Partnership Agreement, JIL 30 October 2008). In practice, the focus of this partnership is to learn about the priorities and challenges in Jiuzhaigou National Park’s management and to increase staff capacity by involving them in research, training and exchange programmes and to educate university undergraduates and graduate students (Interview, M1, JIL, 19 July 2010).

Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is managed collaboratively by Sichuan University and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau. A professor from the College of Architecture and Environment in Sichuan University was appointed as director, whilst a vice-superintendent from the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau was appointed as deputy director. Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory has two programme management offices that were separately set up in the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and Sichuan University. Partnership programmes are facilitated through these programme management offices and research and laboratory related facilities and staff are allocated by the partners themselves. Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is operated through collaborative research projects, staff training and exchange programmes and workshops.
Figure 12: Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory organised workshop on sustainability of Jiuzhaigou National Park in 2007

Source: Author

**Stakeholders: Their Roles and Relationships**

As an international level partnership, Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory’s stakeholders range from local to international level (Figure 13) and they include the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, as the local park management authority, Sichuan University, as one of China’s key national universities, the University of Washington and University of California, which are two well-known American universities and Yosemite National Park, which is one of the oldest national parks in the world. This partnership demonstrates the complementary roles of stakeholders and their comparative advantages and capabilities. As highlighted by a manager of Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory, partners play complementary roles in research projects. For example, Sichuan University seeks research funding to initiate research
projects and it deals with ministry requirements relating to foreign researchers and experts. The University of Washington and the University of California provide faculty and graduate students to conduct research in Jiuzhaigou National Park and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau provides field research sites and research assistance, including translators, local transport, food and accommodation (Interview, M2, JIL, 16 July 2010).

In addition, the formation of the partners’ relationship is also influenced by the specific roles that the partners play. Figure 13 shows the relationships between stakeholders, according to their geographical scale. Since Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is a science research-based partnership involved with international institutions, Sichuan University has become central to this partnership. There are two main reasons for this situation. Firstly, as a key national university under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Education, Sichuan University has authority to deal with the requirements of China’s ministries, in relation to international research projects. This enables researchers from the University of Washington and the University of California to legally access the Jiuzhaigou National Park. Secondly, Sichuan University is qualified to apply for national research funding from institutions, such as the Ministry of Science and Technology. As a local park management agency, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau is unable to perform such a role. Instead, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau raises complex issues in management (for these partners to research) and it provides reasonable local assistance, experimental sites and limited research funding for partner universities.

As shown in Figure 13, there are no formal relationships between the University of Washington, the University of California and Yosemite National Park in this partnership, although there may be collaborative or sharing relationships between specific faculties and Yosemite National Park scientists or staff members (Personal communication, 23
September 2010). However, the interaction between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and these three partners occurs in different ways. Between 2005 and 2006, six staff members were sent from Jiuzhaigou National Park to Yosemite National Park, whilst Jiuzhaigou National Park hosted one staff member from Yosemite National Park. Based on staff exchange, the Yosemite National Park and Jiuzhaigou National Park learned about — and shared — the challenges and experiences of the management of a national park. Additionally, through involving staff members and students in research projects, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, the University of Washington and the University of California have learned from each others’ expertise, which has helped them to understand complex challenges within Jiuzhaigou National Park management practices. Moreover, in 2007, the University of Washington hosted four staff members from Jiuzhaigou National Park for two weeks and two staff members from Jiuzhaigou National Park (including myself) went for six months training in environmental education and culture preservation in the USA and more staff members would be trained at the University of Washington in the near future, according to the report of recent meeting between the University of Washington and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau (Document, Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau News, JIL, 24 July 2010).
Benefits of the Partnership

Since the benefits of the partnership are associated with the interests of the stakeholders, partners have their own opinions about what benefits they gain through the partnership. These will now be reviewed.

From the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau point of view, since Jiuzhaigou National Park is located in a remote area, a lack of information sources leads the park to miss out on many learning and international cooperative opportunities. Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory fills this gap and it enables Jiuzhaigou National Park to send staff members overseas for training and to introduce new knowledge, ideas and technologies, in order to improve management skills. Park managers and staff
members admire the dedication of professionals from the University of Washington, the University of California, Yosemite National Park and Sichuan University, and it is felt that their efforts deepen the managers’ and staff understanding of the issues within park management. These benefits will contribute to the sustainable management of the park, in the long term. \textit{(Interview, M3, JIL, 21 July 2010)}. In addition, the University of Washington, the University of California and Sichuan University disseminate information about Jiuzhaigou National Park to the outside world and ensure that more people get to know and learn about the management challenges and experience of Jiuzhaigou National Park, through academic publications and presentations \textit{(Interview, S1, JIL, 12 July 2010)}.

From the University of Washington, the University of California and Sichuan University’s point of view, Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is an excellent platform for seeking research funding, reaching field research sites and educating students. One manager of Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory notes that, through the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory, there are four students who have completed master’s degrees. One PhD candidate is still undertaking programme \textit{(Interview, M2, JIL Director, 16 July 2010)}. A number of undergraduate students from the University of Washington conducted week long field research in 2005 and 2007. In addition, Sichuan University is able to deal with ministry requirements and provide financial incentives for faculty and students from the University of Washington and the University of California. Their participation in China’s research projects and their access to Jiuzhaigou National Park thus becomes easier \textit{(Interview, M1, JIL 19 July 2010)}.

\textbf{Challenges in Partnership}

There are four main challenges faced by the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory, which have been identified by staff members and managers of the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory. Firstly, the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is not institutionalised and
its leadership is held in a few people’s hands (Interview, M1, 19 July 2010). Staff members from Jiuzhaigou National Park also commented on this challenge and they feel that the operation of the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is based more on the efforts of few people. For example, on the Sichuan University side, the manager of the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is responsible for seeking funding, setting up research projects and contacting international researchers and professionals. On the Jiuzhaigou National Park side, managers make decisions on the priorities of research projects and training programmes, based on the park’s management goals. However, there is potential risk that the decision-making is influenced by the individual’s interests, views and personality (Interview, S1 and S2, JIL 12 July 2010). On the University of Washington’s side, leadership is held by two professors but this is not institutionalised within the University of Washington’s university system, rather it is based on the capability and willingness of the leaders, although confirmation from the university’s head of global affairs is required (Interview, M1, 19 July 2010).

Secondly, there is a challenge when seeking funding for research projects. A manager at Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory states that it is not easy to find sufficient funding for multi-disciplinary research projects. The seeking of funding normally has to consider the interests and priorities of the government, tourists and researchers. He applied for a great amount of funding from the Ministry of Science and Technology but this funding is mainly for research projects on environmental impact, water resource protection and development and water quality and biodiversity. Funding for social and cultural related research is always limited. He states that Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory should seek alternative funding sources in the future, including international level funding through the partners’ connections, in addition to the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau project funding (Interview, M2, 16 July 2010).
Thirdly, according to a manager of the University of Washington, research (under the direction of the manager from Sichuan University) is especially focused on water, although historical research has been undertaken by others from Sichuan University, which was focused on a wide range of biodiversity issues. More recently, researchers from the University of Washington have examined the role that culture, ecology, geology, history and current management, play in issues of sustainability and future management. The most recent example of collaboration (between the University of Washington and Sichuan University) focused on the input and re-cycling of air pollutants in the Jiuzhaigou National Park. “Excellent joint conversations are held, but truly collaborative research has been difficult” (Personal communication, 23 September 2010).

Finally, since Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is a transnational partnership, distance and language become two significant problems for the partners (Interview, M1, JIL, 19 July 2010). It is not possible for leaders from each partner to frequently meet together, in order to make decisions, due to distance and time: and costs are expensive. In addition, effective communication and the transformation of knowledge are a challenge for all partners, due to the existence of language barriers. One leader from the University of Washington commented: “Doing research outside of one’s home country receives less credit” (Interview, M1, JIL, 19 July 2010). In addition to the long-distance between partners and the language barriers, it is felt that access restrictions and regulations also reduce the international partners’ productivity (Personal communication, 23 September 2010). This may be the reason why a manager at Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory states that it is difficult for him to find long-term and stable international professionals, who can continue to be involved in research projects in Jiuzhaigou National Park.
Summary

Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is a science, research based partnership, with involvement from international institutions and the national park. It aims to research challenges faced by the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park, whilst at the same time it trains Jiuzhaigou National Park staff members and university students. As the stakeholders of Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory, the University of Washington, the University of California, Sichuan University, Yosemite National Park and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau play complementary roles in the operation of this partnership, based on their comparative advantages and capabilities. However, as noted by Borrini-Feyerabend (1996), this partnership depends on the effort and commitment of a few key persons and the presence of particular research projects. The risk for this type of partnership is that, if particular individuals are transferred — or they stop making a contribution, or if the project ceases to function — the partnership process will be blocked or stopped. In addition, since it is an international partnership, issues such as distance and the use of different languages can challenge the partners in many ways, particularly in the areas of being able to hold regular meetings and ongoing effective communication. However, in comparison with the partnership case of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is more based on mutual trust, respect, influence, transparency and accountability.
5.3.3 Jiuzhaigou Green Tour Bus Company: a Tourism Partnership

Figure 14: Green Buses operating inside Jiuzhaigou National Park

Source: Author

Background of Partnership

The establishment of the Green Bus Company is significant in park management history and it contributes to environmental protection, tourism management and regional economic development (Interview, M1, GBC, 29 June 2010). The Green Bus Company was founded on 26th March 1999, as a joint venture between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, private investors and the National Land and Resource Administration Bureau of Jiuzhai County government and prefecture government. A hundred green buses were introduced in 1999, to replace tourist vehicles. Since then, these green buses have become the only transportation for visitors inside the park,
since tourist vehicles are no longer allowed to enter the park. The operation of the Green Bus Company has resolved previous traffic congestion. According to a document from the Science Department of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, since the green buses have been improved, in order to utilise compressed natural gas as fuel, they have reduced vehicle emissions and air pollution and therefore they significantly contribute to the environmental protection of Jiuzhaigou National Park.

As a joint venture, the Green Bus Company was initially managed by the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau. However, in June 2002, it was separated from the management of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and it became an independent company: the Jiuzhaigou Green Tour Ltd. The private shareholders were asked to withdraw their investments (Interview, S1, GBC, 10 July 2010). The Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau kept its shares and it is still involved in decision-making and the director of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau is chairman of the board of the Green Bus Company. In August 2006, with the approval of the province’s government, the prefecture government set up a government-owned corporate: the Aba Dajiuzhai Tourism Group. This group aimed to integrate the advantages of tourism resources within the prefectural region and to achieve socio-economic development of the prefecture, through the promotion of tourism and also increasing the revenue from tourism (Aba Dajiuzhai Tourism Group, 2008). Since this time, a prefecture government policy has required the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau to transfer all its shares to Aba Dajiuzhai Tourism Group (Interview, S1, 10 July 2010) and the Green Bus Company has become a subsidiary company of the Aba Dajiuzhai Tourism Group.

The Relationship between Stakeholders

As shown in Figure 15, given that there is interaction between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the Green Bus Company, the relationship between
them has become weaker than previously. Since the Green Bus Company is now administered by the Aba Dajiuzhai Tourism Group, if the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau wants to influence the decision-making of the Green Bus Company, they need to go through the Aba Dajiuzhai Tourism Group or report directly to the Prefecture Government (Interview, S2, GBC, 12 July 2010). Moreover, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the Aba Dajiuzhai Tourism Group remain at an equal position under the direct supervision of the Prefecture Government and they cannot influence each other, without negotiating with the Prefecture Government.

**Figure 15: Current relationships between stakeholders in Green Bus Company**

Source: Author

**Benefits of the Partnership**

Despite the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the Green Bus
Company being unable to influence each other in decision-making, it is very important that they find a way to collaborate in tourism management and environmental protection. As commented on by a staff member from Jiuzhaigou National Park, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the Green Bus Company “are like two brothers with the same parent and a bad relationship, but they benefit from each other and rely on each other” (Interview, S3, 10 July 2010).

From the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau’s point of view, the Green Bus Company shares the tourism management responsibility of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau. The Green Bus Company owns more than 300 green buses and it provides safe, comfortable and convenient transportation for tourists and local residents, inside the park. Since these green buses operate like public buses, under the administration of 17 bus dispatch centres, which were set up in the three main valleys, tourists are able to get on a bus on time, in order to reach their desired scenic spots. Furthermore, each bus has an interpreter who provides more than 10 hours service per day, to guide tours and interpret information about the park for visitors. Through these efforts, the Green Bus Company has increased the satisfaction of visitors and it has reduced tourism management pressure on the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau. In addition, the utilisation of environmentally friendly fuel, by the green buses, has contributed greatly to the environmental protection of the park. One staff member from Jiuzhaigou National Park comments, “…. without the Green Bus Company, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau alone could definitely not manage millions of visitors every year” (Interview, S1, 10 July 2010).

On the Green Bus Company’s side, two bus drivers and three interpreters responded that they think that the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau does not influence the Green Bus Company, under the current situation. However, when I analysed the contribution of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau
(according to the comments of two staff members from the Science Department of Jiuzhaigou National Park) they agree with me that there is some influence. Firstly, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau is in charge of tourism marketing that links directly to the revenue of the Green Bus Company. Since all tourists need to purchase bus tickets, in order to access scenic spots inside the park, an increase in tourist numbers means more revenue for the Green Bus Company. Secondly, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau has integrated the bus ticket booking system into their park management system and this helps to sell bus ticket for the Green Bus Company together with park entrance tickets which reduces transaction costs for the Green Bus Company. Thirdly, the Green Bus Company utilises all tourist facilities and infrastructure, which are primarily provided by the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau in the park, including the road, restaurant and emergency centre. The Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau also provides workshops and training, in relation to interpretation of Jiuzhaigou management history, environmental education and also ecotourism guides for the staff of the Green Bus Company (document sourced from a project report, Science Department, 25 June, 2008).

Challenges to this Partnership

In terms of challenges, Jiuzhaigou National Park staff members note that there is no written agreement between the Green Bus Company and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, which clearly defines the rights and responsibilities of each party, since they are separate entities. Furthermore, the relationship between the Green Bus Company and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau is unclear and there is growing tension between the two ‘brothers’ within their daily interaction. One staff member from Jiuzhaigou National Park notes, “I had trouble with the Green Bus Company staff when I took a bus with three other researchers to conduct research
inside the park. I was asked to buy a bus ticket although I showed ID. But the situation is quite different if you know the Green Bus Company staff well: you do not need to show ID” (Interview, S2, GBC, 12 July 2010).

Although the manager of the Science Department believes that (as a tour operator) the Green Bus Company should comply with the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau administration rules and regulations, in practice staff members from the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the Green Bus Company whom I interviewed do not think that these two ‘brothers’ influence each other. They believe that there is no formal linkage and the relationship between the two organisations and the partnership is operated, to large extent, according to the policy requirements of the Prefecture Government, particularly in regards to tourism management. The daily interaction between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the Green Bus Company still continues and there is no choice for them, since they have to rely on each other. However, their relationship is not really based on a genuine partnership.

**Summary**

In summary, although the Green Bus Company makes a considerable contribution towards tourism management and environmental protection, the relationship between the stakeholders is unusual. When the management authority transferred from the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau to the Prefecture Government-owned tour operator (the Aba Dajiuzhai Tourism Group) the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, as the park management agency, no longer had the power to influence the management and operation of the Green Bus Company. This lack of agreement clearly defines the rights and responsibilities of the partners. The relationship between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the Green Bus Company is negotiated by the Prefecture Government. Given that both parties continue to collaborate in tourism management and the environmental
protection of Jiuzhaigou National Park (according to the policy goal of the Prefecture Government) a growing tension exists between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the Green Bus Company, which can be seen in their daily interactions. A need to develop and sustain a positive relationship between these two parties has become urgent, since they still have to rely on each other. In this ‘arranged marriage’, partnership elements, such as mutual trust, respect, transparency and accountability, are clearly lacking under the current situation.

5.4 Assessing the Key Elements of Partnership in the Case Studies

The final section of this chapter brings together the three case studies, in order to evaluate their partnerships, according to the key elements of partnership (as identified in Chapter 3). This assessment mainly focuses on eight key partnership elements and four different dimensions (non-existent, weak, medium, strong) are applied, in order to describe the strength of each partnership element (Table 13).

As shown in Table 13, it is clear that these three partnership cases, established in Jiuzhaigou National Park are strongly based on shared goals, the pooling of partners’ resources and mutual benefits, whereas other partnership elements are not necessarily strong.
Table 13: Key elements of partnership in the three cases studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Elements of Partnership</th>
<th>Nuorilang Tour Service Centre</th>
<th>Jiuzhaigou International Lab.</th>
<th>Green Bus Company</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shared goals</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pooling resources</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mutual benefit</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mutual trust</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>None</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mutual respect</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>None</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mutual influence</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutual transparency</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutual accountability</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author

In the case of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, trust, respect, influence and transparency are weak, whilst accountability is medium, in consideration of the following reasons. Firstly, under the centralised and top-down partnership management model, the general local community has less power in decision-making. There is a lack of regulations that enable the general local community to practice their shareholders’ rights in decision-making and management, when they perceive that their representatives or the Residents’ Management Office is ineffective. The influence of the local community over partnership decision-making and management is limited. Secondly, the Joint-Operation Company, as the partnership management body, has failed to deliver effective business management which could generate adequate profits to shareholders. Transparency and accountability is not sufficient, particularly between
the local community and other partners and this has resulted in weak mutual trust and respect. Thirdly, this joint venture has a specific historical background based on conflicts of interest. Its operation needs to consider both the economic benefits for the local and regional communities, in addition to the environmental protection of the park. Although this partnership is successful, it does not demonstrate that it is practicing strong partnership principles, especially in the areas of mutual trust, respect, influence and transparency.

In the case of the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory, mutual trust, respect, influence and transparency are medium, whilst accountability is strong, in comparison with the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre. The Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory was formed and based on the comparative advantages and complementary roles of the partners. Each partner has resource-related power to influence the other. Transparency and accountability play important roles in this partnership and they also lead to an enhancement of trust and respect between the partners. However, since this partnership has the specific challenge of difference in languages and vast distances between those involved, this may lead to a decrease in the degree of mutual trust, respect, influence and transparency. In addition, in comparison with the other two cases, this partnership is more fragile, due to the nature of it being project based, and there are challenges to be faced in leadership and transnational related barriers.

In the case of the Green Bus Company, trust, respect, transparency and accountability are absent, whilst influence is weak, in comparison with the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre and the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory. Although, in practice, the Green Bus Company and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau rely on each other and collaborate within tourism management and environmental protection, their partnership relationship remains mainly under the Prefecture Government’s policy goals. Since there is no agreement that clearly defines the responsibilities and rights of
the partners, the influence between the partners is limited. One possible way for these partners to influence each other is through negotiation with the Prefecture Government. However, rethinking this partnership relationship is urgent, since there is growing tension between the parties, as a result of their daily interactions. Furthermore, they have no choice but to work together within tourism management and environment protection areas.

In summary, within Jiuzhaigou National Park management, partnerships have been formed where partners have shared goals and they can perceive mutual benefit through pooling resources. Even where other principles of a partnership, for example, mutual trust, respect, transparency and influence etc. are weak or absent, it does not necessarily cause the partnerships to cease to function. Hence, the following chapter places the practice of partnership approach in the context of sustainable management and literature to discuss the research question ‘Do partnerships facilitate the sustainable management of a protected area?’ whilst it also concludes the whole thesis, by providing recommendations for further research and Jiuzhaigou National Park management.
Chapter 6  Do Partnerships Facilitate the Sustainable Management of a Protected Area?

As described in Chapter 1, this thesis focuses on one main aim: that is to provide a deeper understanding of the partnership approach in practice, in the context of sustainable management of protected areas, specifically, Jiuzhaigou National Park, China. In order to achieve this one aim, one key question is asked: ‘Do partnerships facilitate sustainable management of a protected area?’ This research question is investigated by focusing on two objectives:

• To examine what are the key elements of the partnership approach in the context of protected area management;
• To explore whether partnership is an effective approach that facilitates the sustainable management of a protected area

In light of the research aim, question and objectives, Chapter 2 has reviewed background literature on protected area management and the shift in management approach toward a new paradigm. This new paradigm promotes partnership as an approach that brings together stakeholders, in order to achieve sustainable management of protected areas. Within this specific setting, Chapter 3 sought to identify a partnership framework for protected areas by drawing on various perspectives from theoretical and empirical studies, relating to the application of a partnership approach in protected areas. Following an explanation of the research methodology in Chapter 4, Chapter 5 has examined in detail the practice of three partnership cases involved in the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park, based on the data collected during the fieldwork. Chapter 5 also assessed these cases according to some key elements of a partnership, as identified in Chapter 3.
Consequently, in this final chapter, the insights gained from the case studies are situated within the wider context of the literature and discussed in relation to the research question. Firstly, this chapter examines the articulation of ‘sustainable management’ in the context of protected areas. The manner, in which the partnership is practiced, in order to ensure sustainable management of the protected area, is subsequently examined, by focusing on the strengths and weaknesses of the three partnership cases and their roles within the sustainable management of the protected area. This is followed by discussion on the issue of power-sharing in partnership decision-making. This chapter concludes the thesis by providing recommendations for possible future research and for the improvement of partnership practice within Jiuzhaigou National Park management.

6.1 How is Sustainable Management Articulated in the Context of Protected Areas?

‘Sustainable management’ is frequently used in protected area management related studies but there is a problem, in that it is rare for authors to define its meaning. This thesis attempts to understand sustainable management, by linking it with the main management objectives of the protected areas. As discussed in Chapter 2, protected areas have multiple management objectives and these are listed in IUCN (1994). However, protected areas need to be better understood within their specific physical, social, cultural, economic and political environment (Scherl & Edwards, 2007). The partnership case studies, within the Jiuzhaigou National Park, illustrate a number of key management objectives which may apply to other protected areas in the world that have the same context. These management objectives sometimes conflict with one another. They include biodiversity conservation; scenic and environmental protection; socio-economic development of the local community; and tourism management.

Sustainable management in protected areas not only attempts to achieve various
management objectives, it also seeks to balance or reconcile these interrelated objectives within protected areas. This is the reason why a partnership approach becomes important for protected area management. It has been realised that the conservation of natural resources and biodiversity has to be supported by the local communities, whose livelihood has previously relied on those resources (Mburu & Birner, 2007; PATF, 2004; Spiteri & Nepal, 2006). Simultaneously, protected area management should provide alternative livelihood options for these local communities, through initiatives such as tourism development, in addition to involving them in the management of the protected area (Han, 2000; Lo Cascio & Beilin, 2010; Nepal, 2002).

The Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, a partnership between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the local community, demonstrates that the local community has sacrificed to abandon their traditional lifestyle in order to support the park’s conservation and environmental protection, whilst the park’s management supports their livelihoods, by providing equal economic benefits and tourism business opportunities — and it also involves them in management.

Moreover, tourism development in protected areas becomes a main funding source for management, especially when there is a lack of sufficient government funding for the protected areas, in countries such as China (McBeath & Huang McBeath, 2006; PATF, 2004). This is true for Jiuzhaigou National Park, which is now completely self-supporting based on its revenue from tourism. However, the success of tourism development in Jiuzhaigou National Park requires great effort within tourism management, in order to protect the environment and biodiversity. Eagles (2002) stated that, in order to achieve tourism management in protected areas, a partnership is required between the park management agencies and tour operators. The case of the Green Bus Company reveals the importance of partnership in relation to environmental protection, tourism management and regional social-economic development. Nevertheless, protected area managers should be aware that there is the
risk of prioritising tourism development over conservation and social and cultural related objectives, due to tourism development becoming the main funding source. The partnership with the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory was formed, in order to research this type of challenge within the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park. In general, for a protected area (such as Jiuzhaigou National Park) the main challenge for sustainable management is how to balance the conflicting and interrelated objectives.

Furthermore, the paradigm shift now places protected areas in a wider context and it seeks trade-offs between conservation, social, economic, political and cultural objectives for protected areas (Scherl & Edwards, 2007). This paradigm shift implies that the sustainable management of protected areas should be expanded to encompass more aspects. However, in practice, this is not so straightforward. Laing et al. (2008) commented that the sustainable management of protected areas, especially those where partnership is practiced, is more focused on conservation achievement and economic benefits and less on the social and cultural aspects. The partnership between the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre and the Green Bus Company also confirms this issue, although the International Laboratory is more focused on all aspects of Jiuzhaigou National Park, including social and cultural aspects.

Therefore, in general, sustainable management could refer to the achievement of multiple management objectives in protected areas, in which balancing various objectives is significant and difficult. Although various protected areas may have different management priorities, according to the IUCN protected area category (IUCN, 1994), sustainable management should consider the sustainability of all aspects, not only conservation achievements and economic benefits, but also social and cultural aspects. If the management authorities of protected areas are genuinely attempting to play leading roles in sustainable management (Chape, et al., 2008), the social and cultural aspect of sustainability should also be addressed.
The following section examines the practice of a partnership approach in the facilitation of sustainable management of a protected area.

6.2 How is Partnership Practiced in Relation to the Sustainable Management of a Protected Area?

The involvement of more and more stakeholders in protected areas is an ambitious goal of the new paradigm for protected areas (see Chapters 2 and 3). However, the question can be asked: *Is partnership an effective means to ensure the sustainable management of protected areas, while at the same time resulting in a win-win situation for all stakeholders?* The three partnership case studies are now examined with a focus on the strengths and weaknesses in their practices.

6.2.1 Nuorilang Tour Service Centre

In contrast to Lockwood and Kothari (2006) who found that indigenous and local people were normally removed from their lands and excluded from the management of protected areas, the partnership case of Nuorilang Tour Service Centre reveals that the local community could stay on the land or be involved in protected area management, at the time that the Jiuzhaigou National Park was founded. The practice of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre demonstrates the advantage of partnership: especially since it is considered that there is equal participation and the sharing of economic benefits amongst diverse community members. Regardless of differences in gender, age, being rich or poor, or the location of their village, all residents who lived inside the park boundary were able to equally hold shares, receive dividends and have access to business opportunities within this partnership. This is a unique situation, since equity issues and benefit distribution have been challenges to the management of many protected areas where local communities are involved (as addressed in Budhathoki, 2004; Spiteri & Nepal, 2006). The economic benefits that this partnership
has brought to community members have also become important for the sustainable livelihoods of the local community and to some degree it has contributed to the socio-economic development of the local community.

Whilst this partnership shows advantages, in terms of equality in community participation and benefit sharing, this does not mean that the local community is necessarily sharing power in the decision-making. It has been revealed that the challenge of this partnership is that the community representatives were unlikely to influence decision-making direction. Laing et al. (2008) commented that a partnership is a way of dealing with power inequalities or imbalance through the involvement of stakeholders in decision-making, which could influences their lives, concerns or interests. This situation does not occur within this particular partnership. One reason why the local community is unlikely to influence decision-making direction may be due to the conflict between the community’s livelihoods, related economic interests and the government regulations on Jiuzhaigou National Park as a protected area. As discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.5, there are a number of national regulations, laws and programmes relating to protected areas, with which Jiuzhaigou National Park has to comply and Long and Arnold (1995) stated that regulations should play a unique role in setting priorities for environmental goals. Indeed, it is impossible for the local community that lives inside the park boundary not to adhere to the protected area regulations. Additionally, there is a lack of regulations that could enable the general community, as shareholders, to have more ‘voice’ over partnership decision-making and therefore be able to practice ‘real’ shareholders’ rights.

In general, the practice of this partnership is valuable for the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park. It not only contributes to the socio-economic development of the local community but it is also meaningful for environmental protection and tourism management. Since the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre replaced the previous
restaurants and it became the only food and tourist service centre inside the park, waste has been centrally controlled and treated outside the park and its impact on the environment is now centrally monitored. Through these approaches, the environmental impact from tourism development inside the park has been reduced. Additionally, tourists can also easily access essential services, including food, health, emergency, information and souvenir services.

Although the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre is successful in its socio-economic development, environmental protection and tourism management, it does not demonstrate strength in all key elements of a partnership, as defined by Brinkerhoff (2002) and Laing et al. (2008). According to the partnership assessment in Chapter 5, whilst the factors of shared goals, pooling resources and mutual benefits are strongly presented, other factors are shown as being weak. Since the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau holds the leadership of the partnership, in addition to it being the park management and community management agency, the mutual influence is weak and it is more likely to be one-way, given that partnership management rights and responsibilities are transferred to the joint body between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the local community. This body appears to perform ineffectively in terms of profit-making and it draws general community shareholders’ complaints. Mutual trust and respect need to be strengthened between the partners and greater transparency and accountability should contribute to this improvement. Together, this may contribute to a strong and sustainable partnership resulting in a more successful management of Jiuzhaigou National Park, in the long term.

6.2.2 Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory

The practice of Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory verifies Borrini-Feyerabend (1996) protected area partnership principle that partnership is built on the complementary roles of stakeholders, due to different stakeholders holding different capacities and
resources. The local park management agency (Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau) provides a research site and assistance for universities. The University of Washington, the University of California and Sichuan University conduct scientific research, in order to support the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park, whilst also training Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau staff members and students. The Yosemite National Park and the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau (as sister-parks) share management experience through staff exchanges. Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory also demonstrates features of voluntary and jointly-defined activities and decision-making processes, as defined by Long and Arnold (1995). In comparison with the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is a voluntary collaboration with a jointly-written agreement that defines the partnership activities. Pooling and sharing of knowledge and information and the experience of the partners are the focus of this partnership, which is viewed as being important for problem analysis and maximising opportunities for innovation, according to (Selin, 1999). Partnership, as a vehicle for drawing additional resources (Laing, et al., 2008), is confirmed, since the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory was able to ensure access to additional research project funding, skills and experts.

The practice of this partnership is also identified as being meaningful for the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park. Through working together, Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory intends to provide strong scientific research, in order to support the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park and to facilitate an understanding of the complexity of management and to provide recommendations for improved management. It is also dedicated to the enhancement of the capacity of park managers and staff members, through the introduction of new knowledge and skills, in addition to deepening their understanding of the issue of sustainability in protected area, by the use of a multi-disciplinary research method.
However, this partnership faces specific challenges which influence its role in facilitating the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park in a sustainable way. This partnership is operated and based on the existence of individual research projects, staff training programmes or workshops. The operation of each research project or training programme normally depends on the effort and commitment of key individuals, especially the leaders. If these individuals are transferred or cease making a contribution (or if the project or programme fails to function) the partnership process may be blocked, disrupted and/or become unsuccessful (Borrini-Feyerabend, 1996). In addition, since this partnership is an international partnership, distances, difference in languages and various countries’ regulations on transnational research and exchange programmes, become the main barriers to effective outcomes for the partnership.

According to the partnership assessment in Chapter 5 (also see Table 13), Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory demonstrates a higher degree of mutual trust, respect, transparency and accountability, in comparison with the other two partnerships. These are viewed as important for an ideal partnership by Brinkerhoff (2002) and Laing et al. (2008). Sharing power in decision-making appears to be more probable in this partnership, according to the comparative advantages of the partners and their roles and relationship, although there are specific challenges that may diminish the achievements of this partnership. Since this partnership plays an important role in the introduction of new knowledge, experiences and skills, training of staff, the opening of international cooperation opportunities and disseminating of park information, more investment in relationship building is necessary, in order to sustain this partnership and to ensure that these improved relationships may cope with the challenges of this partnership.

6.2.3 Green Bus Company

Laing et al. (2008) commented that partnership is desirable for achieving government
policy objectives and gaining sustainable tourism products and this is true for the Green Bus Company. This company was formed as a tourism partnership between the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration and different level government agencies, for the environmental protection of Jiuzhaigou National Park, improved tourism management and the socio-economic development of the region’s communities. Hundreds of environmentally friendly tour buses (operating inside the park and replacing tourists’ vehicles) are the company’s crucial contribution to the environment’s protection. The professional tourism service provided by the Green Bus Company brings great satisfaction for the tourists during their visits. The employment opportunities and economic benefits generated by this partnership are significant for the socio-economic development of the region’s communities. Therefore, this partnership is valuable for the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park, particularly within tourism management, environmental protection and regional socio-economic development.

However, this partnership is not practicing good partnership principles. Since the leadership of the partnership transferred from the park management agency to the stakeholders, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau no longer holds any power to influence the decision-making of the Green Bus Company. Given that, in practice, the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau and the Green Bus Company continue to rely on each other and benefit from each other, their partnership relationship is maintained by the policy goal of the Prefecture Government, in relation to tourism management, economic benefits and environmental protection. Nevertheless, a growing tension has been felt between the two parties in their daily interactions. Since this partnership is critical for the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park, it is urgent that the rights and responsibilities of the partners are redefined, in order that a more harmonious and sustainable partnership relationship between the partners can develop in the future.
In summary, the practice of partnerships in Jiuzhaigou National Park reveals that the partnership approach is effective, in terms of the sustainable management of a protected area. However, it does not mean that stakeholders necessarily work together in a genuine partnership relationship, considering the challenges faced in each partnership case.

The following section examines the leadership of the partnership, in order to outline power sharing in partnership decision-making.

6.3 Who Holds the Leadership of the Partnership in Relation to the Sustainable Management of a Protected Area?

In this section, the locus of a control continuum framework (which was introduced in Chapter 2) is drawn, in order to examine the leadership of the three partnerships (Figure 16).

As shown in Figure 16, the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre appears at the left end of this continuum, since this partnership is under the leadership of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau. In the words of Selin (1999), the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration (as the protected area management agency) is legally responsible for decision-making and the local community is seen as an advisory group. Under the leadership of the Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration Bureau, equal economic benefits and business opportunities for the local community are ensured, whilst their influence over decision-making is weak, despite the fact that community representatives participate in the partnership decision-making. The less empowered status of the local community in decision-making was also identified by Dombroski (2005) and she stated this is a risk for the sustainability of the Jiuzhaigou National Park.

The Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory is located in the middle of this continuum. In
this partnership, sharing rights, responsibilities and resources is more probable between the park management agency and its partners, since the partners negotiate joint agreements and memorandums of understanding for partnership projects. Power sharing within decision-making also appears to be possible, considering the comparative advantages and capacities of each partner, although there are specific challenges in relation to international partnerships that need to be considered.

The Green Bus Company is presented at the right end of this continuum. In this partnership, the management authority was transferred from the park management agency to the stakeholders. The level of stakeholder participation was increased and stakeholders have taken the leadership of this partnership. However, the problem is that management rights and responsibilities are not linked, as assumed by Borrini-Feyerabend (1996), who stated that protected area partnership should link management rights and responsibilities. Whilst the park management agency continues to implement its responsibility, as usual, it no longer holds the power to influence the partnership’s decision-making. There is a lack of agreement that clearly defines the rights and responsibilities of each partner.
These three partnership cases show that the partners do not really share power in decision-making. However, the entity that holds the partnership control rights does not, in fact, appear to influence the way in which the partnership functions, when facilitating the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park, according to the discussion in previous sections. Indeed, the cases of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre and the Green Bus Company have revealed that these are practical partnerships, which deal with the various management objectives of Jiuzhaigou National Park. Moreover, the partnership assessment in Chapter 5 noted that the key elements of a partnership, such as mutual trust, respect and transparency, are weakly presented in the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre, whilst they do not even appear in the practice of the Green Bus Company. The only commonality portrayed by the three partnerships, in Chapter 5, is that they are protected area partnerships, which are operating on shared goals and the pooling of resources and mutual benefits for stakeholders. This reality interprets that a partnership in a protected area is specific and its practice is strongly shaped by
management objectives or goals for the protected area.

6.4 Summary

In order to answer my research question, there seems to be no doubt that partnership is an effective approach that facilitates the sustainable management of a protected area, if ‘sustainable management’ is defined as the achievement of (and balance between) multiple management objectives for protected areas. The partnership approach is effective in the way in which it brings together stakeholders to work towards shared goals, by pooling resources and ensuring mutual benefits for the stakeholders. However, it should be seen that there is no ideal partnership framework within a protected area that incorporates all the key principles of a partnership, as identified by the theorists. In addition, whilst partnership is an effective approach, in terms of involving multiple stakeholders in protected area management, as promoted by the new paradigm of protected areas (Phillips, 2003), this does not mean that stakeholders are necessarily sharing power in decision-making. In practice, partnership is complex and shaped by management goals and objectives for the protected area. This situation may generally be realistic for protected areas that deal with the challenge of balancing the ‘conservation’ and ‘development’—two conflicting subjects.

Although this thesis has demonstrated that partnership is an important approach for protected area management, in order to achieve various management objectives, especially in biodiversity conservation and sustainable development, partnership is an on-going process that requires continuous reviews and improvement (Borrini-Feyerabend, 1996). It also requires constant investment in relationship building between the partners and regular evaluations of the process and outcomes of the partnership. The key elements of a partnership, such as mutual transparency, accountability, trust and respect, should be considered. These elements would further strengthen the harmony within the relationship and between partners and thus effect
more desirable long-term management and sustainable outcomes for protected areas. The following section concludes the thesis, by providing recommendations for the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park and for future research.

6.5 Recommendations

6.5.1 Recommendations for Jiuzhaigou National Park

This thesis has given me an opportunity to explore and appreciate the practice of a partnership approach within Jiuzhaigou National Park. The three partnerships investigated in this thesis have experienced many years where there has been great effort from individuals, organisations and government and they have played a significant role in the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park. The recommendations for each of these partnerships are based on my own understanding of these partnerships, through my research and my personal sense of commitment to improve and sustain these partnerships, from the perspective of being on the staff (and also a resident) of the Jiuzhaigou National Park.

Recommendations for the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre

Firstly, there is a need to increase communication and transparency between the park administration, the Joint-Operation Company and the general local community, especially between the general local community and other partners. The Residents’ Management Office needs to organise regular shareholder meetings, which representatives from each household can attend, instead of just the members of a village committee or their representatives. Partnership decision-making and challenges within management should be discussed at these meetings and the community shareholders need to be informed and consulted, in order that the community shareholders feel they are being respected and that their voices are being heard by the
partners.

Secondly, the board of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre and its management team needs to become separate entities. The operation of this business needs to be more market-orientated under the management of a team, which is comprised of personnel from outside, who would be accountable to the board and the shareholders. The employment of an outside management team might avoid the interwoven and complex relationships between the partners involved in the management of the Nuorilang Tour Service Centre and it could improve the dividend that the partners receive.

Finally, there is a need to increase the local community’s income from souvenir selling. This is due to the fact that souvenir selling is one of the main sources of income for the local community, since their livelihoods have now changed and they rely on tourism development within the park for their income. However, there are two challenges that have to be considered. Firstly, there is a lack of unique products made by the local people, which represent their local culture and tradition. In addition, some audio and video products depicting Jiuzhaigou National Park and the majority of souvenirs are ‘cheap’ and manufactured in the city. Tourists can also find these souvenirs in other part of the China. Secondly, the souvenir stalls are crowded within a limited space inside the centre and the stalls that face the flow of tourists have more opportunities to earn income from these tourists. Therefore, it is urgent for the park administration to consider extending the area for souvenir stalls into the outside area. This will increase the opportunities for tourists to access all the stalls. The development of local products has a long way to go and this will be difficult to achieve, since it requires time, skills, knowledge and a budget. However, the park administration could guide and encourage the local community to make a start, by initiating cultural resource preservation projects which focus on local handcrafts.
Recommendations for the Green Bus Company

It may be necessary for the prefecture government to bring the park administration and the Green Bus Company together and negotiate a formal agreement, which clearly defines the rights and responsibilities of each party. The informal relationships between the two parties worked well when the Green Bus Company was managed by the park administration. Growing tensions have been felt during their daily interactions, since they became separate entities. Although the two parties continue to collaborate with each other, a harmonious relationship between them is crucial, since it is directly linked to the success of tourism management, environmental protection and the social-economic development of the regions’ communities.

Recommendations for the Jiuzhaigou International Laboratory

This partnership is operated and based on research projects and training programmes. The initiation for each research project or training programme needs to be a process of negotiation between the partners, in order that the partners can contribute, based on their own comparative advantages in relation to funding, expertise and knowledge. Secondly, the transfer of knowledge and research outcomes has been found to be difficult in practice. Involvement of the staff and managers in research projects is one way to transfer knowledge. Organising workshops and panels would be an appropriate way to deliver knowledge and broaden people’s understanding of issues within the Jiuzhaigou National Park, including the involvement of people not only from the park’s administration but also from the local community, local government, tour operators or even tourists. Temporary exhibitions showing research projects could also be considered within the visitor centre of Jiuzhaigou National Park, since there is sufficient space and facilities which could be used for that purpose. Finally, regular communication is important, in order to increase mutual understanding between partners. The utilisation of techniques such as video conferencing would be useful —
considering the challenge of distance within this partnership.

6.5.2 Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

This thesis has investigated how partnership is actually practiced in protected areas — from a protected area management perspective. Three partnerships are individually examined, in which the park management agency is the key stakeholder. In the case of future research, it would firstly be necessary to examine what interlinks and influences are occurring between these partnerships, in order to understand whether there is a possibility to transfer or replicate a successful model to another newly established partnership. Secondly, this research found that partnership practice, to a large extent, is influenced by government policies. Therefore, further research is important, in order to draw on the government’s perspectives on partnership practice and to examine how the different levels of government (and their policies) influence the formation, practice and maintenance of partnerships.

Thirdly, as shown in this thesis, it is possible for one protected area to simultaneously hold multiple titles, both national and international. For example, Jiuzhaigou National Park is also known as a National Nature Reserve; a National Park; a Geographic Park; a World Natural Heritage Site; and a UNESCO Man & Biosphere Reserve. Each designation has own aims, objectives and missions. Thus, gaining an understanding of how these different aims, objectives and missions are integrated into one management system in protected areas (whether they make a protected area management more complex or make the managers’ work almost impossible) could be an interesting direction for further research.

Finally, a number of partnerships were identified in the management of Jiuzhaigou National Park, including partnerships between the park management agency and NGOs, such as the World Wildlife Fund, but only three could be examined for the purpose of
this thesis. It would be worthwhile if researchers examined some of these other partnership in the future.

As stated at the beginning of this thesis, partnership is an on-going process that may be reshaped and improved, according to newly raised issues. It is hoped that, in the future, this thesis will contribute to the improved practice of partnerships in Jiuzhaigou National Park, and other protected areas in China and beyond.
Appendices

Appendix One: Interview Guiding Questions

Research Question: Do partnerships facilitate the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park?

General questions for Jiuzhaigou National Park Administration:

- To gain a general view of what partnership and sustainable management means within Jiuzhaigou National Park management:
  1) How do you define partnership?
  2) How do you define sustainable management?
  3) What are the most effective partnerships that contribute to sustainable management? Please give examples.
  4) What are the least effective partnerships in Jiuzhaigou National Park management history that did not work well? Please give examples.

Questions for all participants:

- To understand partners’ interests that motivates them to form a partnership:
  1) How was this partnership created? Why was this partnership needed?
- To understand the roles of partners, their investment in the partnership relationship and their understanding of the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park:
  2) What are the inputs of your organisation into the partnership?
  3) Are you satisfied with the performance of other partners?
4) What role do you play or what contribution do you make in terms of the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park?

5) How do you define sustainable management?

- To understand whether partners obtain their expected benefits or achieve their goals through the partnership:

  6) What benefits does the partnership bring that you might not obtain without a partnership relationship?

  7) Is the purpose of the partnership being achieved?

  8) What aspect of the outcomes of this partnership satisfies you?

- To understand the difficulties or obstacles faced by partners in the partnership relationship:

  9) What challenges do you encounter in the partnership?

  10) How do you deal with problems in the partnership?

  11) What efforts are needed from other partners, in order to deal with challenges and problems within the current partnership?

- To understand how partners define effective partnership: (These questions generally asked of park managers)

  12) In general, do you think this is a successful and/or effective partnership?

  13) What do you think are key elements of an effective partnership?

  14) Does reality fit with your hopes and expectations?

  15) Has it changed (for better or worse) or evolved? In what way?
Appendix Two: Information Sheet

Partnership for Facilitating Sustainable Protected Area Management

Case Study: Jiuzhaigou National Park, South-Western China

INFORMATION SHEET

My name is Qingxia Yang. I am a student in the Institute of Development Studies at Massey University in New Zealand. I have returned home, in order to conduct field research for my Master’s thesis. My research investigates whether partnership facilitates the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park. The purpose of this study is to understand how partnerships are created between Jiuzhaigou National Park and its partners (including the local community, tour operators, NGOs and other organisations); whether these partnerships facilitate the sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou; and to identify the key elements of an effective protected area partnership.

Approximately 15 people, who play key roles in different partnership relationships, will be interviewed during this field research, including managers and staff from Jiuzhaigou National Park and partner organisations and local residents from Jiuzhaigou National Park. I will collect primary data and the, information shared by the research participants will be significant and it will contribute to a deeper understanding of how partnerships work, in order to facilitate sustainable management of Jiuzhaigou National Park.

I would really appreciate your participation in this study, but your participation should be voluntary. As a participant, you have the right to decline to answer any questions you do not feel comfortable with, and to ask me any questions you may wish. If a tape recorder is used during the interview, you can ask to turn it off at any time. If you would like to have a summary of the research findings, this will be sent to you at the conclusion of this research. I will not use your name in this research, unless you want
me to. You have the right to withdraw any information you shared with me, before the conclusion of this research. If you have any concerns about your participation, I will be more than willing to discuss this with you, before the start of the interview.

The information you share with me will only be used for the purpose of writing my thesis and potential academic publications and it will only be accessed by my supervisor and me during the period of storage.

*This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University’s Human Ethics Committees. As the researcher, I am responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.*

*Thank you kindly for considering my request to participate in this study.*

*If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone, other than the researcher, please contact Professor Sylvia Rumball, Assistant to the Vice-Chancellor (Research Ethics), telephone 06 350 5249, email humanethics@massey.ac.nz*". 
Appendix Three: Participant Consent Form

Partnership for Facilitating Sustainable Protected Area Management

Case Study: Jiuzhaigou National Park, South-Western China

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

I have read and understood the information provided in the Information Sheet and my concerns and doubts have been answered to my satisfaction. I, therefore, voluntarily accept to participate in this research without expecting any form of compensation afterwards.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signature: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

Full Name - printed: _____________________________________________________
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