

An Innovative Model of Park Governance: Evidence from Vietnam

Tuan Phong Ly^{a*} and Honggen Xiao^b

^aFaculty of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Macau University of Science and Technology, M107, Avenida Wai Long, Taipa, Macau, People's Republic of China; ^bSchool of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, TST East, Kowloon, Hong Kong, People's Republic of China

Abstract: The Vietnamese Special-Use Forests policy introduced in 2006 has transformed the park and protected area governance of the country from being a state responsibility to a multi-component system, under which power is distributed among public and private sectors. This co-existing management model is a special form of concession. This unique management model has long been applied to the management of national parks in Vietnam, but studies on the public and private sectors and/or combined management bodies concurrently managing tourism and recreation services in a national park are scarce. Thus, this study investigates the co-existing management model in the Vietnamese park system with the Phong Nha-Ke Bang National Park as a case study. The study describes, analyzes and evaluates the model, as well as explains how it works in the Vietnamese park system. This study contributes to knowledge on the governance and management of national parks in Vietnam. Practical applications of the governance model to park management in other regions and countries are also discussed.

Keywords: *State management, private management, management effectiveness, governance, protected area, Phong Nha-Ke Bang National Park*

1. TOURISM IN VIETNAMESE NATIONAL PARKS

In developing countries, the goal for a national park (NP) or protected area (PA) to maintain a balance among recreation, conservation and economic viability often presents a challenge for its planning and governance. In such a dynamic setting of park management, conventional management structures and roles, based on a centralized and hierarchical authority, are deemed to be no longer adequate. Government agencies are not necessarily the only supplier of park service

(Abrams, Borrini-Feyerabend, Gardner & Heylings, 2003). Over the last three decades, park and PA governance has moved away from being a state-based responsibility and has become polycentric regime under which powers are distributed among a diversity of government, private and community-based stakeholders (Abrams et al., 2003; Lockwood, 2010). Gold (1958) called such arrangements *park concessions*. Various forms of collaboration among communities, governments, businesses and other actors have been growing in many countries. Often, national governments empower their subordinate entities and other parties or stakeholders, through a variety of initiatives under the theme of *decentralization*. The United Nation Development Program (UNDP) identifies four approaches to decentralization, namely *de-concentration*, *delegation*, *devolution*, and *divestment* (Graham, Amos & Plumptre, 2003). These are distinguished by how much political authority the government transfers to a local level (i.e., government agency, private sector, community and/or NGO donors) (Larson, 2002). De-concentration and delegation are in the weaker level of power transferability, while devolution and divestment are stronger and give a more direct transfer of power, serving state officials and donors (Agrawal & Ribot, 1999; Larson, 2002). Delegation refers to the transfer of decision-making power to semi-independent political units, which means that a park is operating by a government-owned company and includes the participation of private sector (Larson, 2002).

Despite the importance of park concession, Su and Xiao (2009) identify notable gaps in the growing body of park governance literature: 1) attention from academia in this highly multi-disciplinary subject area was not extended to parks and PAs until recent times; 2) the knowledge of parks and tourism management is still an under-researched area; and 3) practical evidence about the provision and delivery of tourism/recreation services in park context was principally controlled by case studies conducted elsewhere in the world, mostly in developed countries, few in the developing ones, and in all probability none at Vietnam. Although there are many management models, little research has been undertaken to provide a sound knowledge of the nature of various park management models (Buteau-Duitschaever, McCutcheon, Eagles, Havitz & Glover, 2010). Especially, there is a paucity of literature on park governance research which has been persistent until very recent times (Buteau-Duitschaever, 2009; Eagles, Romagosa, Buteau-Duitschaever, Havitz, Glover & McCutcheon, 2013; Eagles, Havitz, McCutcheon, Buteau-Duitschaever & Glover, 2010; Hanna, Clark & Slocombe, 2008; Hannah, 2006). This study has followed the call for more empirical studies investigating park governance models in

the concession context in the developing world, such as Vietnam (Beilock & Nicolich, 2002; Huang, 2008; Su & Xiao, 2009).

Vietnam has two types of NPs: inter-provincial parks under the management of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, and intra-provincial ones under the administration of the Provincial People's Committee (Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, 2011). Eight of the 30 NPs in the country are located across different provinces and managed by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, whereas the other 22 NPs are under intra-provincial management (The Government of Vietnam, 2003, 2010). The *doimoi* (renovation) was a period of reform that started in 1986 in Vietnam. The reform introduced 'open-door' policies that encouraged a shift from the socialist-oriented to a market-driven economy (Cooper, 2000). The *doimoi* policy has called for the decentralization of the Vietnamese park system, which continually searches and applies for new tourism policies that assist the National Park Management Board (NPMB) in managing parks and PAs efficiently and effectively (The Government of Vietnam, 2006a, 2010).

In 2006, the new Special-Use Forests (SUF) management policy, which designs for forest protection and development in general, had a special update regarding the management bodies of nature-based tourism and recreation activities in parks and protected areas. A first legal article dealt with nature-based tourism activities' organization methods in Vietnamese NPs, announced in Article 55 of the Decree No.23/2006/NĐ-CP (The Government of Vietnam, 2006a). According to the SUF policy, the NPMB is the forest owner and has the right to manage nature-based tourism activities within the core zone of park under three models: 1) state-management model, which involves tourism sites managed by the NPMB; 2) private-management model, which involves leasing the forest environment to private groups or companies for tourism site establishment and management; and 3) joint venture model, which is characterized by association between the public and private sectors and other forms of investment (Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, 2007, 2011; The Government of Vietnam, 2010).

In this study, the researchers refer to the involvement of two or more bodies concurrently managing tourism/recreation services in a NP as the *co-existing management model*. It is not novel that the public and private sectors simultaneously manage tourism activities within the same park. Eagles (2008, 2009) and More (2005) call these the *public and for-profit models*. However, the governance of a park through a co-existing management model is new to the

Vietnamese system. Since the SUF policy was introduced in 2006, the Vietnamese park system has witnessed a change from state-based responsibility to polycentric regime (Abrams et al., 2003; Lockwood, 2010). This change is a core step towards decentralization in the Vietnamese park system from de-concentration to delegation (Ribot, 2002). No published research has explored this kind of park governance concession under the Vietnamese context.

The Vietnamese NPMB is considered as a young and under developed system (Suntikul, Bulter & Airey, 2010). It lacks experience in managing park tourism, especially after the decentralization of power to the lower levels of government and other non-government sectors. The intra-provincial parks have even less management experience than the inter-provincial ones (Phan, Quan & Le, 2002; Suntikul et al., 2010; Wurm, 1999). Under these circumstances, the researchers are concerned about the ability of the Vietnamese NPMB to manage NPs, especially for the intra-provincial ones. Moreover, since the announcement of the co-existing management model in 2006, the first and only application of the model has been in Phong Nha-Ke Bang National Park (PNKB NP) in Quang Binh Province in 2010. This type of model is new to the academic literature. Thus, the Vietnamese NPMB cannot find any reference for use as a guide in adaptive management.

The co-existing management model in the Vietnamese park system presents a distinct and innovative direction that offers both promises and uncertainties for park management bodies in developing countries. Without an understanding of its management effectiveness (Hockings, Stolton, Leverington, Dudley & Courrau, 2006) and governance assessment (Institute on Governance, 2002; UNDP, 1997) to which Vietnamese park system adheres, opportunities to improve future conservation and management are potentially lost. It is therefore essential to understand the governance through the co-existing management model and its contribution to the triple mandates of the park in a developing country, namely, recreation, conservation and economy. Ly and Xiao (2013) have explored the need to study the basic nature of the co-existing management model in Vietnam using PNKB NP as a case study. This paper can be seen as a further and fuller development of the study in response to the call for research.

To fill the knowledge gap, this study aims to describe, analyze and evaluate the co-existing management model, as well as explain how the model works in the Vietnamese park system with the PNKB NP as a case study. This study addresses two key questions: 1) How

effective is the co-existing management model in terms of managing tourism at the PNKB NP? 2) What theoretical explanations can be given to park governance in the Vietnamese context?

With the above questions in mind, the objectives of this study are to contribute to the growing body of knowledge on park management and governance in Vietnam; to help outline the parameters that can guide an emerging area of inquiry into parks, recreation and tourism; to apply the combined framework of Abrams et al. (2003) and Lockwood (2010), which link the three aspects of planning, management and governance in studying park governance models; and to allow the transferability of the conceptual model of Vietnam to studying park and PA governance in other Southeast Asian countries.

2. PLANNING, MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE IN PARKS AND PROTECTED AREAS

Planning typically involves developing long-term goals, whereas management uses those goals to implement initiatives related to a specific site or situation (Borrini-Feyerabend, Johnston & Pansky, 2006). Planning and management occur within a larger framework created by governance approaches (Abrams et al., 2003; Lockwood, 2010). The triplex mandates of NPs can be achieved only in the context of appropriate planning, management and governance (Eagle et al., 2010). Several theories, concepts and frameworks have been used in the past to investigate park governance. Therefore, they should be considered as bases for the present study.

2.1. Planning and Management: Effectiveness Evaluation Framework

The World Commission on Protected Areas proposed the Management Effectiveness Evaluation Framework for assessing management effectiveness (Hockings, Stolton & Dudley, 2000; Hockings et al., 2006). This evaluation framework is defined as

‘The assessment of how well the protected areas are being managed—primarily the extent to which it is protecting values and achieving goals and objectives. The term management effectiveness reflects three main themes: 1) design issues related to both, individual sites and protected area systems; 2) adequacy and appropriateness of management systems and processes; and 3) delivery of protected area objectives, including conservation of values’ (Hockings et al., 2006, p.xiii).

Based on this framework, different systems that use several evaluation tools or methodologies can be used to conduct evaluations at different scales and depths (Hockings et al., 2006). The Management Effectiveness Evaluation Framework is based on the idea that PA management follows a management cycle with six distinct elements, namely, context, planning, inputs, process, outputs and outcomes (Hockings et al., 2006). A management cycle, adapted from this framework, 1) begins with understanding the *context* of the park, including its values, the threats that it encounters and opportunities available, as well as its stakeholders, management and political environments and tourism site descriptions; 2) develops through *planning*, including establishing goals, objectives and strategies to conserve values and reduce threats; 3) allocates resources (*inputs*), such as staff, money and facilities to work toward the objectives; 4) implements management actions through accepted *processes*; 5) eventually produces goods and services (*outputs*), which should usually be outlined in management plans and work plans; and 6) results in *outcomes*, hopefully achieving defined goals and objectives.

Hockings et al. (2006) confirmed that good management needs to be rooted in a sound understanding of every single condition related to a park, from careful planning, implementation and regular monitoring to changes in the management if required. Six elements of the management cycle (i.e., context, planning, inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes) should be assessed to fully understand the management effectiveness (or planning and management aspects) of parks and PAs. Each element may interact with the others and all elements should be considered to comprehend the overall picture of management effectiveness and ensure great explanatory power (Hockings et al., 2006; Leverington, Hockings, Pavese, Lemos Costa & Courrau, 2008).

2.2. Governance Assessment of Parks and Protected Areas

The 5th World Parks Congress defined governance as ‘essential for the effective management of protected areas of all types in the 21st century’, which clearly confirms the role of governance as a key determinant of parks and PAs (World Parks Congress, 2003, p.41). Kraay, Zoido-Lobaton and Kaufmann (1999) and Convention on Biological Diversity (2004) identified poor governance as one of the major threats that can undermine PA objectives, further confirming the significant and ever-growing role of governance.

Abrams et al. (2003) affirmed that *good governance* is a fair and effective way of exercising governing powers (means) to meet the objectives (ends) of the parks and PAs. Good governance is the capacity and reliability of governing institutions to effectively respond to problems and achieve social unity through various forms of consultation, negotiation and multi-party agreements. Actors practicing good governance handle conflicts constructively, allowing for the expression of different points of view, the exploration of diverse meanings and the evolution of consensus-based solutions. Therefore, practicing good governance is a core issue in the management effectiveness. As mentioned, what constitutes good governance is strongly affected by the cultural context. The Canadian Institute on Governance (2002) and the Parks Canada Agency have established principles of good governance for parks and PAs (Abrams et al., 2003). Rooted in United Nations principles (UNDP, 1997), good governance principles are described as universal, comprehensive and widely applicable to all institutions concerned with PA objectives; these principles are also presented as a work in progress and a point of departure (Institute on Governance, 2002). The five core governance principles are *legitimacy and voice, accountability, performance, fairness and direction*. They are generally accepted as prerequisites to the success of PA and seen as related to the full range of governance forms within six PA categories (Abrams et al., 2003). They provide a basis for parks and PAs around the world to develop their own principles to understand and improve PA management (World Parks Congress, 2003).

Governance is a conceptual domain that refers to the relationships among multiple stakeholders and how they interact with one another (Scott, Laws, Agrusa & Richins, 2011). park governance systems are embedded in broad social and political contexts. They are dependent upon interactions and compatibility or nesting within the decision-making framework at national and regional levels (Ostrom, 1990). They also affect a variety of social interests and concerns in different ways. If changes to management models or systems are needed, they are usually not limited to those directly involved in governing bodies. Abrams et al. (2003) confirmed that deciding who should be involved at what moment and in what way is essential to conducting a balanced, thorough and effective evaluation. Researchers on management effectiveness or governance assessment need to identify the primary intended stakeholders in the evaluation. The present study aims to understand the park governance of the co-existing management model of Vietnamese NPs. This study follows the suggestion of Patton (2008) that the stakeholders who need to be involved are those who are engaged in day-to-day park tourism management.

2.3. Conceptual Framework: Planning, Management and Governance

Interestingly, when park and PA governance system assessments are conducted, the planning, management and governance aspects are mostly revised and studied separately. The evaluation of the management effectiveness of parks and PAs is well-established, with processes generally employing the Management Effectiveness Evaluation Framework. The planning and management aspects of parks and PAs have usually been studied jointly when assessing the six elements of the *management cycle*. Assessing governance quality through the five good governance principles of the World Parks Congress is an important task for demonstrating performance and identifying where improvement is desirable. Nonetheless, no research on park governance assessment has examined the aspects of planning, management and governance. Investigating these aspects is the most suitable way to understand the system (Buteau-Duitschaeffer et al., 2010; Hockings et al., 2006; Lockwood, 2010). Based on the preceding discussion, the framework to study and explore the Vietnamese park governance model is summarized as follows (Hockings et al., 2006; Lockwood, 2010) (Figure 1):

Initially, Stage 1 involves understanding the planning and management aspects of the models through the Management Effectiveness Evaluation Framework suggested by Hockings et al. (2006) (i.e, assessing the six elements of the management cycle). At the same time, the context of Vietnamese park governance can be confirmed at this stage because governance effectiveness and management effectiveness are interconnected (Lockwood, 2010). At this stage, when studying the context of park, the relevant stakeholders who should be involved in the evaluation are also confirmed. Subsequently, the key stakeholders are asked *what constitutes good governance principles for the co-existing management model* from their points of view at Stage 2 because their perspectives can help in deciding how they should manage park recreation and tourism services. A gap may exist between the idea of good governance for the park management model under self-recognized principles and the internationally established models. Therefore, the self-recognized good governance and the internationally established models have to be compared. At Stage 3, after the management effectiveness, governance effectiveness and good governance principles are studied and combined, insights into how the co-existing management model works

are discussed and finalized. More importantly, theoretical explanation of the model to study the Vietnamese park governance is proposed. At the end, the complete framework to describe, analyze, evaluate and explain the park governance of the Vietnamese co-existing management model can be formed.

[Figure 1 about here]

3. PHONG NHA-KE BANG NATIONAL PARK: A CASE STUDY

The PNKB Natural Reserve was upgraded to a national park in 2001. Before and after 2001, the park has witnessed several modifications of management models: 1) provincial administrative management (from 1995 to 2001); 2) state-owned enterprise (from 2001 to 2003); 3) parastatal management (from 2003 to 2010); and 4) co-existing management model (from 2010 until now). According to the history of the development of the PNKB NP, the previous management models could not find an effective approach for the park system to reach its triplex objectives (e.g., stagnated visitation levels, monopoly choice and inadequate delivery of services by government agencies and negative environmental and sociocultural outcomes).

The PNKB NP is located in the western part of Quang Binh Province, approximately 500 kilometers south of Hanoi and in the narrowest part of Vietnam between Laos and the Tonkin Gulf. It is the largest limestone area in Asia and the second largest in the world (Nguyen, Dang, Nguyen, Nguyen & Phan, 2006). The complete core zone of the PNKB NP was recognized as a World Natural Heritage Site in 2003 under Criteria VIII (Geological and Geo-morphological) and became the fifth World Heritage site in Vietnam (UNESCO, 2013). The related core zones are divided into three functional areas: strictly protected area (64,894 ha), ecological restoration area (17,449 ha) and administrative and service area (3,411 ha). The buffer zone has a total area of 217,908.44 ha and includes 13 communes with a population of more than 64,000. The present study focuses on tourism activities in the core zone because this area is an official NP and World Heritage Site.

3.1. Vietnamese National Park System

Despite the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (i.e., managing inter-provincial parks) and/or Provincial People's Committee (i.e., managing intra-provincial parks) take

responsibility to manage NPs directly, they do not join the daily operational management. This task is separated to another unique organization called: the NPMB. This management unit is a state-owned organization, which has the functions and tasks of a forest owner and the state-assured conditions for managing, protecting and developing SUFs. In addition, it is responsible for conserving and promoting special values in terms of nature, standard specimens of ecosystems, biodiversity, gene sources, historical-cultural relics and landscape; conducting scientific research and provision of forest environmental services (The Government of Vietnam, 2010).

The NPMB is the management unit that conducts and manages tourism/recreation business in parks. However, the NPMB has different sub-units under its control. Normally there is a sub-unit named Tourism Management Unit, which conducts, manages and operates all of the tourism and recreation activities relating to the state-management model, such as the Phong Nha Tourism Centre (PNTC) of PNKB NP. At the same time, there are private companies or groups joining park tourism site management (i.e., forest renting and tourism operation format) since the allowance of the SUF policy in 2006. The private companies or groups are the representatives of the private-management model and are under the supervision of the NPMB. Therefore, there are three major stakeholders making decisions on the management effectiveness of park tourism/recreation businesses: the NPMB, the Tourism Management Unit (the PNTC in the case of PNKB NP) and the private company (the Truong Think Group in the case of PNKB NP).

3.2. Tourism Management's Stakeholders in PhongNha-Ke Bang National Park

PNKB NP is managed by the Quang Binh Province. Daily operation and management are direct responsibilities of the NPMB, which is under the authority of the Provincial People's Committee of Quang Binh. The NPMB governs a tourism management unit called the PNTC to oversee tourism activities in the park under the *state-management model* (People's Committee of Quang Binh Province, 2010).

Apart from the state-owned tourism management unit, the park has one international non-governmental organization concurrently working on tourism development in the region [Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GIZ)]. Additionally three private-management companies operate tourism activities at the park, the Oxalis Company, the Phong Nha Discovery Company and the Truong Think Group. The Oxalis Company is operating three

special tours now (Oxalis, 2015): 1) TuLan Cave tour; 2) Son Doong Cave tour; and 3) Hang Va Cave tour. Among the three tours, TuLan Cave is outside the core zone of the park, therefore, it is not the focus of the study's discussion. For Son Doong Cave tour and Hang Va Cave tour, although they are located inside the core zone of the park, they are not managed under any three of the park management models (i.e., neither state-management model; nor private-management model, or joint-venture model). As the NPMB does not rent out any land of the park area for Oxalis to operate and manage the tours, they have obtained a special permit to bring tourists to visit the sites, however, the approval from the NPMB of each visit is required before the tour. The representative of the NPMB explained that the cooperation between the NPMB and the Oxalis Company is an experimental situation before the park management decides which model should be applied for those tours/sites (Son Doong Cave and Hang Va Cave tour). Thus, it is not the core private company that is to examine the management nature of the co-existing model. The same situation is applying to Phong Nha Discovery Company. This company does not directly manage any tourism sites within the core zone of the park under any of the three management models (Phong Nha Discovery, 2015).

The Truong Thinh Group is a local company in Quang Binh Province. In 2010, the Provincial People's Committee allowed the group to invest, operate and directly manage tourism in the Paradise Cave under a 50-year *forest-renting contract*. This cooperative form can be considered a format of the *private-management model*. Research data show that this site is the only tourism site in the PNKB NP operated under the private-management model. It serves as an important site for this study to investigate the co-existing management model.

3.3.Data Acquisition through Case Study

The PNKB NP was selected as a single case for this study for several reasons. Compared with inter-provincial parks, the intra-provincial ones have a more typical and representative role to understand the empowerment issues related to decentralization (Ribot, 2002; Yin, 2003a, 2003b). The idea of polycentricism is to overcome the pitfalls of traditional state-based governance. A comparison between inter-provincial parks and intra-provincial ones may not be appropriate, as the latter explicitly elaborates the power of empowerment and engagement. Therefore, one of the 22 intra-provincial parks can ideally become the case for this study. Among these intra-provincial

parks, only PNKB NP is listed as a World Natural Heritage Site (UNESCO, 2013). World Heritage status provides the park with accountability in managing tourism and recreation in a sustainable manner (Hall, 2006). Moreover, the World Heritage status has a model effect. Other parks that want to be included in the World Heritage List or to improve their management and governance effectiveness can learn from the PNKB NP (Dean & Biswas, 2001; Ryan & Silvanto, 2009). More importantly, according to the managers of the National Park Management Board, PNKB NP is the only park that has applied the co-existing management model in Vietnam. Therefore, the park serves as a unique case for studying the model.

In order to minimize the chances of misrepresentation, maximize access to information in a single case study (Yin, 2003a), develop a case study protocol and confirm the existence of the co-existing management model at the park, the researchers conducted a pilot study in June 2011 at the PNKB NP. The pilot study confirmed the co-existence of both state-management and private-management models currently applied in the park. Thus in this research, analysis and discussions mainly focus on the two management models.

Among the visited sites within the core zone area, only the Paradise Cave under the management of Truong Think Group follows the private-management model. The Paradise Cave and Truong Think Group are the main subjects to study the private-management model. Moreover, various types of tourism and recreation products are managed by the PNTC in accordance with the state-management model. Three study sites are selected for observation and data collection to examine the state-management model: Phong Nha-Tien Son Cave, which represents the ecological cave site; Eight Heroic Volunteers Cave, which represents the historical cave site; and Nuoc Mooc Spring Eco-Trail, which represents the forest trail walking trip.

3.4. Data Collection

The data were collected in two phases: from 10 July to 13 September 2012, and 14 February to 15 April 2013. The lead researcher stayed at PNKB NP during the entire data collection process, lasting approximately four months. The study followed a triangulation approach to enhancing the level of credibility, confirmability and trustworthiness of the research process and its outcome (Padgett, 1998). In particular, observation, documentation and in-depth interview were employed to capture information-rich and context specific data required to address the study objectives.

To facilitate access to information for this case study, the four-stage model of *getting in*, *getting on*, *getting out* and *getting back* was applied in this field research with different focus on two phases (Buchanan, Boddy & McCalman, 1988). Phase 1 has witnessed the practice of getting in (i.e., asking for formal entrance), getting on (i.e., building rapport, participant observation, document collection and interviews) and getting out (i.e., leaving the field and going back) stages respectively. Phase 2 continued with getting back (i.e., returning to the field), getting on (i.e., continuing with unfinished observations, collecting documentary sources and conducting interview) and getting out (i.e., finishing the data collection and leaving the park).

This sequestered arrangement could bring benefits resulting from reflexivity (Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2005). As this study does not start with any propositions, the research instrument – a set of semi-structured interview questions – was developed based on literature review, the researchers' experience and findings from field observations and documentary sources. By separating data collection into two phases, the researchers had an opportunity to do trial interviews with different informants in Phase 1, as well as to modify questions to eliminate any inappropriate terms or concepts in Phase 2. An additional advantage is to have more time (six months in between) to build rapport between the researchers and the interviewees (Parameswaran, 2001). With the established trust after Phase 1, possible distortions in the data could be identified and corrected (Creswell, 2003; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Padgett, 1998). The setting and conduct of data collection in two phases have also benefited from interpersonal reflexivity (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2010).

To fully understand management effectiveness of PNKB NP, the researchers assessed the six elements of the management cycle (i.e., context, planning, inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes) (Hocking et al., 2006). The prompt questions to assess management effectiveness of the park are showed as Table 1. The researchers evaluated each element of the cycle through studying certain major questions and follow-up questions in accordance to the national park context and responses from interviewees.

[Table 1 about here]

Qualitative research uses non-random methods of participant recruitment or purposeful sampling (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011). Individuals involved in the day-to-day operations of

the four selected tourism sites were included in the evaluation because this study aims to understand the co-existing management models in PNKB NP. These seven distinct categories of informants for this study are shown in Table 2. They are program executives (Group 1: a representative of the National Park Management Board, with one interviewee); program administrators (Group 2a: officers of the Phong Nha Tourism Centre, with two interviewees; Group 2b: a representative of Truong Think Group, with one interviewee); program participants (Group 3a: site managers of the PNTC, with three interviewees; Group 3b: a site manager of Truong Think Group, with one interviewee); program staff (Group 4a: staff of the PNTC's sites, with seven interviewees; Group 4b: staff of Truong Think Group's site, with three interviewees); end users of the park (Group 5a: local community members participating in tourism activities, and Group 5b: tourists, no interviewees for these groups); and external auditing group (Group 6: GIZ staff, with three interviewees) and internal auditing group (Group 7: forest rangers, with two interviewees).

The number of interview participants for this study was determined by the principles of theoretical sampling and saturation (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The point of theoretical saturation was different for each group because of the distinct characteristics of the participant groups. However, the researchers stopped recruiting interviewees when a group was felt to have reached saturation (Hennink et al., 2011). Table 2 indicates the number of interviews and surveys for each stakeholder group completed during the two phases of data collection. A total of 23 in-depth interviews were conducted. Direct stakeholders (Groups 1, 2, 3 and 4) have significant power and influence on park tourism management and businesses. Auditing indirect stakeholders (Groups 6 and 7) act an important role in member-checking process to increase the validity and credibility of obtained information from the interview process (Hennink et al., 2011). Therefore, these six groups provide the major information to understand the study purposes through in-depth interviews. Group 5 offers supplementary information that helps the researchers gain a fuller understanding of park tourism management through personal discussion and short surveys. Because of their limited influence on park tourism management issues, they were not selected for in-depth interview.

[Table 2 about here]

Participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity of getting involved in this study. All interviewees agreed to be recorded after the researchers introduced the purpose of the study. During the field research, memos and notes were also taken in a research diary. Most of the interviews were conducted in Vietnamese, and only one interview with a staff member of GIZ and some surveys with international tourists were conducted in English. The digital voice recordings were simultaneously transcribed and translated verbatim from Vietnamese to English by the corresponding/lead author (whose first language is Vietnamese). Next, the interview transcripts were checked for accuracy with the help of other researchers (e.g., English and Vietnamese scholars and linguists). Transcription started during the data collection process, immediately after each interview was conducted.

3.5.Data Analysis

Grounded theory provides an approach through which theory can be built up from careful observation of the social world and generated initially from the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2005). The inherent inductive strategies and theoretical sensitivities of grounded theory to review and at the same time analyze interview data, documentary evidence and observation information were deemed as appropriate in order to understand the co-existing management model in a Vietnamese NP context. This study therefore applied the grounded theory approach in the sense making of the data collected (Hennink, et al., 2011; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Data analysis began shortly after data collection was initiated and continued throughout the process. Although data transcription and translation were conducted in the field, analyses of interview transcripts were finished at the offices of the researchers in mid-May 2013 because of the large amount of data from the interview sources. A systematic procedure of open, axial and selective coding was conducted in accordance with the procedure that allows theory to be generated from the data (Strauss, 1987). Hennink et al. (2011) calls it a cyclical process of analysis. The process of grounded theory is therefore described as ‘consisting of systematic, yet flexible guidelines for collecting and analyzing qualitative data to construct theories grounded in the data. The guidelines offer a set of general principles and heuristic devices rather than formulaic rules’ (Charmaz, 2006, p. 2). Analyses of the 23 interview transcripts were facilitated by NVivo 10 (Bazeley, 2007; QSR International, 2013) in terms of storage, organization, coding

and management of the collected data. For the sake of confirmability and validity, techniques such as consistency checks, constant comparison through living with the data, as well as member checks were applied in the process of analysis.

This research has several limitations. First, in this case study, the researcher was only able to spend four months in the field. A longer time is needed to build rapport with the interviewees. Second, conducting in-depth interviews is a challenge and calls for a researcher's experience. Third, despite the use of triangulation in data collection and analysis, reports and interpretation of a qualitative undertaking such as this necessarily reflect the perspectives of both the researchers and their informants. Moreover, the study should not be read in complete freedom from the values, standpoints and sometimes even bias of the researchers and the study participants. Lastly, studying the co-existing management model in Vietnam is still in an early stage. This limitation can be confirmed by the fact that the first application of the model was in 2010 and only two management models were applied in the PNKB NP (i.e., no joint-venture model currently in existence). Therefore, this study does not include the full design of the original model, and certain yet unidentified contexts and relationships may exist. For future research, the co-existing management model could be longitudinally examined (either in the PNKB NP or in other NPs in Vietnam), when the model design is becoming more complete.

4. CO-EXISTING MANAGEMENT MODEL: A CAUSE-AND-EFFECT RELATIONSHIP

A cause-and-effect relationship serves as a useful mechanism for the discussion of the study's findings charted by the two research questions. The effectiveness of the co-existing management model, as well as the applicability of the model as a theoretical explanation and context for studying park governance in Vietnam are discussed in terms of causal conditions, the central phenomenon, contexts, intervening conditions, actions and interactions, strategies and consequences, as emerged from the analysis.

4.1.Causal Conditions Leading to the Central Phenomenon

After the *doimoi* era and before 2010 (i.e., the application of the co-existing management model in the PNKB NP), new social conditions prevented the Vietnamese park system from reaching its three mandates of recreation, conservation and economic viability. With regard to *recreation*,

the conventional and bureaucratic mechanism of the state-management model alone cannot fulfill the diverse recreational needs of tourists (Group 1, 2, 3 and 6). For the *conservation* mandate, the previous park managerial levels showed low forest protection awareness during tourism operations because of the non-sustainable development culture in Vietnam. Moreover, according to local forest rangers (Group 7), residents of impoverished areas had no choice but to harvest natural resources illegally to survive. With regard to the *economic* objective, the previous management models of Vietnamese parks did not solve the problem of poverty (Group 1, 2, 3 and 6). Insufficient job opportunities were given to locals in the management of parks. The study of Suntikul et al. (2010) on park tourism management confirms that a Vietnamese NP is usually in a win (tourism)–win (community)–lose (environment) scenario. They expressed concerns that in the long run, Vietnamese NP management would evolve into a lose–lose–lose situation if no changes were made. The preceding discussion points to the possibility that the worst situation may occur in the Vietnamese NP and PA system. Given the country's incapacity in park and PA management, the Vietnamese Government decided to shift to the co-existing management model (The Government of Vietnam, 2006b, 2010, 2012) through an integration of multiple components in tourism operations within the same park.

Causal conditions, mainly the obstacles in reaching the triple mandates and the government's incapacity in managing the park system under the state-management model alone, have resulted in a phenomenon or situation referred to by the representative of the NPMB (Group 1) as 'the co-existence of more than one management model' (apart from the state-management) within a national park. The researchers refer to this new form of public and for-profit model as the *co-existing management model*, which has the following features: 1) the owner of the land is a government agency; 2) the sources of income are user fees from ticket sales (from the state-management model) making up the 1–2% of the annual tourism revenue tax from the leasing contract of the forest areas (with the Truong Thinh private group); and 3) the types of management bodies are a combination of the state management, private management and joint venture.

4.2. Development Context

The core strategy of the co-existing management model was influenced by specific contextual markers related to both the causal conditions (i.e., the obstacles and government incapacity) and the resulting central phenomenon. These contextual markers explain the work of the co-existing management model in certain contexts, answering the ‘what,’ ‘where,’ ‘when,’ and ‘with whom’ questions related to the phenomenon.

After the announcement of the *doimoi* era, the country recognized that a multi-component economic model was more suitable than the monopolistic state-management model. The same idea has been applied to the tourism industry (Cooper, 2000). Under a social context for multi-component or concession model operation, the Vietnamese Government announced the official policy for the application of the co-existing management model in the SUF area, which includes NPs where the phenomenon occurs (Government of Vietnam, 2006b). The Vietnamese Government promulgated the co-existing management model in 2006. The representative of the NPMB (Group 1) confirms that the PNKB NP applied the model in 2010, making it the first Vietnamese NP to do so. Since the Truong Think Group joined as a private sector of the Paradise Cave site in the PNKB NP under a forest-renting contract, two management models simultaneously exist in operating the tourism and recreational businesses in the park: the state-management model and private-management model (Group 1, 2, 3 and 6).

Certain factors push for the involvement of the private sector in the Vietnamese park system. First, after *doimoi* and because of the permission for multi-component development, the Vietnamese Government witnessed efficiency in tourism businesses operated by the private sector (Suntikul, Butler & Airey, 2008). Second, the private sector assists the Vietnamese tourism industry in dealing with the country’s persistent disadvantages in marketing, promotion and investment (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism & Vietnam National Administration of Tourism, 2012). Third, the manager of Truong Think Group (Group 2b) shares that ‘the private sector has a strong desire to participate in tourism businesses in parks and PAs because of the significant potential of international and domestic tourism markets for nature-based destinations, such as World Natural Heritage Sites like PNKB NP’.

Notably, the research finds that there exist both the will of the private sector to participate in the new model, and the will of the public sector to change the situation. An officer of PNTC (Group 2a) states that, ‘for a long time, we [the public sector (e.g., the NPMB and PNTC of PNKB NP)] intended to improve the park management situation because it had recognized the

inadequacies of a pure state-management model'. When the staff of PNTC (Group 4a) were asked about their thought toward the application of the co-existing model to the park, the researchers obtained surprising answers. They believe that 'it is the social and economic needs of the Vietnamese park system development'. The established policy for the SUF in 2006 and the integration of the private sector into park tourism management were properly timed with the Vietnamese park development situation.

4.3. Intervening Condition: Participation of Private-Management Model

Certain *intervening conditions* have to be considered before stakeholders take actions or interact to address relevant issues. In this study, the involvement of the private-management model can be considered as a significant factor that activates the operation of the designed co-existing management model. Although both models have to follow the directives of the NPMB, tourism sites managed under a private-management model are partly independent from the board, especially in its daily operations (Group 1 and 2). Therefore, the private-management model could operate tourism sites in a manner similar to private sector management (e.g., with autonomy or independence in planning investment budgets, managing human resources and staff salary or payrolls) (Group 1, 2 and 3). Thus, the private-management model has brought certain improvements to park tourism and recreational management in Vietnam.

In the case of the PNKB NP, the Truong Think Group established high management standards. After three years (from 2010 to 2013) under the management of this group, the Paradise Cave has improved in both hardware (e.g., increasing investment budget, tourism facilities and infrastructure) and software (improving management experience and ensuring better service quality). The site manager of Truong Think Group (Group 2b) claims that the group has also invited some domestic and international experts in cave management to conduct infrastructure set-up training before and after the opening of the site. This explains why most of the interviewees claimed that the private-management model is more effective than the state-management model.

4.4. Actions and Interactions: Improvement of the State-management Model

Since the joining of the Truong Think Group, the PNTC has had important improvements in three different aspects. First, the park witnessed a diversification of tourism sites (i.e., tourists have

more choices now apart from Phong Nha–Tien Son Cave) (Group 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6). Second, the hardware of the significant sites of the park was upgraded (i.e., the tourism infrastructure and facilities of the Phong Nha–Tien Son Cave, which had operated since 1995, were improved and upgraded in the end of 2013) (Group 4a). Third, the PNTC progressed by displaying an unalterable management style (i.e., standardization of staff management approach) (Group 2a). PNTC's officers and staff (Group 2a and 4a) report that two aspects of soft-ware update are particularly notable: management style and staff awareness of tourism services. The management style of the officers is essential when considering the management model. A former officer of PNTC was dismissed because of bad management and inability to compete with private management of the Paradise Cave. Since February 2012, a new officer has taken over the PNTC with a young, smart, dynamic and stringent style of park tourism management. Experts have high assessment of the new management style because it has brought efficacy, efficiency and effectiveness to park tourism management. Staff awareness toward tourism service has also been enhanced (when compared with old management) under the leadership of the new officer of the PNTC (Group 2a), as he noted,

'Our staff's attitude could not be supervised in the past, they were drunk all day long. They went to drink coffee in the working hours, or tourists needed to wait for tour guides for a long time at the pier. But now this has changed. They are listening better. No more wine or coffee during working hours. They put on a smile in order to serve tourists while on board. So, as I said, competition brings benefits to tourists'.

Regardless of the social and economic needs, and the pressure or effects of the private-management model that has resulted in the aforementioned improvements, the state-management model witnessed a dramatic change since the introduction of the co-existing management model. These changes or improvements confirm the success of the core strategy linked to the new model, which is discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

4.5. Core Management Strategies

In the presence of contextual markers, intervening conditions and actions and interactions described, the co-existing management model has brought about two parallel core strategies for

the Vietnamese park system: 1) the co-existence of the public and private sectors within the same park and 2) the establishment of a competitive milieu between them for improving park governance.

The managerial level of the park (Group 1, 2a and 3a) as well as the staff of GIZ (Group 6) state that the entering of the Truong Thinh Group into park tourism business has caused competitions between the state-management and the private-management model. The site managers of PNTC (Group 3a) largely believe that when more external private companies join park tourism management, the PNTC may face greater difficulties or challenges in operating tourism business because of such competitions. A representative of the NPMB (Group 1) states that, 'if there is only one service provider [PNTC] to offer "exclusive" service, it is good for itself, but not for tourism development in the park. We want tourists to spend more nights here and to generate more tourism revenues'. Hence competition from private management is seen as a good sign. 90% of the interviewees confirmed that the current competition between the two management models is in a healthy status. Competition has helped improve the quality of products and fulfill different tourists' needs. The site manager of Truong Thinh Group (Group 3b) states that, 'competition between the two models is not in terms of economy, but in terms of customer service and management. The results of competition are thus good for park tourism management'.

More importantly, competition has brought about some changes in the evolution of park management models. The design of the co-existing management model modifies the concentrated management of the state-management model by inviting participation from the private sector. This co-existence of the public-private sectors can promote competition, which was not present in the previous monopolistic park management models. By using the strength of private management, the co-existing management model can result in constructive outputs or improvements for the state-management model. In the beginning, the two sectors had a wide management gap. However, because of the changes and improvements in the state-management model, the private-management model needs to reinvest and progress to survive. Similarly, both public and private sectors are under the ultimate control of the NPMB. Therefore, the complete design of the new model operates under healthy competition or is in a virtuous circle. Finally, these two parallel *strategies* have led to positive results in the governance of the Vietnamese park system.

4.6. Consequences

The strategies used by the co-existing management model had some positive consequences but also left certain unsolved problems. By nature of its design, the model mobilized external forces (the private sector, similar to private management) to participate in park tourism management and development. The private-management model also strengthened internal forces (the public sector, similar to state management) through healthy competition and by creating a mutual learning milieu. The two management models were bundled for the same territory and management objectives because tourism and recreation are conducted within the same park. After three years of operating the co-existing management model, the NPMB confirms that (Group 1) the PNKB NP has achieved positive results in park tourism management. With regard to the *recreation mandate*, the diversification of tourism activities, better facilities and investments in service-quality have resulted in increasing tourist arrivals and revenues while effectively reducing over-crowdedness during the peak seasons. With regard to the *economic mandate*, the new model brought more employment opportunities to the local residents. This not only improved lives in the community but also enabled the locals to represent themselves in park operations. With regard to *conservation mandate*, improved environmental protection has resulted in the park. When locals are able to work for the park, they would rely heavily on tourism development for livelihood and they would seek to protect natural forest resources instead of damaging them.

Whereas the strategies for the co-existing management model were successful to a certain extent, some core park governance issues remain unsolved. According to the major stakeholders (Groups 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 and 7), the absence of a *sustainable development culture* in Vietnam is the major factor that threatens the success of the new model. Stakeholders have limited forest-protection awareness. With regard to *economy* and *conservation*, the employment opportunities are insufficient for the large population in the area (i.e., only 2,000 job opportunities are available for 64,000 locals). Moreover, tourism jobs are not considered as suitable for everyone. Thus, forest rangers of Phong Nha region (Group 7) argue that illegal harvesting of forest resources continues, thereby harming the natural environment. With regard to *recreation*, both management models are relatively new when applied to tourism management in the park.

In addition, a lack of deep cooperation and appropriate communication among park workers while operating tourism activities has been observed. On a micro level, competition exists between the state-management model and the private-management model. However, on a macro level, the Vietnamese park system is fighting for destination competitiveness with other nature-based destinations in the region and in the world. Crouch and Ritchie (1999) claim that for destinations to succeed, they must ensure that their overall attractiveness and the integrity of the experiences delivered to tourists must be greater than or at least equal to what other alternative destinations can offer. For the external stakeholders, neither a state-management model nor a private-management model exists, not even a joint-venture model. The PNKB NP is a nature-based destination or a tourism cluster. The park demands greater cooperation and collaboration at the local level to ensure a quality tourism product that can compete effectively at the global level (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999), a concept that some authors refer to as *coopetition* (Edgell & Haenisch, 1995). The co-existing management model currently lacks the essence of coopetition.

The co-existing management model is in its early stage of development. The park management might only see the bright side of the applied model. The GIZ staff are worried that (Group 6) there are some potential factors that might have further influenced changes to park governance while the model is being matured, such as finances, changes in park regulations, changes in visitor numbers in general and political priority setting. The authors therefore call for revisiting research of park governance to clarify the impact of those factors on the model.

4.7. Theoretical Explanation of the New Model

Based on the preceding discussion, the theoretical explanation of the new model for tourism management in the Vietnamese park system is presented in Figure 2, which is themed around *improvement via competition*. The development of the new model can be explained as follows. The previous management models of the park system under the monopolistic management of the Vietnamese Government could not find a solution to the obstacles of achieving triplex mandates. These conditions led to the creation of a new co-existing management model. This new model is usually employed in the context of market-oriented economies and multi-component management. Under the legal permission of the Vietnamese SUF policy announced in 2006, the first application of the model occurred in 2010 at the PKNB NP. Under the supervision of the NPMB, the new model brought together state management and private management. The

involvement of the private sector in managing tourism business had several effects on the state-management model. It stimulated changes in the public sector. The co-existence of the public-private sectors not only established competition between the management models but also brought a virtuous circle to park governance. The application of the new model finally resulted in positive effects in addressing the triplex objectives and enhancing the ability of the government in park management. However, obstacles were not completely solved because of the absence of a sustainable development culture in Vietnamese tourism operations. Thus, a further call for *coopetition* between the public-private sectors within the Vietnamese park system is in order before destination competitiveness could be really enhanced.

[Figure 2 about here]

5. CONCLUSION

This study is a response to the call for more empirical studies to investigate park governance in the context of concession (Beilock & Nicolic, 2002; Su & Xiao, 2009). The co-existing management model of Vietnam was highlighted with its special features: 1) complicated sources of income from user fees and forest-renting taxes, and 2) combination of two or more management bodies concurrently managing tourism and recreational activities in national parks. Although such arrangements exist in parks and PAs all over the world (Eagles, 2009), they have not occurred nor have been a subject of study in a Vietnamese context.

The main purpose of the present study is to describe, analyze, evaluate and explain the co-existing management model in the Vietnamese park system through a PNKB NP case study. It addressed the ‘what’ and ‘how’ questions about the co-existing management model. The study contributes to the park governance literature with an instance from Vietnam. More specifically, the study has developed a theoretical explanation of the co-existing management model for tourism and recreation in Vietnamese NPs based on empirical data.

Theoretically, the co-existing management model (*central phenomenon*) was developed and introduced as a result of the triplex objectives of recreation, conservation and economy and the inability of the government to solve these obstacles (*causal conditions*). The model occurs in certain *contexts*: market-oriented economic systems, new SUF policy and multi-component management abilities. The private-management model in the park tourism business (*intervening*

condition) affects the change of the persistent state-management model (*action and interaction*) because of its participation. The *core strategy* of the new model is the co-existence of the public and private sectors to establish cooperation for the improvement of park governance. Ultimately, applying the new model has enabled the Vietnamese park system to address the obstacles (*consequences*) to some extent (i.e., increasing tourism arrivals and revenue; more working opportunities and improving environmental protection). However, these obstacles were not fully overcome because of the absence of a sustainable development culture in operating tourism businesses and the short period of time in applying the new model to monitor mid-/long-term effects (Figure 2).

The *co-existing management model* in the Vietnamese context is one version of the *public and for profit model* (Eagles, 2009). The authors find *another version* of the same model existing in the Chinese national park governance. China has separated the ownership and tourism operation power of parks and PAs (China State Council, 2006). China allows private sectors to fully manage and operate tourism and recreation sites within the park, but park ownership and tourism resources remain owned by the state (Eagles, 2008), whereas Vietnam allows public and private sectors to manage and operate tourism/recreation sites within the same park to establish competition. There are different versions of the same park management model existing in different countries; it is the choice of park governance to choose one that is suitable for their contexts.

Practically, this study offers management implications to parks and PAs in similar contexts, especially in other Vietnamese parks and Southeast Asian countries which share the same development tasks in park governance. For those countries, park tourism has become a vital source of economic development, foreign exchange and employment generation (Hall & Page, 2000; Hitchcock, King & Parnwell, 2009); therefore, it is difficult for them to keep a balance among the three mandates of recreation, conservation and economy. Notably, parks in other countries can use the combined framework (i.e., planning, management and governance) proposed in the literature to study park governance models.

The transferability of the co-existing management model does not in any way mean a full copy of a new case in a new region because ‘analytical generalization’ is deemed necessary in follow-up case studies (Yin, 2003b, p.37). This generalization means that the researchers can provide sufficient contextual details of the fieldwork in Vietnam for readers to decide whether the

prevailing environment is similar to another situation with which they are familiar and whether the findings can justifiably be applied to other cases (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Shenton, 2004). In general, readers should attempt to transform or transfer the findings on park governance in Vietnam to applicable theories. Nevertheless, the theoretical explanation of the Vietnamese NP management model can be useful for countries which attempt to manage their parks and PAs with a triple mandate. ▲

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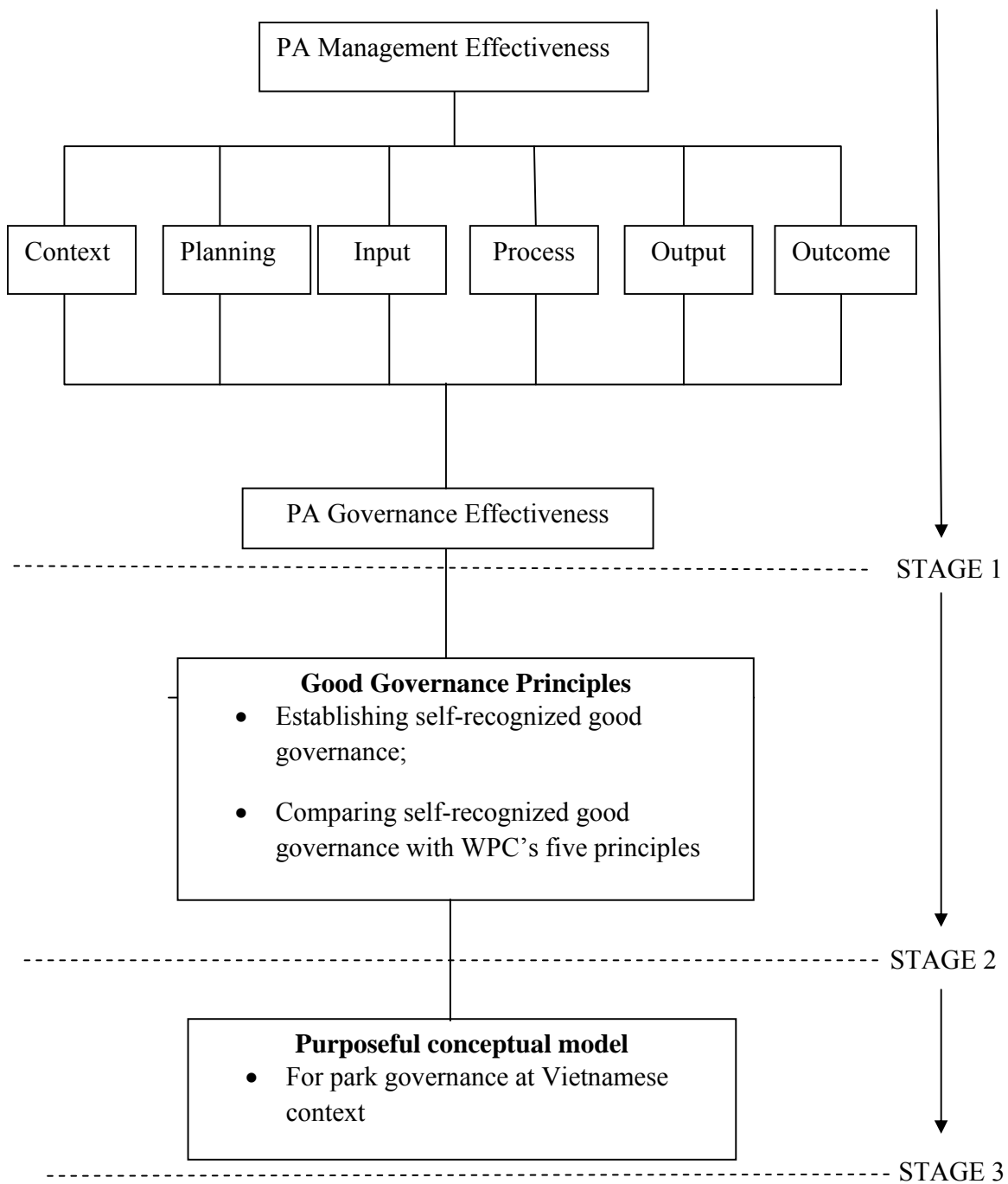


Figure 1. Framework to Study Park and Protect Area Governance in Vietnam

Table 1. Questions for Assessing Management Effectiveness of the PNKB NP

Elements of Management Cycle	Context	Planning	Inputs	Process	Outputs	Outcomes
Focus of Evaluation	Assessment of importance, threats and policy environment	Assessment of park design and planning	Assessment of resources needed for management	Assessment the way in which management is conducted	Assessment of the implementation of management programs and actions	Assessment of the outcomes and the extent to which they achieved objectives
Major Questions	Where are we now?	Where do we want to be? How do we get there?	What do we need?	How do we go about management?	What do we do and what products or services were produced?	What did we achieve?
Follow-up Questions	What are the values and significance of the area? What are the threats and opportunities? Who are involved?	Is the legal tenure of the site clear? How adequate is the protected area system?	What resources are needed for effective management? Are sufficient resources being involved to managing the park system?	Are agreed policy and procedures in place and being followed? How can the management practices be improved?	Has the management plan and work program been implemented? What are the results or outputs of management?	Has management resulted in the achievement of the objectives of, and desired outcomes for, the park?

Source: Adapted from Hocking et al., (2006)

Table 2. Informants and Interviews

Phases	Informant Groups	No. of Interviews and Surveys
Phase One	Group 2a –Phong Nha Tourism Centre’s officers	1 interview
	Group 3a – Site managers of PNTC	2 interviews
	Group 4a – Staff of PNTC’s sites	4 interviews
	Group 4b – Staff of Truong Think Group’s site	1 interviews
	Group 5a – Local communities	3 surveys
	Group 5b – Tourists	5 surveys
	<i>Sub-total</i>	9 interviews, 8 surveys
Phase Two	Group 1 – National Park Management Board’s representatives	1 interview
	Group 2a –Phong Nha Tourism Centre’s officers	1 interview
	Group 2b –Truong Think Group’s managers	1 interview
	Group 3a – Site managers of PNTC	1 interview
	Grop 3b – Site managers of Truong Think Group	1 interview
	Group 4a – Staff of PNTC’s sites	3 interviews
	Group 4b – Staff of Truong Think Group’s site	2 interviews
	Group 5a – Local communities	5 surveys
	Group 5b – Tourists	15 surveys
Group 6 – GIZstaff	3 interviews	
Group 7 – Forest rangers	2 interviews	
	<i>Sub-total</i>	14 interviews, 20 surveys
TOTAL	23 interviews (G1- 1; G2- 3; G3- 4; G4- 10; G6- 3; and G7-2) and 28 surveys (G5a- 8; G5b-20)	

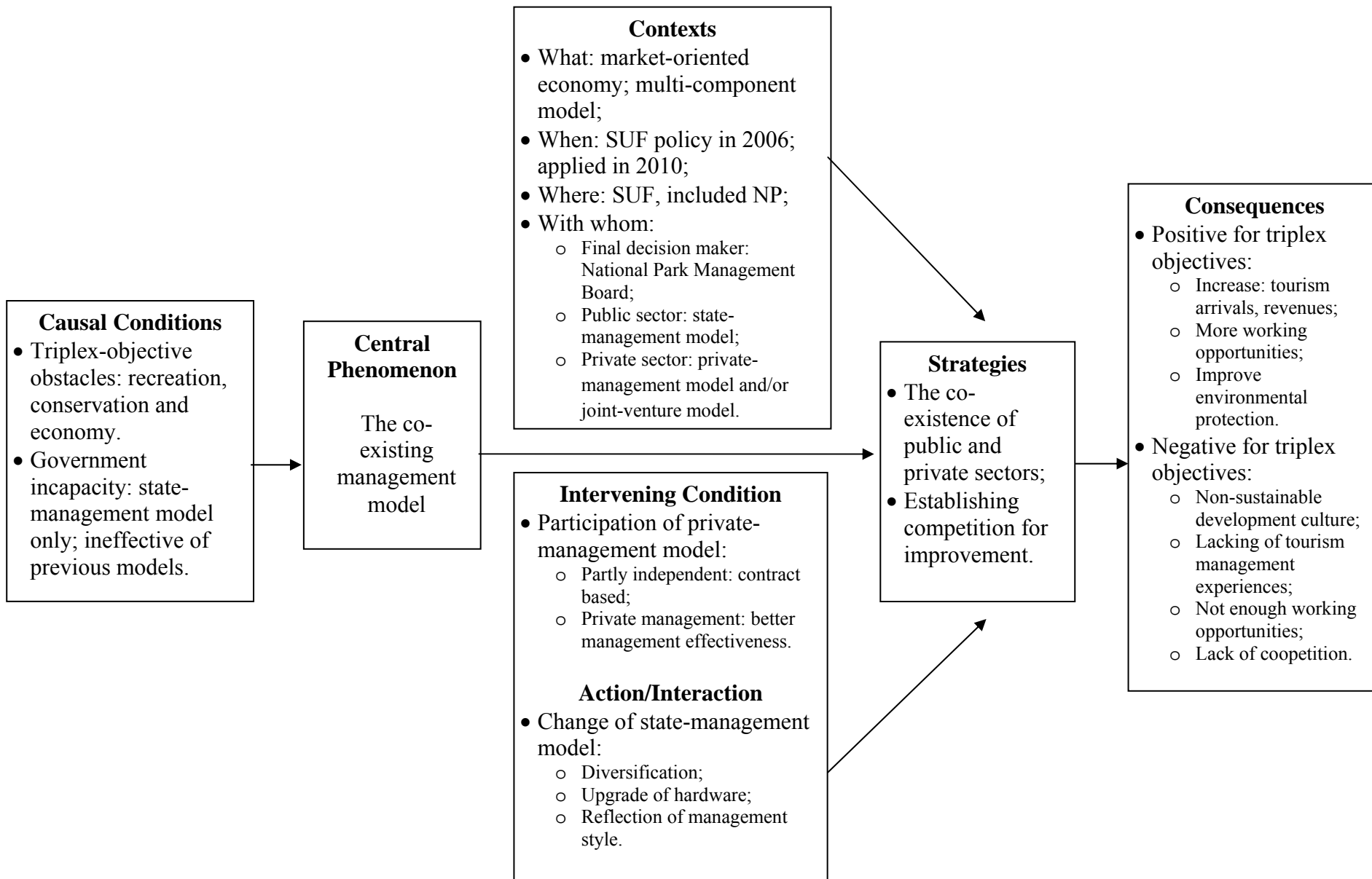


Figure 2. Theoretical Explanation of the Co-existing Management Model