

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

**Power, Stakeholders and the Theory of Planned Behaviour:
Understanding Stakeholder Engagement in an English Seaside Context**

being a Thesis submitted for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in the University of Hull

by

Victoria Goossens, BA (Hons)

December 2011

Acknowledgements

Many people have played an important part in the course of this research and I would like to acknowledge their support without which this research would not have been possible.

I am particularly grateful to my supervisor Dr Ian Pownall, who has been outstanding in his support, guidance and encouragement throughout the whole research process. I am extremely thankful for the time he has given to help me complete this thesis, not only for his time spent reading through various drafts of chapters but for the many, many meetings and emails over the years. His advice has been invaluable to me and I could not have wished for a more understanding and helpful supervisor. Thank you!

Many thanks also to my second supervisor, Dr Marcjanna Augustyn, who provided valuable and insightful pointers for discussions and providing a fresh perspective on the research topic.

Special thanks to those people who have participated in the primary research, especially the Scarborough Forum for Tourism and the chairman of the Forum, Graham North, who have provided me with an opportunity to conduct my study.

Lastly, and most importantly, I would like to thank my family, and especially my fiancé, who have been there to support and encourage me throughout, when times were good and especially when times were tough. I genuinely could not have achieved this without you all.

Abstract

In destination development and planning literature much emphasis has been placed upon structural and geographical interpretations of how destinations can be viewed. There is a lack of attention to agency and stakeholder perspectives in destination development and planning. This research has sought to address this gap by focusing upon stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context. Not only is the English seaside context important conceptually, practical connotations are also evident, particularly following the disbanding of the Regional Development Agencies in the summer of 2010 and the impact this has had on tourism organisation in Britain.

The research objectives of this study focus upon compiling a conceptual framework which draws upon how power can be used in an enabling and not constraining fashion as an empowerment of people, by focusing on key concepts in stakeholder theory literature. The aim is to provide an alternative to a purely structural and geographical interpretation of the organisation of tourism policy, by focusing on agency and structure, as well as utilising the theory of planned behaviour in determining stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development.

This research contributes to the stakeholder theory literature, particularly in defining the power of a stakeholder and how this can help address stakeholder engagement in tourism policy development. In addition contributions are made to the literature on English seaside tourism in utilising insights from the literature on power, structure and agency and stakeholder theory. From a methodological perspective a mixed method research approach has been adopted to add to the emerging qualitative research in the tourism literature in gaining rich contextual insights to the research problem.

Table of Contents

	Page
Acknowledgements	2
Abstract.....	3
Table of Contents	4
List of Tables	8
List of Figures.....	9
Chapter 1 - Introduction	11
1.1 Introducing the research problem.....	11
1.2 Research Aim and Objectives	26
1.3 Contribution to knowledge	27
1.4 Structure and outline of the thesis	29
Chapter 2 – Literature Review	30
2.1 Introduction	30
2.2 Tourism Destinations	30
2.3 Tourism Policy	36
2.4 English Seaside Resorts.....	44
2.5 Stakeholder Theory	54
2.6 The stakeholder model	64
2.6.1 Different dimensions of stakeholder theory.....	67
2.6.2 Identifying the ‘stake’	71
2.7 Stakeholder Influence Strategies	78
2.8 Stakeholder theory and the tourism literature	85
2.9 Summary	89
Chapter 3 – Conceptual framework.....	92
3.1 Introduction	92
3.2 Structure and Agency	92
3.2.1 Structure	96
3.2.2 Agency	104
3.3 Power.....	107
3.3.1 Foucault.....	114
3.3.2 Arendt.....	120
3.4 Theory of planned behaviour.....	133

3.5	Conceptual Framework	144
3.6	Summary	155
Chapter 4 – Research Methodology		158
4.1	Introduction	158
4.2	Research philosophy.....	158
4.3	Research approach.....	163
4.4	Case Study Setting.....	166
4.5	Data Collection Methods and Analysis	170
4.5.1	Questionnaire	172
	Pilot study	174
	Sample and Population.....	175
	Ethical Considerations	177
	Questionnaire Design	178
4.5.2	Telephone Interviews	182
4.5.3	Stakeholder mapping.....	184
4.5.4	Document Analysis	186
4.5.5	Quantitative Data Analysis	186
4.6	Summary	195
Chapter 5 – Case Study Setting		199
5.1	Introduction	199
5.2	Scarborough.....	199
5.3	National, regional, and local structures	210
5.4	Summary	218
Chapter 6 - Findings		220
6.1	Introduction	220
6.2	Qualitative Questionnaire Analysis.....	220
6.2.1	Sample and Response Rate	221
6.2.2	Demographic Profile	222
6.2.3	Stakeholder role sets	225
6.2.4	Stakeholder Salience	227
6.2.5	Weber’s associative relationships	231
6.2.6	Structure	235
6.2.7	Subjectivity	237
6.2.8	Agency	240
6.2.9	Social relations	242

6.2.10	Visibility.....	244
6.2.11	Public Space.....	246
6.3	Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	248
6.3.1	Exploratory Factor Analysis – First Run	248
6.3.2	Exploratory Factor Analysis – Second Run	253
6.3.3	Reliability analysis – Cronbach’s alpha.....	263
6.4	Telephone interviews	264
6.4.1	Group A.....	266
	Group 1 – engagement and attendance at meetings.....	268
	Group 2 – engagement and non-attendance at meetings.....	273
6.4.2	Group B.....	276
6.5	Stakeholder Mapping	277
6.5.1	Local Scarborough Borough level map	278
	Membership of committees.....	282
6.5.2	North Yorkshire Regional Maps	283
6.5.2.1	North Yorkshire regional level map – all connections by individuals	284
6.5.2.2	North Yorkshire regional level map – all connections by organisations	286
6.6	Summary	289
Chapter 7 - Discussion		292
7.1	Introduction	292
7.2	Development of the conceptual framework	292
7.3	Evaluation of the conceptual framework.....	294
7.3.1	The eight elements of power	295
7.3.2	Uncovering issues with the eight elements of power.....	305
7.4	Revision of the conceptual framework.....	307
7.4.1	Evaluation of the revised conceptual framework in the case study setting	312
7.4.2	Evaluation of the stakeholder maps in the case study setting	315
7.5	Critical evaluation of the revised conceptual framework and the literature...	318
7.6	Summary	322
Chapter 8 - Conclusion.....		325
8.1	Introduction	325
8.2	Reflection on the conceptual framework.....	325
8.3	Limitations and methodological problems	328
8.3.1	Sample size.....	329

8.3.2	Access to materials and respondents.....	330
8.3.3	Changing structures – nationally and local	331
8.3.4	Case study context.....	334
8.4	Reflection on the research process	334
8.5	Contribution to knowledge	337
8.5.1	Stakeholder Theory	338
8.5.2	Power	341
8.5.3	Advancing the use of stakeholder theory in English seaside tourism.....	342
8.5.4	Tourism policy in seaside resorts.....	343
8.5.5	Contextualising the theory of planned behaviour in tourism research....	344
8.5.6	Structure and agency in seaside tourism	344
8.5.7	Mixed method research	345
8.5.8	Practical outcomes and generalisability	346
8.6	Suggestions for further research	348
8.7	Conclusions	350
Appendix I – Consent Form.....		352
Appendix II - Questionnaire		353
Appendix III – Telephone Interview Schedule.....		360
Appendix IV – Questionnaire Respondent Profiles.....		363
Appendix V – Telephone Interview Respondent Profiles		365
References.....		367

List of Tables

Table 1.1: Tourism policy and power in literature.....	14
Table 2.1: Stakeholder definitions	60
Table 2.2: Stakeholder Typology (adapted from Mitchell et al., 1997).....	63
Table 4.1: Forum Questionnaire Coding.....	179
Table 4.2: Differences between EFA and CFA (adapted from Blunch, 2008:127).....	189
Table 6.1: Questionnaire coding (N.B. brackets denote routing questions)	221
Table 6.2: Demographic profile (full sample, n = 37)	223
Table 6.3: Perception of who is responsible for tourism development in Scarborough (n = 31)	229
Table 6.4: Crosstabulation for Chi-Square test for business relationships and gender (n = 35)	233
Table 6.5: Perceptions of why contributions to the Forum are not valued equally	239
Table 6.6: Reasons for attending Forum meetings	242
Table 6.7: KMO and Bartlett's Test (33 variables)	250
Table 6.8: Total Variance Explained (33 variables)	251
Table 6.9: Low value variables from anti-image correlation matrix	253
Table 6.10: KMO and Bartlett's Test (29 variables)	253
Table 6.11: Total Variance Explained (29 variables)	254
Table 6.12: Summary of EFA results and loadings	258
Table 6.13: Factor cluster categorisation	259
Table 6.14: Reliability scores (Cronbach's α)	264
Table 6.15: Frequency distribution of cluster numbers (Forum full map).....	281
Table 6.16: Frequency distribution of cluster numbers (Forum full regional map).....	285
Table 6.17: Frequency distribution of cluster numbers (Forum full regional map - by organisation).....	288
Table 7.1: Extracted and original elements of power	309

List of Figures

Figure 1.1: Realm of Power	19
Figure 2.1: Tourism Stakeholder Map (adapted from Sautter and Leisen, 1999: 315) ..	65
Figure 2.2: Three Aspects of Stakeholder Theory (adapted from Donaldson and Preston, 1995: 74)	70
Figure 2.3: Typology of Influence Strategies (Frooman, 1999: 200)	79
Figure 3.1: Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:182)	137
Figure 3.2: Conceptual framework	145
Figure 4.1: The Inductive-Deductive Research Cycle (adapted from Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009: 27)	165
Figure 4.2: Forum Population Profile (n=167)	176
Figure 4.3: Local Business Sectors (n=54)	177
Figure 4.4: The three factor models (adapted from Blunch, 2008: 128).....	190
Figure 5.1: Map of Scarborough Borough boundary (Ordnance Survey, 2006)	200
Figure 5.2: Strategic context of the Borough Tourism Strategy (adapted from Scarborough Borough Council, 2005b)	207
Figure 5.3: Forum for Tourism structure in 1995	209
Figure 5.4: Structure of Urban Renaissance since 2002 (prior to disbanding of RDAs)	213
Figure 6.1: Questionnaire Respondent Profile (n=37)	224
Figure 6.2: Local business respondents profile (n=17)	225
Figure 6.3: Stakeholder role sets - Engagement with others (n = 37).....	227
Figure 6.4: Frequency of attendance	228
Figure 6.5: Engagement and expression in Forum (n = 37).....	229
Figure 6.6: Business relationships with other Forum members (n = 37).....	232
Figure 6.7: Intention to attend all meetings (n = 37)	245
Figure 6.8: People don't always need to attend to make a difference (n = 37)	246
Figure 6.9: Scree plot (before rotation)	255
Figure 6.10: Engagement and Attendance Grouping Matrix	266

Figure 6.11: FFT full stakeholder map (local level)	280
Figure 6.12: FFT respondent and committees map.....	283
Figure 6.13: FFT full regional map (all connections by individuals - 29 vertices)	284
Figure 6.14: FFT full regional map (all connections by organisations - 21 vertices)...	287
Figure 7.1: Revised conceptual framework	308
Figure 8.1: Current Scarborough tourism structure	333

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introducing the research problem

Tourism development has been discussed in tourism research since the 1970s, and although the body of literature is widely developed in this area, some concepts remain underdeveloped. Tourism development literature has tended to focus upon destination development from spatial and structural perspectives. Destination models found in the literature are considered as geographical areas and are determined by structural components such as administrative regions and geographical boundaries (Laws, 1995, Gunn, 2002). Recently it has been recognised that destinations cannot solely be considered from spatial and structural perspectives, but are in fact “complex networks that involve a large number of co-producing actors delivering a variety of products and services” (Haugland et al., 2011: 268). Based upon such a recent interpretation of destinations not solely being defined as a spatial and structural construct, this research focuses on the aspect of tourism policy development within the destination development literature.

Prescriptive models of planning and policy that view destination development as a clear and rational process have been extensively used in research (Hall, 1994, World Tourism Organisation, 1994, Reed, 1999, Church et al., 2000). There has been little direct engagement with the need to consider the structural aspects as well as relations which are emergent from tourism policy, between actors and those actors themselves who seek to achieve the aim of the policy (Haugland et al., 2011). There is a concern that many tourism development decisions are made from the “top down” by experts which often do not reflect those interests and opinions of the communities they affect (Byrd, 2007).

It has been noted that many of the dominant approaches to tourism policy have been concerned with a reductionist¹ paradigm ignoring the dynamics of the wider environment and the contexts within which these policies are made (Stevenson et al., 2008). However, some attempts have been made to consider other theoretical approaches to address some of the shortcomings of the reductionist approach mentioned. These include a focus on the environment (Dredge, 2006b), the interaction between different initiatives and interest groups (Bramwell, 2006), the communication and networks between people involved in the policy process, and the politics of such policy making activity (Stevenson et al., 2008).

Timothy (1999) stressed the need for perspectives which do not seek to prescribe *ex ante*, how policy development and the achievement of policy goals *should* be conducted, but in fact how it *is* conducted which is a focus of this work. A number of different studies have been carried out which have used both quantitative and qualitative approaches to exploring tourism policy from various perspectives (see Table 1.1 below). What is apparent in the majority of these studies is that although the focus has been placed upon resource dependencies and structural elements, relationships between policy makers and their motivations and intents to engage have not sufficiently been explored. In particular, the concept of power is very nebulous in these studies and often referred to implicitly, where the concept of power and how it is interpreted is not clearly explained by authors. This research is concerned with addressing the concept of power more comprehensively and not solely from a resource perspective but also from an agency and structural perspective, taking into account actors' intent and motivations to engage with tourism policy development.

¹ Reductionist means: producing a thin description of the research context.

Some authors have specifically used network theory to discuss tourism policy development in helping to explore relationships between individuals and organisations (Dredge, 2006b, 2006a, Pforr, 2006, Bramwell and Meyer, 2007). Although network theory can illustrate how individuals and/or organisations are connected, there is limited attempt to explore how and why these individuals may interact or if and how they are perceived to be powerful. This research seeks to address this gap by discussing how power may manifest itself in tourism policy development.

Author	Study context	Methodology	Power
Anastasiadou (2008)	Tourism policy formulation in the European Union	Exploratory, inductive study; face-to-face and telephone interviews	Decision making power, authoritative/pluralistic
Bramwell and Meyer (2007)	Relational approach to evaluate tourism policy making on the Baltic island of Rügen, Germany	Interviews, generation of sociograms	Relational
Doorne (1998)	Power and politics in the redevelopment of the Wellington Waterfront in New Zealand	Participant observation, Case study	Functionalist and structuralist, straddling structure and agency dialogue
Dredge and Jenkins (2003a)	Tourism public policy and federal state relations in New South Wales, Australia	Case Study	Resource dependence and exchange theory
Dredge and Jenkins (2003b)	Interconnections between place identity and institutions of tourism planning and policy-making at the regional level in New South Wales, Australia	Case study	Authoritative/ pluralistic, resource based

Ivars Baidal (2004)	Tourism planning in Spain	Descriptive study of planning in Spain	Authoritative power/Structuralist
Krutwayscho (2003)	Tourism policy implementation in Thailand	Case Study	Functionalist/ Behaviourist
Pechlaner and Tschurtschenthaler (2003)	Tourism policy in Alpine regions and destinations	Case study	Resource based power
Pfarr (2006)	Network Analysis of tourism policy in the Northern Territory, Australia	Policy network analysis, Scattergrams	Power dependency based on resource exchange
Stevenson et al (2008)	Tourism policy making from policymakers perspective in Leeds	Grounded theory, Semi-structured interviews	Functionalist/ Behaviourist
Treuren and Lane (2003)	Tourism planning process in context of organised interests, industry structure, accumulation and sustainability	Conceptual framework development to be enriched by context specific case studies	Authoritative/ pluralistic power

Table 1.1: Tourism policy and power in literature

Where power has been used in the tourism policy discussion in some of the examples in Table 1.1, often this has been approached from a resource exchange and resource dependency perspective, as well as considering authoritative² power. A notable exception in the literature is the study by Bramwell and Meyer (2007) who approached tourism policy making in the Baltic island of Rügen in Germany from a relational perspective, by making reference to power in policy making. However, as stated previously, power here is also used implicitly and it is therefore difficult to identify and define in terms of the focus of power used in that context. This is a problem because many studies rely on the reader's interpretation of power which is most commonly that

² Authoritative/pluralistic power: power conceptualisation which is concerned with oppression and a negative interpretation. Dahl's (1957) concept of "A has power over B, to get B to do something he would otherwise not do". Sometimes also termed sovereign power, where someone has the 'power over' another individual or circumstance.

of a resource dependency or authoritative/sovereign power, essentially equating power with a 'power over' conceptualisation (Dahl, 1957, Kearins, 1996). It is important to distinguish and identify the type of power used, as this ultimately affects the interpretation and perspective of the research concerned, especially considering that an aim of this work is to help identify what makes individuals powerful and how this may have an effect on their engagement with policy making in a tourism environment.

The research problem has some practical connotations taking into account the complex and dynamic tourism policy environment and tourism organisations in England. There have been some particularly important changes to the organisation of tourism in England and how this is affecting how tourism will be governed and structured in the future. With the recent disbanding of the Regional Development Agencies (RDA) announced in June 2010, this study has a contemporary focus and seeks to help understand how policy making could be construed in the future by considering stakeholder power as well as their interests and engagement with tourism policy development. Tourism remains a very important economic sector in Britain being the third highest export earner and is among the top six biggest sectors in the economy (Department for Culture Media and Sport, 2011). Tourism generates £90 billion annually with 200,000 businesses supporting over 1.3 million jobs across the country (Department for Culture Media and Sport, 2011). With the advent of the Olympic Games in London in 2012, the focus is once more on developing tourism on the back of this mega-event (Penrose, 2011).

In the most recent *Government Tourism Policy 2011* document it was recognised that a modernisation of local tourism bodies is needed so that they become more focused on being led and funded through partnership working (Penrose, 2011). Particular attention

is on considering alternative and complementary ways of approaching tourism marketing and development through partnerships between the public, private and non-profit making sector.

This study looks more closely at the practical workings (success and failure) of such partnership approaches, with the aim of understanding stakeholder power and their engagement with tourism policy development. Specifically this phenomenon is studied in the context of a local English seaside resort environment in Scarborough, which has faced many challenges and has needed to respond to developments that have occurred at a national scale. Particularly the disbanding of the RDAs as discussed above has had a major impact upon how tourism is organised at the local level, raising concerns about stakeholder engagement and involvement at both a public and private sector level. Closely linked to these developments at a national scale is the issue of how seaside resorts as a specialised form of a destination can be understood from not only a geographical perspective, but also taking into account a more relationship based focus.

Policy making has been regarded as a social process which involves communication and interaction between different actors and organisations to reach specific outcomes (Stevenson et al, 2008). The aim of this work is to understand stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context. Questions arise in this context: Why are certain actors perceived to be powerful? What are their motives for engaging with the tourism policy environment? Are these internal and/or external motivations?

Considering the focus on tourism policy development in this work, there is a need to clarify the nature of the policy cycle as widely used in the literature (Hill, 1997, Everett,

2003, Colebatch, 2005, Hill, 2005, Howard, 2005, Sabatier, 2007). Although the policy cycle concept is widely used to break down the different steps in the circular policy process, it is deemed as too narrow for the purpose of this study. There are operational problems with considering the concept of the policy cycle and for this study the focus will remain on tourism policy development as a whole, as will be discussed further in Chapter 2. Specifically the operational problems refer to how the policy cycle steps are applied in practice, given that there are difficulties in distinguishing between steps when applied to a policy process (Everett, 2003, Pforr, 2006). Given the structural changes in the tourism policy environment and operational problems with the concept, it is the focus on understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development that can provide scope to consider an appreciation of stakeholder relations in a policy context.

Authors have used stakeholder theory in order to attempt to shed some light on who is involved in tourism development and tourism planning processes (Doorne, 1998, Sautter and Leisen, 1999). In their attempt to identify different stakeholders within that environment Sautter and Leisen (1999) adapted the original stakeholder model of Freeman (1984) to a tourism context to help identify stakeholder interests. The original stakeholder idea was concerned with how a firm's stakeholders influence and affect its objectives and achievements – in effect a discussion of sovereign and authoritative power and how this is reflected in organisational performance (Freeman, 1984). The concept has received wide attention in the literature and does mirror some of the problems found in the tourism policy literature. The main issues are the reliance on the resource dependency dimensions and power conceptions found in the discussion of stakeholder theory. These include, for example, Freeman's original conception (1984) where the dyadic ties between the focal firm and the stakeholders are determined by the

resource relationship between them, Donaldson and Preston's (1995) concentric circles model of the three dimensions of stakeholder theory (descriptive, normative and instrumental stakeholder theory)³, and Mitchell et al.'s (1997) concept of stakeholder saliency (power, legitimacy and urgency)⁴, who maintained that stakeholder saliency can be deduced by looking at the possession of a combination of any or all three attributes of power, legitimacy and/or urgency. Although power is used as an explicit concept in Mitchell et al.'s discussion, it is not explained how power is interpreted or how it makes itself visible, and the meaning of power is merely implied. Frooman's (1999) stakeholder influence strategies consider multi-actor relationships but a common feature of stakeholder concepts is based upon resource exchange and resource dependency. All four are very much based upon such resource dependencies and questions remain as to how power manifests itself, i.e. how is power defined, how does power become visible and observable, what contributes to power?

Power, when identified in stakeholder theory, is often used to denote , that power can be possessed, like a commodity or a resource which can be acquired, shared, and delegated away by individuals (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978, Mitchell et al., 1997). However, stakeholder theory is useful in this context in that it can be used as an indicative guide to provide an overview of who the stakeholders are in the tourism policy environment. Considering that stakeholder theory emerged from conflicts of interests in the organisational arena, there is scope to further contextualise and expand stakeholder theory in connection with tourism policy, taking into account stakeholders' interests and their motivation to engage with tourism policy development. Stakeholder theory, as it stands in the literature, is rather limited and needs expanding to place greater emphasis

³ Concentric circles model of stakeholder theory denotes that there are three dimensions of stakeholder theory: descriptive, normative and instrumental.

⁴ Stakeholder salience is based on three attributes that stakeholders display to be considered salient. A combination of the power, legitimacy and urgency of a stakeholder's claim on the organisation determine their salience.

on the less visible side of power and move away from the resource dependency relationships between stakeholders as the only manifestation of power. This research will address and demonstrate this with the help of case examples and how this can be practically achieved.

The realm of power (see Fig 1.1 below) can help shed light on reasons underpinning the legitimacy of an actor as a stakeholder within a tourism policy environment. The realm of power, as illustrated below, shows different components of power, which are at the centre of how power is defined for this research. In this sense then, it is argued that power is not necessarily centred on resource dependencies but that the three components people, context and interest are interlinked and can help to better understand actor motivations for engagement. The realm of power provides greater focus on actors but does not rule out any resource dependency relationships between them. Instead it provides a more comprehensive understanding of how power may be defined.

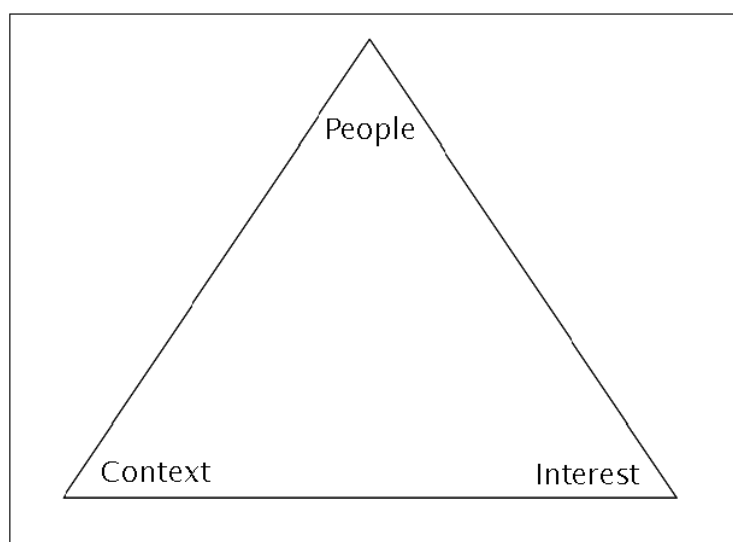


Figure 1.1: Realm of Power

In some tourism policy and stakeholder theory discussions, power has been used in the sense of ‘power over’ rather than ‘power to’ (see for example: Fallon, 2001, Stevenson et al., 2008). This is not surprising as it is a very popular conception of power where “A

has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something B would otherwise not do” (Dahl, 1957: 202-203). Two key assumptions are implicit in this conception which are: a) that power can be possessed, and b) that power is regarded as a commodity, which individuals can acquire, exchange, share or delegate away (Kearins, 1996). Whilst the notion power and power relations is regarded as a “pivotal feature in the production of tourism, the negotiation of tourism experiences, and the administration and governance of tourism” it remains underconceptualised in tourism discourses (Scherle and Coles, 2006). This study attempts to address this gap in the literature by developing an appropriate power conceptualisation.

One problem with any attempt at defining power is the inconsistency in language and meaning. For example, Foucault (1980b, 1980c) critiques the juridical model⁵ of power, Arendt (1970, 1998) critiques a command-obedience model⁶, and Lukes (1974)⁷ classifies his model as the one-dimensional and two-dimensional forms of power. Three different terms for essentially the same power conception, that of a negative and repressive ‘power over’ rather than ‘power to’ conception most popular in the literature (Allen, 2003). However, it is argued that such a negative and repressive view of power is limiting for this research and needs to be expanded as will be discussed in the remainder of this chapter.

Arendt (1998) critiques the command-obedience model as it equates power with sovereignty and dominion as the rule of law in how the sovereign imposes his/her will upon others. Power in this sense then is conceived of as a fundamentally restrictive, repressive, and negative force (Allen, 2003) – it forces people to obey. Arendt proposes

⁵ The juridical model associates power with being repressive and negative.

⁶ The command obedience model considers power associated with dominion, sovereignty and repression.

⁷ The value of Lukes’ (1974) framework will be discussed in Chapter 3 to a greater extent.

that power is consensual and ‘belongs’ to a group and can never be the ‘property’ of an individual. She claims that power remains in existence only as long as the group stays together: “When we say of somebody that he is ‘in power’ we actually refer to his being empowered by a certain number of people to act in their name” (Arendt, 1970 cited in Lukes, 1974: 28). Arendt’s conceptualisation rests on ‘the power of the people’, where power is in fact dissociated from a command-obedience relationship and the business of dominion often found in other prominent conceptualisations of power. The consensual nature of power is derived from the notion that power springs up when people get together and act in concert. Although Arendt claims power needs no justification, it does need legitimacy⁸ which surfaces when people initially get together rather than from any action that may follow.

Foucault (1980b, 1980c), like Lukes and Arendt, critiqued what he termed the juridical model of power (i.e. that of a negative and repressive power conceptualisation). Foucault argued that such a repressive model was too narrow and prohibitive of action. Considering that power is conceptualised as being negative in the juridical model, Foucault raised the question why anyone would obey negative power, when power says ‘no’ (Allen, 2003). He proposed a disciplinary model which conceptualises “power as diffuse and capillary⁹, omnipresent, and both productive and repressive” (Allen, 2003: 133). Although he introduces the disciplinary model Foucault does not advocate the replacement of the juridical model. Instead Foucault argues for a combination of the two perspectives emphasising the nature of subjectivity and agency and how this manifests itself in Foucault’s and Arendt’s work which is considered in this thesis. Viewing power

⁸ Legitimacy is here used in the sense of being valid and genuine, and that it has a rightful place to exist.

⁹ ‘Capillary’ is used to denote power presence at the extremities of central locations, such as in more regional forms and institutions (for example through local and regional government) (Allen, 2003).

as being both repressive and productive, as well as enabling and constraining, provides a key characteristic in the relationship between power, subjectivity and agency.

As opposed to the juridical model which presupposes that the individual subject/agent is a fully formed, stable and unified entity which then gets 'caught up' in power relations external to its constitution, Foucault considers that the individual does not come into the world fully formed. Power is a key part in the formation of individuals as these are composed in and through a set of social relations which in turn are imbued with power (Allen, 2003). This is where agency and subjectivity can help address how individuals can be conceived as powerful based on social relations which are imbued with power. Agency, classed as actors' capacity to act (Sibeon, 1999), illustrates Foucault's notion that individuals do not come into the world fully formed as outlined above; instead it could be argued that subjectivity can be considered as one aspect which builds upon the agency of an individual.

Subjectivity emerges in a dual sense in Foucaultian thinking. Individuals are subjected to power relations in their social environment while at the same time they are also in a position to be a subject within their social relationships. In other words, subjectivity is a precondition of agency. Allen bases this upon the notion that individuals "cannot have the ability or capacity to act without having the ability or capacity to deliberate, that is, without being a thinking subject" (2003: 135). In terms of the exercise of power, Allen (2003) counters the standard reading of Foucault's critics who claim that Foucault is committed to the "death of the subject" and thus to a denial of the subjectivity of agency. Allen's viewpoint takes into account that Foucault's depiction of power considers historically and culturally specific conditions of the possibility for subjectivity and agency. Power then, is based not only on agency which has emerged at the present

time, but also needs to account for historically determined aspects such as agents' backgrounds, their education and social relations. By considering the subjectivity of agents, reference is made to a reciprocal relationship between people acting and acting upon others.

Although Arendt and Foucault have different epistemological and ontological backgrounds as will be discussed in Chapter 3, similar features in their power conceptions are visible. Although their epistemological and ontological positions are considered in this research, it has to be clarified that this research is not an integrative attempt of creating meta-theory of power. It is argued that the issue of how power manifests itself in tourism policy can be clarified by adopting a more comprehensive perspective of power. Very much like the conceptions of Lukes, Foucault and Arendt, power in tourism policy needs to move away from the negative and repressive conceptions which are exemplified in many resource dependency relationships for example, which can classically be described as one individual having the capacity to influence others.

Such a discussion of both stakeholder theory and the power concepts of Arendt and Foucault from a tourism policy perspective can be understood to be framed by the structure and agency dialogue, one of the key debates in the social sciences. The structure and agency dialogue is concerned with the reconciliation of individuals (actors) being socialised and the notion that an actor's motivations and choices are determined by structure and by relationships (Hollis, 1994). As with discussions on power, a key problem remains however, that of defining these terms and being clear of their meaning. Within the literature (see Chapter 3, Section 3.2 for a full discussion) there is a limited agreement as to what the terms mean resulting in unsuccessful

attempts to find a common denominator (Layder, 1985, Wight, 1999, Dépelteau, 2008). In one more successful approach to address this problem Clark (1998), proposed to bridge the gap between structure and agency by considering frameworks which aim at ‘problematizing’ both concepts. In other words, to give the structure and agency debate a clear problem context thereby minimising any misinterpretations. Given a context and defined ‘problem’, the structure and agency debate becomes much more accessible and potentially provides a platform for the definitions of the terms. As such it is argued that power framed by the structure and agency dialogue forms part of a larger debate as it is addressed in this study.

As stated previously, both Arendt and Foucault make specific reference to agency in their work. In this sense, actors, who may be agencies, can make decisions which shape their preferred outcomes. Such plans of action can be influenced by a range of concerns, both conceptual and practical. In addition, the achievement of the actor’s outcomes depends upon how they mesh with the outcomes of potentially a myriad of other actors, i.e. stakeholders. It is this being with others in the world as advocated by Arendt (Gordon, 2002) which is an important aspect of agency, and questions remain about the extent to which decision making is deterministic, where actors operate within an environment oriented towards specific and preferred outcomes only.

One can start to address some of the difficulties of the question of how agency may relate to structure, by noting that ‘agency’ has been defined as “the actor’s capacity to act upon situations” (Sibeon, 1999: 139) to help an understanding of stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context. From a social scientist’s viewpoint and in the context of this research, this is considered as a paramount feature of social life as “individuals are relatively autonomous, creative

beings who ‘construct’ the social world” (ibid). Considering that agency is an actor’s capacity to act, reflects how power in tourism policy may be construed or what factors contribute to an individual’s power and engagement with tourism policy development. Concepts such as the subjectivity of individuals, stressing the notion that both agency and structural elements need to be considered when looking at power in a tourism policy context, as advocated by Foucault and Arendt will be used to clarify the nature of power within the broader debate of structure and agency.

This research proposes to identify and clarify the nature of power in tourism policy development. Issues of how power manifests itself in the policy environment are discussed, as well as the development of a conceptual framework to address the current shortcomings in the area of power in policy development in a tourism environment. Focusing on the nature of tourism policy development and the difficulties of how destinations have been defined in the literature, a review of how a destination can be defined is undertaken, reflecting some of those issues of organisation and policy development in tourism development literature as discussed at the beginning of this chapter.

Taking into account the less visible concepts of power, such as those found in Arendt’s and Foucault’s power conceptions concerned with interests of individuals and how these act and interact within such an environment, the conceptual framework will draw upon the structure and agency dialogue and what role interests play in the policy development arena. Of particular interest is the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) in this context as developed by Ajzen (1991), stipulating that people will form an intention to act prior to the actual behaviour occurring. This research considers the concept of the TPB in combination with stakeholder theory to investigate the interests and motivations of

individuals to engage with tourism policy development in a local English seaside context. Considering that not only the agency side of power is explored, there is also scope to consider power relations in tourism policy from a structural perspective¹⁰, taking into account the destination in which tourism policy development is applied. A case study approach is presented and used in this research to contextualise the applicability of the conceptual framework using the town of Scarborough as the case study area.

From a methodological perspective, this study employs a mixed-method approach in utilising both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis tools and methods. Based upon those previous studies in the tourism policy and power arena as documented in Table 1.1 at the beginning of this chapter and considering the data collection methods associated with the main concepts of this study, including stakeholder theory, the theory of planned behaviour, seaside tourism, and the power literature, it is deemed appropriate to utilise qualitative and quantitative techniques to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem.

1.2 Research Aim and Objectives

The aim of this research is to explore the understanding of stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside resort context.

Based upon the previous discussion and the research aim, this thesis seeks to address the following research objectives:

¹⁰ A structural perspective considers the broader social relations of actors acting within a structured society influenced by norms, laws and other actors.

1. To analyse stakeholder motivation for engaging with tourism policy development.
2. To explore theoretical approaches underpinning the concept of power with regard to tourism policy development
3. To explore the concept of the theory of planned behaviour in the context of understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context
4. To develop a conceptual framework and extend stakeholder theory addressing how power manifests in tourism policy development using the theory of planned behaviour, stakeholder theory and the structure and agency dialogue.

1.3 Contribution to knowledge

The main contribution to knowledge of this study is an extension and development of stakeholder theory by developing a conceptual framework which looks closely at stakeholder motivations underpinning their engagement with tourism policy development. Drawing upon the concepts of an enabling and positive, non-repressive interpretation of power supported by a dialectical structure and agency understanding, stakeholder theory is developed by moving away from a traditional resource dependency conceptualisation concerned with the growth and profitability of an organisation, to a more contextual understanding of interests and motivations of stakeholders engaged with the policy environment. The conceptual framework aims to produce a more involved interpretation of power in terms of interests of agents and their capacity to act within such an environment.

A further contribution to knowledge in this work is in the area of power in understanding tourism policy development. Power is explored and conceptualised from

the stakeholder theory perspective and the structure and agency dialogue. Key concepts inherent in stakeholder theory are explored with a view to incorporate wider reaching aspects of interests and power within a tourism policy environment, and how the power of a stakeholder can be understood and interpreted.

Original contributions are also made to the seaside tourism literature by considering stakeholder theory in this specialised context of policy development in an English seaside resort, on a conceptual and empirical level. Stakeholder theory can provide valuable insights to the problems that seaside resorts are facing by providing a platform through which the wider policy environment, including actors and structural constraints, such as society, funding streams and guidelines, can be contextualised to a greater extent, which is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5 following an outline of the literature on seaside resorts in Chapter 2, Section 2.4. Essentially this can result in a practical outcome of this study for a seaside policy making environment by suggesting one avenue of stakeholder identification and management for tourism policy developers, which is discussed in more detail at the end of this thesis in Chapter 8, Section 8.5.8.

In addition, the research contributes to the development of mixed methods research in a tourism context, particularly in the seaside resort literature. This is achieved by combining different research methods from both qualitative and quantitative research traditions in using a questionnaire, exploratory factor analysis, telephone interviews and stakeholder mapping to inform the case study context.

A full outline of the contribution to knowledge of this work will be discussed in Chapter 8, Section 8.5.

1.4 Structure and outline of the thesis

Following this introductory chapter, the thesis focuses on the first part of the literature review in Chapter 2. Chapter 2 presents the context of tourism destinations, the tourism policy literature, as well as an outline of the nature of English seaside resorts. Stakeholder theory is then presented as one avenue of exploring this research problem further.

Chapter 3 includes the second part of the literature review and the conceptual framework of this study. The literature review looks more closely at the underlying structure and agency dialogue, the power frameworks of Arendt and Foucault, and how the theory of planned behaviour can be used in this research to advance the concepts of power and stakeholder theory. Pulling together the different elements of the literature review, the conceptual framework is presented.

Chapter 4 follows, outlining the Methodology of the thesis, before the case study setting is presented in more detail in Chapter 5. After a review of both the conceptual framework and the context of the case study, the research analysis and findings are discussed in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 presents a deeper discussion of findings and an evaluation of the conceptual framework, a revision of the conceptual framework for this study, and a critical evaluation of the conceptual framework and the literature. Finally, Chapter 8 includes a review of the research objectives, limitations and methodological problems encountered during the research process, as well as the contribution to knowledge and practical outcomes, while concluding with suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on clarifying the role of destinations and how a destination can be interpreted for this research context. Following this, an outline of prominent approaches of the tourism policy literature are reviewed in light of the research problem context, considering issues such as changing structures within the policy environment. Further, the chapter discusses the policy context within the English seaside resorts and highlights those problem areas which are of significance in this study. Considering the focus on understanding stakeholder power and their motivations to engage in tourism policy development in a seaside resort context, stakeholder theory is discussed as one avenue of exploring the research problem of exploring stakeholder power and engagement in tourism policy development. This includes an outline of the development of stakeholder theory, the use of resource dependency theory, and a discussion of the stakeholder model. Finally, stakeholder influence strategies, which look at stakeholders withholding and using resources to gain influence, are considered in the research problem context as well as current research of stakeholder theory in the tourism literature. This chapter seeks to address research objective one.

2.2 Tourism Destinations

The development of tourism destinations has arguably had too great a focus on the role of government in both the policy creation and process of managing the identified actors within that policy environment (Vernon et al., 2005). There has been little direct engagement with the need to consider both the structural and the other agency components for tourism policy making in the tourism literature. In general terms, there

has previously been too great a focus on prescriptive models of planning and policy in which development is considered as a clear and rational process derived from the actions of a dominant actor (Hall, 1994, World Tourism Organisation, 1994, Reed, 1997, 1999, Church et al., 2000, Dredge, 2006a, 2006b, Stevenson et al., 2008). Furthermore, Reed (1999) stresses the over-reliance on such rational comprehensive planning models and the inattention to actual policy processes promoting the development of shared understandings among diverse actors.

Destination development and management has focused on structural and institutionalist aspects and there has been a traditional emphasis on the public sector setting the agenda for tourism development (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003, Stevenson et al., 2008). This can be a problem, as such a perspective does not account for exploring the reasons and motivations individuals have in engaging with tourism policy development, or provide any guidance on whether the public sector is the best to lead in these policy development discussions. This study aims to identify a framework which considers the power of individuals and their reasons, interests and motivations for engaging with a policy environment at a local level. Destinations in particular can provide an appropriate setting for exploring this research problem to a greater extent, as it is here where the tourism product is presented.

Tourism destinations are complex in nature and the myriad of definitions found in the literature clearly reflects this (Laws, 1995, Davidson and Maitland, 1997, Gunn, 2002). So far there is not one agreed definition of the term as these are drawn from a number of different conceptual backgrounds and used for different purposes. Due to the emphasis on the power of stakeholders in tourism policy, and how their immediate surroundings and relationships have an influence on how tourism policy making is approached in a

destination, it is important to identify how a destination can be interpreted in this study. This will necessarily include a consideration of individuals, stakeholders, tourism organisations, and any other structural elements such as boundaries, and the influence of regional and national policy makers (i.e. the government, regional development agencies and Yorkshire Forward in this case, as well as the local authority).

When considering how a destination can be defined in the light of this study and in respect of the common interpretations in the literature as discussed above, first and foremost it has to be recognised that structure is defined in different terms. In connection with destinations there has been a major emphasis on formulating a spatial categorisation of a destination – the structure here is considered as the access to resources available in a region and the existing geographical and administrative boundaries which will be discussed further in the following paragraphs. To that effect tourism destinations have been narrowly focused where structure mainly refers to given structures within a destination such as, for example, administrative boundaries, membership of particular RDAs, and resource dependency relations, which can be labelled as ‘classical structure’ in this study. Structure in the structure and agency dialogue (see Chapter 3, Section 3.2.1 for a more detailed discussion) is much more complex where this refers to the overall social world which is determined by the actors within it, thereby moving away from a pure resource-based dimension mentioned previously in Chapter 1 (Selin and Beason, 1991, Stevenson and Greenberg, 2000). The two different concepts of structure should not be confused or used interchangeably.

. Destinations provide the platform and the public space where collective decision making amongst stakeholders comes into being as they are “a focus for attention since they stimulate and motivate visits, and are the location in which the major part of the

tourism product is produced” (Davidson and Maitland, 1997). As such, it is of interest to identify how and why individuals are motivated to engage with tourism policy making within a destination, as this varied environment can provide the scope to consider not only their immediate surroundings but also relationship aspects which can both shape and influence decision making of individuals involved or not involved in such policy development. In this sense then, destinations are regarded as the public space in which action takes place (Howell, 1993, Arendt, 1998). This will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.2.

One of the most common approaches is to view a destination from a tourism system perspective¹¹ which locates the destination within the tourism process as a whole (Leiper, 1979, Hall, 2008). A key feature of the tourism system model is its flexibility in use as it can be applied to a range of different tourism provisions – from a small destination to the overall international industry (Davidson and Maitland, 1997, Page and Connell, 2006), highlighting the interrelationships that are prominent in the tourism industry where all elements of the system interact (Cooper, 2005).

Coastal resorts as the destination region, are the main focus of this study as it is here that “the full impact of tourism is felt and where planning and management strategies are implemented” (Cooper, 1998: 5). A similar definition of the destination region within the tourism system is “[the destination region] is the region the tourist chooses to visit and where the most obvious consequences of the system occur” (Hall, 2008: 76).

¹¹ The model popularised by Leiper (1979), been used since the 1970s, shows tourism as a system with tourist generating and tourist destination regions and an information flow between these regions and is essentially a geographical model. The flow of information from the destination region to the tourist generating region influences the perception of the destination and stimulates visits.

Similar to Leiper (1979), Laws (1995) has also proposed the use of a “soft, open, systems model” of a destination which recognises the numerous interrelated elements that form part of a destination. In terms of applicability, the model proposed by Laws (1995) is argued to be more comprehensive than the model developed by Leiper, taking into account external as well as internal influences upon a destination. The ‘soft’ element of the model considers the interactions of tourists and staff within the destination, while the openness of the model includes the legislative and also cultural elements that shape a destination (Laws, 1995). Furthermore, the model has been classified as a systems model as this looks at both the inputs and the outcomes related to the tourism processes that are present in a destination. Given the research focus on understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context, it is argued that the open systems model of a destination is useful, as it considers a comprehensive and encompassing interpretation of destinations and the actors and structures operating within this environment. Nonetheless, much tourism literature has considered destinations primarily from a spatial perspective looking at boundaries, scale, and size (Framke, 2002, Scott et al., 2008).

The size and spatiality of a destination can vary, ranging from a specified area of a town to a whole country. A spatial consideration of a destination, classified as a ‘structural’ model by Dredge (1999), is problematic as boundaries of a destination are neither easily recognised nor agreed on by stakeholders, reflecting a conceptualisation of a destination in a classical structure interpretation focusing on spatial and geographical aspects. Gunn (2002) claims that a destination is a geographic area containing a critical mass of development that satisfies traveller objectives. Moreover, Davidson and Maitland (1997) argue that a popular archetype of a destination remains the traditional seaside resort as spatial boundaries are more clearly defined. Definitional problems are further

illustrated by Gordon and Goodall (1992), who argue that destinations can overlap and interact and consider that “each tourist destination may incorporate a mosaic of resorts of tourist areas, each of which in turn comprises a mosaic of tourism enterprises” (1992: 41). These viewpoints clearly illustrate the problems in defining the boundaries of a destination as these are often fluid and dynamic and often do not coincide with the administrative boundaries determined by local government.

Thus it is more realistic to view destinations as regions that contain a sufficient critical mass (i.e. cluster of attractions) capable of attracting tourists (Bornhorst et al., 2010). This is based on viewing a destination from the perspective of a tourist in looking at what the destination has to offer in terms of experiences and attractions for the tourist to visit the destination. In part, this conceptualisation of a destination reflects the overlapping of resorts discussed previously (Gordon and Goodall, 1992), while also utilising aspects of the work of Gunn (2002) in terms of the destination being a critical mass of development.

Thus despite different administrative regions constituting destinations, there is increasing recognition of collaborative partnerships between them to forge a common ‘identity’ with the view to improving economic development through tourism (Bornhorst et al., 2010). This problem with the definition of destinations in terms of boundaries and their size, is mirrored in the tourism policy and planning literature, and has practical implications for the development, implementation and structure of tourism policy and organisation in destinations. This will be discussed in more detail in the context of the research problem in Section 2.3.

Overall, the soft, open systems perspective developed by Laws (1995) not only considers the spatiality of a destination, but also external as well as internal influences on the destination. Although the Laws model considers the boundaries of destinations coinciding with administrative boundaries which have their rationale in socio, cultural and political history, and the geology of the area, it is argued that within the context of the research problem of understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development, there is scope to adapt this model to incorporate a greater focus upon those factors that may or may not contribute to power as an attribute of stakeholders in destinations. This should focus on internal and external influences on individuals and stakeholders in particular. Taking into account growing research on collaborative and partnership approaches in destinations, a focus on contributing power attributes can be achieved by looking at how tourism policy development is being handled in a local context.

2.3 Tourism Policy

As introduced in Chapter 1 the tourism policy development literature is widely developed but there is a need to consider both a structural as well as agency focus within tourism policy is one of the areas that needs development, to provide a more comprehensive perspective of stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development.

Research is scant on providing a balance between structural and agency components in tourism planning and the existing policy environment (Thomas and Thomas, 2005). There seems to be a general over-reliance on rational comprehensive planning models that emphasise a guided top-down decision-making process at the expense of policy processes that promote shared understandings among diverse actors (Reed, 1999), associated with tourism policy development that remains dominated by the public sector

(Hall and Jenkins, 1995). Too much emphasis has been placed on “making a plan” in the context of tourism planning (Stevenson et al., 2008: 733). In this sense, public policy and tourism policy approaches have stressed a rational paradigm for promoting policy development (Pforr, 2005, Stevenson et al., 2008). However, some recognition has been given to look at approaches in which processes are not so much based on that of ‘making a plan’ from a rational perspective, but which also consider the social context of the tourism environment within which policy is developed (Treuren and Lane, 2003, Dredge, 2006a, 2006b, Bramwell and Meyer, 2007, Scott et al., 2008, Stevenson et al., 2008).

This has resulted in a need for greater recognition of actors in tourism planning due to a limited engagement with analytical approaches to collaborative planning in achieving policy goals (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999). According to Jamal and Getz (1995: 187), the concept of collaboration offers “a dynamic, process-based mechanism for resolving planning issues and coordinating tourism planning at the local level”.

The concept of collaboration has received wide attention in the tourism literature especially with regard to tourism policy making (Jamal and Jamrozky, 2005, Scott et al., 2008). Collaboration as a concept in tourism policy research has emerged from a lack of coordination and cohesion within the highly fragmented tourism industry (Jamal and Getz, 1995, Palmer and Bejou, 1995). It is characterised by “the presence of numerous organizations [and] lack a well-defined inter-organizational process” (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 196). In other words, “emergent tourism settings” (ibid) include diverse and sometimes conflicting actor interests with differing agendas and values that can often be incompatible. The concept of collaboration has been suggested as one way of overcoming diverse actor interests by considering shared decision-making within the

highly interrelated and often fragmented tourism industry. Collaboration is not just constrained to tourism policy, but has also been addressed in destination marketing (Palmer and Bejou, 1995, d'Angella and Go, 2009), forming an aspect of the development of partnerships between public and private sectors in tourism (Augustyn and Knowles, 2000), and nature-based tourism planning and management (Priskin, 2003).

Collaborative decision-making is referred to as “a process of joint decision-making among autonomous, key stakeholders ... to resolve planning problems ... and/or to manage issues related to the planning and development” in the literature (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 188). However, it has been recognised that collaboration is in itself insufficient to address conflicting actor interests within the fragmented tourism industry (Reed, 1999). In this study particular emphasis is placed upon the tourism policy environment at the local level, constituting of diverse actors involved and their reasons for engaging with tourism policy development. Furthermore, collaboration as discussed in the tourism literature insufficiently considers the power relations between actors within the tourism industry (Reed, 1997, Reed, 1999) especially given the underlying structure and agency concern of this work.

Power and structures can act as constraints to collaboration, necessitating consideration of the articulation and manifestation of power between actors at the local level (Reed, 1999). As Hall and Jenkins (1995) maintain, policy and power are inextricably linked as public policy is a political activity and the point of government activity. However, Hall and Jenkins’ political perspective that stipulates “politics is about power, who gets what, where, how and why” (1995: 66), equates power to a force or manipulative entity exercised as the ‘power over’ instead of ‘power to’ as adopted in this study. Thus

although the literature recognises the value of power in tourism policy development, consideration has not yet been given to more enabling conceptualisations of power and the elements which may contribute to power, based upon reasons and motivations of stakeholders to engage with tourism policy development. Interest in stakeholder theory within tourism research stems from the promise this approach has, for addressing this problem further which will be discussed in more detail in Section 2.5.

In addition to issues mentioned previously, such as a lack of approaches that consider actors as well as their structural surroundings and its impact upon policy making in tourism (Timothy, 1999, Stevenson et al., 2008), few attempts have been made to seek to understand or explain actors' motivations to engage with tourism policy development (Hall, 1994, Hall and Jenkins, 1995, Elliott, 1997, Dredge, 2006a).

Prominent in the public policy and tourism policy literature is the use of the concept of the policy cycle, also termed as stages heuristic (Hill, 1997, Everett, 2003, Colebatch, 2005, Hill, 2005, Howard, 2005, Pforr, 2005, Sabatier, 2007). The policy cycle considers different steps within the policy process and has been depicted as a circular process model with the following steps: agenda setting, policy formulation, decision making, policy implementation, and policy evaluation (that either results in continuation or termination). Furthermore, it can be seen as an indicative guide in breaking down the policy process into more distinguishable stages or steps (Howlett and Ramesh, 2003). Although useful in terms of breaking down the various components of the policy process and making this more accessible for academics and practitioners, the use of the policy cycle in practice is not without difficulties (Everett, 2003, Colebatch, 2005, Pforr, 2005).

The critique mainly stems from the fact that the individual stages are not readily distinguishable and that considerable overlap and/or omission of stages is possible (Everett, 2003, Colebatch, 2005, Hill, 2005, Pforr, 2005, Fischer et al., 2007). According to Sabatier (2007) the concept of the policy cycle is not causal as each step develops on its own which makes the sequence of stages inaccurate. Further, the model appears to be biased towards a top-down process as it focuses more on the “passage and implementation of a major piece of legislation” neglecting the interface between implementation and evaluation (Sabatier, 2007: 7). There seems to be a danger of oversimplifying interacting cycles involving multiple policy proposals and statutes at the government level, by focusing on one single policy cycle.

Given the research aim focused on understanding stakeholder power and their actor motivations for engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context, and the weaknesses and problems of the policy cycle concept in the literature as discussed, this study will refrain from discussing any policy stage in particular. This omission is not only informed by conceptual critique of the concept, but also guided by the practical ramification of the complex and unclear policy structures in Britain, and specifically, within the case study setting of Scarborough. The policy cycle model poses operational difficulties in this research context as it is too rigid and does not provide much scope for identifying reasons and motivations for stakeholders to engage with tourism policy at the local level. In this sense, the focus is admittedly kept rather general on tourism policy development, which encompasses the policy cycle as a whole, without making reference to any particular stages (see Chapter 5 for a discussion on the policy context in the case study setting).

In the tourism policy literature, policy networks have been used extensively in a range of studies by various authors (see for example: Börzel, 1998, Marsh, 1998, Tyler and Dinan, 2001a, Pforr, 2005, Pforr, 2006, Bramwell and Meyer, 2007). Pforr (2005) argues that policy networks need to be seen as an extension of the policy cycle in that the policy process is considered from both an actor's and from a structural perspective, taking into account the web of relations between stakeholders in that policy environment. Whereas the policy cycle tends to be quite rigid in its conceptualisation, policy networks provide a little more flexibility looking at relationships between actors.

Central to the discussion on policy networks and different approaches that are found in the literature, there seems to be a consensus that policy networks affect policy outcomes (Marsh and Rhodes, 1992, Marsh, 1998). However, there are significant differences in the way the concept of policy networks is used. For instance, the use of the policy network approach in the US is closely related to the notion of sub-governments with a focus on legislative issues. Research in Britain and Europe shares significant similarities in the sense that there is a greater consideration of modern society "characterised by functional differentiation, with private organizations, which control key resources, having an increasingly important role in the formulation and implementation of policy" (Marsh, 1998: 7). Given the focus on an English seaside context, the British literature seems appropriate due to the focus on society playing a deciding role in the policy decision-making environment. In line with the structure and agency dialogue underlying this research as briefly introduced in Chapter 1, previous approaches to policy networks have either had a strong focus on agency or structure as discussed below.

The structural approach, most closely linked with the work of Marsh and Rhodes (1992), downplays the importance of agents; emphasises the impact of the structure of

networks and exogenous factors on policy outcomes (Marsh, 1998: 11). For the purpose of this research a purely structural consideration of policy networks is rather limited. Marsh (1998) identified the shortcomings of this approach as being too superficial and exclusive as although the role of structure and agents is considered, the structure of the network is dominant. By looking primarily at exogenous factors shaping the network, it is argued that the interdependency of structure and agents is only marginally acknowledged within the network and does not provide a comprehensive account of the nature of a policy network.

The agency approach to policy networks has mainly been linked to the work of Dowding (1994, in Marsh, 1998: 12). Here, emphasis is placed upon the patterns of interaction and resource exchange between agents in a policy network. Change within the network is explained in terms of endogenous change in the pattern of resource dependencies of the agents, termed a rational choice approach (Marsh, 1998, Berry et al., 2004). Similar to the work of Marsh and Rhodes (1992), Dowding privileges agents over structure.

It appears then that a dialectical approach to policy networks that has been extensively used within the wider context of the British tourism policy environment is relevant to this research as it helps to address both structural concerns as well as agency related issues. Using a dialectical approach to policy networks has been likened to a 'strategic learning process' where an agent within a structured context provides knowledge and where knowledge on the other hand helps shape an agent's actions. This can be seen as an iterative process as it considers an interdependent relationship between an agent and a given structural context (Marsh and Smith, 2000). However, it is to be noted, that

policy networks are political structures and as such are not static but in a state of constant flux.

Policy network approaches have been used widely to examine the role of interest groups in policy making in an English context (Bomberg, 1998, Tyler and Dinan, 2001a, 2001b, Anastasiadou, 2008). Other examples of using the policy network approaches include research in the wake of the German reunification using the Baltic island of Rügen (Bramwell and Meyer, 2007), as well as in a study on tourism policy in the Northern Territory of Australia (Pforr, 2006).

However, for this research it is argued that both the policy cycle and policy network approaches are not the main focus for the development of a framework which seeks to understand stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context by considering the key reasons and motivations of stakeholders. This takes the analysis one step deeper by not looking at the networks per se, but by looking at stakeholders that constitute an integral part of the policy environment. Although the value of policy cycle and tourism policy network approaches is acknowledged, this research considers the engagement of stakeholders to a greater extent from a stakeholder theory perspective. Stakeholder theory is no stranger in the tourism policy literature in that “stakeholder [and network] approaches reflect concerns that some research is too rational and not applicable to the real world” (Stevenson et al., 2008: 733). However, there is a lack of approaches which consider the elements which are of importance to stakeholders in actually engaging with tourism policy development at a local level. It is this concern with a deeper understanding of those motivations and the resultant actions of stakeholders that is the aim of this study. In addition, a greater

focus on how power may manifest in tourism policy development through specific actions of stakeholders is of interest.

Tourism policy structures in Britain are complex and not easily distinguishable as briefly introduced in Chapter 1. This has had profound effects on how policy development is being conducted, structured and organised at national, regional and local levels. Although the literature suggests that tourism policy approaches should consider a greater influence and involvement of the private sector, many policies are still, in part, determined or guided by public sector initiatives and tourism bodies. This will be further explored in Chapter 5 within the case context of Scarborough. The discussion focuses on English seaside resorts highlighting issues of fragmentation and development.

2.4 English Seaside Resorts

Seaside resorts around the country share a number of characteristics which distinguishes them from other tourist destinations such as: “specialist tourist infrastructure (promenades, piers, parks etc), holiday accommodation (hotels, guest houses, caravan sites), and a distinctive resort character that is often reflected in the built environment” (Beatty et al., 2010: 15). Further they are distinctive in the problems they face such as seasonality¹², often economic dependence through historical development, and the overall decline in the resort’s appeal. The history of the development of seaside resorts in Britain is well documented in the literature (see for example: Walvin, 1978, Brown, 1985, Soane, 1992, Shaw and Williams, 1997b, Morgan, 1999, Walton, 2000, Urry, 2002) and this research will focus on those aspects which have had a direct effect on the current problems and issues seaside resorts are facing, particularly the effects of the

¹² Seasonality is also evident in other destinations and it is not exclusive to seaside resorts, though it is more pronounced.

disbanding of the RDAs and regional tourism bodies at the local level, as well as impacts on funding streams.

Seaside resorts are distinctive in that there often is an economic dependence upon the tourism sector in the resorts whereas other destinations do not necessarily consider tourism as the main economic strand and source of revenue (Agarwal, 1997). Agarwal (2002) claims that often there is a lack of economic alternatives in English seaside resorts, a problem stemming from their historical development. According to Middleton (2001), Victorian seaside resorts were purpose built, catering for relatively affluent visitors in the late 19th century railway era of industrial Britain. Initially seaside resorts were seen as medicinal and associated with a mature market, interested in visiting the seaside to take the waters, for “immersion” or “dipping” in the sea (Soane, 1992, Urry, 2002). At that time, children and enjoyment on the beach were not associated with the seaside resort. However, resorts gradually extended their reach to other segments of the population and started attracting visitors from diverse socio-economic backgrounds. Seaside resorts especially in the north of England, started attracting the working classes at the beginning of the 20th century when annual paid holidays came into being, resulting in workers’ entitlement for days off work. Also, with growth in disposable income – the *season* gradually came into being. Blackpool and Morecambe became popular destination choices for workers from Lancashire, whereas visitors to Scarborough, for example, originated from the West Riding of Yorkshire, i.e. Leeds and surrounding towns. This was especially the case after World War I, in the years between World War I and II, and in the economic boom following World War II. Seaside holidays then were family oriented and the focus was on having fun at the beach. Holiday camps such as Butlin’s and Pontin’s catered specifically for this family oriented type of holiday and organised holiday camps would take care of visitor needs

– food, drink, entertainment, accommodation, and sanitations (Urry, 2002). This type of holiday saw its heyday between the 1950s and 1970s, but with the advent of package holidays and overseas travel, tourists with high spending power would now seek experiences in other countries (Demetriadi, 1997). This led to a steady decline in tourist numbers to English seaside resorts over the years.

A major issue facing seaside resorts is seasonality (Middleton, 2001). As seasonality is most often measured in terms of visitor numbers to a resort it is argued here that there is a relation to the ‘spatial fixity’ of a seaside resort (Gale, 2005). Spatial fixity implies that the supply of tourist experiences tend to be fixed to a particular place with these being relatively slow in responding to changing consumer tastes and economic development, whereas the demand from a tourist perspective is not fixed and changes more rapidly (ibid). In terms of the applicability to a seaside resort it is the spatial fixity in the supply of tourist experiences that is problematic, as they are geared towards seasonality. Consumer tastes have changed to include more exotic and unspoilt destinations resulting in a relocation of the pleasure periphery¹³ that has moved away from the coldwater resorts of Northern Europe (Gale, 2005). Resources available to the tourist and changes in the tourism structures have supported this shift, leading tourists to visit exotic destinations with better weather during shoulder months than to visit domestic and colder seaside resorts. For tourist managers it is therefore essential to find measures and means to extend the ‘season’ to the more peripheral shoulder months and the traditional low season in the winter months. It has been proposed that a diversification of the tourism product within the resort will, to an extent, assist in addressing the issue of seasonality (Middleton, 2001) and it is therefore in the interest of relevant actors and resort managers to identify how an improved strategic perspective

¹³ The pleasure periphery can be seen as the ‘tourist belt’ surrounding the world (Gale, 2005: 90).

can be generated, by engaging with tourism policy making. Of interest in this study in particular are the relationships between individuals, their power, and what motivates them to engage with tourism policy development at a local level, especially with regard to addressing the challenges coastal resorts are facing.

Seasonality does not only have an effect on tourist numbers, but more importantly from an economic perspective, it also has an impact on the nature of employment in a seaside resort (Agarwal, 1999). This can be problematic as typically many employed in the coastal tourism industry are low-skilled, paid low-wages, and are often part-time workers, leading to an increased proportion of unemployment in the winter and shoulder months that can have adverse social and personal effects on unemployed seasonal workers, and young workers in particular (House of Commons, 2007). Often lack of employment over the winter months can lead to anti-social behaviour and drug and alcohol misuse further enhancing social deprivation (Agarwal, 1999, Middleton, 2001, Agarwal and Brunt, 2006, House of Commons, 2007).

A consideration of the development of a seaside resort also has to include the size of the resort necessarily influencing and shaping the nature of the diversified business environment, reflecting the importance of history as outlined in the philosophical discussion underlying this research. Typically seaside resorts comprise a high number of SMEs¹⁴ and it is seldom that a large private organisation has any input into seaside resort development in the way SMEs do (Cooper, 1997, Shaw and Williams, 1997a, Baum, 1998). In their report 'Sea Changes', the English Tourism Council (2001) also recognised a numerical domination of small and micro businesses in seaside resorts and

¹⁴ "The category of micro, small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) is made up of enterprises which employ fewer than 250 persons and which have an annual turnover not exceeding 50 million Euros, and/or an annual balance sheet total not exceeding 43 million Euros." (European Commission, 2003)

claimed that although larger organisations have an input in the development and management of resorts, it is the SMEs that are at the forefront of formulating, implementing and driving economic development from a private sector perspective. However, although their involvement in resort management is recognised the report does not provide a well-developed framework of how to support and acknowledge SMEs within the context of improved economic development and in connection with the public sector. Similarly to destinations, a problem seaside resorts are facing is fragmentation with the industry at the local level in that often there is a lack of organisation of SMEs within those resorts. This has led to concerns over funding and involvement in strategic considerations and driving economic development forward. This lack of joined-up working and thinking has now been recognised by the government (Penrose, 2011).

In addition, the location of an English seaside resort is also a determining factor for the profile of the business environment. Due to a historical dependency on railway access, other infrastructural development has been poor and now seaside resorts are often considered as being a peripheral area (Gale, 2005). Attracting visitors to a resort is closely connected to the physical accessibility of these resorts. Seaside resorts, as opposed to other destinations and attractions, need to improve existing infrastructure in order to continue being viable due to lack of opportunity to redevelop or relocate along major routes, traffic arteries and interchanges.

Difficulties remain in defining seaside resorts in terms of their boundaries and scale, illustrated by the different approaches found in the literature. As stated previously, Davidson and Maitland (1997) claim that a popular archetype of a destination remains the traditional seaside resort as spatial boundaries are more clearly defined. Moreover,

tourism in general may only be seen as an active part of the community in a small defined area but that in a traditional seaside resort like “Scarborough [...], tourism is a much more pervasive activity” (Davidson and Maitland, 1997: 3). It could be argued however, that boundaries in seaside resorts are not as distinct as they may appear, as coastal resort towns like Scarborough, Whitby and Filey have been jointly marketed clearly illustrating how destination boundaries overlap. Although Scarborough, Whitby and Filey are included in the Borough of Scarborough these are very different in terms of their image and target markets, primarily being historically determined and recognised in the marketing of the three resorts. So, although these are all seaside resorts in the classical sense administered by Scarborough Borough Council, each has their own ‘identity’ and visitor market which consequently also surfaces when looking at the different stakeholders within the towns. Stakeholders will typically have different interests and motivations for action depending on their background and reasons for conducting business, clearly indicating that tourism in a seaside resort and any neighbouring resorts is highly interrelated.

Furthermore, Middleton (2001) claims that seaside resorts are facing competition from purpose built resorts, such as Disneyland Paris, Center Parcs, Bluewater Park in the UK, and Flamingoland as these benefit from enclosed boundaries making the management of the resorts easier and more accessible. Urry also indicates that the competition from constructed parks, especially Center Parcs, is based on attributes seaside resorts cannot sustain, for example the creation of a seaside environment “within a giant double-skinned plastic dome which sustains a constant temperature” (2002: 35). It has made it possible to re-create a ‘seaside’ almost anywhere under controlled conditions. Such purpose built resorts can be classified as a closed system as discussed earlier by Laws (1995) in that any activities and boundaries are contained. In such a closed system

environment with defined target markets, decision making and policy decisions may not have the broad scope or impact that may be felt in destinations or seaside resorts. Some seaside resorts however, do not have clearly defined boundaries as discussed previously, making resort regeneration and improved economic development an even more difficult and complex process (Middleton, 2001). Considering the complexity of policy making in seaside resorts, this study will help address particularly one aspect of policy making, that of understanding stakeholders and what motivates those stakeholders to engage with tourism policy development in a seaside resort environment.

In the earlier discussion of the decline of seaside resorts, there was an argument for the need to expand the interpretation of their decline and much of the research concerned with seaside tourism has been connected to the tourism area lifecycle (TALC) in this context (Cooper, 1990, Foster and Murphy, 1991, Cooper, 1992, Getz, 1992, Goodall, 1992, Gordon and Goodall, 1992, Cooper, 1997, Agarwal, 1999, Agarwal, 2002, Gale and Botterill, 2005, Agarwal and Brunt, 2006). Introduced by Butler (1980) the lifecycle model was taken from the product lifecycle and applied to a tourism and destination context¹⁵. A more appropriate definition of the TALC is: “hypothetical evolutionary model” where tourist numbers and infrastructure define the different stages (Agarwal, 2002: 26). The TALC is an indicative guide illustrating the relationship between demand and supply of the tourism product in a destination. Therefore it cannot be seen as a comprehensive measure for determining the state of tourism development in an area (Gale, 2005). It has been recognised as being descriptive rather than normative (Lundtorp and Wanhill, 2001). However, for tourism policy such an indicative guide can provide some insight into the state of tourism within a destination and potentially what policy actions need to be considered.

¹⁵ The premise being that a ‘product’ passes through different stages in its lifecycle – from its ‘birth’ to its ‘death’.

From an English seaside resort perspective however, consideration has mainly been given to the decline stage of the tourism area lifecycle and to strategies remedying resort decline (Cooper, 1997, Agarwal, 1999, Grant et al., 2001, Agarwal, 2002, Agarwal and Brunt, 2006, Agarwal and Shaw, 2007). Within this context it has been claimed that due to declining visitor numbers in recent years, seaside resorts are positioned in the rejuvenation stage of the post-stagnation phase (Agarwal, 2002). Regeneration strategies in the UK have been typically implemented by local authorities and recently disbanded regional development agencies (RDAs) to combat the decline in visitor numbers. However, Cooper (1990) recommends the implementation of strategies that stem from public/private partnerships, evident in the Isle of Man. Emphasis was placed upon collaboration between the public sector, the private sector and existing facilities on the island, to address declining visitor numbers. Although a useful indicative tool for determining the current stage of a destination, the tourism area lifecycle is limited in its scope and does not reflect the underlying processes (e.g. responsibility for tourism at government level, funding streams, interaction between public/private sector) and relationships that are present in a destination which are considered important in connection with policy development at the local level (Gale, 2005), particularly when the involvement of varied actors is required.

A further problem for English seaside resorts is the age of its population that comprises a higher than average proportion of pensioner households (Beatty et al., 2010). This is not a new or recent phenomenon. However, Urry (2002) points out that by 1931 four seaside resorts, Blackpool, Bournemouth, Brighton and Southend, had become large urbanised areas with populations over 100,000 residents owing to investment of the private sector in developing them. These resorts then had “unusual demographic

characteristics, with much higher proportions than the national average of personal service workers¹⁶ of men and especially of women, and an increasing proportion of retired people” (Urry, 2002: 25). Foster and Murphy (1991) fittingly called this a ‘Retirement Connection’ and link this phenomenon to the decline stage of the tourism area life cycle. A report by the House of Commons attributes this to an “inward migration of older people [...], and the outward migration of young people” (2007: 13), where a large number of older people move to the seaside to retire due to aspects such as scenery and seaside resorts being relatively quiet. The outward migration of young people is more problematic for the economy in seaside resorts, but often this migration is inescapable and rooted in the historical dependency on the service sector accompanied by an absence of higher paid jobs and industry. With the outward migration of higher-skilled young people, a low-skilled workforce that is left behind further poses problems for development of the seaside resort.

However, it is not just the population that is ageing in seaside resorts due to an inward migration of pensioners to the seaside, but also visitors to seaside resorts. Many of the tourists who choose a seaside holiday are retired or of retirement age. There is a focus on the grey market, with a dependency on repeat visitation being a further concern for British seaside resorts (Goossens, 2005).

Despite these difficulties, tourism in seaside resorts continues to thrive, following an increase in short-haul flights and a demand for overseas holidays (House of Commons, 2007, Beatty et al., 2010). In Britain, seaside resorts have changed in that they have had to look at niche markets and other forms of tourism which can be attracted to the area, where steps have been taken to diversify the tourism products on offer. This has gone

¹⁶ Personal service workers are those employed in the service industry, e.g. hotels and accommodation, restaurants, attractions, retail outlets.

hand-in-hand with the regeneration programmes initiated by the Regional Development Agencies across the country in the 1990s focusing on an economic and social regeneration (Sedmak and Mihalič, 2008). It was anticipated that any funding from the public sector would encourage contribution and investment from the private sector in matching those funds in the local areas.

Change in seaside resorts cannot just be credited to the regeneration of the resorts but also to that of the change in the types of holidays sought by tourists over the last decades. Higher disposable income and the opportunity for affordable long-haul travel have resulted in increased overseas holidays for tourists. Seaside tourism remains substantial today although the focus has shifted towards a different kind of holiday, making shorter breaks more desirable. Given the decline in the traditional one- or two-week stay as had been the case at the beginning and middle of the 20th century, tourists are now visiting the seaside for shorter breaks and day visits. This has ultimately had an impact upon the provision of the accommodation sector and products offered within resorts, although recent estimated employment figures indicate that tourism in seaside resorts remains substantial with seaside tourism directly supporting 210,000 year-round jobs (Beatty et al., 2010).

From an organisational perspective in terms of the policy environment within England, seaside resorts are a contributing asset to the tourism industry and economy as a whole. However, they are not recognised per se. Linked to the issues facing the tourism policy environment (e.g. disbanding of RDAs, need for public/private partnership working) and in the context of the issues facing seaside resorts, it seems appropriate to consider a greater involvement of stakeholders in this policy development environment and their reasons and motivations to engage with policy development. Hence there is a

requirement to establish a framework which both reconsiders a structural as well as agency perspective, recognising actor motivations and reasons for engaging with tourism policy development at a local level.

2.5 Stakeholder Theory

Given the research focus aimed at understanding the interests and motivations of actors defining their engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context, it is imperative to design an encompassing conceptual framework. A key element is to establish who is involved in tourism policy development. Stakeholder theory is useful in identifying stakeholders within a particular environment (e.g. in an organisational context or more public sector oriented sphere). As briefly discussed in Chapter 1, stakeholder theory has been used in the context of tourism and destination development and planning to help identify key stakeholders within policy settings (Doorne, 1998, Sautter and Leisen, 1999, Sheehan and Ritchie, 2005, Currie et al., 2009, Bornhorst et al., 2010, Beritelli and Laesser, 2011).

Stakeholder theory has so far been mainly used in the private sector in connection with organisational performance and behaviour, with a focus on viewing stakeholder relationships from a firm and managerial perspective and it is only recently that a *stakeholder* perspective has been adopted (Frooman, 1999, Freeman et al., 2004). A stakeholder perspective, as opposed to a firm and managerial one, considers the interests of individual stakeholders instead of focusing on the viewpoint of the firm per se, which in most cases is determined from an economic angle. This distinction between a managerial and stakeholder perspective has important implications for this study, as a *stakeholder* perspective is adopted for the development of the conceptual framework. The focus is on understanding key reasons and motivations of stakeholders to engage

with policy making. It is therefore vital to consider the interests of the stakeholders to a greater extent, in the absence of a focal firm situation. Since the focus of this research is on understanding the power of stakeholders as they engage with tourism policy development in a seaside resort, it is therefore necessary to consider the intent of both public (i.e. the local council) and private sectors, although these may not be inherent but dictated by national and/or regional governments. However, most stakeholder theory literature is concerned with a managerial perspective that is not directly adopted in this study. However, the value of the managerial perspective cannot be ignored. Instead it could be argued that a stakeholder perspective is an extension of the managerial perspective, in that the interests of stakeholders are taken into account and not only the interests that are of importance for the firm.

Stakeholder theory, as popularised by Freeman (1984), was originally concerned with how a firm's stakeholders influence and affect a firm's objectives and achievements. Before stakeholder theory was articulated per se, the concept was used in different theoretical frameworks, including corporate planning, systems theory, corporate social responsibility, and organisation theory (Freeman, 1984, Mainardes et al., 2011). The history of defining stakeholders has been derived from research undertaken by the Stanford Research Institute (SRI) in 1963. From that early perspective stakeholders were seen as integral to the survival of the firm: "without the support of these key groups the firm does not survive, by definition of what we mean by 'stakeholder'" (cited by Freeman, 1984: 33). The development of a stakeholder approach was important as this included a change of thinking in terms of the bases of planning and policy. Planning moved from reactive policy making to proactive strategy formulation as it was recognised that the concept of strategic planning, aims to set a direction for an organisation which necessarily included an analysis of both organisational capabilities

and environmental opportunities and threats from which themes and strategic issues emerged (Freeman, 1984: 34).

Although set within a ‘firm’ and an ‘organisational’ context, it is argued in this study that stakeholder theory and especially a stakeholder perspective is applicable to seaside tourism and the policy environment. This is based on the premise mentioned above that a stakeholder perspective includes consideration of both the organisation and its environment (i.e. structure and agency). Although seaside resorts are not organisations in the classical sense, they typically comprise a large number of SMEs, and as an overarching theme in a metaphorical sense, a seaside resort can be considered as an organisation with specific aims and a workforce. It is the focus on those people who are involved and have a stake in the resort that are of interest – those individuals who are part of the SME culture found in seaside resorts. The soft open systems model of a destination (Laws, 1995), discussed previously in Section 2.2, can help illustrate how a seaside resort can be regarded as an organisation from a metaphorical perspective. In this sense, the open systems model takes into consideration internal as well as external factors that influence the organisation of the seaside resort, accounting for both structure and agents within.

Resource dependency theory plays a major role in the stakeholder literature in helping to understand stakeholder power¹⁷ and influence. To clarify the scope of the concept, resource dependency theory will briefly be discussed in the following section before returning to the stakeholder discussion.

¹⁷ Power is here used in the sense of the classical understanding of power being negative and repressive. In Foucault’s terms, power would be here classified as being a juridical model – that of being purely radical structuralist.

A resource dependency relationship as identified by Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) is based upon the notion that stakeholders exert pressure upon an organisation by seeking resource relationships from external sources. Actors who are lacking essential resources will seek relationships with others to obtain these resources, and therefore be dependent on resource exchange. Underlying resource dependency theory is the concept of considering the position of an organisation and organisational action. An organisation is dependent upon its environment and cannot be “completely self-contained or in complete control of the conditions of its own existence” (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978: 19). This is due to organisations importing resources from their surroundings and becoming dependent on the external environment. However, although this view of organisations from a resource control perspective does not seem to address any social factors or relationships among different firms, this is not necessarily so. Pfeffer and Salancik (1978: 259) claim that “organizations are coalitions of varying interests” which gives scope to consider whose interests will prevail within and between organisations and consequently what actions will be taken. In a sense, stakeholder theory builds upon the resource dependency framework of Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) as it provides a platform to look more closely at the interdependencies between the organisation and its external environment.

Since the early research conducted by the Stanford Research Institute, the definition of stakeholders has changed and developed. Today, Freeman is the most widely quoted author whilst defining stakeholders, where a stakeholder of an organisation is “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm’s objectives” (1984: 46, Shankman, 1999).

More recently, there has been a debate on broad and narrow¹⁸ interpretations and definitions of stakeholders providing a more in-depth view of relevant stakeholders (Mellahi and Wood, 2003). The broad and narrow definitions are the most widely quoted stakeholder definitions and consider the impact of groups and/or individuals upon a corporation, as well as those groups who are vital for the survival of the corporation. Unrestricted stakeholder theory refers to the need to include the interests of all groups affected by the firm, whereas the restricted approach is concerned with the firm focusing on the needs of ‘primary’ stakeholders, who are defined as “those immediately affected by the firm’s operations” (Mellahi and Wood, 2003: 184).

Moreover, in the context of Freeman’s original stakeholder definition, Frooman refers to two types of stakeholders – strategic and moral – as described by Goodpaster (1991). Strategic stakeholders are associated with managing interests, which is termed a unidirectional approach where relationships are considered from the firm’s viewpoint, as a strategic stakeholder is classed as “the one who can affect a firm” (Frooman, 1999). Moral stakeholders on the other hand are associated with a balancing of interests, described as a bidirectional account of the firm and its stakeholders where stakeholders are proactive and not passive (Frooman, 1999: 192).

There are numerous different taxonomies and definitions of the term ‘stakeholder’ which has been raised as a concern in the literature (Mainardes et al., 2011). Often the term is used without it actually being defined and although Freeman’s definition as outlined above is the most commonly quoted definition, so far there is not one single universally accepted definition of the term ‘stakeholder’ (Timur and Getz, 2008,

¹⁸ Also termed restricted and unrestricted stakeholder theory illustrating the scope for inclusion of stakeholders. Restricted refers to a narrow conceptualisation (e.g. stakeholders belonging to a particular group, or displaying similar attributes), and unrestricted refers to a broad conceptualisation in which literally anybody can be considered a stakeholder.

Mainardes et al., 2011). It is therefore essential to be clear about the stakeholder definition which will be referred to throughout the research. Table 2.1 below summarises some of those more common definitions of the term ‘stakeholder’ found in the literature to illustrate the breadth of definitions.

Broad (wide) definition	Any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the corporation (Freeman, 1998: 129)
Narrow definition	Those groups who are vital to the survival and success of the corporation (Freeman, 1998: 129)
Voluntary stakeholders	Those who have chosen to take a stake and bear some form of risk in anticipation of some form of gain or increase in value, whether as a shareholder or investor, an employee, customer, or supplier. (Clarkson, 1998: 2)
Involuntary stakeholders	Those that are, or may be, exposed unknowingly to risk and thus be harmed, or benefited, as a consequence of the corporation’s activities. Their stakes are not assumed willingly, but are consequential on the activities of others. Involuntary stakeholders, including governments, communities and the environment, are particularly subject to the risks and consequences of the failure of corporations to internalize all their costs. (Clarkson, 1998: 2-3)
Primary social stakeholders	[They] have a direct stake in the organization and its success and, therefore, are influential. (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2006: 70)
Secondary social stakeholders	[They] may be extremely influential as well, especially in affecting reputation and public standing, but their stake in the organization is more representational of public or special interests than direct. (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2006: 70)
Strategic stakeholder	“The one who can affect a firm.” Managing of interests. Unidirectional approach where relationships are considered from the firm’s vantage point. (Frooman, 1999: 192)
Moral stakeholder	“The one who is affected by the firm.” Balancing of interests. Bidirectional account of the firm and its stakeholders. (Frooman, 1999: 192)

Stakeholder in tourism industry	“anyone who is impacted on by tourism development in both a positive or a negative way, and as a result it reduces potential conflict between the tourists and host community by involving the latter in shaping the way in which tourism develops” (Aas et al., 2005: 31)
Autonomous stakeholders	“the actors with an interest in a common problem or issue and include all individuals, groups or organizations directly influenced by the actions others take to solve a problem”. These are autonomous “since they retain their independent decision-making powers while abiding by shared rules within the collaborative alliance” although decisions are made jointly on a consensus basis. (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 188).

Table 2.1: Stakeholder definitions

This list is not exhaustive but as can be seen from Table 2.1 there are numerous different definitions of the term stakeholder, often dependent upon the context in which the term is used. However, there are attributes which the majority of definitions have in common. These include a focus upon an organisational and therefore economic context with a view of seeing stakeholder relationships from a managerial perspective. These commonalities however, have insufficient breadth and depth for the purposes of this work. In particular, these commonalities hide issues of relevancy of the stakeholder’s interests to a cause (this could very broadly include an organisation or group that they are involved in) and their reasons and motivation for action. In particular, considering the focus of this research and the emphasis on how and why stakeholders engage with tourism policy development, no reference is made to the role an individual plays and how an individual’s attributes, such as historical background, social relations and education may have an effect upon their engagement and their motivations to engage with tourism policy development.

Mitchell et al (1997) recognised two major aspects of the broad and narrow definitions further illustrating the importance of being clear about the stakeholder definition adopted in this research. According to Mitchell et al, narrow definitions of stakeholders “attempt to define relevant groups in terms of their *direct relevance to the firm’s core economic interests*” (1997: 857, original emphasis). In actual terms, narrow views are based more on the practical reality of limited resources, including time and the attention managers are willing to give for the consideration of stakeholders. Broad views of stakeholders on the other hand are based on, what is termed “the empirical reality that companies can indeed be vitally affected by, or they vitally affect, almost anyone” (Mitchell et al., 1997: 857). However, this is seen to be bewildering for managers to actually apply, making a broad view difficult to comprehend or use in practice.

Practically, a narrow definition of the term ‘stakeholder’ is beneficial because using a more specific stakeholder definition helps to clarify a deeper consideration of actor motivations and reasons for choices made. The stakeholder definition given by Clarkson (1998: 2) where stakeholders are “those persons or interests that have a stake, something to gain or lose as a result of its [the corporation’s] activities”, appears to be more relevant in the context of this study.

To overcome the problem of defining who is and who is not a stakeholder within an organisation, Mitchell et al (1997) proposed a framework for stakeholder identification and salience, based upon three key attributes: “(1) the stakeholder’s *power* to influence the firm, (2) the *legitimacy* of the stakeholder’s relationship with the firm, and (3) the *urgency* of the stakeholder’s claim on the firm” (Mitchell et al., 1997: 854). Power is considered to be transitory in that it can be “acquired as well as lost” (Mitchell et al., 1997: 866). Mainardes et al. have summarised Mitchell et al.’s power as “the ability to

make someone do something that would not otherwise have been done” (2011: 236). This interpretation of power reflects the classic power definition of Dahl (1957) which is attributed to a purely functionalist perspective, that of an authoritative and oppressive interpretation of power which will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3 (Section 3.2). Mitchell et al.’s approach is based on the notion that power is a tool which enables individuals to have a capacity to act because network positioning, resource access, and visibility bring about changes and desired outcomes for the individual and/or a firm. As indicated, power is used here in connection with the concepts of legitimacy and urgency, forming part of the attributes of stakeholder identity and salience. “Power by itself does not guarantee high salience in a stakeholder-manager relationship. Power gains authority through legitimacy, and it gains exercise through urgency” (Mitchell et al., 1997: 869). The legitimacy of a stakeholder is considered as a desirable social good and is based on Suchmann’s (1995, cited in Mitchell et al., 1997: 866) definition of legitimacy: “a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions”. The third concept, urgency, describes the degree to which stakeholder claims call for immediate action, based on two elements: (1) time sensitivity, considering the amount of time acceptable for the stakeholder claim to be dealt with; and (2) criticality, considering the importance of the claim or the relationship to the stakeholder (Mitchell et al., 1997).

This typology of stakeholders is based upon a normative, and in this case economic, assumption and regards those entities managers should consider as salient for an organisation. As in Freeman’s original stakeholder model this viewpoint places the organisation at the centre. Based upon three stakeholder attributes, it is claimed by Mitchell et al. (1997) that stakeholder salience can be deduced solely by looking at the

possession of a combination of any or all three of the attributes of power, legitimacy and/or urgency. However, it has to be borne in mind that Mitchell et al. also addressed some caveats and implications of this framework: (1) stakeholder attributes are variable, not a steady state; (2) stakeholder attributes are socially constructed, not objective, reality; (3) consciousness and wilful exercise may or may not be present (1997: 868). Mitchell et al. (1997) generated a model based upon these attributes with seven types of stakeholders (see Table 2.2) which has been applied by Friedman and Mason (2005) to a public policy decision making process. Friedman and Mason used Mitchell et al's seven types of stakeholders to generate a stakeholder map which was dynamic, making it easier for managers to develop appropriate strategies for working with stakeholders, while continually being able to reconsider stakeholder salience over time by iteratively generating new stakeholder maps.

	Stakeholder Classes	Attributes	Increased Salience ↓
Latent Stakeholders	1. Dormant Stakeholders	Power	
	2. Discretionary Stakeholders	Legitimacy	
	3. Demanding Stakeholders	Urgency	
Expectant Stakeholders	4. Dominant Stakeholders	Power, Legitimacy	
	5. Dangerous Stakeholders	Urgency, Power	
	6. Dependent Stakeholders	Legitimacy, Urgency	
Definitive Stakeholders	7. Definitive Stakeholders	Power, Legitimacy, Urgency	

Table 2.2: Stakeholder Typology (adapted from Mitchell et al., 1997)

However, due to power being viewed as one aspect of stakeholder salience, the framework developed by Mitchell et al. (1997), although one of the most prominent influences on the stakeholder theory literature, is not applicable and not adopted in this study. This is based on the interpretation of power adopted by Mitchell et al. in the stakeholder salience framework linking this to a purely functionalist perspective of power being considered as a 'power over', a perspective which is not appropriate for

this study. This will be discussed in more detail in Chapters 7 and 8, following a deeper consideration of how power is used in this study.

2.6 The stakeholder model

Freeman describes the stakeholder model as being prescriptive in nature as it “prescribes action for organizational managers in a rational sense” (1984: 48). Stakeholder theory is therefore seen as an action-oriented approach starting to move away from a sole strategic planning to a strategic management perspective, considering how action could be implemented practically from a managerial perspective. This forms part of a wider-spread shift in the development of the strategic management literature in the early 1980s, especially with reference to the planning and positioning schools of thought (Mintzberg et al., 1998). It was at this time when the term strategic management was coined, looking more closely at the importance of strategies themselves and not just the focus on the development of those strategies as found in the planning school (Mintzberg et al., 1998, Grant, 2002). The emergence of Porter’s five forces model can also be attributed to this shift towards strategic management (Mintzberg et al., 1998, Gavetti and Levinthal, 2004, Grievess, 2010). Stakeholder theory has since been linked to the power school of thought based on its focus on the macro power of organisations, i.e. that of dealing with the interdependence of the organisation and its environment. Specifically this includes buyers, suppliers, investment bankers, and competing organisations. There are clear links to resource dependency theory as discussed in Section 2.5, as the focus is on the exchange of resources between stakeholders and organisations.

Freeman’s (1984) original stakeholder view of a firm, which he termed a stakeholder map, was adopted by Sautter and Leisen (1999) in order to identify different stakeholders in a tourism network. Although Freeman (1984) considers the stakeholder

model to be primarily descriptive, Sautter and Leisen (1999) classify it as a normative planning tool and contend that this can be used to promote collaboration among key stakeholders in the tourism planning process and can provide a greater insight into the influences a stakeholder has within a network (see Figure 2.1) (Jamal and Getz, 1995). Furthermore, Sautter and Leisen (1999) contend that such a position of collaboration, is similar to the underlying premise of stakeholder theory, that of working together to achieve particular outcomes and including those people who are affected in some way by a proposed development for example.

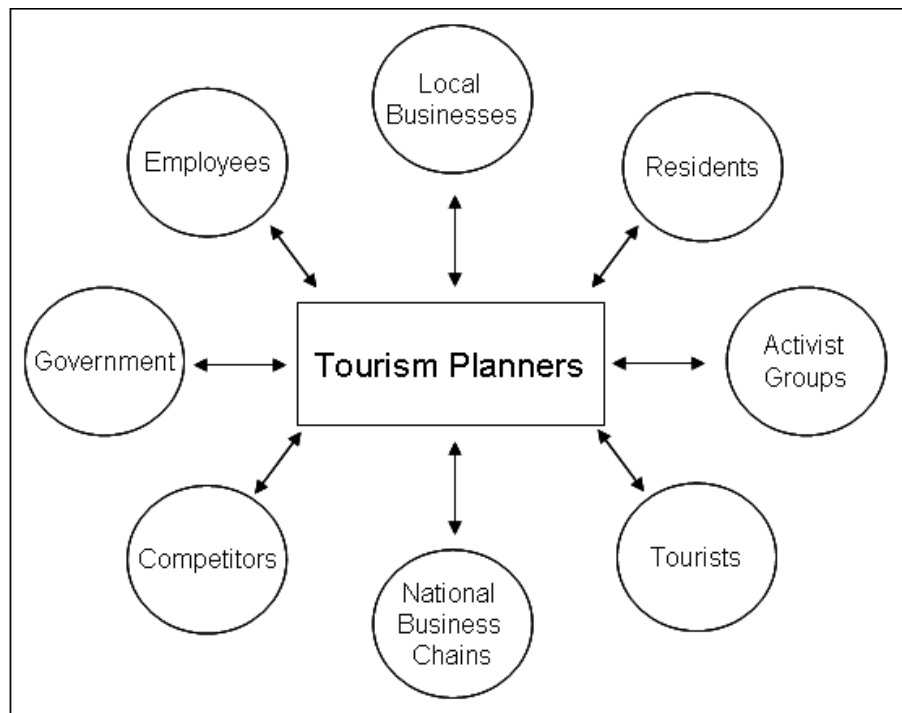


Figure 2.1: Tourism Stakeholder Map (adapted from Sautter and Leisen, 1999: 315)

Similar to Freeman’s conceptualisation, the use of a stakeholder map as described by Sautter and Leisen (Figure 2.1) can only be seen as an indicative guide constructed to provide an overview of relevant stakeholders. Sautter and Leisen (1999) reiterate the premise that all stakeholders’ interests have intrinsic value and in order to represent a comprehensive approach, there is a need to integrate all identified stakeholders into

tourism policy development. For this study, the main focus for the identification of stakeholders is primarily based upon their interests and motivations to engage with tourism policy development.

To identify relevant actors and stakeholders within a network it is reasonable to begin by considering a historical analysis of the seaside resort in terms of its development (Laws, 1995, Kaboub, 2006) and to continually revise and reconsider the stakeholder map generated from the information gained due to the dynamic and changing nature of the tourism environment. There is a need to consider reality in terms of history and how this relates to social structure as discussed previously (Leca and Naccache, 2006). In an empirical study, Friedman and Mason (2005) applied Mitchell et al's (1997) stakeholder typology (see Table 2.2) and generated a stakeholder map evolving over time in the context of a public policy decision making process for a football stadium in Nashville, Tennessee. The iterative process of public policy decision making and development supports stakeholder theory, and the use of stakeholder maps were considered appropriate as stakeholder salience, through the concepts of power, legitimacy and urgency, can be re-evaluated periodically by managers. Doing so provides a platform for developing strategies and policies best suited to a particular situation. Stakeholder mapping has been used in a variety of contexts in the literature, for example in natural resource management (Prell et al., 2009), in policy analysis and change (Aligica, 2006), project management (Bourne and Walker, 2005), public sector strategy (Scholes and Johnson, 2001), and recreation planning for a National Park in the Bahamas (Eadens et al., 2009).

It is argued then, that the use of stakeholder maps can provide an insight into the network structure and to identify the actors that have the most ties within that particular

environment, potentially providing a means to explore stakeholders' power from a network perspective. However, it has to be remembered that these stakeholder maps only provide a snapshot in time as networks continually change and regroup periodically, either influenced by internal or external forces or changes in organisational or policy settings (i.e. change in government). Nevertheless, in determining those stakeholders that are of importance within stakeholder networks, stakeholder maps , help assist in understanding why individuals are involved.

A historical contextual analysis is especially important as this can provide insights into how stakeholder relations have been formed in the past and how this then affects not only current structure but also the decision making processes within a resort or destination (Tempest, 2006). A historical analysis refers to document analysis in the context of the area under study. In York, for example, the current First Stop York Tourism Partnership structure has emerged and was formed over a period of eleven years (1995 – 2006) which especially applies to the Executive Group of the tourism partnership First Stop York. The development of the Area Tourism Partnership was guided by the Yorkshire Forward Strategic Framework, in that a clear preferred outcome was desired, which can also be viewed as structuring policy development (even though membership will have emerged from existing entities). This type of development can have profound effects upon the overall running of an organisation and, as in the case of York, the management of a destination or resort.

2.6.1 Different dimensions of stakeholder theory

Research suggests that overall there are three different dimensions of stakeholder theory, namely – descriptive, normative and instrumental stakeholder theory

(Donaldson and Preston, 1995). There is some concern within the literature regarding stakeholder theory's clean split into these categories as this typically depends on the context of the use of the theory or whether stakeholder theory is in fact an accumulation of all three dimensions in some form (Jones and Wicks, 1999, Treviño and Weaver, 1999, Freeman et al., 2010).

Descriptive stakeholder theory “describes what the corporation does, as a constellation of cooperative and competitive interests possessing intrinsic value” (Donaldson and Preston, 1995: 66). A descriptive dimension is therefore used to explain specific characteristics of an organisation. Broadly, this dimension focuses on describing how organisations interact with stakeholders and whether stakeholder interests are taken into account (Mellahi and Wood, 2003). Simmons et al (2005: 46) refer to the descriptive dimension as the ‘stakeholder saliency’ issue as described by Mitchell et al. (1997) identifying which stakeholders managers *do* pay attention to.

The second dimension, instrumental stakeholder theory, has been described as an ‘if-then’ scenario as this looks at establishing “a framework for examining the connections [...] between the practice of stakeholder management and the achievement of various corporate performance goals” (Donaldson and Preston, 1995: 67). In other words, ‘if’ certain practices are adopted, ‘then’ certain results are obtained or achieved. However, instrumental stakeholder theory is mainly linked to conventional performance terms such as growth, profitability, and stability of the organisation. Further, Donaldson and Preston (1995) argue that instrumental stakeholder theory stops short of looking more closely at the links between cause and effect (here the relationship between stakeholder

management and corporate performance) but assert instead that this is implicit rather than explicit.¹⁹

As a third dimension, normative approaches to stakeholder theory consider more closely the function of the organisation and moral and philosophical guidelines for the actual operation and management of an organisation (Donaldson and Preston, 1995). Normative stakeholder theory can be seen as a perspective serving different purposes. One perspective is concerned with *why* organisations should take stakeholder interests into account (Swanson, 1999), whilst another prescribes *how* all stakeholders should be treated on the basis of some underlying moral or philosophical principles (Mellahi and Wood, 2003). Moreover, Mellahi and Wood (*ibid*) contend that stakeholder relations are driven by moral principles and that firms should treat their stakeholders as “ends” as opposed to seeing them as means to some other end. This is especially relevant as each stakeholder group has a right to be treated as an end in itself due to their intrinsic values and encouragement to participate in the future of the organisation (Donaldson and Preston, 1995).

Although Donaldson and Preston (1995) have outlined three different dimensions of stakeholder theory found in the literature, they view these dimensions as being nested within each other as illustrated in a model consisting of concentric circles (see Figure 2.2). The outer shell of the model is represented by the descriptive dimension which looks at relationships that can be observed in the external environment and provides an indication of what the organisation ‘does’. At the second level, the instrumental dimension functions as a supportive role of the descriptive aspect by its predictive

¹⁹ Welcher (2002) has described Freeman’s conceptualisation of stakeholders as an influence-based definition by looking at normative and instrumental dimensions. The instrumental orientation is concerned with maximising an organisation’s performance, whilst the normative orientation looks more closely at an ethical realm as stakeholder interests are considered to have intrinsic value.

nature. In this sense, instrumental stakeholder theory helps in connecting stakeholder approaches to popular corporate objectives such as growth and profitability, indicating how organisations can succeed. The normative dimension represents the core of stakeholder theory: “the descriptive accuracy of the theory presumes the truth of the core normative conception, insofar as it presumes that managers and other agents act *as if* all stakeholders’ interests have intrinsic value” (1995: 74, original emphasis). The theory’s normative base is further supported by the recognition of these moral values and obligations. However, as many of the most widely quoted literature sources for stakeholder theory, Donaldson and Preston’s model is also considered from a managerial perspective. Given that this research seeks to adopt more of a stakeholder perspective, looking at those reasons and motivations for stakeholders to engage, Donaldson and Preston’s model is rather limited in the context of this work. The value of using this framework in the development of the conceptual framework for this research will be discussed further in Chapter 7, after a review of other underlying concepts.

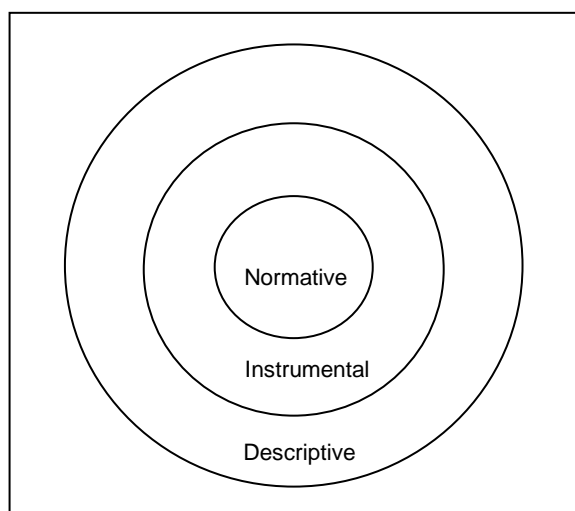


Figure 2.2: Three Aspects of Stakeholder Theory (adapted from Donaldson and Preston, 1995: 74)

As discussed at the beginning of this section there is still concern in the literature about the use of three dimensions of stakeholder theory or whether these can be so cleanly separated. Research has shown that much consideration has been given to the normative core of stakeholder theory in advancing theoretical understanding. Stakeholder theory has been considered from a twofold perspective in that on one side the normative dimension is considered and on the other side the descriptive and instrumental dimensions are considered simultaneously (Lepineux, 2005, Mainardes et al., 2011).

Although the concentric circles model developed by Donaldson and Preston proposes an insight into the different dimensions of stakeholder theory, fundamental issues remain. Phillips and Reichart (2000) contend that a major shortcoming of stakeholder theory is in fact the problem of stakeholder identity. Due to the focus on stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development in a seaside resort context, it is essential to define who is to be considered as a stakeholder and why. Following Phillips and Reichart (2000), there is a need to clarify the underlying issue of stakeholder identification which necessarily has to include a discussion of what a stakeholder actually is.

2.6.2 Identifying the ‘stake’

Although the term stakeholder is widely used (see Table 2.1 in Section 2.5) it is not clear from the literature how a *stakeholder* is defined (Rowley, 1997, Mainardes et al., 2011). Instead, the meaning of the term ‘stake’ is mainly used implicitly. To overcome this problem of potential misunderstanding of the core meaning of stakeholder theory it is important to discuss the term “stake” and hence stakeholder for this study.

Unsurprisingly, within the stakeholder literature there has been an emphasis on a capitalist underpinning, which is reflected in the definition of a “stake” given the focus on an organisational context. Clarkson for example has defined a stake as “something of value, some form of capital, human, physical, or financial, that is at risk, either voluntarily or involuntarily” (1998: 2). He distinguishes between voluntary and involuntary stakeholders (see Table 2.1) and bases this distinction on the degree of risk the stakeholder has chosen to take or is exposed to. This conceptualisation of “stakes as risk capital” further assists in distinguishing between stakeholders, “who bear some form of risk” and claimants, who “make claims on the organisation but bear no risk” (ibid). Clarkson considers risk to be the main thread which underlies claims and interests in an organisation. This view is referred to as a purely capitalist viewpoint which considers the profitability of an organisation and its survival as the primary driving factor of the business environment in the private sector. However, considering that Clarkson refers not only to financial and physical capital, but also makes reference to human capital in his definition of stakes, it is argued that Clarkson’s approach although having capitalist underpinnings, cannot be considered as a purely capitalist viewpoint. Instead the notion of human capital necessarily connotes a social dimension stressing a greater focus on relationships within an organisational environment in addition to a resource based approach to identify actor importance (Freeman, 1984, Mitchell et al., 1997).

Prabhakar (1999) takes a similar stance in terms of identifying the notion of stakes. ‘Stakeholding’ is here connected to popular capitalism and ownership rights. He argues that in a political environment the development of self is understood in two ways: human and social capital (Prabhakar, 1999). This view considers a greater appreciation of the social ties formulated within a business environment. Like Clarkson (1998),

Prabhakar concentrates on economic development, “for stakeholders, stakes are the central mechanism for promoting human and social capital development” (1999: 177). However, as the majority of the public sector realm is more risk averse (Bozeman and Kingsley, 1998, Benz and Fürst, 2002) in its actions than the private sector, it is questionable whether a stakes as risk capital is a sufficiently valid conceptualisation for this research. Particularly given the focus on understanding stakeholder engagement and power with tourism policy development in an English seaside context – a context which is firmly rooted in the public sector

Although stakes have been equated with legitimate interests of stakeholders theoretical and empirical studies have been largely unsuccessful in identifying them (Wolfe and Putler, 2002). Thus the discussion of what a stake actually is also then necessitates a discussion of actor interest and motivation. As Swedberg (2005) has recognised, the concept of interest is mainly associated with an economic point of view (Rowley and Moldoveanu, 2003) as outlined by Clarkson and is not necessarily promoted as a sociological concept. Nevertheless the concept of interest often appears in sociological writings and may be of greater applicability to a public sector perspective which has more than just economic goals found in the private sector, due to being more risk averse. A problem connected to not only the sociological interpretation of interest, but also used in an economic context, is that the term interest and its meaning is taken for granted (Swedberg, 2005: 360). According to Swedberg (ibid) there are three different categories of interest in the sociological literature: (1) interest as *the* driving force in social life, (2) interest as one major force in social life together with other factors, and (3) interest as being of little or no importance.

The second conceptualisation of interest as one major force in social life is the most appropriate when looking at the role of interest in a tourism context. This is based upon the notion of stakeholders having different role sets²⁰ and that stakeholders are not only driven by their interest, but also by given structures and guidelines when making decisions and participating in social life. Within this category, Swedberg (2005) draws heavily on the literature of Max Weber and his description of interest-driven action and behaviour resulting from this. In this context Weber especially focuses on “areas of social life where interest, and primarily economic interest, plays a key role” (Swedberg, 2005: 373). For Weber, interests are closely associated with norms and emergent legitimacy. In connection with stakeholder theory, Weber’s three forms of associative relationships are of interest as these are often conflictual in nature and can provide an identification of the aspects relevant to the relationships between stakeholders in a particular setting.

Associative relationships are characterised by the notion that interests are rationally adjusted to one another or balanced against each other (*Vergemeinschaftung* versus *Vergesellschaftung*) (Swedberg, 2005: 376). He describes them as: “(1) market exchange (where compromises between opposed interests are common); (2) instrumental associations based on the material interests of the members (*Zweckverein*); and (3) associations devoted to a cause and of a value-rational nature (*Gesinnungsverein*)” (ibid). In connection with stakeholder theory it is the conflictual²¹ nature of the associative relationships that is important. Weber considers that these associative relationships are based upon opposing interests of different parties resulting in either compromise (market exchange) or continued opposition of interests

²⁰ Stakeholder role sets denote that stakeholders can belong to different groups or associations which may result in them having conflicting interests.

²¹ Conflictual is used here in the sense of opposing or differing perspectives, potentially conflicting with other’s or own perspectives, based on those characteristics of individuals (social background, education).

(instrumental Zweckverein). However, although conflictual in nature, associative relationships are communal to a certain extent and can provide an insight into the nature of the relationships stakeholders have with each other.

Frooman (1999: 194) believes that an unstated premise of stakeholder theory is conflict resulting from the opposition of the firm and its stakeholder's interests. Stakeholder theory can be seen as a method of identifying and managing potential conflict stemming from divergent interests. It is Frooman's belief that stakeholder theory derived its meaning when applied to a context of divergent interests and potential conflict. Practically this can cause tension when trying to balance conflicting or competing stakeholder interests (Elias et al., 2004).

Moreover, it is not only the different attributes as described above that play a major part in identifying stakeholders. In an organisational context it has been recognised that stakeholders have different 'role sets'. These different 'stakeholder role sets' imply that "many members of certain stakeholder groups are also members of other stakeholder groups, and *qua stakeholder in an organization* may have to balance (or not balance) conflicting and competing roles" (Freeman, 1984: 58, original emphasis). As a result, it is recognised that conflict is an underlying aspect of the relationships between stakeholders as these will have differing and often conflicting interests²² reflecting Weber's associative relationships. Furthermore, stakeholders will naturally belong to groups with differing stakes and interests which may diverge (Freeman, 1984: 58). Weber's associative relationships can provide a greater insight into this discussion on stakeholder interests.

²² Amooore (2000) coined the phrase of the 'contested firm', viewing a firm as a socially-contested environment, where consideration is given to the social power relations prevalent in an organizational environment. The firm is viewed as an embedded context measured on three levels: first, the state, the firm, and social power relations; second, social relations across the firm; and third, social relations within the firm (2000: 189).

Overall, the original theoretical framework for the nature of a focal firm (see Figure 2.1) does not consider the intra-, inter- and inter-intra-organisational relationships and processes that are active and present in any organisation and can therefore not be seen as a comprehensive approach. Varying processes and relationships within an organisation as well as between firms are vital for understanding the decisions made and the overall position of a firm in a marketplace. Buchholz and Rosenthal (2005) argue for understanding the corporation as a web of relations among stakeholders, thriving on change and pluralism. A key issue emerging from this discussion is the notion that stakeholder theory is not just relational but also situational. In other words, stakeholder theory and the applicability and validity of the stakeholder approach, is dependent on the context of the situation and choices and decisions that are made in that particular context (Freeman, 1984, Buchholz and Rosenthal, 2005, Simmons et al., 2005). Stakeholder actions do not exist independently of structure and are only relatively enduring, stressing a need for context.

Rowley and Moldoveanu (2003) developed an interest- and identity-based model of stakeholder group membership and mobilization which considers stakeholder's interests and how collective action emerges from an interest and identity perspective for stakeholder groups. Based on the notion of stakeholder role sets as discussed previously, the model is built on the interests and identities of stakeholders by which they can be affiliated with other stakeholder groups. The premise is that groups who have previously engaged in collective action are more likely to mobilize to influence a focal organisation than stakeholder groups who have not done so in the past (Rowley and Moldoveanu, 2003). Previous engagement in collective action stresses the importance of the experience of the stakeholders and their longevity within a particular

environment for stakeholder action. This is particularly relevant when historically analysing stakeholder relationships and how this relates to an individual actor's influence in a network. However, the influence of stakeholder groups is dependent on the surrounding contexts of relationships, while interest overlap or divergence across stakeholder groups, also influences stakeholder actions. Rowley and Moldoveanu's (2003) model is a first step in looking more closely at those aspects which may contribute to stakeholder engagement and action but has been approached from a stakeholder group perspective and in a focal firm context. Collective action is at the centre of the model but consideration is not given to those particular elements that can help understand why individual stakeholders are motivated to engage, and ultimately how a stakeholder's power can be defined, which is central to this research.

Considering stakeholder conflict or divergent stakeholder interests can illustrate *how* and *why* stakeholders exert pressure in accordance with their interests or engage with tourism policy development (Frooman, 1999). Stakeholder theory therefore attempts to reconcile these divergent interests where Weber's associative relationship types can assist in identifying stakeholder relations and how this affects stakeholder saliency.

By enhancing Freeman's (1984) original model through a consideration of the nature of the influence that stakeholders have upon an organisation, or as in this case, stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development, it will assist in identifying relationships between agents within this stakeholder network. Due to the limited application of stakeholder influence strategies in a tourism context, these will first be explored within their original 'firm' context prior to considering the value of using this framework in seaside resorts.

2.7 Stakeholder Influence Strategies

Stakeholder influence strategies consider the extent of the influence of a stakeholder in affecting a firm's decision making and behaviour. Frooman (1999) developed a typology of stakeholder influence strategies which describes and aims to identify what type and which power relations exist between different actors by merging stakeholder theory with resource dependency theory. According to Sharma and Henriques (2005), stakeholder influences can be defined as having a resource dependency background where influences can either be direct or indirect depending on the resource interdependence between the focal firm and the stakeholder (Frooman, 1999) or based upon the position of the firm in the stakeholder network (Rowley, 1997). However, considering the focus on stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development in a seaside resort context, the resource dependency focused approach as described by Sharma and Henriques (2005) is limited, as it does not satisfactorily reflect the dynamics of stakeholder relationships in a seaside resort environment. Moreover it does not provide a sufficient account for determining actor motivations and their reasons for engaging with tourism policy development.

As previously identified, factors such as experience, time, relations and situations have a major impact upon stakeholder influences and need to be included in developing a framework based on stakeholder theory in connection with tourism policy development in seaside resorts. Frooman's (1999) framework considers a multi-actor relationship perspective to stakeholder theory which again is a movement away from a traditional 'hub-and-spoke' conceptualisation with dyadic interactions in Freeman's (1984) original text. The typology of influence strategies is based upon the different resource dependencies that can be identified between stakeholders and the original focal firm (see Figure 2.3 below).

Is the firm dependent on the stakeholder?	Is the stakeholder dependent on the firm?	
		NO YES
	NO	Indirect/withholding (low interdependence) Indirect/usage (firm power)
YES	Direct/withholding (stakeholder power) Direct/usage (high interdependence)	

Figure 2.3: Typology of Influence Strategies (Frooman, 1999: 200)

Although withholding and usage strategies seem to be similar in nature at first, these have different means of achieving a goal. Withholding strategies of a stakeholder are characterised as influencing a firm’s behaviour by withholding resources, whereas usage strategies also look at changing a firm’s behaviour to a certain extent, but by continuing to supply resources, whilst attaching conditions to the continued supply of those resources (Frooman, 1999). The dependency on the stakeholder from a firm perspective illustrates the type of influence the stakeholder has and their potential power in terms of influencing a firm’s decision making. This framework has been empirically tested by Tsai et al. (2005) in the context of stakeholder influence strategies in business downsizing in Taiwan.

Rowley (1997) considered stakeholder influences from a different perspective than Frooman (1999). Instead of considering resource dependency relationships between stakeholders and an organisation, Rowley utilises a social network theory approach. His approach uses “concepts from social network analysis to examine characteristics of entire stakeholder structures and their impact on organizations’ behaviours, rather than individual stakeholder influences” (Rowley, 1997: 887). More specifically he borrows and builds upon the concepts of density and centrality of networks found in social

network analysis. In this sense, the focus is on the density of the stakeholder network and the centrality of the organisation within the network to assess the influence of those aspects on the degree of resistance of the organisation to stakeholder demands. Whilst Frooman's (1999) work looks more closely at the actions of stakeholders in terms of using and withholding resources to the organisation, Rowley (1997) considers the organisation and its behaviour in resisting stakeholder pressures.

In the context of English seaside resorts it is argued that Frooman's (1999) stakeholder influence typologies are limited and too narrow in their approach from a resource dependency perspective. Rowley's (1997) framework is slightly more applicable for this study as a network approach, moving away from the traditional hub-and-spoke conceptualisation of stakeholder theory, provides greater consideration for the external environment as well as stakeholders. However, Rowley's focus on the organisation and how social network measures of density and centrality can influence an organisation's resistance to stakeholder pressures are not applicable to this study. Here the focus is not on the organisation, but varying interests and motivations of stakeholders that lead them to engage with tourism policy development. In this sense, Rowley (1997) is deemed more applicable as consideration is given to a more comprehensive view of the stakeholder-firm relationships including not only the organisation and its stakeholders but also that of the wider external environment in which stakeholders act or are positioned. With the focus on understanding stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development, resource dependency relations as advocated by Frooman (1999), do not provide an opportunity to consider those more inherent elements which are of importance to individual stakeholders and encouraging them to actually engage with the tourism policy development activity. The role of stakeholders in terms of their influence necessarily includes an 'interest' dimension as their interests can determine their

saliency within a policy environment, as outlined by Swedberg (2005). Although stakeholders form part of the complex structure of the resort and its policy environment, there is a lack of approaches which consider a greater understanding of stakeholder motivations to engage with tourism policy development.

From the literature review it emerges that the most widely adopted stakeholder theory models or frameworks are that of Freeman's (1984) original conception of the stakeholder model as 'hub and spoke'; Donaldson and Preston's (1995) description of the three dimensions of stakeholder theory: descriptive, instrumental and normative; Mitchell et al.'s (1997) stakeholder salience framework which can be deduced by the concepts of power, legitimacy, and urgency; and Rowley's (1997) endeavour to bring in a network approach to stakeholder theory development. Given that the works of Rowley and Mitchell et al. are more than a decade old, it appears that there is not only a lack of empirical testing of seminal works of Freeman, Donaldson and Preston, Mitchell and Rowley, but that also researchers in the stakeholder theory field seem to have blindly adopted some of the frameworks without appropriately testing them empirically (Lepineux, 2005, Mainardes et al., 2011).

Recent studies in developing stakeholder theory have been concerned with a variety of issues and concepts. Lepineux (2005) for example considers the recognition of social cohesion and the inclusion of society in normative stakeholder theory development. He argues that currently the normative dimension does not take into account the role of civil society as a stakeholder, where civil society is the nationwide society, i.e. the nation itself. It is one attempt of addressing the weakness of stakeholder theory described earlier in that the term 'stakeholder' and entities which can be classed as stakeholders remain ill-defined.

Reynolds et al. (2006) look more closely at the constraints and implications of individual managerial decision-making in terms of balancing diverse stakeholder interests, rather than looking at decision-making at the organisational level. The concept of balancing stakeholder interests is based on “how managers distribute scarce resources among those with claims on the organization” (Reynolds et al., 2006: 285). In a two level study, research suggests that as individuals, managers are inclined to balance stakeholder interests but are constrained by “the divisibility of resources and the relative saliency of stakeholders” (Reynolds et al., 2006: 292). The divisibility of resources refers to the cost of the actual division of the resource, i.e. the transaction cost of selling the commodity and splitting of the revenue, as theoretically it is possible to divide most commodities. The relative saliency of stakeholders is based on Mitchell et al.’s (1997) stakeholder saliency framework, building upon the power, legitimacy, and urgency of stakeholders’ claims on the organisation. In this sense, the relative saliency of stakeholders as well as the divisibility of resources has an influence upon how a manager will make decisions when balancing stakeholder interests.

Ford (2005) specifically looked at power and organisational change by considering the concept of stakeholder leadership. Based upon the leadership literature, Ford concludes that previous stakeholder leadership models were based on sovereign power in which the leader is at the centre and holds power or delegates power, which can be seen as a classical power understanding of the ‘power over’ (Kearins, 1996). As an alternative he proposes the ‘power to’ more in an organisational leadership context, in that empowering employees has greater benefits for the organisation and organisational change in the long term (Ford, 2005). This framework was empirically tested in the context of a health-care organisation through the comparison of a previous CEO with

the practices of the current CEO. The comparison concludes that a more empowering reciprocal-relational power is beneficial for managing change in an organisational setting.

Similar to Rowley (1997), Pajunen (2006) also considers stakeholder influences from a network based perspective. In fact he goes one step further in not only considering stakeholder influences from a network positioning perspective, but also argues that resource dependency relations can help in the identification of stakeholders. His stakeholder matrix model was constructed by looking at a historical analysis of an organisation during turnaround and survival, building upon the centrality of stakeholders within the organisation network and the resource dependencies between stakeholders. He is very clear that there are two constitutive elements in organisational survival based on stakeholder influence – direct resource-dependence power and network position based power, “which always form an interwoven whole”, denoting that they are interlinked (Pajunen, 2006: 1283).

Following the works of Rowley (1997) and Pajunen (2006) as described above, Luoma-aho and Paloviita (2010) further develop stakeholder theory in connection with a network based approach. They specifically use actor-network theory (ANT) as opposed to popular social network theory, as ANT helps in mapping stakeholders as well as “the non-human entities that affect the success of corporations” (Luoma-aho and Paloviita, 2010: 50). In other words, ANT in this context of corporate communications is useful as it assists in identifying issues and stakes as opposed to individual stakeholders or stakeholder groups. Their specific use of ANT is based on the increase of non-human entities, such as technology, infrastructure and political agendas, which are now

affecting corporations more and more. Stakeholders in this sense could include not only human stakeholders but also those non-human stakeholders.

Interesting for this study and further development of this study is the work of Escoubès (1999) who, through the use of environmental performance indicators (EPI), considers the value of stakeholders and their longevity over time. In particular, he argues that the area under study should be considered from a three-fold perspective: current stakeholders, strategic stakeholders and future stakeholders (Escoubès, 1999). Current stakeholders are defined as those that are “urgent but short-lived stakeholders”, strategic stakeholders are those that are “urgent and durable stakeholders”, and future stakeholders which are “not urgent but to be anticipated stakeholders” (Escoubès, 1999: 65). Although the ‘urgency’ attribute of the definitions could be interpreted as a nod towards Mitchell et al.’s (1997) framework of stakeholder saliency, it is the explicit mention of not only present stakeholders but also future stakeholders that is of interest. Given the focus on the attributes of current and strategic stakeholders can therefore provide some insight into the attributes of future stakeholders. There could be scope to practically provide managers and decision makers with some indication of how to develop further stakeholder identification and management in their area. Although this is not a primary aim of this study, this will be discussed further in Chapter 8, Section 8.5.8.

In terms of positioning this study within the stakeholder theory literature, the focus is primarily on adopting and developing a stakeholder perspective as opposed to a traditional managerial perspective, taking greater account of stakeholders themselves. This addresses one of the concerns of the literature around the discrepancy over the definition of the actual term ‘stakeholder’ and how this can be utilised (Mainardes et al.,

2011). In essence, this study critiques one of the most prominent models in the stakeholder theory arena, that of Mitchell et al.'s (1997) stakeholder salience framework and proposes an alternative perspective of how stakeholder salience can be utilised in a stakeholder theory context. This especially refers to the linkage between positioning the study from a stakeholder perspective and the call for greater definition of the term stakeholder, and that of Mitchell et al.'s conceptualisation of power in determining stakeholder salience.

2.8 Stakeholder theory and the tourism literature

Stakeholder theory has been used in the tourism literature in a variety of contexts and from different perspectives. However, Nicholas et al. maintain that stakeholder theory uses in tourism are fairly recent and relatively limited in that the majority of stakeholder theory uses are based on stakeholder identification and “increasing collaboration in the tourism planning and development process” (2009: 392). The following paragraphs review some of those current uses of stakeholder theory in the tourism literature.

Ford et al. (2009) employed a stakeholder matrix approach to research management strategies for convention and visitors bureaus (CVB). In particular they considered stakeholder theory from a resource dependency perspective as popularised by Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) (see previous Section 2.5 for a brief review of resource dependency theory) in determining how resource control can help identify whether stakeholders can be regarded as either a ‘friend’ or ‘foe’ for the organisation. In this sense Ford et al. (2009) view power as resource based as control over organisations can be gained depending upon the allocation of resources by groups or other organisations. As with Mitchell et al. (1997) this type of resource based power does not take into account the aspects of individual stakeholders that are necessary for this study in determining

stakeholders and their interests and motivations. Parallels can be drawn between Frooman's (1999) stakeholder influence strategies based on controlling and withholding resources and Ford et al.'s (2009) framework.

Beritelli (2011) critiqued stakeholder theory and proposed considering cooperation between actors in a tourism destination. His critique is based on the notion that stakeholder theory falls short of addressing "why individuals, stakeholder groups and organisations cooperate or not", although some scope is given to considering the morals and values in managing an organisation by stakeholder theory (Beritelli, 2011: 610). In his empirical study he builds upon six different research theories in researching the cooperative behaviour in tourist destinations: game theory, rational choice theory, institutional analysis, resource dependency theory, transaction cost economies, and social exchange theory. He distinguishes between two levels of cooperative behaviour: formal, contract-based and informal, relation-based. The two levels reflect the structure and agency consideration that has been adopted for this research in building upon stakeholder theory, power and the interests and motivations of stakeholders to engage with tourism policy development, although the resource dependency power based approach used by Beritelli is not adopted in this study.

Nicholas et al. (2009) undertook empirical research into residents' perspectives in Piton's Management Area, St. Lucia which was awarded World Heritage Site status in 2004, based on the tenets of sustainable tourism development. Based upon Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework of legitimacy, Nicholas et al. (2009) looked more closely at identifying those legitimate stakeholders in the local area for the analysis followed by structural equation modelling of resident's attitudes.

Tkaczynski et al. (2010) used stakeholder theory in connection with developing a two-step approach to destination segmentation for marketing purposes. In this sense the market segmentation approach was used and stakeholder theory helped in identifying those stakeholders relevant to the destination and the appropriate market segments. It is argued that taking into account destination stakeholder perspectives as well as those of tourists visiting the destination can help develop more comprehensive marketing and development plans for the destination.

Byrd et al. (2009) build upon the literature of stakeholder perceptions of tourism impacts in two rural North Carolina counties. Their use of stakeholder theory focuses on the need to include various stakeholder groups in advancing sustainable tourism in those locations between four stakeholder groups: residents, entrepreneurs, government officials, and tourists. Their study is the first to take into consideration and compare perceptions of four stakeholder groups, whereas previous studies had focused on only one or two of those stakeholder groups (Byrd et al., 2009).

Timur and Getz (2008) employ the stakeholder approach to identify key actors in a sustainable urban tourism development context. They use social network analysis to help examine the interconnectedness of stakeholders within the urban tourism settings in three North American cities. Their stakeholder identification is based on Mitchell et al.'s (1997) stakeholder saliency framework but although Mitchell et al. base their stakeholder saliency on three attributes of stakeholders, power, legitimacy and urgency, Timur and Getz (2008) only use two of those attributes: power and legitimacy. They conclude that "destinations can no longer ignore various stakeholder concerns. [...], they are challenged to create a more participative model." (Timur and Getz, 2008: 458).

Byrd (2007) provides some insight into how stakeholders can be identified in the context of sustainable tourism development and planning. For tourism development to be successful the interests of all stakeholders need to be considered as advocated by the three dimensions of stakeholder theory (descriptive/empirical, instrumental, normative) by Donaldson and Preston (1995). For Byrd, and from a normative perspective, the identification of a stakeholder arises from the “stakeholder’s interests in the organization, not the organization’s interest in the stakeholder” (Byrd, 2007: 7). Byrd identifies four groups which need to be taken into consideration as stakeholder groups for sustainable tourism development: present and future visitors, present and future host community. There are two main types present – those stakeholders that are part of the present, and those that will form part of the future. Those stakeholders of the present are easier to identify and methods how to gain those inputs from stakeholders range from simple questionnaires and surveys to focus groups, public meetings and tourism advisory boards. Future stakeholders are more difficult to identify as planners are required to carefully monitor the demographic trends of not only the visitors but also those of the host community. By identifying those trends it is then possible to identify who may be a future stakeholder in terms of both visitors and residents of the host community. Although these four groups are suggested by Byrd (2007) he does not provide any framework or empirical evidence as to how this could be implemented and achieved practically. Instead he asserts that further research is needed to help address the practical applicability and outcomes. There is some parallel with the work of Escoubès (1999) in that Byrd considers not only present stakeholders but also future stakeholders which are of importance for development, which will be discussed further in Chapter 8.

Other examples of stakeholder theory uses in the tourism literature include the use of actor network theory (as used by Luoma-aho and Paloviita (2010) discussed previously) in connection with stakeholder collaboration in empirically investigating how stakeholder collaboration can be addressed in Cultural Districts (Arnaboldi and Spiller, 2011); a proposal to empirically investigate through the uses of business ethics, corporate social responsibility (CSR), the management of sustainable tourism in protected natural areas (PNAs) in New Zealand (Mitchell, 2006); a theoretical framework that considers how stakeholder power can influence the collaborative process of tourism destination branding in Australia (Marzano and Scott, 2006); and case study research into investigating the value of a collaborative tourism planning approach in a developing country in Cusco, Peru by identifying stakeholder groups and the barriers and constraints to collaborative tourism planning (Ladkin and Bertramini, 2002).

2.9 Summary

This chapter has outlined some of the underlying concepts of this study, providing an overview of tourism destinations, tourism policy literature, English seaside resorts, and stakeholder theory. As such, the literature review has sought to present those issues in the context of the research problem introduced in Chapter 1. To summarise, it is proposed to adopt Laws' (1995) open systems model of a destination in this study to provide a framework in which this research can be seen. In this sense, the destination region is the focus in which action occurs. A review of the policy literature has shown that issues persist as to how tourism policy is being considered within government and those approaches which are the most commonly used in the literature. The focus of this research is on advancing the understanding of stakeholder power and their engagement in tourism policy development. Theoretically the concept of the policy cycle is limited. Thus this work considers the policy development process as a whole, looking more

closely at underlying motivations of stakeholders within a policy environment. Given a lack of approaches in the literature looking at a more contextual understanding of how stakeholders engage with policy development, combined with the struggles that are evident in the real world situation of how tourism policy is structured and organised in Britain, this research considers the use of stakeholder theory to address this shortcoming. Tourism policy organisation in Britain is rather fragmented and it has been recognised that greater involvement of agents is required.

Looking at the English seaside context helps position the study in the light of those issues and problems arising from the policy environment. Considering the challenges and problems seaside resorts are facing, which are often rooted in their history, and in response to calls for a more contextual consideration of policy processes within seaside resorts, this study is particularly concerned with looking more closely at stakeholder power and what motivates stakeholders to actually engage with tourism policy development. As discussed, stakeholder theory from a stakeholder perspective and not a managerial one as often used in the literature, is seen to help achieve this objective of understanding stakeholders and their reasons to engage. So although stakeholder theory is often concerned with a focal firm context which places the growth and profitability of an organisation at its centre, it is argued that aspects of stakeholder theory are applicable in a seaside tourism policy environment. This is due to stakeholder theory providing a measure to identify the actors involved, based upon their stakeholder salience and stakeholder role sets within this environment. It is the possibility to combine Laws' open systems model of a destination with that of stakeholder theory, in that the destination is the public space in which action takes place (i.e. considering the destination as the 'focal firm' in a metaphorical sense). This is especially relevant when considering various stakeholders within an English seaside resort and their reasons and

motivations for engaging with tourism policy development. Conceptually, stakeholder theory will be developed further in the following chapter in which the conceptual framework is presented.

Chapter 3

Conceptual framework

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conceptual framework of this study, focusing upon how different dimensions of power can be used to identify and clarify the role and interests and motivations of actors to engage with tourism policy development. This includes a discussion of structure and agency, as well as the theory of planned behaviour. Furthermore, power is discussed and how this can help address a better, more comprehensive perspective of stakeholder theory and in understanding stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside resort context. In particular, this chapter seeks to address research objectives two, three and four as outlined in Chapter 1, Section 1.2.

3.2 Structure and Agency

Considering the focus on the power of individuals and their engagement with tourism policy development, exploring the structure and agency dialogue provides a broader framework for the discussion of the relevance of structures and agents, and ultimately power, in tourism policy. As indicated in the introduction in Chapter 1, there remains the challenge of reconciling human behaviour within concurrent forms of socio-economic structure in social science, although in reality, this reconciliation is often achieved. There has been much recent debate on this topic in both natural sciences and in social sciences, as researchers struggle to grasp the shifting relevance of individuals within societal structures (Lewis, 2002, Fleetwood, 2005, Lewis, 2005, Mutch, 2005, Bates, 2006, Leca and Naccache, 2006) and challenging an often traditional deterministic view. This struggle for conceptual clarity has been directed by concerns

over the scope of inclusion of the range of actors in society, their recognition and emancipation. There is a search for approaches that facilitate deeper understanding of actor motivations and reasons for strategic choices in how and why they act, yet also reflect the apparent realities within which they exist and develop (Leca and Naccache, 2006), which is a focus of this work. For a tourism policy development perspective, such approaches are recognised as key for the development of understanding joined-up thinking and working and recognising greater partnership working particularly at the local level, though there have been few attempts of addressing this for a tourism policy context (Stevenson et al., 2008, Penrose, 2011).

This conceptual clarity in the approach to understanding actor motivations requires a reconsideration of the issue of the reconciliation of two often polar positions – that of the importance of human behaviour and structure, and is reflected in the continuing subjectivism and objectivism debate that calls for an intermediate positioning in terms of ontology and epistemology between these two positions. This chapter aims to highlight and discuss problems associated with definitions and different schools of thought inherent in this discussion. This challenge of reconciling the two positions has been termed by Hollis (1994) as the structure and agency dialogue and reconsiders the methodological stances of individualism, which looks at actors as individuals, and holism, which sees actors partially embedded in their social structure. It is the reconciliation of actors being socialised and the idea that the actions of agents are shaped by structure and vice versa that is key in the dialogue. However, a problem of this dialogue is to avoid succumbing to arguments of conflating structure over agency or agency over structure, or of attempting to merge both (Archer, 1982, cited by Leca and Naccache, 2006).

The structure and agency debate is essentially philosophical and mainly used to depict social reality (Dessler, 1989). The structure and agency dialogue can be seen to 'sit' between the broader research approaches of subjectivism and objectivism in terms of bridging the gap between these two polar viewpoints, suggesting a greater consideration of the causality of the actions of agents and structure. This focuses on how social reality is constructed of agency, the capacity of actors to act, and that of structure. Previously there has been too great a focus and conflation, upon either the given structural positions or the agency as found in the policy network literature (Sibeon, 1999, Marsh and Smith, 2000, 2001), political economy (Gamble, 1995), or international relations theory (Strange, 1991, Smith et al., 1996). Bramwell and Meyer (2007) are a notable exception in having approached the structure and agency approach in connection with tourism policy. Within the literature there has been a call for a dialectical interpretation and positioning of the structure and agency components (Marsh and Smith, 2000, Dépelteau, 2008). Moreover, Marsh and Smith (2000) claim that using one approach without the other is limited in its scope as these, by nature, are not mutually exclusive but interdependent.

Researchers have identified numerous interpretations of the so called structure and agency dialogue. Many of these interpretations and attempts of defining the structure and agency dialogue have given primacy to one approach over the other, i.e. favouring either structure or agency (Carlsnaes, 1992, Dépelteau, 2008). However, there has been some recognition that such approaches are limited (Carlsnaes, 1992, Roberts Clark, 1998). According to Carlsnaes (1992: 246), "human agents and social structures are in a fundamental sense interrelated entities, and hence we cannot account for one without invoking the other". Within the social sciences the concept of structure and agency is widely used but there remain difficulties in adequately defining what the terms mean as

outlined in the introduction (Layder, 1985, Sewell, 1992, Wight, 1999). The concepts of structure and agency are also interlinked, as will be discussed later, but there is a need to discuss both terms separately. Since the structure and agency debate considers a link between human activity and its social contexts, how this linkage can be understood and used in the context of this research are now presented in the following paragraphs. This is particularly important for this research problem in that it is proposed that stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development is determined by both structural (social contexts and structures) and agency (human activity) aspects.

Kaboub (2006), identifies that care needs to be taken of how this interdependence is viewed by the researcher, to both help avoid the conflation problem and to recognise the scope of potential causality in actors' decision making within their societal context. One ontological and epistemological response to this task, has been to recognise different but related levels of reality, with consequent mechanisms for identifying, sustaining and propagating knowledge. This is why Kaboub (2006: citing Bhaskar, 1998), stresses the limitations of a purely Weberian or Durkheimian view of reality, where in the former societal structures dominate and direct human activity and behaviour (voluntarism), whilst in the latter, individual behaviour and actions determine societal structures (reification). This is not however to deny the value of such singular perspectives. For example, the Weberian understanding of the dominance of reasons for motivations in individuals, can help develop a better conceptual model of how and why individuals may engage with specific policy structures. This is exemplified in the previously discussed associative relationships as advocated by Weber in Chapter 2, defining that people will act together for particular reasons or motivations, a notion further developed by Arendt discussed later in this chapter in Section 3.3.2. Within the related levels of reality it is a requirement to ensure that the response to this problem of conflation

remains open and representative of all the potential sources for change within a given environment (Bates, 2006, Leca and Naccache, 2006, Dépelteau, 2008).

3.2.1 Structure

Given the research problem concerned with understanding the power of stakeholders and their engagement with a tourism policy environment, a difficulty remains with the definitions of structure in the literature. The discussion of the research problem and its context stressed the need to focus upon structures, though this remains inadequately defined.

Sewell (1992: 3) has identified three problems relating to the use of the structure concept in social sciences discourse which he describes as the following: first, structures are reified, considered as primary, hard and immutable, where these are impervious to human agency. The notion of structure²³ is important in the social sciences as it also conveys social relations between actors: “the tendency of patterns of relations to be reproduced, even when actors engaging in the relations are unaware of the patterns or do not desire their reproduction” (Sewell, 1992: 3). Thus structures exist apart from but have a determining influence on the shape of the transactions which constitute the surface of social life (Dépelteau, 2008, Marquis and Battilana, 2009).

Second, considering structure in the above sense makes dealing with change difficult, as the very perception of the structure concept implies stability. This is contradictory as on

²³ Unsuccessful attempts have been made to paraphrase the term by using synonyms such as ‘pattern’. However, it is claimed that such synonyms lack the power of the original term used (Sewell, 1992). Synonyms do not carry the same weight as the original term as these are often value laden terms with their own meanings attached to them. Individuals perceive words differently and by using a synonym such as ‘pattern’ in place of the term ‘structure’, the word loses its meaning in that particular context. This is particularly significant when referring to relations that are deemed powerful or important as will be discussed in the context of a tourism policy environment while taking into account individual’s motivations and intents to perform a behaviour (e.g. in this case engaging with tourism policy development).

one hand structure conveys stability but then the question arises how this stability can change over time (Sewell, 1992). Third, the term structure is used in a contradictory sense within social sciences, especially with reference to sociology and anthropology. In the sociological realm, structure is considered as a contrast to culture, where structures are termed hard and material (primary), and culture termed soft and mental (secondary). In anthropology, culture is conceived as being a pre-eminent component of structure, where structure is assumed to refer to culture except when this is modified by the adjective 'social'. Given different sociological approaches and the differences in how culture can be perceived, it is necessary to be clear about how the term structure is construed for this research focus on tourism policy development.

Overall, two dominant ontologies have emerged in social theory, through a consideration of what structure and agency are: methodological individualism and methodological structuralism (Wight, 1999). Previous accounts of attempting to shed light onto the so called structure and agency debate, have either favoured a methodological individualist or methodological structuralist position, reflecting the previous discussion on two polar approaches that have emerged in the literature. The concept of methodological individualism is connected to the work of Max Weber, in determining that social outcomes are explained in terms of individuals without the need to give consideration to structures (Wight, 1999) – “the whole is defined by adding up its parts” (Thiele, 1997: 76), the parts being individuals. To that effect, it is argued by Weber that society exists only through the actions of individuals, and although he does not deny the existence of social collectivities, these are in no way reified, which can be interpreted as soft structures, which are changeable by actors. For Weber collectivities are “*solely* the resultants and modes of organisation of the specific acts of individual men, since these alone are for us the agents who carry out subjectively understandable

action” (Weber, 1968: 13, original emphasis). In other words, it suggests a world devoid of social determinants (Wight, 1999). The individual is viewed as the primary source of social order, resulting in the view that all conceptions of the link between agents and social structure are ultimately reduced to explanations in terms of individual action (Carlsnaes, 1992: 249).

Methodological structuralism on the other hand favours a focus on a structural condition or the context of social action, a perspective linked to Durkheim and Althusser (Wight, 1999). Structure determines social life and as opposed to methodological individualism, methodological structuralism presents a world devoid of creative agents. In the words of Althusser “[the] structure of the relations of production determines the places and functions occupied and adopted by the agents of production, who are never anything more than the occupants of these places, insofar as they are the supports (Träger) of these functions” (Althusser, 1970, cited in Wight, 1999). Interestingly, Wight (1999) criticises the divide in the structure and agency discussion by equating methodological structuralism and methodological individualism to a blank cheque for researchers, indicating that outcomes are either structures or agents. Instead it has been recognised that “agents do not act in structural vacuums but that human beings are the only moving forces in the social world” (Wight, 1999: 115). It is here where he claims that in order to act in the social world, agents must draw on some antecedent materials, i.e. structures. In other words, the structure and agency debate is not mutually exclusive but interdependent, a perspective which is adopted in this work.

Structuralist approaches have been greatly influenced by Saussure and his focus on linguistics. From his perspective, the use of language is determined by two things: langue (language as a system of forms or signs) and parole (actual speech made possible

by the language) (Goodin and Pettit, 1993, Ashenden, 2005). For Saussure words are related to meanings where Saussure fittingly claims that the association between a particular 'signifier' (a word considered as sound or inscription) and its 'signified' (meaning) is arbitrary. This is due to the notion that, for example, different languages employ different 'signifiers' for the same 'signified'. Translations are therefore often difficult and sometimes even impossible due to different languages having different meanings for particular words. Furthermore, it is the case that words change their meaning as language evolves (Goodin and Pettit, 1993). These two components are interlinked and the concept of structural linguistics is comparable to that of social structures in structuralist thought. Social structures are not considered to be intentional products of human subjects, instead these are complex systems existing prior to these subjects. These have their own specific rules, whether these are modes of production, kinship systems, or elements of the unconscious, reflecting the works of Marx and Levi-Strauss (Ashenden, 2005). Social structures and structural linguistics can be compared in the following way: Taking up the notion of signifiers and signified it can be said that different agents (signifiers) will have different levels of awareness of existing structures (signified). This is dependent upon agents' backgrounds and their social milieu along with a multiplicity of other factors shaping the agents and the structures they are subjected to in their social environment. For a tourism policy context this emerges in stakeholders' length of involvement in tourism, as well as their relations within the industry and local environment, which can shape how tourism policy development is viewed and perceived by stakeholders (i.e. the signifiers are shaped by signifieds).

Carlsnaes (1992) offered a warning in making either structure or agency the sole primitives and to revert to reducing one to the other in that "such pure methodological holism or individualism would rule out an obvious interplay" (Hollis and Smith, 1994:

242). For the research problem focusing on understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development, both of these extreme ontological positions, methodological individualism and methodological structuralism, are rejected. Instead a more intermediate position is deemed appropriate in the discussion of the structure and agency debate. This is based on the need for a greater involvement of actors in tourism policy making as recognised in the request for greater public/private partnership approaches in tourism (Penrose, 2011). An intermediate approach reflects the need to include actors as well as their social setting to gain an understanding of stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development.

From a philosophical perspective, structure has been discussed extensively, especially in structuralist and post-structuralist movements. Although the word 'structure' is inherent in both schools of thought, it is perceived in very different ways. In a very broad and general sense the main and very important distinction is that in structuralist thought, structure is thought to be persistent over time, whereas in post-structuralist thought, there is a rejection of the notion that structures exist over time. In effect post-structuralism is an extension of structuralism where it was realised that structuralism did not provide the scope for including some aspects of reality and how the world is seen. Post-structuralists look for hidden meaning and emphasise plurality in the world we live in, making this a very subjective interpretation (Radford and Radford, 2005). Key writers associated with structuralism are Levi-Strauss and Saussure, whereas post-structuralism is often associated with the works of Foucault, Derrida, Barthes, and Kristeva (Ashenden, 2005). However, it is beyond the scope of this thesis to provide a detailed account and description of structuralist and post-structuralist movements. For a tourism context, structuralist and post-structuralist approaches can provide some much needed insight into how "contextual factors limit and shape the behaviour of individuals

and groups” for tourism research (Davis, 2001: 129). In the tourism literature these approaches are, for example, used by tourism geographers, to identify how tourists move around a destination from a spatial perspective (Davis, 2001), or how places can become imbued with attributes and meanings (Cosgrove and Domosh, 1993). More recently examples include tourism environments and how symbols and power relations can alter tourists’ perceptions and behaviour (Cheong and Miller, 2000, Ryan et al., 2000). For this study in particular, structures form one aspect of understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development.

The key characteristic of structuralism is a belief that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts, meaning that society is more than a collection of individuals (Thiele, 1997). In other words, social structures have qualities and features that cannot be reduced to the mere sum of such similar qualities and features which are held by individuals – there are other forces which need to be taken into account²⁴. Social structures largely determine how individual members of a society behave and interact. However, there are also observable regularities within the social world which influence how individuals act, such as rate of employment, income curves, matrimonial laws, class, race and gender hierarchies (Thiele, 1997: 77-78). These are rigid in the sense that although individuals are affected by these regularities they cannot alter them, except, it can be argued, over a period of time and with sustained action. They influence an individual’s behaviour and contribute to an individual’s identity. In tourism policy development regularities such as tourism strategies or government guidelines, as well as funding streams are examples of how such structural influences shape tourism stakeholders and have an impact upon how they act.

²⁴ Durkheim (cited in Thiele, 1997) explains this concept further by using a biological metaphor by comparing a living cell to society. Thiele expands Durkheim’s biological metaphor and maintains that although a living creature such as a fish is made up of various minerals, a fish itself is more than a mere combination of various minerals – the whole (i.e. the fish) is greater than the sum of its parts (i.e. the minerals).

Bourdieu has extended this line of thinking and argued that “individuals internalize as ‘mental dispositions’ and ‘schemes of perception and thought’ the organization of their external reality” (Thiele, 1997: 78). This external reality Bourdieu terms ‘habitus’ and is closely linked to what he also terms ‘field’. ‘Field’, can best be described as a network of social arrangements that embody and distribute positions and relations of power. Moreover, ‘field’ consists of a set of objective, historical relations between positions anchored in certain forms of power (or capital). Similarly, ‘habitus’ consists of a set of historical relations ‘deposited’ within individual bodies in the form of mental and corporeal schemata of perception, appreciation, and action (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 16). One’s habitus then, as composed by one’s mental structures, reflects the social structures which are inherent in the fields in which one participates (Thiele, 1997). In other words, habitus and field designate bundles of relations (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 16).

Often the participation in social fields is unconscious to the human mind as there is only indirect evidence for their existence, in other words, they are primarily known by their effect, i.e. in how they pattern behaviour (Lechte, 1994, Thiele, 1997). However, although social structures largely remain undetected by those they affect, they nevertheless constrain or enable the relations of individuals without those individuals becoming aware of them. Since their focus is on the behaviour of other individuals, the social structures surrounding them are not necessarily perceived. Bourdieu, in following Durkheim, maintains that these structural configurations of social structures are *sui generis*, meaning that these are unique entities unto themselves, and are not simply the sum of individual actions (Thiele, 1997). For this study, such a conceptualisation provides a much needed background in helping understand how actors/stakeholders are

influenced not only by their surroundings (society) but also that they have unique attributes which contribute to society and how this may shape their power and engagement with tourism policy development.

To overcome the current conceptual problems around structure, Giddens (1984) is widely quoted. Giddens' theory of structuration is an attempt to define structure in a more comprehensive fashion. Structuration abandons the *dualism* of structure and agency in favour of a *duality* of structure²⁵ (Layder, 1985, Dépelteau, 2008). From Giddens' perspective, structures shape people's practices but it is also these very practices that constitute and reproduce structures (Sewell, 1992). However, as with many attempts of defining structure, Giddens' conceptualisation is underspecified²⁶: "Rules and resources, recursively implicated in the reproduction of social systems. Structure exists only as memory traces, the organic basis of human knowledgeability, and as instantiated in action" (Giddens, 1984: 377).

A further difficulty with the definition of 'structure' is the very close similarity to the definition of 'system' used in the social sciences as identified by Giddens. From a definitional perspective, structure refers to the deep and unobservable rules and resources, whereas system refers to the surface and observable patterns of reproduced social relations (Layder, 1985). This distinction displaces any concern with the prior conditions or constraints upon agency and can be seen as being a post-structural

²⁵ *Dualism*: the theory based on the existence of two opposite principles, eg good and evil, in all things

Duality: the condition of having two main parts or aspects

²⁶ The terms used in this definition are vague and need further explanation, particular with such value laden terms as rules and resources, but even this further explanation brings problems of definitions for the discussion. In his attempt to develop a theory of structure, Sewell (1992) suggests to replace the ambiguous term 'rules' with 'schemas' since the term 'rules' tends to imply formally stated prescriptions which is not the concern of his theory of structure, although he had previously argued not to use synonyms as they lack the power of the original term. However, the term 'schemas' softens the meaning of the term 'rules' which has structural underpinnings and formal connotations. Sewell's conceptualisation of structure, like Giddens', is dynamic and not static as these are "constituted by mutually sustaining cultural schemas and sets of resources that empower social action and tend to be reproduced by that action" (1992: 27).

thought. The complexity of the term structure is highlighted by the prior distinction between structure and system thereby weakening the idea of structural (contextual) constraints, which obscures the notion of the existence of structures and systems in time and space. Both structures and systems do not exist in time and space but only exist in so far as they are created and recreated in every encounter. There is a need for historical, objective, relatively enduring social factors (Layder, 1985). In other words, for relations to be *reproduced* by agents, it is necessary that these have been *produced* in a historical sense. However, it has been critiqued in a tourism policy context that Giddens does “privilege agency and displaces much of what is conventionally considered as “structure” into a thin account of “systems”, while others consider that he allows insufficient space for agency” (Bramwell and Meyer, 2007: 768).

3.2.2 Agency

Agency, like structure, is a much debated concept in social sciences and tourism research. The structure and agency discussion has tended to focus more on structure than on issues of agency (Wight, 1999, Fuchs, 2001) – a problem which is reflected in not only the quantity but also the quality of available discussions on of agency. As discussed previously the concepts of structure and agency are interlinked viewing agency as a constituent of, and not opposed to, structure. The notion of agency is the dominant human element of this discussion and represents the involvement of actors in social relations in which one is enmeshed (Sewell, 1992). Agency arises from the actor’s knowledgeability of rules and is the ability to apply these rules to new contexts – in other words, it is their capacity to act. Using the terminology of Habermas in dividing society, Fuchs (2001) considers agency as the *micro* (lifeworlds) and structure as the *macro* (systems). He contends that individuals create and make their microworlds but

not their macroworlds, in that actors have the ability to act but that these actions are constrained by structural limits (Fuchs, 2001: 24). A key problem in the structure and agency debate is the assumption that agency, being opposed to structure, is without structure. Such a perspective tends to imply a conflation of structure and agency components.

Although it is claimed that all humans inhere a capacity for agency, there are different levels of agency. This is dependent upon the actor's social milieu and the cultural schemas and resources available in this milieu, meaning that agency is far from uniform, and is culturally and historically determined. Different social positions will necessarily have an impact upon the agency of an actor as these give actors access to different resources and therefore provide them with different possibilities for transformative action (Sewell, 1992). Sewell (1992) considers agency to be both collective as well as individual. This rests upon the notion that agency entails the formation of collective projects, through the actor's ability to coordinate one's actions with others and against others, as well as the ability of monitoring the simultaneous effects of one's own and other's activities. Agency characterises all persons but it is "laden with collectively produced differences of power and is implicated in collective struggles and resistances" (Sewell, 1992: 21), making this more accessible for some than others in respect of their interests.

Agency, reflecting the human component in the discussion and the different levels of it outlined above, raises the question in how far this is determined by actors' preferences

and interests. This is especially important considering the research problem of understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development²⁷.

Clark (1998) suggests that progress in bridging the gap between structure and agency is to be made by considering frameworks which aim at ‘problematizing’ both concepts. The underlying questions central to the discussion are identifying what drives human behaviour, and consequently where preferences come from (Clark, 1998). For the purpose of this work, it is deemed a mistake to give ontological primacy of one approach over the other. Instead the relationship between structure and agency is deemed reciprocal, where both aspects need to be taken into account to provide a more comprehensive understanding of relationships and individual’s intents and motivations to engaging with tourism policy development. Since the focus is on power, both structural and agency elements need to be considered in this work to develop a framework which will consider those attributes of power of stakeholders within an English seaside resort and policy development context.

In the research problem context of understanding stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context, the definition of a destination discussed in Chapter 2, provides the problematized context as advocated by Clark (1998). The adoption of Laws’ (1995) soft, open systems model of a destination also

²⁷ In a discussion on new institutionalism, Clark (1998) considers the way in which this approach handles the relationship between agents and structures, dividing the discussion into ‘structure-based’ and ‘agency-centered’ institutionalism. Structure-based approaches consider actors as “constituted by social structures which are constituted by the actions of these actors” thereby giving ontological primacy to structures (Clark, 1998: 245). Agency-centered approaches however, consider institutional structures as either a constraint on, or as the products of individual choices where, human agents are considered as ontologically primitive and institutions are viewed as structures that are created by goal-maximizing individuals (Clark, 1998). In terms of the influence of preferences of actors, structure-based institutionalists have emphasised the ways institutions shape the preferences actors hold, while agency-centered institutionalists have “treated preference formation as outside their domain and focused on the ways in which actors’ pursuit of their goals aggregate into social outcomes” (Clark, 1998: 266). Although this study does not focus on an institutionalist perspective, diving the two concepts in to agency centered and structure based approaches are transferable and can help understand the polar positions of structure and agency further.

helps in defining the setting for not only the conceptual discussion but also for a specific practical problem context. As such, the open systems model of a destination addresses not only structural aspects but also issues of agency, in that the model defines tourist generating regions, tourist destination regions, and the information flow between the two regions. In this sense, this study in particular, focuses on the seaside resort as the destination region and the relationships of stakeholders and their power in engaging with tourism policy development. Although this is a narrow approach, by the nature of the structure and agency debate, the two other aspects of the destination model, will also be taken into account, as such influences, whether from the tourists themselves or more structural influences such as legislations, will ultimately inform a stakeholder's opinion and shape their reasons and motivations for engaging with tourism policy development, although these may not manifest as primary influences.

3.3 Power

The discussion of power is one of the major topics in the social science literature. One problem in this discussion is the inconsistency in how power is defined and how often power is only considered from a negative perspective. This negativity is connected to considering power as being repressive, constraining, oppressive and dominating people and people's actions. However, in this study such negative conceptions of power are deemed too limiting. Power is considered here as being much more positive, in that the study aims to identify power in terms of action and how power can be enabling in terms of individual's interests and behaviour in tourism policy development, although it is acknowledged that power can be both negative and positive.

One primary interpretation is that power is a fixed and static relationship with one actor exerting pressure over another. From such a resource dependency perspective discussed

previously in Chapter 2, Section 2.5, power has been associated with resource control in a network (Rowley, 1997). Power is centred on critical and scarce resources, where these are defined in a changing and dynamic environment. “Power is, [...], determined by the definition of social reality created by participants as well as by their control over resources” (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978: 259). From a different perspective, Mitchell et al. consider power as being transitory in that it can be “acquired as well as lost” (1997: 866) in an approach to modelling stakeholder identity and salience as discussed in Chapter 2. In their approach, power, legitimacy and urgency are three key attributes of a stakeholder and Mitchell et al. argue that combinations of the three attributes can provide management with indicators of the amount of attention stakeholders should receive.

On a similar note, Foucault stresses (1984: 175, cited in McGovern and Mottiar, 1997), that “there is no power relation without the correlative constitution of a field of knowledge, nor any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time power relations”. For Foucault power and knowledge are so closely related to one another that they are inextricably linked. Furthermore, Foucault views power as a relationship rather than an entity where power flows in multiple directions, a notion which Cheong and Miller (2000) have considered through the omnipresence of power. As such, power is regarded as omnipresent as it is seen to be everywhere and that all situations embed power relations.

A dialectical view of power combining actors and their relationships seems appropriate for this work as will be discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs. It is argued that power is determined and shaped by relationships between agents while also being transient, where power is fluid and dynamic, flowing from one actor to another without

actually being ‘owned’ or ‘possessed’ by an individual actor. Hence, as resource relationships change over time due to external and internal influences within the given tourism policy environment, so does the relative power of each agent within that network.

There are a number of different power conceptions in the literature and two of the main approaches are a functionalist (or behaviourist)²⁸ conception and a radical structuralist conception of power (Kearins, 1996). These differ in terms of their focus and are examples of the mainstream debate between those that consider power as a property of agents and those who see power as a property of social structures, reflecting the structure and agency dialogue as discussed.

The functionalist conception is often commonly and implicitly associated with authority, influence and decision making, making power a reified construct. Such a reification of power is mirrored in the common conception that power can be possessed and is a commodity in that it can be acquired by individuals, shared and exchanged (Kearins, 1996). Dahl’s power definition of “A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something B would otherwise not do” (Dahl, 1957: 202-203), is one of the most common definitions found in the literature. It is a classical example of that of ‘power over’ rather than ‘power to’ in terms of the exercise of power (Simon and Oakes, 2006). Within the functionalist conception the focus is placed on the “intentions of individuals (agents) and on actual behaviours usually manifest in displays of authority”, making this too static considering that power relations are seen to be immediately observable in terms of their effects (Kearins, 1996: 7). It is perceived to be

²⁸ A ‘functionalist (or behaviourist)’ position will be referred to in this study as simply ‘functionalist’.

too static due to the focus on the displays of authority which conveys a negative image and perception of power.

Considering that this study is looking at a more comprehensive perspective of stakeholders in a tourism policy environment, a perspective which focuses only on authority is not sufficient. Such a perspective does not take into account the more human aspect of social relations and the empowerment of people, as opposed to the power over people. From a tourism perspective, functionalist approaches are relevant as they can denote how the tourism system operates, but fail to adequately identify the factors that structure and inform it. To address this shortcoming, functionalist approaches need to be supported by other approaches which take more consideration of the factors that inform the tourism system and explain the dynamics (Dann and Cohen, 1991).

Although power is considered to be a property of social relations, within a functionalist conception there is some criticism as to its execution. The criticism refers to the ignorance of the dependence of power on others for enactment if power is treated as an individual possession. Furthermore, the control of resources is commonly considered to be a means to attaining power, adding a tangible factor to the realm of power in the functionalist conception. For this work the functionalist perspective stresses the importance of the intentions of individuals and actual behaviours. There is some connection here to methodological individualism of Weber as discussed previously, in that the individual is at the centre but structures have to be recognised marginally. All structures have to be explained in terms of individual action, meaning that such an approach remains functionalist as primacy is given to the individual and not the structures per se. Although functional approaches have been linked to authority, in this

study functionalism refers to the focus on the importance of the intentions of individuals and actual behaviours in helping understand stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy.

At the other side of the debate on the nature of power is a radical structuralist conception of power which focuses on structural factors set within a system of values and beliefs. As opposed to a functionalist conception, power can be conceived as exercised by structures or systems rather than individuals (Kearins, 1996). In this sense then, power cannot be totally reduced to individuals' intentions. Parsons' (1968) perspective on power is a good example of a radical structuralist position. He considers power as a structural property present in society as a whole rather than in the individuals which make up society. Furthermore, power is not a property of social relations from this perspective. Giddens' theory of structuration (1984) is regarded as a less extreme illustration of a radical structuralist position than that of Parsons. Within Giddens' conceptualisation there is scope for at least some recognition of behaviourist traits, in that power is a property of interaction to secure or defend sectional interests. Although power is regarded as a structural element in institutional life, it is nevertheless produced and reproduced by the day-to-day communicative practices of its members (Giddens, 1984, Kearins, 1996).

Lukes (1974) attempted to shed more light onto the power discussion and how the less visible side of power can be brought into focus through three dimensions of power: the one-, two-, and the three-dimensional view, including elements of functionalist and structuralist notions of power. The one-dimensional view is concerned with the study of actual behaviour (observable overt conflict), e.g. behaviourism, whereas the second and third dimension consider a critique of the behavioural focus and consider decision- as

well as nondecision-making (observable overt or covert conflict), all based upon conflicts of interests among actors. In this sense, the one-dimensional view can be said to be the study of the ‘victor’ in decision making in conflicts of interest (as it is presumed that one is ‘powerful’). There is a “focus on *behaviour* in the making of *decisions* on *issues* over which there is an observable *conflict* of (subjective) *interests*, seen as express policy preferences, revealed by political participation” (Lukes, 1974: original emphasis).

The two-dimensional view is concerned with the ‘victim’ in decision-making in that it is a study of nondecision-making where one group dominates over another. Nondecision-making is “a decision that results in suppression or thwarting of a latent or manifest challenge to the values or interests of the decision-maker” (Bachrach and Baratz, 1970 cited in Lukes, 1974).

The three-dimensional view of power critiques the behavioural²⁹ focus of the first two dimensions in that they are too individualistic and is concerned with the study of why potential issues do not arise initially and are kept out of politics. In this scenario there may be no conflict to observe, which Lukes terms ‘latent conflict’ and describes an implicit reference to potential conflict based upon the contradiction of the interests of those exercising power and the real interests of those they exclude (Lukes, 1974). He critiques the way decisions are construed in the first two dimensions in respect of the political milieu. Decisions are choices which are consciously and intentionally made by an individual between alternatives. However, the “bias of the system [the political environment] can on its part be mobilised, recreated and reinforced in ways that are

²⁹ ‘Behavioural’ is used by Lukes in the narrow sense, meaning the study of overt and actual behaviour – and specifically concrete decisions (Lukes, 1974: 24).

neither consciously chosen nor the intended result of particular individuals' choices" (Lukes, 1974).

Whereas the one- and two-dimensional views of power are disregarded and critiqued by Lukes as being too behaviourist, the third-dimensional view counters these conceptions by introducing a structural consideration of power. His critique refers to the concrete and actual behaviour found in the one-dimensional model, such as that promoted by Dahl (1957) discussed previously, and the decision- and non-decision-making of the two-dimensional model. Lukes' three-dimensional model claims that the structure is not only sustained by individually chosen acts, but also by groups and institutions which are socially structured and culturally patterned and may be manifested in the inaction of individuals (Kearins, 1996). Although Lukes' three-dimensional model attempts to incorporate elements of the functionalist and radical structuralist conceptions, it does not capture the role of an individual to a satisfying extent for this research. Problematic here is his focus on the conflict of interests among actors, since it was indicated in Chapter 2 in the discussion of stakeholder theory, that conflict may not always be a contributing factor in understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development for this research context. For this reason, Lukes' models are not considered appropriate for this study.

Along with the issues outlined above, the main issue remains in the literature that many writers focus on a pluralist conception in which power is interpreted as negative. This collective view has been taken up and challenged by several authors who have critiqued such approaches, two which will be discussed in light of the research context and their applicability, are Michel Foucault and Hannah Arendt. Their power conceptions are deemed more appropriate conceptually for this study and problem context, as both

address aspects and shortcomings of the power discussion and can help in developing a more comprehensive model of power. Although this discussion is conceptual so far, there are direct links to the research problem context of tourism policy development within a destination, especially considering that the open systems model advocated by Laws (1995) not only reflects the broader structure and agency debate as discussed previously, but that it also accounts for both functionalist and structuralist perspectives and influences on the destination.

3.3.1 Foucault

As introduced in Chapter 1, Foucault critiques what he terms the juridical model, i.e. the ‘power over’. The juridical model views power as an “essentially negative power, presupposing on the one hand a sovereign whose role is to forbid and on the other a subject who must somehow effectively say yes to this prohibition” (Foucault, 1980b: 140). Foucault critiques this model because power is restricted to a limited sphere within social and political life (i.e. power is located in the hands of the sovereign). Inherent in such a viewpoint is the assumption that where individuals are out of the reach of the sovereign, they are free from power. However, Foucault aims to reverse this notion of power to consider power at the point of individuals and not from the sovereign’s perspective. In this sense then, power is to be considered at the extremities in its regional forms and institutions where power becomes capillary (Allen, 2003). Allen (2003) proposes an important disclaimer for Foucault’s position: he does not claim that there are not any forms of power in these central locations (i.e. the sovereign, the King), but merely that consideration should also be given to the peripheral areas. Considering this, broadens the scope of evidence of what may contribute to or consist of power in this research context of understanding stakeholder engagement in an English seaside context.

Foucault further critiques power as an essentially negative, repressive and prohibitive force. From this perspective the juridical model enables power never to be thought of in positive terms instead, refusal, limitation, obstruction, and censorship are associated with the juridical model – “power is what says ‘no’” (Foucault, 1980b: 139, Kearins, 1996). Foucault poses an important question in this context: Why would people obey something that says no? Instead he proposes that power “doesn’t only weigh on us a force that says no, but that it traverses and produces things, it induces pleasure, forms of knowledge, produces discourse” (Foucault, 1980d: 119). By doing so, he criticises the repressive model as too narrow. However, as Allen has outlined, Foucault does not say that power is never repressive, nor that repressive power is unimportant or uninteresting (Allen, 2003). It is an attempt of illustrating the different aspects of power. His response is the introduction of the disciplinary model which views power as diffuse and capillary, omnipresent, and both productive and repressive (Foucault, 1980c, Allen, 2003). Kearins (1996) goes so far to say that Foucault’s disciplinary power “structures activities spatially and temporally” resulting in power becoming internalised and partly invisible. Such a view of power is exemplified in the Panopticon³⁰ introduced by Jeremy Bentham (Colwell, 1994). The disciplinary model of Foucault is not to replace the juridical model but introduced to complement it.

³⁰ The Panopticon is an architectural example of disciplinary power (Colwell, 1994). Originally conceptualised as a prison building, the Panopticon is based upon a circular building with an open interior surface. At the centre of the building is an observation tower or observation point enabling the observer (originally a prison guard) to freely observe the prisoners while being invisible to the prisoners themselves. The invisibility of the observer is the key element of the Panopticon, in that in reality “no observer is in fact necessary since the prisoner must always assume he/she is being watched” (Colwell, 1994). So, by the fact that there is the potential of being observed, the prisoners on their part produce a guard themselves. However, although the observer is invisible, there still remains a visible power – the building itself (Colwell, 1994). In this sense then, the fact that the building is there, incorporates a new interpretation of power as control, although this may be invisible, individuals in part control their behaviour themselves through the potential of being watched.

Further, Allen (2003), drawing upon Foucault, claims that sovereign power has not disappeared completely but has merely changed form to become democratised: “no longer vested solely in the person of the King, it has been democratized, transformed into the foundational and legitimating power of the people, a power that is codified in the principle of popular sovereignty” (2003: 134). However, this is contradictory to Foucault’s critique of the juridical model as such democratisation conceals the disciplinary power that is present. According to Allen’s view of Foucault, this solicits the combination of the juridical and disciplinary model, recognising that power is both productive and repressive, both enabling and constraining. In fact, Allen goes so far as to say that the intertwining of the productive and repressive aspects of power is the key in understanding the relationship between power, subjectivity and agency in Foucault’s work.

A further criticism of the juridical model is that it presupposes that an individual subject/agent is a fully formed, stable and unified entity (Gordon, 2002). However, Foucault argues that individual subjects/agents do not come into the world fully formed; instead they are constituted in and through a set of social relations, which in turn, are imbued with power, which has been termed subjectivity. In other words, humans are situated in and limited by a social context, while at the same time being constituted by the context, which in itself is an effect of power (Gordon, 2002). It is a reciprocal and dynamic relationship. Power then, is key in the formation of individuals and is not “a commodity, a position, a prize, or a plot” (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1983: 185), a perspective, which is at the heart of the work of Hannah Arendt (see Section 3.3.2).

Foucault considers power being bidirectional operating both from top down and bottom up (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1983, Kearins, 1996). Such a perspective is important for

this research problem context, as the tourism policy environment is still considered to be more of a top down process arena, guided by government, national and regional tourism bodies, although it has been recognised to advance more public/private sector involvement and a greater consideration of the private sector within policy development (Penrose, 2011). From a bottom-up perspective then, even though power comes from below and individuals are enmeshed in power relations, Foucault suggests that there is some scope for domination³¹. However, “domination is not the essence of power” (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1983: 186). Foucault does clarify this understanding and the distinction between power and domination further as he claims that “power is not to be taken to be a phenomenon of one individual’s consolidated and homogenous domination over others, or that of one group or class over others” (Foucault, 1980c: 98). Power is something that circulates, or functions as a web as opposed to being static and inherent within an individual. It is not a commodity or localised, but exercised through a net-like organisation (Foucault, 1980c). Considering power as a net or web does clarify the nature of power as used in this research to a greater extent, as it captures a greater scope for power and what can contribute to power. Such a perspective is more relevant conceptually as the focus is placed upon collective and individual interests and resultant actions. Although Foucault himself has considered power as a chainlike function, such an interpretation can be limiting as it classifies power as a cause and effect phenomenon and as a chain would not be susceptible to any outside or unforeseen circumstances affecting the type or kind of power used. Foucault further maintains that “individuals are the vehicles of power, not its point of application” (Foucault, 1980c: 98) as individuals circulate between the threads of the net-like organisation while at the same time undergoing and exercising power. From this perspective an individual is not to be conceived of as an “elementary nucleus, a primitive atom, [or] a multiple and inert

³¹ Domination is used here in the classical understanding of one individual having an influence over another.

material on which power comes to fasten” (Foucault, 1980c: 98). The subjectivity of individuals is a key element of power, once more reflecting the importance of a dialectical understanding of structure and agency in this context (Allen, 2003).

Subjectivity therefore plays an important role in Foucault’s power conception in that power is a condition for the possibility of individual subjectivity. Individuals are subjected in a dual sense. On one hand they are subjected to the complex, multiple, shifting relations of power in their social field, and on the other, individuals are enabled to take the position of a subject in and through those relations at the same time (Allen, 2003). This notion of subjectivity as advocated by Foucault reflects in part the work of Saussure as discussed previously, in that different agents are signifiers who will have different levels of awareness of those existing structures in which they live (signified), due to different backgrounds and other factors within their social environment. There is a thin line between subjectivity and agency and Foucault is not clear in his work with the distinction between the two. However, Allen proposes that subjectivity is a precondition for agency: “One cannot have the ability or capacity to act without having the ability or capacity to deliberate, that is, without being a thinking subject” (2003: 135). Interestingly, Foucault considers power relations to be intentional in so far as there is no power exercised without a series of aims and objectives, where power is, in effect, calculated (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1983).

One problem with Foucault and his conceptualisation of power is that there are contradictions and inconsistencies in his definitions and use of terms. Dreyfus and Rabinow (1983), for example, contend that Foucault’s power relations are “intentional and non-subjective”, clearly contradicting an earlier discussion of the importance of subjectivity in his work as discussed in the previous paragraph. However, it is only after

closer examination of the terms that it appears that the non-subjectivity discussed by them, refers to external enablers or constraints which are not implied by a subject. Dreyfus and Rabinow (1983: 187) clarify this by using an example of a local political situation. They claim that there is often a high degree of conscious, i.e. volitional decision making (to account for the intentionality) but in some cases, although the aims are clear in terms of decision making, there often is “no one there to have invented them” (the non-subjectivity). They further raise the question how intentionality can be talked about without a subject. The practices that are at the centre of decision making are often historically determined and external to the subjects over which they have no direct influence or control. Thus, even though Foucault claims that power relations are intentional and non-subjective, it appears that in fact, the non-subjectivity does have a subject at its base. However, a subject may not have a direct influence or effect upon it.

Considering the power conception of Foucault as potentially useful for shaping a better view of power and how individuals may be motivated to engage with tourism policy development in an English seaside context, raises some interesting and challenging points. The main problems with Foucault’s work on power are the inconsistencies and contradicting arguments he has proposed in places. Although Foucault does critique the juridical model as commonly found in pluralist conceptions from a functionalist perspective and attempts to bridge the gap between a functionalist and a structuralist position, issues remain. These refer to the role of an individual within his interpretation of power. Although Foucault considers the position of an individual in terms of his or her power to a certain extent, this is not sufficiently explored and developed for this research problem focus. Considering that Foucault has more of a post-structural

perspective³² of power, he does, unlike structuralists such as Parsons (1968) and Giddens (1984) discussed previously, account for some degree of autonomy and power attributed to the individual. There is some scope for example, in this work, to consider the longevity of an individual in society and how individuals have been and are continuously shaped by their historical background and interaction with others in their social life. Understanding a post-structural conception of Foucault can highlight some of the shortcomings and advantages of such an approach for this research, particularly in illustrating the interplay between agency and structure in stakeholder power in tourism policy.

Another aspect such as considering visibility as a form of control in his disciplinary power conception is limited for this research, as the visibility of an individual in this work is argued to be a driver of an individual's behaviour and intent to engage in particular situations. This focus on the visibility of individuals is based upon the notion that individuals are part of society and therefore visible and active. The key issue in terms of visibility is the subjectivity of individuals, the being-with-others in the world. There is more scope to consider the position of individuals with respect to their visibility within the structural realms they occupy, as considered by Arendt. Such an interpretation of visibility further helps in developing the conceptual model of this research.

3.3.2 Arendt

Similar to Foucault, Arendt has critiqued what she terms the “command-obedience” model of power which is prevalent in the power literature. Whilst Foucault has a more

³² Foucault is often classed as being a post-structural thinker (Goodin and Pettit, 1993). This refers to him critiquing the structuralist tradition in that post-structuralists go beyond accepting structures as the element which constructs society but that events and individuals need to be considered in the context of their surroundings.

post-structural understanding of power, as discussed above, Arendt has approached power in the sense of a political understanding. For instance, areas such as the public and private realms provide important insights into her understanding of, what she terms, the social and the political (Arendt, 1998, Allen, 2003).

Arendt critiques the command-obedience model as this static understanding of power has in fact concealed the original meaning of action and power, where action is often identified as the execution of the ruler's commands (Sawicki, 2002, Allen, 2003). Arendt's critique stems from the fact that the model has led to the reification of messy and uncertain political environments into "a calm stability of the rule of some over others" (Allen, 2003: 136). From Arendt's perspective, power is made up of different components which are interrelated and complement each other. Arendt considers power as being an empowerment *of* people as opposed to power *over* people (Kearins, 1996, Arendt, 1998, Gordon, 2001, 2002, Allen, 2003). She rejects the notion of power being equated to sovereignty and dominion in the current classical interpretations of the terms.

Considering the role and positions of humans in the world from Arendt's perspective, provides a deeper insight into how she interprets power. There are two key concepts to consider for this perspective – firstly, human plurality consists of two interrelated conditions. For example, on one hand, plurality is the human condition of being with others in the world, and on the other, it emphasises the duality of human existence (Arendt, 1998). The duality of human existence denotes that all individuals, as humans, are the same, while at the same time each individual is a unique being. In other words, plurality can be seen as a basic condition of action and speech while as a human being, individuals, by nature, are both equal and distinct (Gordon, 2002). Plurality is essential to the visibility of individuals. In this sense, being visible in the world and one's

experience of the world depends on other people recognising and confirming one's actions.

Secondly, natality, in Arendt's terms, is the beginning of something anew, the fact that humans are born into this world (Allen, 2003). The so-called newcomers born into the world are agents in their own right as these have the capacity to act and create something new, a capacity enabling them to maintain their uniqueness throughout their lives. This uniqueness can be maintained because humans, having the capacity to act, are constantly subject to different influences within their environment. No two individuals are the same as each and every one will have been exposed to different forces throughout their lives and therefore are unique in their beliefs and resultant action. Although Arendt's concept of natality may at first glance clash with Foucault's perspective that individual subjects/agents do not come into the world fully formed, as discussed earlier, there is a common theme. As such, both agree that individuals as agents have a capacity to act, but although these agents, from an Arendtian perspective, can create something new, these are ultimately still informed and shaped by their social relations despite their uniqueness.

The concept of natality further raises the question on the identity of individuals that is determined by their action and speech – making them who they are (Allen, 2003). A key issue in Arendt's thought is the connection of action and speech in individuals. Allen (2003) maintains that the identity of an actor is in part constituted through action itself. Action is unpredictable as it produces consequences that are acted upon by others. Considering action in the light of natality, it can be classed as, what Gordon (2002) terms, a "second birth". This refers to individuals acting and thereby setting something

in motion and by taking initiative. Together the concepts of plurality and natality can help understand actions of an individual (Gordon, 2002).

Action and speech make it possible for people to exert themselves in the world. Speech is a key instrument in human life and society as it enables humans to reveal who they are and create their unique personal identities. “Without the accompaniment of speech, [...], action would not only lose its revelatory character but, [...], it would lose its subject. Speechless action would no longer be action because there would no longer be an actor, and the actor, the doer of deeds, is possible only if he is at the same time the speaker of words” (Arendt, 1998: 178/179). Arendt further maintains that speech is in fact the “condition of possibility of both action and identity” (Gordon, 2002: 139). Action occurs in webs of relations with other agents and serves to both establish and maintain this web of relations at the same time. Agents are simultaneously both doers and sufferers, while on the one hand being subject to the constraints of action by others, and on the other hand, made into a subject with the capacity to act within the web of social relationships (Allen, 2003). Such a position reflects Foucault’s subjectivity of individuals discussed earlier, as well as critiques Allen’s (2003) consideration of subjectivity as a precondition of agency. Taking into account both Foucault’s and Arendt’s perspectives, it appears that the term ‘precondition’ denotes a hierarchical, cause and effect relationship between the two concepts. However, in this work subjectivity and agency are considered to be much more supportive of each other and are in a reciprocal relationship.

Although Arendt emphasises the importance of speech in her conceptualisation of power she does not account for any action or influence that does not involve speech. Foucault’s disciplinary power discussed previously provides a greater scope to consider

this shortfall. In this sense, Foucault's framework shows the possibility of individuals to influence action and outcomes by merely being present in a particular environment without the need for speech. Considering this, it can be argued that aspects such as an individual's status, background and education within a particular environment or situation exert significant influence on any decision making or engagement with tourism policy making. In a local tourism policy context, often dominated by small to medium sized enterprises and displaying a high familiarity among tourism stakeholders and businesses, aspects such as status and background of individuals can have important connotations as to their power and how they are perceived by others in that particular environment.

The link between plurality and natality is based upon natality underlying the duality of human existence (uniqueness/distinction) typical of plurality. Plurality and natality are inextricably linked – in Arendt's words "If action as beginning corresponds to the fact of birth, if it is the actualization of the human condition of natality, then speech corresponds to the fact of distinctness and is the actualization of the human condition of plurality, that is, of living as a distinct and unique human being among equals" (Arendt, 1998: 178). Combining the two concepts of plurality and natality forms the basis for Arendt's power conceptualisation and her critique of the command-obedience model of power. In this sense, Arendt considers the empowerment of people as power informed by plurality and natality as interlinked concepts. It is individuals' capacity to act, the fact that they are born into this world as agents and therefore have the ability to create something new, combined with the aspect of plurality, maintaining not only their uniqueness but also their interaction with others in the world which is key in their empowerment. In other words, power is informed mainly by two components, the individual as a unique being, and society, reflecting once more the structure and agency

discussion and the need to embrace greater partnership approaches within tourism policy development focusing on actions of individuals/stakeholders and the structures they are embedded in.

Going back to her critique of the command-obedience model of power, Arendt rejects and warns against a conflation of power and violence. The common conception of power being about rule, and the notion that violence is regarded as the most extreme form of the exercise of power, leads Arendt to infer, that “where violence reigns supreme, power cannot be fully realized” (Allen, 2003: 137), limiting the scope for other expressions of power. Power for Arendt is closely connected to words and deeds of individuals. She claims that power only exists in actualisation as presented earlier “where word and deed have not parted company, [...], where words are not used to veil intentions but to disclose realities, and deeds are not used to violate and destroy but to establish relations and create new realities” (Arendt, 1998: 200). In this sense then, power cannot be seen as a possession. Unlike the instruments of violence, power cannot be obtained and stored up for future use. Where power is not actualised, it merely disappears. The key aspect of Arendt’s power is that it “springs up between men when they act together and vanishes the moment they disperse” (Arendt, 1998: 200). The power potential is intangible rather than an unchangeable, measurable, and reliable entity like force or strength. With a focus on the research problem, such a conceptualisation of power helps in understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development by providing scope to consider the more intangible aspects that shape a stakeholder. These include for example, why stakeholders are motivated to engage with tourism policy development, as well as providing a platform for looking at power from a collective perspective as stakeholders act together in a tourism policy environment to achieve common goals.

Helpful in understanding the potential character of power are the definitions of power in other languages. Arendt states in *The Human Condition*, that the original meaning of power can be better explained when looking at the Greek, Latin and German origins of the term ‘power’(Arendt, 1998). The Greek translation is *dynamis*, Latin = *potentia*, and the German word *Macht* (from *mögen* and *möglich* and not *machen*)³³. Considering these translations, the nature of power as Arendt has interpreted the term shows an emphasis on the potential nature of power as opposed to an oppressive interpretation as commonly understood. This potential character is further supported by Arendt’s claim that power is “to an astonishing degree independent of material factors, either of numbers or of means” (Arendt, 1998: 200). One example of the independence of material factors could be the charisma of an individual, which is unique to every human being and an attribute which may or may not have an impact upon the power the individual can shape or sustain. Power then, is a function of collective action as it emerges from the interface geared to achieve common ends. In other words, the living together with other people, the being-with others in the world, is the only material factor in the generation of power (Parekh, 1981). Power is defined as “the human ability not just to act but to act in concert” (Arendt, 1970: 44), making power not only a result of collective action but at the same time, a condition for the possibility of action. Public space plays an important role in Arendt’s thinking, as it is here where power is continually generated through action within this public space.

Since power emerges from individuals acting together in concert, this public space provides a setting where such collective action can be carried out. Consequently, power is constitutive of public space while simultaneously being a precondition for agency,

³³ *Möglich* = possible, potential, whereas *machen* = to make, to do (Langenscheidt, 2001)

“since one’s identity as an actor can only be fully achieved through action in public” (Allen, 2003: 138). Arendt herself claims that power is what keeps the public realm, classed as a potential space of appearance between acting and speaking men, in existence (Arendt, 1998: 201). Further, the importance of the public space in Arendt’s thinking is supported by her claim that “power, like action, is boundless” (Arendt, 1998: 201). As such it has no physical limitations in the bodily existence of men (unlike strength which requires a human body); it is in fact only limited by the existence of other people, since power springs up between them when they act, or as in Arendt’s words “because human power corresponds to the condition of plurality to begin with” (Arendt, 1998: 201). Power then preserves the public realm and the space of appearance where action takes place. However, Howell (1993) notes that within Arendt’s conceptualisation, although primarily considered as a political perspective, there is some scope for the incorporation of geographical elements within her concept of public space. In addition, Moynagh (1997) reiterates the premise that public space, like power, is always potential for Arendt. “Wherever people gather together, [power] is potentially there, but only potentially, not necessarily and not forever” (Arendt, 1998: 199). Bearing in mind that Arendt looks at public space from a political perspective, she does not make any reference to private space, or how this public space would look without action and speech, taking up Foucault’s notion of disciplinary power. This research therefore considers the extent of those two aspects in more detail by outlining how private space and disciplinary power can be incorporated within a public space conceptualisation for this context of tourism policy development in an English seaside resort.

Although Arendt’s concept of power is appropriate for this study, other uses of Arendt’s thoughts in the tourism literature are scant. Jamal and Watt (2011) are a notable

exception in their study looking at different forms of participatory action and climate change pedagogy in a mountain resort in Canada. As in this study, the empowered interpretation of Arendt's thoughts are utilised, termed performative engagement, building upon public space, power, the value of action and speech in people acting in concert. Bramwell and Lane (2011) use Jamal and Watt's research to exemplify the governance of tourism and sustainability by also looking at Arendt's performative engagement in political environments.

Considering the arguments above, it is clear that, although Arendt and Foucault do have different philosophical bases, there are many similarities in both their power conceptualisations. Since this research is not an attempt at creating a meta-theory with regards to the philosophical underpinnings of Arendt and Foucault per se, the focus is instead placed on identifying the common ground between two different, yet very similar power concepts for the purpose of clarifying an appropriate scope of power to underpin the analysis of a tourism policy environment. Foucault can be said to have a post-structural understanding of power in that he considers elements of a structural nature in his conceptualisation in terms of the longevity of social structures as well as relations among individuals. He outlines the importance of context and how the subjectivity of individuals is an important aspect of power. Arendt however, highlights the role of the individual and discusses the 'who' in power to a greater extent.

What did emerge in the discussion of structure outlined earlier, was the need for an identification of historical and enduring social factors, raising the question whether enduring social factors are addressed in Arendt's and Foucault's conceptualisations of power. There is recognition that the frameworks of Foucault and Arendt broadly cover the structure and agency discussion underlying this work, though the role of enduring

social factors remains unclear. Given Arendt's interpretation of public space and the aspects of natality and plurality in her power conceptualisation, as well as Foucault's subjectivity, it is argued that both account for enduring social factors in their conceptualisation of power. This is based on the issue of agency and action within the public space, springing up between men and being a potential space of appearance. Considering the plurality and natality of actors, some scope is given to social factors having an influence on the development of actors and within the public space. Foucault's notion of subjectivity follows a similar argument as enduring social factors have some influence on an actor's subjectivity. So neither Foucault nor Arendt explicitly state that enduring social factors are or are not part of their power conceptualisations. However, it appears that the overall argument for a functionalist and structuralist power acknowledges the need for enduring social factors emerging from within the public space. This can be linked back to Bourdieu's (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992) notion of social structures discussed in Section 3.2.1. Although social structures remain largely undetected by individuals, they can nevertheless constrain or enable individuals in their actions. In this sense, social structures or factors can be enduring although they may not be perceived by the individual. Given the changing and dynamic tourism industry and specifically the tourism policy environment, enduring social factors that influence individuals' behaviour and actions are evident as these can constrain or enable their actions.

As discussed, Foucault and Arendt have some similarities. For example, both address the subjectivity of individuals in their interpretation of power. For Arendt this subjectivity is reflected in the notion that individuals are at the same time doers and sufferers in society, whereas Foucault refers to individuals being subjects and simultaneously being subjected in society, different labels for essentially the same

conception. Furthermore, both Foucault and Arendt refer to the relational nature of power in their work, stressing the importance of the individual. Arendt's reference to the empowerment of people when she claims that power emerges between men when they act in concert, is mirrored by Foucault as he considers power to be circulative in net-like organisations, and that power cannot be possessed by any one individual at any given time. Power for both is not a commodity but an element or relation that exists between individuals and in their interaction with each other and the society they live in. Foucault and Arendt have different perspectives in terms of their ontologies, where Foucault has a stronger focus of a structural nature and Arendt makes reference to individuals. Taking into account the similarities in their interpretation of power, there is scope to provide a greater insight for understanding stakeholder power and the reasons for engaging with tourism policy development within an English seaside context, as reference is made to aspects of agency as well as structure. This is, for example, achieved through considering the embeddedness of actors within social structures, their subjectivity, and the relational nature of power. For the research problem focus such a conceptualisation provides a comprehensive picture of how stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development can be considered.

In line with the research problem and the issues discussed in Chapter 2 on the development of and challenges facing English seaside resorts, as well as those mirrored in the tourism policy arena, the power concept of Foucault and Arendt combined, look at both a structural as well as agency dimension. It provides a deeper understanding and scope to include motivations of stakeholders to engage with tourism policy development, whilst addressing the calls for a more contextual approach considering structures as well as agency attributes from within the tourism policy literature (Doorne, 1998, Penrose, 2011). The focus is on improving the relationship between public and

private sectors by incorporating a greater agency focus within structural environments and encouraging more involvement from tourism stakeholders in the vicinity who have local knowledge and a vested interest in the development of tourism policy incorporating their views.

Considering the research problem underlying this work of addressing engagement with tourism policy development, it needs to be addressed how power is made visible for policy making and development and how this is articulated. Gordon (2002) maintains that the visibility of power has changed over time depending on the operation of power. Traditionally, power was visible as it was embodied in the sovereign (i.e. the juridical model), whereas the subject remained hidden. Disciplinary power on the other hand, is exercised through its invisibility. The introduction of discipline “forced the subjects to come into view, since their visibility assures the hold of the power exercised over them” (Gordon, 2002: 131). Gordon considers visibility as a form of control as exemplified by the use of the panoptic tower or more recently, by the introduction of the cubicle³⁴, reflecting in part Foucault’s disciplinary power discussed earlier. However, such an approach to viewing visibility as a form of control is not the aim of this study.

Visibility in this research is concerned not so much as a form of control but more with the actual visibility of individuals and their involvement in tourism policy. The focus is placed on Arendt’s interpretation of visibility discussed earlier, in which visibility refers to being with others in the world and therefore being visible refers to an individual’s engagement with others within a public space. It is the interaction and being with others

³⁴ Cubicle: A development of the Panopticon and claimed to be a more appropriate model of Foucauldian power. In organisations many white collar workers do not have separate offices but have been brought together to work in a central open office space which is divided by cubicles. The control mechanism is similar to that of the Panopticon but is magnified in that there is no identifiable site of control (i.e. the observation tower of the Panopticon) and that a worker can never be sure who is passing by or who can listen in to telephone conversations. It is the possibility of being observed at any time that acts as a control mechanism (Gordon, 2002).

in the world that is key in this research. Individuals become visible when interacting with others and it is this engagement with others which contributes to, what Arendt terms “the enlarged mind” (Moynagh, 1997, Arendt, 1998). However, it is acknowledged that visibility, though not primarily considered as a control mechanism in this research, can be both negative and positive. In using visibility as an individual’s engagement with others in a public space, elements of their visibility will have some form of control function on their interaction with others. Although visibility as a form of control is not the primary driver, emphasis is instead placed upon an individual’s engagement and interaction with others. Such a focus can help explore the element of power in tourism policy making to a greater extent, considering the interaction and engagement of individuals as a key element of power in this research.

Considering the concepts of plurality and natality of Arendt, certain concepts are prominent in contributing to society. As discussed previously, plurality entails that an individual’s position and experience in the world is dependent on the confirmation of others and it is this intersubjectivity which defines reality. Another factor contributing to how reality is perceived are social norms which create rules of necessity. However, questions remain: How and why are individuals/agents willing to engage in policy development? Are these intrinsic or extrinsic motivations and expected gains?

One premise that Trafimow has proposed is that “people do what they intend to do and not what they intend not to do” (2002: 101). Considering this in the context of this research focus, can provide scope to explore the intents, motivations and behaviour of individuals in tourism policy development. Particularly with reference to Foucault’s understanding of the intentionality of power relations as previously discussed in Section 3.3.1, it appears that intention is a deciding factor in understanding the power of

stakeholders by taking into consideration the role of subjectivity of Foucault (1980c) and the aspects of plurality and natality of Arendt (1998). Different social cognitive theories have considered behaviour, motivation and intents, which include Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) and Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1977, 1991). However, for the purpose of this research these are limited, in that they do not address a structural as well as agency dimension to a satisfying extent. Vroom's expectancy theory in its original 'hard' version has been classified as being deterministic because people make choices to maximise positive outcomes or pleasures and minimize negative ones (Locke, 1991). However, a softer version of the theory has been more widely accepted assuming that people will act in such a way as to get things they value and consequently avoid things they disvalue. But still the issue remains that such a concept does not explicitly refer to the role of an individual, their attributes, motivation and intents to perform a behaviour, or if and how their structural surroundings have an influence upon their behaviour. Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (1991) addresses these issues to a greater extent and will be used in this research, to help identify attitudes and behaviour of individuals in terms of their power in tourism policy in a structural context and also their intentionality as discussed by Foucault (1980a).

3.4 Theory of planned behaviour

The use of the theory of planned behaviour in the context of this research is based upon identifying the intentions, motivations and behaviour of individuals in tourism policy making and understanding their subjectivity and linkages to resultant actions. These are closely linked to the structure and agency debate as the theory of planned behaviour addresses not only actual behaviour but takes into account both given structures, such as social relations, as well as more intangible elements of social interaction and reasons for actions of individuals. Considering that an individual's capacity to act is at the forefront

of the theory of planned behaviour in the context of an individual's structural surroundings, it can provide scope to help understand stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development.

The theory of planned behaviour as developed by Ajzen (1991) is an expansion of the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) and is concerned with predicting behaviour. The theory of reasoned action includes a reference to behavioural intentions and that such an intention to perform a behaviour is based upon a set of beliefs on the part of the individual. These sets of beliefs can come from their structural relationships as well as personal relationships, their social background and history. However, one shortfall of the theory of reasoned action is that it does not account for non-volitional behaviour and has therefore been developed further, resulting in the theory of planned behaviour.

The theory of planned behaviour has received wide attention in the literature and has mainly been used in health and social psychology, covering areas such as drug abuse, breast feeding, contraceptive use, voting, consumer behaviour and ethical problem solving (Norman et al., 2000, Fekadu and Kraft, 2002, Rise et al., 2003, Cook et al., 2005, Robbins and Wallace, 2007). More appropriately for this study TPB (and TRA) have been used in connection with stakeholder theory and some attempts have been made to combine the two concepts ranging from environmental management issues in the wine industry in the US and New Zealand (Marshall et al., 2010); to the development of ethics codes in executive decision making in the financial sector (Stevens et al., 2005); and in researching the value of adopting or investing in environmental management systems and whether this can have long-term positive

financial effects for the manager and the organisation (Plaza-Úbeda et al., 2009), for example.

The TPB has also been used extensively in the tourism literature, for example, often focusing on tourist behaviour (Shen et al., 2009, Tsai, 2010), resident or host community attitudes towards tourism (Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2010), tourist destination choices in terms of forming an intent to visit a destination (Han et al., 2011), tourists planning a wine tourism vacation (Sparks, 2007), and in exploring residents' perceptions of sustainable tourism in the UK (Miller et al., 2010). Although widely used in a variety of tourism as well as stakeholder theory contexts, the TPB has not been explored in a tourism policy development environment with a focus on stakeholder power and engagement, which is addressed by this study.

Although the theory of planned behaviour does attempt to predict behaviour, it is used in this study to illustrate how and in what ways current behaviour is based upon individuals' attitudes, motivations and intents to perform a particular behaviour: to determine how and why individuals engage with tourism policy making through considering the experience, past behaviour, and social context of individuals. By doing so, a more robust framework for understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development within the context of an English seaside resort can be developed.

Both the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour propose that behaviour is predicted by an intention to perform a behaviour (Cook et al., 2005). Intention is considered to be a motivation based upon a volitional or consciously made decision to perform a behaviour. According to Ajzen (1991: 181) the general rule is:

“the stronger the intention to engage in a behaviour, the more likely should be its performance”. Ajzen (1991) lists three conceptually independent determinants of intention as the basis of the theory of planned behaviour:

1. attitude toward the behaviour
2. subjective norm (SN)
3. perceived behavioural control (PBC)

The attitude toward the behaviour refers to the extent to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question; the second element, subjective norm, represents the social factor as it is the perceived social pressure to perform or not perform the behaviour; the third component, perceived behavioural control, refers to the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour and it is assumed to reflect past experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles, whilst also considering the influence of both internal as well as external control factors (e.g. self-efficacy, skills, opportunities and constraints) (Ajzen, 1991, Norman et al., 2000). The perceived behavioural control element was added by Ajzen to the preceding theory of reasoned action (TRA) to take account of non-volitional behaviours. As such the PBC provides a position for a certain degree of uncertainty in behavioural choice where not every decision is under complete volitional control. Figure 3.1, illustrates different components of the theory of planned behaviour.

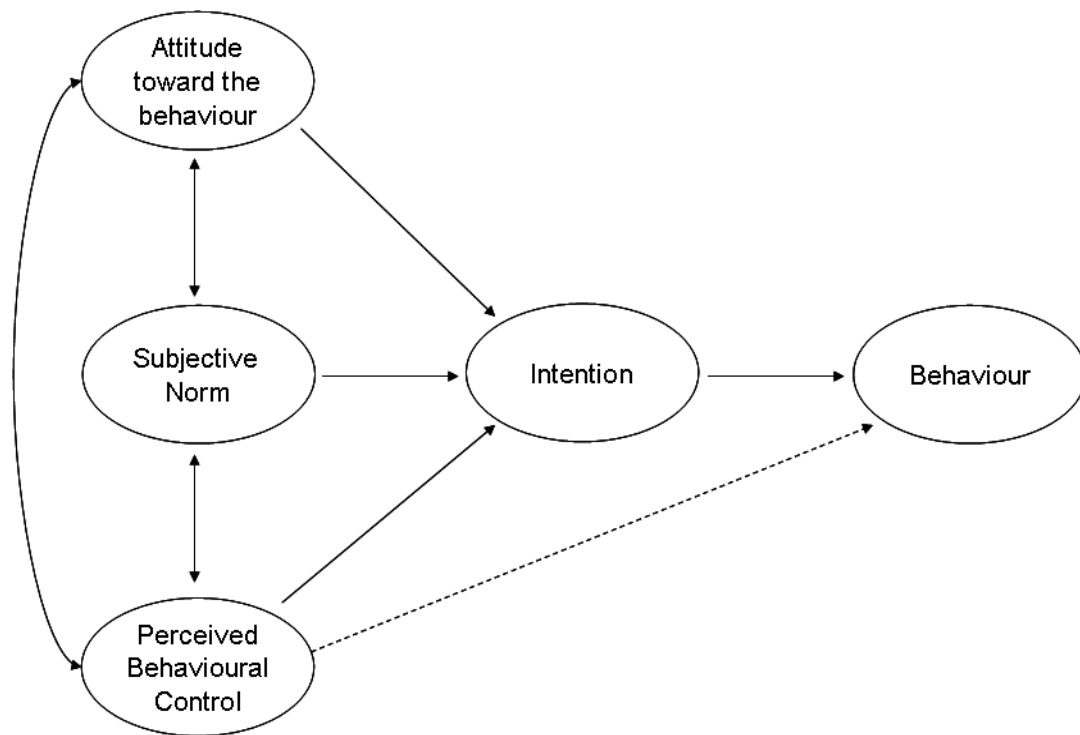


Figure 3.1: Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:182)

The attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control are all based upon a set of requisite beliefs of an individual (Cook et al., 2005). Such beliefs are the key drivers in the intention to perform a particular behaviour and can help identify the motivation to engage with tourism policy making. In particular the three sets of beliefs underlying human action have been summarised as the following: behavioural beliefs, referring to the likely consequences of the behaviour (attitude toward the behaviour); normative beliefs, considering the normative expectations of others as perceived social pressure (subjective norm); and control beliefs, referring to the presence of factors that may further or hinder the performance of behaviour (PBC) (Bamberg et al., 2003). Considering the concepts of natality and plurality of Arendt and the subjectivity of Foucault as discussed earlier, there may be scope to contextualise further where these beliefs originate from. In this sense then, in terms of natality and plurality, individuals as agents are born into the world and it is argued that as an agent they have the capacity to act and create something new while being embedded within a social environment (plurality). Bearing in mind that individuals are both a subject and

subjected by their surroundings, any beliefs will have been informed by these aspects. Although you are born into the world as an agent and therefore have the ability and capacity to act, any beliefs, whether these are behavioural, control, or normative, will have been formed and influenced by an individual's natality, plurality, and ultimately subjectivity.

For a tourism policy context and in understanding stakeholder power and engagement, such beliefs are important as they influence how stakeholders act and can provide some insight into why they are motivated in engaging with such tourism policy environments. Considering the highly dynamic and complex tourism policy environment, facing different challenges and threats in terms of the changing policy structures, funding streams and local tourism organisation, understanding the reasons informing a stakeholder's intention to engage are key to a stakeholder's power. The TPB combines all aspects that are of relevance for a local tourism policy environment, covering agency as well as structures from a functionalist and structuralist perspective.

There have been discussions in the literature with regards to the PBC and that as a concept promoted by Ajzen is not well understood (Trafimow et al., 2002). So, although Ajzen has linked PBC with control beliefs and the notion that it was introduced to account for non-volitional behaviour, such an interpretation is limited. Trafimow et al. (2002) point out that there is also some discrepancy in the definition of the PBC and its use. In this sense then, PBC was introduced to account for non-volitional behaviour (i.e. whether it is 'under my control/not under my control') as well as providing an indication of how easy or difficult the behaviour might be to perform. However, there are two different components at work here: 'control' vs. 'difficulty' and distinctions have been drawn between them (Ajzen, 2002, Trafimow et al., 2002, Kraft et al., 2005).

Trafimow et al. (2002) have labelled two different elements of the PBC as perceived control (PC) and perceived difficulty (PD) and suggest further that in some instances both control and difficulty beliefs are aligned with a given intent to perform a behaviour, and at other times these are not. Perceived control refers to the “extent to which the behaviour is perceived to be under a person’s voluntary control”, and perceived difficulty considers the “extent to which the behaviour is perceived to be easy or difficult for the person to perform” (Trafimow et al., 2002: 103). However, there is still debate in the literature as to how separate these two concepts are, or if they are in fact better amalgamated into one construct, PBC. For this study, the concepts of PC and PD will not be used as it is unclear as to how much focus there is on the aspect of control or difficulty in engaging with tourism policy development. Further research would need to be conducted into those particular areas of the value of the control vs. difficulty separation for such a policy context. In this sense then, it is argued that behavioural intentions are formed based upon those attitudes and subjective norms, which are consequently also informed by perceived behavioural control.

There are a number of critiques of the TPB and current literature has seen a development of the model beyond that of Ajzen (Conner and Armitage, 1998, Norman et al., 2000, Fekadu and Kraft, 2002, Bamberg et al., 2003). Norman et al. (2000) have made a case for incorporating the role of past behaviour in the theory of planned behaviour. Ajzen’s model does account for past behaviour to a marginal extent in the PBC and maintains that past behaviour is mediated by the variables of the theory of planned behaviour (Norman et al., 2000). However, Norman et al. (2000) go a step further in stating that when past behaviour has been measured explicitly, there is a direct influence on future behaviour. Ajzen does not agree with the notion that past behaviour

has a direct influence on future behaviour. Instead he considers the concept of habit³⁵ in this context. In this sense, repeated behaviour would then consequently lead to a habitual response (Ouellette and Wood, 1998, Norman et al., 2000).

According to Triandis (1977) a behaviour becomes less dependent on the statement of intentions to perform a behaviour the more often the behaviour is repeated, i.e. when it becomes a habit. Considering this, in the light of a tourism policy context, habitual responses may play an important role in determining the behaviour and engagement of individuals in policy making. There are clear links to the concepts of visibility of individuals and Foucault's disciplinary power providing scope to further contextualise power and stakeholder theory respectively. However, it is beyond the scope of this thesis to explore the concept of habit for this research problem of understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development, but suggestions are made as to further research in this area in Chapter 8, Section 8.6.

Habitual responses in behaviour raise other issues to consider such as the role of goal intentions vs. behavioural intentions, such as how these differ or whether these are essentially connected. The question that is at the base of most motivational theories, such as the theory of planned behaviour, is to determine how much effort people are willing to execute to achieve a planned enactment (Ajzen, 1991, Rise et al., 2003). Thus, in other words, determining an individual's commitment to perform a particular behaviour and how this is formed. In identifying when, where and how to act (the implementation intention), Rise et al. (2003) refer to both goal and behavioural

³⁵ Habit is based upon the frequency of past behaviour and there are discrepancies in the literature concerning the determination of the timeframe of the performance of past behaviour (Ouellette and Wood, 1998). For example, depending on whether a particular behaviour is performed frequently, e.g. weekly, it is more likely that a habitual response is formed quicker than if a particular behaviour is performed less frequently, e.g. monthly or annually. One important factor in the determination of whether a behaviour is habitual is the link to the intents to perform a behaviour.

intention claiming that the formation of a goal intention is made, based upon feasibility and desirability criteria of an individual, which is similar to the behavioural intention informed by attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control of the theory of planned behaviour. By forming such implementation intentions, “people first decide whether or not to try to achieve a goal or try to perform a behaviour, and having formed a positive goal intention implies a sense of commitment or obligation to reach this goal or execute the action” (Rise et al., 2003: 88). Consequently, the formation of a goal intention of an individual has an influence on the likelihood of the goal being reached.

In summary then, the theory of planned behaviour can be interpreted as a functionalist approach as there are clear links to the intentions of individuals as discussed in the preceding section on functionalist power. However, it is argued here, that although the theory of planned behaviour may be more of a functionalist approach, there are elements in the theory of planned behaviour that are more of a structuralist nature with regard to the behaviour and intentions of individuals, in keeping with the philosophical position of this research, that of being structuralist and functionalist. The theory of planned behaviour, and especially the perceived behavioural control aspect, accounts for a structuralist perspective by considering non-volitional behaviour in that actions are shaped by both internal as well as external influences. In a local tourism policy development context the influences on stakeholders shape their intention to engage within the society they are embedded in, in terms of their relationships with other stakeholders and the wider policy environment such as local and regional government, and businesses. Each of the three elements of the TPB accounts for at least one or both influences, internal and external, and can be seen to bridge the gap within the structure and agency dialogue to a greater extent.

In terms of how power and the theory of planned behaviour relate to each other, the thoughts of Arendt can help identify this connection. Considering how Arendt has approached power as a concept which is inherent in individuals since it is their “capacity not just to act but to act in concert” (Arendt, 1970: 44), the theory of planned behaviour can be utilised to identify the shape of the underlying intents and motives of individuals to act (i.e. to engage with tourism policy development). In this sense then, the components of the theory of planned behaviour, such as the attitude toward the behaviour, the subjective norm, and the perceived behavioural control, will be used to gain a better understanding of individuals and what contributes as attributes making them powerful within the context of an English seaside resort and its policy environment.

It is argued here that the attributes of the TPB as well as their underlying beliefs, are appropriate measures in identifying the power of an individual. Arendt’s concepts of plurality and natality, as well as Foucault’s subjectivity of individuals can be used to further contextualise the emergence of the beliefs shaping an individual’s intent to perform a behaviour, and to identify the public space in which action occurs. It is anticipated that an empirical analysis of the different beliefs and resultant intent to perform behaviours can provide an indication of the power of an individual in tourism policy development. In this context, emphasis will be placed upon some emerging aspects from both Foucault’s and Arendt’s frameworks: considering the value of natality and plurality of individuals and subjectivity in terms of the visibility of individuals. The concept of visibility itself needs to be expanded to account not only for the interaction with others in the world determined by action and speech as advocated by Arendt, but also to account for aspects of Foucault’s disciplinary power within the conceptual framework. There are different forces at work in identifying power which

will also include a discussion of the intent to perform a behaviour (i.e. to engage in tourism policy development), in terms of the invisibility of individuals, taking into account past experience and individuals' background and status. In this sense then, the TPB will be used in conjunction with both Arendt's and Foucault's frameworks of power and stakeholder theory to provide a more robust framework in identifying powerful stakeholders, and how and why these may, or may not, engage with policy development in an English seaside context.

Many of the concepts used in this study have been approached in the tourism literature although never in this combination with a focus in stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside resort. The ideas of Foucault have been used widely in tourism research often in looking at discourse analysis and aspects of agency (Dredge, 2006b, Ateljevic et al., 2007). Power has been specifically explored where power is often viewed as repressive and negative and that tourism needs to be considered as a system with tourists and brokers (i.e. an interplay of tourists with the host community including local tourism businesses and residents) in recognising that power is everywhere (Cheong and Miller, 2000). However, this study takes this notion further to look more closely at the power of stakeholders and what contributes to the power of stakeholders and their reasons for engagement in tourism policy development. In other uses, Foucault has been linked with Urry's (2002) tourist gaze conceptualisation to explore more closely the disciplinary power that is inherent in tourism and tourists travelling where the tourist gaze acts as a form of surveillance on host communities (Hollinshead, 1999). Although this study acknowledges forms of disciplinary power as a means of control (i.e. through being visible or based on individuals' status'), the focus is not on conceiving power as a negative and controlling force. Through Arendt's (1998) conceptualisation of the public space and the potential

aspect of power being something that emerges from people acting together, this study develops the concept of power further to be conceived of as being more enabling and how such power is inherent in tourism stakeholders.

As with power, structure and agency have also been discussed in the tourism literature and provides a basis for the philosophical position of this study being functionalist and structuralist. This study seeks to build upon Laws' open systems model of a destination by considering structural surroundings as well as agents acting within the destination in helping understand stakeholder power and reasons for engaging with tourism policy development. In this sense, the study addresses calls in the literature to seek greater public/private partnership working in tourism policy, particularly for the dynamic tourism industry following the recent disbanding of the RDAs, for example. This study aims to develop a conceptual framework which builds upon concepts which have previously been used in the tourism literature by focusing on a narrow stakeholder approach in considering power as an empowerment of people and focusing on individuals' intentions and motivations to engage with tourism policy development in an English seaside resort context.

3.5 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework draws together different concepts as discussed in the literature review sections in Chapters 2 and 3. This section will provide a narrative of the conceptual framework (CF) model which can be seen in Figure 3.2, based upon different underlying concepts and how these are linked to form the overall CF model.

In terms of a methodological perspective, the model depicts two separate yet linked research methods and their outcomes in one model, addressing differing aspects of the

same research problem (see Chapter 4 for methodological implications of the CF model).

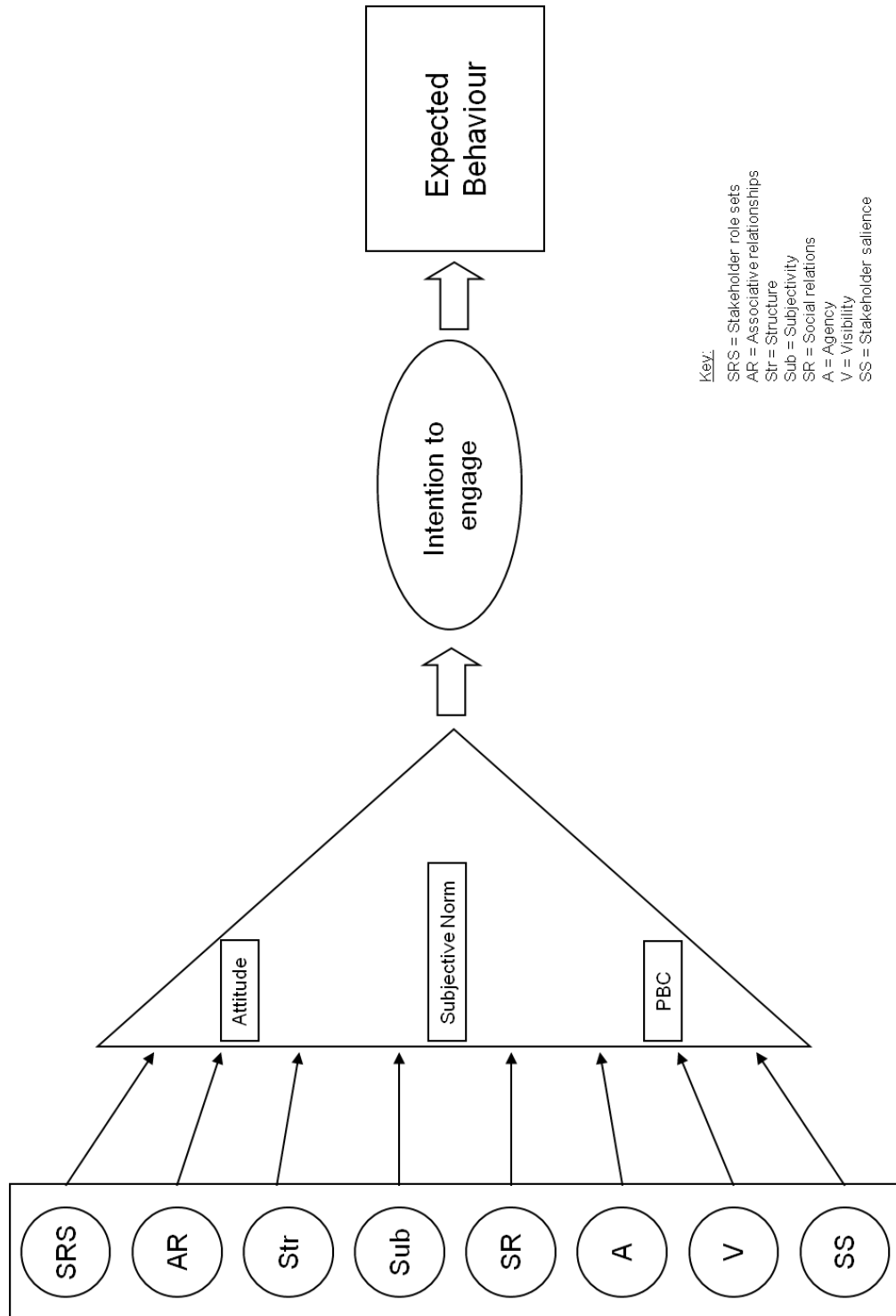


Figure 3.2: Conceptual framework

In detail, on the left are the eight central concepts that are of importance and form the basis of the overall CF model, which have been termed the *elements of power* derived from the literature review discussed in Chapters 2 and 3. The *elements of power* consist of eight interlinked concepts taken from stakeholder theory, Foucault and Arendt's discussion on power, and structure and agency forming the heart of the CF and the fundamental concepts on which the rest of the model is built, which include: stakeholder role sets, Weber's associative relationships, structure, subjectivity, social relations, agency, visibility, and stakeholder salience. They are termed *elements of power*, as it is argued in this work that an individual's power is made up of all or combination of all these elements. Their attributes have made them stand out in that they can inform and address some aspects desirable in a comprehensive model with the aim to understanding stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context. This especially refers to the underlying concepts of structure and agency, and the aim to develop a model which takes into account not only structural elements, but also individual attributes such as social relations and interaction, in keeping with the structuralist and functionalist perspective of this work. Why these elements are important for this study with a focus on stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development, and what makes them essential for the CF model will briefly be recapitulated in the following paragraphs.

Stakeholder role sets imply that stakeholders, as individuals, can be members of certain stakeholder groups and then at the same time be a member of a different stakeholder group (Freeman, 1984). By nature, these different groups will have varying foci and interests at heart and a stakeholder can be faced with differing and competing roles. Naturally, this can include some conflict with beliefs and reasons for engaging or acting within those stakeholder groups. Furthermore, these stakeholder role sets are informed

by an individual's background, education and social relationships, offering one avenue of exploring a stakeholder's motivation and reasons for action for this research problem. Although stakeholder role sets as identified by Freeman have not been applied or used in the tourism policy literature, the concept breaks down further other tourism based frameworks or constructs such as collaboration and even fragmentation. The focus on stakeholders being part of different groups is helpful for a tourism policy context as tourism stakeholders are influenced by a variety of factors depending on their primary reason or motivation to engage with tourism policy development, for example. Being part of different industry groups at local and regional levels can prove challenging for stakeholders in asserting their viewpoints and opinions, where stakeholder role sets provide a way of channelling their specific interests to particular groups.

Stakeholder salience (Mitchell et al., 1997) can help identify salient stakeholders based upon their power, legitimacy, and urgency, by combining all or some of the three attributes. However, stakeholder salience as proposed by Mitchell et al. is not entirely appropriate for this research, although it has previously been applied in tourism research by Sautter and Leisen (1999). The problem with the concept as discussed in Chapter 2, lies in the conception of power as one of the attributes of stakeholder salience. Mitchell et al.'s view of power does not coincide with the view of power which is adopted in this research where power is deemed to be both structuralist as well as functionalist. In Mitchell et al's conceptualisation, power is treated as a commodity in that they claim that it "can be acquired as well as lost" (1997: 866), which is problematic for this study context, as power is defined as fluid which appears between actors when they act in concert and not as a commodity. Nevertheless the idea behind the concept of stakeholder salience remains interesting and relevant for this study, although stakeholder salience mainly refers to the stakeholders that are deemed important by

others, and which has been informed by the type of relationship a stakeholder has with others, as discussed below in Weber's associative relationships. In this sense then, what has been taken forward from Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework for this study is the term 'stakeholder salience'.

Weber's associative relationships refer to the interests of stakeholders and their motivation to engage or get involved. These associative relationships are divided into three different forms: (1) market exchange, describing a compromise between opposed interests of stakeholders; (2) *Zweckverein*, describing instrumental associations based on material interests; and (3) *Gesinnungsverein*, describing associations devoted to a cause (Swedberg, 2005). It is argued that for this work, such a division between associative relationships of stakeholders can provide scope to explore their relationships further and to have an indication of what type of relationships stakeholders are interested in. It is believed that the three different types can inform the interests and the motivation of stakeholders to engage in tourism policy development and can therefore provide a platform for exploring different interests. Also, it is argued that, depending on the associative relationship, an indication of the salience of stakeholders can be deduced.

For a tourism policy development focus the associative relationships of stakeholders are necessarily influenced and informed by their role sets, where the type of relationship will depend on the nature of their interest and motivation to engage with tourism policy development. For example, a tourism stakeholder with a pure business and economic interest (i.e. profits and growth of business or organisation) may be associated more with a *Zweckverein* as material interests are at heart, whereas a tourism stakeholder who is interested in how tourism is managed and developed from a personal perspective (i.e.

a stakeholder who does not have a tourism business, or a councillor) may be associated more with a *Gesinnungsverein* as their engagement is focused on contributing to a cause. Considering stakeholder interests and motivations can provide some insight into the nature of the associative relationships which are sought by tourism stakeholders when engaging in tourism policy development through attending action groups, for example.

Structure refers to the social structures that one is surrounded by in everyday life. As such these are pre-existing structures that one is born into and these remain largely undetected by an individual. It can be argued that these social structures are to a certain extent static in that an individual does not have the immediate ability to change these social structures readily, but that this can only be achieved over a period of time and sustained action. In this sense then, an individual is born into an already structured society though these social structures remain undetected by the individual and hence those they affect (*habitus*) (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). Being embedded in social structures is unconscious to the human mind but nevertheless they can constrain or enable individuals in their behaviour and in forming and maintaining relationships. For a tourism policy context this is key as many of the decisions made at a higher level (national or regional government, for example) are not readily influenced by tourism stakeholders. This also refers to how tourism is organised at a local level and stakeholders' embeddedness within these structures, through involvement in tourism businesses or specific industry associations, to being involved in local councils.

Subjectivity describes an individual's position. In this sense individuals are subjected in a dual sense in that on the one hand individuals are subjected by their surroundings, i.e. the structure and society, but at the same time they have the ability to be a subject

themselves and influencing relations. In terms of a power perspective for a tourism policy context, individuals are able to not only get involved in networks of relations but to also exercise and undergo power at the same time. Individuals should not be conceived as being an “elementary nucleus” (Foucault, 1980c) but that they are embedded in social relations by both being a subject and at the same time being in a position to influence this subjectivity. In the words of Arendt, individuals are both doers and sufferers (Arendt, 1998). Subjectivity links closely to the notion of structure discussed above as often tourism stakeholders can be constrained or enabled by given policy structures and decision-making channels within a local tourism context. Such subjectivity enables tourism stakeholders to be thought of as individual agents acting within a structured policy environment influenced by stakeholder role sets, associative relationships, and social relations for example.

Agency describes an individual’s capacity to act (Sibeon, 1999) and is closely related to subjectivity. Agency represents the human element in the structure and agency debate, and refers to the involvement of individuals in social relations in which one is enmeshed. Considering that this work considers a structuralist and functionalist perspective, agency needs to be considered in connection with structure as there is a reciprocal relationship between the two concepts. As such, agency is the individual’s capacity to act which denotes that individuals have the ability to create something new, though this has to be considered within the constraints of the social structures they are embedded in. Considering structure and agency as interlinked concepts and rejecting a strong dualism approach as found in the literature from a functionalist and structural perspective, a middle ground is required in the structure and agency debate. For this tourism policy development focused study it is maintained that within the structure and agency discussion, structural constraints are not just derived from intentional motives

and actions of agents, but that these simultaneously are also impersonal and reified, e.g. 'given' structures, thereby recognising the importance of both the existing social environment and tourism stakeholders who interact within it.

The concept of social relations is used in a very general sense in this work, in that it denotes the relationships one has with other tourism stakeholders. These can be based on an individual's background and their education for example, as well as refer to the different stakeholder groups individuals belong to and in which they wish to participate. It is based on who you know. Often local tourism industries in seaside resorts in England are comprised of small to medium sized enterprises, in which a high familiarity among tourism businesses is common. Also, much communication is based on local knowledge and word-of-mouth, with high familiarity among tourism businesses influencing the extent of stakeholder involvement where previous collective action or working relationships have shaped relationships within the resort.

Visibility in this work refers to the actual visibility of tourism stakeholders, although some allowance has to be made for stakeholders who may not be explicitly visible in terms of their presence, but that they can be termed visible in that their actions have an influence. Visibility refers to being with others in the world which implies that visibility also refers to engaging with others in a public space where action takes place. As discussed previously, visibility is not considered as a form of control in this research, although it is acknowledged that visibility can, in some instances and social environments be perceived as a mild form of control in the realm of public space. In previous tourism studies, visibility has been used in the sense of something coming into view, which include tourists within a host community (Cheong and Miller, 2000), as well as in connection with bringing into view the loss of culture through tourism in the

context of developing culturally sustainable tourism in less developed countries (Johnston, 2003), for example. Such conceptualisations do not provide scope to consider non-visible participation within the tourism policy development focus of this study in understanding stakeholder power and engagement, based on stakeholders' status' or local knowledge. Therefore, visibility refers to an individual's interaction and engagement with others in this study, providing a platform for considering visible as well as non-visible participation or engagement in tourism policy development.

Considering the overall aim of understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context by encompassing a more comprehensive perspective, the eight elements of power are deemed to be interlinked concepts and inform each other. Each element has been selected from the literature review as areas which need further contextualisation under the overarching structuralist and functionalist perspectives. As discussed previously, the elements have been included in the CF model as the premise is that an individual's power is constructed by all or a combination of some of the eight elements. Individuals will demonstrate having varying combinations of elements, where some elements will be more prominent in individuals than other elements (i.e. visibility and stakeholder role sets may emerge as stronger elements for a local tourism business than for a local councillor depending on their interest in tourism). In this sense, the eight elements of power have been selected based upon their characteristics and the value they can add to the research problem. These address a comprehensive array of attributes of stakeholders including, for example, social relations, their background, their relationships, and education.

Visually the eight elements of power directly lead into the TPB triangle constituting of attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control. In

this work, it is argued that the elements of power have a direct influence on the three concepts of the TPB and can help inform the underlying beliefs. In this sense, although the TPB specifies that the three components attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control, are based on behavioural, normative, and control beliefs (Bamberg et al., 2003), it is proposed in this CF that these three underlying beliefs are incorporated into and addressed by the eight elements of power. Each of the elements of power will inform some and/or all of the three TPB concepts. As previously discussed in section 3.4, it is argued that the underlying beliefs of the TPB are, for example, informed and influenced by an individual's natality, plurality, and subjectivity, reflecting issues of agency and structure in line with a structuralist and functionalist perspective of this work.

As in the traditional model of the theory of planned behaviour discussed previously in this chapter, the three concepts attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control, inform the intention to engage. Ultimately the intention to engage then leads to the final element of the CF model termed expected behaviour.

It is termed expected behaviour based on the different concepts and how these can inform and address the behaviour individuals are expected to perform. As such, it is argued that the CF model proposes an individual's behaviour but it is still considered to be expected behaviour as both the eight elements of power and the TPB concepts, so far only provide a limited perspective of how an individual may perform a behaviour. So, although part of the conceptual framework incorporates elements of the theory of planned behaviour model, it has been adapted for this study with a view of generating a more comprehensive understanding of stakeholder power and engagement in an English seaside context.

The CF model is methodologically supported and informed by further stakeholder analysis including stakeholder mapping. Methodologically, the CF is informed by two levels – at one level, the eight elements of power and the TPB components and analysis forming an intention to engage which ultimately leads to expected behaviour; at the other level this is confirmed and supported by stakeholder analysis. Stakeholder analysis considers the contribution of stakeholder theory to the overall framework and model in this study. In essence, this part of the conceptual framework is concerned with looking at the value of using the stakeholder theory model, such as tourism stakeholder maps and how stakeholders are connected based on Freeman's original stakeholder model from a stakeholder perspective. Primarily this stakeholder analysis section is informed by considering stakeholder backgrounds and how these are embedded in the social structures inherent in the local tourism policy context. As discussed in Chapter 2, many of the stakeholder theories in tourism literature are concerned with considering a resource based classification of stakeholders and how they would act based upon resource exchange. In this CF model, stakeholder analysis is regarded more as a data collection tool and used to confirm, within structural constraints, an individual's expected behaviour by considering the structural environment in which one is enmeshed. This, in following Bourdieu's habitus (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992), can ultimately lead to either constraining or enabling behaviour as stakeholders may or may not be aware of the social structures that are present and are influencing the tourism policy development context, as well as their actions and engagement.

Essentially, it is argued that singularly the concepts of power, theory of planned behaviour, and stakeholder theory are limited in that they do not provide a comprehensive perspective of stakeholder theory in a tourism policy development

context. However, collectively there is scope to utilise and combine the different concepts to propose a more comprehensive approach to understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development. As outlined in the literature review, previous stakeholder theories have primarily focused on a resource based approach with limited attention being paid to more social and relationship based approaches. This study proposes a conceptual framework model which considers structuralist as well as functionalist aspects which take into account resource based as well as social aspects.

3.6 Summary

In the context of the research problem of understanding stakeholder power and their reasons and motivations to engage in tourism policy development in an English seaside resort, this chapter has presented the conceptual framework of this study following a review of literature on the underlying aspects of structure and agency, power, and the theory of planned behaviour. Given the call for a greater understanding and recognition of public/private relations in the tourism policy literature as discussed in Chapter 2, it emerges that the concept of structure and agency is fundamental for this study in that it addresses a dialectical approach for tourism policy development and the actions of stakeholders by considering agency as well as the structural environment tourism stakeholders are embedded in. One of the viewpoints adopted in this research is that considering structure and agency as polar concepts is limiting and does not account for interrelationships between actors and their social environment.

In this sense, the structure and agency dialogue is utilised to consider more closely the underlying philosophical position adopted in this study. It is argued in this work that a functionalist and structural perspective needs to be adopted to account for a more

comprehensive view of how individuals are powerful and how this impacts their behaviour, motivation and the intent to engage with the tourism policy environment.

As discussed previously, the philosophical position of being both functionalist and structuralist, is reflected in the discussion of power and further mirrors the rejection of the extreme ontological positions, methodological structuralism and methodological individualism, mentioned previously. Bridging the gap between the two different ontological positions provides further scope to contextualise power and how this may be visible in tourism policy to a greater extent, and provide a more comprehensive understanding of power in the context of structures and agency within such an environment.

In this sense, the CF builds upon the stakeholder perspective of stakeholder theory which has also assisted in identifying those interests and stakes of individuals within this particular research setting; the structure and agency dialogue of ensuring that a comprehensive perspective is adopted by considering the structures that one is embedded in as well as the agency, interpreted as an individual's capacity to act; power as an enabling construct as opposed to a repressive and prohibitive force; and the theory of planned behaviour in helping understand an individual's intention to perform a behaviour, i.e. their engagement with tourism policy development.

Bringing together the perspectives of Foucault and Arendt has shown how power is perceived in this study and how, using the theory of planned behaviour, this can be explored further within the study context. Looking at such issues as natality, plurality and subjectivity from a dialectical structure and agency perspective, illustrates the enabling aspect of power. The TPB assists in providing a framework for exploring

issues of interest, motivation and the influence of society and social structures on individuals' ability to be powerful, by looking more closely at the beliefs underlying their intention to engage. The aim is to understand stakeholder power and their reasons and motivations to engage in tourism policy development and it is argued in this work that the conceptual framework developed pulls in aspects that are of importance in the eight elements of power, which will ultimately provide some indication of the power of stakeholders in the tourism policy development arena at a local English seaside resort.

Chapter 4

Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology of the research by introducing the research philosophy, the research approach, data collection methods, and data analysis. In addition the case study approach is outlined. The data collection methods section comprises the discussion of the questionnaire use, including ethical considerations, sample size and pilot study, the telephone interviews, the stakeholder mapping activity, and document analysis. Following this, the discussion centres on quantitative data analysis.

4.2 Research philosophy

The philosophical perspective of this work is informed by functionalist and structuralist positions as identified in Chapter 3 in the discussion on power. The functionalist approach in this study considers the importance of the intentions of individuals and actual behaviours, whereas the structuralist notion is based on viewing those functionalist approaches within a context of those structures that underlie the social world. Such an intermediate philosophical perspective is deemed appropriate as it is in line with addressing the concepts of structure and agency that underlie this study. Given the focus on this work on a dialectical interpretation of structure and agency, that recognises the importance of both concepts rather than giving primacy to one approach over the other, a functionalist and structuralist philosophical position is adopted. Furthermore, considering the use of the power conceptualisations of Foucault and Arendt as discussed in Chapter 3 and how such a power interpretation can be linked to the concept of the theory of planned behaviour, it is argued that both a functionalist and

structuralist position are fundamental in understanding the power of tourism stakeholders and their intent to engage with policy development. Due to the interactions between structural and agency components, a purely positivistic or interpretative paradigm is rejected, based upon one focus of this work, that of bridging the gap between structure and agency, demanding an intermediate positioning between the philosophical stances of pure individualism and holism³⁶ (Hollis, 1994), as discussed in Chapter 3.

However, often tourism research has been underpinned by positivist science and/or quantitative methods, with research ranging from the development of tourism research as a research tradition and recognising dominant quantitative methods (Walle, 1997), examining triangulation of methods in tourism research to address shortcomings of single method approaches (Decrop, 1999), addressing that quantitative methods do not provide sufficient scope to contextualise and discover agency within tourists, businesses and destinations (Jamal and Hollinshead, 2001); and in examining the philosophical foci of Doctoral Theses in tourism submitted in the UK and Ireland (Botterill et al., 2002).

In the tourism literature there has been a greater consideration for viewing agents within a structural context with a rise in qualitative and mixed-method studies in this field in recent years (Ballantyne et al., 2009). There is a recognition that such intermediate approaches help contextualise the state of tourism research to a greater extent. Examples in the literature include an analysis of the historical development of tourism research traditions from which emerged that positivism remains the dominant paradigm, although qualitative and interpretivist studies in tourism are increasingly important, as such studies provide an insight into contextual information within a largely

³⁶ Individualism considers actors as individuals, whereas holism considers actors as partially embedded in social structures (Hollis, 1994).

economically-driven tourism industry (Riley and Love, 2000). Furthermore, Davies (2003) maintained that tourism research is dominated by positivism though he advocated the need to integrate qualitative and quantitative frameworks in tourism research to a greater extent to gain an improved understanding of the tourism industry. In addition, from a tourism policy perspective it has been recognised that using multiple approaches to understanding tourism policy contexts is desirable (Stevenson et al., 2008), with examples ranging from Pforr (2005) asserting that single method approaches for tourism policy do not capture change and lack analytical depth, to recognising the need to consider context as well as individuals in tourism policy making by adopting mixed methods (Bramwell and Meyer, 2007).

In this sense then, this study is primarily of a qualitative nature although both qualitative and quantitative research methods will be used. Ballantyne et al (2009) conducted a study into the trends of tourism research across the whole discipline³⁷ by analysing journal articles from twelve major tourism journals with a focus on changing methodological approaches in tourism research (Xiao and Smith, 2006). It emerged that the majority of articles focused on quantitative research designs (59%), with qualitative studies accounting for only 19% of all articles, and mixed method studies accounting for only 6% of all published articles (Ballantyne et al., 2009). However, it has been recognised that quantitative approaches, although often dominant in the tourism literature, are limited in their scope to capture the human and less tangible elements that are of importance in the dynamic tourism industry (Walle, 1997, Riley and Love, 2000, Jamal and Hollinshead, 2001, Davies, 2003, Phillimore and Goodson, 2004, Paget et al., 2010). Davies (2003: 100) stresses the dynamic nature of the industry in that tourism “is

³⁷ The most frequently published topic areas include: Tourist/Visitor studies with a focus on behaviour, preferences and perspectives of tourists/visitors; Tourism planning, focusing on tourism development, strategies, as well as predicting and forecasting; Destinations, focusing on destination image, management and development; and Marketing, focusing on marketing, segmentation and promotion (Ballantyne et al., 2009).

not only a collection of diverse and varied attitudes about societal significance, but it is also an industrial activity with interfirm relationships". On the other hand, a purely positivistic paradigm in business and tourism research often does not have the scope to embrace the changes and complexity of this dynamic environment due to laws and generalisations which are associated with a positivist paradigm, leading to a loss of rich insights (Veal, 1997, Saunders et al., 2000). This study adds to the emerging mixed-methods usage in the tourism literature by focusing on qualitative and quantitative methods.

One shortfall of using a purely positivist approach for this research, would be that it may not have the ability to capture institutional arrangements such as changing stakeholder behaviour within the industry, but often can only reveal trends and data-descriptive insights (Davies, 2003). Also, it has been claimed that quantitative research cannot fully address questions of understanding and meaning in tourism (Walle, 1997, Riley and Love, 2000), which, considering power, stakeholder intention and motivation to perform behaviours, are key issues to address for this research problem. The need for considering the context of any tourism related activity is essential in qualitative research, shaping the entities under study and their interactions both in relationships as well as their interactions with their natural surroundings (Riley and Love, 2000, Davies, 2003).

Qualitative research considers subjects more rather than trying to objectify the world as it is undertaken in quantitative research and positivist science. As such, qualitative research is much softer in its approach and meaning is sought as opposed to laws and generalisations. Studies of a qualitative nature are often based on case studies, ethnographies, focus groups, in-depth interviews, and personal observation (Tribe,

2005). Key for qualitative research is the interpretation of the research problem and the data collected. Although the majority of data collected will be rich, qualitative data, there is scope for some data to be quantified providing room for some statistical analysis as long as the “bulk of the analysis is interpretative” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 11).

Qualitative studies in the tourism policy development area have been conducted by a number of researchers such as, for example, Thomas and Thomas (2006) in a case study of tourism policy formation and change, Bramwell and Sharman (1999) in considering collaboration in local tourism policy making, Dredge (2006a, 2006b) with a focus on policy networks in tourism, Selin and Chavez (1995) have looked at a typology of sustainable tourism partnerships, Paget et al. (2010) examined actor-network approaches in the context of innovations of a local tourism company in French ski-resorts, Daengbuppha et al. (2006) used grounded theory to help model visitor experiences at three World heritage sites in Thailand, and Hares et al. (2010) researched the perception of climate change in combination with air travel decisions of UK tourists by using exploratory focus groups.

There has been some longstanding debate over the appropriateness of using qualitative or quantitative approaches, especially in terms of researchers favouring one approach over the other (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003, Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). However, in more recent years there has been greater consideration on viewing qualitative and quantitative approaches as complementary with an emphasis on using mixed-methods (Thomas, 2003, Woolley, 2009, Fox et al., 2010).

This study is both descriptive and explanatory. It is descriptive³⁸ in the sense that the conceptual discussion of power, stakeholder theory and the theory of planned behaviour are used to “map the territory” of the research problem (Veal, 1997: 3). It is explanatory³⁹ in that a narrow study of Scarborough is used to consider the conceptual framework and to seek and explain patterns and trends observed (Veal, 1997). Taking into account the focus on the concept of the TPB and how this relates to the power of a stakeholder and ultimately, how and why this may influence their intention to engage in tourism policy development, the research fits within both a descriptive and explanatory dimension.

4.3 Research approach

The research approach of this work is primarily inductive, although elements of the study can be classed as deductive. The inductive nature of this study is based on the notion of gaining a deeper understanding of stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context. Important in this context is the focus on exploring motivations and reasons of stakeholders to get involved in tourism policy development (Riley and Love, 2000, Saunders et al., 2000). The inductive focus is further supported by the qualitative approach to this study as well as the data collection methods used, by focusing on exploring rich contextual data.

Insights from the Scarborough case study will address the inductive aspect of this work.

It is addressed by the importance of context for this research problem with a focus on understanding the beliefs of individuals and their engagement with tourism policy

³⁸ A descriptive approach is used to gain a better understanding of the concepts prior to data collection and a deeper analysis of the concepts.

³⁹ The explanatory dimension considers an exploration of whether the conceptual framework developed, the methodology chosen and data collection tools developed, can help in understanding of how and why relationships and actions observed and commented upon by members of the Scarborough Forum for Tourism are made. According to Saunders (2000), in explanatory studies the focus is on studying a particular situation or a problem with the aim to explain the relationship between variables.

development shaped by certain events or behaviours as well as their structural surroundings (Riley and Love, 2000, Saunders et al., 2000). In other words, this addresses Clark's (1998) notion of 'problematizing', i.e. giving the research problem a context as discussed in Chapter 2, to help understand stakeholder power. Also, due to the nature of the problem and the case study approach, a small sample size will be used in the study, illustrating the research context, in line with an inductive approach.

The deductive aspect of this study relates to the process of how the conceptual framework of this research was compiled prior to any primary research being conducted based upon a literature review of key concepts (May, 2001). The quantitative data collection phase is driven in part by theoretical interests and not used to test hypotheses or draw generalisations.

Considering that this research utilises both a qualitative and quantitative approach to the research problem, it can be said that this research uses a mixed method approach (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003, Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). In this sense then, both qualitative and quantitative methods are used for data collection and techniques, which also affects the research approach. Miles and Huberman suggest why qualitative and quantitative data needs to be linked: "first, to enable confirmation and corroboration of each other via triangulation; second to elaborate or develop analysis, providing richer detail; and third, to initiate new lines of thinking through attention to surprises or paradoxes, turning ideas around, providing fresh insight" (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 41). Triangulation refers to the different data collection methods within a study, which will be discussed further in Section 4.5. For this research in particular, all three reasons as described by Miles and Huberman are applicable, although the second and third reason seem to be of greater relevance. This study seeks to not only elaborate and

develop analysis of stakeholder power and their engagement with tourism policy development by counting on different literature sources such as stakeholder theory, power and the TPB, but to also provide a fresh insight into the tourism policy literature by considering how power can be interpreted in a local tourism policy development context by drawing on frameworks of Foucault and Arendt, the TPB, and structure and agency.

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) identified that mixed methods research uses a deductive and inductive logic in a sequential fashion termed the inductive-deductive research cycle (see Figure 4.1 below). This research cycle illustrates that although there are both inductive and deductive reasoning processes underpinning a case study based research, there is no fixed starting point for either an inductive or deductive research approach. In other words, induction could come first, or deduction could come first as this depends on the personal and philosophical position of the researcher and at what stage the research is.

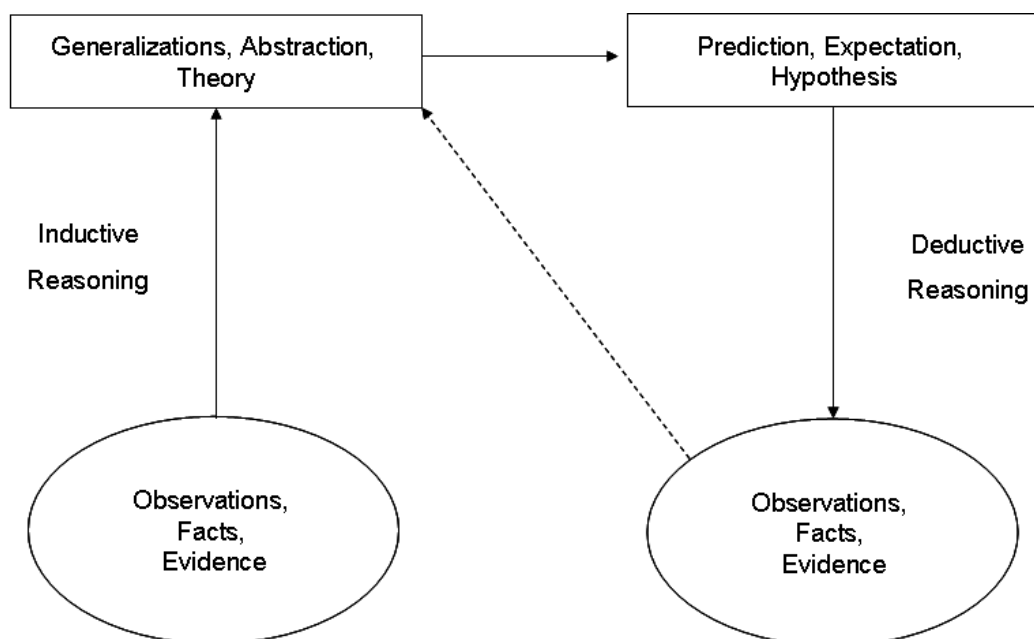


Figure 4.1: The Inductive-Deductive Research Cycle (adapted from Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009: 27)

Considering the research problem of stakeholder power and their intention to engage with tourism policy development, it is argued that this research is fundamentally derived from an inductive framework which will need to be reviewed once the research is complete. In terms of a starting point for this research in the inductive-deductive research cycle, it is based on the research problem and the expectations and hypotheses developed through the literature review and personal experience. For this study, the inductive aspect with a focus on a local Scarborough case study context, provides a starting point for understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development. However, although primarily inductive, given the interdependency of both approaches exactly pinpointing whether this research started as an inductive or deductive study is problematic as they are not mutually exclusive. In this sense, evidence of both inductive and deductive research approaches will be used to help address the research problem.

4.4 Case Study Setting

Case studies epitomize qualitative research and they are often classed as being an inductive approach used to identify and investigate context specific problems, in line with the primarily inductive research approach discussed in the previous section. Stake (2005: 444) considers the case study approach useful as it “concentrates on experiential knowledge⁴⁰ of the case and close attention to the influence of [the cases’] social, political and other contexts”. Furthermore, Remenyi et al. (1998) claim that case studies have the ability to illustrate relationships, corporate-political issues and other patterns of pressure in the particular context of being researched. The use of case studies in research has been explored in a number of different areas including the social

⁴⁰ Experiential knowledge: in a case study this denotes the disclosure of the experience of actors and stakeholders, as well as the experience of studying the case context (Stake, 2005), hence the knowledge one gains through studying the case.

embeddedness of entrepreneurs in networks (Ilbery and Maye, 2005), the evaluation of stakeholder influence in a project management context (Olander and Landin, 2005), in connection with policies on environmental issues in a small city (Stevenson and Greenberg, 2000), in an approach to consider integrated rural tourism along the Welsh-English border (Saxena and Ilbery, 2008), and in local tourism policy networks (Dredge, 2006a, 2006b).

Additionally and with a particular focus on the research problem of this study and the area of tourism policy and power, case studies have been used to illustrate the context specific research problem area. These include, for example, case study research on tourism public policy and federal state relations in New South Wales in Australia, as well as the interconnections between place identity and tourism planning institutions at a regional level in the same geographical area (Dredge and Jenkins, 2003a, 2003b), a case study approach to the difficulties and challenges of tourism policy implementation in Thailand (Krutwaysho, 2003), how tourism planning is approached in Spain from a longitudinal study perspective (Ivars Baidal, 2004), and how tourism policy is approached in Alpine regions and destinations (Pechlaner and Tschurtschenthaler, 2003). Evident in these examples are issues of collaboration and fragmentation of stakeholders and tourism businesses in the local tourism policy environment. For example, struggles and non-participation or a feeling of not being relevant for the tourism policy environment emerged due to bureaucracy and cultural factors in Thailand (Krutwaysho, 2003), and traditional tourism organisation, where the historical development of how tourism was maintained at a local level without wider reaching regional or national ties, has resulted in a fragmented tourism policy environment (Pechlaner and Tschurtschenthaler, 2003). This study seeks to address more closely the issues that are of importance in the Scarborough case study context focused on and

helping understand the reasons and motivations of why stakeholders are engaging in tourism policy development, which can have implications of how tourism policy development can be approached in Thailand or the Alps, for example, by considering individual stakeholders within their local setting.

A case study has been deemed a “research strategy” with an emphasis on understanding the dynamics present within single settings (Eisenhardt, 1989: 534). Typically case studies, in line with the mixed method approach for this research, use qualitative and quantitative data collection methods such as archives, interviews, questionnaires, and observations (Yin, 2003a). In this sense the data may be qualitative, quantitative, or both depending on the context of the research (Eisenhardt, 1989). Following Yin (2003a), case studies should be considered as a method with no particular preferred means of data collection. Due to the richness of data needed for a case study, multiple sources of evidence are required for data collection ensuring a comprehensive picture can be drawn of the case study context. Case studies differ from other inductive research methods such as ethnography and focus groups, as a case study has the scope to combine a range of different methods without being reliant on one method alone. This provides a more robust interpretation of the research problem and there potentially is more scope for generalisation or applying the conceptual framework to other similar contexts.

For this research problem, an instrumental single case study design is beneficial as this provides an insight into the questions of the ‘how’ and the ‘why’, and is concerned with examining contemporary events where no control over behavioural events is given (Stake, 1995, Yin, 2003b, Stake, 2005). An instrumental case study denotes that it is concerned with understanding a broader concept by using a particular individual or

situation for the study. In this research the broader concept is the power of stakeholders and their reasons for engaging in tourism policy development, where Scarborough and the Forum for Tourism is the setting in which it is investigated and explored. Bearing in mind the inductive research approach as discussed earlier, the case study is used more as a data collection tool than a research strategy per se.

The setting for this study is a case study approach of Scarborough and in particular the Scarborough Forum for Tourism, hereafter called 'the Forum'. In terms of a practical application and use of Scarborough and the Forum as the case study, this reflects the dual deductive and inductive approach adopted, being partly determined by the local understanding of how stakeholder power can be considered in the Scarborough context, as well as being guided by the literature and the need to focus more on the increased recognition of stakeholders in a public and private sector setting for tourism policy development. The Scarborough case study setting was introduced as part of the research problem at the beginning of the thesis to set the scene and gain an insight into the problems and challenges Scarborough is facing, which will be discussed further in Chapter 5. In this sense, this research utilises a case study approach to not only set the scene, but also explore and examine the value of the conceptual framework and insights from the data collection will help address the case study context further. As such, the research is reflective and findings from the different data collection methods (i.e. questionnaire, interviews, stakeholder mapping and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) – described in the following section) will help inform the case study.

To summarise then, due to the complex nature of the research problem of investigating the power of stakeholders and their motivations to engage with tourism policy development, a case study with multiple data collection techniques and analyses is

considered important to illustrate a deductive as well as inductive mixed method of study.

4.5 Data Collection Methods and Analysis

The data collection methods for this research are in line with how qualitative and quantitative approaches have been incorporated in the research design. The triangulation of research methods is used in an approach to understanding the power of stakeholders and how and why these are motivated to engage with tourism policy development in an English seaside environment. Overall, the data collection included a combination of different data collection methods and a multilevel analysis of data, including a questionnaire, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), stakeholder mapping, historical analysis which includes document analysis, and follow up telephone interviews.

Using the terminology of Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) this research uses a mixed method approach, as described above, where both qualitative and quantitative data collection procedures or methods are used. Within a mixed method approach qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis techniques are used in either a parallel or in a sequential manner. In parallel mixed designs⁴¹, the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study occur in a parallel manner, either simultaneously or with some time lapse. Simultaneous qualitative and quantitative analyses indicate that the data collection starts and ends at around the same time, whereas the time lapse approach indicates that the data collection for one aspect either starts or ends later than the other aspect. In parallel mixed designs the quantitative and qualitative aspects are used to answer different aspects of essentially the same research questions (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The sequential mixed design shows the quantitative and qualitative strands of the research in

⁴¹ Parallel mixed designs are also called concurrent or simultaneous designs (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009: 26)

chronological order. In other words, any questions, sample, or data collection techniques, for example, of one strand are dependent on or have emerged from the other strand. In terms of the underlying research questions, in sequential mixed designs the different strands and phases of research are related to another and have the scope to evolve and change as the research progresses. In this research, the sequential mixed design is important as each data collection method builds upon the previous one. This is especially relevant for the questionnaire phase and interview schedules aimed at Forum members as well as the resulting stakeholder maps. In particular, issues identified from the questionnaire findings and through the EFA, shaped the outline of the interview schedule. It helped in framing appropriate questions and identified different respondent groupings relevant to the study, based on different criteria and attributes. For a more detailed account of how the sequential mixed design has been used in this work, see Chapter 8, section 8.4 for a reflective account of the research process.

Using a triangulation of research methods in a mixed method approach, helps in gaining a deeper insight into a phenomenon where prevalence is given neither to a solely qualitative or quantitative approach. Triangulation denotes the use of different data collection methods within a study and assists in determining the validity of the data (Saunders et al., 2000). Based upon the three reasons for the use of a mixed method approach as outlined in Section 4.3, this study uses a triangulation of data collection methods, each of which will be considered in turn.

It is anticipated that using a questionnaire as well as document analysis⁴² and interviews will help assist in not only confirming aspects of the research problem, but also help provide a comprehensive picture of how power can be addressed in a stakeholder

⁴² Document analysis is part of content analysis, where documents are analysed within their context (Krippendorff, 2004).

context in a seaside resort. Comprehensive refers to the nature of how the research problem is viewed in this study, as it seeks to provide a framework which takes into consideration the main aspects that are deemed important, including a consideration of structural as well as agency elements which need to be addressed in the research problem context of understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside resort.

4.5.1 Questionnaire

In this study a self-administered online questionnaire is used to gain an understanding of the Forum for tourism members' intentions and motivations for engaging with tourism policy development, and in particular their reasons for attending the Forum (the case study population) as a way of engaging. The design of the questionnaire as well as an outline of the type of questions included will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Online questionnaires have been employed for a number of years in tourism research as technology has progressed and online based surveys are receiving wide attention for reasons of accessibility, cost and time saving measures (Dolnicar et al., 2009, Illum et al., 2010). Examples of uses of online questionnaires and online surveys in tourism include research into tourist preferences based upon unconscious⁴³ needs (Tran and Ralston, 2006), general research into using virtual communities in tourism (Illum et al., 2010), and a study investigating wine tourism in Spain (Alonso and O'Neill, 2009). However, there has been some criticism of the use of online based surveys in terms of their validity in comparison to more traditional 'paper-based' methods (Dolnicar et al., 2009), which include a lower response rate for online based surveys; sampling issues;

⁴³ Unconscious needs denote those needs that individuals are not aware of. Individuals are influenced by their surroundings and society without necessarily being aware that these are shaping an individual's needs or beliefs.

and access to participants, as an online based survey automatically excludes individuals who do not have access to a computer and the internet (Wright, 2005, Dolnicar et al., 2009).

The decision to use an online questionnaire was primarily based upon the fact that the Forum uses email as a preferred and main form of contact for sending out agendas, minutes of meetings, and other information either for pure informative purposes or if there are any consultation exercises. Using the main form of contact of the Forum for the dissemination of the questionnaire yields the highest response rate and is a familiar channel of communication for respondents. Also, using the main form of contact of the Forum eliminates the previously mentioned criticism of the access to respondents, where individuals without internet access would be disadvantaged. Research suggests that there are other advantages of using an online based questionnaire: having the ability to contact the whole population of the Forum; email providing greater control over reaching the correct respondent as most users read and respond to their own email; saving time; and keeping the cost of the data collection low by moving from a paper based format to an electronic format (Saunders et al., 2000, Wright, 2005, Dolnicar et al., 2009). Also, Dolnicar et al (2009) point out that there is a lower dropout rate for online respondents resulting in a high percentage of complete data. As with more traditional survey research methods, such as a telephone questionnaire or other interviewer administered data collection methods, an online questionnaire has the advantage of preserving the anonymity of the respondents to a certain extent, where respondents may feel more at ease in expressing their viewpoints which they may be hesitant to disclose in a face-to-face or more personal situation (Wright, 2005).

In this study an online software package or survey tool is used called *Questback* (www.questback.com), in designing the questionnaire being very user friendly for respondents. The survey tool helped in designing the questionnaire by providing templates for the layout and question styles. *Questback* is comprehensive in that the email addresses of all respondents are input into the software generating a 'Respondent Manager' which provides a platform for tracking responses from individuals based on their responses. From there it is possible to send email reminders to all non-respondents, making the data collection and the follow-up stages accessible and manageable for the researcher. Also, an advantage of using *Questback* as an online survey tool is automated data input and there is the possibility for the software to analyse the data (Wright, 2005). In this study however, the raw data will be exported to SPSS and Excel for further analysis to prevent any contamination of the data.

Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted prior to the main data collection process to test the appropriateness of questions in terms of wording and suitability for exploratory factor analyses. The pilot study was based on the same design and the same questions as used in the study, although some adjustments had to be made so as to concur with the research population and setting of the pilot study. The study was conducted within Hull University Business School (HUBS) at the Scarborough Campus with a primary aim of testing the questionnaire in terms of wording and design, as well as to test the use of the online questionnaire software tool *Questback*. It was decided to conduct the pilot study within HUBS due to ease of access, HUBS being a similar sample size and a similar structure to the Forum for Tourism, and HUBS staff having likely similar motivations driving their attendance at University wide as well as departmental meetings. The results of the questionnaire were analysed using an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to

further test the appropriateness of using an EFA for a small sample in this research context. The pilot study highlighted some issues with wording and the order of questions which were rectified, but confirmed the appropriateness of using and conducting an EFA for this research.

Sample and Population

In this study a census is used as this incorporates the whole population of the Forum (Cooper and Schindler, 2001). A total of 167 respondents were emailed with an invitation to participate in the survey. Considering that the unit of study (i.e. the population) is relatively small, it was decided to use a census approach, as a census counts all elements of a population (Cooper and Schindler, 2001). This was to ensure a high potential representation of the target population for the questionnaire. Other sampling measures such as random sampling would not have captured the richness of data collected specifically from this population of the Forum due to the population being small. By using a census approach all members of the Forum were approached to ensure validity and rigour for the research as steps were taken to obtain the highest possible response rate by selecting a census approach (see Figure 4.2).

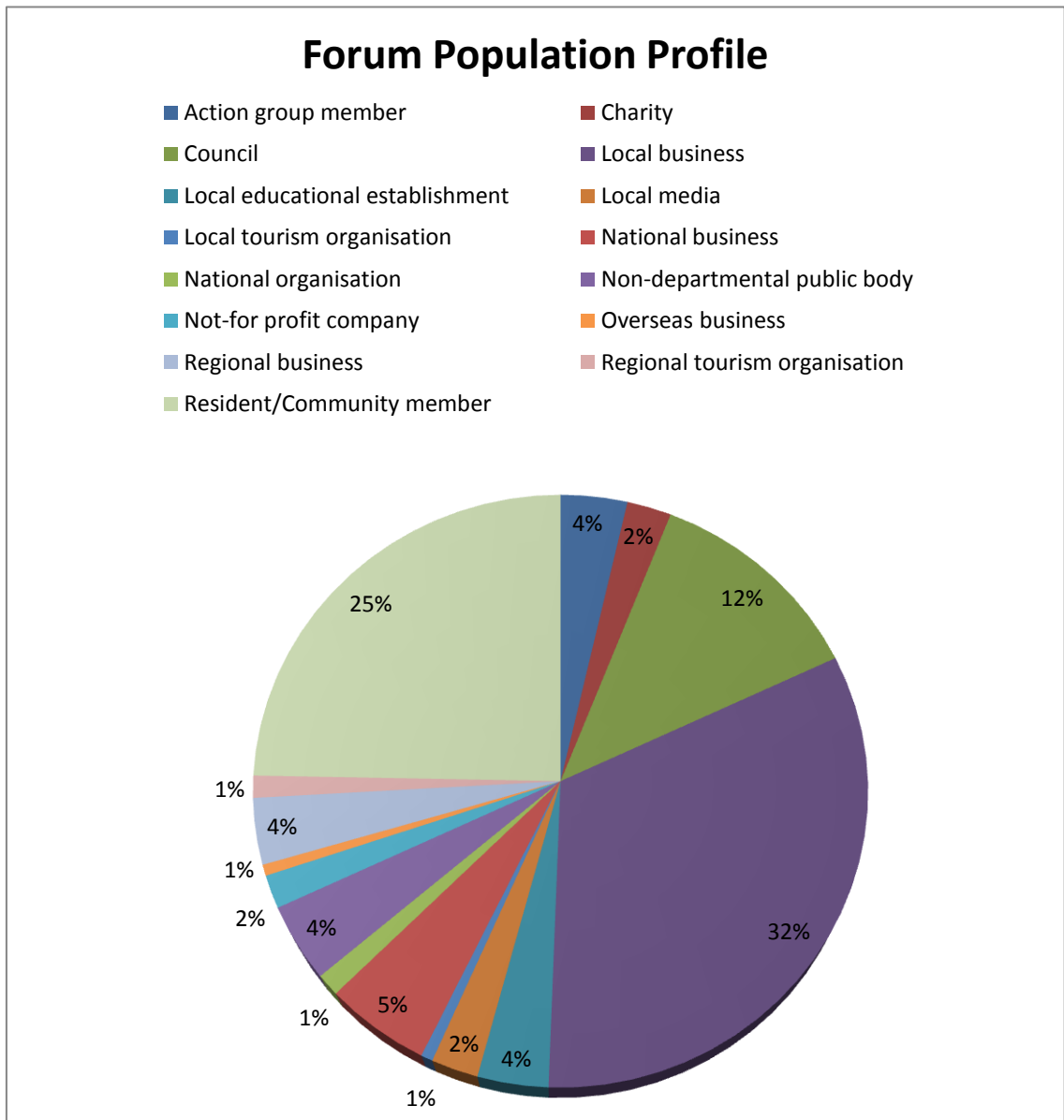


Figure 4.2: Forum Population Profile (n=167)

The Forum sample population profile indicates a high representation of local businesses (32%), and residents/community members (25%), as well as members of Scarborough Borough Council (12%), cumulatively accounting for more than one-third of the sample population overall. As can be seen there is also scope for a regional as well as national reach of the Forum distribution list in the tourism industry, although the focus on the local tourism context prevails. Due to the high representation of the local business sector in the Forum sample, Figure 4.3 shows a breakdown of the different sectors that are represented.

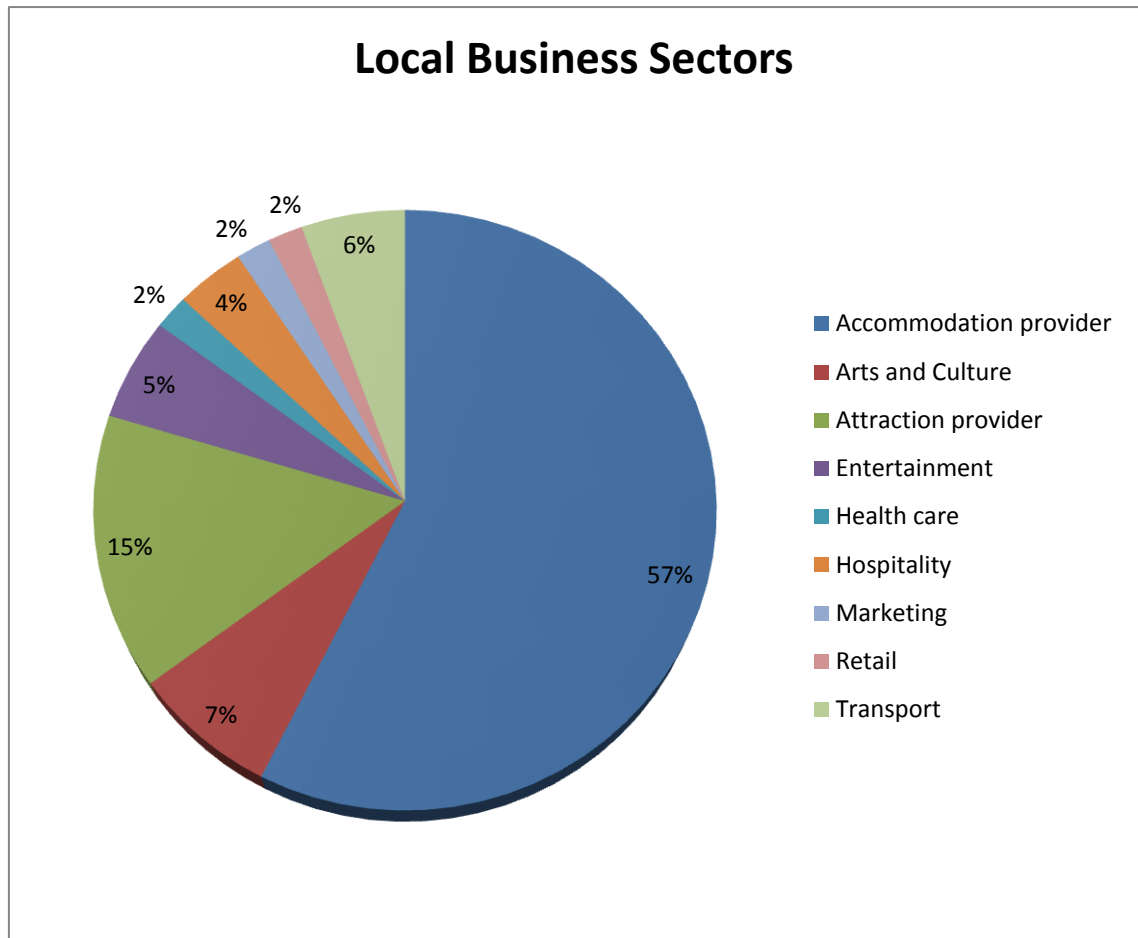


Figure 4.3: Local Business Sectors (n=54)

Of the local businesses, accommodation providers form the majority of businesses (57%) with attraction providers forming the second largest sector (15%). Other sectors include arts and culture, entertainment, health care, hospitality, marketing, retail and transport. Most sectors that are included in the Forum email distribution list as the sample population are directly related to tourism, with health care forming an exception in terms of a direct link to tourism.

Ethical Considerations

Respondents were emailed a consent form which was sent in a separate email to the questionnaire invitation as the software tool did not allow any attachments or links to any documents such as a consent form. Respondents were asked to return the consent

form electronically or via post, a copy of which can be found in Appendix I. The consent form was accompanied by an information letter requesting consent outlining issues of confidentiality. Respondents were informed that none of the data collected would mention names or organisations so that a response could be traced back to any individuals. Responses were number coded and stored confidentially. Upon completion of the research project, the data will be destroyed. In addition, respondents were advised that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time without any adverse consequences.

Questionnaire Design

In total, the questionnaire comprised 40 questions including six routing or filter questions to provide further opportunity for clarifying questions and items of interest emerging from the question. These routing or filter questions were designed to explore contextual questions⁴⁴ further and also to minimise confusion for respondents if a particular question did not apply to them (Finn et al., 2000).

The questionnaire was designed to address a threefold purpose: (1) to gain contextual understanding for stakeholder mapping and stakeholder analysis purposes; (2) to include elements of the theory of planned behaviour for statistical analysis; and (3) to utilise the proposed power elements as discussed in the conceptual framework for the purpose of an exploratory factor analysis. As such the questionnaire had a mixture of attitudinal, open ended and contextual closed questions. In addition, using the *Questback* online survey software package had the distinct advantage that questions could be constructed to either allow single or multiple answers to a question by the respondents (see Appendix II for a copy of the questionnaire).

⁴⁴ Contextual questions: used to gain an insight into the local context of the research problem area, often open-ended questions providing insight into respondents' feelings or attitudes to particular areas.

The questionnaire produced two types of data for analysis in line with the mixed methods approach of the study: scaled attitudinal questions with a view to conducting an exploratory factor analysis in SPSS; and non-scaled contextual questions for stakeholder analysis and mapping, as well as demographic information (see Table 4.2). As such, the questionnaire included both closed and open-ended questions as recommended for mixed methods research (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The closed questions were chosen to ease statistical analysis especially with respect of the exploratory factor analysis and help address stakeholder analysis. The open-ended questions were included to ask for respondent specific opinions and perceptions of a particular topic and to gain a deeper insight into their relationships.

	Concept	Non-EFA questions (non-scaled questions)	EFA questions (scaled questions)
1	Stakeholder role sets	6	9j, 16a, 16c, 21
2	Stakeholder salience	15, 18	9f, 19a, 19c
3	Weber's associative relationships	7, 17, 25, (26)	1, 10, 19b
4	Structure		9a, 9k, 19d
5	Subjectivity	22, (23), 24, 27, (28)	11a, 11b, 19e
6	Agency		9g, 9i, 11c, 14, 16b
7	Social relations	2, 3, 12, (13), 20	9h, 11d, 16f
8	Visibility		9c, 9d, 16e
	Public space		9b, 9e, 16d
	Stakeholder mapping	4, 5, 35, (36), 37, 39	

Table 4.1: Forum Questionnaire Coding

For the purpose of conducting an exploratory factor analysis based upon the elements found in the theory of planned behaviour, attitudinal questions were based upon a seven-item Likert scale rating. The attitudinal questions were all closed questions and consisted of a number of statements designed to explore respondents' intentions and

motivations for engaging in tourism policy development and in particular their feelings towards the Scarborough Forum for Tourism and reasons for attending and engaging in meetings. Attitudinal questions were useful in the sense that it was possible to test a series of attitudes focused on a topic without having to rely on a single question as an indicator for what were a complex set of attitudes towards a particular topic (May, 2001). Attitudinal questions were used to illustrate a topic and provide deeper insight into the topic area and respondents' perceptions.

The Likert scale in this questionnaire included different attitudinal questions such as asking respondents to rank the importance (1 = very important to 7 = very important) of a particular statement, the extent of their agreement to a range of different statements (1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree), and how valued respondents felt with regard to their contribution to the Forum for Tourism (1 = very valued to 7 = very unvalued). In addition each scaled question included a 'Don't know' option for respondents to help ensure consistency and completeness of data. The literature suggests different scales which typically include a four- or five-point scale (Finn et al., 2000, Saunders et al., 2000), but also include a seven- or even ten-point scale (Lehmann and Hulbert, 1972, Struthers et al., 2000). Typically a five- or seven-point scale is used in tourism surveys as these are "fine enough to differentiate between responses and coarse enough to enable respondents to place themselves" (Finn et al., 2000: 96). A seven-point Likert scale rating was chosen to ease statistical analysis and comparison of questions. The seven-point scale was deemed more appropriate for the research, as a seven point scale provides more detail and a broader spectrum for respondents to place their answers. Furthermore, if there is a focus on individual behaviour in the research, Lehmann and Hulbert (1972) suggest that five- or seven-point scales should be used. In order to

ensure that respondents read each question and/or statement carefully, the questionnaire also includes a mix of positive and negative statements (Saunders et al., 2000).

Considering that the questionnaire was designed to produce two types of data as discussed above, Francis et al (2004a, 2004b) proposed the use of both direct and indirect questions for the scaled attitudinal questions for the purpose of the exploratory factor analysis. Direct questions seek to measure a respondent's overall attitude (i.e. Regular attendance is a must. – agree/disagree), whereas indirect questions look at a respondent's specific beliefs and outcome evaluations (i.e. By attending Forum meetings regularly it is likely that my business will flourish.). Direct questions then look specifically at issues or statements which a respondent is able to evaluate appropriately and are more easily comparable. Indirect questions are much more complex in that a respondent's belief is measured over which they may not be able to make assertions about particular outcomes. In this research it seems reasonable to assume that participants are able to make assertions about particular outcomes and resultant intentions, due to the respondents having been involved in the tourism industry and the Forum for a number of years and have a common interest in attending and or engaging in meetings. Therefore direct questions are asked in the questionnaire. In addition, using direct questions only follows Ajzen's TPB framework a lot more closely and minimizes any misunderstanding or coding and analysis issues in the data. A further reason for using direct questions only in the questionnaire is that the purpose of the questionnaire and resultant analysis is not to predict or forecast behaviour as discussed by Francis et al's (2004a, 2004b). Instead the TPB aspect is used to gain an understanding of people's behaviours but not to predict future behaviour.

4.5.2 Telephone Interviews

In addition to the questionnaire, telephone interviews were conducted with some Forum members. These telephone interviews are used to gain more in depth information following from the questionnaire data and the resultant exploratory factor analysis (discussed in Section 4.5.5) to clarify particular issues, especially with regard to the stakeholder mapping exercise. The telephone interviews were divided into two different groups, both utilising a snowball sampling approach (Stevenson and Greenberg, 2000) – in the first group respondents were asked about their specific ties with other Forum members; and the second group was asked about specific ties with other Forum members as well as further contextual questions. The complete telephone interview schedules can be found in Appendix III.

As such the telephone interviews are non-standardised and semi-structured in line with a qualitative and mixed method approach (Saunders et al., 2000, Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The questions in the interviews were designed as open-ended questions to allow for an unprompted response from interviewees expressing their own understandings (Patton, 2002). Such types of interviews including open-ended questions are traditionally used for face-to-face interviews but are equally used in telephone interviews (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, Timur and Getz, 2009).

The decision to use telephone, as opposed to face-to-face interviews, was based on the advantages this method holds for the researcher. Using a telephone based interview can help respondents feel more anonymous which may encourage them to respond more freely than if approached directly for a face-to-face interview. Also, time constraints meant that this method was more easily employed and would also yield a high response rate and a very quick turnaround rate (Veal, 1997, Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). In

addition, telephone interviews are relatively inexpensive to undertake as there are no travelling costs associated with an office-based telephone interview schedule, and the researcher has the advantage of recording notes directly on a computer alleviating any need for transcribing handwritten notes (ibid).

As with any data collection method, there are limitations associated with a telephone interview method. The most apparent limitation is the lack of eye contact and personal interaction with respondents while the interview is being conducted. Body language and facial expressions of respondents can therefore not be observed by the researcher during the interview (Veal, 1997). However, considering the nature of the telephone interviews conducted in this study and the position of the researcher, such a limitation is deemed acceptable. No sensitive questions were included where a record of body language and facial expressions would have been essential. Interviewees were familiar with the researcher, as Forum meetings were attended and interviewees had previously been emailed the questionnaire and a request to participate in the study. However, to ensure that respondents were fully aware of their participation, the research context and the interview process were explained again to each respondent prior to the interview.

Telephone interviews are widely used in tourism research and especially for case study approaches and smaller sample sizes. Alonso and Northcote (2010), for example, used a mixture of face-to-face and telephone interviews with 23 olive-growing operations while researching the development olive tourism in Western Australia; Choo and Jamal (2009) employed in-depth telephone interviews with an open-ended question design with organic farmers to investigate tourism on organic farms in South Korea as a new form of ecotourism. Considering the mixed-method research approach, the use of telephone interviews for the purpose of triangulation was deemed appropriate in

conjunction with the other data collection tools to provide a more comprehensive picture.

A more detailed account of how the telephone interviews were conducted and an outline of the two groups and associated questions is presented in Section 6.4 in Chapter 6.

4.5.3 Stakeholder mapping

Stakeholder mapping is used in this thesis as a tool to visualise the findings and data generated from the questionnaire and the telephone interviews. Stakeholder maps have been used in tourism research particularly in connection with conducting social network analyses with regard to collaboration and stakeholder assessment in tourism planning in Brazil (de Araujo and Bramwell, 1999), in developing a tourism planning model by adopting stakeholder maps (Sautter and Leisen, 1999), and in managing stakeholders in sustainable urban tourism using the example of three North American cities (Calgary, Victoria and San Francisco) (Timur and Getz, 2008). The advantage of using stakeholder maps lies in the visual representation of the stakeholder network within a particular setting, showing relationships and ties between stakeholders and making it easy to identify clusters or sub-groups within the network. Stakeholder maps were used to show the relationships between attendees of the Scarborough Forum for Tourism and to also provide an insight into other relationships these stakeholders may have. This will focus on the membership/attendance of different groups and committees within a local Scarborough area focus and a more regional North Yorkshire level. The North Yorkshire level was chosen as an area of the study in addition to the local Scarborough level to gain an insight into respondents' links and interests in the tourism industry. Considering the structure of the Forum in terms of its position in relation to other local government or regional government and tourism bodies, an analysis of respondent's

linkages at the North Yorkshire level could provide a deeper insight into their influence and visibility. Stakeholder maps were created using a software program called *Pajek*, which is an exploratory social network analysis program created by de Nooy, Mrvar and Batagelj (2005). Although *Pajek* was created for use with social network analysis, this research does not undertake social network analysis per se. *Pajek* is used as a tool to create and visualise the stakeholder maps, as *Pajek* produces graphically better drawings than if drawn by hand, and aspects such as the density and degree centrality of networks can be displayed, as will be discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.5. The software program is free to download, comes with an accompanying instruction book and is standard for the discipline (De Nooy et al., 2005).

Pajek has been used in a wide variety of studies looking at social network analysis and to visualise those networks (Huisman and van Duijin, 2005, Baggio, 2007, Nugroho and Tampubolon, 2008, European Distributed Institute of Taxonomy, 2009).

The data for stakeholder maps is mainly generated from the telephone interviews although some data from the questionnaire was used. As discussed above, a snowball sampling method was used to identify the Forum members and their relationships with other Forum members (Curran and Blackburn, 2001). It is anticipated that the use of such visual stakeholder maps shows the prominent stakeholders of the Forum and those stakeholders who have the most ties. In connection with the data from the questionnaire and additional information gained through the telephone interviews, it may be possible to draw some conclusions about their power within the Forum for Tourism and ultimately whether they have any influence on tourism policy making based on these attributes.

4.5.4 Document Analysis

Document analysis is used in this thesis to provide the setting of the study and to illustrate the research problem to a greater extent. As such, the document analysis is not discussed in any great detail in a separate section in Chapter 6, but is used to inform the research overall and each section individually. Insights from the document analysis play a secondary role from a methodological perspective.

In this research document analysis includes an analysis of past agendas and minutes of the Forum, any information that was circulated to Forum members using the email distribution list, Forum attendance lists, local and regional tourism strategies, strategic documents published by Yorkshire Forward and the Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership, newspaper articles, as well as documents relating to other action groups and the council within Scarborough. In particular the focus of the document analysis is to provide an overview of the Forum within its strategic function, especially in relation to its relative power or influence in Scarborough and at a North Yorkshire regional level.

4.5.5 Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative data analysis section will be concerned with the analysis of the data collected through the online questionnaire. The data will be analysed using the SPSS statistical software package. Considering the research problem and the aim of the work, it is felt that conducting factor analysis (FA) and in particular, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), would yield the most relevant results for this study.

Factor analysis is used in this research to help identify the most important aspects of power in this tourism policy development context. It helps simplify complex sets of data

and can be seen as a method of data reduction (Kline, 1994, Tabachnik and Fidell, 2001, 2007). In more technical terms, factor analysis is a statistical technique designed to “reduce a large number of inter-correlations among measures to a small number of interpretable dimensions” (Zeller, 2003: 1). As such, factor analysis reduces the number of variables to produce a smaller number of factors based upon the correlation of the variables (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2001). There are different types of factor analyses used in research: exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (DeCoster, 1998). The distinction is based upon the purpose and aims of the main two types. However, the literature suggests that there is a third type of factor model named principal component analysis (PCA)⁴⁵, often simultaneously mentioned with EFA (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2001, Blunch, 2008). The purpose of EFA, as the name suggests, is to explore a large number of variables, to explore the field and to “discover the main constructs or dimensions”, i.e. the factors that are important (Kline, 1994: 7). Exploratory factor analyses were first introduced by Spearman in 1904 to measure intelligence on a bifactorial analysis and used primarily in psychology (Zeller, 2003, Thompson, 2004), although due to their complexity and often cumbersome hand-calculations, these were infrequently used.

EFA is primarily used when the researcher has no prior expectations regarding the number of factors or the nature of the factors. However, Thompson (2004: 6) states that should a researcher have specific expectations about the EFA, the researcher does not need to declare these and the analysis is therefore not influenced by these expectations

⁴⁵ PCA is a procedure of data reduction, and its purpose is to “derive a relatively small number of components that can account for the variability found in a relatively large number of measures” (DeCoster, 1998: 3). The difference between EFA and PCA is the fact that they are based on two different models: in EFA it is assumed that the measured responses are based on the underlying factors; in PCA the principal components are based on the measured responses (see Figure 2 for an illustration). PCA is to be used when the researcher is interested in “summarizing a number of correlating variables in a few new variables with the smallest possible loss of information”, and EFA is to be used when the interest lies in explaining the correlations in a set of data as a result of a few underlying factors (Blunch, 2008: 71).

(as in a validity investigation). EFA then is to be used where the links between the observed and latent variables are unknown or uncertain (Byrne, 2010). Latent variables in a factor analytic context are the variables that cannot be measured directly, they are therefore the unobserved variables or factors. The observed variables on the other hand, are the variables that can be measured and are sometimes termed manifest variables. The process of analysis therefore “constitutes the *direct* measurement of an observed variable, albeit the *indirect* measurement of an unobserved variable (i.e. the underlying construct)” (Byrne, 2010: 4).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the other hand, is regarded as a method of testing specific hypotheses, and was developed much more recently by Jöreskog (1969). Thompson (2004: 6) states three aspects which the researcher needs to have specific expectations for when conducting a CFA: “(a) the number of factors, (b) which variables reflect given factors, and (c) whether the factors are correlated”. In CFA, the analysis starts with a hypothesis and only after this hypothesis has been developed, the variables are selected which might fit with the structure of the developed hypothesis (Child, 1991). Zeller (2003) stresses the need for a very robust and strong framework before a CFA is to be conducted, where the hypotheses are derived from strong theory with very meticulous and considerable specification. He further emphasises that there has to be confidence *a priori* about “how many factors are necessary and sufficient to describe the data, about which items define which factors, and about the pattern of association among the factors” (Zeller, 2003: 1). If this confidence is low or if there is any doubt about this *a priori*, then exploratory factor analysis is to be used in place of a confirmatory factor analysis. As a summary, Table 4.3 below outlines the main differences between EFA and CFA.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)	Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Every manifest variable is connected with every latent variable (as in component analysis) ▪ Error terms are uncorrelated ▪ All parameters are estimated from the data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Manifest variables are only connected with some pre-specified latent variables – the ideal being that every manifest variable is an indicator for one and only one factor ▪ Some error terms may be allowed to correlate ▪ Some of the parameters may be constrained to certain values or may be constrained to have same values as other parameters

Table 4.2: Differences between EFA and CFA (adapted from Blunch, 2008:127)

There is some debate in the literature as to when the EFA and/or CFA are to be conducted. As Child (1991: 7) succinctly phrased the difference between EFA and CFA: “in the former [EFA] one is trying to discover structure in the variables used, whilst in the latter [CFA] one chooses variables to confirm a predetermined structure”. The two approaches differ in their analyses, in that in EFA the measurement or reduction of variables is based on a correlation matrix and the extraction of factors. In CFA there is more detail and although a CFA can be seen as a direct follow up of an EFA, CFA has been linked very closely to structural equation modelling (SEM). As such, CFA has also been regarded as a path analysis and includes a deeper consideration of latent variables and their relationship with observed (or manifest) variables. The difference between the three factor models is depicted in Figure 4.2 below.

However, in both EFA and CFA there are two types of factor rotation: orthogonal and oblique rotation to help improve the interpretation of factors and to discriminate between factors (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2007). The orthogonal rotation is used when factors are assumed to be uncorrelated and therefore independent of each other, and will remain so after rotation. In orthogonal rotation, the axes remain at the same 90° angle when rotated, ensuring that the factors remain uncorrelated (Child, 1991). The second type, oblique rotation, is used when the factors correlate with each other. Graphically

this is represented by the axes not remaining at the 90° angle used in orthogonal rotation (Child, 1991, Field, 2009).

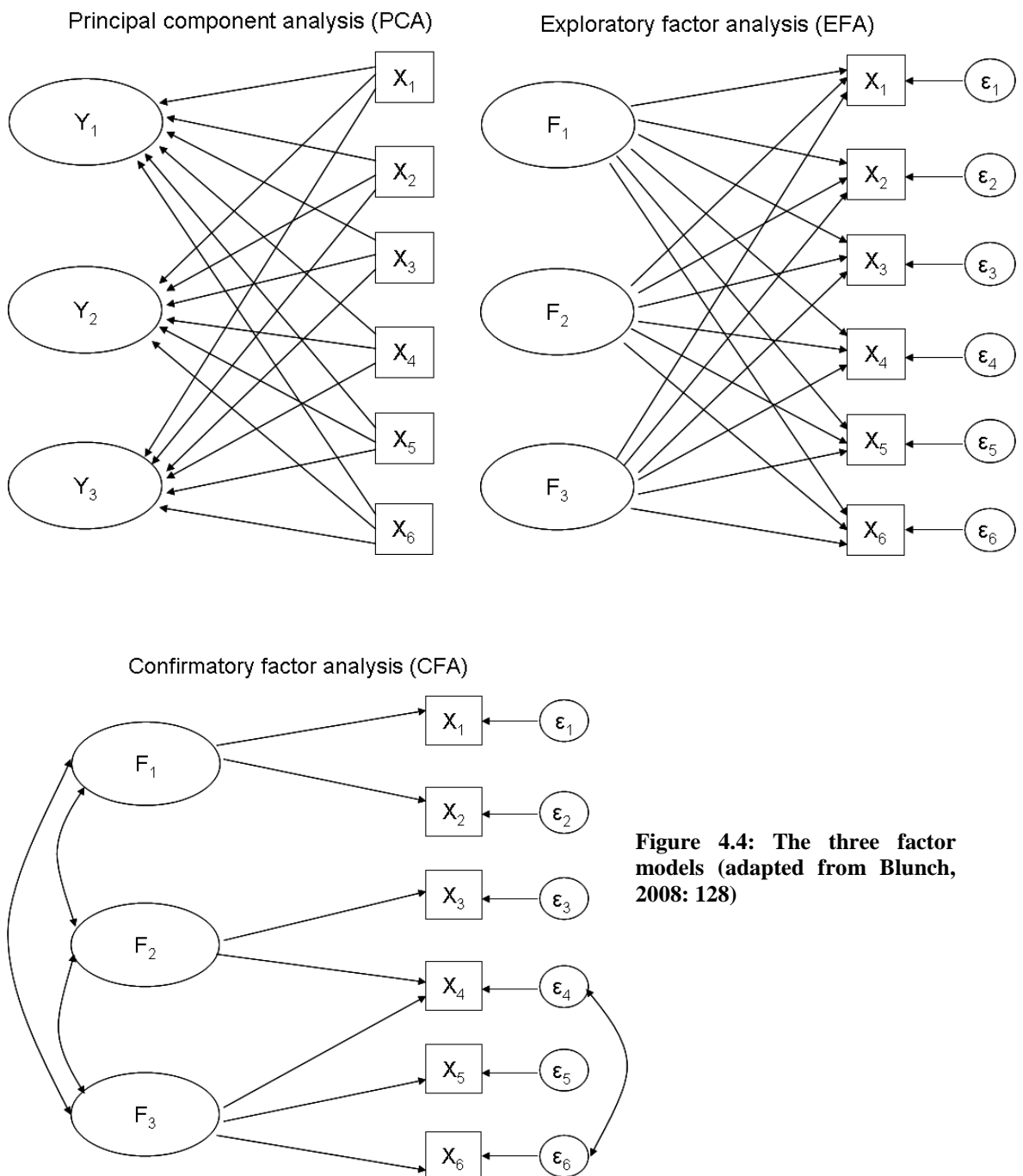


Figure 4.4: The three factor models (adapted from Blunch, 2008: 128)

The close links between confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling are based upon the purpose of the analysis. In SEM the emphasis is placed on taking a confirmatory approach (as in CFA) to the analysis of a theory, and as such considers the

causal processes between multiple variables (Byrne, 2010). Furthermore, Byrne (2010: 3) states the two important aspects of the SEM procedure as the following: “(a) the causal processes under study are represented by a series of structural (i.e. regression) equations; (b) these structural relations can be modelled pictorially to enable a clearer conceptualization of theory under study”. Considering that SEM takes a confirmatory approach, how does SEM differ from CFA? Although EFA and CFA are statistical procedures in their own right, in connection with SEM, these only represent one part of the SEM process. The factor analytic models EFA, and CFA in particular, emphasise the extent to which the observed variables are linked to the latent variables, i.e. the factors. In this context, the focus is on factor loadings, which is the strength of the regression paths between the observed variables and factors. CFA is termed a *measurement model* in an SEM context, due to the sole emphasis on the link between the factors and their observed variables (Byrne, 2010). CFA, unlike SEM, does not account for relationships or links between factors themselves.

The SEM framework then is made up of two parts: a *measurement model*, illustrating links between latent variables and observed variables as described above, and a *structural model*, depicting the links between factors themselves. This is termed a full latent variable model (LV), as it provides the scope to consider both links between the observed variables and the factors, as well as accounting for the links between factors. As such, “the researcher can hypothesize the impact of one latent construct on another in the modelling of causal direction” (Byrne, 2010: 6-7).

As indicated at the beginning of this section, it seems appropriate to use an exploratory factor analysis approach for this study. Considering the research focus on exploring what may or may not contribute to stakeholder power and their intention to engage with

tourism policy development, provides a good framework for using exploratory factor analysis in determining some of the aspects of the research problem. The use of the theory of planned behaviour in this research in connection with the concepts of power of Foucault and Arendt, anticipates that an exploratory factor analysis will yield insights into the factors that motivate stakeholders to engage with tourism policy development. Although EFA is generally claimed to be used when the researcher has no preconceived ideas about the outcomes or expectations of the latent variables under study, this study will use EFA although there are some expectations with regards to the factors that may contribute to the overall framework which have been derived from the literature.

Theoretically then, it would seem appropriate to utilise a CFA approach as there are some preconceived expectations in terms of factors that may be important for the conceptual framework, and emerge as deciding factors of power, and ultimately be the influential aspects in identifying the intention to participate in tourism policy development. However, Zeller (2003), as discussed previously, states that a researcher needs to be confident *a priori* of the number of factors, which items describe which factors and their association in order to conduct a CFA. In this study, the number of factors remains uncertain as these have been derived from the literature and are the result of the researcher's interpretation of the literature and the construction of the conceptual framework. Therefore an EFA will be conducted to help reduce the number of manifest variables in terms of the elements of power of stakeholders within the conceptual framework. Ultimately this reduction of manifest power variables is expected to result in the development of a clearer understanding of stakeholder theory in the context of a tourism policy development environment.

An additional reason for the use of EFA as opposed to CFA (and SEM) is based upon the context of the study. Seeing that this study has adopted a case study approach in exploring stakeholder power and their engagement with tourism policy development, the sample size is necessarily small due to the case study setting of the Forum for Tourism in Scarborough. In conducting EFA the guidelines on sample sizes are not as strict as they are for CFA and SEM, as the purpose and aim of the two factor analytic methods is different. As discussed, in EFA the aim is to explore a particular phenomenon, whereas in CFA the aim is to test particular hypotheses. As such, CFA requires a greater sample size to ensure the validity of any hypotheses made and to provide greater corroboration of the data (DeCoster, 1998). In the literature there has been some debate about appropriate sample sizes based on either a total sample size, or examining the ratio of subjects to variables (Osborne and Costello, 2004). However, a minimum total sample size has been suggested with 50, although there is no hard and fast guideline or rule about the sample size that needs to be adopted as a minimum measure. In fact, Osborne and Costello (2004) maintain that absolute sample sizes are simplistic as each scale will differ depending on the study context, and that practically there are uses of EFA based on samples with fewer subjects than items or parameters. “Adequate sample size is partly determined by the nature of the data” (Costello and Osborne, 2005: 4). In addition, considering that the EFA is not the only data collection tool in this study, it is argued that any results from a small sample size can be corroborated and validated by cross referencing to the other primary and secondary data collection tools.

Factor analysis has been used extensively in tourism research. For example these include an EFA in investigating destination brand images from a business tourism perspective (Hankinson, 2005); the use of EFA to consider the dimensionality of scale

of important variables in the development of a tourism impact attitude scale (Lankford and Howard, 1994); the use of EFA in measuring tourists' involvement in tourism experiences, place attachment and the elements of lifestyle choices (Gross and Brown, 2006); the use of EFA in a study investigating the perception of smiling customer service within the airline industry (Hunter, 2010); and the use of EFA in researching the destination image and trip quality in investigating how destination image and evaluative factors can affect behavioural intentions (Chen and Tsai, 2007).

More importantly, some tourism studies have used factor analyses in connection with the theory of planned behaviour. Sparks (2007) used EFA in analysing the factors derived from TPB and wine tourism experience to identify which factors can help predict tourist behavioural intentions in planning a wine tourism vacation. Furthermore, Lam and Hsu (2006) utilised EFA in helping to predict the behavioural intention of tourists in choosing a travel destination. The study considered the applicability of the theory of planned behaviour on how tourists choose a travel destination.

In this research then, it is anticipated that using a combined approach of the theory of planned behaviour in connection with using an exploratory factor analysis, will yield a deeper insight into the reasons and factors affecting the intention and motivation of stakeholders in engaging with tourism policy development. As such, the questionnaire as a primary data collection tool was designed to fit a threefold purpose: (1) to gain information on the relationships of stakeholders to be used in stakeholder mapping, (2) to address the different components of the TPB (attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control), (3) to translate the TPB items into a statistical analysis for EFA, with the ultimate goal to achieve a more comprehensive insight into what

power variables are of importance for stakeholders in engaging with tourism policy development.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has outlined the methodology of the thesis including the research philosophy, the research type, the research approach, as well as each of the data collection methods. In terms of the research philosophy, this thesis considers a functionalist as well as a structuralist position following the structure and agency discussion and the development of the conceptual framework in Chapter 3. As such the dual research philosophy is utilised to go against the traditional quantitative vs. qualitative research approaches in the tourism literature, although a qualitative research philosophy is primarily adopted. Continuing in bridging the gap between traditional research types, this thesis is both descriptive and explanatory to provide a comprehensive and fresh perspective of the research problem and its context. The descriptive aspect mainly refers to the contextualisation of the research problem and used to “map the territory” (Veal, 1997). To complement the descriptive aspect of the research, the explanatory aspect considers the interplay between the methodology chosen and the conceptual framework and whether these address the research problem sufficiently. In particular the explanatory dimension of the work studies stakeholder power and their engagement in tourism policy development as a particular situation and seeks to explain it more rigorously.

As with both the research philosophy and research type, the research approach also spans two different approaches. In this sense, the research is primarily inductive but there is evidence of some deductive aspects to the work. Following guidance from the literature, the research approach is deemed to be primarily inductive due to the focus on advancing an understanding of stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy

development in an English seaside context. The focus is on providing a greater understanding of stakeholder engagement and to help an understanding of the meanings that actors as stakeholders attach to certain events (i.e. in the tourism policy development environment in Scarborough). This especially refers to the insights from the Scarborough and Forum for Tourism case study context. Deductive insights will follow from more of a methodological consideration in that the development of the conceptual framework followed a theoretical path from constructing the CF to the actual data collection process.

Following in an intermediate philosophical path, the thesis adopts a mixed method approach by using both qualitative and quantitative data collection tools and methods. Using inductive and deductive research approaches in a sequential manner assists in ensuring that there is reflection within the research process to provide the most appropriate conduct of the research. The mixed method approach adopted belongs to a minority or emerging strand of tourism research as advocated by Ballantyne (2009). For this research, such a mixed method approach reflects the functionalist and structuralist research philosophy and addresses the structure and agency discussion to a greater extent by ensuring that both aspects are considered in the context of the research problem.

Since the research is primarily a qualitative study using a mixed method approach, a case study setting seemed appropriate in investigating the power of stakeholders, their reasons and motivations for engaging in tourism policy development within a Scarborough seaside resort context. Bearing in mind that the research is problem driven, the case study is used to not only set the scene but is also used as an inductive tool to inform the research problem context further. Also, unlike other qualitative and inductive

methods such as ethnographies or focus groups, the case study allowed the combination of qualitative and quantitative data collection methods and tools. In essence, the mixed methods are exemplified in the triangulation of methods. In particular and following Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), the use of a sequential mixed design is appropriate for this work, as each data collection method effectively builds upon the previous one, where quantitative and qualitative designs are used in chronological order.

The first step in the data collection process was the use of a 40-item online questionnaire emailed to 167 respondents using a census sampling approach. The use of an online questionnaire was based on the main means of communication between members of the Forum ensuring a sufficient response rate. The questionnaire was designed to fit a threefold purpose: (1) to gain contextual understanding for stakeholder mapping and stakeholder analysis purposes; (2) to include elements of the TPB for statistical analysis; and (3) to use the proposed power elements from the conceptual framework for the purpose of an exploratory factor analysis. The questionnaire is then followed up by telephone interviews to clarify the findings of the questionnaire and for stakeholder mapping purposes. The telephone interview respondent selection follows a snowball sampling method. As a result of the telephone interview data, stakeholder maps are to be constructed visualising the stakeholder relations within the Forum using Pajek to draw the stakeholder maps for both a local and regional level. It is anticipated that comparing the two different regional levels can assist in identifying the power of stakeholders and their outreach. The questionnaire data would not only be used to identify items for further investigation for the telephone interviews but the majority of questions would then be used for the purpose of an exploratory factor analysis. EFA is used in this research to identify the most important aspects of power in tourism policy development established in the conceptual framework discussion in Chapter 3. One

deductive aspect here is that the EFA is used as a measure of data reduction after hypothesising the conceptual framework components derived from a theory of planned behaviour background. In other words, it is used to test whether the eight items discussed in the conceptual framework are in fact viable. It is further anticipated that the EFA yields desired insights into the factors that motivate stakeholders to engage in tourism policy development.

Chapter 5

Case study setting

5.1 Introduction

This Chapter outlines the case study setting of Scarborough in terms of its location, size and economic focus. Furthermore the Forum for Tourism is considered in terms of its history and development as well as current status within a wider tourism policy environment. Consideration is also given to the national and regional tourism structures and the interrelatedness of the public and private sector within the tourism sector. Special focus is placed on current changes in national government and how this has had an impact upon the organisation and management of tourism at a local level.

5.2 Scarborough

The setting for the case study in this research is the town of Scarborough located along the Yorkshire coast. Scarborough is the administrative centre for the Borough of Scarborough which covers an area of around 330 square miles, stretching along the whole 43 miles of coastline of North Yorkshire from Staithes in the north to Filey in the south (Scarborough Borough Council, 2004, Audit Commission, 2009). The principal towns in the Borough are Scarborough, Whitby and Filey with a combined resident population of 108,500. Scarborough town is the largest centre of population within the Borough with an estimated resident population of 51,660, Whitby with 13,570, and Filey with 6,780 residents (North Yorkshire County Council, 2010). The Borough incorporates 53 parishes and 88 villages of which 62% of the area is located within the North York Moors National Park. Figure 5.1 below shows the administrative boundary

of Scarborough Borough Council and Scarborough's situation within the North York Moors National Park.



Figure 5.1: Map of Scarborough Borough boundary (Ordnance Survey, 2006)

The population statistics indicate a high proportion of older residents with more than 40% of the population aged over 50, with 20% of those residents aged over 65, higher than the national average (North Yorkshire County Council, 2010). The national average based on 2008 figures provided by the Office for National Statistics indicates that 16% of the population in England was estimated to be aged 65 or over (Office for National Statistics, 2010). Scarborough therefore has a high proportion of older residents in comparison, posing a potential challenge for the local authority in terms of accommodating those needs of an ageing population in the future with appropriate resources. A report by the House of Commons (2007) as well as Beatty et al (2010), support this appearance of a higher than average proportion of pensioner households in seaside resorts in Britain. This can be attributed to both an inward migration of older people moving to the coast to retire, and an outward migration of younger people

moving away from the coast in search for better employment opportunities (House of Commons, 2007) as discussed in Chapter 2.

Scarborough was Britain's first seaside resort and today the local economy still reflects a focus on tourism. During the peak tourist season over the summer it is estimated that this day-population of staying and day visitors can increase the population in Scarborough by 200% (Scarborough Borough Council, 2004). However, tourism is not the only economic sector in the Borough, although there is a concentration of the service sector such as, for example, retail (18.6%), health (16.7%), and hotels and restaurants (14.9%). In addition to the service sector focus, Scarborough also has a considerable manufacturing base (15.1%) with national and international organisations (for example, McCain's and Plaxton's) producing in Scarborough (Scarborough Borough Council, 2004). In part, the development of the manufacturing base has offset some of the economic challenges that the town has faced due to the changing tourist industry following the advent of overseas travel in the 1950s and 1960s. Beatty et al (2010) estimated that around 4,200 year-round jobs were directly supported by seaside tourism in Scarborough between 2006 and 2008. Borough-wide tourism supports over 7,000 jobs (Scarborough Borough Council, 2005b).

Scarborough as a town and principal seaside resort faces some challenges which have been identified by Scarborough Borough Council in various publications and strategy documents such as the *20/20 Vision Strategic Investment Plan* from 2004 and the *Borough Tourism Strategy* dating from 2005 (Scarborough Borough Council, 2004, 2005b). The main challenges are not exclusive to Scarborough but are a widespread concern among seaside resorts as well as other coastal towns (Beatty et al., 2010).

As identified in the recent *Strategy for Seaside Success*, seaside resorts in England share common characteristics which pose challenges for regeneration and future socio-economic development within the resorts:

- “disproportionate levels of worklessness, with associated poor health
 - Reliance on a declining tourist trade and other low wage, low skill and sometimes seasonal employment sectors
 - An imbalance in seaside labour markets with low representation of jobs in economic growth sectors (professional and financial services, the knowledge economy)
 - A polarisation in the quality of local housing between highly desirable owner-occupied property, and often poor quality private rented accommodation (including high concentrations of caravans in some areas)
 - Peripheral location (both in terms of road, rail and digital links)
 - Demography (particularly ageing and transient populations)”
- (Communities and Local Government, 2010)

This recent Government *Strategy for Seaside Success* document reflects some of those challenges identified in the *20/20 Vision Strategic Investment Plan* published by Scarborough Borough Council in 2004 (Scarborough Borough Council, 2004, Communities and Local Government, 2010). In particular, for Scarborough the issues were identified as follows, although these do not focus exclusively on tourism:

- “relatively high levels of unemployment and relatively low levels of economic activity – a reflection of low levels of private sector investment and new business formation combined with a decline in some principal employment sectors

- relatively low levels of educational attainment and qualifications (32.4% with no qualifications) – linked to socio-economic factors, poor health and lack of skilled job opportunities for school leavers and graduates
 - relatively low levels of notifiable crime but high “fear of crime” levels – accounted for partly by the affects of anti-social behaviour in certain communities and an elderly population
 - relatively low house prices – but with significant recent price increases particularly in attractive rural areas such as the National Park (raising issues of affordability) and problems associated with concentrations of houses of multiple occupation in central Scarborough
 - A high quality of environment but with major problems associated with coastal protection, out of date tourism infrastructure and poor quality buildings”
- (Scarborough Borough Council, 2004: 5).

These problems and challenges are not atypical for seaside resorts around the country as can be seen by comparing tourism strategies from other seaside resorts. Similar problems have, for example, been identified for Blackpool, Margate, Bridlington, and Great Yarmouth (East Riding of Yorkshire Council, 2004, Blackpool Council, 2006, Great Yarmouth Borough Council, 2007, Margate Renewal Partnership, 2009). The focus in each of the tourism strategies is that of greater partnership working between public and private sectors at both regional and local level, to develop existing markets and attract new tourists by diversifying the tourism product and extending the season, generating more jobs, as well as focussing on increasing tourism spend in the area whether these are day or overnight visitors.

In Scarborough, measures have been taken to address some of the issues identified above through a regeneration programme mainly funded by Yorkshire Forward, as will be discussed in more detail in the following sections. The *Borough Tourism Strategy 2005-2010* looked at a particular tourism focus, as tourism remains a very important economic pillar for Scarborough and the Borough. The Borough's tourism product is varied and includes natural and built heritage such as the coastline and North York Moors National Park, Whitby Abbey and Scarborough Castle, as well as cultural assets such as the renowned Stephen Joseph Theatre, home to playwright Sir Alan Ayckbourn. In addition, there are significant caravan and holiday parks along the Yorkshire Coast, predominantly between Scarborough and Filey (Primrose Valley and Cayton Bay, for example). Spatially the three dominant resorts within the Borough can be said to each have their own unique target markets and therefore tourism product on offer: Scarborough and Filey are traditional seaside resorts although Filey has a quieter family orientation, and Whitby is marketed as a historic/heritage town. In terms of revenue, tourism accounts for over five million visitors to the Borough every year, generating over £380m spending annually (Scarborough Borough Council, 2005b, Audit Commission, 2009).

As in many seaside resorts around Britain, the domestic tourism market changed with the advent of mass tourism and charter flights in the 1950s and 1960s where holidays abroad became fashionable and affordable, making it more difficult for seaside resorts to compete within the marketplace as discussed in Chapter 2. Traditionally tourists would spend their holiday, often with family (children and grandparents), at the British seaside for a week or two, making this seaside stay their main holiday in the year. However, rising disposable income in combination with the possibility of relatively cheap holidays abroad meant that the type of holiday taken by tourists changed. No

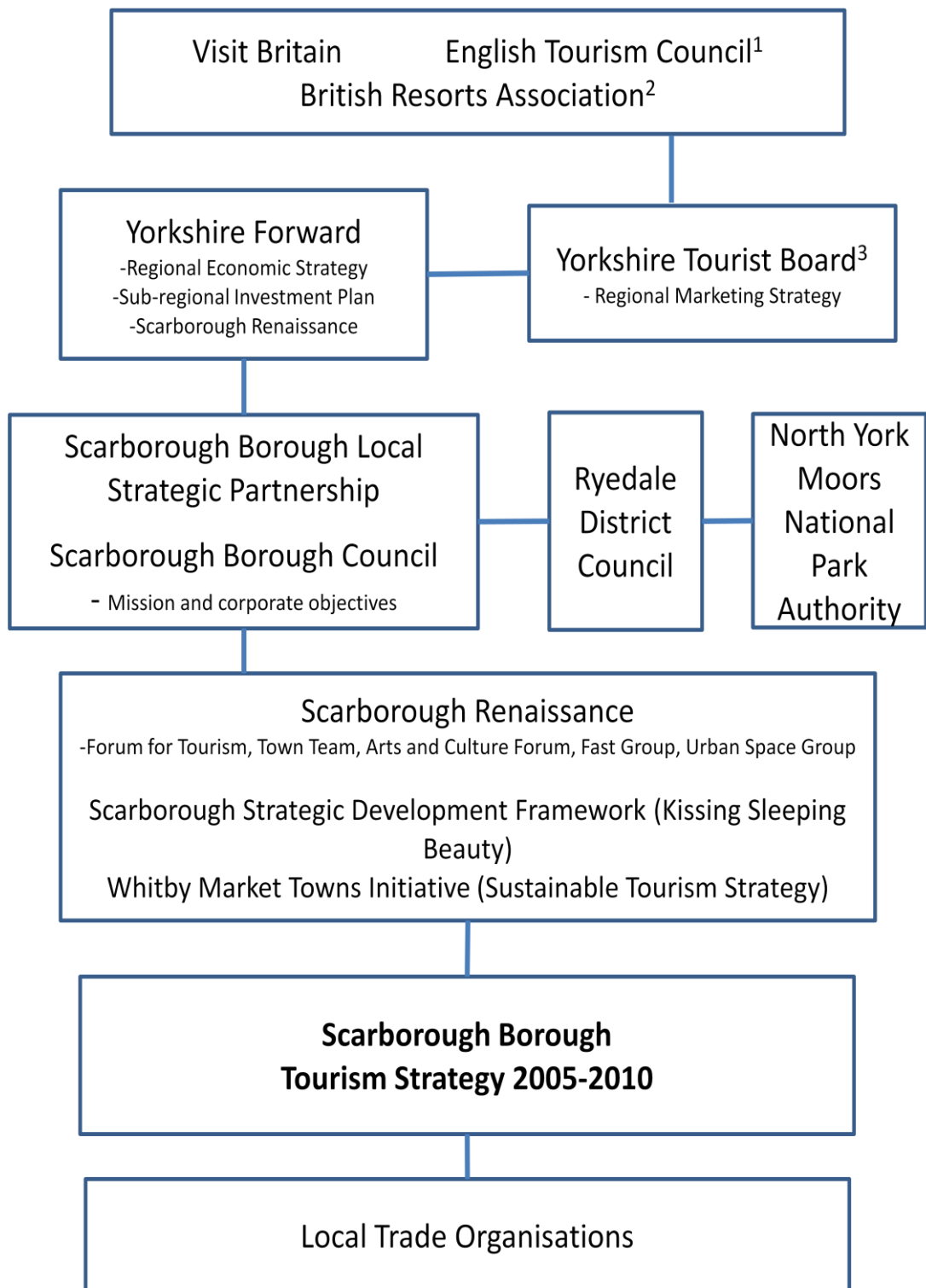
longer were tourists looking at taking just one holiday per year, but two or three, which has had an effect on, not only the length but the type of holiday taken. Tourists would typically have one holiday abroad and would then also take a couple of shorter domestic breaks throughout the year. In particular, this changed tourist demand saw an increase in shorter overnight staying visits as well as a high increase of day visitors to seaside resorts. Often this changed tourist demand and has been equated with the decline of the British seaside resort economy (Middleton, 2001, Agarwal, 2002, Beatty and Fothergill, 2003, House of Commons, 2007, Beatty et al., 2010). However, literature suggests that the so-called decline is not terminal but that the holiday characteristics and demands of tourists have merely changed in the light of cheaper air travel and holidays abroad (Beatty et al., 2010). Coastal tourism is still a large part of the local, regional and national economy in the UK. For Scarborough district⁴⁶ this currently equates to approximately 7.5 million visitors annually with an estimated spend of £300m per year (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2011). For Scarborough this has meant that in terms of a strategic and longer term development perspective, this changing demand needs to be addressed in subsequent tourism strategies.

From a strategic perspective, Scarborough Borough Council is responsible for the formulation, development and implementation of a local tourism strategy, the latest which was published in 2005 (Scarborough Borough Council, 2005a, 2005b). However, considering that a tourism strategy is essentially a policy document, its formulation, development and implementation is influenced by both regional and national policy framework guidelines. Figure 5.2 below shows the strategic context of the Borough Tourism Strategy when introduced in 2005, by indicating the various organisations⁴⁷

⁴⁶ N.B. The communication from Welcome to Yorkshire did not specify the geographical area of Scarborough district.

⁴⁷ The figure has been amended to show current names of organisations.

that have an input into the local tourism strategy document and form at least one part in the delivery of tourism, ranging from developing regional policy to the actual delivery of tourism in the destination. Most notably the figure shows the different levels from a macro- to a micro-perspective as associated with the power school of thought (Mintzberg et al., 1998), and provides an appropriate overview of the setting of the case study and the sample population used in this research. This research specifically focuses on the Forum for Tourism to further an understanding of stakeholder engagement in tourism policy development.



¹ now VisitEngland ² now British Resorts & Destinations Association (BRADA)

³ now Welcome to Yorkshire

Figure 5.2: Strategic context of the Borough Tourism Strategy (adapted from Scarborough Borough Council, 2005b)

The Forum was established in 1995 as a group which looked at tourism as a whole in Scarborough, bringing together different tourism provisions such as hoteliers and accommodation providers, attraction providers, and other associated tourism related businesses. Prior to this, various different tourism sectors had created action groups or forums focusing on particular sectors of the tourism industry such as hoteliers, conferences, and attractions, often duplicated by areas such as North Bay, and Eastborough and the Old Town, for example. However, no overarching group existed which would pull all these different strands together to look at the tourism industry as a whole in Scarborough. The creation of the Scarborough Forum for Tourism closed this gap. Since its beginning, the Forum structure and organisation has changed, partly influenced by local changes but also by regional and national changes in the policy areas concerned with tourism. In this sense, at its outset, the Forum was a membership group with members paying annual membership fees to cover costs for administration and venue booking costs, as well as to help fund projects and promotions in the town. Figure 5.3 below shows the structure of the Forum at its inception in 1995 where the Forum had no other local working links other than Scarborough Borough Council (North, 2011).

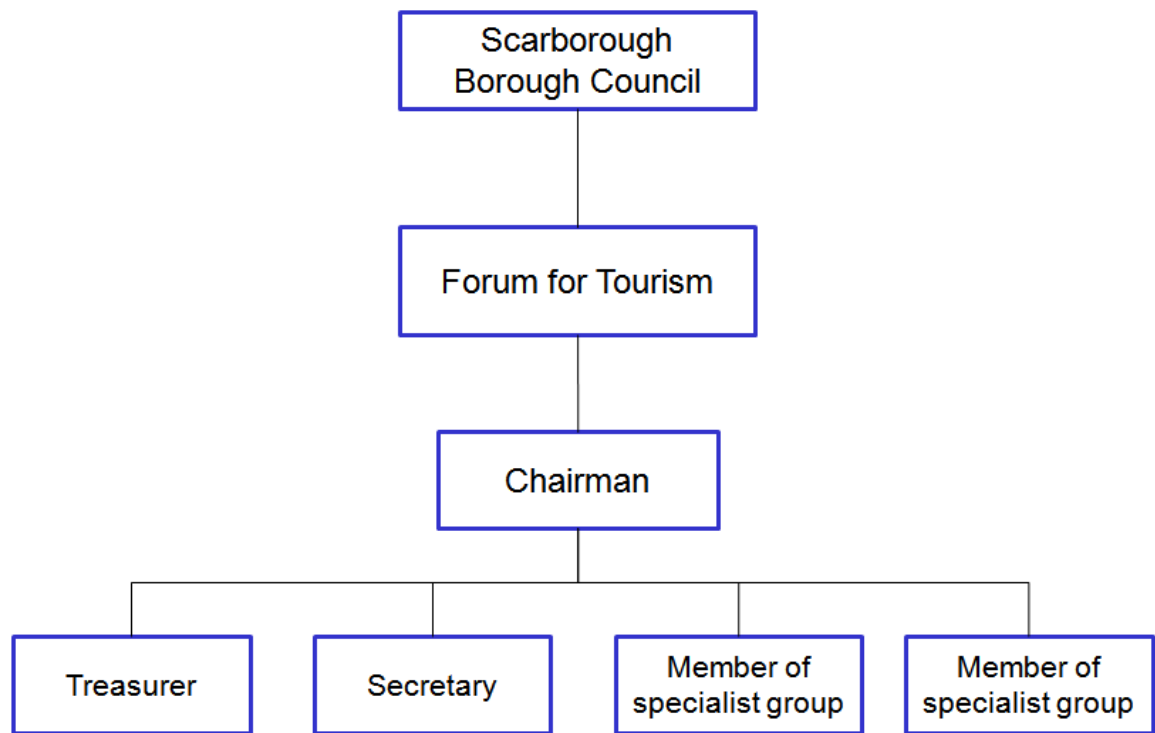


Figure 5.3: Forum for Tourism structure in 1995

At the time there was a focus on setting aside and organising specific tourism days inviting ministerial guest speakers and local residents to advance tourism in Scarborough. Another focus was on attending and getting involved with some national tourism bodies (Yorkshire Tourist Board, English Tourism Council) and to bring together those different groups within Scarborough who had an interest in tourism as outlined above to avoid duplication and overlap of functions.

Currently the Forum meets on a monthly basis and is open to everyone to attend and contribute in the meetings and there are no membership fees. To understand the current organisation and position of the Forum in the overall strategic context, there is a need for a brief outline of national and regional tourism structures, while the discussion also considers the role of the Forum within those contexts.

5.3 National, regional, and local structures

The role of national government in tourism is one of promoting and developing tourism by providing “funding and an overall strategic direction for increasing the health and vitality of the tourism sector” (Tourism Insights, 2009). At the highest level, the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) is the government body responsible for tourism in England. Tourism is a devolved activity in the UK and therefore the DCMS does not include London, Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland, which have their own dedicated tourism bodies. However, VisitBritain is the lead British national tourism agency.

VisitBritain is funded by the DCMS and was established in 2003, initially to market Britain as a tourist destination overseas and to coordinate the domestic tourism marketing in England. Alongside VisitBritain the other tourism agencies such as VisitEngland, VisitScotland, VisitLondon, VisitWales, and Northern Ireland Tourist Board, would concentrate on the individual regions within the UK. In 2009, after a review of structures, VisitEngland and the other regional tourism agencies were made into stand-alone organisations from VisitBritain focusing on the marketing of individual regions (Tourism Insights, 2009). The main difference between VisitEngland and VisitBritain is their focus, with VisitBritain focusing on building the value of inbound tourism to Britain to developing and mature overseas markets and to coordinate research and market intelligence for the industry as a whole. VisitEngland on the other hand is responsible for marketing to the domestic market as well as selected mature overseas markets (VisitBritain, 2011). However, partnership working between VisitBritain and the regional tourism agencies is a key aspect for those organisations, ensuring that the tourism industry is best presented harvesting the expertise generated around Britain.

Moving towards more local levels of tourism structures or those that affect tourism, nine English Regional Development Agencies (RDAs)⁴⁸ were created in 1999 to enhance economic development in the regions, not with a pure tourism focus but looking at all aspects of the economy of which tourism forms one part. As such RDAs activities are business-led and consider economic development and regeneration in the nine areas of England. For Scarborough in particular, the RDA for the area, Yorkshire Forward, has been highly influential. In 2001 an Urban Renaissance programme was launched by Yorkshire Forward to help support the economic and social regeneration of Yorkshire's towns and cities. This included the creation of Scarborough's Urban Renaissance regeneration programme with a focus on improving the town economically, environmentally, and socially. Scarborough was then the 'pilot' Urban Renaissance town and stressed the importance of community engagement in the town to promote social and economic regeneration (Yorkshire Futures, 2009). It was funded collaboratively across the public sector, attracting £9m from Yorkshire Forward, £6.5m from the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), and over £7m from the local authority Scarborough Borough Council (England's RDAs, 2010a). In addition, the regeneration programme of Scarborough has attracted over £200m investment into the town from the private sector.

Over a period of nine years (2001-2010) several large-scale projects were developed and implemented based upon public consultation in the early stages. To date, the main project achievements for Urban Renaissance in Scarborough have been the development of the Creative Industries Sector, which saw a £5m development of the Woodend Museum into a Creative Industries Centre to support the growth of creative businesses

⁴⁸ The nine RDAs are: Advantage West Midlands; East of England Development Agency; East Midlands Development Agency; London Development Agency; Northwest Regional Development Agency; One North East; South East England Regional Development Agency; South West RDA; and Yorkshire Forward (England's RDAs, 2011)

which now account for 8% of Scarborough's economy; boosting the visitor economy by a development of the harbour area creating a high quality environment attracting increased visitor numbers and visitor spend; improved private sector investment and confidence, especially focused on tourism, with the £200m Sands Leisure Complex Development on North Bay, upgrades of The Grand Hotel and high investment in The Crown Spa Hotel, the opening of a Travelodge and a Premier Inn new build hotel, and the development of Scarborough Business Park on the outskirts of Scarborough along the A64; the opening of the Open Air Theatre; and high levels of community engagement through public participation in the Town Team and associated Action Groups such as the Forum for Tourism, Arts and Culture Forum, and the Urban Space Group (England's RDAs, 2010a, Urban Renaissance, 2010). These successful projects have resulted in a number of accolades that have been awarded to Scarborough in recent years: Enterprising Britain 2008, Most Enterprising Place in Europe 2009, International Association for Public Participation 2009, and The Academy of Urbanism Great Town Award 2010 (England's RDAs, 2010a, Urban Renaissance, 2010). Overall the change in economic focus to look at a year-round operation to combat high unemployment levels during the traditional low season winter months has worked well for Scarborough. Figures from Yorkshire Futures indicate that unemployment was 50% higher in the winter months in 2000, but that by 2008 unemployment was only 10% higher in the winter months than in the summer season (Yorkshire Futures, 2009).

After the creation of Urban Renaissance in Scarborough in 2002, the Forum was then regarded as an action group under the Town Team, along with various other action groups looking at different aspects of Scarborough as a whole. A total of eight action groups were formed which include Urban Space Group; Arts, Culture & Festivals; Transport; Forum for Tourism; Creative Coast; Harbour, Sandside & Piers;

Scarborough Business Association; and Digital Scarborough. The Town Team would then bring together the business and ideas brought forward by the action groups. Figure 5.4 below illustrates the organisational structure of Urban Renaissance and the Town Team. However, this change in focus of the Forum being an action group under the Town Team umbrella of Urban Renaissance, meant that membership fees had to be dropped, as funding was provided through the Urban Renaissance programme which in turn was funded by Yorkshire Forward, the region’s RDA. From a strategic perspective the Forum was not just one of the action groups under the Town Team but the Chairman of the Forum was also part of the Executive Board of Urban Renaissance (North, 2011).

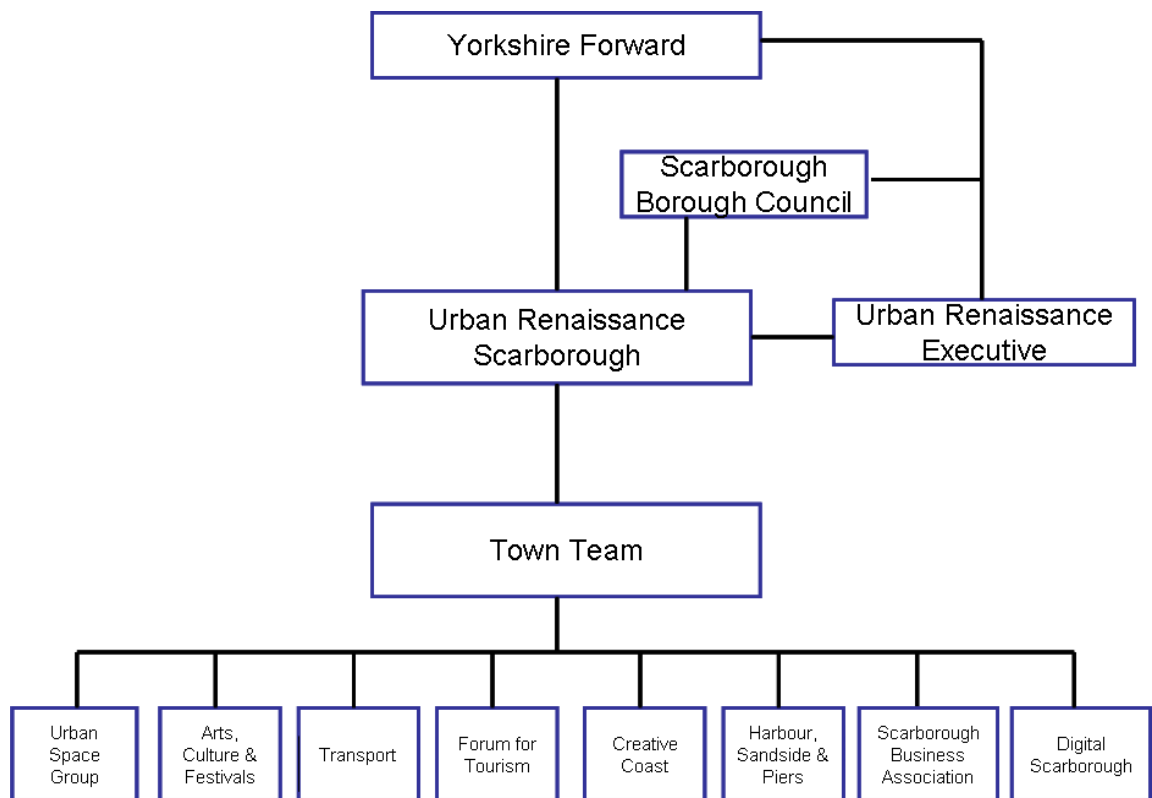


Figure 5.4: Structure of Urban Renaissance since 2002 (prior to disbanding of RDAs)

However, the role of the Forum is not just constrained to Urban Renaissance, this also applies to Yorkshire Forward and its influence on Scarborough’s tourism industry within the structures of regional tourism bodies. Under Yorkshire Forward’s RDA

remit, RDAs were given strategic responsibility for tourism in their areas by the national government in 2003 (Scarborough Borough Council, 2009, Tourism Insights, 2009). As a result of a re-shape of tourism structures following the devolvement of tourism responsibility to the RDAs, three area tourism partnerships (ATPs) were created for North Yorkshire. These include Harrogate and the Dales, York, and the Yorkshire Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership (YMCTP or MCTP). For Scarborough the MCTP is of relevance as this partnership covers the areas of Hambleton and Ryedale in the North York Moors, and Scarborough on the coast, initiated to look at tourism product development, promotion and visitor management across the three areas. The ATPs were designed to bring together expertise from the public and private sector and in the case of the MCTP, it is an unincorporated, not-for-profit organisation (Scarborough Borough Council, 2009). From the outset of the creation of the MCTP in 2006, the Forum has played a pivotal role especially in the early stages of consultation, as well as assisting in hosting two Tourism Summits in Scarborough. In addition, there has been a close working relationship between the MCTP and the Forum, with the MCTP regularly presenting at the monthly Forum meetings. The formation of the MCTP included the creation of an *YMCTP Area Tourism Plan 2006-2009* with an emphasis on increasing visitor expenditure by 5% per year, to increase visitor days and extending these visitor days to the shoulder months and off-peak tourist seasons, to maximise visitor satisfaction, to increase business profitability by improving skills and innovation, and to ensure tourism is conducted in a sustainable manner having the least amount of impact on the environment as possible (Scarborough Borough Council, 2009).

However, this has caused problems in the actual practical implementation of those aims and the operation of the partnership due to the vastly different tourism products on offer in the MCTP region (Scarborough Borough Council, 2009). In terms of marketing the

area, there is a distinctive divide between what the Moors region (Hambleton and Ryedale) can offer tourists, and the tourism offerings of Scarborough and the coastal region. Different brands and target markets with different marketing requirements and audiences. In Scarborough and the coast the tourism brand is already well established being the area with the third highest number of staying visitors in the region, whereas the tourism brands of both Hambleton and Ryedale are less developed.

Related to this, Scarborough Borough Council (2009) have identified that a further problem lies in the commitment of the three areas to the ATP and the success of the partnership. This is based on the value and significance of tourism to the economy in Scarborough, Hambleton and Ryedale. Tourism in Scarborough is ingrained in many of the council's activities such as the harbour, parks and beaches, for example, and takes precedence in Scarborough Council's activities, whereas in Hambleton and Ryedale tourism is less of a concern. So although these partnerships were formed with the intention to promote the area and to raise tourist numbers, visitor days and visitor spend in the area, not much concern has been given to the actual implementation and practical running of such an ATP for the regions concerned, especially if the tourism focus is so varied across those regions.

Practically this led to a rather mismatched and disjointed perception and embracing of the MCTP and the value of this partnership for Scarborough in particular. Concerns over joining-up resources with the other local authorities were raised, as well as concerns over the success of the delivery of the partnership objectives, mainly relating to the Tourism Partnership Holiday Guide, the Tourism Partnership website, and the lack of key brand marketing (Scarborough Borough Council, 2010). Instead of encouraging a partnership working pulling together strengths, knowledge and resources

from the local authorities involved, the opposite was actually achieved in that some of the coastal associations within Scarborough Borough took it upon themselves to adopt some of the functions that were previously delivered by Scarborough Borough Council. This included for example, the development and production of a holiday guide by Scarborough Borough's Tourism Associations focusing exclusively on the coast including Scarborough, Whitby and Filey; as well as to retain the Borough Council's tourism website www.discoveryyorkshirecoast.com, as this should have been replaced by a MCTP website (Scarborough Borough Council, 2010). It appears then, that although Scarborough Borough Council saw the need to remain involved in the MCTP for funding purposes, this was not well received by the public and the private sector in the Borough and posed practical problems and concerns.

Most recently there has been a further change in the structure of national and regional tourism bodies. Due to a change in government and big spending cuts, drawbacks have been made to tourism and funding of tourism organisations at a national and regional level. In June 2010 the new Conservative-Liberal Democrats coalition announced the abolishment of RDAs as they currently stand, posing problems of funding for all areas of the economy, not just tourism. The nine RDAs are then to be replaced by Local Enterprise Partnerships (LEPs) by March 2012 (England's RDAs, 2010b). The new LEPs would now represent a "natural economic area" which for some areas could mean an overlap of authorities in different LEPs depending on their scope (England's RDAs, 2010b). Scarborough would now be part of the York and North Yorkshire region and Scarborough Borough Council would now have links with the East Riding and Hull LEP to take forward a regeneration package which focuses on the coast (York and North Yorkshire Economic Partnership, 2010).

For Scarborough this has meant that the MCTP has been dissolved and in its place there will be a network of tourism advisory boards across the region. The purpose of these advisory boards is to establish a network which considers a far more industry-led strategy in the region with a specific focus on overhauling the marketing strategies. For the North Yorkshire region, and part of the previous MCTP area, there are now three separate advisory boards proposed: Ryedale and North York Moors; Harrogate and the Yorkshire Dales; and Coastal Tourism Advisory Board (Yorkshire Post, 2011). According to the Yorkshire Post (2011) the tourism advisory boards are to work closely with the Visit York partnership in developing tourism in the area although at this point in time it is not yet quite clear as to how these advisory boards and LEPs will work together or be structured. Mainly linked to Welcome to Yorkshire, the new Coastal Tourism Advisory board will focus on the coastal strip between Whitby, Scarborough and Filey to promote the coastal region. The Forum is now part of the Advisory Board, representing both Urban Renaissance as well as tourism issues in general (North, 2011). Scarborough Borough Council is also involved with the Coastal Tourism Advisory Board, as well as still being heavily involved in the tourism product with council representatives attending Urban Renaissance and Forum meetings.

At the point of writing, the Forum is still part of the Urban Renaissance process and the organisational structure as outlined in Figure 5.4 above remains in place, although there has been some indication of a review of the Forum's mission objectives to reflect the changing structures in the current climate (North, 2011). It is anticipated that new mission objectives and a revised Forum focus will be re-launched in the autumn of 2011.

Considering that tourism is still very much on the agenda for Scarborough as a seaside resort, it is notable that since the *Borough Tourism Strategy 2005-2010*, no tourism strategy has been published post-2010 for Scarborough. However, with the development of the MCTP an *Area Tourism Plan 2006-2009* was devised by the partnership looking more closely at the partnership area as a whole in which Scarborough only formed one aspect of the document. There seems to be an overlap of strategic documents here where these tourism strategies cover the same area twice but stipulated from a different origin – one from Scarborough Borough Council, and one from the MCTP perspective. Considering the operational problems of the MCTP and the interest and involvement of Scarborough Borough Council in the partnership, it is apparent that there are different interests at work. Much of Scarborough Borough Council's focus to get and remain involved in the MCTP was based on receiving funding for tourism development and marketing based activities which the council would otherwise not have had access to (Scarborough Borough Council, 2010).

Most recently a tourism strategy was developed by the MCTP for the period 2010-2013 (Yorkshire Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership, 2009). However, considering the breakdown of the MCTP since the latter part of 2010, there currently is no indication if this *Tourism Strategy 2010-2013* remains valid, and whether this is being implemented by the local authorities in their own capacities. It remains to be seen who will be responsible for the development of future tourism strategies, which areas these will focus on, and whether lessons have been learned from the failed MCTP for Scarborough in particular.

5.4 Summary

The change in government and the abolishment of the RDAs in England has led to a complete restructure of how tourism will be managed in the future. In terms of the

impact this has on Scarborough Borough Council and how tourism policy and subsequent strategies will be handled remains uncertain. However, looking back at the problems and concerns with the running of the MCTP in previous years, new structures appear to be more streamlined, taking into consideration the MCTP areas and the tourism product and provision in those markets. No longer would Scarborough and the coast be a part of the MCTP tourism area but specific focus can be placed on getting the best from a coastal tourism perspective. Nevertheless due to the LEPs being in the planning and development stages it remains to be seen if the new LEPs will be more successful in developing and implementing tourism plans for the area. Funding will remain an issue for local authorities and the LEPs, as government funding for tourism will no longer be available which could potentially pose a strain on local authorities. In light of the restructure of tourism bodies (RDAs and LEPs), there is also the question about how this will affect the Forum in its current role as an action group. This will be discussed to a greater extent in Chapter 6.

Chapter 6

Findings

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents data findings collected through the online questionnaire and the stakeholder mapping exercise, as well as follow up telephone interviews with Forum members. Also, an outline of the exploratory factor analysis will be presented in the results discussion section.

6.2 Qualitative Questionnaire Analysis

As outlined in Chapter 4, the research methodology is mixed and includes both qualitative and quantitative analyses. This section is concerned with a qualitative, contextual analysis of items from the questionnaire. Referring back to the conceptual framework, the data will first be explored and analysed according to the eight concepts that were identified as potential influencing factors for the TPB elements in the conceptual framework. This is to provide a broad analysis of all questions and to determine the applicability of the concepts for the conceptual framework and possible revisions of the conceptual framework in Chapter 7. Table 6.1 provides an overview of the questions asked in the questionnaire and indicates which questions address which concept as identified in the conceptual framework discussion in Chapter 3. A copy of the full questionnaire can be found in Appendix II.

	Concept	Non-EFA questions (non-scaled questions)	EFA questions (scaled questions)
1	Stakeholder role sets	6	9i, 16, 16b, 21
2	Stakeholder salience	15, 18	9e, 19, 19b
3	Weber's associative relationships	7, 17, 25, (26)	1, 10, 19a
4	Structure		9, 9j, 19c
5	Subjectivity	22, (23), 24, 27, (28)	11, 11a, 19d
6	Agency		9f, 9h, 11b, 14, 16a
7	Social relations	2, 3, 12, (13), 20	9g, 11c, 16e
8	Visibility		9b, 9c, 16d
	Public space		9a, 9d, 16c
	Stakeholder mapping	4, 5, 35, (36), 37, 39	

Table 6.1: Questionnaire coding (N.B. brackets denote routing questions)

6.2.1 Sample and Response Rate

A total of 167 participants from the Scarborough Forum for Tourism were emailed the questionnaire using the *Questback* online software programme. After the initial mail out, 21 participants were excluded from the respondent list which reduced the total number of possible participants to 146. Reasons for exclusions included permanent delivery errors with regards to their email addresses, participants had moved away from Scarborough and no longer attended the Forum for Tourism, and their perception that the questionnaire was irrelevant to participants as they either did not attend or had different priorities.

In total, the questionnaire generated 37 valid and useable responses indicating a response rate of 25%. Given the small sample size, a higher response rate would have been desirable, however a response rate of 25% is acceptable for an online questionnaire where response rates can vary between 30% in an organisation setting and 10% or lower for internet based questionnaires (Saunders et al., 2000). Thirty six responses were generated through the *Questback* programme and one response was completed on paper

due to technical difficulties in completing the questionnaire online. The raw data was exported from *Questback* to SPSS for analysis purposes. The responses from the paper based questionnaire were added to the raw data in SPSS for a complete set of data. Chapter 4 included a more detailed discussion of the sample size required in respect of conducting an EFA.

6.2.2 Demographic Profile

The demographic profile (see Table 6.2) of the questionnaire responses, applicable to both the questionnaire analysis as well as EFA, shows a very clear tendency towards higher socio-economic groupings (A, B, Cs). Approximately two thirds of all respondents are male (64.9 %). More than half (56.7 %) of respondents are aged between 41 and 60 years, and more than half of respondents (56.7%) hold a degree or higher degree, indicating a high level of education. In terms of their marital status 67.6 % are married, 13.5% indicated that they are single, 13.5% are living with a partner, 2.7% are divorced and overall 70.3 % have children. There is a high employment rate among respondents with 91.9 % being either employed (59.5 %) or self-employed (32.4 %). In addition, the initial demographic profile shows that just over half of respondents (51.4 %) are local to Scarborough as they have lived locally for 10 years or more. See Appendix IV for a complete questionnaire respondent profile.

Demographic profile		
<i>Sample Characteristic (n = 37)</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	24	64.9
Female	12	32.4
Missing	1	2.7
<i>Age</i>		
21-30	2	5.4
31-40	5	13.5
41-50	11	29.7
51-60	10	27.0
61-70	6	16.2
over 71	2	5.4
Missing	1	2.7
<i>Marital Status</i>		
Single	5	13.5
Married	25	67.6
Divorced	1	2.7
Living with partner	5	13.5
Missing	1	2.7
<i>Children</i>		
Yes	26	70.3
No	9	24.3
Missing	2	5.4
<i>Employment status</i>		
Employed	22	59.5
Self-employed	12	32.4
Retired	1	2.7
Missing	2	5.4
<i>Educational background</i>		
GCSEs	7	18.9
Degree	11	29.7
Higher Degree	10	27.0
NVQs	1	2.7
No qualifications	1	2.7
Other	5	13.5
Missing	2	5.4
<i>Years lived in Scarborough town</i>		
less than 12 months	2	5.4
1-4 years	2	5.4
4-8 years	7	18.9
8-10 years	1	2.7
10 years or more	19	51.4
Missing	6	16.2

Table 6.2: Demographic profile (full sample, n = 37)

The questionnaire respondent profile (see Figure 6.1) in terms of the different sectors represented shows a very similar distribution of respondents to that of the full sample population discussed in Chapter 4 (Section 4.5.1). The response rate and the respondent profile are therefore representative of the sample, with the local business sector representing the most prominent respondents accounting for just under half of responses. Local residents/community members represent the second largest group accounting for 8% of responses, with remaining sectors evenly represented.

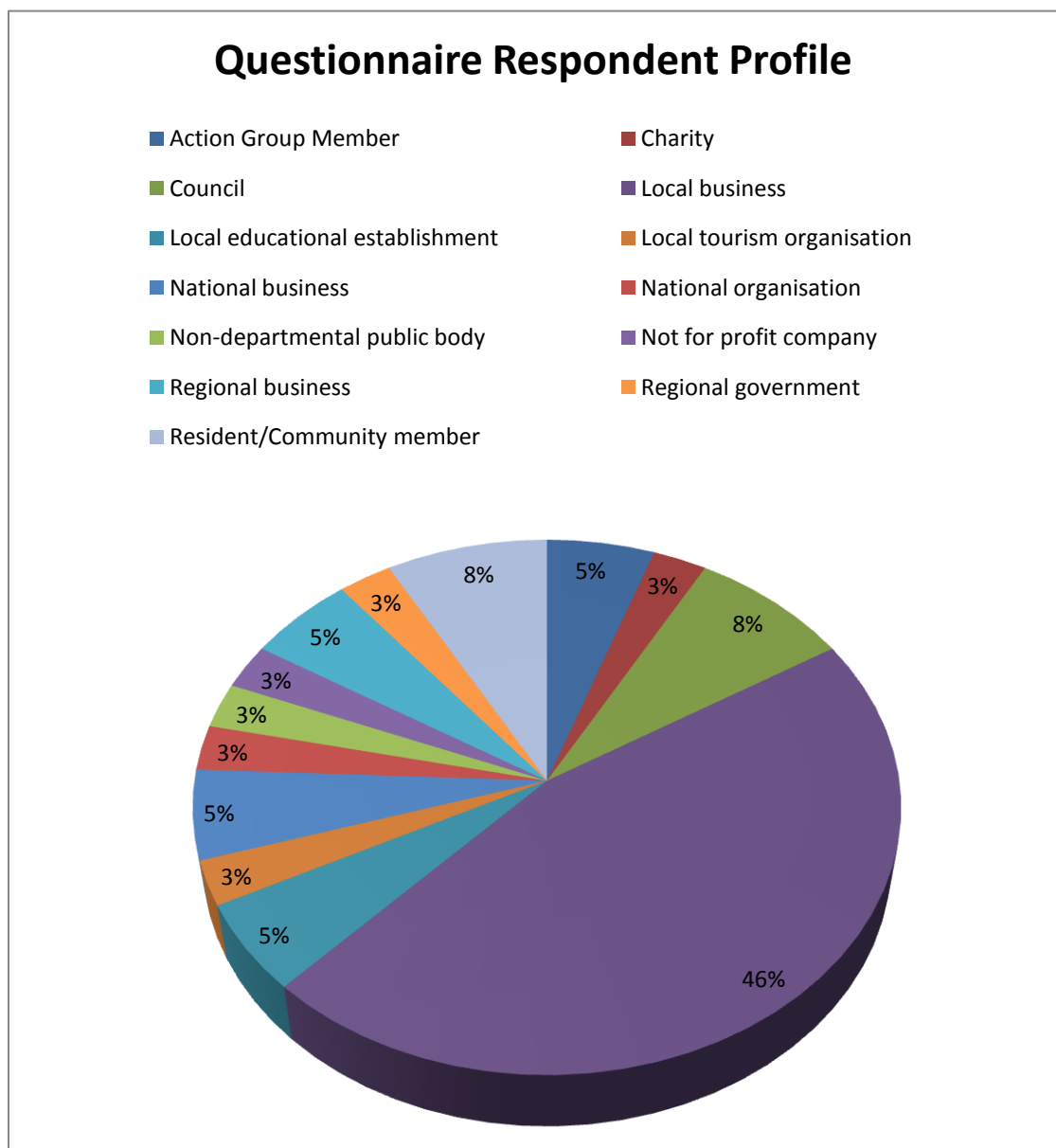


Figure 6.1: Questionnaire Respondent Profile (n=37)

With local businesses representing the largest sector, it is also interesting to note that of the local businesses who responded to the questionnaire, the majority are accommodation providers accounting for just over three-quarters of respondents (76%). The remaining sectors (attraction providers, entertainment, arts and culture, retail) each account for 6% of respondents (see Figure 6.2).

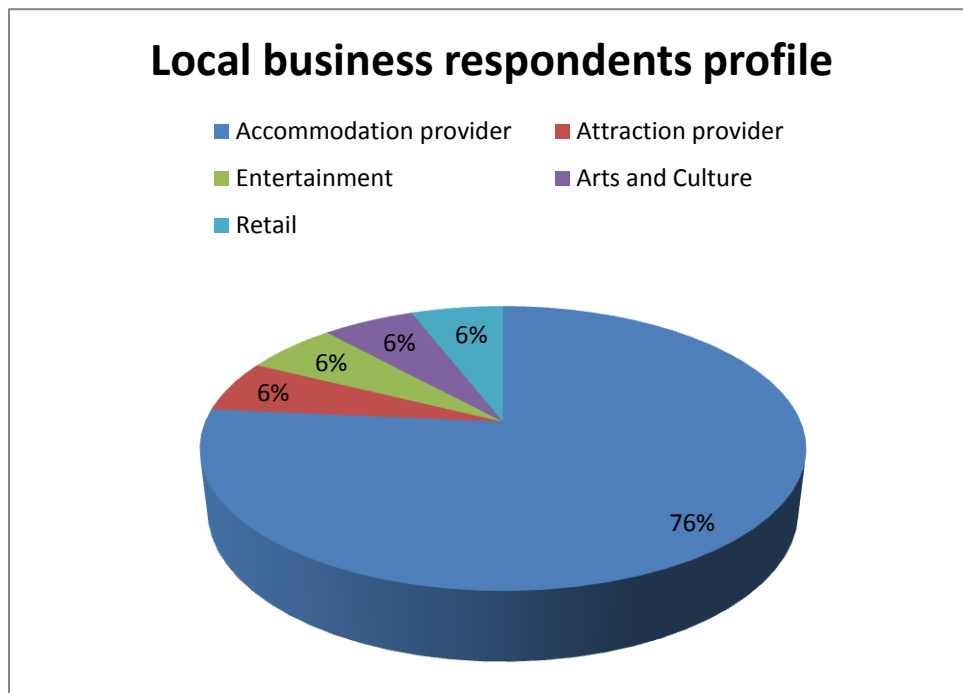


Figure 6.2: Local business respondents profile (n=17)

The following sections will outline the themes from the conceptual framework and look at the responses from the questionnaire in more detail.

6.2.3 Stakeholder role sets

Questions designed to explore stakeholder role sets focused on their reasons for attending meetings, their engagement and contribution to the Forum. Results show that the main reasons for attending the Forum meetings were the opportunities it provided for being involved in decision making (54.05%), business opportunities (43.24%), and

personal interest (37.84%), followed by networking (29.73%) (Question 6). Other responses included working together, taking part in discussions, and strategic direction, as well as education and research. The question was purposefully designed as a multiple choice option to gain an insight into the importance of the main interests reflecting different roles people have. Corresponding to the responses in terms of the main interests in attending the Forum meetings being about making decisions and business opportunities, Question 9i produced very varied results. Respondents were asked whether the agenda items determine that they attend a meeting or not and the results show two very polar viewpoints. Approximately one third of respondents (32.43%) strongly agreed that the agenda items were a determining factor mostly originating from local businesses (accommodation and attraction providers), while 21.62% of respondents strongly disagreed with the statement, also mainly originating from a local business background with a focus on accommodation providers. This indicates that respondents have different reasons for attending meetings though from similar backgrounds (i.e. local business with a focus on accommodation and attraction providers) and it is also argued that participants therefore necessarily may have different role sets.

Cumulatively three-quarters of respondents representing all sectors, strongly agreed or agreed that they felt at ease at engaging with others in the Forum (Question 16). Approximately one quarter of respondents from local businesses (accommodation providers) and local educational establishments agreed somewhat that being involved in other action groups is beneficial for raising one's profile (Question 16b – see Figure 6.3). In addition, when asked how valued respondents felt their contributions to the Forum are (Question 21), the results show a positive attitude with more than half of respondents (cumulatively accounting for 56.75% of positive responses) indicating that

they either felt very valued, valued or somewhat valued based on their contributions to the Forum. This question was designed focusing on subjective norm and the effect peer perception has on stakeholders in terms of how they feel their contributions are perceived by fellow Forum members.

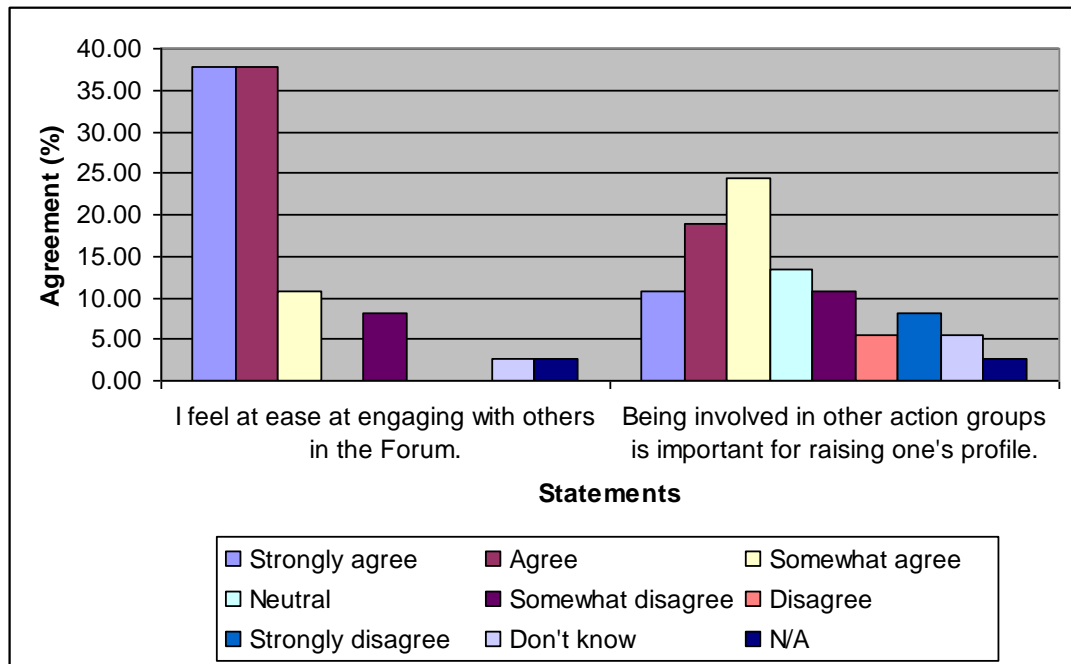


Figure 6.3: Stakeholder role sets - Engagement with others (n = 37)

The data from the questionnaire indicates that the concept of stakeholder role sets as discussed in the CF confirms that these are informed by business and personal interests of stakeholders, where interests and attendance can vary depending on agenda items, as well as illustrating reasons for attendance and involvement in other tourism groups in the Scarborough Forum for Tourism context. These are further supported by the stakeholder maps which provide an overview of the diversity of groups that are attended by stakeholders as will be discussed in Section 6.5.

6.2.4 Stakeholder Salience

Questions constructed to determine stakeholder salience looked more closely at attendance, business profile increase, and behaviour of stakeholders in Forum meetings.

As such the data indicates that nearly half of respondents (48.65%) attended Forum meetings 2-4 times per year, and that only 13.51% indicated monthly attendance (Question 18 - see Figure 6.4). Monthly attendees originate from varying sectors including local businesses (accommodation providers), a charity, the local Council and a local tourism organisation, therefore a pattern does not emerge in terms of stakeholders belonging to particular sectors and attending meetings on a monthly basis. However, the varied sectors ensure that different sectors are represented each month.

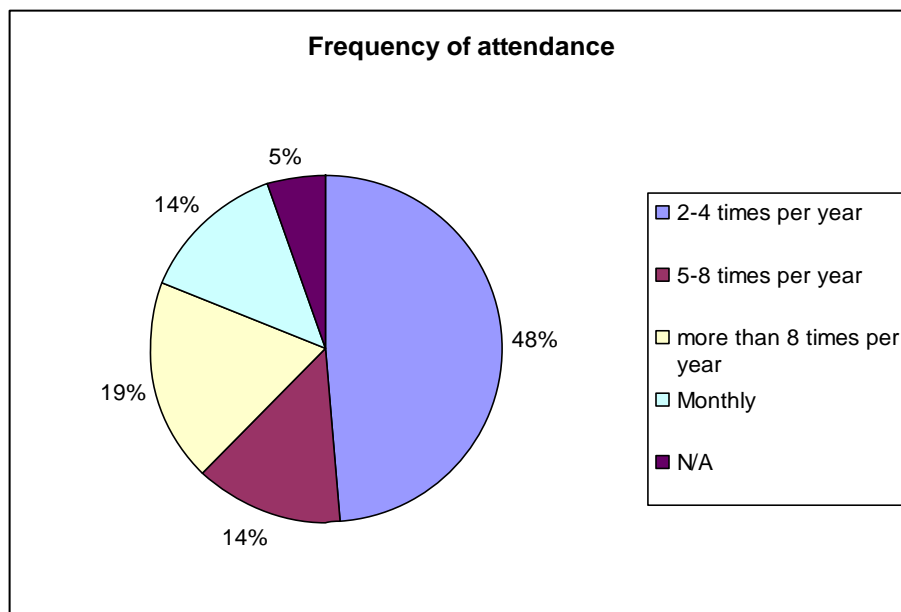


Figure 6.4: Frequency of attendance

In terms of determining the salience of stakeholders, considering the behaviour of respondents in meetings can help address their prominence and their presence. Respondents strongly agreed that they both actively engaged in the Forum for Tourism (32.43%) and that they express their viewpoints openly in meetings (45.95%) (Questions 19 and 19b – see Figure 6.5). Stakeholder salience is therefore confirmed to be informed by attendance profiles of stakeholders as well as the frequency of their attendance at Forum meetings. In addition the data confirms that stakeholder behaviour in meetings is exemplified by stakeholders’ active engagement and their expression of opinions at Forum meetings.

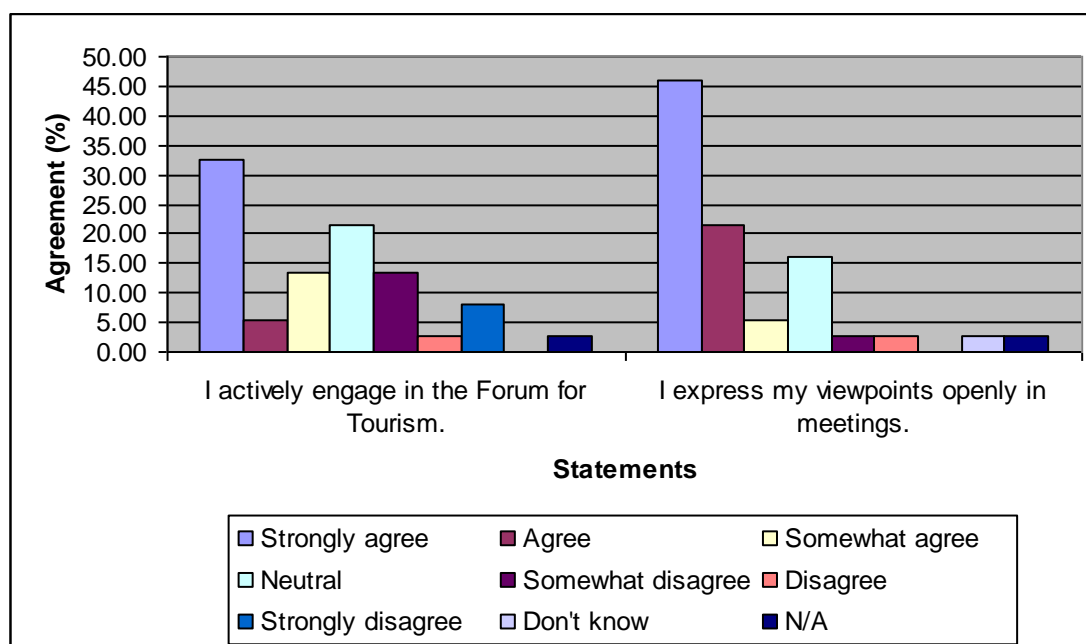


Figure 6.5: Engagement and expression in Forum (n = 37)

One of the questions was concerned with gaining an insight into respondent’s perceptions of who they thought was responsible for tourism development in Scarborough (Question 15 – see Table 6.3). This question was purposefully designed as an open question to generate an immediate and unbiased response from participants. It also provides a point of access for developing stakeholder mapping which will be discussed further later in this Chapter in Section 6.5.

Scarborough Borough Council	58%	Everyone who works in tourism	6.45%
Yorkshire Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership	25.8%	North Yorkshire County Council	6.45%
Welcome to Yorkshire	22.58%	Hoteliers and attraction providers	6.45%
Scarborough Forum for Tourism	22.58%	North York Moors National Park Authority	3.22%
Local businesses	19.35%	Yorkshire Forward	3.22%
Residents/Community	19.35%	No-one	3.22%
Action Groups	9.67%	Stakeholders	3.22%
Scarborough Hospitality Association	9.67%	Urban Renaissance	3.22%

Table 6.3: Perception of who is responsible for tourism development in Scarborough (n = 31)

Responses varied but the majority of respondents maintained that the responsibility for tourism development lies with Scarborough Borough Council, the Yorkshire Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership, Yorkshire Forward, and Welcome to Yorkshire, all of which can be classed as public sector organisations. Such a perspective reflects the traditional perception of decision making and responsibility being a ‘top-down’ process. However, consideration has been given to a ‘bottom-up’ decision making concept, as some respondents felt that every actor working in the tourism industry had a responsibility for tourism development. This not only includes local businesses, but a range of stakeholders, residents, and local hoteliers/accommodation and attraction providers (see quotes below).

“Everyone has a part to play regarding the responsibility of tourism development in Scarborough, no matter how little or great their input or influence is. Every single attraction, accommodation provider and council employee is responsible for tourism development within the town and developing a quality visitor experience.” (Respondent 1, female, aged 21-30, non-departmental public body (attraction provider))

“The Borough Council, Tourism Stakeholders, Tourism Associations, Regional Development Agency through Welcome to Yorkshire. It is the responsibility of every stakeholder to ensure Tourism is high on the agenda and work together to deliver future developments.” (Respondent 2, female, aged 41-50, local Council)

“All of us, SBC, local groups and associations, businesses with a vested interest.” (Respondent 6, male, aged 41-50, local business (accommodation provider))

“Everybody who works in tourism has something to offer and help make a difference.” (Respondent 24, female, aged 61-70, local business (self-employed accommodation provider))

The notion that everyone is important for tourism development in Scarborough mainly emerged from local businesses, as well as a local charity and a local attraction provider. It appears that local knowledge is inherent in determining stakeholder salience as in some cases this can be influenced by peer perception as discussed in the CF and demonstrated in the questionnaire responses.

6.2.5 Weber's associative relationships

The questions surrounding Weber's associative relationships focus on the type of relationship respondents have based upon their interests and motivations to engage with tourism policy development. Just under half of all respondents (45.95%) have been involved in tourism in Scarborough for 10 years or more indicating that respondents are established in the town (Question 17). Of these respondents who have been involved in tourism in Scarborough for 10 years or more, nearly two thirds (64.71%) of respondents indicated that they did not have any business relationships with other members of the Forum (Question 7). This is surprising considering the high degree of familiarity between members of the Forum⁴⁹ and the focus on 'Agenda' and 'Networking' as the most important deciding factors in attending Forum meetings (see following paragraph for more detail). However, when all respondents were asked whether they had any business relationships with other members of the Forum, regardless of their length of involvement in tourism in Scarborough, the picture is a little more balanced, but more than half of respondents (51.35%) specified that they did not have any business relationships (Figure 6.6).

⁴⁹ 62.16% of respondents indicated that they know the majority of people attending Forum meetings (see section 'Social Relations' below for a more detailed discussion).

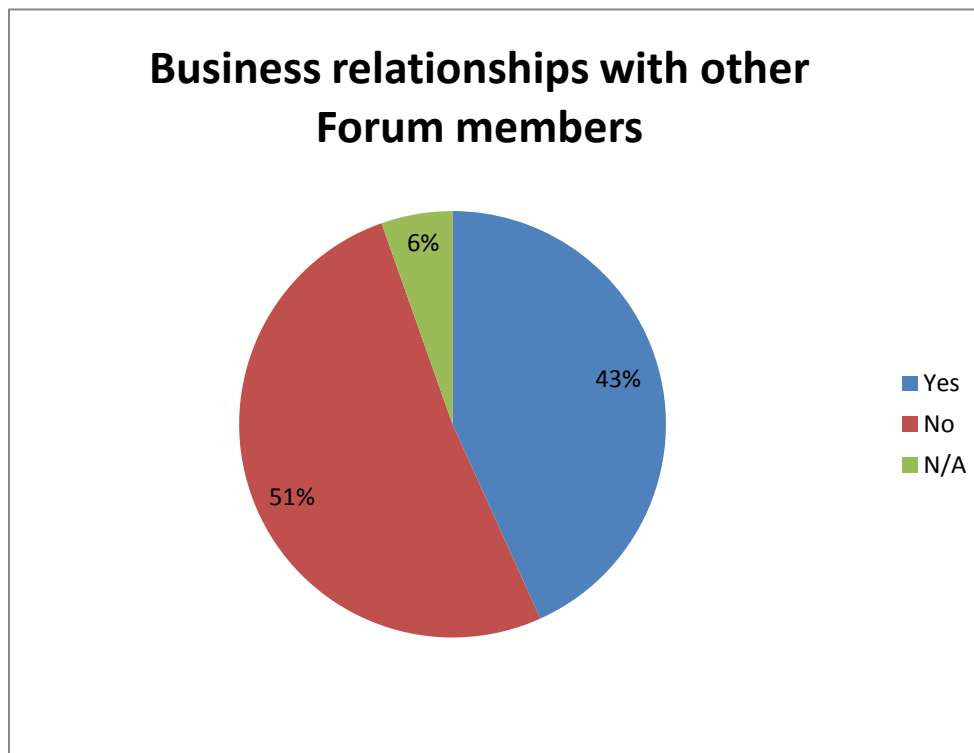


Figure 6.6: Business relationships with other Forum members (n = 37)

However, cross tabulations show that there is some distinction between gender and business relationships, where 58.33% of females indicated that they do have business relationships⁵⁰ with other members of the Forum, and 58.33% of males not having any business relationships with other members of the Forum. Although there seems to be a difference between genders using cross tabulations and percentages, this may not be statistically significant. To test for significance a Chi-Square test is applied by constructing a 2x2 table by using business relationships and gender as variables (Table 6.4).

⁵⁰ Business relationships are here defined as those relationships among Forum members which impact members' businesses either in a positive or negative way (i.e. through exchange of resources, financial gain/loss, knowledge exchange).

			Gender		
			Male	Female	Total
Business relationships	Yes	Count	9	7	16
		Expected Count	10.5	5.5	16.0
	No	Count	14	5	19
		Expected Count	12.5	6.5	19.0
	Total	Count	23	12	35
		Expected Count	23.0	12.0	35.0

Table 6.4: Crosstabulation for Chi-Square test for business relationships and gender (n = 35)

The data in the table corresponds to the assumption that all expected frequencies (expected counts) should be greater than 5 in the 2x2 table constructed, meaning that the crosstabulation is acceptable (Field, 2009). However, the Pearson Chi-Square value was 1.172 with a significance of 0.279 which means that the Chi-square test is not significant. For the Chi-square test to be significant and therefore to hypothesise that the variables are in some way related, the significance value must be less than 0.05. In this case, although in terms of percentages as described above there seems to be a relation between gender and business relationships, the Chi-Square test value of 0.279 rejects this assumption.

On the one hand, this is surprising given the focus on relationships and interaction between members; but this also confirms and corroborates with the number of small to medium size enterprises in the town and the Forum as identified in the sample. Approximately one third of respondents are self-employed and of those, a quarter

employ 1-4 people in their businesses, with more than half self-employed respondents not employing anyone.

In terms of the importance of factors in deciding to attend a Forum meeting there is a clear preference with 'Agenda' being the most important (56.75% very important), followed by 'Networking' (24.3% important), and 'People' (32.43% somewhat important) (Question 1). 'Socialising' however, was perceived to be very unimportant (24.32%) or respondents felt neutral (21.6%) about socialising as a determining factor in attending meetings. Overall women were more intent on crafting relationships through networking and people and with an agenda focus, as their responses concentrated more on either positive or negative (i.e. strongly agree or strongly disagree) attitudes toward the importance of factors when deciding to attend a Forum meeting.

With the strong focus on agenda and networking, respondents have a positive attitude towards working with newcomers to the Forum (Question 19a). Furthermore, 83.78% of respondents specified that they benefit from an involvement in the Forum (Questions 25 and 26). Benefits from being involved in the Forum varied but the majority of responses focused on networking, increased awareness of forthcoming events, and establishing contacts. Interestingly some respondents only indicated one or two benefits as a result of being involved in the Forum, whereas others found a variety of benefits. For instance, in response to the question "In which way do you benefit [from an involvement in the Forum]?" perceptions varied between:

"Higher profile and sometimes early knowledge of events etc that affect our business and ability to influence arrangements for events and transport issues generally – also ability to broaden other's knowledge and

understanding of public transport issues.” (Respondent 14, male, aged 61-70, regional business (transport))

and

“Having a say in development plans, forming relationships with other business people not just hoteliers. Just generally knowing some of the things that are happening and having my say about them.” (Respondent 26, female, aged 41-50, local business (accommodation provider))

These excerpts show the different agendas and interests respondents have in engaging in the Forum and also what kinds of associative relationships are applicable to them (more detail and discussion to follow in Chapter 7).

Overall the data confirmed the different aspects which inform associative relationships as outlined in the CF. This includes the influence of stakeholder role sets, the length of involvement of stakeholders in tourism in Scarborough as well as the high familiarity among Forum members. The reasons for engaging and attending meetings further help confirm that stakeholder engagement is based on stakeholders contributing to a cause and not material interests, which indicates that a *Gesinnungsverein* is a valid associative relationship for the Scarborough case study context. Such associative relationships are further illustrated by stakeholder maps discussed in Section 6.5.

6.2.6 Structure

The questions surrounding structure look more closely at the influence of structure on respondents and their resulting behaviour. As identified in Chapter 3, structure is concerned with the world we live in and the given structures that are not readily changeable, which can include peer pressure and norms. In particular, the questionnaire

focussed on a normative⁵¹ dimension in this respect following arguments from the conceptual development of the framework including stakeholder theory and the theory of planned behaviour (see Chapter 3). Although most agreed strongly that they are expected to show an interest in the Forum meetings (Question 9) mainly originating from a local business or local council background, the perception ‘regular attendance is a must’ resulted in two polar perspectives with the most common view of respondents (18.92%) disagreeing with the notion that regular attendance is a must, while 16.22% of respondents strongly agreed with the statement (Question 9j). More than half of respondents strongly agreed that they openly consider other’s viewpoints in the meetings (Question 19c). In connection with the previous questions focusing on norms and resulting behavioural traits, it shows that not only are respondents happy to give consideration to other’s perspectives but that they may be influenced by embedded normative aspects⁵², such as the perception that respondents feel as though they are expected to show an interest in the Forum.

The data findings confirm the notion of structure as discussed in the CF being influenced by peer perception and peer pressure on stakeholders, particularly in terms of the pattern of attendance of stakeholders which based on others’ perceptions. In addition the CF suggested that structure is influenced by structural constraints in the wider tourism environment, especially with regard to changes in local, regional and national tourism structures, for example the disbanding of the RDAs and associated changes to policy and funding streams. However, the data also supports the argument that stakeholders are influenced by structures which are unconscious to the human mind,

⁵¹ Normative here is not to be confused with the use in Donaldson and Preston (1997) model discussed in Chapter 2, and does not imply that the framework developed is normative. Instead the focus is on those norms that are attached to a certain extent by individuals and given structures.

⁵² Those norms that are inherent in individuals and often unconscious to the human mind, although these are embedded within the individual. These will have been informed by their agency as well as structural surroundings and peer perception.

expressed by the notion of habitus (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992), exemplified not only by peer perception but by normative dimensions such as the belief that stakeholders feel they need to attend Forum meetings.

6.2.7 Subjectivity

As discussed in Chapter 3, subjectivity refers to individuals being both subjected to their surroundings and being a subject themselves and influencing their surroundings. Arendt's (1998) view that individuals are both "doers and sufferers" captures the concept very well and the questionnaire looked at this dual aspect in more detail. The questions specifically focused on respondent's perceptions of working relationships, and reflection after meetings.

The data shows that there is some agreement with the notion that respondents believe they have similar interests in attending the Forum (40.54%), while respondents also somewhat agreed (27.03%) that it is helpful in reaching an agreement if you know your fellow Forum members (Questions 11a and 11). Overall, there was generally a very positive perception among respondents that different viewpoints enrich a working relationship (94.59% - Question 24). This shows that although interests may vary in attending the Forum meetings, there is a consensus that different viewpoints enrich a working relationship. This can be attributed to the notion that individuals are subjected by different surroundings and environments throughout their lives and that they would have contributed to society by influencing their surroundings. So although respondents will, to some extent have similar interests in attending, respondents, by nature, have different perceptions and viewpoints which, it is argued, will have been informed and influenced over time by society, their education, and other enduring social factors (Freeman, 1984, Frooman, 1999).

When asked whether respondents thought that everyone's contributions to the Forum are valued equally, 59.46% of respondents agreed, and 37.84% of respondents disagreed (Question 22). The question was followed by an open routing question (Question 23) designed to gain an insight into why respondents thought that contributions were not valued equally (n = 14). Some responses highlight different agendas and interests people have in attending meetings, while others are quite cynical and negative in their response (see quotes below and Table 6.5):

“Run by self-appointed individuals who try to force their own view on the majority. They are not representative of the majority of tourist business operators in the town. It is too often a mouthpiece for the Council, who use it as a convenient and non-challenging channel for consultation.” (Respondent 3, male, aged 51-60, local business (accommodation provider))

“Groups form within the Town Team. Often these attend other forums or societies together and have shown specific interests in developing areas that have personal benefits to individuals as well as the town development. They have been known to laugh or ridicule input from individuals. I could go on.” (Respondent 8, male, aged 51-60, local business (accommodation provider))

The groups that Respondent 8 is referring to are clusters of Forum members who have known each other and worked together for a number of years. The Forum itself is a very tight knit community with a high familiarity among members often making it difficult for newcomers to engage with the Forum. From personal experience of the researcher, the groups that form have common interests and will defend their perspectives and viewpoints on certain topic areas which can be intimidating for new members or people

who do not form part of the group in question. Such a perspective illustrates the notion of individuals being “sufferers”, where these are subjected by others.

Depends on who says what / Hierarchy	Because they are not of equal worth!
Nothing in life is equal	Sometimes it is difficult to move past previous events and try new things.
Human nature	Some do not offer any [contributions]
Some businesses are regarded better than others.	Different characters & importance of activity
Cynical chairman too long in the post	

Table 6.5: Perceptions of why contributions to the Forum are not valued equally

However, there are a small number of more positive responses illustrating the nature of subjectivity to a greater extent, particularly the notion of individuals as “doers” where the focus is on individuals having the ability to subject others:

“I think within the Forum everyone’s opinions are more or less equally valued, with the exception of ‘repeat moaners/naysayers’ who the Forum have learned to ignore, but outside the Forum, the opinion of the Forum is largely ignored.” (Respondent 12, male, aged 21-30, resident/community member)

“I’m not necessarily speaking for myself but some members have their own axe to grind and their views reflect their ‘agenda’. On the other hand some are ‘thinkers’ with the greater good in mind.” (Respondent 23, male, aged 51-60, local business (accommodation provider))

So, not only do these responses give an insight into subjectivity but also provide more information and context for stakeholder role sets and Weber’s associative relationships as discussed previously, highlighting the interrelationship between the two concepts. In terms of reflection, respondents demonstrated a positive attitude towards their own reflection after meetings. In some cases this reflection would change their opinion of a

particular topic, exemplifying the nature of subjectivity in that individuals are both doers and sufferers.

Overall, the data strengthens the notion of subjectivity forming part of the CF as different perspectives, opinions and viewpoints can shape how stakeholders act, especially with regard to being doers and sufferers. Particularly, the findings demonstrate the influence of stakeholder role sets and that their embeddedness in structures shapes their perceptions of other Forum members as exemplified by their tendency to reflect after meetings and adopting others viewpoints. Local knowledge and familiarity with other Forum members can help in understanding how stakeholders are conceived as powerful, based on their subjectivity and being doers and sufferers, as well as the consensus that opinions are valued equally in the local Scarborough Forum context.

6.2.8 Agency

Considering the interdependence of the concepts between structure and agency, questions focused on people's actions and to some extent their backgrounds and their perceptions.

Looking at the data, it is apparent that individual's capacities to act are influenced by their surroundings and structures. As such, the data shows that nearly half of respondents (48.65%) consider that local knowledge is very important for tourism development in Scarborough (Question 14). However, when asked whether their education plays an important role in their interest in tourism, the results show more of a disagreement (Question 16a). This can be attributed to the multitude of factors that influence people's perceptions of tourism and their reasons and motivations for

engaging in such an environment. For the minority (13.51% of respondents strongly agreed) education has played an influencing role, for others it has not (18.92% somewhat disagreed and 18.92% strongly disagreed).

There is some consensus and agreement among respondents that participants are working towards the same goals within the Forum (43.24% somewhat agree – Question 11b) and that these members are also working towards similar business goals (29.73% agree – Question 9f). In addition, the data shows a positive agreement to the question “Attending the Forum shows my commitment to tourism in Scarborough” (Question 9h). Once again this highlights the capacity to act and also different interests and motivations actors may have in attending and engaging in the Forum meetings.

In terms of the CF, the data confirms that an actor’s capacity to act is influenced by local knowledge, such as being familiar with other Forum members and a belief that members are working towards the same goals within the Forum as well as business goals. Nonetheless this needs to be considered in the context of local structural surroundings and society. Stakeholders’ commitment to tourism in Scarborough is exemplified by their attendance at Forum meetings which in turn is influenced by a belief that stakeholders are working towards similar goals for both the Forum and businesses. This is reflected in the associative relationship prominent in this case study context, where the *Gesinnungsverein* sums up reasons for attendance and engagement with tourism policy development in Scarborough, further illustrated by the stakeholder maps discussed in Section 6.5.

6.2.9 Social relations

Table 6.6 provides an overview of different reasons respondents stated for their attendance at Forum meetings (Question 2). As can be seen these are quite diverse and reflect a variety of personal and business related reasons. One respondent indicated that he does not attend as the meetings clash with family commitments, but has equally indicated that he has an interest in the Forum and provides comments via email. In this sense then, this can be classed as active non-visible participation.

New business opportunities	Keeping up to date on tourism issues
Opportunity to network	Communicate what is happening
Good agenda	Similar identity of interest
Non-attendance	Ensure action is being taken
To “have a say” – make voice heard	Keep abreast of latest news and events
Part of job	Attendance when relevant to area of work

Table 6.6: Reasons for attending Forum meetings

There is high familiarity between members within the Forum, with just under two thirds of respondents (62.16%) indicating that they know the majority of people attending Forum meetings (Question 20). This is supported by the responses to the question “How did you learn about the Forum for Tourism?” (Question 3). Two responses are prominent, each accounting for 43.24%, which are ‘Word of mouth’ and ‘Other’. In the ‘Other’ category, Urban Renaissance was quoted the most as being the media through which respondents had learnt about the Forum for Tourism. Other responses included: Scarborough Hospitality Association, through Business Link, “I was one of the ones that started it in 1995” (Respondent 24), and “Induction when I started work at the Council” (Respondent 30). The focus on Urban Renaissance is not surprising as it was closely linked with the Forum prior to the disbanding of the RDAs and the dispersing of funding and still remains linked today. Urban Renaissance was prominent in Scarborough as many projects were instantiated by the group often focusing on tourism

and the built environment. In effect they could be classed as the interface between the public sector and residents.

Further evidence to support a high familiarity among members of the Forum is provided by Question 12 asking respondents whether they had worked with any Forum members previously. The data shows that more than half (56.76%) of respondents had worked with members previously, of which the majority indicated that 42.86% of relationships were based on business partners. Approximately one quarter of respondents, mainly from a local business (accommodation provider), local Council, as well as local resident background, somewhat agreed that having worked with Forum members previously helped in making decisions (Question 16e). This is based on members being familiar with others and therefore having some idea of others' perceptions and opinions towards tourism development, making it easier to work collectively and to reach decisions, rather than being unfamiliar with members which can lead to conflict, depending on their role sets.

Overall, there is a positive attitude towards engaging with other Forum members with this engagement producing results for the Forum, with 73.38% of respondents cumulatively agreeing with this statement (10.81% strongly agreed, 35.14% agreed and 13.51% somewhat agreed – Question 11c). A similar positive response was gained when asked whether engaging with other Forum members produced results for their business, with 27.03% agreeing, and 21.62% somewhat agreeing (Question 9g). It appears then that high familiarity among Forum members as well as previous collective action and working relationships have an influence on the extent of stakeholder engagement as stipulated in the CF. In addition the data shows a strong focus on local

knowledge and the Forum being a close-knit action group where word-of-mouth is the key communication method.

Questions surrounding social relations were kept fairly general to gain an insight into respondent's perceptions about their social relations, particularly with other members of the Forum, and how respondents are connected to other members. The stakeholder mapping activity (to follow in Section 6.5) will provide more insight into definitive relationships between Forum members *per se*.

6.2.10 Visibility

Visibility in particular looked more closely at respondents' perceptions of attendance and presence at Forum meetings. Questions were designed to gain a deeper insight into the importance of stakeholders being visible to others by focusing on status' and attendance at meetings.

The findings show that an individual's status is not necessarily of importance when considering accepting a person's opinion, as just over one-third of respondents strongly disagreed with this notion (Question 9c). The results seem to suggest that someone's status is not a driving factor for stakeholder power but that greater attention is paid to their contributions and engagement within the Forum, i.e. for them being visible and acting.

The scope for non-visible participation is supported by Question 16d where the results indicate that overall there is some discrepancy among Forum members in terms of their intention to attend all meetings in one year. Figure 6.7 illustrates both agreement and disagreement, although approximately one-third of respondents cumulatively agreed

that they intend to attend all meetings. This can be attributed to their reasons for attendance, their role sets and the notion that high visibility at meetings (i.e. frequent attendance) is good but not always essential for being considered influential within this Forum context.

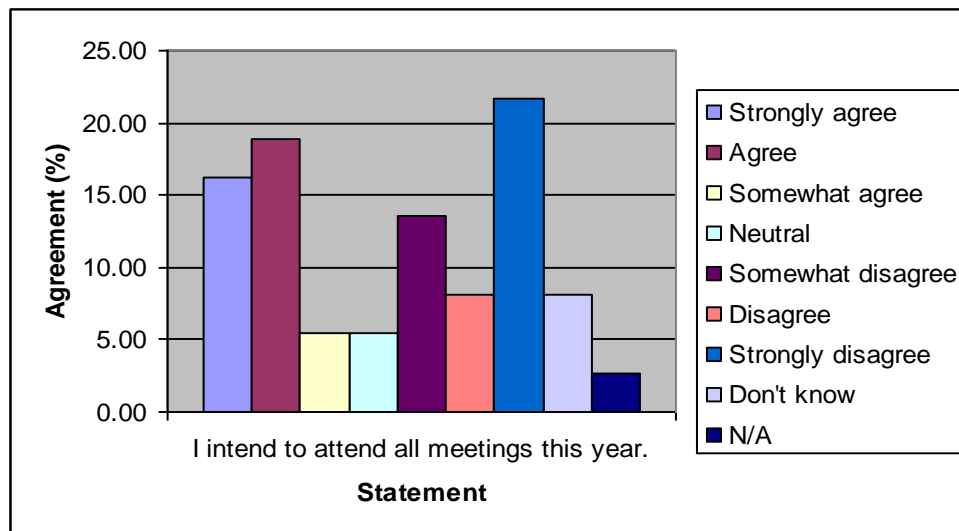


Figure 6.7: Intention to attend all meetings (n = 37)

This is reflected in their reasons for attending Forum meetings and in responses to Question 9b, where respondents were asked to what extent they agreed with the statement: “People don’t always need to attend to make a difference”. Figure 6.8 illustrates the breadth of responses reaching from agreement to disagreement, although it is apparent that neither agreement nor disagreement prevailed as a dominant response. Partly this can be attributed to the perceived importance of visibility and actual physical presence at Forum meetings for some respondents whilst also providing scope for non-visible participation and engagement in meetings.

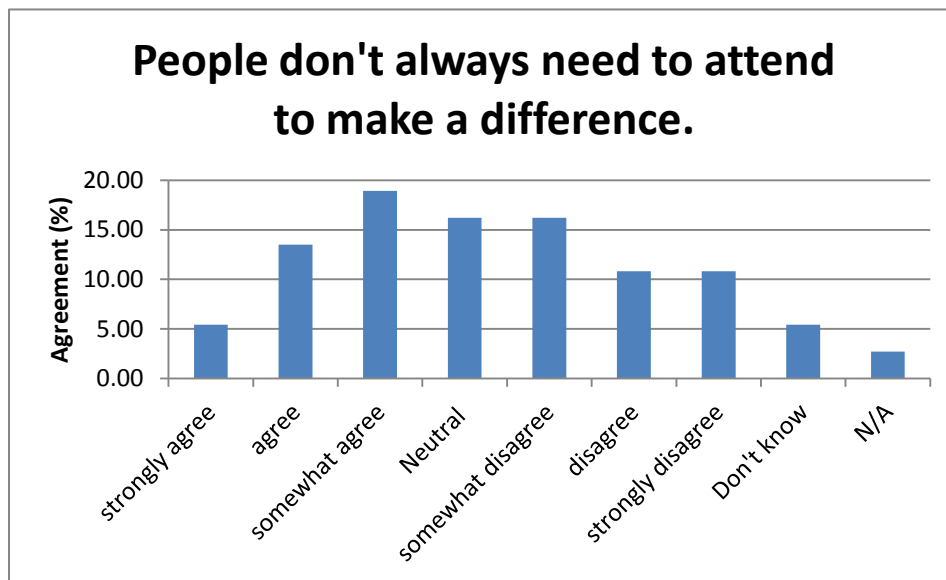


Figure 6.8: People don't always need to attend to make a difference (n = 37)

Visibility therefore is confirmed as an important aspect in understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in Scarborough and the Forum for Tourism in particular. As stipulated in the CF in Chapter 3, the eight elements of power are argued to be interrelated and inform each other, which has been confirmed by the questionnaire data findings. Visibility has emerged as being influenced not only by stakeholder role sets but also by subjectivity, the *Gesinnungsverein* as the associative relationship, providing scope for visible and active, as well as non-visible participation within the Forum and the Scarborough tourism policy environment.

6.2.11 Public Space

Questions surrounding the concept of public space considered the space people act within. Introduced by Arendt (1998) and as discussed in Chapter 3, public space provides a setting where collective action can be conducted as power emerges from people acting together in concert. As such, questions sought to consider both spatial as well as emotional perceptions of defining this public space.

Respondents agree or have a neutral perception that they are more inclined to work with people they know than with strangers (27.3% agree, 21.62% neutral – Question 9a). However, it appears that respondents do not feel that they have to attend Forum meetings because they feel they have to by bowing to peer pressure. 24.32% of respondents strongly disagreed with this statement in Question 9d. Both questions 9a and 9d were concerned more with an emotional perception of public space whereas the last question, Question 16c, looks closer at the spatial element and the area in which action should take place, by considering the classical structural destination concepts from a geographical perspective as discussed in Chapter 2. In Question 16c, respondents were asked whether they thought the Forum for Tourism should not only consider Scarborough but the whole Borough of Scarborough in the meetings and their tourism focus. Although the soft open systems model of a destination is adopted in this study, adopting a geographical and spatial categorisation seemed reasonable for this question, as it forms one aspect of the soft open systems model of a destination by looking at the structural aspect of the model (i.e. the geographic area) (Laws, 1995). Currently the Forum looks only at a local Scarborough area with having only marginal concern with the surrounding towns and villages in the Borough of Scarborough in terms of tourism. In this sense, Question 16c, was designed to identify the realm of this public space in which action occurs by asking respondents whether they felt that the Forum should not only consider Scarborough but the whole Borough of Scarborough, which would include the towns of Whitby and Filey to the North and South. Respondents felt very positive towards broadening the scope of the Forum in geographical terms with 29.73% strongly agreeing and 21.62% agreeing with this notion of expanding the Forum remit to include the Borough of Scarborough.

6.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

As discussed in Chapter 4, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is conducted in this work. Considering that EFA is a method of data reduction, it is used to identify the manifest variables which are of importance in the context of stakeholder power and their engagement with tourism policy development.

Using guidelines for EFA from the literature, the data was collected through the online questionnaire and analysed, ensuring that all components and tests were acceptable.

6.3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis – First Run

The first EFA was conducted using 33 variables from the questionnaire⁵³ with a total of 37 respondents. As the EFA data was generated through the online questionnaire, the respondent profile discussed in Section 6.2.2 is also applicable for the EFA. In the SPSS analysis any missing data was replaced with the mean to ensure statistical consistency. Due to the small sample size it was necessary to replace missing data with an estimate mean, as an exclusion of cases would have resulted in an even smaller sample (Field, 2009).

In the factor analysis all correlation coefficients below 0.5 in the correlation matrix were suppressed for the analysis to minimise the number of variables. Suppressing correlations below 0.5 helped in identifying the variables that have sufficiently high correlations.

⁵³ See Table 4.2 for a breakdown of the 33 scaled questions included in the questionnaire for the purpose of the EFA.

To improve the interpretation of the factor loadings after the initial factor extraction, factor rotation is used to help discriminate between factors⁵⁴ (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2007). For this work, orthogonal rotation is chosen as the most appropriate method of rotation due to the factors being uncorrelated and independent of each other. In SPSS the varimax method of orthogonal rotation was chosen for the analysis as it is the most commonly used orthogonal rotation method looking at maximizing the spread of loadings between factors (Thompson, 2004). It means that the method “maximises the variance of factor loadings by making high loadings higher and low ones lower for each factor” (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2001: 594). In varimax a smaller number of variables are loaded highly onto each factor which results in more easily interpretable clusters of factors (Field, 2009).

For the 33 items in the analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was performed with a result of $KMO = 0.299$ which is below an acceptable level, although Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is significant (0.000) (see Table 6.7). The acceptable level for the KMO measure lies at 0.5 for a satisfactory and good factor analysis which has not been reached in this first analysis (Field, 2009). This is a problem for the reliability of the factor analysis which will be addressed in the following paragraphs, meaning that some variables are less important in terms of their correlations for this factor analysis.

⁵⁴ Graphically factors can be plotted along an x-y axis and the rotation would simply be the rotation of the axes. By doing so, clusters of factors are easier recognisable. This is due to most variables loading highly onto one factor and small loadings on all other factors. Rotation is used to maximise high correlations and to minimise low correlations (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2007).

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.299	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1141.805
	df	528
	Sig.	.000

Table 6.7: KMO and Bartlett's Test (33 variables)

After the initial analysis and the scanning of the correlation matrix the question remains of how many factors to extract. There are different guidelines depending on the sample size. The most commonly used measure to determine the number of factors to extract is Kaiser's criterion. Factor extraction includes the calculation of the Eigenvalues in the correlation matrix and to determine the linear components of the data (the Eigenvectors). Theoretically then, there are as many Eigenvectors in the correlation matrix as there are variables. Many of these Eigenvectors are not important for the analysis and extraction of factors. The importance depends on the associated Eigenvalue as a criterion to determine which factors to retain. The Kaiser criterion is set as a default option by SPSS and extracts all factors where the Eigenvalue is ≥ 1 (Field, 2009). In this first analysis nine factors were extracted based on the Kaiser criterion to retain all factors that have an Eigenvalue ≥ 1 (see Table 6.8).

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
	1	10.413	31.555	31.555	10.413	31.555	31.555	4.700	14.242
2	4.328	13.117	44.671	4.328	13.117	44.671	4.178	12.660	26.902
3	2.778	8.418	53.089	2.778	8.418	53.089	3.624	10.982	37.884
4	2.385	7.227	60.316	2.385	7.227	60.316	3.051	9.245	47.129
5	1.909	5.784	66.100	1.909	5.784	66.100	3.001	9.094	56.222
6	1.720	5.214	71.313	1.720	5.214	71.313	2.787	8.445	64.668
7	1.404	4.253	75.567	1.404	4.253	75.567	2.104	6.375	71.042
8	1.203	3.647	79.214	1.203	3.647	79.214	1.989	6.029	77.071
9	1.036	3.139	82.352	1.036	3.139	82.352	1.743	5.281	82.352
10	.792	2.399	84.751						
11	.684	2.073	86.824						
12	.646	1.959	88.783						
13	.512	1.553	90.336						
14	.466	1.412	91.748						
15	.415	1.257	93.004						
16	.382	1.157	94.161						
17	.315	.955	95.117						
18	.308	.934	96.050						
19	.255	.773	96.824						
20	.209	.633	97.457						
21	.180	.545	98.002						
22	.150	.455	98.457						
23	.126	.380	98.837						
24	.113	.341	99.178						
25	.086	.259	99.437						
26	.059	.178	99.615						
27	.044	.132	99.747						
28	.027	.082	99.829						
29	.026	.077	99.907						
30	.018	.053	99.960						
31	.007	.022	99.983						
32	.005	.015	99.998						
33	.001	.002	100.000						

Table 6.8: Total Variance Explained (33 variables)

The nine factors extracted cumulatively account for 82.35% of variance. Before rotation, the first factor accounted for near enough one third of variance (31.55%), whereas after rotation factor 1 only accounts for 14.24% and the variance of the other extracted factors is more evenly spread. Without the rotation this would have meant that nearly one-third of variance is centred on Factor 1, making this the most important factor. However, the rotation shows that Factor 1 actually only accounts for 14.24% of

variance, providing more scope for other factors to be of greater importance as the variance is spread more evenly.

The SPSS output table *Communalities* gives an insight into whether the number of factors extracted is appropriate. Using Field's (2009) guidelines, if all values in the Extraction column in the *Communalities* table are 0.6 or above and there are approximately 30 variables, it is acceptable to use Kaiser's criterion of retaining factors with an Eigenvalue of ≥ 1 . In this analysis the lowest figure is 0.667 indicating that the number of extracted factors is appropriate for this analysis.

Considering that this first analysis does not meet the sampling adequacy measures as suggested in the literature, measures to improve results from the data were taken. The literature suggests that in FA and PCA, the KMO results for sampling adequacy can be improved if low-value variables are discarded from the analysis. This can be achieved by scanning the anti-image correlation matrix. The diagonal values in the anti-image correlation matrix should be above a minimum level of 0.5 for all variables. Any variables that fall below this 0.5 threshold should be excluded from the analysis to help improve the KMO result (Field, 2009). As discussed previously, the KMO result for this first analysis was 0.299 which is below the acceptable level, making the scanning of the anti-image correlation matrix the next step. The initial scan of the anti-image correlation matrix showed that four variables had very low values (see Table 6.9).

	Variable	Value	Item
a)	7	0.092	People don't always need to attend to make a difference
b)	14	0.110	The Agenda items determine whether I attend a meeting or not
c)	16	0.146	How important is it that you know the people who attend the Forum?
d)	17	0.149	Do you think it is helpful in reaching an agreement if you know your fellow Forum members?

Table 6.9: Low value variables from anti-image correlation matrix

As suggested in the literature, these four variables with low values in the anti-image correlation matrix were removed from the data and a second analysis was run.

6.3.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis – Second Run

For the second analysis, the same parameters were used as in the first analysis: data from 37 respondents, Varimax rotation, all correlation coefficients suppressed below 0.5. For this analysis only 29 variables were used from the questionnaire following the exclusion of the four variables which scored low in the anti-image correlation matrix in the previous analysis (see above). The aim behind the exclusion of the four low-scoring variables was to bring the KMO test to an acceptable level of 0.5 or above. The results of the second analysis shows that the KMO measure has now reached an acceptable level at 0.518 as can be seen in Table 6.10. Also, Bartlett's test is significant.

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.518
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	904.939
	df	406
	Sig.	.000

Table 6.10: KMO and Bartlett's Test (29 variables)

Based upon the Kaiser criterion to retain all factors with an Eigenvalue above 1, eight factors were extracted; cumulatively explaining 80.99% of variance (see Table 6.11 below).

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.015	34.534	34.534	10.015	34.534	34.534	5.020	17.310	17.310
2	4.103	14.150	48.684	4.103	14.150	48.684	4.042	13.938	31.248
3	2.431	8.382	57.066	2.431	8.382	57.066	3.941	13.590	44.838
4	1.882	6.489	63.554	1.882	6.489	63.554	2.697	9.301	54.139
5	1.549	5.342	68.896	1.549	5.342	68.896	2.405	8.294	62.433
6	1.288	4.443	73.339	1.288	4.443	73.339	2.093	7.218	69.651
7	1.201	4.142	77.481	1.201	4.142	77.481	1.785	6.156	75.807
8	1.017	3.506	80.987	1.017	3.506	80.987	1.502	5.179	80.987
9	.844	2.911	83.897						
10	.735	2.536	86.433						
11	.612	2.111	88.544						
12	.477	1.645	90.189						
13	.452	1.559	91.748						
14	.416	1.435	93.183						
15	.379	1.308	94.491						
16	.324	1.116	95.607						
17	.254	.877	96.484						
18	.212	.731	97.216						
19	.176	.608	97.824						
20	.165	.567	98.391						
21	.121	.419	98.810						
22	.097	.334	99.144						
23	.083	.285	99.429						
24	.053	.184	99.613						
25	.043	.150	99.763						
26	.028	.097	99.860						
27	.018	.061	99.920						
28	.016	.054	99.975						
29	.007	.025	100.000						

Table 6.11: Total Variance Explained (29 variables)

As can be seen from Table 6.11 and the scree plot (Figure 6.9), prior to rotation, the first factor had very high loadings and explained more than one third (34.53%) of the overall variance providing a very distorted picture of the importance of the factors. After rotation, the loadings and Eigenvalues of the factors were more evenly spread where

Factor 1⁵⁵ accounted for 17.31%, which near enough halved the variance prior to rotation. Factors 2 and 3 accounting for 13.938% and 13.59% of variance respectively, also emerge as important factors in this EFA in defining the factors that are of importance in understanding stakeholder power and engagement for this Scarborough case study context.

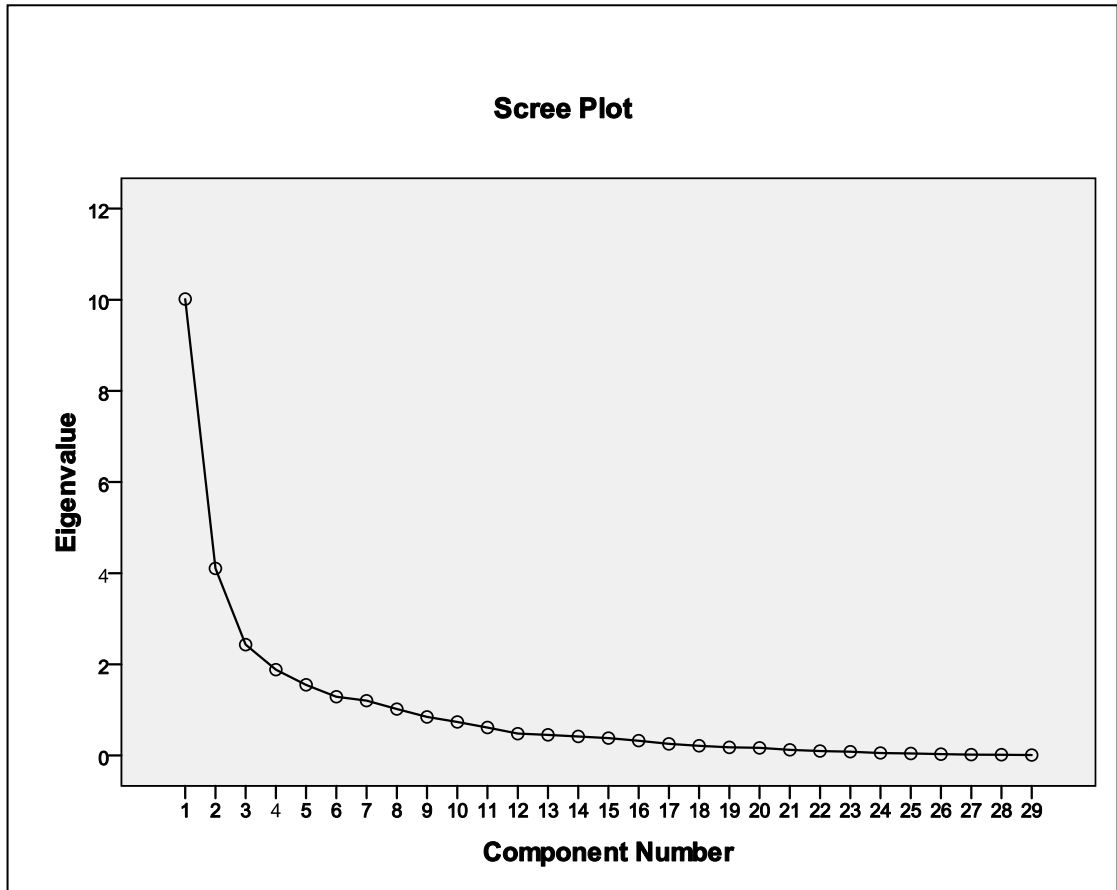


Figure 6.9: Scree plot (before rotation)

Table 6.12 provides a summary of the EFA results from the questionnaire by indicating the questions used as variables in the EFA, the highest loadings (> 0.5), the rotated factor loadings (i.e. the factor cluster categorisations), the associated Eigenvalues for each extracted factor, and the variance of each factor. As can be seen the first three factors explain just under half of the cumulative variance (44.838 %) of all factors and

⁵⁵ Factor 1 = Component 1 in Table 6.11

can be seen as being probably the most important factors, covering Interaction, Attendance, and Engagement.

Questions	Factors							
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8
Do you feel you are working towards the same goals within the forum?	0.922							
Do you feel you have similar interests in attending the Forum?	0.886							
Do you feel that the Forum members are working towards similar business goals?	0.787							
Do you feel engaging with them produces results?	0.747							
How valued do you feel your contribution to the Forum is?	0.682							
I feel at ease at engaging with others in the Forum.	0.644		0.557					
Having worked with Forum members previously helps in making decisions.	0.531			0.511				
After attending a meeting, I sometimes reflect upon the actions and approaches taken which will ultimately change my opinion of a particular topic.	0.501		0.501					
Regular attendance is a must.		0.818						
How important is the following when deciding to attend a meeting: Socialising		0.765						
How important is the following when deciding to attend a meeting: Networking		0.728						
How important is the following when deciding to attend a meeting: People		0.698						
I actively engage in the Forum for Tourism		0.662			0.594			
I intend to attend all meetings this year.		0.645						
Attending the Forum shows my commitment to tourism in Scarborough.		0.524		0.500				

I express my viewpoints openly in meetings.			0.872					
I openly consider other's viewpoints.			0.816					
I feel comfortable in working with newcomers to the Forum.	0.545		0.725					
How important is the following when deciding to attend a meeting: Agenda			0.650					
How important do you think local knowledge is for tourism development in Scarborough?			0.524					
My education plays an important role in my interest in tourism.				0.780				
Being involved in other action groups is important for raising one's profile.				0.585				
It is expected of me to show an interest in the Forum.					0.829			
Do you feel engaging with other Forum members produces results for your business?					0.618			
I go to the meetings because I feel that I have to.						0.813		
The Forum should not only consider Scarborough but the whole Borough of Scarborough.						0.727		
I accept a person's opinion because of their status.							0.764	
Attending the Forum meetings increases my business profile.							0.539	
I am more inclined to work with people I know.								0.858
Eigenvalues	5.02	4.042	3.941	2.697	2.405	2.093	1.785	1.502
% of variance	17.31	13.938	13.59	9.301	8.294	7.218	6.156	5.179

Table 6.12: Summary of EFA results and loadings

An initial analysis of the extracted factors shows different aspects the factors represent (see Table 6.13 below). The table shows that the categorisation of the factor clusters from the rotated component matrix suggests a very social aspect. However, the factor categorisations do reflect the literature review discussions in that there are elements which are more of a behaviourist and therefore agency related nature, but elements which can be attributed to a more functionalist and therefore structuralist nature are just as evident. The factors extracted show a more balanced perspective of those factors that can be attributed to the power of stakeholders, due to the eight underlying *elements of power* (stakeholder role sets, associative relationships, structure, subjectivity, social relations, agency, visibility, stakeholder salience) discussed in the CF being very interrelated (see Figure 3.2). The factor extraction now shows the eight elements of power yet under different headings to account more for a contextual understanding of the extracted factors.

Factor 1	Interaction
Factor 2	Attendance
Factor 3	Engagement
Factor 4	Visibility
Factor 5	Subjective Norm / peer interaction
Factor 6	Structure
Factor 7	Status
Factor 8	Familiarity

Table 6.13: Factor cluster categorisation

Considering that the EFA was conducted in conjunction with a TPB focus, the factor cluster categorisations indicate the factors that are of importance in determining individuals' engagement in the Forum. As such, the questions used in the EFA were designed to look at the aspects of the TPB in more detail, as well as using questions designed to gain an insight into the eight power elements discussed in the conceptual framework (see Chapter 3). In this sense, the EFA combined two strands, that of the

power elements and that of the TPB elements to gain an insight into the important factors which determine stakeholder power and their engagement with tourism policy development in Scarborough with a view to a development and extension of stakeholder theory.

In more detail, the following paragraphs will look at each extracted factor more closely, taking into consideration the amount of variance each factor accounts for as identified in Table 6.12 and outlining the reasons for the labelling of those factors relating to the content of the questionnaire. Looking at the questionnaire coding table in Section 6.2 at the beginning of this chapter, Factor 1 includes questions relating to Agency, Subjectivity, Social Relations, Stakeholder role sets and Weber's Associative Relationships as discussed in the conceptual framework in Chapter 3. As such the questions focused on how people work together, how valued they feel their contributions are, and whether respondents felt that they were working towards similar goals. Although there is a mix of questions deriving from various concepts, there is a common theme that can be interpreted. In this sense, the underlying theme that emerged from Factor 1 can be categorised as Interaction accounting for 17.31% of variance.

The questions relating to the extracted Factor 2 are derived from Weber's Associative relationships, Structure, Stakeholder role sets, Visibility and Agency. As with Factor 1, there is a mix of concepts resulting in the extraction of Factor 2. However the questions are concerned with regular attendance and the factors that are important in deciding to attend meetings, as well as showing their commitment to tourism in Scarborough by attending Forum meetings. Therefore Factor 2 can be labelled Attendance explaining 13.938% of variance.

Factor 3 is the third highest loading factor (13.59%) and has been labelled Engagement, as questions illustrate that respondents are comfortable working with newcomers, express their viewpoints and consider other's viewpoints openly in meetings, while also agreeing that local knowledge is important for tourism development. In terms of concepts underlying the questions it appears that Factor 3 is informed by Stakeholder Salience, Structure, Associative Relationships, Agency, Stakeholder role sets, and Subjectivity.

Factor 4 accounts for 9.301% of variance with underlying concepts comprising Social relations, Agency and Stakeholder role sets. In particular, the results indicate that this factor is influenced by people getting involved and being seen in their tourism capacity as well as showing their commitment to tourism development in Scarborough by attending Forum meetings. Due to this focus on 'being seen' this factor is labelled Visibility.

Factor 5 (8.294% of variance) has been labelled Subjective Norm as the results indicate that respondents do feel that there is some expectation as to their behaviour within the Forum, as well as a personal perception that there is some peer pressure in terms of attending and engaging in the Forum. Subjective Norm is formed by the concepts of Stakeholder role sets, structure and social relations.

In terms of underlying concepts, Factor 6 (7.218% of variance) is the most straightforward in that the two questions underlying this factor are both related to Public Space but have here been labelled as Structure. The term Structure is thought to be appropriate as the results show that there are structural constraints in engaging with tourism policy development, such as a feeling that respondents feel that they have to

attend meetings and that the remit of the Forum should broaden its geographical scope to include the Borough of Scarborough. In this sense this reflects both internal and external structures – those elements that cannot readily be changed.

Factor 7 has been labelled as Status covering the underlying constructs of Visibility and stakeholder salience, accounting for 6.156% of variance. The data shows that the two highest loadings are concerned with a perception that attendance increases business profile whilst respondents also accept another person's opinion based upon their status. This shows the interplay between being visible at meetings and a very subjective appreciation of other people's opinions based purely on someone's standing in society.

The last factor extracted, Factor 8, is based on the concept of Public Space and has been labelled Familiarity, informed by only one question loading highly onto this factor (5.179% of variance). The question specifically refers to respondents being more inclined to working with people they are familiar with, hence the label Familiarity.

Overall the labelling of the factor clusters is very subjective and at the discretion of the researcher and given other circumstances, could easily be labelled differently. However, considering that the purpose of the EFA was to identify the most important factors that influence and inform the power of stakeholders and their reasons for engaging with tourism policy development, the factor cluster labelling looked closely at the underlying questions, more so than considering the underlying constructs from the conceptual framework. As can be seen in all factors extracted, each is informed by various underlying constructs but that the EFA has then made it possible to confirm some of those hypothesised constructs in a more appropriate manner as presented in the CF in Chapter 3.

6.3.3 Reliability analysis – Cronbach's alpha

To test the reliability of the scale used in the EFA, Cronbach's α was used as a measure of reliability in this research. Cronbach's alpha is used extensively in combination with factor analysis as the literature shows (Santos, 1999, Terwee et al., 2007, Benk et al., 2011, Hunter, 2011, Sohrabi et al., 2011). Field (2009) suggests that Cronbach's α formula should be applied to each factor if different factors (also termed subscales) exist in the analysis. Terwee et al. (2007) and Hunter (2011) also suggest that Cronbach's alpha is used after the EFA to measure for internal consistency within the questionnaire. However, Benk et al (2011) suggest that Cronbach's alpha is computed prior to the EFA with the preconceived subscales used to develop the questionnaire. Recently, Sohrabi et al (2011) used Cronbach's alpha as a reliability analysis both before and after an exploratory factor analysis. It seems then that there is no rule of thumb as to when the reliability analysis should be conducted and there are pros and cons about computing Cronbach's alpha before and after EFA. If alpha is computed before EFA it can give an insight into the internal consistency of the questionnaire as a whole and any subscales developed. If alpha is computed after the EFA, this can provide an insight into the reliability of the factors extracted and their loadings. However, it appears that the most widely adopted procedure for using Cronbach's alpha is after the EFA to check for internal consistency in the results of the analysis.

Therefore, in this research Cronbach's alpha is computed following guidance from Field (Field, 2009) after the extraction of factors from the EFA. In this sense, eight different subscales have been computed which means that there will be eight subscales from the orthogonal rotation (see Table 6.14).

Factor	Name	Cronbach's alpha (α)
1	Interaction	0.911
2	Attendance	0.878
3	Engagement	0.850
4	Visibility	0.812
5	Subjective Norm	0.735
6	Structure	0.699
7	Status	0.752
8	Familiarity ⁵⁶	-

Table 6.14: Reliability scores (Cronbach's α)

For a good and acceptable reliability level, the value of Cronbach's α should be 0.70 or higher (Grau, 2007, Field, 2009). As can be seen from Table 6.14 above, all values bar one (Structure: $\alpha = 0.699$) of α are above the recommended level indicating that the questionnaire has high internal consistency and therefore reliability.

6.4 Telephone interviews

The telephone interviews were conducted at the end of April 2011 as a follow-up to the online questionnaire to further contextualise and corroborate findings, as well as to provide the data needed for the creation of the stakeholder maps. Considering the small sample size for the questionnaire and response rate, the telephone interviews were deemed important to help validate findings. The results from the telephone interviews verified and validated the analysed sample by showing congruent responses with regards to issues identified from the questionnaire. As discussed in Chapter 4, the interviews were semi-structured allowing the researcher to include and omit questions as necessary and to provide a relatively informal discussion with respondents (Saunders et al., 2000). A complete telephone interview and stakeholder mapping respondent profile can be found in Appendix V.

⁵⁶ N.B. After extraction and rotation, only one question loaded highly on this factor, hence Cronbach's alpha cannot be computed based upon only one question.

Initially the interviews were divided into two different groups – one group would be asked contextual questions as a follow up from the questionnaire as well as questions about their ties with other Forum members at a local Scarborough level, and about their ties with other people/organisations at a North Yorkshire regional level (Group A). The second group would only be asked about their ties with other Forum members, as well as their ties with other people/organisations at a North Yorkshire regional level for the creation of the stakeholder maps (Group B).

In total eight complete telephone interviews were conducted with Group A, and five shorter interviews were conducted with Group B. The interviews typically lasted between 15 and 45 minutes. Snowball sampling as a purposive sampling technique was used to select interviewees and during the interviews respondents were asked to nominate other members of the Forum for Tourism whom they communicated with about tourism development in Scarborough (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). They were asked to nominate up to five people. Following this, people nominated by the initial couple of interviewees were contacted and sampling followed the same procedure as above. The saturation point was reached when no new names were mentioned by respondents and the data collection came to a natural end and was completed (Patton, 2002). The interviews were conducted during office hours, as the majority of respondents were contacted at their place of work, thereby minimising any clash of interest in responding to the interview questions during working hours as questions considered their professional capacity.

6.4.1 Group A

Bearing in mind some of the responses from the questionnaire and thoughts from the conceptual framework in Chapter 3, the interviews for Group A were designed to follow up some of those notions and ideas more closely, particularly in relation to their attendance, engagement, expectations and communication with other Forum members and the Forum itself. As such one of the premises of the conceptual framework considered the extent of visibility being an attribute of the power of individuals. After the questionnaire evaluation, this issue seems to be of importance as there appears to be a linkage between engagement and attendance at the Scarborough Forum for Tourism meetings. To investigate this context further, an engagement and attendance matrix has been devised which provides a visual indication of the behaviour of stakeholders to help investigate the visibility issue as discussed, and ultimately how this may have an effect on their power as an attribute (see Figure 6.10).

Engagement	Yes	Group 2	Group 1
	No	Group 4	Group 3
		No	Yes
		Attendance	

Figure 6.10: Engagement and Attendance Grouping Matrix

The engagement and attendance grouping matrix is divided into four groups:

- Group 1 – engagement and attendance at meetings
- Group 2 – engagement and non-attendance at meetings
- Group 3 – non-engagement and attendance at meetings
- Group 4 – non-engagement and non-attendance at meetings

In this matrix and for this research, *attendance* refers to the actual physical attendance of individuals at Forum for Tourism meetings, whereas *engagement* refers to individuals not only contributing at the meetings but also by email, telephone or any other kind of contact with members if meetings cannot be attended. The underlying premise of the attendance and engagement matrix is that people who engage and attend are more powerful than people who do not engage or attend meetings, which emerged from the findings from the questionnaire discussion. Visibility is key in this discussion as the data showed that respondents felt that actual interaction and attendance at meetings is of importance, although there is scope for non-visible participation. The attendance and engagement matrix was designed based on this premise and finding.

To explore this premise further, the interview schedule for the telephone interviews was divided into four different groups in line with the groupings identified in the engagement and attendance matrix introduced above. This resulted in four different sets of questions for the four corresponding groupings, depending on which group they belong to. The question outline for each of the four groupings can be found in Appendix III. As the interviews were conducted, it emerged that only two of the original four groupings were in fact relevant. At the beginning of each interview, all four categories were read out and respondents were asked into which group or category they would place themselves. Each of the categories was explained to the interviewee and the meaning of attendance and engagement for this research was outlined in more detail by explaining the terms following the guide discussed in the previous paragraph. Therefore it can be assumed that the self-categorisation of respondents is valid. As a result, five respondents categorised themselves as belonging to Group 1 (engagement and attendance at meetings) and three respondents categorised themselves as belonging to Group 2 (engagement and non-attendance at meetings). Group 1 comprised four

hoteliers (two male and two female) who have each been involved in tourism in Scarborough for 4 to 10 years, as well as a Market Research Executive (male) who has also been involved in tourism in Scarborough for 7-10 years. Group 2 was slightly more diverse as it comprised one hotelier (male), one Managing Director (male) and one Operations and Finance Manager (female) who have all lived in Scarborough for 10 years or more and have been involved in tourism for at least 4 years and longer.

For Group 1 the interview questions focused on the level of their engagement; which committees are important and attended by themselves; the length of their involvement and reasons for getting involved; personal expectations and attendance at Forum meetings; and their perception of others in the Forum environment. For Group 2 the interview questions considered similar issues with the exception that specific questions were included to investigate reasons for non-attendance, whether non-attendance has any effect on their influence or engagement, and what would encourage them to attend meetings. In addition, both Groups were asked whom they thought the most important person in the Forum and to give reasons why they thought this person is most important. The responses will now be discussed.

Group 1 – engagement and attendance at meetings

The reasons for attendance among respondents in Group 1 are varied but there is an underlying theme. In particular this refers to respondents feeling that they gain information at the Forum meetings if they attend that otherwise they would not have known or heard about had they not attended. For example, Respondent 1, an accommodation provider, indicated that he attends to find out what is going on and to gain an overview of events and to express his interest in the town. Also, for him the reasons for attending as well as engaging in the meetings are very similar in that he claims that “Hoteliers don’t step back from tourism. They are very involved.” and a

further reason being that he is interested in getting to know the [tourism] business outside of his own business area:

“As a self-employed hospitality provider, we often have ‘blinkers’ which makes us focus on our own business although we need to know what is happening around us.” (Respondent 1, male, aged 61-70, local business (accommodation provider))

Other responses as reasons for attendance from interviewees included “being nose-y” and “if you don’t get involved you can’t moan” (Respondent 2); “to give something back to the town” (Respondent 4); “makes me more accessible and I am taken more seriously by partners” and “I feel an obligation to attend” (Respondent 5); “twofold reasons for attending: to inform people and to get informed” (Respondent 3). Some of these perceptions and reasons for attending are triggered by either personal or business related factors each of which addresses different stakeholder role sets.

In terms of reasons for engaging in the Forum meetings, respondents were quite clear that people who attend are not under pressure to have to engage or say something in the meetings. Quite often people will attend as observers but then will participate in discussions to ensure that their opinion is heard, which will often depend on the topic discussed as well as the agenda. The Forum meetings are regarded as a relaxed atmosphere where “people are not assassinated verbally” (Respondent 5) but that it is an environment in which opinions can be aired and shared while also having the opportunity to disagree with those opinions and to “set the record straight” (ibid).

One respondent (Respondent 3, male, aged 31-40, hotelier) indicated that his engagement in the meetings is down to him trying to distribute information to a wider

audience as part of a local industry organisation, which can be attributed to a business related motivation to attend. However, Respondent 2, a female hotelier aged 41-50, quoted more personal reasons for engaging in the Forum. For her in particular it was important that she liked people to know who she is and that she likes to get involved. This stemmed from her personal experience of being born into a local Scarborough tourism business and after a period of 20 years away from local tourism, returning to Scarborough and seeing a definitive change in the tourism provision and demand. Her engagement in the Forum is influenced by this change in tourism in Scarborough and she feels that getting involved in the Forum would help protect tourism at this local level. In the interview she particularly stressed the effect the change in tourism had on losing business, where many of the previous accommodation providers are turning their accommodation stock into flats for private rentals. She was very concerned about the change of accommodation and planning by the council not being beneficial for tourism which in return has led to a lack of investment. As an accommodation provider herself, attendance at the Forum meetings is important as well as a hands on approach in getting heard.

There is some consensus among interviewees with regards to their expected attendance at meetings, with four out of five respondents agreeing with the question “Do you think that because you attend, people expect you to attend?”. This shows that there are some subjective norms influencing and underlying respondents’ perceptions. The four responses are:

“I feel that I am missed and noticed by my absence.” (Respondent 2, female, aged 41-50, Hotelier)

“I feel guilty if I am not present [at the meetings]. I feel I am letting them down.” (Respondent 4, male, aged 41-50, Market Research Executive)

“Yes, I feel guilty when I am not able to go. I want to show my support... I feel embarrassed when not many people attend for the presentations. It’s like letting people down.” (Respondent 5, female, aged 31-40, Hotelier)

“Yes. At one meeting someone asked “Where is the [local industry organisation]⁵⁷?” and I turned around and said that the [local industry organisation] was here – me! People expect the [local industry organisation] to attend.” (Respondent 3, male, aged 31-40, Hotelier)

Interestingly, the only respondent to disagree with the expectation to attend stated that there is a core of people attending the meetings, but he feels that there is no expectation to attend as such, due to there being different faces present depending on which action group meeting is attended (Respondent 1, male, aged 61-70, Hotelier). Looking at these responses and the respondent profiles, it appears that individuals have different perceptions of their expected attendance regardless of their occupation or gender. Building upon subjective norms it can be said that these are very personal and unique to each individual as to how they not only perceive themselves, but how they think other people perceive them. For the majority of respondents, their profile and possibly their status and visibility within the Forum are important for themselves and their business it seems.

Keeping in mind the focus on the visibility of individuals as described previously at the beginning of this section, the interview also included specific questions about whether they thought that people who do not attend and do not engage are also influential. Attendance emerges as a key factor in shaping people’s perceptions of influence. Particularly, regular attendance at meetings was quoted as being important for “a build

⁵⁷ N.B. Name of local industry organisation removed to preserve anonymity.

up of trust” (Respondent 4), “[the] key to getting heard” (Respondent 3), and that it helps in getting to know people’s perspectives on particular topic areas. In addition, it emerges that attendance is not always essential for people to be influential. Instead their merit, prestige or standing in the town is regarded as sufficient to be perceived as influential by other Forum members.

“Yes, people are very influential, especially local businesses. Let me give you an example... Although [local business owner] does not attend as he is too busy, he is very active in tourism in Scarborough. People act together as individuals to achieve something greater.” (Respondent 5, female, aged 31-40, local business (accommodation provider))

“Yes, they are influential as they are often part of the bigger players in the industry such as English Heritage or Haven Holidays. I believe that information seeking leads to influence. Especially for local people and councillors to keep up-to-date with tourism issues.” (Respondent 4, male, aged 41-50, action group member (tourism))

Generally respondents indicated that those who maybe do not attend meetings but who are regarded as having influence nonetheless, are locally established individuals who have a track record of being involved in the tourism industry, the local council and local business. This corroborates with results from a study on personal and social bonding among tourism businesses in the Peak District National Park (Saxena, 2006). The study found that personal relationships as well as longevity in the local tourism industry have an influence on how business is conducted and how businesses are perceived. Further the findings in this study are supported by research on cooperation among tourism businesses in a case study in the European Alps (Beritelli, 2011). It appears that informal relationships and personal involvement are regarded highly when tourism stakeholders choose to cooperate with other stakeholders, whilst their institutions are

more of a secondary determinant although a stakeholder's position will have been informed by this.

In terms of non-attendance at Forum meetings, busy timescales and clashes with other responsibilities, such as family and other business meetings were mentioned by respondents, although their non-attendance has no effect on their commitment to tourism in Scarborough.

Group 2 – engagement and non-attendance at meetings

The main difference in the questions asked for Group 2 lies in identifying why respondents do not attend Forum meetings, what would encourage them to attend, and how they engage with the Forum. As outlined at the beginning of this section, three respondents placed themselves in Group 2, through self-categorisation, indicating that they engage in the Forum but that they do not attend the meetings.

The reason for non-attendance is a timing issue as all three respondents have a professional interest in tourism but family commitments and other business and committee commitments prevent their attendance in most cases. However, respondents did indicate that they try and attend if possible. A deciding factor is the agenda and the items under discussion. However, one respondent was quite cynical about whether the agenda influenced his engagement:

“Yes, depends on guest speakers... [The Forum] doesn't really have a remit [...] You can air your views but the Forum is not very influential... not there to make decisions.” (Respondent 6, male, aged 41-50, Hotelier)

The main communication and engagement method with the Forum is email contact with the chairman of the Forum, the means through which the Forum communicates outside the actual meetings. When contributions are made via email or other contact with the chairman, the results of their contributions are positive and there is the feeling that these are taken on board and discussed in meetings.

In terms of ways of encouraging these non-attendees to attend meetings, respondents had different suggestions which vary in their ease of implementation. For example, Respondent 8 would be more encouraged to attend if the agenda items, guest speakers and presentations reflected her area of professional interest more, in particular an Arts and Culture focus. To ensure a breadth of different foci at each meeting this is relatively easy to implement, whereas Respondent 7 suggested a refresh of the whole Forum meetings and the way the Forum is structured, although no suggestions were made as to how this refresh would manifest itself. Respondent 6 however, suggested changing the day of the meetings and also proposed the need for a public forum based on web media such as the creation of a facebook group, for example, where people can leave comments and suggestions as well as interact with each other outside of the meetings. The creation of such a web based group would then be available to all members and contributions can be made if meetings cannot be attended or similar. Being involved in a fast moving and dynamic tourism industry, Respondent 6 also implied that the Forum, as it is currently set up, may be too rigid and those monthly meetings may not be sufficient to capture this dynamic environment. The creation of a web based calendar or facebook group in addition to the meetings would then ensure that information can be circulated quickly and easily between members and interested parties, as well as flagging up important events and industry news.

Overall, there is a high familiarity within the Forum as all respondents from Groups 1 and 2 indicated that they have been involved with the Forum for a minimum of four years, two respondents have even been involved since the initial formation of the Forum in 1995. This shows that individuals are committed whether they attend and engage, or whether they do not attend but still engage.

From the interviews it emerges that the chairman of the Forum is regarded as the most important person in the Forum by others. The chairman is seen as the linchpin of the Forum in leading and organising the meetings as well as being the hub of communication among members, which is confirmed by the stakeholder mapping exercise discussed in Section 6.5. Other reasons include that he has “lasted the distance” and that his job, which is not associated with tourism, has provided him with a real overview of issues and an objective perspective (Respondent 1). This corroborates with the chairman’s own perspective and reasons for getting involved with the Forum. In the interview, specific reference was made to him not having a personal professional interest in the tourism industry in Scarborough, but that he likes to get involved to give something back to the town and to use skills (e.g. chairing the meetings, negotiation and mediation skills) he would not use in his current job position.

In terms of exploring the premise of attendance having an effect on an individual’s power, the data from the interviews does not support this premise unequivocally. Although power is informed by attendance, the interview data also provides scope for power being influenced by non-attendance such as engagement through other means of communication, as well as people’s status’ and reputation. In this sense, attendance is often influenced by subjective norms and people’s perceptions that they feel that they

have to attend as they are expected to attend. However it has emerged that attendance does not equal power.

6.4.2 Group B

The data from the interviews with Group B was to be used exclusively for the stakeholder mapping exercise as will be discussed in Section 6.5 of this Chapter. However, due to a fairly conversational tone of the interviews, some more contextual information was also gained through the interviews. Primarily respondents were asked two questions:

Question 1:

Do you communicate with anyone in the Forum for Tourism about tourism policy development in Scarborough? Please list up to five names.

Question 2:

Do you communicate with anyone at a North Yorkshire regional level about tourism policy development in Scarborough? Please list up to five names.

The purpose of those two questions was to establish the relationships of respondents as members of the Forum with fellow Forum members at a local Scarborough level, as well as establishing any relationships respondents may have at a wider North Yorkshire regional level with a specific focus on tourism policy development. These questions are termed ‘name-generator questions’ and are commonly used for gathering data for social network analysis (Wasserman and Faust, 1994, Prell et al., 2009). As discussed previously in Chapter 4, this research does not employ social network analysis per se although some aspects of such social network analysis techniques are used to help generate the stakeholder maps (see Section 6.5 below).

In terms of further contextual data from Group 2 respondents and in connection with the responses from Group 1, it emerges that there is a feeling that the Forum organisation as it currently stands, may not have the scope to remain in its current state for very long. This feeling was expressed by Respondent 10 (female, aged 61-70, Hotelier) who quoted “The Forum will fizzle out” based upon the fact that in the initial stages of the Forum around 1995/1996, approximately 100 people would attend the meetings compared to 20 to 30 people who currently do. It is her perception that it is increasingly difficult to maintain the group due to funding issues and maintaining people’s interest in the Forum. This perspective in part mirrors the concerns raised by Respondents 6 and 7 as discussed previously, who suggested a much needed refresh of the Forum in terms of its organisation, structure, and the way the meetings are held, and the creation of a web based group in addition to the current Forum organisation.

6.5 Stakeholder Mapping

Stakeholder mapping is a further data analysis tool to help contextualise the findings of the questionnaire and exploratory factor analysis discussed above. Using the exploratory social network mapping program *Pajek* as discussed in Chapter 4, the stakeholder maps show a graphical representation of the relationships/connections among Forum stakeholders as identified through the interviews focusing on two levels: a local Scarborough Borough level, and a regional North Yorkshire level. This is to establish the ties of stakeholders and their potential engagement across local boundaries, which, it is anticipated, could give an insight into the ‘power’ of stakeholders. The stakeholder maps are a snapshot in time of relationships between stakeholders as these can change over time, as people as well as their structural surroundings change. The maps created in this thesis may therefore have altered slightly since the interviews were conducted, although they are an accurate representation of the relationships in terms of

stakeholders' communication with other Forum members about tourism development in Scarborough at that point in time, making the maps fairly static in nature.

6.5.1 Local Scarborough Borough level map

Figure 6.11 below shows the relationships between stakeholders of the Forum as respondents indicated in the interviews at a local Scarborough level. As discussed earlier in Section 6.4, interview respondents were specifically asked to name up to five people whom they communicate with about tourism development in Scarborough. Snowball sampling was used to determine respondents, which followed its course until the saturation point was reached and no new names were mentioned by respondents and the data converged (Patton, 2002). Following the interviews with both Groups, data from all thirteen respondents was used to draw the stakeholder map for the local Scarborough Borough level using *Pajek*.

As such, this resulted in a stakeholder network map comprising 29 vertices with eight partitions. The partitions allow for the slicing of the network and can help identify different groupings within the network (De Nooy et al., 2005). In the figure below these partitions have been colour coded to help visualise the different groupings. Due to ethical reasons of preserving respondents' anonymity for each stakeholder map, each vertex has been coded and assigned to a particular partition. The partitions were chosen based on common denominators and roles⁵⁸ among the vertices/respondents. In the stakeholder map, each vertex represents one individual person, although they have been assigned to different partitions depending on their primary role. Most respondents only had one primary role (i.e. accommodation provider or attraction provider) although

⁵⁸ Roles refer to respondents' occupation or other association with tourism underlying their involvement in the Forum.

some respondents had double roles and could have been assigned to different partitions. For this reason the network boasts a double roles category which refers to respondents with double roles (i.e. accommodation provider and council (SBC)). The partitions for this stakeholder map include Double roles, Attraction providers, Local businesses, Industry Organisations, Action groups, Media, Accommodation providers, and Council (Scarborough Borough Council). At the time of the interviews, the issue of partitioning respondents by assigning them primary roles, was not apparent. Only when the data was collected, it emerged that some vertices/respondents had one more than one primary role in terms of their association with tourism primarily based on their occupation or based on their attendance and involvement at Forum meetings. Therefore, the double roles category was not explained to respondents in the interviews. However, it was not at the discretion of the researcher to assign a primary role to those with double roles, as both of those roles had a tourism focus and would have been equally important in the context of the Forum for Tourism.

Each connection between vertices indicates that the individual was named by a respondent as someone they communicated with about tourism development in Scarborough. Communication included different forms such as verbal and written (e.g. telephone, email, postal), as well as formal and informal, which was explained to respondents at the outset of the interviews.

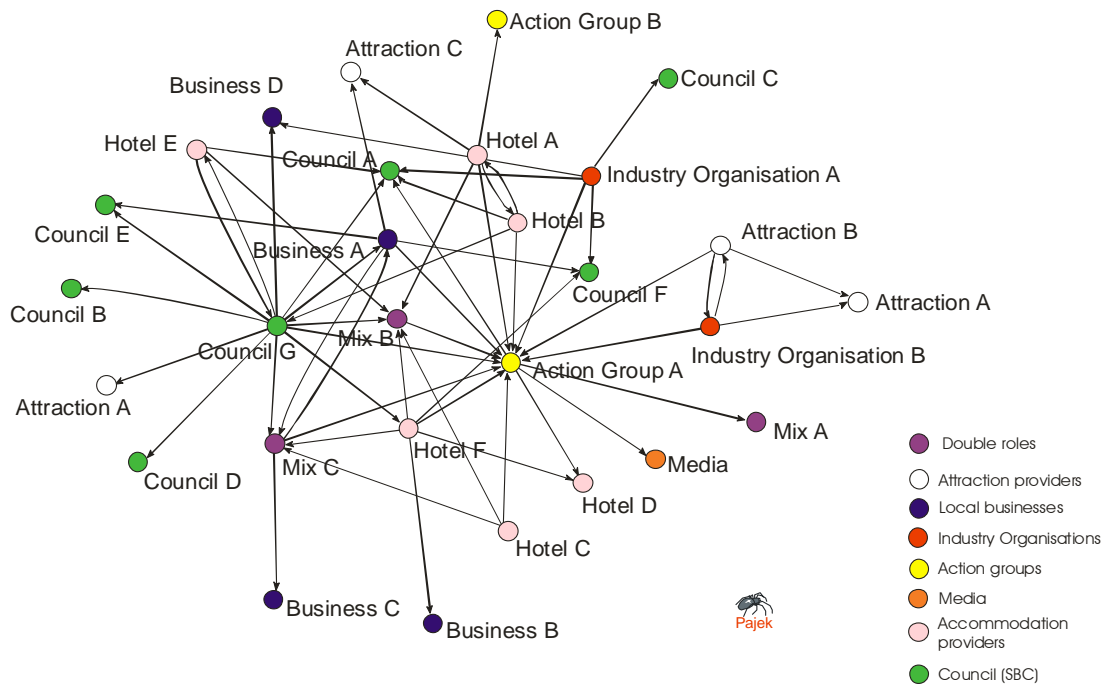


Figure 6.11: FFT full stakeholder map (local level)

As can be seen in the stakeholder map in Figure 6.11, there is a clear centre and periphery to the network, where the centre is highly connected. The most highly connected vertex is Action Group A with a total of 15 connections in the network. Action Group A was the most named individual by respondents and it can be said that Action Group A is the actor with whom most respondents communicate. The second most highly connected vertex is Council G with a total of 14 connections. This respondent named 11 people instead of only five as asked in the interview, but in return was only named three times by other respondents. However, due to the semi-structured interviewing technique it was thought that the additional data would be admissible in the network creation and would add to the richness of the stakeholder map.

Table 6.15 below shows the frequency distribution of cluster numbers which refers to the degree of the vertices. The degree of a vertex is called degree centrality and provides an indication of how many ties a vertex has as its ‘neighbours’ (De Nooy et al., 2005). In this sense then, the more ties there are, the higher the degree of a vertex. Degree centrality is used as a measure to consider the centre and periphery of networks and can

provide an insight into the most highly connected vertices. In other words, an actor who is said to have a high degree may be at the centre of the network and the hub for communication of that network, for example. As already described above, the actor with a degree of 15 is Action Group A, the highest degree centrality of the network. However, as can be seen in Table 6.15, there is a second vertex which has a degree of 14 meaning that Council G has a total of 14 connections, the second highest degree centrality. The table identifies nine different clusters of degree centrality. Overall the stakeholder map of the Forum shows degrees with the lowest value of 1 which is the most frequently occurring degree centrality with nine representatives accounting for 31.0345% of all vertices (see Table 6.15).

Network All Degree Centralization = 0.21230

Cluster	Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency %	Representative
1	9	31.0345	9	31.0345	Media
2	5	17.2414	14	48.2759	Attraction A
3	2	6.8966	16	55.1724	Hotel C
4	3	10.3448	19	66.5172	Attraction B
5	3	10.3448	22	75.8621	Council A
6	2	6.8966	24	82.7586	Hotel A
7	3	10.3448	27	93.1034	Business A
14	1	3.4483	28	96.5517	Council G
15	1	3.4483	29	100.0000	Action Group A
Sum	29	100.000			

Table 6.15: Frequency distribution of cluster numbers (Forum full map)

When looking at the stakeholder map it is apparent that all nine lowest value degree centralities of one connection, are vertices/actors that were named by respondents (i.e. receivers – see later for full discussion). The vertices with only one connection originate from various sectors including media, Scarborough Council, local businesses, an attraction provider, a member of an action group, as well as one stakeholder with double roles. These then form the periphery of the stakeholder map, and it can be argued that these are not as powerful as those with higher degree centrality located in the centre of the map as they have less ties and therefore less communication with other stakeholders.

Furthermore, the high representation of the low degree centralities provides some insight to how fragmented the network is, consequently showing up communication gaps between individuals as well as businesses.

Membership of committees

In addition to the general Forum for Tourism stakeholder map questions for both interview groups, Group A of respondents were also asked about their membership and attendance of other tourism related committees as discussed previously (see Section 6.4.). Figure 6.12 below indicates the committee membership of those eight respondents. The map illustrates how respondents with an interest in the Forum for Tourism attend various committees and action groups and although there are some shared committees, the map also indicates that there is a wide variety of interests and attendance across the different committees and action groups. Looking at the map, the most attended⁵⁹ committees are those of Urban Renaissance, Scarborough Hospitality Association, Town Team, and Coastal Tourism Advisory Board⁶⁰ each with three ties. Also, a small sub-network emerges through Respondent 8 who attends three committees which are not attended by any other respondent. This sub-network may have emerged as a result of different foci of the respondent and their professional capacity to that of the other respondents, for example an arts and culture focus as opposed to a 'pure' tourism focus.

⁵⁹ Attendance here includes membership as well as general attendance of the committees. No detail is known about the frequency of attendance at these committees, as the question was designed to gain an insight into the different connections stakeholders have and their interests outside of the Forum for Tourism – if any at all.

⁶⁰ The Coastal Tourism Advisory Board was initiated in January 2011 after the disbanding of Yorkshire Forward and associated Area Tourism Partnerships (here the Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership).

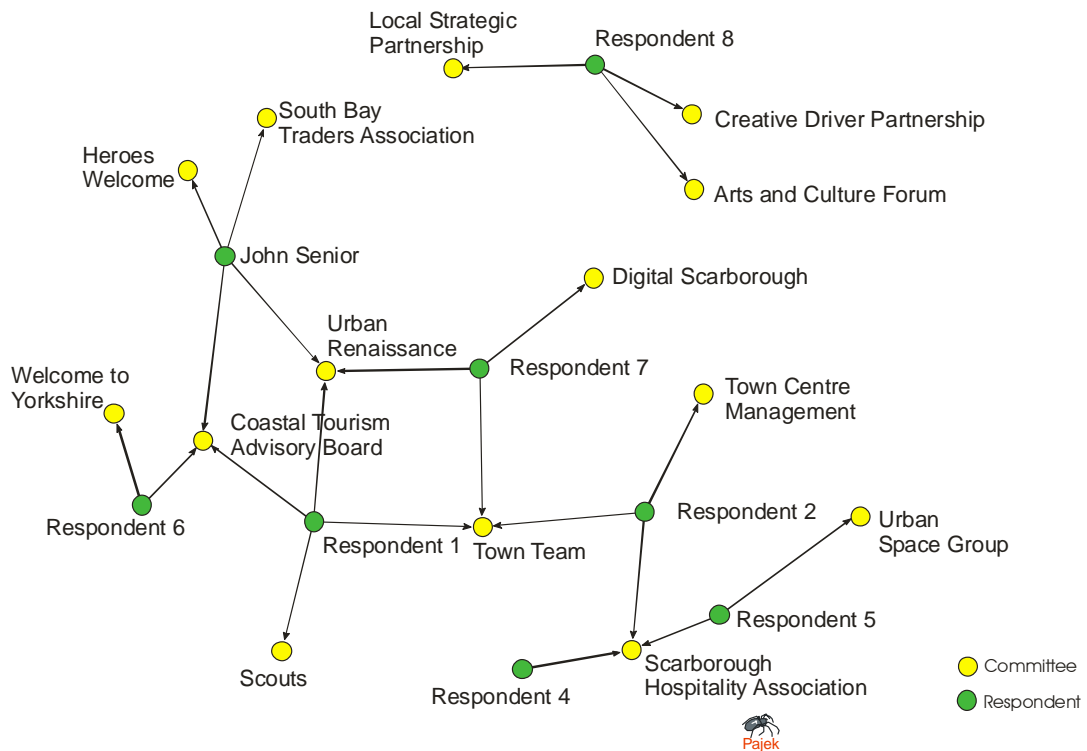


Figure 6.12: FFT respondent and committees map

6.5.2 North Yorkshire Regional Maps

As discussed in Chapter 4 and previous sections, the interviews asked specific questions about respondent's ties at both a local and regional level to illustrate their connections and relations across local boundaries. Furthermore, it is argued that the creation of regional stakeholder maps can help identify in how far a respondent's links may contribute to their power as an attribute across local boundaries. Comparing the local and regional level stakeholder maps may have the scope to provide an overview of the connectedness of respondents and in how far their connections differ at the two levels. This can give an insight into the focus of individual respondents and the reach of their business or professional capacity, which can ultimately inform their behaviour and their involvement in tourism policy development.

6.5.2.1 North Yorkshire regional level map – all connections by individuals

The first regional stakeholder map below (Figure 6.13) shows all connections of interviewees and any regional ties they may have. As with the local stakeholder map at the beginning of this section, interviewees and ties were coded to preserve anonymity. For this map, nine different categories were identified based on their primary roles and colour coded as partitions. Like the local level map, this regional level map also includes a double roles category denoting that vertices/respondents have more than one primary role in relation to tourism and once more it was not at the discretion of the researcher to assign primary roles to those respondents.

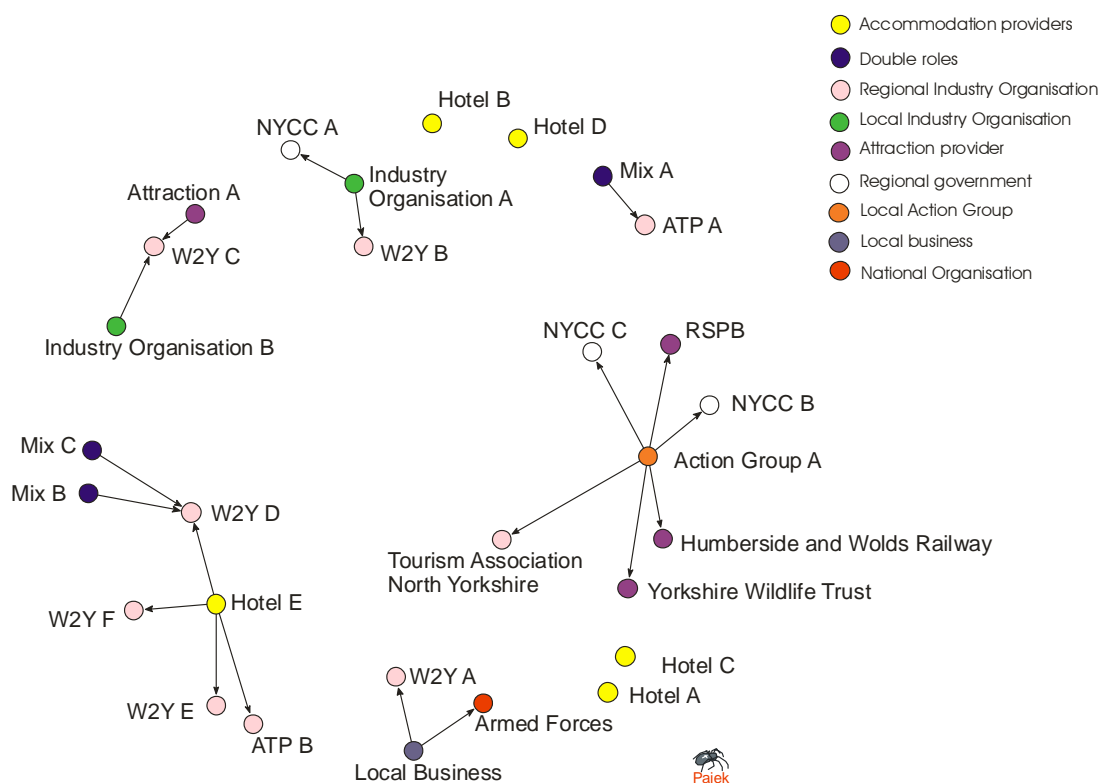


Figure 6.13: FFT full regional map (all connections by individuals - 29 vertices)

Overall there are 29 vertices in this network map but it is visually much more fragmented than the previous local level map. It is apparent that four accommodation providers do not have any regional connections, and once more the most connected vertex is Action Group A with a total of six ties (see Figure 6.13 and Table 6.16).

However, the fragmented nature of the network is visible as there are six smaller sub-networks when the network shows all connections by individuals. What is evident is that each sub-network has a connection to at least one regional industry organisation (Tourism Association North Yorkshire, Area Tourism Partnership and/or Welcome to Yorkshire). However, when looking at this map showing all connections by individuals, it is also notable that although each sub-network is connected at least once to a regional industry organisation, only one individual (W2Y D)⁶¹ was mentioned three times by interviewees and overall six different individuals were named who are associated with Welcome to Yorkshire as an organisation. Again this may well be linked to the fact that interviewees all have different contacts within the same umbrella organisation depending upon their specific focus and their roles. At first glance it is not obvious which organisations or interviewees are the most connected and therefore central players in the network due to the fragmented nature of the map.

Table 6.16 supports the observation of a fragmented nature of the network as a degree centrality of one is the most frequent degree accounting for nearly two thirds of occurrences with 19 vertices connected to only one other.

Network All Degree Centralization = 0.08995

Cluster	Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency %	Representative
0	4	13.7931	4	13.7931	Hotel A
1	19	65.5172	23	79.3103	Armed Forces
2	3	10.3448	26	89.6552	Local Business
3	1	3.4483	27	93.1034	W2Y D
4	1	3.4483	28	69.5517	Hotel
6	1	3.4483	29	100.0000	Action Group A
Sum	29	100.0000			

Table 6.16: Frequency distribution of cluster numbers (Forum full regional map)

⁶¹ W2Y = Welcome to Yorkshire

6.5.2.2 North Yorkshire regional level map – all connections by organisations

Due to the first regional map showing all connections by individuals looking very fragmented, a second North Yorkshire regional map was created showing the ties between interviewees and organisations (Figure 6.14). This resulted in a network comprising 21 vertices as opposed to 29 vertices in the first regional network map as described above. In this second network individuals associated with the same organisations, namely Welcome to Yorkshire (W2Y) and North Yorkshire County Council (NYCC), were combined to form one vertex per organisation. In the previous stakeholder map, six individuals associated with Welcome to Yorkshire and three individuals associated with North Yorkshire County Council were named. It was decided to group the vertices together to form one vertex per organisation to provide a better overview of the ties individuals have with others at a North Yorkshire regional level. This helped improve clarity and also minimised a visual fragmentation of the stakeholder map. In this case, the only unconnected vertices remaining are four accommodation providers (named as partitions: Hotels A, B, C, D), with all other vertices connected to at least one other vertex. The partitions and categories remain the same as in the previous network map showing connections by individuals for ease of comparison.

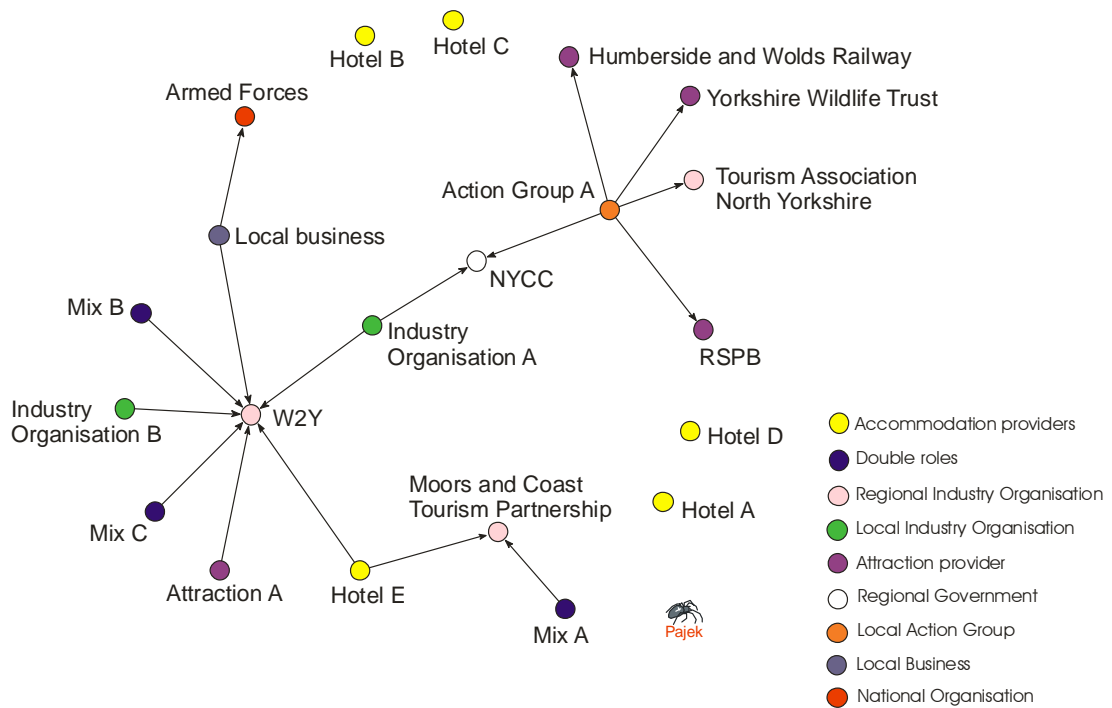


Figure 6.14: FFT full regional map (all connections by organisations - 21 vertices)

By grouping together the vertices associated with the same organisations it is much clearer to see which vertices are the most connected in the network and therefore can be classed as the most central. In this map, two clusters appear to emerge – cluster one around Action Group A, and cluster two around W2Y. However, the two clusters differ in that cluster one around Action Group A is centred on the vertex being a *sender*, as this interviewee named five connections with whom they communicate at a North Yorkshire regional level, whereas cluster two around W2Y emerged as a result of the vertex W2Y being a *receiver*⁶², where this organisation was named by seven interviewees (see Table 6.17 below). In terms of importance for this network illustrating individual’s connections at a North Yorkshire regional level, cluster two is the most expressive as the majority of individuals indicated that they communicate with

⁶² In social network analysis, networks are defined by different connections between vertices (the actors). The lines between vertices specify the type of relationship of those actors where *arcs* are used as a directed line (for example, one girl may choose another as a dining table partner but this is not reciprocated) and *edges* are used as undirected lines (for example, a family where these actors are equally involved in the relationship). In this work, arcs are used to display the relationship between actors. An arc is an ordered pair of vertices where the first vertex is the ‘sender’ (the tail of the arc) and the second vertex is the ‘receiver’ (the head of the arc) of the tie. Graphically this means that the line points from sender to receiver by means of an arrow at the head of the arc (de Nooy et al, 2005).

Welcome to Yorkshire as an organisation about tourism policy development in Scarborough. Bearing in mind the first regional map showing connections by individuals, it is also important to acknowledge the fact that although Welcome to Yorkshire is the organisation that interviewees communicate with at a North Yorkshire regional level, interviewees have different individual contacts depending on their professional capacity focus. As such, the interview data showed that some individuals communicate with the CEO of Welcome to Yorkshire while others communicate with the Marketing department or PR about tourism policy development in Scarborough. This can hold advantages for stakeholders and Forum members who communicate with regional level actors such as Welcome to Yorkshire, as their connections may give them an advantage in terms of being informed and informing by Welcome to Yorkshire about issues that directly affect the tourism policy development environment in Scarborough. Also they may gain advantages over other Forum members who do not communicate with actors at a regional level in terms of information exchange and potentially being involved with decision-making at a local as well as regional level. This can have some impact upon their stakeholder role sets, their subjectivity, visibility and particularly how they are perceived by other Forum members in terms of their engagement and potentially how this can influence their power within the tourism policy context in Scarborough.

Network All Degree Centralization = 0.15132

Cluster	Frequency	Frequency %	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency %	Representative
0	4	19.0476	4	19.0476	Hotel B
1	10	47.6190	14	66.6667	Mix A
2	5	23.8095	19	90.4762	MCTP
5	1	4.7619	20	95.2381	Action Group A
7	1	4.7619	21	100.0000	W2Y
Sum	21	100.0000			

Table 6.17: Frequency distribution of cluster numbers (Forum full regional map - by organisation)

It is interesting that in terms of the overall regional structure of tourism organisations, Welcome to Yorkshire has emerged as the most important point of communication and that a more intermediate level such as the Area Tourism Partnership (Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership) was only named twice. Partly this can be attributed to the fact that the current ATP structure is being reformed after the disbanding of Yorkshire Forward which is the Regional Development Agency for this area.

6.6 Summary

This chapter has outlined the data presentation and discussed the findings from the data collection process. Results from the questionnaire were described in the context of the conceptual framework introduced in Chapter 3 and links were made between theoretical and practical outcomes. In particular the questionnaire findings supported and confirmed the *eight elements of power* being of importance as constructs in the conceptual framework. The data highlighted the interrelatedness of the eight elements of power as stipulated in the CF discussion. Local knowledge and high familiarity emerged in the questionnaire data as important aspects in helping understand stakeholder power. Not only is stakeholder salience informed by local knowledge but also by the frequency and engagement of stakeholders at Forum meetings. Due to these foci, stakeholder salience is in turn reflected in visibility providing scope for both visible as well as non-visible participation in tourism policy development. Patterns of attendance also feature as important in structure which is influenced by peer perception and pressure as well as the structural environment surrounding stakeholders. Thus subjectivity emerges as a key element influenced by structure and stakeholder role sets shaping perceptions of Forum members, highlighting the notion of stakeholders being both doers and sufferers, where local knowledge and familiarity provide insight into powerful stakeholders. The

Gesinnungsverein, as the associative relationship, was confirmed by stakeholders' focus on agenda as reasons for attending meetings, where benefits include networking and increased awareness of tourism issues in Scarborough. These examples highlight how closely connected and related each of the eight elements of power are for this study context and confirm that the CF is a valid framework.

Building on the questionnaire, the EFA showed up the most important factors for respondents in engaging with tourism policy development. Although the number of factors extracted was the same as the concepts applied in the conceptual framework development, it appears that there are slight differences and priorities in those factors shaping intent and motivation to engage. The extracted factors interaction, attendance, engagement, visibility, subjective norm, structure, status and familiarity provide a more appropriate labelling of the elements that inform the power of a stakeholder based on the original elements of power as hypothesised in the CF. The extraction of these factors and the new labelling reflect the interrelatedness of the concepts for this study and stakeholder power as discussed in the previous paragraph.

The telephone interviews following the questionnaire looked at contextualising some of the findings in more detail, as well as providing the data for the stakeholder maps at both a local and regional level. The stakeholder maps were constructed to show a visual and graphical representation of the Forum stakeholders and assumptions and conclusions can be made as to a stakeholder's power in terms of their interconnectedness and visibility. They also confirm and support the findings from the questionnaire in terms of providing an insight into stakeholder role sets, particularly in respect of the diversity of the tourism committees or groups attended (see Figure 6.12). In addition, stakeholder salience can be deduced by looking at the stakeholders with the

most ties which, as the questionnaire findings show, are often based on peer perception and a local business focus. Other aspects such as agency as well as the *Gesinnungsverein* as the prominent associative relationship are visualised in the stakeholder maps.

To summarise then, this chapter has brought together the different strands of the triangulation of data collection methods. Each of the different strands was designed to address differing elements of the conceptual framework, following a sequential mixed design as outlined in Chapter 4. In this sense, the questionnaire provided a starting point for the analysis, not only for the qualitative analysis of the data but also for the EFA. Following the EFA, the newly extracted factors needed to be contextualised in respect of the findings of the preceding questionnaire analysis for which the telephone interviews were utilised. These in turn helped in creating the visual stakeholder maps which not only illustrated stakeholder relations but also reflected some more contextual information and aspects of the elements of power as discussed in the CF. The interrelatedness of concepts and their applicability to the conceptual framework will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 7. In addition, Chapter 7 will consider a revision of the conceptual framework drawing on the data collection findings.

Chapter 7

Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter includes a discussion and evaluation of the research findings from the data collection in the context of the literature review and the conceptual framework developed. Based on this, the conceptual framework is revised to reflect any changes and insights gained from the data collection process.

7.2 Development of the conceptual framework

Considering that the research problem can be classed as being both conceptual and practical, the conceptual framework developed was primarily based upon literature sources and the current national, regional and local tourism context. This particularly includes the disbanding of the RDAs in 2010, how this has affected local tourism organisation, the new LEP structures and how tourism is being approached in light of funding issues and the need for greater partnership working as discussed by Penrose (2011). As such, it appeared that there are discrepancies in the tourism literature and the practical implementation and adoption of policies and frameworks within the tourism sector (Stevenson et al., 2008). From the problems identified from the policy and tourism literature in Chapter 2, concerned with structures and the organisation of tourism in England and how this can affect and has affected local tourism bodies and their organisation, a more relevant framework to understand tourism stakeholders and their willingness to engage in tourism policy development in an English seaside resort environment was needed.

In particular, looking at the issues seaside resorts are facing in the context of the wider policy development environment within England, combined with those challenges that are typical for seaside resorts as discussed in Chapters 2 and 5 (Section 2.4 and 5.2), the CF focused on identifying those reasons and motivations of stakeholders to actually engage with tourism policy development through the means of an Action Group like the Scarborough Forum for Tourism. In this sense, the framework is considered to be more relevant as it can demonstrate those aspects which are deemed important to stakeholders at the local level. Considering the call for a more contextual and joined-up thinking and working approach (Penrose, 2011) and a greater recognition of the private sector within the policy literature, this framework sought to look at ways in which future policy development activities and their organisation could be developed by identifying the underlying reasons and motivations of stakeholders to engage. This work is then one first step towards a greater consideration of stakeholders that are at the very bottom of the policy development agenda. In acknowledging the wider regional and national organisation of how tourism policy is guided by strategic frameworks (e.g. Government Tourism Policy), this study can go some way to provide suggestions as to how more public and private sector working could be taken forward in the future. This can be achieved by considering not only current but also future stakeholders in tourism policy development based upon their attributes, interest and/or knowledge, which is discussed further in Chapter 8, Section 8.5.8. What is especially relevant is taking on board some of the lessons learnt from failed partnership approaches, such as the Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership as discussed in Chapter 5, which were adopted by local authorities as they were guided by regional frameworks and issues of funding, while to some extent ignoring the private sector and the requirements of the seaside resort and its economy.

From a conceptual perspective, this framework brought together different strands of theories from various disciplines to develop a framework which provides a greater insight into how stakeholder theory can be incorporated within a tourism policy perspective, building upon the aim of how stakeholder power can be interpreted within a stakeholder theory and tourism policy context. Conceptually then, pulling together the concepts of stakeholder theory, literature on tourism policy, structure and agency, power, and the theory of planned behaviour have provided the basis on which the conceptual framework is built. As the literature review has shown, these concepts combined can collectively provide the scope to consider stakeholder power and their engagement with tourism policy development. Although there are some caveats with the uses of some of those theoretical concepts, for example stakeholder theory having had a previous focus on resource dependency based approaches (Mainardes et al., 2011), such as the popular stakeholder saliency concept (Mitchell et al., 1997) and the concentric circles model of stakeholder theory (Donaldson and Preston, 1995), the conceptual framework developed draws more heavily on the recognition of social and relationship based approaches within an English seaside policy development context.

The following discussions attempt to evaluate the conceptual framework and its applicability in more detail.

7.3 Evaluation of the conceptual framework

The conceptual framework introduced in Chapter 3 was based on the eight elements of power derived from the preceding literature review and included stakeholder role sets, Weber's associative relationships, structure, subjectivity, social relations, agency, visibility, and stakeholder salience. It was argued that these eight elements of power can help assist in understanding the reasons and motivations of individuals to engage with

tourism policy development at a local level. It emerged that the eight concepts each have their own role to play in the power of individuals and the formation of a stakeholder's power in such a context. The data collection findings confirm that there is scope to include each of the eight elements of power in the conceptual framework, as each power element was recognised by the findings of the research process. The following discussion of the eight elements of power is based on the findings generated from the questionnaire, with further contextual discussion from the EFA, interviews and stakeholder mapping exercise to follow.

7.3.1 The eight elements of power

The findings from the questionnaire for each of the eight elements of power indicate that these play an important part in the development of the conceptual framework. This is based on their attributes and how each element addresses a different aspect which contributes to the power of a stakeholder. Singularly each element only provides one insight into reasons for engaging, whereas combined the elements of power inform an actor's intention to perform a behaviour, i.e. their engagement with tourism policy development. The interrelated nature of the eight elements has to be recognised where some of these build upon one another more intensely than others as identified from the literature review and confirmed by the study findings, though a definitive linkage can be seen between all eight power elements. For example, this refers to the stakeholder role sets and Weber's associative relationships in that a stakeholder's role sets can provide some insight to the basis of those roles, which in turn indicates the type of associative relationship that is applicable, as will be discussed shortly. As discussed in Chapter 3, it was proposed that the three underlying beliefs of the TPB, attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control as latent variables are informed by the eight elements of power identified. Ultimately the eight elements

inform the TPB concepts which consequently provide an identification of an individual's intention to engage in Forum meetings and their expected behaviour.

In more detail, stakeholder role sets are confirmed as one aspect contributing to the power of an individual within a tourism policy context, as primary research has shown the different reasons people have in attending meetings, some of which are based on personal interests, and others which are based on business interests such as decision making, business opportunities and opportunities to network with other attendees (Section 6.2.3). Although the literature review stipulated that one aspect of stakeholder role sets was the premise of conflict arising from often conflicting and competing roles for individuals (Freeman, 1984), this research does not support this premise of conflict being a determinant for stakeholder engagement. This is based on the perspective of power adopted in this study being functionalist and structuralist, as informed by the eight elements of power outlined in the CF and the stakeholder perspective adopted. Conflict is acknowledged but the research findings have shown that the majority of stakeholders have similar interests and roles within the Forum. This confirms that the *Gesinnungsverein* is the prominent associative relationship for the Scarborough Forum for Tourism context, informed not only by their stakeholder role sets but also by the high degree of familiarity among Forum members and the length of their involvement with tourism in Scarborough. Looking at the Forum and its members from a stakeholder perspective, as opposed to a managerial perspective, it appears that stakeholder role sets are more informed by the cumulative interests of stakeholders in the tourism industry as a whole in this case study context, rather than based on pure resource and economic interests focused on growth and profitability as found in many stakeholder theory uses (Donaldson and Preston, 1995, Frooman, 1999, Carroll and Buchholtz, 2006). In addition to the power framework developed based on the enabling aspect of power

through Arendt's (1998) natality and plurality, as well as Foucault's (1980b, 1980c) subjectivity, power is not considered from a negative and oppressing perspective, instead it is considered as an empowerment of people. Therefore this study adds to the development of stakeholder theory as attempted by Ford (2005), who through empirical testing of his framework on stakeholder leadership considered a greater benefit for the organisation and organisational change if employees are empowered, i.e. through considering a 'power to' as opposed to a repressive 'power over' conceptualisation.

Stakeholder salience, a term coined by Mitchell et al. (1997), considers the importance of stakeholders as perceived by others, and is supported as an important role in the creation of a power framework in the context of stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development for this research problem. It appears that stakeholder salience is informed not so much by frequent attendance of individuals at meetings, but is more concerned with an active engagement and expression of viewpoints in the Forum meetings as identified from the data findings in Chapter 6 (Section 6.2.4 and Section 6.4.1). This can be attributed more to the quality of individuals' contributions in terms of presenting at Forum meetings, providing comments and interacting with the Forum in person or via email for example, than simply the number of meetings attended. Considering the underlying structure and agency dialogue in this research, the data has also shown that there is some influence of structures that have an impact on the salience of stakeholders in that a 'top down' decision making perspective is perceived to be of importance. The data indicates that of those organisations that respondents thought to be responsible for tourism development, the majority are public sector focused (e.g. Scarborough Borough Council, North Yorkshire County Council, and Yorkshire Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership) with marginal consideration for individual people, providing reduced scope for a bottom-up decision making perspective (Section 6.2.4).

This gives scope to consider that although active engagement and an expression of viewpoints are contributing factors to stakeholder salience, it appears that this has to be viewed in an organised environment pulling in structure as well as agency components. In other words, stakeholder salience should be considered as being influenced by its structural surroundings, such as society and strategic frameworks, as well as agency, which is the actor's capacity to act informed by local knowledge and reflected in the *Gesinnungsverein* as the associative relationship.

Unlike in the stakeholder salience concept proposed by Mitchell et al. (1997) as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, power is not perceived as an attribute of stakeholder salience but instead, stakeholder salience can be interpreted as one attribute of power in this study. This is once again based on the premise of the adopted stakeholder perspective considering the actions of stakeholders to a greater extent. Considering that the Mitchell et al. framework looks at the salience of stakeholders that a manager should take into account, based on their power, legitimacy and urgency of their claims on the focal firm, this study seeks to use the stakeholder salience concept as a constituent of power of stakeholders and not vice versa, within a tourism policy development context at a local level.

Looking at the three types of Weber's associative relationships, (1) market exchange, a compromise between opposed interests of stakeholders; (2) *Zweckverein*, associations based on material interests; and (3) *Gesinnungsverein*, associations devoted to a cause (Swedberg, 2005), the *Gesinnungsverein* is the most appropriate as a contributing aspect informing the development of stakeholder theory in this study as suggested in the questionnaire findings in Chapter 6 (Section 6.2.5). This is due to stakeholders being established and familiar with the Forum and the local tourism industry, with the

majority of respondents having lived in Scarborough for 10 years or more as well as having been involved with the Forum for a number of years, while business relations with other Forum members are not deemed too important (Section 6.2.5). In this sense, although stakeholders engage in the meetings and are familiar with each other, material interests (e.g. resources, monetary values) as they would surface in a Zweckverein (Swedberg, 2005), are not essential. Instead the focus is more on their engagement and interest in the Forum and tourism industry based upon being devoted to a cause, that of getting involved in the local tourism environment and promoting tourism for the benefit of the town and themselves. This is confirmed by the data findings in that respondents indicated that they are happy to work with newcomers and that the attendance of the majority of respondents at Forum meetings is determined by the agenda, with other aspects such as networking and people as secondary determinants. Power is then not informed so much by material interests and a traditional resource based power conceptualisation, but stakeholder power is determined by more social aspects such as stakeholder engagement and interest in the Forum for a collective goal as it would surface in a Gesinnungsverein. Interestingly, and in line with a Gesinnungsverein conceptualisation of the associative relationships of stakeholders as noted above, socialising is not considered to be an important factor in determining Forum meeting attendance. Further supporting the notion of a Gesinnungsverein for this stakeholder context based on the findings from the data collection, are the benefits that are associated with being involved in the Forum by questionnaire and interview respondents. These concentrate on networking with others in the Forum at meetings, an increased awareness of forthcoming events, and establishing ties and contacts, which is supported by the local Scarborough and regional North Yorkshire stakeholder maps presented in Section 6.5.

Structure is not only part of the underlying structure and agency dialogue of this work, but it is also essential for gaining an insight into those aspects of individuals over which they have no direct control. This especially refers to peer perception and peer pressure where stakeholders are subjected to those pressures in the context of the social world they live in. From the data findings it emerges that there is some scope for structures and a normative⁶³ consideration which has an impact upon the stakeholder and their reasons to engage. Utilising Bourdieu's (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992) notion that often these social structures, in this case a normative dimension focusing on elements such as peer pressure, are unconscious to the human mind is illustrated by the findings (habitus). It emerged that respondents, mainly from local businesses and Scarborough Borough Council, felt that they were expected to attend Forum meetings and that they were expected to show an interest in the Forum (Section 6.2.6). In this sense, stakeholders are embedded in normative aspects as perceived by themselves and those around them. Peer pressure and perception influence stakeholders not only through the consideration of habitus but also in terms of the patterns of their attendance at meetings, which is often based on others' perceptions. In essence, structure is inherent in all stakeholder relations. As an element of power, structure is expressed through Arendt's (1998) concept of public space, as this is classed as a structured environment in which action takes place. Linking this back to Laws' (1995) soft open systems model of a destination, there is scope to confirm the validity and applicability of the Laws' framework for this study and the CF in terms of the need to consider both structural as well as agency aspects in developing stakeholder theory further for this research context. Particularly the model illustrates the influence of structural constraints in the wider tourism policy environment such as the recent changes in the national, regional

⁶³ Normative, as indicated in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.6, refers to those norms that are attached to a certain extent by individuals and given structures.

and local changes to tourism structures, through the disbanding of the RDAs and the effect this has had on the Forum as an action group within Scarborough tourism.

Very closely linked to structure is the element of subjectivity as an attribute of power as confirmed through the data collection process. As the premise of individuals being both doers and sufferers within a structured environment as outlined in Chapters 3 and 6, subjectivity emerges through individuals being subjected to other people's power, say through reflection after meetings which can ultimately change their opinion, and subjecting others by engaging in meetings and sharing viewpoints (Foucault, 1980b, 1980c). The questionnaire findings showed that there is clear agreement among Forum respondents on different viewpoints enriching a working relationship⁶⁴ – this can be attributed to subjectivity, as most working relationships are reciprocal providing the platform for individuals being both subjected and subjecting others to power (Section 6.2.7). However, although these relationships emerge as reciprocal in terms of their subjectivity, some consideration also needs to be given to those stakeholders that may be in a position to subject another stakeholder or be subjected by another stakeholder to a greater or lesser extent, based upon their position and ties within a stakeholder network of relations. This can be illustrated by the questionnaire finding that not all respondents felt that everyone's contributions to the Forum are valued equally. Primary data indicated that subjectivity is not always reciprocal as one respondent (Respondent 3, male, aged 51-60, local business (accommodation provider)) maintained that the Forum is “run by self-appointed individuals who try to force their own view on the majority”, supporting the notion that individuals can be perceived to subject others to greater extent based on their position or status. In this case it would mean that some

⁶⁴ Working relationships refer to those relations among Forum members which are based on business or knowledge exchange, in achieving similar goals – either for personal or business gain, on both individual or mutual levels.

stakeholders have greater subjectivity based on their relations with others across and within certain environments, here the Forum and the wider policy arena of Scarborough Borough, as well as regional levels. The findings showed that local knowledge and high familiarity among Forum members have some impact upon why stakeholders are conceived as powerful, as their stakeholder role sets and embeddedness in local structures can shape perceptions of others. This will be discussed further in Section 7.4.2 in the evaluation of the stakeholder maps in the case study setting.

The research has shown that agency, like structure is inherent as an attribute in power relationships between stakeholders. Being the capacity to act (Sewell, 1992, Sibeon, 1999), agency is necessarily influenced by surrounding structures and social environment, which can include external influences such as local knowledge, and more personal, internal aspects such as education (Section 6.2.8). However, the premise of working towards similar goals as it has emerged from the findings, linking back to the *Gesinnungsverein* as the adopted associative relationship as discussed above, illustrates why stakeholders act. It is the recognition that structure and agency are not polar but complementary concepts, in that a person's capacity to act is influenced and informed by given structures within their social environment. Agency does have some underlying normative connotations like structure discussed previously, in that one of the findings of the questionnaire indicated that people tend to work together towards similar business goals within the Forum, but that equally they consider that their attendance at the Forum shows their commitment to tourism in Scarborough. This supports the dialectical nature of structure and agency in that these are interrelated and cannot be considered as polar concepts, as found in the literature (Hollis, 1994, Hollis and Smith, 1994, Dépelteau, 2008).

As an element contributing to stakeholder power, social relations are an important factor as the type of social relation and the number of ties a stakeholder has, can give some insight into the relational power (Wasserman and Faust, 1994, Rowley, 1997, Huisman and van Duijn, 2005, Pajunen, 2006, Luoma-aho and Paloviita, 2010). Of course, this social relations concept has to be seen in the context of the other contributing factors of the eight elements of power. The research has shown that high familiarity among members within the Forum, with approximately two-thirds of respondents indicating that they know the majority of people attending the Forum meetings, has some impact upon the way meetings are conducted and how stakeholders have got involved with the Forum (Section 6.2.9). Personal connections in the context of a structured environment can help address common interests and develop the *Gesinnungsverein* of stakeholders in terms of their associative relationships with one another and the wider local tourism industry. For this case study, it emerged that there is a strong focus on local knowledge, with the Forum being a close-knit group where word-of-mouth is the key method of communication. In addition the high familiarity resulting in the Forum as a close-knit action group, as well as previous collective action and working relationships between Forum members influences the extent of stakeholder engagement in the Forum and tourism policy development.

In the conceptual framework it was hypothesised that visibility refers to the actual visibility of individuals which would inform their power. The research has shown that visibility, as the final element of power is important as an attribute but that some scope for non-visible engagement and action for individuals is also supported (i.e. through email or telephone contact if meetings are not attended). Visibility as a shaping element of power is further supported by the overall understanding of the Forum and its organisation and running of the meetings by the researcher based on the data findings,

though also supported by knowledge gained by attending the meetings. Although visibility is an important attribute for respondents and members of the Forum, non-visible engagement is also possible due to the high familiarity among Forum members. As the Forum is a very close-knit group with many members having been involved for a number of years, the aspect of non-visible engagement comes into play. As members are aware of other members' perceptions, their interests and often their reasons for attendance or engagement, it is often easier or members are more inclined to accept opinions or other comments that may be the result of non-visible engagement.

Data gained from the interviews and the creation of the attendance and engagement matrix provide a further context to illustrate the importance of visibility as an attribute of power (Section 6.2.10). The analysis of the attendance and engagement matrix and related questions showed that people who attend and engage are not necessarily more powerful than those who do not attend or engage. So, although visibility is one aspect of power, the research has confirmed that someone's status within society as well as their attendance and engagement have some remit in increasing an individual's power. Broadly this can be linked back to Foucault's (1980c, Allen, 2003) notion of disciplinary power stipulating that individuals can be powerful in that their presence alone can be influential and that such individuals are often perceived by others to be powerful, which supports the scope for non-visible engagement further. Visually the stakeholder maps provided some insight to the prominent stakeholders within Scarborough and the Forum for Tourism based on their ties and whether these can be classed as senders or receivers within the network.

However, although the findings from the questionnaire have shown that all eight elements of power are of importance for the conceptual framework based on how power

can be construed for individuals, no evaluation can yet be made as to whether some may be more important than others in this research context. For this evaluation, the data from the EFA needs to be considered which is discussed in the following section.

7.3.2 Uncovering issues with the eight elements of power

As discussed, primary research has confirmed the importance of the eight elements of power as hypothesised in the conceptual framework, as those elements informing an individual's intention to engage through the TPB concepts of attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control, giving some indication as to their expected behaviour based upon those aspects. However, the discussion above has looked more closely at the results of the questionnaire in terms of their applicability to this framework. Considering that the research utilises a mixed method approach, the insights from the exploratory factor analysis also need to be taken into account and how this has informed the process of the research and subsequent findings and possible revisions to the conceptual framework.

As discussed in Chapters 4 and 6, the purpose of the EFA was to identify those factors that are of importance for stakeholders and their engagement in tourism policy development, giving an insight into those factors that may inform the power of stakeholders. Based upon the EFA, eight factors were extracted in the analysis, some of which have been labelled similar to the eight elements of power hypothesised, others have been labelled differently to reflect the underlying themes. To summarise, the eight factors extracted after the EFA are the following: interaction, attendance, engagement, visibility, subjective norm/peer interaction, structure, status, and familiarity.

The factors extracted through the EFA show a more balanced perspective of the attributes of the power of stakeholders, which reflect the underlying structure and agency dialogue and intermediate philosophical position adopted in this research, when compared to the initial eight elements identified in the conceptual framework. In this sense, the extracted factors still have the originally hypothesised eight elements at heart, although the factors can now be conceived of as blended elements, as each factor is informed by a combination of the original eight elements of power (see Table 7.1). These are now labelled *stakeholder power attributes* and reflect a more appropriate interpretation of those components which inform the power of a stakeholder, than those originally proposed eight elements of power in the conceptual framework. As was outlined in Chapters 3 and 6, the original eight elements of power were always considered to be interrelated, that they inform one another and cannot be considered as separate elements existing by themselves, based on the literature review and as confirmed by the data collection findings. The EFA as a data reduction method has assisted in finding a more fitting interpretation of those elements by effectively blending the original elements of power. In addition, it was outlined in the previous section that the questionnaire findings did not provide the means to determine or even rank the importance of those elements informing power within the first conceptual framework proposition in Chapter 3, Section 3.5, but by using the EFA, some indication to the importance of elements of the stakeholder power attributes is possible, albeit under changed, blended labels. The extracted factors, that were labelled to incorporate their blended nature, provide a greater scope for not only identifying the attributes which may inform the power of a stakeholder, but to also provide an indication of the importance of those elements for the conceptual framework and hence the power of stakeholders.

It is argued therefore, that the conceptual framework as presented in Chapter 3 now requires a revision based upon the extracted factors, which is discussed in the following Section.

7.4 Revision of the conceptual framework

The revision of the conceptual framework takes into consideration the overall research problem and the research objectives as outlined at the beginning of this Chapter. A revision is necessary, following the EFA, to reflect a more suitable conceptualisation of understanding power and the factors that influence stakeholder engagement within a tourism policy development context in an English seaside resort. However, although this conceptual framework is revised taking into account the results from the EFA, the underlying arguments and original eight elements of power are still applicable to the newly revised conceptual framework. This is based on the extracted factors being blended elements as stakeholder power attributes as discussed previously, therefore presenting a more appropriate interpretation of those components informing the power of stakeholders.

Figure 7.1 below shows the revised conceptual framework where the eight elements of power have been replaced by the extracted factors from the EFA. In this sense, it is argued that the extracted factors now form the new elements of power, by reflecting a more appropriate and fitting account of *stakeholder power attributes* within the research problem context as discussed. There is now more focus upon those aspects that emerged from the factor analysis which were deemed important by respondents in the questionnaire.

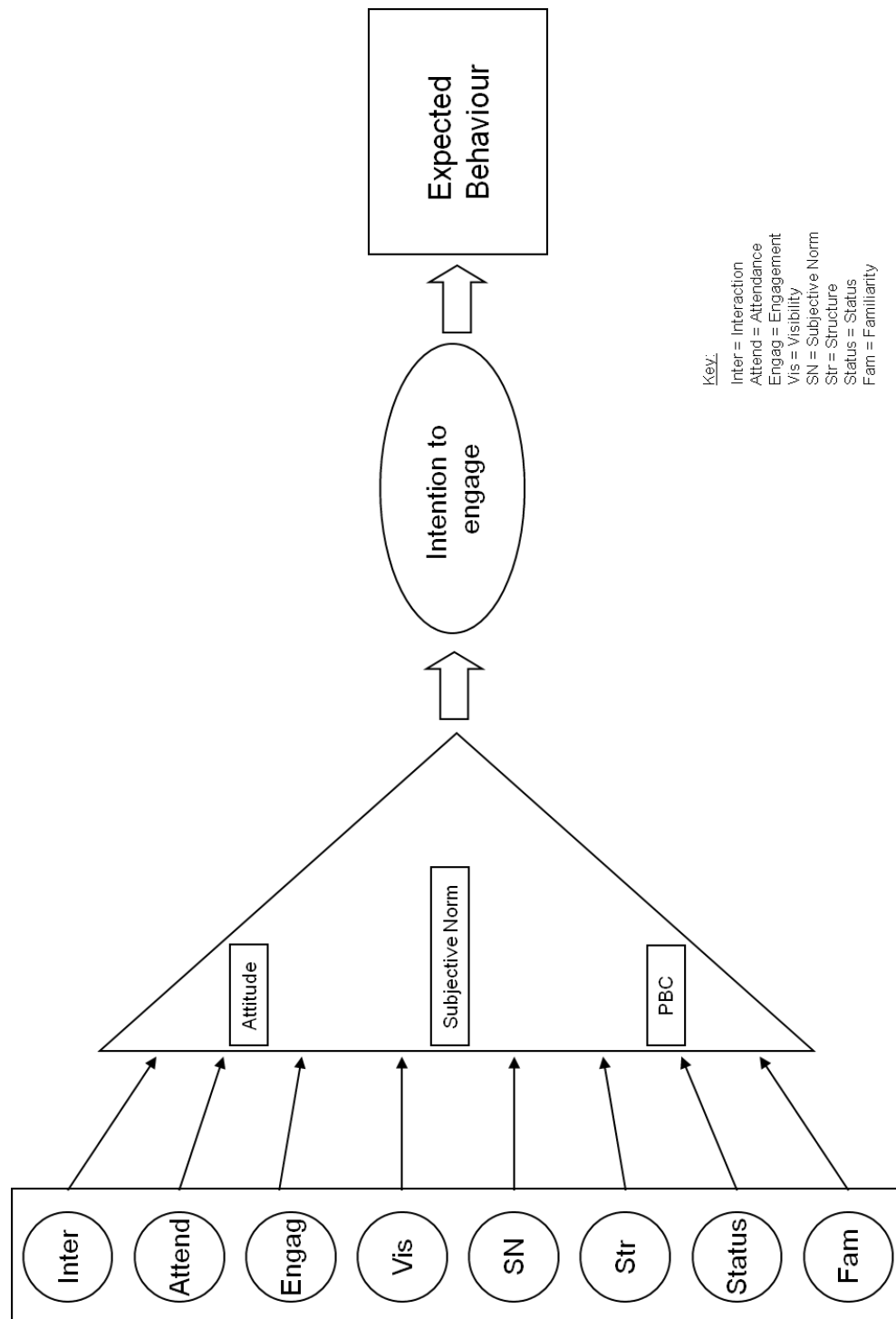


Figure 7.1: Revised conceptual framework

Due to the interrelated nature of the original eight elements of power, taken from different theoretical backgrounds, the conceptual framework developed is one avenue of exploring the understanding of stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development. The newly labelled power factors in the revised framework each consist

of a mixture of the original eight elements, for example, interaction is informed by agency, subjectivity, social relations, stakeholder role sets, and Weber’s associative relationships. What is evident in the extracted factors, is the breadth of argument within them. Taken by themselves, each of the originally proposed elements covers different aspects of power, for example, stakeholder role sets does not only cover subjectivity, but also agency and social relations. So in effect, the extracted factors have blended some of the underlying themes that can influence a framework of power in stakeholder theory by displaying the common themes. Table 7.1 below indicates the blended factors extracted from the EFA (the stakeholder power attributes) and the original elements which inform these.

Extracted Factor (Stakeholder power attributes)	Original elements of power
Interaction	Stakeholder role sets Subjectivity Agency Social relations Associative relationships
Attendance	Associative relationships Stakeholder role sets Structure Visibility Agency
Engagement	Associative relationships Stakeholder salience Structure Agency Stakeholder role sets Subjectivity
Visibility	Agency Social relations Stakeholder role sets
Subjective Norm	Stakeholder role sets Structure Social relations
Structure	Public space
Status	Visibility Stakeholder salience
Familiarity	Public space

Table 7.1: Extracted and original elements of power

The EFA not only provided the scope to find more appropriate interpretations of the blended eight elements of power, but it also gave some insight into the importance of those factors for stakeholders within the Forum in an English seaside resort context. In this sense Table 7.1 could also be seen as a frequency table in that the higher the concept is in the table, the more important this factor is for stakeholders. This is based on the amount of variance that is displayed by each of the extracted factors in the EFA results. It appears then that the first factor Interaction is the most important, followed by Attendance and Engagement, as discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.3.2. Combined those three factors explain 44.838% of variance suggesting that these factors have the most influence on the power of a stakeholder for this research context. Following this, the conceptual framework now reflects a more appropriate interpretation of these power elements which then inform the concepts of the TPB and can provide some insight into their engagement in the Forum itself. The EFA results concur with and support the findings of the questionnaire, although those findings have now been blended to form a more expressive notion of power in the stakeholder power attributes. In this sense, a stakeholder's interaction, attendance, engagement, visibility, how he/she is perceived by others, their surrounding structure, status, and finally their familiarity with the Forum and the tourism industry in Scarborough, can help in identifying why stakeholders engage with tourism policy development in an English seaside context.

In terms of a theoretical evaluation of the conceptual framework and the necessity of the new extracted factors informing the theory of planned behaviour, the focus is on TPB being one vehicle of operationalising power within a stakeholder theory context. Given that stakeholder theory was proposed to identify those stakeholders who have an effect upon tourism policy development initially, TPB was adopted as it focused on the intent to act within an environment (Ajzen, 1991). It was this focus upon the intent to act

which was deemed important for developing a model to consider stakeholder power within a tourism policy development context. Looking back at the power concepts proposed by Arendt (1998) and Foucault (1980b, 1980c), power is always a power potential and springs up between individuals acting within a public space. Power is never owned or possessed by any one stakeholder at any given time, but power is fluid and can change depending on the situation and the stakeholder concerned. Using Foucault's notion of disciplinary power, extended the Arendtian power framework by providing scope to include non-visible engagement in the CF. The eight elements of power therefore address the Arendtian and Foucaultian perspectives of power, creating a more comprehensive perspective of how power can be perceived in the tourism policy development context in Scarborough. It is the focus on the intent to act and resulting expected behaviour which is of importance in understanding stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development. Potentially this can have practical implications for destination management and future organisation of tourism structures as will be discussed in Chapter 8 (Section 8.5.8).

As was discussed in Chapter 4, the conceptual framework uses two different methodological strands for its evaluation and data collection: the questionnaire, EFA and interviews; and stakeholder mapping. The stakeholder maps as sociograms are insightful, as they can provide a visual understanding of the stakeholder networks within a sample (De Nooy et al., 2005, Eadens et al., 2009). In this research the stakeholder maps were used together with the conceptual framework and results from the EFA, to provide an insight into the power of stakeholders. The stakeholder maps as visual tools illustrated stakeholder positions within the Forum as perceived by other Forum members and confirmed that aspects such as visibility, subjectivity and social relations shape the power of a stakeholder. By showing a stakeholder's ties within a

network of relations in connection with a notion of what constitutes power, the scope of a stakeholder's engagement can potentially be deduced based on the number of ties and the degree centrality of stakeholders (see Section 7.4.2).

7.4.1 Evaluation of the revised conceptual framework in the case study setting

This research and the development of the conceptual framework were conducted in Scarborough as the case study setting. Scarborough, like many seaside resorts around the British coast is facing challenges in the organisation of tourism and the changing tourism demands from tourists as discussed in Chapters 2 and 5. Looking back at Law's (1995) open systems model of a destination adopted in this study introduced in Chapter 2 (Section 2.2), this research looked more closely at the destination setting and it was argued that the conceptual framework can address some of the issues of tourism organisation within the destination region. In this sense, the research sought to develop a framework which considers the power of stakeholders and their engagement with tourism policy development. In terms of the Law's model, this is one of the underlying aspects of destination management in that it can provide an indication for why people engage with tourism policy development and what motivates them by looking at the destination as whole including structural as well as agency components.

Scarborough as a destination is typical for a traditional seaside resort and the conceptual framework developed reflects some of the issues seaside resorts are facing as discussed in Chapter 5. These issues broadly cover economic regeneration, concerns over an ageing population and the associated inward and outward migration of residents to and from seaside resorts, seasonal unemployment, and a reliance on a declining tourist trade (Agarwal and Brunt, 2006, House of Commons, 2007, Beatty et al., 2010). The Forum

for Tourism was chosen as the case study population, as the Forum is one of the action groups⁶⁵ under the Town Team and Urban Renaissance umbrella in Scarborough and specifically concerned with tourism. The conceptual framework provides an insight into how action groups are perceived and how actors interact and engage within an action group setting under the wider remit of tourism structures within Scarborough Borough, North Yorkshire, and the national context. Looking at the findings of the EFA and the consequent renaming and blending of elements of power to *stakeholder power attributes*, have emerged as the elements which are deemed most important by stakeholders. Given the high proportion of variance (44.838%) explained by the first three factors Interaction, Attendance and Engagement, these are considered the most important for the Scarborough case study. What has emerged is that although stakeholders act within given structural constraints, the very individual and personal attributes of a stakeholder's level of interaction with others in their surroundings, the actual attendance at meetings, and their engagement at those meetings are the factors which inform an intention to continue to engage with tourism policy development.

Context is of importance for this study and the conceptual framework. For this Scarborough case study, the eight *stakeholder power attributes* extracted in the EFA, show a clear indication that interaction, attendance and engagement in the Forum are deemed most important in determining a stakeholder's power and their intention to engage with tourism policy development. The data collection process using mixed methods has shown that without a case study context, the conceptual framework and the value of the stakeholder maps is not as clear which can be linked to Clark's (1998) premise of 'problematizing' the study by giving a clear problem context in which the

⁶⁵ Action groups refer to the eight groups that were formed under the Urban Renaissance umbrella of which the Town Team is the lead action group (see Section 5.3 for a full outline). These action groups address different aspects of the town covering business, leisure, built environment, and tourism.

framework can be applied. The data collection methods chosen for this study have contributed greatly to a deeper understanding and appreciation of the case study context. This is based on each method addressing a slightly different perspective of the research focus on understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development. The questionnaire was used and designed to gain a first insight into the issues that were of importance to stakeholders in identifying aspects of power may be defined, with the EFA following to confirm the factors that are of prominence. The sequential mixed design helped in building a richer picture of the case study context and how power can be interpreted in the local context. The interviews and stakeholder maps, in building upon the questionnaire and EFA findings, helped in confirming that interaction, attendance and engagement are of primary importance in determining the power of a stakeholder, although scope is given for some non-visible participation due to the nature of the Forum and stakeholder relationships. Overall, the methods chosen helped in providing a comprehensive and encompassing picture and understanding of stakeholder power, how this is influenced by structures (i.e. the disbanding of the RDAs, the creation of the LEPs and issues of funding) as well as aspects of agency (i.e. stakeholder relations, their subjectivity and visibility).

As outlined in Chapter 5, Scarborough as a case study setting is interesting due to the frequent change of structures and the organisation of tourism within the Borough. This is heavily influenced by the national context of the recent disbanding of RDAs in Britain, how this has affected the regional ATPs, and how this will shape the future of the proposed LEPs. With regards to this rapidly changing environment the framework developed can potentially help identify those aspects which are important to stakeholders, i.e. those at the very 'bottom' of the policy making arena including both the public, and more so, the private sector, in actually engaging with tourism policy

development. It has provided an insight into how stakeholders who are actively involved in tourism policy development work together while also taking into account the local environment reflecting the dynamic nature of a seaside resort as outlined in the soft open systems model of a destination (Laws, 1995). With a greater focus upon partnership working and a stronger focus on the private sector being involved in the development and organisation of tourism at all levels across the country in response to calls from the literature (Scott et al., 2008, Stevenson et al., 2008, Penrose, 2011), this research sought to look at the contribution and motivation of stakeholders in engaging with tourism policy development more closely. Fragmentation is a problem in the organisation of tourism and this conceptual framework further sought to address this problem by suggesting elements which make stakeholders powerful and eager to engage (Penrose, 2011).

One key finding of the research is the interrelated nature of structure and agency. In the Scarborough setting this is particularly evident as even though the Forum is an action group which is open to the public to attend, there is a strong perception that the local council remains a powerful agent in that milieu. In this sense, although the Forum is an arena in which individuals, as agents, can express their capacity to act by attending and engaging within those meetings, the findings from the data collection indicate that the Forum and its organisation is nevertheless informed and sometimes constrained by a structured environment (for example, Scarborough Borough Council and Urban Renaissance) (Chapter 6, Section 6.2.4).

7.4.2 Evaluation of the stakeholder maps in the case study setting

In the previous section it was identified that the conceptual framework needs to be considered in a problem context (Clark, 1998) and it is argued that the use of

stakeholder maps, as well as the discussion of the case study context in Chapter 5, can help address this for both local and regional levels. The stakeholder maps presented in Chapter 6, Section 6.5, provide a visual overview of the stakeholders involved within the Forum, their ties with local tourism organisations, as well as their ties with regional organisations based upon whom interviewees communicate with about tourism policy development at a local Scarborough and regional North Yorkshire level. The stakeholder maps are useful as the centre and periphery of the stakeholder network can easily be identified, showing those stakeholders that are senders and those that are receivers (De Nooy et al., 2005). In this sense, the higher the number of ties, the higher an individual's degree centrality. It is argued, that individuals with higher degree centralities are to some extent more powerful than those with lower degree centralities. Again, this stresses the need for context in the interpretation of the stakeholder maps as the results need to be considered in connection with the questionnaire and interview data, as well as the case study setting.

The use of stakeholder maps at different levels and with different foci provides some overview of the various stakeholder role sets of individuals as well as providing an indication of their power. Stakeholder role sets as well as their associative relationships (Foucault, 1980b, 1980c, Swedberg, 2005), can be deduced by considering not only the local level stakeholder map, but more so by looking at the maps indicating the membership of committees of stakeholders. For the Scarborough case study context it appears that stakeholders with higher degree centrality are those that are deemed to be most influential by others as found in the questionnaire and interview data. For example, the interview data showed that the chairman is seen as the hub of activity within the Forum and the linchpin for any communication between Forum members and those organisations or tourism bodies that are involved as discussed in Chapter 6,

Section 6.4.1. The local level stakeholder map confirmed this finding in that Action Group A was the vertex with the most ties, especially considering that respondents had been asked to specifically name those people with whom they communicate about tourism policy development in Scarborough as identified in Section 6.5.1. This should also give some insight into the various tourism related committees (e.g. Urban Space Group, Arts and Culture Forum, Creative Driver Partnership, Urban Renaissance, Local Strategic Partnership) that stakeholders are involved in in addition to the Forum, providing more scope to consider their role sets and their interests. The stakeholder maps are not static and can change over time in which stakeholders may move from being more central and a hub of activity or communication to more peripheral areas of the stakeholder network. A stakeholder map is always only a snapshot in time and changes in the organisation of tourism in the local or regional context (e.g. changes in tourism policy making, local businesses, funding streams, change in government) can have an impact upon the stakeholder network and stakeholder ties.

In addition, the stakeholder maps and the associated degree centrality of stakeholders can give some insight into their level of subjectivity as discussed in Section 6.5. One of the premises of the conceptual framework and the interpretation of power adopted in this study is the subjectivity of individuals in that they are subjected and can subject others within their social environment (Foucault, 1980b, 1980c). When considering the stakeholder maps, the degree centrality and whether these vertices are senders or receivers, this may provide a way of deducing a higher power of stakeholders.

Similarly, this also applies to the regional stakeholder maps where relationships between local stakeholders and regional tourism organisations and tourism bodies are illustrated (Section 6.5.2). It is argued that those people who are highly connected at a

local level and who have a high degree centrality will also be more connected across the local boundary to a regional level. This is confirmed by the research findings through a comparison of the local level and regional level stakeholder maps in the previous Chapter. This is based on the premise that stakeholders with higher degree centrality can be seen as the hubs of the networks, as discussed above, and that these therefore have a greater influence at a wider level stretching to more senior levels. Furthermore, what also emerges from the regional stakeholder map is the identification of different clusters of individuals centred on them being senders or receivers in terms of their connections with others. In the context of the changing tourism environment with the recent disbanding of Yorkshire Forward and the Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership, the stakeholder maps also reflect current issues in terms of the ties stakeholders have across the local boundary.

7.5 Critical evaluation of the revised conceptual framework and the literature

The findings have shown that the conceptual framework as proposed in Chapter 3, Section 3.5 needed revising to reflect more closely the aim of extending stakeholder theory through a conceptualisation of a power based consideration of stakeholders in forming their interests and motivations to engage with tourism policy development – essentially by adopting a stakeholder perspective.

The findings confirm that a critique of the dominant literature in the stakeholder theory arena is valid, especially with reference to the Mitchell et al. (1997) framework of stakeholder saliency in which power in a resource dependency interpretation, is deemed to be one aspect of stakeholder salience. This study has argued that such an interpretation of power is insufficient for this research context in that a greater

contextual understanding of those interests and motivations of stakeholders need to be considered in determining stakeholder power and reasons for engagement. This is based on not viewing power as one aspect of stakeholder salience but to look at stakeholder salience being one attribute of power, essentially turning around Mitchell et al.'s (1997) interpretation. Stakeholder salience as one attribute of power was conceptualised in the CF as one explicit original element of power (Section 3.5). However, following the data collection and after the EFA in the newly extracted factors labelled as stakeholder power attributes, stakeholder salience is not explicitly labelled as one of the eight stakeholder power attributes which contribute to a stakeholder's intention to engage and actual expected engagement in tourism policy development. Stakeholder salience is more implicit and informs two of the stakeholder power attributes as outlined in Table 7.1 (see Section 7.4 above) –engagement and status. Not only was stakeholder salience confirmed as an important aspect in determining stakeholder power in the questionnaire findings as discussed in Chapter 6 (Section 6.2.4) and Section 7.3.1 in this chapter, but also after the EFA and the consequent revision of the CF following the formulation of the stakeholder power attributes as discussed previously in Section 7.4, albeit in a more informative and implicit fashion.

This also applies to the Donaldson and Preston (1995) framework of the normative base of stakeholder theory, as the research findings have indicated that normative aspects such as peer pressure and how stakeholders are perceived by their peers have some influence on their intention to engage and their actual engagement in a tourism action group like the Forum under a broad tourism policy development heading. The normative stakeholder theory dimension of Donaldson and Preston (1995) refers to managers acting as if all stakeholders' interests have intrinsic value by considering the function of the organisation and the underlying philosophical and moral guidelines

influencing managers and the management of the organisation. Such an interpretation of a normative dimension can be equated to that of a managerial perspective of stakeholder theory in which the organisation and the growth and profitability of the organisation is at the centre of managerial thinking and action. For this study and based on the data collection findings from the questionnaire and the revised CF based on the EFA outcomes, a normative aspect of stakeholder theory is still applicable. However, from a stakeholder perspective such normative aspects are articulated in subjective norm and peer perception, informed by such issues as stakeholder role sets, structure, and social relations, as identified in the discussion of the revised CF and the newly labelled stakeholder power attributes in Section 7.4. Therefore the different conceptualisations of normative stakeholder theory are challenging and should not be conflated.

The research findings also support a movement away from a resource dependency conceptualisation of stakeholder theory uses in the literature (Freeman, 1984, Mitchell et al., 1997, Frooman, 1999, Friedman and Mason, 2005, Reynolds et al., 2006) to understanding a greater involvement of not only the structural aspects typically found in resource dependency relations (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978), but also the importance of agency for a more comprehensive perspective of stakeholders in tourism policy development. Moreover, this is confirmed and supported by the data findings as those issues that are deemed most important aspects when considering engaging with tourism policy development are based on those eight stakeholder power attributes, of which interaction, attendance and engagement emerged as the most important based on the amount of cumulatively explained variance, in motivating stakeholders to engage as identified through the EFA. However, this is not to deny the value of the remaining five stakeholder power attributes visibility, subjective norm, structure, status and familiarity,

in determining the power of a stakeholder and their intention to engage with tourism policy development.

Using the work of Escoubès (1999), the research findings can provide some indication of developing his framework further in terms of giving some guidance as to those current, strategic and future stakeholders. Although Escoubès considered his framework in an environmental strategy context as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.7, the broad theme of his framework could be adopted for this research context. Based upon the stakeholder power attributes which emerged from the data after the EFA was conducted, it could be argued that current stakeholders and strategic stakeholders will display some or all of those stakeholder attributes, providing some indication as to why these stakeholders are involved in engaging with tourism policy development within a local context. This could potentially be based on the frequency table of the stakeholder power attributes as suggested in Section 7.4 above, in that the higher the number of stakeholder power attributes are evident in a stakeholder, deductions could be made as to whether these can be classed as current stakeholders or whether these can be classed as strategic stakeholders. Furthermore, based upon those attributes of stakeholders there is scope to consider which attributes are desirable or should be considered for future stakeholders. This is discussed further in Chapter 8 (Section 8.5.8) in the practical contribution to knowledge.

With a focus on the stakeholder literature in tourism, the study findings confirm some of the more recent approaches of the tourism literature with regard to the development and application of stakeholder theory. Particularly, the findings suggest that not only is a greater consideration of structural and agency components necessary when looking at stakeholder power and the stakeholder power attributes that emerged from the EFA, but

that this is also informed by a greater contextual understanding through the use of stakeholder mapping. The findings suggest that the work of Byrd (2007) in monitoring present and future stakeholders, from which parallels can be drawn with the work of Escoubès (1999) as discussed above, are in line with a development of stakeholder theory in taking a more comprehensive approach to identifying those interests and motivations of stakeholders as reflected in the stakeholder power attributes are a relevant conceptual development.

7.6 Summary

This chapter has presented a more contextual discussion and evaluation of the data collection findings from Chapter 6 in connection with the conceptual framework as proposed in Chapter 3. The chapter included a brief review of the development of the conceptual framework based upon those literature sources that informed the construction of the CF, drawing from stakeholder theory, structure and agency, power and the theory of planned behaviour. Particular focus was placed on viewing the CF within the tourism policy and seaside tourism literature and how the CF was developed in response to those calls from the literature in looking more closely at the interests of stakeholders in tourism policy development. The issues facing English seaside resorts, as well as the development of the stakeholder theory literature to approaches which consider a greater understanding of agency as well as structural aspects, inform the CF and the subsequent data analysis.

The CF was evaluated in the context of the research building upon the data collection findings discussed in Chapter 6 which concluded that singularly, each of the eight elements of power as proposed in the CF were confirmed as important elements by the data based upon the questionnaire findings prior to the conduction of the EFA.

However, although all eight elements of power were confirmed as important in informing a stakeholder's power, the EFA results showed a more inclusive perspective of those aspects which can inform the power of a stakeholder, although three factors emerged as the most important aspects (Interaction, Attendance and Engagement). In this sense, the EFA uncovered some issues with the originally proposed power elements in that the newly extracted stakeholder power attributes more closely reflected those issues that are deemed important by stakeholders within the study sample for this Scarborough case study. Although the original eight elements of power still emerge in the extracted stakeholder power attributes, a revision of the CF was required to account for the data findings in conceptualising a more comprehensive understanding of those stakeholder power attributes. In terms of the applicability of the revised CF, the evaluation of the CF in the case study setting in conjunction with an evaluation of the stakeholder maps for the case study, the data confirms that there is scope to include those eight stakeholder power attributes in identifying those motivations to engage with tourism policy development in an English seaside resort context. The stakeholder maps in particular provide some scope to corroborate and confirm that the findings and the revision of the CF are valid.

Finally, a critical evaluation of the revised conceptual framework and the literature was discussed. This section specifically focused on how the revised CF mirrors and confirms current developments within the stakeholder theory literature away from the traditional managerial and resource dependency conceptualisations of stakeholder theory to a more relational and contextual understanding of stakeholders from a stakeholder perspective (Ford, 2005, Pajunen, 2006, Luoma-aho and Paloviita, 2010, Mainardes et al., 2011). In terms of positioning the study within the existing stakeholder theory literature, it is argued that the CF developed in this study can provide some important insights into

those aspects which may be used practically in developing an interest and power based conceptualisation of stakeholder theory in the context of a tourism policy development context in an English seaside resort. The following Chapter will conclude the study and address the limitations of this study, suggestions for further research and most importantly the contribution to knowledge of this study based on these preceding discussions.

Chapter 8

Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the conclusion to this thesis by reviewing and reflecting on limitations and methodological problems of the study, including sample size, access to materials and respondents, changing local and national structures, and the case study context. The chapter includes a reflection on the research process given the inductive as well as deductive nature of the research. The contribution to knowledge as well as suggestions for practical outcomes of the research are outlined, followed by a range of suggestions for further research based on the preceding discussion and problem context. The chapter comes to a close with some concluding remarks.

8.2 Reflection on the conceptual framework

The CF builds upon the stakeholder perspective of stakeholder theory which has also assisted in identifying the interests and stakes of individuals within this particular research setting; the structure and agency dialogue of ensuring that a comprehensive perspective is adopted by considering the structures that one is embedded in as well as agency, interpreted as an individual's capacity to act; power as an enabling construct as opposed to a repressive and prohibitive force; and the theory of planned behaviour in helping understand an individual's intention to perform a behaviour, i.e. their engagement with tourism policy development.

The original CF was based on the eight elements of power derived from the literature review and included stakeholder role sets, associative relationships, structure, subjectivity, social relations, agency, visibility, and stakeholder salience. However, the

data collection process provided a more appropriate interpretation of the factors that inform stakeholder power labelled as *stakeholder power attributes*, emerging from the EFA as a mixture of the original eight elements: interaction, attendance, engagement, visibility, subjective norm, structure, status and familiarity. Given the case study context, the stakeholder power attributes indicate a focus on social interaction and communication as key influences shaping their power as perceived by themselves and other Forum members, in engaging with tourism policy development. The revised CF highlights the importance of local knowledge as well as engaging with other Forum members, though scope for non-visible engagement is also present. The case study has shown that the CF developed is very case specific and needs to be considered in the context of a particular policy environment. Though challenges may be different in other seaside resorts, the CF provides scope to consider stakeholder interaction and engagement with tourism policy development as it does have a very general focus on the behaviour of individuals. It is argued that this framework can therefore be applied to other contexts.

In terms of an extension of stakeholder theory within the CF, this can be attributed to a more comprehensive understanding of the interests and motivations of stakeholders to engage with tourism policy development by moving away from a traditional resource dependency and hub and spoke conceptualisation of stakeholder theory, which often include a focus on the growth and profitability of an organisation (Freeman, 1984, Donaldson and Preston, 1995, Mitchell et al., 1997, Frooman, 1999). By adopting a stakeholder perspective, as opposed to a managerial perspective of stakeholder theory, the interests of stakeholders are taken into account to a greater extent. Building upon the stakeholder perspective and using the power conceptualisation of being functionalist and structuralist, identifying those interests and motivations of stakeholders to engage

with tourism policy development can be achieved within a wider context of the structure and agency dialogue reflected in the soft open systems model of a destination. An important aspect is the focus on power being interpreted not as repressive but enabling, building upon not only the structural influences stakeholders are facing but also those issues related to their own agency.

In adopting multiple theoretical frameworks in the CF, particularly the power interpretation of Arendt and Foucault, the TPB and stakeholder theory, a comprehensive model was devised taking into account endogenous and exogenous influences on tourism policy making. Previous research in each of these areas was limited as they were standalone concepts which addressed different aspects individually without considering the broader implications for policy development and how power can be interpreted to help identify stakeholder relations in seaside resorts and destinations. In this sense, stakeholder theory provided the background for stakeholder identification within the case study area (i.e. the Scarborough Forum for Tourism). Foucault's notion of power informed by local knowledge, subjectivity, structure as well as agency, and Arendt's notion of public space and the concepts of natality and plurality helped to create an enabling and not repressive interpretation of power, when combined with stakeholder theory and stakeholder identification as a network map.

For the first time, enabling power and stakeholder theory was combined to create a background in which the actions of stakeholders could be explored in more detail. Particularly interesting for this research focus was the current uncertain political situation facing the tourism industry and established seaside resorts, in terms of how and why stakeholders engage with tourism policy development. Given the problems and concerns arising from the disbanding of the RDAs and the diminished funding streams

as a consequence, identifying why people engage could potentially help tailor how tourism could be organised in the future, based on stakeholder attributes and their reasons for getting and remaining involved. The TPB provided a behavioural focus in utilising stakeholder theory and the combined power interpretation of Arendt and Foucault, by focusing on the expected behaviour of stakeholders based on their attributes, their attitude toward tourism policy development and engagement in the Forum, the role of subjective norm (i.e. society surrounding stakeholders), as well as their perceived behavioural control over their involvement in tourism policy development in Scarborough.

Overall the CF developed in this study can be seen as an alternative to works on collaboration and cooperation in the tourism literature such as those of Selin and Chavez (1995), Jamal and Getz (1995) and Jamal and Jamrozy (2005), by addressing gaps in how stakeholder power can be interpreted in such local tourism policy environments building on and extending research into relational power of Bramwell and Meyer (2007), by addressing stakeholder power attributes and how social aspects such as interaction, attendance and engagement can shape the power of stakeholders and their intention to engage with tourism policy development in a local seaside resort environment.

8.3 Limitations and methodological problems

As with any research there are also limitations to this study as well as associated methodological issues. Some of these limitations are not, and cannot be, influenced by the researcher but are the result of the progress of this study, especially with reference to some of the practical data collection procedures.

8.3.1 Sample size

One problem for the research and in particular with an effect upon the scope to draw generalisations from the study is the sample size of the questionnaire and the EFA based on questionnaire responses. Although a census approach was adopted for the collection of the questionnaire data by using the main means of communication for the sample population, the response rate was 25% for an online questionnaire after exclusion of some respondents. The small sample size is not atypical for qualitative studies and considering that mixed methods were employed in the research, a 25% response rate was acceptable for a case study setting. Ideally the response rate would have been higher which would have made it easier to generalise from those findings. Other case study examples from in the tourism policy literature support a small sample size for case study research when knowledge or a deeper understanding is sought. Dredge and Jenkins (2003b), for example, used 25 semi-structured interviews with stakeholders in a case study investigating destination place identity and tourism policy in New South Wales, Australia. A small sample size is characteristic for case study research and particularly for qualitative studies as confirmed by studies in similar areas (Krutwaysho, 2003). Krutwaysho (2003) identified in her study of tourism policy implementation in Phuket, Thailand, that triangulation of data collection methods help address issues of data corroboration and in ensuring validity of research findings. In this study the triangulation of data included measures of reliability for each data collection method employed and confirmed the adequacy and validity of the sample size for this case study setting.

Given the use of the EFA as a quantitative data analysis tool and the small sample, it is argued that the adoption of a mixed method approach combats some of the shortcomings of the smaller sample for this research. Appropriate steps were taken in

the data collection stage to address the small response rate by sending out reminders and frequent follow-up emails asking respondents to participate in the questionnaire. For future studies for such a small and similar sized study, a different sampling approach could be adopted to try and generate a greater response rate from a small sample, which would require further research and empirical testing.

The main limitation in terms of the small sample size in this study is linked to the generalisability of findings to other contexts. However, generalisation was not the main aim of this qualitative study but to gain an understanding of stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy making in the context of an English seaside resort. Although the sample is relatively small, triangulation and other examples of case studies in the tourism policy literature clearly confirm that a large sample is not necessarily required to gain a rich understanding of the phenomenon of stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development in a particular location.

8.3.2 Access to materials and respondents

A problem in this research has been the access to relevant literature and sources informing the case study setting discussed in Chapter 5 in particular. Due to the Forum being a local Scarborough based action group which has undergone various changes in terms of its structure since its inception, literature confirming the role of the Forum is very rare and difficult to obtain. This especially refers to literature available on the organisational structure of the Forum and its current position within the broader tourism policy making environment in Scarborough, particularly after the disbanding of the RDAs and the abolishment of the MCTP. There are some sources which make a direct link to the Forum within some strategic documents and some Scarborough Borough Council reports, and there are agendas of the Forum meetings which are available due to

the researcher being included on the Forum email list. However, the majority of the information on the Forum and its remit within a Scarborough tourism setting has been gathered through personal conversations of the researcher at meetings, as well as through email and telephone contact with the chairman of the Forum.

In addition, a further complication has been access to up to date tourism statistics for the case study such as demographic visitor information, visitor numbers, room occupancy rates, tourist spending, and information on day visits and staying visitors, for example. The majority of the tourism statistics for Scarborough date back to 2004/2005 with many of the Scarborough Borough Council publications citing those statistics in their more recent publications (Scarborough Borough Council, 2009), essentially providing a distorted picture of the current state of the tourism industry in Scarborough. Partly this can be attributed to the emergence of the Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership in 2005 and the more recent development of the local economic partnership structure in 2010/2011, stipulating that any statistics would refer to the partnership area as a whole, as opposed to breaking down these statistics by region, borough, or resort. Even direct email communication with Welcome to Yorkshire (2011) did not bring any further success in gaining access to up-to-date tourism statistics for Scarborough. After having signed a compliance agreement, the communication from Welcome to Yorkshire was minimal and consisted of two pieces of information for an underspecified geographical area – i.e. Scarborough district.

8.3.3 Changing structures – nationally and local

Over the course of this research there have been some changes in the tourism structures in Britain affecting not only national, but also regional and local tourism organisations. At the outset of the research there were clear roles for the RDA, Yorkshire Forward, in

providing funding for the Urban Renaissance programme in Scarborough, which also had some influence upon the Scarborough Borough Tourism Strategy 2005-2010. Furthermore, the local tourism structure changed in that the area tourism partnership (ATP), the Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership, was established while the research for this thesis was being conducted. Finally, and most importantly for this research, the announcement of the government in 2010 to disband the RDAs across Britain had the most impact upon the research process. Given time constraints and the course of the research, the questionnaire data was collected while the RDA structures were still intact and the ATP was operating. Some questions relating to the structure of the tourism industry in Scarborough focused on those aspects within the questionnaire. However, once the data from the questionnaire had been analysed and the EFA conducted, which led to the identification of interview questions, the structures had changed. In particular, Urban Renaissance and the Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership changed focus and, as for the latter, ceased to exist. This caused some issues with data collection, as although the focus remained on stakeholder engagement with tourism policy development, some of the elements influencing stakeholder behaviour and opinions had changed. Nevertheless, the changing structures have been incorporated into the research and regarded in the analysis in line with a qualitative approach.

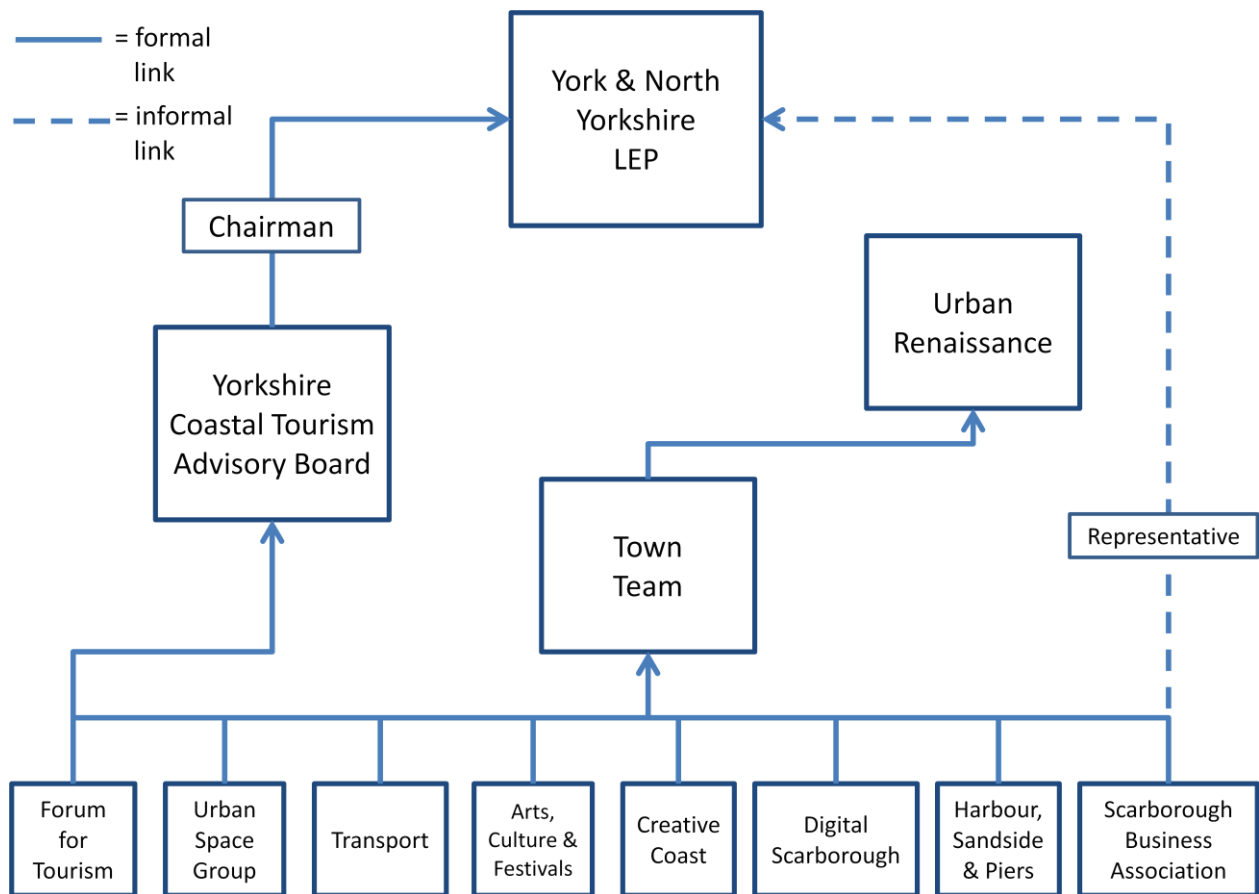


Figure 8.1: Current Scarborough tourism structure

Figure 8.1 provides an overview of the current tourism structures that are operational in Scarborough, based on the data and findings from this study, particularly through the information gained in the questionnaire and interviews. It clearly indicates the role of the Forum, as an action group among a range of others under the Town Team, as well as being linked directly with the Yorkshire Coastal Tourism Advisory Board, which in turn is linked directly to the newly formed York and North Yorkshire LEP. Urban Renaissance is no longer funded by Yorkshire Forward and its role is currently quite unclear, although it remains in place as part of the Town Team. The implication for stakeholders and members of the Forum for Tourism is that although they no longer have a direct link with the regional North Yorkshire regional development agency, Yorkshire Forward, the Forum remains influential with a direct link through the Yorkshire Coastal Tourism Advisory Board. In this sense, although structures have

changed, the Forum and its members still have wider reaching influence and can make their voice heard at a local as well as regional level.

8.3.4 Case study context

This study has adopted a very narrow case study context in which the research problem has been explored and the conceptual framework developed. With regard to the sample population, the Forum was chosen for ease of access to the sample and the researcher's longstanding relationship with the chairman of the Forum. Having been involved in the Forum for a number of years, members of the Forum were familiar with the researcher and a rapport with members had already been established. However, although Scarborough is not atypical for an English seaside resort, a comparative study with a seaside resort boasting similar structures would have been desirable (discussed in Section 8.6). It is acknowledged that given the small sample, a different sample population within Scarborough, such as the comparison with another action group under the Town Team for example, may have extended the response rate and may have been more suitable for drawing generalisations from this research. However, the research focus was specifically on understanding stakeholder power and engagement with tourism policy development, for which a comparison with other action groups under the Town Team would have not included a strong tourism policy focus. The Forum for Tourism as the sample population is the only action group which focuses specifically on tourism within Scarborough.

8.4 Reflection on the research process

This reflective section will look more closely at how the research was conducted and how different actions have informed and changed the research process as a whole, including insights from the literature and the data collection process.

Initially this study was based upon an inductive research approach developed by focusing on the notion to gain a deeper understanding of stakeholder power and engagement in a tourism policy context in an English seaside context. However, in connection with the mixed method approach to this research and triangulation of data collection methods, the conceptual framework was developed with some deductive aspects, such as building on the elements of the conceptual framework based upon literature sources and theory from a range of different philosophical backgrounds.

The inductive/deductive research cycle is applicable to this thesis as each aspect informs the next step in the development of the research (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Utilising a sequential mixed design has led to adopting emerging themes from the research and literature review to explore as further issues to consider. This is particularly evident for the attendance and engagement matrix developed in Chapter 6, Section 6.4.1. During the development of the conceptual framework and the questionnaire as a data collection tool, some consideration had been given to attendance and engagement along with other factors influencing the power of stakeholders within tourism policy development. However, no particular linkage was made between the two concepts until the questionnaire analysis showed that there may be a relationship between the attendance and engagement of individuals at meetings. The creation of the attendance and engagement matrix (see Figure 6.8) then formed part of the basis of the construction of the stakeholder interviews conducted with Forum members, in that four different groupings were identified leading to a development of four different sets of questions.

Once interviewees had been identified using snowball sampling, with the chairman of the Forum acting as the starting point, the self-categorisation of stakeholders actually led to the insight that only two of the original four groups proposed, were being chosen by interviewees. This has had an impact upon how power can be viewed in this research problem, in that although there is a theoretical notion that there are four groups, the self-categorisation proved that the practical perception of the same problem is very different. Following the inductive/deductive research cycle, this insight from a simple self-categorisation has had a large impact upon the outcome of the research in that a proposed theoretical hypothesis was not supported by the primary data collection.

Looking back at the research process as a whole, it seems that the changing tourism structures as discussed previously have been fundamental to the intention to engage formed by individuals. The study has shown that stakeholders are influenced by structural as well as agency elements and that an intention to engage with tourism policy development is multifaceted. Interestingly, the changing structures surfaced most in the data collection process where part of the data collection was conducted while the Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership was still active, and the other part of the data collection was conducted after the ATP had been dissolved. This led to some different responses in the questionnaire and the telephone interviews.

Reflecting on the research process then from a methodological perspective, it is felt that the methodology and the data collection methods chosen were effective and appropriate for the research problem. However, it is acknowledged that an adoption of different data collection methods may have led to different insights into the research problem. For example, adopting an interpretative approach using focus groups and face-to-face unstructured interviews may have resulted in a richer picture of the case study per se.

Even the use of personal face-to-face semi-structured or structured interviews could have resulted in more detailed accounts due to the reduced anonymity of the respondents, but considering time constraints and funding issues for conducting such interviews, these were not undertaken in this study, although this could be developed in further research into this area as will be discussed in Section 8.7. It was felt that respondents would be more willing to divulge information such as their ties with other members, in a questionnaire and telephone interview setting, although no sensitive questions were asked in the questionnaire or the interviews that may have prevented respondents sharing information. Time constraints and keeping costs low were a further deciding factor in using both an online questionnaire and telephone interviews.

8.5 Contribution to knowledge

The contribution to knowledge has two main foci: that of advancing theoretical contributions, and suggesting practical outcomes of this study. In terms of a theoretical perspective contributions are made in stakeholder theory and power, with contextual, conceptual and methodological contributions made in advancing the use of stakeholder theory in tourism, the development of tourism policy in seaside resorts, contextualising the theory of planned behaviour in tourism research, considering structure and agency in a seaside tourism context, as well as providing some contribution towards the development of mixed-method research approaches in the tourism literature. In addition to the theoretical contributions to knowledge, some practical outcomes and contributions of the study are suggested. These will be discussed in the following sections.

8.5.1 Stakeholder Theory

The review of the stakeholder theory literature has shown that there is an issue with the development of stakeholder theory in recent literature as well as empirical testing. Although stakeholder theory has been used extensively in the literature drawing on a variety of contexts such as corporate governance, marketing, business ethics, strategic management, and corporate social responsibility to name a few, the theory still remains underdeveloped (Mainardes et al., 2011). From the literature it appears that there seems to be a tendency for academics and researchers to build upon those previous attempts of developing Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory conceptualisations, especially Mitchell et al. (1997), Donaldson and Preston (1995), and Rowley (1997) which were conducted and developed in the 1990s. Since then the development of stakeholder theory beyond those conceptualisations has been slow and limited (Lepineux, 2005, Mainardes et al., 2011).

The main contribution to knowledge is in the extension of stakeholder theory in incorporating the power of stakeholders by utilising structure and agency approaches and the theory of planned behaviour. In this sense the research builds upon Freeman's (1984) original dyadic model of stakeholders but this research has sought to contextualise stakeholder theory models to incorporate a more comprehensive perspective of the stakeholder networks present and how these can be visualised. This especially refers to extending stakeholder theory beyond that of a resource dependency (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978) focus to include the action of stakeholders to a greater extent by focussing on their interests and motivations to engage in a particular situation, which in this research is their engagement in tourism policy development. Building upon Sautter and Leisen (1999) the study advances the understanding of stakeholder models in tourism research in particular. There is a movement away from dyadic

considerations of stakeholder networks with one central hub such as those suggested by Rowley (1997) and Sautter and Leisen (1999), to looking at those networks from a power perspective and in identifying those stakeholders that are perceived to be important by others within the network.

Where this study contributes is in the area of considering stakeholder theory from a stakeholder perspective, as opposed to a managerial perspective which is inherent in many of the popular frameworks such as Mitchell et al. (1997) and Donaldson and Preston's (1995) model of concentric circles. The Mitchell et al. (1997) framework of stakeholder salience is of some importance for this study as it has been adapted to incorporate a greater focus on relationships and viewing stakeholder theory from a stakeholder and not a managerial perspective as discussed previously in Section 7.5.1. This study has shown that from a stakeholder perspective, stakeholder salience is not determined by power being one attribute, but that stakeholder salience can be interpreted as one aspect or attribute of power. It is this recognition of including a functionalist and structuralist perspective of power in utilising those aspects which inform a stakeholder's intention to engage in tourism policy development to a greater extent. Using the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) has provided some scope to consider this development or extension of the Mitchell et al. (1997) framework from a stakeholder perspective.

A further contribution to developing stakeholder theory is made by viewing the conceptual framework developed as an alternative to the Donaldson and Preston (1995) model of concentric circles which assumes that the core of stakeholder theory is normative, in that managers act as if all stakeholders have intrinsic value. However, due to the focus on a managerial perspective as in the Mitchell et al. (1997) framework,

looking at corporate objectives such as growth and profitability of the organisation, this is limited in the tourism policy context of an English seaside resort. Given the premise on understanding stakeholder power and engagement in tourism policy development at a local level, it is argued that the conceptual framework developed also considers stakeholder theory from a normative perspective. However, the normative perspective in this study does not concur with the normative dimension adopted by Donaldson and Preston (1995). Normative in this conceptual framework refers to the underlying beliefs and norms people have and which can emerge through peer pressure (i.e. through subjectivity). In this sense, stakeholder theory has been advanced in exploring a greater stakeholder perspective, taking into account those reasons and motivations to act by stakeholders which in effect does provide a greater scope to consider a bottom-up decision making process.

Furthermore, the focus in particular was on using the theory of planned behaviour as a measure to address the intent of stakeholders to engage in tourism policy development. It was the focus on the intent of stakeholders which made the theory of planned behaviour applicable, as the TPB considers behaviour from an attitudinal, normative and control perspective (Ajzen, 1991). Linking this framework back to the power concepts of Foucault (1980b, 1980c) and Arendt (1998), including Arendt's notion that power is always a potential and occurs when individuals come together and act in concert, and the scope of using Foucault, for some form of disciplinary and non-visible power to account for the shortcomings of the Arendtian framework, the TPB was adopted as all aspects can be accounted for in understanding the engagement of stakeholders in tourism policy development.

Adding to the work of Lepineux (2005), this study also contributes by suggesting ways of how stakeholders can be defined and identified. Lepineux (2005) suggests that stakeholder theory requires a greater recognition of social cohesion and society as stakeholders in its conceptualisation, which suggests that a greater consideration of agents is required. This study adds to this development by suggesting that the interests and motivations of stakeholders need to be taken into account when looking at stakeholder theory from a stakeholder perspective, addressing further the requirement of considering actors but to view these within a structural environment. Essentially society consists not only of actors but also of structural constraints which should be considered.

8.5.2 Power

A further contribution to knowledge is in the area of how the concept of power can be perceived in stakeholder theory. This especially refers to power being enabling and not necessarily constraining for individuals. Building upon a functionalist and structuralist position, power is interpreted as being dialectical in that both a structure and agency perspective is covered by not giving primacy of one approach over the other. Traditional functionalist approaches such as proposed by Dahl (1957) where power is perceived as the 'power over' with negative authoritative connotations, are then informed by structuralist notions such as those proposed by Parsons (1968), where power is a structural property present in society rather than in individuals.

Instrumental in the development of the concept of power are the works of Foucault (1980b, 1980c) and Arendt (1998) for this research. One contribution to knowledge is a more contextual understanding of power bringing together the thoughts of Foucault and Arendt, who have different philosophical bases, though it is argued that these can be combined to form a more comprehensive understanding of power. In this sense,

Foucault considers the longevity of social structures as well as relationships between individuals, with Arendt providing an insight into the role of the individual to a greater extent by using the concepts of natality and plurality, with actors acting within a public space.

8.5.3 Advancing the use of stakeholder theory in English seaside tourism

As briefly introduced in Section 8.5.1, this study has advanced stakeholder theory in a tourism research setting, especially in the area of English seaside tourism. Moving from the original dyadic setting based on resource dependency, this study has advanced the applicability of an extended stakeholder theory to an English seaside resort context to look more closely at stakeholder relations and their intents and motivations to engage with tourism policy development. Stakeholder theory has not been applied or used in an English seaside tourism context, instead many of the stakeholder theory uses in the classical managerial sense have been centred around collaboration, cooperation and sustainable tourism as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.8 (Byrd, 2007, Timur and Getz, 2008, 2009, Beritelli, 2011). Within the tourism literature much stakeholder theory use has been centred on developing destinations and an associated sustainable development of those destinations, without much consideration given to established resorts and destinations and how stakeholder theory could be used in such a context.

This thesis contributes to knowledge by looking at stakeholder theory in the context of the English seaside tourism literature by advancing the research on involving greater public/private working and recognition of the interests and motivations of individual actors within a typical SME environment in seaside resorts (Shaw and Williams, 1997b, Baum, 1998, Penrose, 2011). Specific reference is made to the specialist nature of English seaside resorts being established and their development rooted in history

(Middleton, 2001, Urry, 2002). The historic development of seaside resorts in England and the specific challenges they are facing, such as unemployment, seasonality, access and infrastructure, make them a valuable research setting for investigating the interests and motivations of stakeholders within the resort in tourism policy development (Gale, 2005, Agarwal and Brunt, 2006, Beatty et al., 2010). Unlike in developing destinations such a stakeholder perspective and an idea of those stakeholder relations that exist in an established resort, can provide some insight into how stakeholder power is construed and effectively how stakeholder theory can be used in such a dynamic context.

8.5.4 Tourism policy in seaside resorts

Selin and Beason (1991) and Stevenson et al. (2008) called for more approaches in looking at the tourism policy literature to a greater extent by giving consideration to those public and private sector relationships. This research has focused in particular on the bases of tourism policy development in a seaside resort context by looking at the involvement of individuals and the identification of stakeholders in such a context. It has considered the role of individuals' intents to engage in tourism policy development and how this can inform future consultations and possible structure of policy regimes, for example to help identify why people get involved and who to involve. It can help in identifying potential conflicts of interests between stakeholders and those involved in tourism policy development, addressing issues of fragmentation and collaboration in seaside resorts (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999, Jamal et al., 2002, Jamal and Jamrozy, 2005). From a policy perspective and in response to the recognition of a lack of joined-up working and joined-up thinking by the government (Penrose, 2011), this study contributes in potentially providing some practical guidance for managers and policy makers at the local or regional level, as to how such improved working and thinking

could be achieved by considering stakeholders and their interests and motivations to engage in tourism policy development, which is discussed further in Section 8.5.8.

With a focus on the changing national and local structures in how tourism is being managed and marketed, this research can provide an overview of those issues that may be regarded as important and as constants within the dynamic and changing environment. So although tourism policy development and the responsibility for tourism policy and strategies may change from organisation to organisation depending on national, regional or local changes, there is scope to look at those issues which may inform a better or more suitable organisation of those structures using this conceptual framework.

8.5.5 Contextualising the theory of planned behaviour in tourism research

This research makes further contributions to knowledge in using the theory of planned behaviour in connection within an English seaside context. Although the TPB has been used in tourism research (for example: Sparks, 2007) the TPB has, to the best of my knowledge, not yet been applied to an English seaside context. This research addresses this literature gap by using the TPB to help further an understanding of stakeholder engagement in tourism policy development in an English seaside resort.

8.5.6 Structure and agency in seaside tourism

Looking at tourism destinations and in particular English seaside resorts, the study also considers a greater focus upon the structural and agency elements which are evident in a destination setting. Therefore it can be said that this research further develops the soft open systems model of a destination as developed by Laws (1995). This especially

refers to making specific reference to both structural as well as agency elements which inform the destination region. It is argued that a greater understanding of those issues can help in defining those elements which have an influence on the destination as a whole, whether this refers to planning issues or the tourist generating regions.

As with the TPB, this research also contributes to knowledge by utilising a structure and agency focus in an English seaside context which has not yet been conducted in the literature.

8.5.7 Mixed method research

From a methodological perspective this study contributes to the emerging mixed method research in the tourism literature. Much tourism literature is based on quantitative and qualitative approaches with only a minority adopting mixed methods (Ballantyne et al., 2009). In this sense this study adds to the mixed method literature concerned by using both qualitative and quantitative methods in line with a functionalist and structuralist position. Specifically this includes the use of a questionnaire and exploratory factor analysis, telephone interviews and stakeholder mapping, combining elements of qualitative and quantitative research methods utilising the inductive/deductive research cycle, under a broad qualitative study heading.

In summary then, it can be said that this study contributes to knowledge at different levels but that essentially it seeks to make theoretical contributions to the following:

- adopting a stakeholder theory approach to investigating the power of stakeholders within a tourism research context
- developing a framework of what may or may not contribute to the power of individuals under a structure and agency approach

- utilising TPB as an appropriate vehicle to explore further the engagement of stakeholders in tourism policy development through consideration of the normative, control, and attitudinal features of stakeholders

8.5.8 Practical outcomes and generalisability

In terms of practical outcomes of this research, there is scope within the framework for researchers or managers to identify stakeholders that are important in a particular environment or organisation setting. Furthermore it can assist managers in identifying the factors that are deemed important by employees or stakeholders for the development of a project for example, taking into account people's intentions to engage in a particular behaviour or social environment. Moreover there is scope for managing change within structured environments as the framework allows the researcher to gain an insight into not only an individual's reasons for engaging, but to view this behaviour or intent to perform a behaviour within the structures determined by society and other 'given' structures, such as government structures, hierarchies within organisations, as well as those structures that are not readily changeable.

As such this study offers a framework for policy managers to address practical measures for the identification and potential management of stakeholders within a policy environment as outlined above. Interesting for this study and for the development of practical outcomes of the research, is the work of Escoubès (1999) as introduced in Chapter 2, Section 2.7 in combination with the conceptual framework developed. The use of Escoubès' (1999) idea of looking at stakeholders in the long term and their longevity within a particular situation, here a policy decision making or planning

environment, is applicable⁶⁶. In this sense, Escoubès (1999) considers three types of stakeholders which should be taken into account for reaching comprehensive decisions for policy making: (1) current stakeholders, which can be classed as those stakeholders who are considered important for a particular issue at a particular point in time, i.e. at the present time; (2) strategic stakeholders, which are classed as those stakeholders who are important at the present time and who remain important throughout, i.e. the government; and (3) future stakeholders, which are those stakeholders who are not currently important but their attributes/interest/knowledge classify these as potentially important for the future.

In essence this can have practical implications in providing managers with a framework to identify those current and strategic stakeholders and consequently also provide them with some indication as to those future stakeholders, based on those attributes of the current and strategic stakeholders. Looking at the framework developed and the methodology employed in this study, it is argued that the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and specifically those findings from the EFA have provided those elements which are deemed important for the identification of stakeholders for managers. The EFA results show the elements which inform the power of a stakeholder and consequently give some insight into the attributes that make a stakeholder important for the policy or business environment. Policy managers should therefore build upon those elements identified from the EFA by testing the validity and applicability of those elements with a questionnaire, which should also include those questions to help construct a visual stakeholder map guided by the questionnaire and telephone interview questions as discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.4. The responses from stakeholders and

⁶⁶ The work of Escoubès (1999) has been adapted from its original environmental strategy context in identifying environmental performance indicators to a policy making environment context for the purpose of this study.

the stakeholder map can provide managers with some indication of those stakeholders who are current or strategic stakeholders while also providing managers with some insight into those attributes that emerge in seeking future stakeholders. The conceptual framework developed here provides some scope for helping address more managerial confidence in selecting those stakeholders that are of importance or relevance to the area concerned, whether this is in an organisational, policy or tourism context.

Although the framework adopted in this research has a very narrow focus upon the Forum for Tourism in Scarborough, it is argued that the framework and the methodology can be applied to other similar regions. In essence, the questions and the data collection focused on people's behaviour and their motivations to act within an environment, which could be replicated in other contexts. So although the data collection was conducted in a small tourism focused environment facing particular problems, the core of the framework remains conceptual and it is anticipated that these elements of power as identified are transferable and applicable in other similar contexts. Practically this could, for example, include consultants who would transfer and apply the methodology to other regions of interests.

8.6 Suggestions for further research

Considering some of the issues in terms of the limitations of this study as discussed in Section 8.3, these can be addressed through further research in those areas. This study proposes further research in identifying the applicability of the conceptual framework to other seaside resort contexts with a comparative study providing more rigour and scope for generalisability of the framework. Further research should seek to conduct a comparative study in a similar sized seaside resort facing very similar challenges and changes as Scarborough, or in a similar sized resort facing dissimilar challenges to

Scarborough to compare whether the conceptual framework can also be adopted under different circumstances.

Further research could be conducted for a possible application of the conceptual framework to an organisational context, for example in determining voting behaviour of stakeholders or individuals, or in determining relationships between small and medium sized enterprises in a location or belonging to different industry sectors. This is not restricted to a tourism context. However, in a tourism context the framework could be applied in other areas of tourism management such as destination planning in new and mature destinations, for example.

Further research needs to be conducted into the value of enhancing the framework by using social network analysis and looking more closely at the measures of density and centrality of networks (Wasserman and Faust, 1994, De Nooy et al., 2005) and how this may shape people's perception of power within such a context. Although social network analysis per se was not conducted in this research, some measures used in social network analysis were adopted for the stakeholder mapping activity. This seemed an area of research which would complement the framework appropriately. On a similar note, the value of policy networks (Marsh and Smith, 2001) in this context should be explored to a greater extent, as well as considering the value of the policy cycle concept in the literature (Everett, 2003). The focus here could be placed on looking at the different policy cycle steps and determining how the power of individuals can change over time and over different steps.

A further aspect which could be explored is the concept of habit in the context of the theory of planned behaviour and in how habit could be a determining factor in shaping

the power of stakeholders. Using and developing the models of Ajzen (1991) for the TPB, and the model of Triandis (1977) for the concept of habit, would be interesting in contextualising the role of habitual behaviour in tourism policy development. Some consideration could be given to linking the concept of visibility of individuals and whether this has an influence on the power of an individual, if their behaviour is considered as habitual.

It would also be interesting to look at adopting a longitudinal study over a period of five years for example, to see how structures and people's perceptions of power may change over the course of that period and vice versa and what impacts this has on the seaside resort. This could be achieved by developing the framework of Escoubès (1999) in looking at dynamic stakeholder relations by considering not only those current stakeholders but also those that may become future stakeholders as proposed in Section 8.5.8.

8.7 Conclusions

It was the aim of this research to develop a framework to help understand stakeholder power and their engagement with tourism policy development in an English seaside context. Given the changing tourism structures across Britain and the challenges as a result to regional and local tourism organisations in terms of future funding and operation, understanding reasons for stakeholders' engagement is essential.

Drawing on various theoretical bases and pulling together constructs from differing philosophical backgrounds has resulted in a framework which hopefully has gone some way in developing this area of study. The aim of the research was to identify some of the more underlying issues stakeholders are facing in tourism policy development,

especially with regards to the changing nature of the organisation of tourism structures across the country. As although attempts are made at regional and local levels to create the best possible structures in which tourism bodies and organisations can operate, the examples of the failed Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership and the disbanding of RDAs across Britain, show that there is a need for a greater understanding of the reasons and motivations of stakeholders to get involved. Ultimately an understanding of those reasons and motivations of stakeholders to engage, may even provide a basis for developing structures which are more suited to those individuals and organisations that are at the heart of the tourism industry – particularly those SMEs at the very local level.

Appendix I

The HUBS RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE CONSENT FORM: QUESTIONNAIRES

I, _____ of _____

Hereby agree to participate in this study to be undertaken

By **Victoria Goossens**

and I understand that the purpose of the research is to identify the power of stakeholders and what may or may not motivate them in participating in tourism policy development in a seaside environment.

I understand that

1. Upon receipt, my questionnaire will be coded and my name and address kept separately from it.
2. Any information that I provide will not be made public in any form that could reveal my identity to an outside party i.e. that I will remain fully anonymous.
3. Aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals.
4. Individual results **will not** be released to any person except at my request and on my authorisation.
5. That I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

The contact details of the researcher are:

Victoria Goossens, University of Hull Scarborough Campus, Scarborough Management Centre, Filey Road, Scarborough, YO11 3AZ, 01723 362392, victoria.goossens@hull.ac.uk

The contact details of the secretary to the HUBS Research Ethics Committee are Karen Walton, The Research & Senior Academic Support Office, Hull University Business School, University of Hull, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX. Email: k.a.walton@hull.ac.uk tel. 01482-463646.

NOTE:

In the event of a minor's consent, or person under legal liability, please complete the Research Ethics Committee's "Form of Consent on Behalf of a Minor or Dependent Person".

Appendix II

Questionnaire

1) How important are the following when deciding to attend a Forum for Tourism meeting? (1 = very important, 7 = very unimportant)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't know
1	Agenda								
1a	People								
1b	Networking								
1c	Socialising								

2) Why do you attend Forum for Tourism meetings? (Please state.)

.....

3) How did you learn about the Forum for Tourism?

- Newspaper
- Word of mouth
- Internet
- Radio
- Other, please specify

4) Are you a member of any other action group(s) under the Town Team?

Please tick all that apply.

- Urban Space Group
- Arts, Culture and Festivals
- Active Transport
- Creative Coast
- Harbour, Sandside and Piers
- Scarborough Business Association
- Digital Scarborough Group
- Town Team
- Urban Renaissance

Other, please specify

5) Are you a member of any tourism or industry related groups?

Please tick all that apply.

- Moors and Coast Area Tourism Partnership
- Yorkshire Forward
- Scarborough Hospitality Association
- Other, please specify

6) What are your main interests in attending the meetings?

Please tick all that apply.

- Business opportunities
- Decision making
- Personal interest
- Networking
- Other, please specify

7) Do you have any business relationships with other members of the Forum?

- Yes
- No

8) (*Routing Question – Business relations = Yes*)

Who do you have a business relationship with? (*Please state.*)

.....

9) To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

(1 = strongly agree, 7 = strongly disagree)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't know
9	It is expected of me to show an interest in the Forum.								
9a	I am more inclined to work with people I know.								
9b	People don't always need to attend to make a difference.								
9c	I accept a person's opinion because of their status.								
9d	I go to the meetings because I feel that I have to.								

9e	Attending the Forum meetings increases my business profile.								
9f	Do you feel that Forum members are working towards similar business goals?								
9g	Do you feel engaging with other Forum members produces results for your business?								
9h	Attending the Forum shows my commitment to tourism in Scarborough.								
9i	The agenda items determine whether I attend a meeting or not.								
9j	Regular attendance is a must.								

10) How important is it that you know the people who attend the Forum?

(1 = very important, 7 = very unimportant)

- 1 2 3 4 5 6
7 Don't know

11) To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

(1 = strongly agree, 7 = strongly disagree)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't know
11	Do you think it is helpful in reaching an agreement if you know your fellow Forum members?								
11a	Do you feel you have similar interests in attending the Forum?								
11b	Do you feel you are working towards the same goals within the Forum?								
11c	Do you feel engaging with them produces results?								

12) Have you worked with any of the Forum members previously?

- Yes No

13) (Routing Question: previously worked = yes)

What is your relationship with these people?

- Business partner Manager Family
 Friend Other, please specify

14) How important do you think local knowledge is for tourism development in Scarborough? (1 = very important, 7 = very unimportant)

- 1 2 3 4 5 6
 7 Don't know

15) Who do you think is responsible for tourism development in Scarborough?

Please state.

.....

16) Please indicate how you feel about the following statements:

(1 = strongly agree, 7 = strongly disagree)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't know
16	I feel at ease at engaging with others in the Forum.								
16a	My education plays an important role in my interest in tourism.								
16b	Being involved in other action groups is important for raising one's profile.								
16c	The Forum for Tourism should not only consider Scarborough but the whole Borough of Scarborough.								
16d	I intend to attend all meetings this year.								
16e	Having worked with Forum members previously helps in making decisions.								

17) How long have you been involved in tourism in Scarborough?

- Less than 12 months 1-3 years 4-6 years
 7-10 years 10 years or more

18) How often do you attend the meetings of the Forum for Tourism?

- Monthly 2-4 times per year 5-8 times per year
 more than 8 times per year

19) Please indicate how you feel about the following statements:

(1 = strongly agree, 7 = strongly disagree)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't know
19	I actively engage in the Forum for Tourism.								

19a	I feel comfortable in working with newcomers to the Forum.								
19b	I express my viewpoints openly in meetings.								
19c	I openly consider other's viewpoints.								
19d	After attending a meeting, I sometimes reflect upon the actions and approaches taken which will ultimately change my opinion of a particular topic.								

20) In general, do you know the majority of people attending the Forum for Tourism?

- Yes No

21) How valued do you feel your contribution is to the Forum?

(1 = very valued, 7 = very unvalued)

- 1 2 3 4 5 6
7 Don't know

22) Do you think everyone's contributions are valued equally?

- Yes No

23) (Routing question: valued equally = no)

Why do you think they are not valued equally? (Please state.)

.....

24) Do you feel that different viewpoints enrich a working relationship?

- Yes No

25) Do you benefit from an involvement in the Forum for Tourism?

- Yes No

26) (Routing question: benefit from involvement = yes)

In which way do you benefit? (Please state.)

.....

27) Who are the prominent individuals in the Forum? (Please state.)

.....

28) What do you feel makes them prominent? (*Please state.*)

.....

29) What is your gender?

- Male Female

30) What is your age?

- Under 20 21-30 31-40 41-50
 51-60 61-70 Over 71

31) What is your marital status?

- Single Married Divorced
 Living with partner Widowed

32) Do you have any children?

- Yes No

33) (*Routing question: children = yes*)

How many children do you have?

- 1 2 3 4 or more

34) What is your job title? (*Please state.*)

.....

35) What is your employment status?

- Employed Self-employed Unemployed
 Retired

36) (*Routing question: employment status = self-employed*)

How many people do you employ (if any)?

- 1-4 5-10 11-20 20 or more

37) Who do you work for? What is your organisation? *(Please state.)*

.....

38) What is your educational background? *Please tick all that apply.*

- GCSEs
- Degree
- Higher Degree
- NVQs
- No qualifications
- Other, please specify

39) How long have you lived in Scarborough?

- Less than 12 months
- 1-4 years
- 4-8 years
- 8-10 years
- 10 years or more

40) What is your postcode? *(Please state.)*

.....

Appendix III

Telephone Interview Schedule

Group 1 – Engagement and attendance at Forum meetings

1. Do you communicate with anyone in the Forum for Tourism about tourism policy development in Scarborough?
2. Do you communicate with anyone at a North Yorkshire regional level?
3. Why do you attend?
4. Are you a member of any other committees?
5. Which committees are the most important do you think?
6. How long have you been involved in the Forum?
7. How long have you been involved in other committees?
8. Why do you engage?
9. What are your expectations?
10. How do you benefit?
11. Does it help with networking?
12. Does it help with business?
13. How often do you attend?
14. Do you think that engaging helps improve your profile?
15. Do you think that because you attend, people expect you to attend?
16. Is engaging with Forum members important to you?
17. What do you hope to gain by attending?
18. Are you more likely to pay attention to people who attend regularly?
19. Do you think that people who don't attend are also influential?
20. Do you think that people who don't engage are also influential?
21. Who do you think is the most important person in the Forum for Tourism and why?

Group 2 – Engagement and non-attendance at Forum meetings

1. Do you communicate with anyone in the Forum for Tourism about tourism policy development in Scarborough?
2. Do you communicate with anyone at a North Yorkshire regional level?
3. Why don't you attend meetings?

4. Are you a member of any other committees?
5. Which committees are the most important do you think?
6. How long have you been involved in the Forum?
7. How long have you been involved in other committees?
8. How do you engage?
9. Does the agenda influence your engagement?
10. Do you feel that your contributions are considered although you don't attend?
11. Is engaging with Forum members important to you?
12. What would encourage you to attend a Forum meeting?
13. Do you think that people who don't attend are also influential?
14. Do you think that people who don't engage are also influential?
15. Who do you think is the most important person in the Forum for Tourism and why?

Group 3 – Non-engagement and attendance at meetings

1. Do you communicate with anyone in the Forum for Tourism about tourism policy development in Scarborough?
2. Do you communicate with anyone at a North Yorkshire regional level?
3. Why do you attend?
4. Are you a member of any other committees?
5. Which committees are the most important do you think?
6. How long have you been involved in the Forum?
7. How long have you been involved in other committees?
8. Why don't you engage?
9. Does the agenda influence your attendance?
10. What do you hope to gain by attending?
11. Do you think that because you attend, people expect you to attend?
12. Is engaging with Forum members important to you?
13. Are you more likely to pay attention to people who attend regularly?
14. How often do you attend?
15. Do you think that people who don't attend are also influential?
16. Do you think that people who don't engage are also influential?
17. How do you benefit?
18. Does it help with networking?

19. Does it help with business?
20. Who do you think is the most important person in the Forum for Tourism and why?

Group 4 – Non-engagement and non-attendance at Forum meetings

1. Do you communicate with anyone in the Forum for Tourism about tourism policy development in Scarborough?
2. Do you communicate with anyone at a North Yorkshire regional level?
3. Why don't you attend meetings?
4. Are you a member of any other committees?
5. Which committees are the most important do you think?
6. How long have you been involved in the Forum?
7. How long have you been involved in other committees?
8. Why don't you engage?
9. Why are you included in the Forum mailing list?
10. Do you network with any Forum members?
11. Is engaging with Forum members important to you?
12. What would encourage you to attend a Forum meeting?
13. Do you think that people who don't attend are also influential?
14. Do you think that people who don't engage are also influential?
15. Who do you think is the most important person in the Forum for Tourism and why?

Appendix IV

Questionnaire Respondent Profiles⁶⁷

Respondent Number	Gender	Age Group	Occupation/ Employment status	Years lived in Scarborough	Years involved in tourism in Scarborough
1	Female	21-30	Marketing Assistant, Employed	Lives in Leeds	1-3 years
2	Female	41-50	Tourism Manager, Employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
3	Male	51-60	N/A, Self-employed	4-8 years	7-10 years
4	Male	41-50	N/A, Employed	N/A	10 years or more
5	Male	Over 71	Member of Management Committee, Retired	Lives in Middlesbrough	4-6 years
6	Male	41-50	N/A	10 years or more	10 years or more
7	Male	51-60	Holiday Cottage owner/ Farmer, Self-employed	10 years or more	4-6 years
8	Male	51-60	Hotel Proprietor, Self-employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
9	Female	51-60	Joint Owner of Hotel, Employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
10	Female	31-40	N/A, Employed	1-4 years	1-3 years
11	Male	61-70	Managing Director, Employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
12	Male	21-30	Events Manager, Employed	10 years or more	4-6 years
13	Male	51-60	Lecturer, Employed	10 years or more	7-10 years
14	Male	61-70	Chairman & Chief Executive, Employed	Lives in Hull	10 years or more
15	Male	41-50	Market Research Executive, Employed	10 years or more	7-10 years
16	Female	51-60	Lecturer & Head of Department, Employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
17	Male	41-50	General Manager & Licensee, Employed	Less than 12 months	10 years or more

⁶⁷ Information verbatim based on interviewees' responses

18	Female	41-50	Operations & Finance Manager, Employed	10 years or more	4-6 years
19	Female	41-50	Secretary/Treasurer SHA, Employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
20	Male	51-60	Chief cook & bottle washer, Self-employed	4-8 years	7-10 years
21	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
22	Male	Over 71	Managing Director, Employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
23	Male	51-60	Director, Self-employed	8-10 years	7-10 years
24	Female	61-70	Hotel Proprietor, Self-employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
25	Female	41-50	Marketing Manager, Employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
26	Female	41-50	Hotel Manager, Employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
27	Male	51-60	Business Advisor, Employed	10 years or more	1-3 years
28	Female	41-50	Hotelier, Self-employed	4-8 years	1-3 years
29	Male	31-40	None, Self-employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
30	Male	51-60	Head of Tourism and Culture Services, Employed	1-4 years	1-3 years
31	Male	61-70	Commercial Manager, Employed	Lives in Beverley	10 years or more
32	Male	61-70	Owner, Self-employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
33	Male	41-50	Guest House Proprietor, Self-employed	4-8 years	4-6 years
34	Male	31-40	Guest House Partner, Self-employed	4-8 years	4-6 years
35	Male	61-70	Director, Employed	Less than 12 months	1-3 years
36	Male	31-40	Head of Blackpool Cluster, Employed	4-8 years	7-10 years
37	Female	31-40	Hotelier, Self-employed	4-8 years	7-10 years

Appendix V

Telephone Interview Respondent Profiles

a) Full telephone interview respondents

Group 1 – Engagement and attendance at Forum meetings

Respondent Number	Gender	Age Group	Occupation/ Organisation	Years lived in Scarborough	Years involved in tourism in Scarborough
1	Male	61-70	Hotelier, Self-employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
2	Female	41-50	Hotelier, Employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
3	Male	31-40	Hotelier, Self-employed	4-8 years	4-6 years
4	Male	41-50	Market Research Executive, Employed	10 years or more	7-10 years
5	Female	31-40	Hotelier, Self-employed	4-8 years	7-10 years

Group 2 – Engagement and non-attendance at Forum meetings

Respondent Number	Gender	Age Group	Occupation/ Organisation	Years lived in Scarborough	Years involved in tourism in Scarborough
6	Male	41-50	Hotelier	10 years or more	10 years or more
7	Male	N/A	Managing Director	10 years or more	10 years of more
8	Female	41-50	Operations and Finance Manager	10 years or more	4-6 years

b) Stakeholder mapping telephone interview respondents

Respondent Number	Gender	Age Group	Occupation/ Organisation	Years lived in Scarborough	Years involved in tourism in Scarborough
9	Female	41-50	Marketing Manager, Employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
10	Female	61-70	Hotelier, Self-employed	10 years or more	10 years or more
11	Female	21-30	Marketing Assistant, Employed	Lives in Leeds	1-3 years
12	Female	41-50	Hotelier, Self-employed	4-8 years	1-3 years
13	Female	N/A	Councillor	10 years or more	10 years or more

References

- AAS, C., LADKIN, A. & FLETCHER, J. (2005), Stakeholder Collaboration and Heritage Management, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32 (1), 28-48.
- AGARWAL, S. (1997), The public sector: planning for renewal? IN SHAW, G. & WILLIAMS, A. (Eds.) *The Rise and Fall of British Coastal Resorts*. London: Pinter Publications.
- AGARWAL, S. (1999), Restructuring and local economic development: implications for seaside resort regeneration in Southwest Britain, *Tourism Management*, 20 (4), 511-522.
- AGARWAL, S. (2002), Restructuring Seaside Tourism - The Resort Lifecycle, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29 (1), 25-55.
- AGARWAL, S. & BRUNT, P. (2006), Social exclusion and English seaside resorts, *Tourism Management*, 27 (4), 654-670.
- AGARWAL, S. & SHAW, G. (Eds.) (2007), *Managing Coastal Tourism Resorts: A Global Perspective* Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- AJZEN, I. (1991), The Theory of Planned Behaviour, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50 (2), 179-211.
- AJZEN, I. (2002), Perceived Behavioral Control, Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control, and the Theory of Planned Behaviour, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 32 (4), 665-683.
- AJZEN, I. & FISHBEIN, M. (1980), *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- ALIGICA, P. D. (2006), Institutional and Stakeholder Mapping: Frameworks for Policy Analysis and Institutional Change, *Public Organization Review*, 6 (1), 79-90.

- ALLEN, A. (2003), Power, Subjectivity, and Agency: Between Arendt and Foucault, *International Journal of Philosophical Studies*, 10 (2), 131-149.
- ALONSO, A. D. & NORTHCOTE, J. (2010), The development of olive tourism in Western Australia: a case study of an emerging tourism industry, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 12 (6), 696-708.
- ALONSO, A. D. & O'NEILL, M. A. (2009), Wine tourism in Spain: The case of three wine regions, *Tourism*, 57 (4), 405-420.
- ANASTASIADOU, C. (2008), Stakeholder Perspectives on the European Union Tourism Policy Framework and their Preferences on the Type of Involvement, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10 (3), 221-235.
- ARENDT, H. (1970), *On Violence*, London: Penguin Press.
- ARENDT, H. (1998), *The Human Condition*, (second edition), Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- ARNABOLDI, M. & SPILLER, N. (2011), Actor-network theory and stakeholder collaboration: The case of Cultural Districts, *Tourism Management*, 32 (3), 641-654.
- ASHENDEN, S. (2005), Structuralism and Post-structuralism. IN HARRINGTON, A. (Ed.) *Modern Social Theory: An Introduction*. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press.
- ATELJEVIC, I., PRITCHARD, A. & MORGAN, N. (2007), *The Critical Turn in Tourism Studies: Innovative research methodologies*, Oxford: Elsevier.
- AUDIT COMMISSION (2009) *Regeneration Inspection Report: Scarborough Borough Council (June 2009)* [online], available: <http://www.audit-commission.gov.uk/SiteCollectionDocuments/InspectionOutput/InspectionReports/2009/scarboroughbcregeneration11jun2009REP.pdf> (accessed: July 2011), Audit Commission

- AUGUSTYN, M. M. & KNOWLES, T. (2000), Performance of tourism partnerships: a focus on York, *Tourism Management*, 21 (4), 341-351.
- BAGGIO, R. (2007) What network analysis can reveal about tourism destinations, Conference What network analysis can reveal about tourism destinations: *Complex Networks: from Biology to Information Technology*, Pula (CA), Italy, 2-6 July 2007, http://www.iby.it/turismo/papers/baggio_poster.pdf
- BALLANTYNE, R., PACKER, J. & AXELSEN, M. (2009), Trends in Tourism Research, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36 (1), 149-152.
- BAMBERG, S., AJZEN, I. & SCHMIDT, P. (2003), Choice of Travel Mode in the Theory of Planned Behaviour: The Roles of Past Behaviour, Habit and Reasoned Action, *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 2003 (3), 175-187.
- BANDURA, A. (1977), Self-efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioural Change, *Psychological Review*, 84 (2), 191-215.
- BANDURA, A. (1991), Social Cognitive Theory of Self-Regulation, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50 (2), 248-287.
- BATES, S. R. (2006), Making Time for Change: On Temporal Conceptualizations within (Critical Realist) Approaches to the Relationship between Structure and Agency, *Sociology*, 40 (1), 143-161.
- BAUM, T. (1998), Taking the Exit Route: Extending the Tourism Area Life Cycle Model, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1 (2), 167-175.
- BEATTY, C. & FOTHERGILL, S. (2003) *The Seaside Economy*, Centre for Regional and Social Research, Sheffield Hallam University
- BEATTY, C., FOTHERGILL, S., GORE, T. & WILSON, I. (2010) *The Seaside Tourist Industry in England and Wales: Employment, economic output, location and trends*, Sheffield: Centre for Regional Economic and Social Research, Sheffield Hallam University

- BENK, S., CAKMAK, A. F. & BUDAK, T. (2011), An Investigation of Tax Compliance Intention: A Theory of Planned Behaviour Approach, *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, 28, 180-188.
- BENZ, A. & FÜRST, D. (2002), Policy Learning in Regional Networks, *European Urban and Regional Studies*, 9 (1), 21-35.
- BERITELLI, P. (2011), Cooperation Among Prominent Actors in a Tourist Destination, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38 (2), 607-629.
- BERITELLI, P. & LAESSER, C. (2011), Power dimensions and influence reputation in tourist destination: Empirical evidence from a network of actors and stakeholders, *Tourism Management*, 32 (6), 1299-1309.
- BERRY, F. S., BROWER, R. S., CHOI, S. O., GOA, W. X., JANG, H., KWON, M. & WORD, J. (2004), Three Traditions of Network Research: What the Public Management Research Agenda can Learn from Other Research Communities, *Public Administration Review*, 64 (5), 539-552.
- BLACKPOOL COUNCIL (2006) *A Strategy for Blackpool's Visitor Economy 2006/2010* [online], available:
http://www.blackpoolgrand.co.uk/media/3421_Blackpool%20Visitor%20Economy%20Strategy%20to%202010.pdf (accessed: August 2011), Blackpool Council
- BLUNCH, N. J. (2008), *Introduction to Structural Equation Modelling using SPSS and AMOS*, London: Sage Publications.
- BOMBERG, E. (1998), Issue networks and the environment: explaining European Union environmental policy. IN MARSH, D. (Ed.) *Comparing Policy Networks*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- BORNHORST, T., RITCHIE, J. R. B. & SHEEHAN, L. (2010), Determinants of tourism success for DMOs and destinations: An empirical examination of stakeholders' perspectives, *Tourism Management*, 31, 572-589.

- BÖRZEL, T. A. (1998), Organizing Babylon - On the Different Conceptions of Policy Networks, *Public Administration*, 76, 253-273.
- BOTTERILL, D., HAVEN, C. & GALE, T. (2002), A survey of doctoral theses accepted by universities in the UK and Ireland for studies related to tourism, 1990-1999, *Tourist Studies*, 2 (3), 283-311.
- BOURDIEU, P. & WACQUANT, L. J. D. (1992), *An Invitation to Reflexive Sociology*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- BOURNE, L. & WALKER, D. H. T. (2005), Visualising and mapping stakeholder influence, *Management Decision*, 43 (5), 649-660.
- BOZEMAN, B. & KINGSLEY, G. (1998), Risk culture in public and private organizations, *Public Administration Review*, 58 (2), 109-119.
- BRAMWELL, B. (2006), Actors, Power, and Discourses of Growth Limits, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33 (4), 957-978.
- BRAMWELL, B. & LANE, B. (2011), Critical research on the governance of tourism and sustainability, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19 (4-5), 411-421.
- BRAMWELL, B. & MEYER, D. (2007), Power and Tourism Policy Relations in Transitions, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34 (3), 766-788.
- BRAMWELL, B. & SHARMAN, A. (1999), Collaboration in local tourism policymaking, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26 (2), 392-415.
- BROWN, B. J. H. (1985), Personal Perception and Community Speculation: A British Resort in the 19th Century, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 12, 355-369.
- BUCHHOLZ, R. A. & ROSENTHAL, S. B. (2005), Toward a Contemporary Conceptual Framework for Stakeholder Theory, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 58, 137-148.

- BUTLER, R. W. (1980), The Concept of a Tourist Area Cycle of Evolution: Implications for Management of Resources, *Canadian Geographer*, 14 (1), 5-12.
- BYRD, E. T. (2007), Stakeholders in Sustainable Tourism Development and their Roles: Applying Stakeholder Theory to Sustainable Tourism Development, *Tourism Review*, 62 (2), 6-13.
- BYRD, E. T., BOSLEY, E. H. & DRONBERGER, M. G. (2009), Comparisons of stakeholder perceptions of tourism impacts in rural eastern North Carolina, *Tourism Management*, 30 (5), 693-703.
- BYRNE, B. M. (2010), *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming*, New York: Routledge.
- CARLSNAES, W. (1992), The Agency-Structure Problem in Foreign Policy Analysis, *International Studies Quarterly*, 36 (3), 245-270.
- CARROLL, A. B. & BUCHHOLTZ, A. K. (2006), *Business and Society: Ethics and Stakeholder Management*, (sixth edition), Mason, OH: Thomson South Western.
- CHEN, C.-F. & TSAI, D. (2007), How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioural intentions? *Tourism Management*, 28 (4), 1115-1122.
- CHEONG, S. & MILLER, M. L. (2000), Power and Tourism - A Foucauldian Observation, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27 (2), 371-390.
- CHILD, D. (1991), *The Essentials of Factor Analysis*, (second edition), London: Cassell.
- CHOO, H. & JAMAL, T. (2009), Tourism on organic farms in South Korea: a new form of ecotourism? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17 (4), 431-454.
- CHURCH, A., BALL, R., BULL, C. & TYLER, D. (2000), Public policy engagement with British tourism: the national, local and the European Union, *Tourism Geographies*, 2 (3), 312-336.

- CLARK, R. W. (1998), Agents and Structures: Two Views of Preferences, Two Views of Institutions, *International Studies Quarterly*, 42 (2), 245-270.
- CLARKSON, M. B. E. (1998), Introduction. IN CLARKSON, M. B. E. (Ed.) *The Corporation and Its Stakeholders: Classic and Contemporary Readings*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- COLEBATCH, H. K. (2005), Policy analysis, policy practice and political science, *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 64 (3), 14-23.
- COLWELL, C. (1994), The Retreat of the Subject in the Late Foucault, *Philosophy Today*, 38 (1), 56-69.
- COMMUNITIES AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT (2010) Strategy for seaside success: Securing the future of seaside economies. Communities and Local Government.
- CONNER, M. & ARMITAGE, C. J. (1998), Extending the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A Review and Avenues for Further Research, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28 (15), 1429-1464.
- COOK, A. J., MOORE, K. & STEEL, G. D. (2005), Taking a Position: A Reinterpretation of the Theory of Planned Behaviour, *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 35 (2), 143-154.
- COOPER, C. (1990), Resorts in decline - the management response, *Tourism Management*, 11 (1), 63-67.
- COOPER, C. (1992), The Lifecycle Concept and Strategic Planning for Coastal Resorts, *Built Environment*, 18 (1), 57-66.
- COOPER, C. (1997), Parameters and indicators of the decline of the British seaside resort. IN SHAW, G. & WILLIAMS, A. (Eds.) *The Rise and Fall of British Coastal Resorts*. London: Pinter.
- COOPER, C. (1998), *Tourism: Principles and Practice*, (second edition), Harlow: Longman.

- COOPER, C. (2005), *Tourism: Principles and Practice*, (third edition), Harlow: FT Prentice Hall.
- COOPER, D. R. & SCHINDLER, P. S. (2001), *Business Research Methods*, (seventh edition), New York: McGraw-Hill.
- COSGROVE, D. & DOMOSH, M. (1993), Author and Authority: Writing a new cultural geography. IN DUNCAN, J. & LEY, D. (Eds.) *Place/Culture/Representation*. New York: Routledge.
- COSTELLO, A. B. & OSBORNE, J. W. (2005) Best Practices in Exploratory Factor Analysis: Four Recommendations for Getting the Most From Your Analysis, *Practical Assessment, Research and Evaluation*, 10 (7), available online: <http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?v=10&n=7>
- CURRAN, J. & BLACKBURN, R. A. (2001), *Researching the Small Enterprise*, London: Sage.
- CURRIE, R. R., SEATON, S. & WESLEY, F. (2009), Determining Stakeholders for Feasibility Analysis, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36 (1), 41-63.
- D'ANGELLA, F. & GO, F. M. (2009), Tale of two cities' collaborative tourism marketing: Towards a theory of destination stakeholder assessment, *Tourism Management*, 30 (3), 429-440.
- DAENGBUPPHA, J., HEMMINGTON, N. & WILKES, K. (2006), Using grounded theory to model visitor experiences at heritage sites: Methodological and practical issues, *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 9 (4), 367-388.
- DAHL, R. A. (1957), The Concept of Power, *Behavioral Science*, 2 (3), 201-215.
- DANN, G. & COHEN, E. (1991), Sociology and Tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18 (1), 155-169.

- DAVIDSON, R. & MAITLAND, R. (1997), *Tourism Destinations*, London: Hodder and Stoughton.
- DAVIES, B. (2003), The role of quantitative and qualitative research in industrial studies of tourism, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 5 (2), 97-111.
- DAVIS, J. B. (2001), Commentary: tourism research and social theory - expanding the focus, *Tourism Geographies*, 3 (2), 125-134.
- DE ARAUJO, L. M. & BRAMWELL, B. (1999), Stakeholder Assessment and Collaborative Tourism Planning: The Case of Brazil's Costa Dourada Project, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 7 (3&4), 356-378.
- DE NOOY, W., MRVAR, A. & BATAGELJ, V. (2005), *Exploratory Social Network Analysis with Pajek*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- DECOSTER, J. (1998) *Overview of Factor Analysis* [online], available: <http://www.stat-help.com/notes.html> (accessed: http://www.stat-help.com/notes.html)
- DECROP, A. (1999), Triangulation in qualitative tourism research, *Tourism Management*, 20 (1), 157-161.
- DEMETRIADI, J. (1997), The golden years: English seaside resorts 1950-1974. IN SHAW, G. & WILLIAMS, A. (Eds.) *The Rise and Fall of British Coastal Resorts*. London: Mansell.
- DEPARTMENT FOR CULTURE MEDIA AND SPORT (2011) *What we do - Tourism* [online], available: http://www.culture.gov.uk/what_we_do/tourism/default.aspx (accessed: July 2011), Department for Culture, Media and Sport
- DÉPELTEAU, F. (2008), Relational Thinking: A Critique of Co-Deterministic Theories of Structure and Agency, *Sociological Theory*, 26 (1), 51-73.
- DESSLER, D. (1989), What's at stake in the agent-structure debate? *International Organization*, 43 (3), 441-473.

- DOLNICAR, S., LAESSER, C. & MATUS, K. (2009), Online Versus Paper: Format Effects in Tourism Surveys, *Journal of Travel Research*, 47 (3), 295-316.
- DONALDSON, T. & PRESTON, L. E. (1995), The Stakeholder Theory of the Corporation: Concepts, Evidence, and Implications, *Academy of Management Review*, 20 (1), 65-91.
- DOORNE, S. (1998), Power, Participation and Perception: An Insider's Perspective on the Politics of the Wellington Waterfront Redevelopment, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1 (2), 129-166.
- DREDGE, D. (1999), Destination Place Planning and Design, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26 (4), 772-791.
- DREDGE, D. (2006a), Networks, Conflict and Collaborative Communities, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 14 (6), 562-581.
- DREDGE, D. (2006b), Policy networks and the local organisation of tourism, *Tourism Management*, 27 (2), 269-280.
- DREDGE, D. & JENKINS, J. (2003a), Federal-State Relations and Tourism Public Policy, New South Wales, Australia, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6 (5), 415-443.
- DREDGE, D. & JENKINS, J. M. (2003b), Destination place identity and regional tourism policy, *Tourism Geographies*, 5 (4), 383-407.
- DREYFUS, H. L. & RABINOW, P. (1983), *Michel Foucault: Beyond Structuralism and Hermeneutics*, (second edition), Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- EADENS, L., JACOBSON, S., STEIN, T., CONFER, J., GAPE, L. & SWEETING, M. (2009), Stakeholder Mapping for Recreation Planning of a Bahamian National Park, *Society and Natural Resources*, 22 (2), 111-127.
- EAST RIDING OF YORKSHIRE COUNCIL (2004) *Bridlington Tourism Study* [online], available: <http://www.bridlingtonregeneration.com/Ease/servlet/ShowFile?siteID=1744&fi>

[leID=4558&name05%20Tourism%20Study.pdf](#) (accessed: August 2011), East Riding of Yorkshire Council

EISENHARDT, K. M. (1989), Building Theories from Case Study Research, *Academy of Management Review*, 14 (4), 532-550.

ELIAS, A. A., JACKSON, L. S. & CAVANA, R. Y. (2004), Changing positions and interests of stakeholders in environmental conflict: A New Zealand transport infrastructure case, *Asia Pacific Viewpoint*, 45 (1), 87-104.

ELLIOTT, J. (1997), *Tourism - Politics and Public Sector Management*, London: Routledge.

ENGLAND'S RDAS (2010a) *Delivering for Communities* [online], available: [http://www.englandsrdas.com/admin/uploads/attachment/RDAs_Delivering_for_Communities - RDAs%20Delivering%20for%20Communities%20\(Jan%2021\).pdf](http://www.englandsrdas.com/admin/uploads/attachment/RDAs_Delivering_for_Communities_-_RDAs%20Delivering%20for%20Communities%20(Jan%2021).pdf) (accessed: July 2011), England's Regional Development Agencies

ENGLAND'S RDAS (2010b) *Q&As on the future of RDAs* [online], available: <http://www.englandsrdas.com/news/qas-on-the-future-of-rdas> (accessed: July 2011), England's Regional Development Agencies

ENGLAND'S RDAS (2011) *Who we are* [online], available: <http://www.englandsrdas.com/who-we-are/chairs-and-chief-executives> (accessed: July 2011), England's Regional Development Agencies

ENGLISH TOURISM COUNCIL (2001), *Sea Changes - Creating world-class resorts in England*, London: English Tourism Council.

ESCOUBÈS, F. (1999), A Framework for Managing Environmental Strategy, *Business Strategy Review*, 10 (2), 61-66.

EUROPEAN DISTRIBUTED INSTITUTE OF TAXONOMY (2009) *Report on social network analysis and bibliometrics to map actors in taxonomy* [online], available: <http://www.e->

taxonomy.eu/files/C4.2.6_report_on%20social_network_analysis_and_bibliometrics_300709%E2%80%A6.pdf (accessed: EDIT

- EVERETT, S. (2003), The Policy Cycle: Democratic Process or Rational Paradigm Revisited? *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 62 (2), 65-70.
- FALLON, F. (2001), Conflict, Power and Tourism on Lombok, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 4 (6), 481-502.
- FEKADU, Z. & KRAFT, P. (2002), Expanding the Theory of Planned Behaviour: The Role of Social Norms and Group Identification, *Journal of Health Psychology*, 7 (1), 33-43.
- FIELD, A. (2009), *Discovering Statistics using SPSS*, (third edition), London: Sage Publications.
- FINN, M., ELLIOTT-WHITE, M. & WALTON, M. (2000), *Tourism and Leisure Research Methods*, Harlow: Longman.
- FISCHER, F., MILLER, G. & SIDNEY, M. S. (2007), *Handbook of Public Policy Analysis*, Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press.
- FLEETWOOD, S. (2005), Ontology in Organization and Management Studies: A Critical Realist Perspective, *Organization*, 12 (2), 197-222.
- FORD, R. (2005), Stakeholder leadership: organizational change and power, *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 26 (8), 616-638.
- FORD, R. C., PEEPER, W. C. & GRESOCK, A. (2009), Friends to Grow and Foes to Know: Using a Stakeholder Matrix to Identify Management Strategies for Convention and Visitors Bureaus, *Journal of Convention and Event Tourism*, 10 (3), 166-184.
- FOSTER, D. M. & MURPHY, P. (1991), Resort Cycle Revisited: The Retirement Connection, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18, 553-567.

- FOUCAULT, M. (1980a), *The History of Sexuality. Volume I: An Introduction*, New York: Vintage/Random House.
- FOUCAULT, M. (1980b), Power and Strategies. IN GORDON, C. (Ed.) *Power/Knowledge: Selected Interviews and Other Writings*. Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- FOUCAULT, M. (1980c), *Power/Knowledge: Selected Interviews and Other Writings 1972-1977*, Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- FOUCAULT, M. (1980d), Truth and Power. IN GORDON, C. (Ed.) *Power/Knowledge*. Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- FOX, D., EDWARDS, J. & WILKES, K. (2010), Employing the Grand Tour Approach to Aid Understanding of Garden Visiting. IN RICHARDS, G. & MUNSTERS, W. (Eds.) *Cultural Tourism Research Methods*. Wallingford, Oxon: CABI Publishing.
- FRAMKE, W. (2002), The Destination as a Concept: A Discussion of the Business-related Perspective versus the Sociocultural Approach in Tourism Theory, *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 2 (2), 92-108.
- FRANCIS, J. J., ECCLES, M. P., JOHNSTON, M., WALKER, A., GRIMSHAW, J., FOY, R., KANER, E. F. S., SMITH, L. & BONETTI, D. (2004a) *Constructing Questionnaires Based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A Manual for Health Service Researchers* [online], available: <http://www.gvo.unimaas.nl/Onderwijs/Francis2004.pdf> (accessed: 9th July 2011), Centre for Health Services Research, University of Newcastle
- FRANCIS, J. J., JOHNSTON, M., ECCLES, M. P., GRIMSHAW, J. & KANER, E. F. S. (2004b) *Appendix C: Discussion Paper - Measurement Issues in the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A supplement to the manual for questionnaires based on the TPB* [online], available: (accessed: 9th July 2011), Centre for Health Services Research, University of Newcastle

- FREEMAN, R. E. (1984), *Strategic Management - A Stakeholder Approach*, Boston: Pitman.
- FREEMAN, R. E. (1998), A Stakeholder Theory of the Modern Corporation. IN CLARKSON, M. B. E. (Ed.) *The Corporation and Its Stakeholders: Classic and Contemporary Readings*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- FREEMAN, R. E., HARRISON, J. S., WICKS, A. C., PARMAR, B. L. & DE COLLE, S. (2010), *Stakeholder Theory: The State of the Art*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- FREEMAN, R. E., WICKS, A. C. & PARMAR, B. (2004), Stakeholder Theory and "The Corporate Objective Revisited", *Organization Science*, 15 (3), 364-369.
- FRIEDMAN, M. T. & MASON, D. S. (2005), Stakeholder Management and the Public Subsidization of Nashville's Coliseum, *Journal of Urban Affairs*, 27 (1), 93-118.
- FROOMAN, R. (1999), Stakeholder Influence Strategies, *Academy of Management Review*, 24 (2), 191-205.
- FUCHS, S. (2001), Beyond Agency, *Sociological Theory*, 19 (1), 24-40.
- GALE, T. (2005), Modernism, Post-Modernism and the Decline of British Seaside Resorts as Long Holiday Destinations: A Case Study of Rhyl, North Wales, *Tourism Geographies*, 7 (1), 86-112.
- GALE, T. & BOTTERILL, D. (2005), A realist agenda for tourist studies, or why destination areas really rise and fall in popularity, *Tourist Studies*, 5 (2), 151-174.
- GAMBLE, A. (1995), The New Political Economy, *Political Studies*, XLIII, 516-530.
- GAVETTI, G. & LEVINTHAL, D. A. (2004), The Strategy Field from the Perspective of *Management Science*: Divergent Strands and Possible Integration, *Management Science*, 50 (10), 1309-1318.

- GETZ, D. (1992), Tourism Planning and Destination Life Cycle, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19, 752-770.
- GIDDENS, A. (1984), *The Constitution of Society*, Cambridge: Polity.
- GOODALL, B. (1992), Coastal Resorts: Development and Redevelopment, *Built Environment*, 18 (1), 5-11.
- GOODIN, R. E. & PETTIT, P. (Eds.) (1993), *A Companion to Contemporary Political Philosophy* Oxford: Blackwell.
- GOODPASTER, K. E. (1991), Business Ethics and Stakeholder Analysis, *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 1 (1), 53-73.
- GOOSSENS, V. (2005), Authenticity in Seaside Resorts - A Case Study of Scarborough, *Unpublished Dissertation*, University Of Hull, Scarborough Management Centre
- GORDON, I. & GOODALL, B. (1992), Resort Cycles and Development Processes, *Built Environment*, 18 (1), 41-56.
- GORDON, N. (2001), Arendt and Social Change in Democracies, *Critical Review of International Social and Political Philosophy*, 4 (2), 85-111.
- GORDON, N. (2002), On Visibility and Power: An Arendtian Corrective of Foucault, *Human Studies*, 25, 125-145.
- GRANT, M., HUMAN, B. & LEPELLEY, B. (2001), Seaside Regeneration - A Tale of Two Cities, *Insights*, 12, C41-47.
- GRANT, R. M. (2002), *Contemporary Strategy Analysis*, Oxford: Blackwell.
- GRAU, E. (2007) *Using Factor Analysis and Cronbach's Alpha to Ascertain Relationships Between Questions of a Dietary Behaviour Questionnaire* [online], available:

<http://www.amstat.org/sections/srms/proceedings/y2007/Files/JSM2007-000505.pdf> (accessed:

GREAT YARMOUTH BOROUGH COUNCIL (2007) *Greater Yarmouth Tourism Strategy 2007-2016* [online], available: <http://www.great-yarmouth.gov.uk/great-yarmouth-tourism-strategy-2006-2016.pdf> (accessed: August 2011), Great Yarmouth Borough Council

GRIEVES, J. (2010), *Organizational Change*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

GROSS, M. J. & BROWN, G. (2006), Tourism experiences in a lifestyle destination setting: The roles of involvement and place attachment, *Journal of Business Research*, 59 (6), 696-700.

GUNN, C. A. (2002), *Tourism Planning*, (fourth edition), London: Routledge.

HALL, C. M. (1994), *Tourism and Politics: Policy, Power and Place*, Chichester: Wiley.

HALL, C. M. (2008), *Tourism Planning - Policies, Processes and Relationships*, (second edition), Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

HALL, C. M. & JENKINS, J. M. (1995), *Tourism and Public Policy*, London: Routledge.

HAN, H., LEE, S. & LEE, C.-K. (2011), Extending the Theory of Planned Behaviour: Visa Exemptions and the Traveller Decision-Making Process, *Tourism Geographies*, 13 (1), 45-74.

HANKINSON, G. (2005), Destination brand images: a business tourism perspective, *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 19 (1), 24-32.

HARES, A., DICKINSON, J. & WILKES, K. (2010), Climate change and the air travel decisions of UK tourists, *Journal of Transport Geography*, 18 (3), 466-473.

- HAUGLAND, S. A., NESS, H., GRØNSETH, B.-O. & AARSTAD, J. (2011),
Development of Tourism Destinations: An Integrated Multilevel Perspective,
Annals of Tourism Research, 38 (1), 268-290.
- HILL, M. (Ed.) (1997), *The Policy Process - A Reader* (second edition), London:
Pearson, Prentice Hall.
- HILL, M. (2005), *The Public Policy Process*, (fourth edition), Harlow: Pearson
Longman.
- HOLLINSHEAD, K. (1999), Surveillance of the worlds of tourism: Foucault and the
eye-of-power, *Tourism Management*, 20 (1), 7-23.
- HOLLIS, M. (1994), *The Philosophy of Social Science*, Cambridge: Cambridge
University Press.
- HOLLIS, M. & SMITH, S. (1994), Two stories of structure and agency, *Review of
International Studies*, 20 (3), 241-251.
- HOUSE OF COMMONS (2007) *Coastal Towns - Second Report of Session 2006-07*,
London: Communities and Local Government Committee
- HOWARD, C. (2005), The Policy Cycle: A Model of Post-Machiavellian Policy
Making? *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 64 (3), 3-13.
- HOWELL, P. (1993), Public Space and the Public Sphere: Political Theory and the
Historical Geography of Modernity, *Environment and Planning D: Society and
Space*, 11, 303-322.
- HOWLETT, M. & RAMESH, M. (2003), *Studying Public Policy - Policy Cycles and
Policy Subsystems*, (second edition), Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- HUISMAN, M. & VAN DUIJIN, M. A. J. (2005), Software for social network analysis.
IN CARRINGTON, P. J., SCOTT, J. & WASSERMAN, S. (Eds.) *Models and
Methods in Social Network Analysis*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- HUNTER, J. A. (2010), A study of consumer perception of smiling customer service within the airline industry, *Journal of Transport Security*, available online 4th November 2010.
- HUNTER, J. A. (2011), A study of consumer perception of smiling customer service within the airline industry, *Journal of Transport Security*, 4 (1), 35-56.
- ILBERY, B. & MAYE, D. (2005), Food supply chains and sustainability: evidence from specialist food producers in the Scottish/English borders, *Land Use Policy*, 22 (4), 331-344.
- ILLUM, S. F., IVANOV, S. H. & LIANG, Y. (2010), Using virtual communities in tourism research, *Tourism Management*, 31 (3), 335-340.
- IVARS BAIDAL, J. A. (2004), Regional Tourism Planning in Spain: Evolution and Perspectives, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31 (2), 313-333.
- JAMAL, T. & HOLLINSHEAD, K. (2001), Tourism and the forbidden zone: the underserved power of qualitative inquiry, *Tourism Management*, 22, 63-82.
- JAMAL, T. & JAMROZY, U. (2005), Collaborative Networks and Partnerships for Integrated Destination Management. IN BUHALIS, D. & COSTA, C. (Eds.) *Tourism Management Dynamics: Trends, Management, Tools*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- JAMAL, T. & WATT, E. M. (2011), Climate change pedagogy and performative action toward community-based destination governance, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19 (4), 571-588.
- JAMAL, T. B. & GETZ, B. (1995), Collaboration Theory and Community Tourism Planning, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22 (1), 186-204.
- JAMAL, T. B., STEIN, S. M. & HARPER, T. L. (2002), Beyond Labels: Pragmatic Planning in Multistakeholder Tourism-Environmental Conflicts, *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 22 (2), 164-177.

- JOHNSTON, A. M. (2003), Self-determination: Exercising Indigenous Rights in Tourism. IN SINGH, S., TIMOTHY, D. J. & DOWLING, R. K. (Eds.) *Tourism in Destination Communities*. Wallingford, Oxon: CABI Publishing.
- JONES, T. M. & WICKS, A. C. (1999), Convergent Stakeholder Theory, *Academy of Management Review*, 24 (2), 206-221.
- JÖRESKOG, K. G. (1969), A General Approach to Confirmatory Maximum Likelihood Factor Analysis, *Psychometrika*, 34 (2), 183-202.
- KABOUB, F. (2006) *Roy Bhaskar's Critical Realism - A Brief Overview and a Critical Evaluation* [online], available: <http://f.students.umkc.edu/fkfc8/BhaskarCR.htm> (accessed: 17/01/2007),
- KEARINS, K. (1996), Power in Organisational Analysis: Delineating and Contrasting a Foucauldian Perspective., *Electronic Journal of Radical Organisation Theory*, 2 (2), 1-25.
- KLINE, P. (1994), *An Easy Guide to Factor Analysis*, Hove: Routledge.
- KRAFT, P., RISE, J., SUTTON, S. & ROYSAMB, E. (2005), Perceived difficulty in the theory of planned behaviour: Perceived behavioural control or affective attitude? *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 44 (3), 479-496.
- KRIPPENDORFF, K. (2004), *Content Analysis: An Introduction to Its Methodology*, Thousand Oakes, CA: Sage.
- KRUTWAYSHO, O. (2003) *Obstacles to the implementation of tourism policies and regulations in Phuket, Thailand* [online], available: <http://www.esade.es/cedit2003/pdfs/krutwayshooratai.pdf> (accessed: 14/3/2008),
- LADKIN, A. & BERTRAMINI, A. M. (2002), Collaborative Tourism Planning: A Case Study of Cusco, Peru, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 5 (2), 71-93.
- LAM, T. & HSU, C. H. C. (2006), Predicting behavioural intention of choosing a travel destination, *Tourism Management*, 27 (4), 589-599.

- LANGENSCHIEDT (2001), *Langenscheidts Handwörterbuch - Englisch*, Berlin: Langenscheidt.
- LANKFORD, S. V. & HOWARD, D. R. (1994), Developing a Tourism Impact Attitude Scale, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21 (1), 121-139.
- LAWS, E. (1995), *Tourist Destination Management*, London: Routledge.
- LAYDER, D. (1985), Power, Structure and Agency, *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 15 (2), 131-149.
- LECA, B. & NACCACHE, P. (2006), A Critical Realist Approach to Institutional Entrepreneurship, *Organization*, 13 (5), 627-651.
- LECHTE, J. (1994), *Fifty Key Contemporary Thinkers - From Structuralism to Postmodernity*, London: Routledge.
- LEHMANN, D. R. & HULBERT, J. (1972), Are three-point scales always good enough? *Journal of Marketing Research*, 9 (4), 444-446.
- LEIPER, N. (1979), The Framework of Tourism: Towards a Definition of Tourism, Tourist, and the Tourist Industry, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6 (4), 390-407.
- LEPINEUX, F. (2005), Stakeholder theory, society and social cohesion, *Corporate Governance*, 5 (2), 99-110.
- LEWIS, P. A. (2002), Agency, structure and causality in political science: a comment on Sibeon, *Politics*, 22 (1), 17-23.
- LEWIS, P. A. (2005), Structure, Agency and Causality in Post-revival Austrian Economics: Tensions and Resolutions, *Review of Political Economy*, 17 (2), 291-316.
- LOCKE, E. A. (1991), Introduction to Special Issue, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50 (2), 151-153.

- LUKES, S. (1974), *Power: A Radical View*, Basingstoke: Macmillan Press.
- LUNDTORP, S. & WANHILL, S. (2001), The Resort Lifecycle Theory: Generating Processes and Estimation, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28 (4), 947-964.
- LUOMA-AHO, V. & PALOVIITA, A. (2010), Actor-networking stakeholder theory for today's corporate communications, *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 15 (1), 49-67.
- MAINARDES, E. W., ALVES, H. & RAPOSO, M. (2011), Stakeholder theory: issues to resolve, *Management Decision*, 49 (2), 226-252.
- MARGATE RENEWAL PARTNERSHIP (2009) *Margate Renewal: Framework and Implementation Plan 2009-2011* [online], available: http://www.thisismargate.co.uk/PDF/Framework_and_Implementation_Plan_2009_2011.pdf (accessed: August 2011), Margate Renewal Partnership
- MARQUIS, C. & BATTILANA, J. (2009), Acting globally but thinking locally? The enduring influence of local communities on organizations, *Research in Organizational Behaviour*, 29, 283-302.
- MARSH, D. (1998), The development of the policy network approach. IN MARSH, D. (Ed.) *Comparing Policy Networks*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- MARSH, D. & RHODES, R. A. W. (1992), *Policy Networks in British Government*, Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- MARSH, D. & SMITH, M. (2000), Understanding Policy Networks: towards a Dialectical Approach, *Political Studies*, 48, 4-21.
- MARSH, D. & SMITH, M. J. (2001), There is More than One Way to Do Political Science: on Different Ways to Study Policy Networks, *Political Studies*, 49, 528-541.
- MARSHALL, R. S., AKOORIE, M. E. M., HAMANN, R. & SINHA, P. (2010), Environmental practices in the wine industry: An empirical application of the

theory of reasoned action and stakeholder theory in the United States and New Zealand, *Journal of World Business*, 45 (4), 405-414.

MARZANO, G. & SCOTT, N. (2006) *Dimensions of power and collaboration in the context of destination branding: A theoretical framework* [online], available: http://espace.library.uq.edu.au/eserv/UQ:8368/Marzano_dimensio.pdf (accessed: September 2011), University of Queensland, Australia

MAY, T. (2001), *Social Research: Issues, methods and process*, (third edition), Buckingham: Open University Press.

MCGOVERN, S. & MOTTIAR, Z. (1997) *Co-operative Competition: A Foucauldian Perspective*,

MELLAHI, K. & WOOD, G. (2003), The Role and Potential of Stakeholders in "Hollow Participation": Conventional Stakeholder Theory and Institutional Alternatives, *Business and Society Review*, 108 (2), 183-202.

MIDDLETON, V. T. C. (2001), English Seaside Resorts: Tomorrow's Tourism or All Our Yesterdays? *Insights*, 12, B83-97.

MILES, M. B. & HUBERMAN, A. M. (1994), *Qualitative Data Analysis*, (second edition), London: Sage Publications.

MILLER, G., RATHOUSE, K., SCARLES, C., HOLMES, K. & TRIBE, J. (2010), Public understanding of sustainable tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37 (3), 627-645.

MINTZBERG, H., AHLSTRAND, B. & LAMPEL, J. (1998), *Strategy Safari*, Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

MITCHELL, R. (2006) *A Reconceptualisation of Destination Tourism Management: Focussing on Sustainability and Corporate Social Responsibility* [online], available: http://otago.ourarchive.ac.nz/bitstream/handle/10523/760/Rob_Mitchell.pdf?sequence=4 (accessed: September 2011),

- MITCHELL, R. K., AGLE, B. R. & WOOD, D. J. (1997), Toward a theory of stakeholder identification and salience: defining the principle of who and what really counts, *Academy of Management Review*, 22 (4), 853-886.
- MORGAN, N. (1999), *Power and Politics at the Seaside: The Development of Devon's Resorts in the Twentieth Century*, Exeter: University of Exeter Press.
- MOYNAGH, P. (1997), A Politics of Enlarged Mentality: Hannah Arendt, Citizenship Responsibility, and Feminism, *Hypatia*, 12 (4), 27-53.
- MUTCH, A. (2005), Critical realism, agency and discourse: moving the debate forward, *Organization*, 12 (5), 781-786.
- NICHOLAS, L. A., THAPA, B. & KO, Y. J. (2009), Residents' Perspectives of a World Heritage Site: The Pitons Management Area, St. Lucia, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36 (3), 390-412.
- NORMAN, P., CONNER, M. & BELL, R. (2000), The Theory of Planned Behaviour and exercise: Evidence for the moderating role of past behaviour, *British Journal of Health Psychology*, 5 (3), 249-261.
- NORTH, G. (2011), Forum structure, email communication with V. Goossens, 27th July 2011
- NORTH YORKSHIRE COUNTY COUNCIL (2010) *2009 Parish Population Estimates* [online], available: <http://www.northyorks.gov.uk/CHttpHandler.ashx?id=11401&p=0> (accessed: July 2011), North Yorkshire County Council
- NUGROHO, Y. & TAMPUBOLON, G. (2008), Network dynamics in the transition to democracy: Mapping global networks of contemporary Indonesian civil society, *Sociological Research Online*, 13 (5).
- NUNKOO, R. & RAMKISSOON, H. (2010), Gendered theory of planned behaviour and residents' support for tourism, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 13 (6), 525-540.

- OFFICE FOR NATIONAL STATISTICS (2010) *2008-based Subnational Population Projections for England* [online], available:
<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/pdfdir/pproj0510.pdf> (accessed: August 2011),
Office for National Statistics
- OLANDER, S. & LANDIN, A. (2005), Evaluation of stakeholder influence in the implementation of construction projects, *International Journal of Project Management*, 23 (4), 321-328.
- ORDNANCE SURVEY (2006), *Scarborough Borough Council Boundary*, Scarborough Borough Council, available:
http://www.scarborough.gov.uk/images/borough_boundary_map.gif (accessed: August 2011)
- OSBORNE, J. W. & COSTELLO, A. B. (2004), Sample size and subject to item ratio in principal component analysis, *Practical Assessment, Research and Evaluation*, 9 (11).
- OUELLETTE, J. A. & WOOD, W. (1998), Habit and Intention in Everyday Life: The Multiple Processes by Which Past Behaviour Predicts Future Behaviour, *Psychological Bulletin*, 124 (1), 54-74.
- PAGE, S. J. & CONNELL, J. (2006), *Tourism: A Modern Synthesis*, (second edition), London: Thomson Learning.
- PAGET, E., DIMANCHE, F. & MOUNET, J.-P. (2010), A tourism innovation case: An Actor-Network Approach, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37 (3), 828-847.
- PAJUNEN, K. (2006), Stakeholder Influences in Organizational Survival, *Journal of Management Studies*, 43 (6), 1261-1288.
- PALMER, A. & BEJOU, D. (1995), Tourism Destination Marketing Alliances, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22 (3), 616-629.
- PAREKH, B. (1981), *Hannah Arendt and the Search for a new Political Philosophy*, London: Macmillan Press.

- PARSONS, T. (1968), *The structure of social action*, (second edition), New York: Free Press.
- PATTON, M. Q. (2002), *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*, Thousand Oaks, C.A: Sage.
- PECHLANER, H. & TSCHURTSCHENTHALER, P. (2003), Tourism Policy, Tourism Organisations and Change Management in Alpine Regions: A European Perspective, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6 (6), 508-539.
- PENROSE, J. (2011) *Government Tourism Policy* [online], available: www.culture.gov.uk/images/publications/Government2_Tourism_Policy_2011.pdf (accessed: July 2011), Department for Culture, Media and Sport
- PFEFFER, J. & SALANCIK, G. R. (1978), *The External Control of Organizations - A Resource Dependence Perspective*, New York: Harper and Row.
- PFORR, C. (2005), Three Lenses of Analysis for the Study of Tourism Public Policy: A Case from Northern Australia, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 8 (4), 323-343.
- PFORR, C. (2006), Tourism Policy in the Making: An Australian Network Study, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33 (1), 87-108.
- PHILLIMORE, J. & GOODSON, L. (Eds.) (2004), *Qualitative Research in Tourism: Ontologies, Epistemologies and Methodologies* London: Routledge.
- PHILLIPS, R. A. & REICHART, J. (2000), The Environment as a Stakeholder? A Fairness-Based Approach, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 23, 185-197.
- PLAZA-ÚBEDA, J. A., BURGOS-JIMÉNEZ, J., VAZQUEZ, D. A. & LISTON-HEYES, C. (2009), The 'Win-Win' Paradigm and Stakeholder Integration, *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 18 (8), 487-499.
- PRABHAKAR, R. (1999), State of the Art: The Idea of a Stake, *Politics*, 19 (3), 173-178.

- PRELL, C., HUBACEK, K. & REED, M. (2009), Stakeholder analysis and social network analysis in natural resource management, *Society and Natural Resources*, 22 (6), 501-518.
- PRISKIN, J. (2003), Issues and Opportunities in Planning and Managing Nature-Based Tourism in the Central Coast Region of Western Australia, *Australian Geographical Studies*, 41 (3), 270-286.
- RADFORD, G. P. & RADFORD, M. L. (2005), Structuralism, post-structuralism, and the library: de Saussure and Foucault, *Journal of Documentation*, 61 (1), 60-78.
- REED, M. G. (1997), Power relations and community-based tourism planning, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24 (3), 566-591.
- REED, M. G. (1999), Collaborative Tourism Planning as Adaptive Experiments in Emergent Tourism Settings, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 7 (3&4), 331-355.
- REMENYI, D. E. A. (1998), *Doing Research in Business and Management - An Introduction to Process and Method*, London: Sage Publications.
- REYNOLDS, S. J., SCHULTZ, F. C. & HEKMAN, D. R. (2006), Stakeholder Theory and Managerial Decision-Making: Constraints and Implications of Balancing Stakeholder Interests, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 64 (3), 285-301.
- RILEY, R. W. & LOVE, L. L. (2000), The State of Qualitative Tourism Research, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27 (1), 164-187.
- RISE, J., THOMPSON, M. & VERPLANKEN, B. (2003), Measuring implementation intentions in the context of the theory of planned behaviour, *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 44 (2), 87-95.
- RITCHIE, J. R. B. & CROUCH, G. I. (2003), *The Competitive Destination - A Sustainable Tourism Perspective*, Wallingford: CABI Publishing.
- ROBBINS, R. W. & WALLACE, W. A. (2007), Decision support for ethical problem solving: A multi-agent approach, *Decision Support Systems*, 43 (4), 1571-1587.

- ROBERTS CLARK, W. (1998), Agents and Structures: Two Views of Preferences, Two Views of Institutions, *International Studies Quarterly*, 42 (2), 245-270.
- ROWLEY, T. J. (1997), Moving beyond dyadic ties: A network theory of stakeholder influences, *Academy of Management Review*, 22 (4), 887-910.
- ROWLEY, T. J. & MOLDOVEANU, M. (2003), When will stakeholder groups act? An interest- and identity-based model of stakeholder group mobilization, *Academy of Management Review*, 28 (2), 204-219.
- RYAN, C., HUGHES, K. & CHIRGWIN, S. (2000), The gaze, spectacle, and ecotourism, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27 (1), 148-163.
- SABATIER, P. A. (Ed.) (2007), *Theories of the Policy Process* (second edition), Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press.
- SANTOS, J. R. A. (1999), Cronbach's alpha: A Tool for Assessing the Reliability of Scales, *Journal of Extension*, 37 (2).
- SAUNDERS, M., LEWIS, P. & THORNHILL, A. (2000), *Research Methods for Business Students*, (second edition), Harlow: FT Prentice Hall.
- SAUTTER, E. T. & LEISEN, B. (1999), Managing Stakeholders - A Tourism Planning Model, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26 (2), 312-328.
- SAWICKI, J. (2002), Review: The Power of Feminist Theory, *Hypatia*, 17 (1), 222-226.
- SAXENA, G. (2006), Beyond Mistrust and Competition - the Role of Social and Personal Bonding Processes in Sustaining Livelihoods of Rural Tourism Businesses: a Case of the Peak District National Park, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 8, 263-277.
- SAXENA, G. & ILBERY, B. (2008), Integrated Rural Tourism: A Border Case Study, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35 (1), 233-254.

SCARBOROUGH BOROUGH COUNCIL (2004) *20/20 Vision: A Strategic Investment Plan for Scarborough Borough* [online], available:
<http://www.scarborough.gov.uk/PDF/2020%20Vision%20-%20Strategic%20Investment%20Plan%20for%20Scarborough%20Borough.pdf>
(accessed: July 2011), Scarborough Borough Council

SCARBOROUGH BOROUGH COUNCIL (2005a) *Cabinet: Report of the Head of Tourism and Leisure Services on A Tourism Strategy for Scarborough Borough 2005-2010* [online], available:
<http://democracy.scarborough.gov.uk/Data/Cabinet/20051129/Agenda/HTLS05051%20Tourism%20Strategy%20for%20Scarborough%20Borough%202005-2010.pdf> (accessed: July 2011), Scarborough Borough Council

SCARBOROUGH BOROUGH COUNCIL (2005b) Scarborough Borough Tourism Strategy 2005-2010. Scarborough Borough Council.

SCARBOROUGH BOROUGH COUNCIL (2009) Final Report of Yorkshire Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership Task Group, 19th January 2009. Scarborough Borough Council.

SCARBOROUGH BOROUGH COUNCIL (2010) *Report to Cabinet 16 March 2010: Yorkshire Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership - Contributions 2010/2011* [online], available:
<http://democracy.scarborough.gov.uk/mgConvert2PDF.aspx?ID=16494>
(accessed: August 2011), Scarborough Borough Council

SCHERLE, N. & COLES, T. (2006), Inter-cultural communications and power relations in international tourism commodity chains, *Zeitschrift für Wirtschaftsgeographie*, 50 (2), 109-122.

SCHOLES, K. & JOHNSON, G. (2001), *Exploring Public Sector Strategy*: Pearson Education.

SCOTT, N., COOPER, C. & BAGGIO, R. (2008), Destination Networks: Four Australian Cases, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35 (1), 169-188.

- SEDMAK, G. & MIHALIČ, T. (2008), Authenticity in Mature Seaside Resorts, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35 (4), 1007-1031.
- SELIN, S. & BEASON, K. (1991), Interorganizational Relations in Tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18 (4), 639-652.
- SELIN, S. & CHAVEZ, D. (1995), Developing an Evolutionary Tourism Partnership Model, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22 (4), 844-856.
- SEWELL, W. H., JR. (1992), A Theory of Structure: Duality, Agency, and Transformation, *The American Journal of Sociology*, 98 (1), 1-29.
- SHANKMAN, N. A. (1999), Reframing the Debate Between Agency and Stakeholder Theories of the Firm, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 19 (4), 319-344.
- SHARMA, S. & HENRIQUES, I. (2005), Stakeholder Influences on Sustainability Practices in the Canadian Forest Products Industry, *Strategic Management Journal*, 26, 159-180.
- SHAW, G. & WILLIAMS, A. (1997a), The private sector: tourism entrepreneurship - a constraint or resource? IN SHAW, G. & WILLIAMS, A. (Eds.) *The Rise and Fall of British Coastal Resorts*. London: Pinter.
- SHAW, G. & WILLIAMS, A. (Eds.) (1997b), *The Rise and Fall of British Coastal Resorts: Cultural and Economic Perspectives* London: Mansell.
- SHEEHAN, L. R. & RITCHIE, J. R. B. (2005), Destination Stakeholders - Exploring Identity and Salience, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32 (3), 711-734.
- SHEN, S.-Y., SCHÜTTEMEYER, A. & BRAUN, B. (2009), Visitors' intention to visit world cultural heritage sites: an empirical study of Suzhan, China, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 26 (7), 722-734.
- SIBEON, R. (1999), Agency, Structure, and Social Change as Cross-Disciplinary Concepts, *Politics*, 19 (3), 139-144.

- SIMMONS, J., ILES, P. & YOLLES, M. (2005), Identifying Those on Board 'the Moving Train': Towards a Stakeholder-Focused Methodology for Organizational Decision Making, *Systems Research and Behavioral Science*, 22, 41-53.
- SIMON, B. & OAKES, P. (2006), Beyond dependence: An identity approach to social power and domination, *Human Relations*, 59 (1), 105-139.
- SMITH, S., BOOTH, K. & ZALEWSKI, M. (1996), *International Theory: Positivism and Beyond*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- SOANE, J. (1992), The Origin, Growth and Transformation of Maritime Resorts since 1840, *Built Environment*, 18 (1), 12-26.
- SOHRABI, B., VANANI, I. R., TAHMASEBIPUR, K. & FAZLI, F. (2011), An exploratory analysis of hotel selection factors: A comprehensive survey of Tehran hotels, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, article in press.
- SPARKS, B. (2007), Planning a wine tourism vacation? Factors that help to predict tourist behavioural intentions, *Tourism Management*, 28 (5), 1180-1192.
- STAKE, R. E. (1995), *The Art of Case Study Research*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- STAKE, R. E. (2005), Qualitative Case Studies. IN DENZIN, N. K. & LINCOLN, Y. S. (Eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
- STEVENS, J. M., STEENSMA, H. K., HARRISON, D. A. & COCHRAN, P. L. (2005), Symbolic or Substantive Document? The Influence of Ethics Codes on Financial Executives' Decisions, *Strategic Management Journal*, 26 (2), 181-195.
- STEVENSON, N., AIREY, D. & MILLER, G. (2008), Tourism Policy Making: The Policymakers' Perspective, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35 (3), 732-750.

- STEVENSON, W. B. & GREENBERG, D. (2000), Agency and social networks: Strategies of action in a social structure of position, opposition, and opportunity, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 45 (4), 651-679.
- STRANGE, S. (1991), An Eclectic Approach. IN MURPHY, C. N. & TOOZE, R. (Eds.) *The New International Political Economy*. Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- STRAUSS, A. & CORBIN, J. (1998), *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory*, (second edition), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- STRUTHERS, C. W., PERRY, R. P. & MENEZES, V. H. (2000), An examination of the relationship among academic stress, coping, motivation, and performance in college, *Research in Higher Education*, 41 (5), 581-592.
- SWANSON, D. L. (1999), Toward an Integrative Theory of Business and Society: A Research Strategy for Corporate Social Performance, *Academy of Management Review*, 24 (3), 506- 521.
- SWEDBERG, R. (2005), Can there be a sociological concept of interest? *Theory and Society*, 34, 359-390.
- TABACHNIK, B. G. & FIDELL, L. S. (2001), *Using Multivariate Statistics*, (fourth edition), Boston: Abacon.
- TABACHNIK, B. G. & FIDELL, L. S. (2007), *Using Multivariate Statistics*, (fifth edition), Boston: Pearson International.
- TASHAKKORI, A. & TEDDLIE, C. (Eds.) (2003), *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- TEDDLIE, C. & TASHAKKORI, A. (2003), Major Issues and Controversies in the use of Mixed Methods in the Social and Behavioural Sciences. IN TASHAKKORI, A. & TEDDLIE, C. (Eds.) *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- TEDDLIE, C. & TASHAKKORI, A. (2009), *Foundations of Mixed Methods Research: Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches in the Social and Behavioural Sciences*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- TEMPEST, I. (2006), Interview with City of York Council Economic Development Officer, 5th September 2006
- TERWEE, C. B., BOT, S. D. M., DE BOER, M. R., VAN DER WINDT, D. A. W. M., KNOL, D. L., DEKKER, J., BOUTER, L. M. & DE VET, H. C. W. (2007), Quality criteria were proposed for measurement properties of health status questionnaires, *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 60 (1), 34-42.
- THIELE, L. P. (1997), *Thinking Politics: Perspectives in Ancient, Modern, and Postmodern Political Theory*, Chatham, New Jersey: Chatham House Publishers.
- THOMAS, R. & THOMAS, H. (2005), Understanding Tourism Policy-Making in Urban Areas, with Particular Reference to Small Firms, *Tourism Geographies*, 7 (2), 121-137.
- THOMAS, R. & THOMAS, H. (2006), Micro politics and micro firms: a case study of tourism policy formation and change, *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 13 (1), 100-114.
- THOMAS, R. M. (2003), *Blending Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods in Theses and Dissertations*, Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press.
- THOMPSON, B. (2004), *Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis*, Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- TIMOTHY, D. J. (1999), Participatory Planning - A View of Tourism in Indonesia, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26 (2), 371-391.
- TIMUR, S. & GETZ, D. (2008), A network perspective on managing stakeholders for sustainable urban tourism, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20 (4), 445-461.

- TIMUR, S. & GETZ, D. (2009), Sustainable tourism development: how do destination stakeholders perceive sustainable urban tourism? *Sustainable Development*, 17 (4), 199-268.
- TKACZYNSKI, A., RUNDLE-THIELE, S. & BEAUMONT, N. (2010), Destination Segmentation: A Recommended Two-Step Approach, *Journal of Travel Research*, 49 (2), 139-152.
- TOURISM INSIGHTS (2009) *National and Regional Tourism Structures and Policies* [online], available:
<http://www.insights.org.uk/destinationmanagementguideitem.aspx?title=6%3A+National+and+Regional+Tourism+Structures+and+Policies> (accessed: July 2011), Tourism Insights
- TRAFIMOW, D., SHEERAN, P., CONNER, M. & FINLAY, K. A. (2002), Evidence that perceived behavioural control is a multidimensional construct: Perceived control and perceived difficulty, *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 41 (1), 101-121.
- TRAN, X. & RALSTON, L. (2006), Tourist Preferences: Influence of Unconscious Needs, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33 (2), 424-441.
- TREUREN, G. & LANE, D. (2003), The Tourism Planning Process in the Context of Organised Interests, Industry Structure, State Capacity, Accumulation and Sustainability, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6 (1), 1-22.
- TREVIÑO, K. L. & WEAVER, G. R. (1999), The Stakeholder Research Tradition: Converging Theorists - Not Convergent Theory, *Academy of Management Review*, 24 (2), 222-227.
- TRIANDIS, H. C. (1977), *Interpersonal Behaviour*, Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole.
- TRIBE, J. (2005), New tourism research, *Tourism Recreation Research*, 30, 5-8.

- TSAI, C.-Y. (2010), Applying the theory of planned behaviour to explore the independent travelers' behavior, *African Journal of Business Management*, 4 (2), 221-234.
- TSAI, P. C. F., YEH, C. R., WU, S.-L. & HUANG, I.-C. (2005), An empirical test of stakeholder influence strategy models: evidence from business downsizing in Taiwan, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16 (10), 1862-1885.
- TYLER, D. & DINAN, C. (2001a), The role of interested groups in England's emerging tourism policy network, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 4 (2-4), 210-252.
- TYLER, D. & DINAN, C. (2001b), Trade and Associated Groups in the English Tourism Policy Arena, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3 (6), 459-476.
- URBAN RENAISSANCE (2010) *Vision* [online], available:
<http://www.scarboroughsfuture.org.uk/index.php> (accessed: July 2011), Urban Renaissance Scarborough
- URRY, J. (2002), *The Tourist Gaze*, (second edition), London: Sage.
- VEAL, A. J. (1997), *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism - A Practical Guide*, (second edition), London: Pitman.
- VERNON, J., ESSEX, S., PINDER, D. & CURRY, K. (2005), Collaborative Policymaking: Local Sustainable Projects, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32 (2), 325-345.
- VISITBRITAIN (2011) *The value of tourism* [online], available:
http://www.visitbritain.org/Images/NTB%20brochure%20final_tcm29-14491.pdf (accessed: July 2011), VisitBritain
- VROOM, V. (1964), *Work and Motivation*, New York: Wiley.

- WALLE, A. H. (1997), Quantitative versus qualitative tourism research, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24 (3), 524-536.
- WALTON, J. K. (2000), *The British Seaside: Holidays and Resorts in the Twentieth Century*, Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- WALVIN, J. (1978), *Beside the Seaside: A Social History of the Popular Seaside Holiday*, London: Allan Lane.
- WASSERMAN, S. & FAUST, K. (1994), *Social Network Analysis - Methods and Applications*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- WEBER, M. (1968), *Economy and Society*, New York: Bedminster Press.
- WELCOME TO YORKSHIRE (2011), Tourism Statistics, email communication, 02/09/2011
- WIGHT, C. (1999), They shoot dead horses don't they? Locating agency in the agent-structure problematique, *European Journal of International Relations*, 5 (1), 109-142.
- WOLFE, R. A. & PUTLER, D. S. (2002), How Tight Are the Ties that Bind Stakeholder Groups? *Organization Science*, 13 (1), 64-80.
- WOOLLEY, C. M. (2009), Meeting the Mixed Methods Challenge of Integration in a Sociological Study of Structure and Agency, *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 3 (1), 7-25.
- WORLD TOURISM ORGANISATION (1994), *National and Regional Tourism Planning: Methodologies and Case Studies*, London: Routledge.
- WRIGHT, K. B. (2005) Researching Internet-based populations: Advantages and disadvantages of online survey research, online questionnaire authoring software packages, and web survey services, *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 10(3), article 11, available online: <http://jcmc.indiana.edu/vol10/issue3/wright.html>

- XIAO, H. & SMITH, S. (2006), The making of tourism research: Insights from a social sciences journal, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33 (2), 490-507.
- YIN, R. K. (2003a), *Applications of Case Study Research*, (second edition), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- YIN, R. K. (2003b), *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*, (third edition), London: Sage.
- YORK AND NORTH YORKSHIRE ECONOMIC PARTNERSHIP (2010) *A York and North Yorkshire Local Enterprise Partnership* [online], available: www.ynypu.org.uk/documents/YNYP%20LEP%20response%20to%20BIS.pdf (accessed: July 2011), York and North Yorkshire Partnership Unit (YNYPU)
- YORKSHIRE FUTURES (2009) *Scarborough Urban Renaissance Programme* [online], available: www.yorkshirefutures.com/what-works/scarborough-urban-renaissance-programme (accessed: August 2011), Yorkshire Futures
- YORKSHIRE MOORS AND COAST TOURISM PARTNERSHIP (2009) *Yorkshire Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership: Overview of Tourism Strategy 2010-2013*. Yorkshire Moors and Coast Tourism Partnership.
- YORKSHIRE POST (2011) *Third advisory board completes revamp for tourism strategy* [online], available: http://www.yorkshirepost.co.uk/news/around-yorkshire/local-stories/third_advisory_board_completes_revamp_for_tourism_strategy_1_3417_136 (accessed: July 2011), Yorkshire Post
- ZELLER, R. A. (2003) *Statistical Tools in Applied Research* [online], available: <http://www.personal.kent.edu/~rzeller/ch.%205.pdf> (accessed: May 2010),