FOSTERING AND SUSTAINING URBAN TOURISM SYSTEMS THROUGH GOVERNANCE NETWORKS: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLAND AND THAILAND

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FOSTERING AND SUSTAINING URBAN TOURISM SYSTEMS THROUGH GOVERNANCE NETWORKS: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLAND AND THAILAND

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ABSTRACT

Sustainable Urban Tourism (SUT) is a central concept in tourism literature and practice. Commentators and practitioners have argued that SUT requires negotiation and compromise to avoid overemphasising one dimension. The literature suggests that governance networks (GNs) are valuable mechanism in determining the success of SUT. However, research has shown that many practical challenges can impede the development of effective GNs. This study examines how GNs might be used to gain insights into the dynamics of partnerships and enhance SUT policies and practices by comparative empirical analysis of World Heritage Sites (WHS) and tourist seaside towns in England and Thailand. This thesis examines the impact of what can be called 'institutional designs' and modes of governance on network effectiveness. A thematic analysis was employed to systematically analyse qualitative data. It was found that foundational platform factors - both government structure and national culture - have a significant impact upon shaping governance partnerships, leading to different modes of GNs. It was found that towns within the same national context can have different policy outcomes.

This thesis shows that the norms of leadership, inclusiveness, transparency, responsibility and equity must also be followed at the network level. A shared action agenda is important for defining individual network members' roles and responsibilities with leadership and coordination being key factors. The study shows that GNs offer an effective and suitable means of addressing the challenges of SUT in the context of national culture and policy outcomes. Each country has its own tourism governance model, produced and defined by a unique set of circumstances; a successful model must be cognisant of each country's cultural and political context. The challenge for Thailand is to adapt the current permit centrally controlled and directed policy networks to create governance partnerships with more local influence over policy planning and implementation.

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis submitted is my own work and I have maintained professional integrity during all aspects of my research degree and I have complied with the Institutional Code of Practice and Research Degree Regulations.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 3: UNDERSTANDING THE DEVELOPMENT OF GOVERNANCE NETWORKS AND SUSTAINABLE URBAN TOURISM: THE INTEGRATED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

CHAPTER 4: GOVERNANCE NETWORK STRUCTURES IN URBAN TOURISM: LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF HERITAGE TOURISM CASES

CHAPTER 5: GOVERNANCE NETWORK STRUCTURES IN URBAN TOURISM: LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF SEASIDE TOWN CASES

CHAPTER 6: COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE NETWORKS: THEMATIC ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND THAI CASES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Full term
AoU	Academy of Urbanism
B&NES	Bath and North East Somerset Council
BID	Bath Business Improvement District
BPT	Bath Preservation Trust
BTP	Bath Tourism Plus
DASTA	Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration
DCMS	Department for Culture, Media and Sport
DPM	Differentiated Policy Model
FoBRA	Federation of Bath Resident's Association
GN	Governance Network
ICOMOS	International Council on Monuments and Sites
IMD	International Institute for Management Development
KCC	Kent County Council
KMEP	Kent and Medway Economic Partnership
MRP	Margate Renewal Partnership
NAO	Network Administrative Organization
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
PAO	Provincial Administrative Organisation
SEEDA	South East England Development Agency

Abbreviation	Full term
SELEP	South East Local Economic Partnership
SUT	Sustainable Urban Tourism
TAO	Tambon Administrative Organisation
TDC	Thanet District Council
TRB	Thanet Regeneration Board
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
OUV	Outstanding Universal Value
WHC	World Heritage Convention
WHS	World Heritage Sites

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

A traditional, hierarchical model of government dominated 20th century public administration literature. However, a number of commentators and practitioners no longer see this model as an effective way of dealing with a range of social and economic issues, which have become increasingly complex in terms of both understanding their underlying causes and developing policy solutions (Frederickson, 1999). Kettl (2005) suggests that in order to strengthen government organisations' ability to manage complex issues such as pollution and anti-social behaviour, policy makers adopt a process involving a 'governance network' (GN). As governments face various types of uncertainty and conflict-ridden policy problems, these issues are seen to be best resolved with the cooperation of various actors who are dependent on each other's resources (Torfing, 2005; Sørensen and Torfing, 2007; Provan and Kenis, 2008). This approach can either emerge naturally or be initiated by key policy-shapers, which involves negotiating with multiple organisations concerning sharing resources and goals to eventually achieve concrete and measurable outcomes (Torfing et al., 2009).

Thailand has some way to go in terms of developing this model. The major public sector reform in 2002 began with the revision of the State Administration

Act (No.5) and Constitution of 2007. This reform attempted to change public administration processes and jump-start the deployment of governance models which were achieving success in the West. The Thai government attempted to bring in policy making and implementation by drawing upon the governance model (Bowornwathana, 2000). The development of GNs is specified as a key milestone in the Thai Public Sector Strategic Plan, initiated by The Office of the Public Sector Development Commission. GNs should be evident in the tourism system, which plays a major role in Thailand's economic development.

According to research on globalisation, trading and travel competitiveness and sustainable tourism development requires GNs to steer, regulate and mobilise actors, namely institutions, decision-making, and established practices to resolve problems and share resources (Jamal and Gretz, 1995; Saxena, 2005; Dredge, 2006; Bramwell, 2011). For example, sustainable tourism development is not only linked with social and economic development but also issues of environmental preservation and waste management.

In Thailand, the GN approach is still very much viewed as an important new tool that can be used to shape sustainable tourism planning and development. However, it has been argued that there has been little progress in implementing GNs to enhance tourism (Krutwaysho and Bramwell, 2010, TAT, 2014). The research described in this thesis confirmed that this was the case. According to the report by the Swiss-based International Institute for Management Development (IMD, 2014), in terms of government efficiency,

Thailand ranks 28th out of 59 countries, a decline from 18th in 2013. The weaknesses of Thai government are the risk of political instability, and lack of transparency which are key factors here in recommending, and implementing government decisions and thus achieving effective GNs. The IMD (2014) argues that politics and governance in Thailand need to be reformed to promote political, social, and economic equality. In contrast, the United Kingdom's government efficiency ranking increased to 17th in 2014, from 24th in 2013. Key indicators of effectiveness in the UK are the sound legal environment, transparency, political stability and predictability.

There are very few studies of GNs in relation to urban tourism systems in Thailand and this research was designed to address this shortfall. Therefore, and as shown in this research, policy guidelines learned from the UK will provide valuable understanding of the positive and negative implications of GNs. This acquired knowledge and insight were anticipated to help promote partnership working between local governments and other actors in Thailand where there has been little progress in GN implementation.

1.2 Aims of the study

The main aims of this thesis were: (1) to explore how and why GNs in different guises influence SUT policies and practices; and (2) to critically examine the conditions required for effective GNs to be created and to operate effectively.

The primary research question of this thesis was: **How exactly do GNs influence SUT policies and practices?** The connection between these two variables were explored through a comparative case study of policies and practices in England and Thailand.

The overarching research question generated three sub-questions:

1. How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances?

This sub-question was answered by examining the key dimensions of institutional design in local tourism governance that are found at two levels of urban tourism in England and Thailand. The empirical findings were used to assess whether the existing institutional designs and the various stakeholders shaped the development of GNs. In addition, the findings were analysed to determine whether they could identify those factors of institutional design that actually produce an effective SUT strategy. This study also examined how the national context affects the structure and orientation of GNs due to different views of local democracy, roles of local government, and different styles of policy delivery. This investigation was expected to provide added understanding of the benefits of GNs for SUT development in creating a framework for stakeholders' involvement and identifying the key conditions for successful network formation.

2. How do different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why?

While question 1 covers the broad subject of institutional design, and examines how different national contexts and levels of government shape institutional models, and practices, this question explores the dynamics of different modes of governance. To answer this questions, it was necessary to examine the extent to which the motivation and agenda of the different organisations and the relationship between different stakeholders that make up the urban tourism sectors affected the dynamics of GNs, and to critically examine their impact on SUT strategies.

Academic work in the area of GN models was used in this comparative study to explore how differences in the representatives and dynamics of different networks explain different SUT policy outcomes. This contextual background was used to illustrate why business interests may or may not be structurally dominant in particular instances. The tensions between the various stakeholders which were inherent in each case were discussed. The study also explored how GNs address and manage these tensions, and how much influence partnerships exert over decision-making.

3. What factors promote and inhibit SUT?

The study highlighted the necessary conditions for establishing long-term and successful partnership working within a national cultural context to provide

valuable lessons for local governments interested in pursuing GNs in the tourism industry. The existing literature provided understanding of the key features of effective GNs. A case study approach was conducted to draw out important lessons related specifically to the formation and performance of GNs in SUT in England and Thailand. The thesis thus developed a clear link between knowledge, insight and policy recommendations.

Overall, the thesis was an exploratory examination designed to explore the value of GNs to SUT. It illustrated the tensions which can exist between economic, societal and environmental concerns, which were evident from the literature and news coverage. To answer the research questions, data were collected through documentary sources and in-depth interviews. A longitudinal analysis was conducted for each case study. Thematic and cross-case analyses were conducted to identify key findings. The propositions which emerged as best practice from the UK Bath case study were subsequently applied to other cases, in order to develop a new model of utility for the development of GNs in the pursuit of SUT.

There are four principal reasons why an examination of the relationships between GNs and SUT is valuable.

First*,* SUT is a major economic sector worldwide and the literature suggests that GNs are likely to be a key factor in determining its success (Dowling, 1993; Getz and Jamal, 1994; Godfrey, 1998, Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010; Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; Bramwell, 2011). For example, some scholars

point out that GNs might strengthen the balance and equity of policy, as the main goal of sustainable development, through democratic learning, and empowerment of stakeholders from different sectors (Byrd, 2007; de Araujo and Bramwell, 2002; Dinica, 2009). Daly (2003) also suggests that GNs relate to "matters of democracy and the role of civil society, especially in the context of the challenges to representative democracy associated with a fragmentation of class politics, growing diversity and the clamour for recognition of different interest groups and identities" (p. 119). However, in practice there are many challenges that can impede an effective role for GNs in SUT. Some scholars argue that GNs are likely to create an unequal pattern of participation replicating the patterns found in traditional representative democracy, decision-making and asymmetric power (Dryzek, 2007; Papadopoulos, 2007; Davies, 2011). ***A crucial reason why more studies of GNs in this context are needed is to understand these challenges and also to suggest potential ways to respond to them.***

Second, there is no reason to believe that GNs will generate a general understanding of the processes needed in all countries, and that cities within the same national context will achieve equivalent policy outcome (Pierre, 1999; Klijn, 2008). This thesis was a comparative exercise designed to test this argument and provide insights as to the value of GNs in a key area of SUT (World Heritage Sites and seaside towns) in two countries Thailand and England. As Liu (2003) suggests there is a need to adopt an inter-disciplinary approach that will demonstrate how the involvement of a wide range of stakeholders in this sector is more likely to incorporate the various pillars that

constitute a successful sustainable agenda and strategy. As Sewell (1967, p. 209) suggests, *"the comparative method, like the experimental method, is a means of systematically gathering evidence to test the validity of our explanation"*. However, it is recognised that further research involving more case studies in different countries would be needed to confirm the findings presented in this thesis.

Third, GNs are viewed as a new governance form used in shaping sustainable tourism planning and development in Thailand. As mentioned earlier, establishment of GNs is a key component of the Thai Public Sector Strategic Plan and is increasingly perceived as a suitable mechanism that will improve public services. The hope is that GNs will perform better than the traditional hierarchical government model because they can self-organise and integrate across sectors of society. The Thai government considers that GNs offer a useful mechanism for further developing SUT in Thailand (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998; Bowornwathana, 2000; Krutwaysho and Bramwell, 2010); and research is needed to support or disprove this contention, and to identify the barriers to achieving effective GNs. Furthermore, as discussed above, although GNs have existed for several years, and there has been little progress in implementing this approach within the Thai public sector and other organizations (Krutwaysho and Bramwell, 2010; TAT, 2014). In contrast, England has accumulated more than 25 years' experience of using the GN approach and it is accepted that effective partnership working is highly important in ensuring policy achievement (DiGaetano and Strom, 2003; Heley and Moles, 2012). Therefore, studying

the UK's experience provides a useful benchmark for identifying the factors which promote the creation of successful GNs, particularly in Thailand (IMD, 2014; TAT, 2014). In addition, this thesis contributed to the literature on *policy transference* by illustrating how policy networks can be transferred and adapted globally.

Finally, the tourism literature contains limited studies of the contribution of GNs to the development of SUT (Dredge and Jenkins, 2007; Hall, 2008; Bramewell and Lane, 2011). This research was designed to address this shortfall.

Given the expected value of an examination of the relationships between GNs and SUT, this thesis explored four case studies in England and Thailand connected with World Heritage Sites and seaside towns (two in each). Key findings were analysed to provide useful insights as to the importance of GNs in policy-making and to create a new, advanced model applicable to SUT. Studying two different countries with very different political systems and cultural contexts provided a unique opportunity to examine the impact of possible variables and eventually to provide a framework for analysis of other countries in which SUT is of key economic importance. ***This thesis provided a model that combined understanding of SUT policies with possible GN strategies for enhancing development of an important economic sector.***

1.3 Structure of the thesis

This thesis was divided into five sections. The first concerned research design and methodology. The second provided an account of the theory of GNs and SUT. The third offered empirical evidence of the two World Heritage Site (WHS) case studies. The fourth provided empirical evidence of tourism cases associated with the two seaside towns. The fifth presented a comparative analysis of the four cases and key findings.

Reliability Section 1 described the research design and methodology and is covered in **Chapter 2**. This chapter justified the selection and utility of an exploratory trans-national comparative case study approach. A number of theoretical perspectives were applied to help understand the realities and dynamics of partnership working in a country in South East Asia (Thailand) and Europe (England) which are politically and culturally very different. The aim was to generate theories/concepts from empirical, case-based evidence.

Validity Section 2 explored the theories and concepts that are useful for enriching our understanding of the development of GNs and was presented in **Chapter 3**. It comprised a literature review relating to the three aforementioned research questions: 1) How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances? 2) How do different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why? and 3) What factors promote and inhibit SUT? The literature review led to an in-depth understanding of institutional design,

collaboration and the typology of interagency relationships, which were used to investigate and compare the dynamic of GNs involved in SUT in England and Thailand.

Chapter 3 also discussed the theoretical issues related to the empirical analysis of GNs in real policy network settings. Gathering empirical evidence for the Bath UK case study showed the importance of researching the development of policy networks as longitudinal, time-based case studies, because policy changes over time. Therefore, a longitudinal analysis was employed to take into account the chronology in all case studies. Chapter 3 also examined theories to address the final research question; namely, What factors promote and inhibit sustainable collaborations? Consequently, a new model was developed which identified the key factors enabling and inhibiting SUT.

Generalisability Section 3 consisted of **Chapters 4 and 5**, which concerned the empirical evidence of the four case studies. **Chapter 4** provided a longitudinal analysis of partnerships working within two WHS cases: Bath (UK) and Ayutthaya (Thailand). A chronology of events was recounted, emphasising the contextual and sequential aspects of networks, and the processes of institutional change at different stages. The tensions inherent within each case were discussed and a detailed analysis of the similarities and differences of GNs in Bath and Ayutthaya was presented. The case studies resulted in enhanced understanding of the development of interactive relationships and the dynamics of GNs in each country.

Chapter 5 investigated three aspects of GN structure and performance in two seaside town cases involving Margate (UK) and Patthaya (Thailand). It presented the findings of a longitudinal analyses; the types of GNs that resulted; and the key conditions for GN formation.

Implication   Section 4 consisted of **Chapters 6** and **7**. **Chapter 6** reviewed the results of the trans-national analysis of the four case studies investigated in Chapter 4 and 5 and the implications for policy and practice. The analysis identified the key factors that influenced the dynamics and performance of existing GNs in England and Thailand in the pursuit of SUT.

Conclusions   **Chapter 7** summarised the key findings of the four case studies and discussed the theoretical implications of the research in relation to the aims set for this work. It also presented a new model that links an understanding of GNs with strategies for global application in SUT. The academic and practical implications and applications of the research were discussed in the concluding Chapter including suggestions for future work.

1.4 Contribution of the research

Three valuable outputs were anticipated from the research.

Firstly, confirmation of the utility of GNs for developing SUT and creation of a new 'tool' for guiding GN development in a key economic area that can be transferred globally.

Secondly, this research was expected to result in enhanced understanding of SUT and to contribute to the interdisciplinary approach as advocated by Liu (2003), creating an academic synergy by applying academic material and research to SUT public policy and governance. Its practical applications and the knowledge gained could help to foster improvements in GNs in the pursuit of sustainability, particularly for Thailand.

Thirdly, the researcher recognised and acknowledged the limitations of the case study approach which were overcome by carrying out a multi-dimensional review across two countries having major political and culture differences. This rendered any correlations with GNs more convincing and minimised the impact of a third factor, the independent variable. Thus, a strong foundation was expected to be created for follow-up research on GNs/SUT in other countries to further test the strength of the correlation.

Finally, this study offered the Thai government clear guidelines on how GNs can be used to deliver public policy – an area in which the Thai government seeks to improve. Additionally, in practical terms, the research was expected to provide clear guidance or a "toolkit" for countries aiming to develop and implement more effective SUT strategies.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

2.1 Introduction

This study explored trans-national comparative case studies to examine the relationship between governance networks (GNs) and sustainable urban tourism (SUT) in World Heritage Sites and seaside towns in England and Thailand. Four GNs (two in each country) were selected for study, each of which provided a unique opportunity to compare and contrast the development and implementation of each network. Interviews were conducted with the elite players who led each network; these players provided access to necessary qualitative data to gain insight the understanding of the dynamics of GNs in each country (Moore and Stokes, 2012).

GN model identified from the literature provided the theoretical scaffolding for this study and empirical evidence from the cases was collected to refine an existing conceptual model. This chapter provides an account of the way in which existing knowledge informed the research process. The systematic procedures for undertaking exploratory case studies are also discussed and demonstrated (Eisenhardt, 1989; Stake, 1995; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Yin, 2009) and are subsequently employed in this study to raise the overall quality of the research. In addition, the procedures used in this thesis,

the realities of conducting fieldwork within two different national contexts, English and Thai, are presented and discussed.

This chapter is divided into seven sections. The first provides the rationale for the exploratory objective of this study. The second discusses the use of trans-national comparative case studies as a research tool. Comparative international case studies are conducted to achieve the aims and answer the research questions, and to consider how GNs, in the context of urban tourism policy, are implemented within broader networks. The third section develops the research framework, which provides an overarching picture of this study. The fourth concerns the sampling design, in which the choice of England and Thailand for the study are justified. The use of a purposive sampling to select two cases from each country is discussed. This section also introduces and compares the study areas, and explains why they warrant study, by outlining respective socio-economic and political characteristics.

The fifth section discusses data collection and the selection and use of qualitative methods, specifically documentary research and semi-structured interviews for in-depth investigation of the social phenomenon of GNs. The use of multiple sources of evidence to address the same set of research questions (Patton, 2002) is discussed with regard to being an effective data collection approach for increasing the reliability of the research.

The sixth section concerns the qualitative data analysis. It describes the use of within-case analysis in each case, which allowed a detailed description, and

the identification of key themes related to the three principal research questions. Thematic analysis across the case studies is discussed. Finally, challenges of the quality of research, including validity, reliability, and generalisability are examined as well as ethical issues.

As mentioned previously, GNs have different policy outcomes in all nations and within all policy fields (Klijn, 2008). This thesis attempts to contribute to existing research. Additionally, this thesis expands the range of methodological tools beyond the standard qualitative social science methods that are utilised in research interviews and document studies. Using a broader ranges of methods helps to provide a richer database that enhances the credible of the research.

2.2 Research strategy: exploratory research

Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) argued that the effective studies should be driven by research objectives. Rather than focusing on inductive/qualitative and deductive/quantitative explanations, the research objectives and exploratory or confirmatory research, should be specifically examined (Hakim, 1987; Yin, 2009; Bryman, 2015).

Based on this reasoning, this study placed emphasis on research objectives, which were useful for selecting and developing the research design - a blueprint for, or a way of thinking logically about, the holistic picture of

conducting research. The following section states the research objectives, purposes, and questions. It describes the exploratory objective of this study and demonstrates the way in which this objective informed not only the selected research design, i.e. using comparative case studies, but also the whole research process.

Different theoretical perspectives were employed to understand the implication of GNs in relation to SUT in two different countries, to understand the connections drawn from the empirical evidence and to establish 'best practice' as the foundation for policy recommendations. Helping to facilitate policy transfer is one of the ultimate goals of this research. Dolowitz and Marsh (2000, p. 5) define policy transfer as: "processes by which knowledge about policies, administrative arrangements, institutions and ideas in one political system (past or present) is used in the development of policies, administrative arrangements, institutions and ideas in another political systems". Policy transfer is not classified as simply copying the policies of other countries, but can include lessons learned and profound alterations in the content of the exchanged policies (Rose, 1991; Dolowitz and Marsh 1996; Radaelli, 2000).

This study was employed exploratory approach; as Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005, p. 278) argued, "exploratory studies typically attempt to develop theories about how and why a phenomenon operates as it does". Unlike confirmatory research objectives, which require hypotheses, an exploratory study needs to identify the research purposes, rationale, and initial questions (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005; Yin, 2009, p. 28).

The research presented in this thesis was based on four case studies to identify the types and structure of GNs in existence and whether particular designs of GN enhanced the likelihood of SUT strategies being developed and implemented.

The key objectives of the research are as follows:

(1) To generate insightful explanations of how GNs influence SUT policies and practices at local government level;

(2) To conduct a trans-national comparative investigation which explores how different types and dynamics of GNs result in different policy outcomes.

(3) To determine whether or not the development of SUT requires GNs.

To achieve the research objectives mentioned above, three research questions were formulated:

(1) How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances?

(2) How do different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why?

(3) What factors promote and inhibit SUT?

Understanding the formation and dynamics of GNs is one of the most crucial aspects of urban politics. This research raised analytical and theoretically derived questions regarding whether there are consistent patterns in the way national political and cultural contexts influence local policymaking; whether civil society plays an essential role in the policy-making process; how governance structures vary in different countries; and whether leadership is an essential condition for effective GNs. A question of interest in network relationships was 'Who has or does not have power?' This thesis set out to address these questions and to **derive general propositions about GNs by searching for common findings from a range of different case studies and from the literature of different disciplines.**

Comparative analysis was employed to answer these issues and produce generalisations. This allows political scientists to estimate outcomes in other countries, or outcomes in the future by specifying the presence of certain antecedent factors (Landman, 2008).

Sound qualitative methods are required to discover accurate information about GNs in ways that are independent of general concepts or the method of data selection in particular cases. Data must also be presented in ways that ease comparison.

2.3 Research design: trans-national comparative case studies

Research design or framework is an initial and holistic stage that helps researchers to achieve objectives and avoid the situation in which the evidence cannot answer the research questions (Yin, 2009; Bryman, 2012).

The research was expected to reveal that relatively simple differences in GN structures have a major effect on a range of dependent variables including policy selection, strategies, openness to new policy ideas, effectiveness and policy outcomes. It is expected that similar GN structures will have similar effects in different scenarios (country/city/town), therefore providing potential for global comparisons.

2.3.1 Trans-national research

The principal research questions mentioned above (Section 2.2) recommended use of a qualitative case study methodology for several different reasons. First, the study sought to investigate factors including partnerships, collaboration and "neoliberalism" as a source of national political shifts. Critical geographers and regulation theorists highlight how privatisation, decentralisation, and welfare state restructuring are linked to powerful economic interests (Lauria, 1997; Peck and Tickell, 2002). Thus, the study sought to investigate how various factors including partnerships, collaboration and "neoliberalism" affected national political shifts in SUT. Secondly,

partnership working is a complex contemporary phenomenon, within real-world situations, often developed over a long period of time (Gray, 2013). Therefore, a cross-section of events is inadequate for showing how and why things happen. Partnerships are also heavily influenced by people's motivation, emotions, prejudices and experience of interpersonal cooperation and conflict (Charmaz, 1995). Finally, case study-based research not only allows in-depth explanation of the development and implement of GNs in a particular setting but also provides a holistic and meaningful analysis of this complex social science topic (Yin, 2009).

Qualitative methods offer a dominant tool for comparison of countries. First, unlike quantitative research, in which information has been measured precisely, qualitative research allows for the inclusion of information represented through reasonable judgement and the application of defensible criteria. Second, it allows researchers to identify and assess conditions that contribute to an outcome. Third, qualitative research allows researchers to understand the occurrence of particular phenomena in light of theoretical propositions about the behaviour of individual stakeholders (Coleman 1990; Zuckerman, 1997). Finally, it offers the opportunity to logically examine unexpected outcomes and negative cases as shown in the following chapters.

Research areas such as local governance, institutional analysis and administrative reform have benefited from the information gathered in a large number of comparative analyses (Page and Goldsmith, 1987; Hesse and Sharpe, 1991; Wolman and Goldsmith, 1992; Wollmann, 2000; Pierre, 2005).

Bryman (2015) asserted that a comparative design is useful when researchers seek to investigate specific social issues in two different settings or gain a deeper understanding of particular policies in different national contexts. Based on this information, comparative case studies were employed in the present study to provide a detailed and precise assessment of the development of GNs in England and in Thailand for enhancing SUT. The present study was carried out based on two countries with widely different political and cultural structures (Thailand and England) to test the strength of relationship between various factors by demonstrating its validity across diverse settings (Teune and Przeworski, 1970). This approach provides evidence that a relationship is real, and not due to the dependency of both factors on an unmeasured third variable (Peters, 1998).

The exploratory nature and comparative case study design guided the overall research process. The following sections demonstrate the way in which the research followed systematic procedures, starting from the theoretical framework, selection of cases, data collection and analysis.

Comparison of GNs

Recent years have witnessed an increasing number of comparison of cities across anthropology, economics, human geography, political science, and sociology (Brenner, 2001; Davis and Tajbakhsh, 2005; Kantor and Savitch,

2005; McCabe, 2005; Pierre, 2005; Sellers, 2005; Wood, 2005; Garcia, 2006; Derudder et al., 2007; Kern and Bulkeley, 2009).

Comparative urban governance research is conducted to obtain a rich understanding of the politics of countries and urban regions (Sellers, 2005). In the same vein, Pierre (2005) argued that comparing urban governance plays a potential role not only in revealing causal relationships and factors influencing political, economic, and social change, but also helps in uncovering and developing theoretical propositions (Dogan and Pelassy 1990). Pickvance (1986, p. 163) suggests that, although there are differences in policy outcomes and processes in many cases, "awareness of diversity through comparative studies forces one to bring theoretical assumptions into the open". From the perspective of scientific relevance, good comparative research will help to provide valid and reliable answers to interesting questions and help fill gaps in current knowledge about political phenomena. Thus, comparative research may be expected to provide a dominant instrument for investigating the significance of social and economic factors in shaping tourism governance. A more theoretical understanding of and deeper insight into GNs won't be possible without conducting a comparative analysis.

There are many reasons for comparing governance. First, it broadens our understanding of government structures and political processes offering potential for explanation and even prediction (Hague and Harrop, 2004). Distinguishing between modes of governance and planning systems subsequently allows identification of those factors which incline countries to

one form or another and which GN is more flexible and effective. The comparative case study approach provides an in-depth analysis of a limited number of cases. Similar to a single-case study, its analytical strategy is qualitative and the analysis is sensitive to the details of each particular case. However, comparison offers increased opportunities for identifying the effects of different factors compared with a single-case study and this potential has been increased by the development of new techniques for testing propositions on empirical study (Ragin, 1987; Peters, 1998).

The researcher was also interested in identifying functional equivalence, which "refers to the requirement that concepts should be related to other concepts in other settings in more or less the same way" Van Deth (1998, p. 6). Different political institutions may perform similar functions. For example, functional forms of decentralisation in consociational democracies may perform similar functions to territorial decentralisation in federal systems.

Trans-national, comparative urban political research presents a wealth of information. However, the quality of research depends on the quality of the questions, methods of data collection and analysis (King, et al., 1994). For this reason, a consideration of some major methodological issues in comparative urban political research is germane.

International comparison

Numerous authors in a range of fields have acknowledged the merits of trans-national comparative research (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2002; Livingstone, 2003; Lazzeretti and Tavoletti, 2006; Lavenex et al., 2009). Comparison is considered the most common and rewarding research strategy for elucidating the influence of variables and uncovering causal patterns of explanation (Pierre, 2005).

Comparing a small number of countries offers various analytical opportunities (Landman, 2008). It allows for intensive examination of individual countries and for focusing on differences between countries in order to explain which GNs may or may not foster SUT. Hantraits and Mangen (1996) argued that particular issues should be studied in two or more countries, using the same research instruments to compare the effect of different socio-cultural settings. More specifically, tourism is increasingly becoming a key economic sector, with increasing international cooperation, interdependency and competition. Many of the challenges faced by those in the tourism sector are similar, even if the political frameworks in which they operate are different. However, it should be recognised that each country has its own model for governance of tourism, produced and defined by a unique set of national and cultural contexts. This implies that there might not be a best model for use as exemplars or copying.

The research presented in this thesis was based on two countries with which the researcher having knowledge of both. The challenge was in ensuring equivalence of concepts, terms and definitions, unit of comparison, governance entities and the SUT context at the outset. It was decided that the study should include an international comparative analysis of governance structures as in the literature review (Chapter 3) and tourism systems in England and Thailand, to determine the role of GNs in different political and cultural contexts and to explore how different stakeholders cooperate in generating SUT policies.

There are several reasons for selecting England and Thailand as case studies.

Firstly, there are major regime differences. Pickvance (1986) presented a valid reason for comparing "most different" cases which is "to become aware of diversity and overcome ethnocentricism" (ibid., p. 163). There is value in comparing and contrasting countries having different types of political regimes and different levels of economic development. England is representative of a developed country with western democracy, whereas Thailand is classed as a developing country with a democratic political culture under military control. Thailand has a different set of historical experiences. The country industrialised later than the Western democratic countries and featured a strong agrarian elite and strong bourgeoisie. Thailand is neither fully authoritarian nor fully democratic and there exists "a vast grey zone that occupies the space between authoritarianism at one end and consolidated democracy at the other" (Ottaway, 2013, p. 6). The country upholds

democracy as an ideal but falls short in its application. Thailand presents a strong central authority, and changing configuration of political opportunities. The bureaucracy is at the helm and there is little real participation by political parties and the public. This form of democracy is based on the principle that the military plays the role of nurturing the government. Regarding GNs, it is noticeable that each country is slightly different. Studying two contrasting systems (Thailand and England) provides strong evidence for a correlation between two variables, if found, because the impact of a third strong variable (political culture) is minimised. The more different the two countries are in factors other than those studied, the more likely that there is a causal relationship between independent variable and the dependent variable being examined.

Secondly, it is noted that the two countries have sufficient in common, i.e. governance policy, and public policy initiatives to make a comparative analysis feasible. Thailand has been drawing heavily of late upon western-developed New Public Management and GNs thinking in countries including the UK. This is evident in Thailand's government publications, namely the State Administrative Act and Public Sector Strategic Plan. Therefore, the concept of GN is not alien to practitioners in Thailand.

Thirdly, both countries operate a strong and thriving tourism industry, and both governments refer to developing sustainable tourism in their publications. England and Thailand are ranked in notable positions in the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), top ten ranking of international tourist

arrivals and tourism receipts in 2016. Thailand moved up three positions in the ranking by international receipts to number 6, while it entered three places in arrivals 11th. The United Kingdom was ranked 8th in arrivals, and 5th place in receipts. Euromonitor International also pointed out that inbound arrivals in Thailand saw faster growth in 2015 compared with 2014, as the political situation under the military government stabilised, giving tourists more confidence and allowing them to feel more comfortable visiting Thailand (Geerts, 2015). Euromonitor International expected that Bangkok would strengthen its position as the third most visited city, while Phuket, Pattaya and Chiang Mai would continue their ascent in the rankings (Geerts, 2015).

The comparative analysis began with England – Bath case study - since England is seen as the first country to have undertaken rapid industrialisation and development of democratic political institutions (Landman, 2008). Implicit throughout the comparison is that the British experience radiates out across Europe and North America, effectively offering other countries a model for governance and growth. To this end, the Bath GN model was intended to offer a comprehensive framework for policy makers and practitioners in developing countries such as, Thailand.

Finally, there were more practical considerations for the choice of Thailand and England as case study countries. The author was fluent in both writing and speaking Thai and English, which meant that conducting interviews in these languages was not a problem. Living in England and being Thai meant both countries were easily accessible to the author, geographically and

otherwise. According to May (2011), primary problems with comparative analysis is the researchers' inability to adequately understand cultures and societies that are different from their own. This was not a problem in undertaking fieldwork of this thesis for the aforementioned reasons.

2.3.2 Case study approach

To answer the research questions, a trans-national comparative analysis of GNs in relation to SUT was carried out based on four case studies. The detailed rationale for selecting comparative case studies as the research tool is provided in this section. Case study research is useful for investigating a multiplicity of causal relationships (De Vaus, 2001). Unlike other designs, this approach, which is seen by Yin (2011) as being at the heart of case studies, begins with a theory, or a set of theories, regarding a particular phenomenon. De Vaus (2001, p. 222) pointed out that:

> "The point of the case study would be to see if the theory actually worked in a real-life situation. If it did work then the theory is supported (not proven). If it did not work then we would seek to understand, from a careful analysis of the case, why the predicted outcome did not eventuate'.

Case studies allow involvement and immersion on various levels and to various degrees and were helpful in obtaining a holistic and meaningful view of events and processes. The findings of the four case studies presented in this thesis were considered sufficient to accomplish the research aims.

2.4 The four stages of research

As the overall objective of this study was exploratory, using multiple theories to understand issues and building new theories from the case studies, the research followed the principle of developing theory from case study research (Eisenhardt, 1989). It also adopted recommended procedures for conducting comparative case studies (Creswell et al., 2007; Yin, 2009; Stake, 2013). The four-stage process of research is shown in Figure 1.

Developing a framework is an early stage in any research design. Theoretical frameworks play an essential role in defining appropriate methods of data collection and analysis (Yin, 2009). They also help with organisation and interpretation of the research findings (Bryman, 2015). The first stage included conducting a literature review to gain insights into the three research questions (Chapter 3). In this study, a review of the literature resulted in the construction of conceptual models relating to the research questions, which were used as a framework to analyse the empirical data.

The second stage provided an exploratory study of the English and Thai cases. The following stage was to compare findings between World Heritage cases and seaside town cases (Chapter 4 and 5). Finally, a comparative analysis of English and Thai cases was conducted to draw generalisable conclusions (Chapter 6). The specific procedures and details within each stage will be discussed in the following sections.

Figure 1: Research framework for the comparative case study of GNs in SUT in England and Thailand
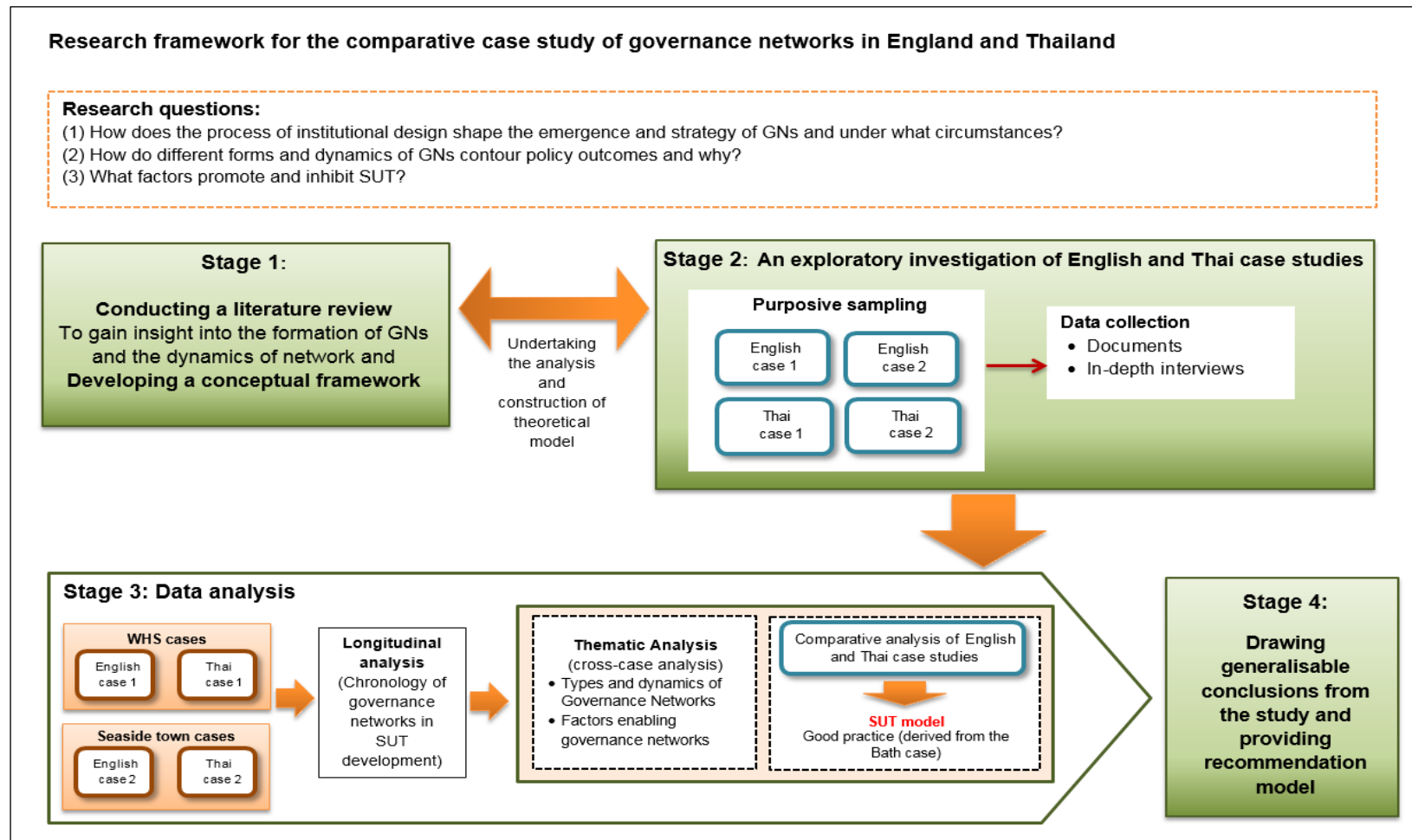
Source: developed by the researcher

2.5 Sampling design

Purposive sampling was adopted for the exploratory approach. In qualitative case studies, research cases and participants are selected for the purposive or theoretical reasons rather than statistical reasons, so that the research objectives are achieved, and the research questions are addressed (Yin, 2009; Bryman, 2012). This sampling approach was termed 'generic purposive sampling' by Bryman (2012, p. 122). Yin (2009) mentioned that access to the cases and potential data are important aspects when selecting case studies. Researchers need to ensure that they can gain permission to interview people, make observations, or review official documents. Purposive sampling also distinguishes between comparing cases that are similar and comparing cases that are as different as possible (Przeworski and Teune 1970; Peters 1998; Landman, 2008).

Careful selection of cases is crucial. In comparative urban political research, the need to take different levels of analysis into account should also influence case selection. In addition, to fully understand the role of common factors in a city's competitive success, it is important to choose and compare cases involving both successful and unsuccessful cities to maximise knowledge gain. If a researcher only studies cases about successful cities, there will be little knowledge to be gained.

Taking these issues into account, this study employed purposive sampling to select four cases in two countries. Comparative analysis of cities within the same country conveniently allows the researcher to control for a number of political and institutional variables. To be effective, a comparison of all case studies must be set in a structured and standardised fashion. Multiple-case studies yield a stronger base for building theory (Eisenhardt, 1989; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Yin, 2009). According to Yin (2009) "the evidence from multiple cases is often considered more compelling, and the overall study is therefore regarded as being more robust" (p. 53). As a result, "the propositions are more deeply grounded in varied empirical evidence" (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007, p. 27). Due to these advantages two English cases and two Thai cases were selected for study. This number of cases also resulted from resource considerations.

2.5.1 Selection of cases: the use of purposive sampling

Selection criteria

Three criteria were assigned to select cases in England and Thailand:

(1) *Relevance to conceptual framework:* The cases need to demonstrate the application of GNs and SUT by local government, private sectors, societal and other organisations.

(2) *Institutional characteristics:* The cases should be connected by similar tourism characteristics. Bath and Ayutthaya are both WHS towns, while Margate and Pattaya are both seaside towns.

(3) Enough data on GNs: The cases must demonstrate historical partnership working to provide sufficient data.

2.5.2 Rationale for case study selection

The intention was to select two pairs of cities, each sharing several characteristics - such as the development of their GNs, the importance of tourism and classification of the city as a heritage site or a seaside town. Pairing the case studies enabled a two-way comparison of the two countries; firstly, between the pairs, and secondly, between all four cases. Comparing the cases in this way could bring to light the influence of national institutional contexts as well as, reasons for variations in the extent of this influence at the local level. In addition, the comparison could provide insights into what elements determines success and failure in a tourism. Selection of cases was based on the following criteria:

(1) Capital city and post-industrial cities

(2) Heritage towns

(3) Seaside towns

The candidate cases were scrutinised by gathering relevant documents. Capital cities, heritage towns, and seaside towns have a history of SUT development. However, it was decided to select medium-to-small-sized towns in the area of heritage and seaside towns in England and Thailand, based on the assumption that they offer many of the same urban tourism 'products' and would therefore emphasise the need for a more innovative approach towards urban governance.

Capital cities of the two countries, e.g. London and Bangkok, were not selected; despite their national and international reputation in tourism, since they do not experience problems in attracting visitors. They possess, as Fainstein and Judd (1999, p. 11) call it, a sort of "place luck", enough historical and cultural significance to attract tourists without the necessity for advertising. Places without 'place luck' must make considerable efforts to transform themselves into tourism sites, as is the case here.

Four cases met the selection criteria following the use of purposive sampling: Bath and Margate in England and Ayutthaya and Pattaya in Thailand (Table 1).

Table 1: The four selected English and Thai cases, resulting from the use of the purposive sampling criteria

Criteria	English cases		Thai cases	
	Bath	**Margate**	**Ayutthaya**	**Pattaya**
Relevance to conceptual framework	Enhancing GNs and sustainable tourism	Enhancing GNs and sustainable tourism	Enhancing GNs and sustainable tourism	Enhancing GNs and sustainable tourism
Institute characteristics	Bath World Heritage Site Steering Group	Seaside town Regeneration	Historic City of Ayutthaya – UNESCO World Heritage Site	Designated Pattaya and Related Areas for Sustainable Tourism - Seaside Town
Enough data on GNs	Started collaboration in 2001	Started collaboration in 2003	Started collaboration in 1993	Started collaboration in 2007

Source: developed by the researcher

The experience of GNs in Bath in England and Ayutthaya in Thailand

Bath and Ayutthaya are WHS approved by UNESCO and offered the opportunity of examining the relationship of GNs and SUT development in the context of a WHS. The aim of comparison was to identify the key variables that help explain GN dynamics, unstable periods of partnership working and enabling factors. The comparison highlighted the importance of a strong political culture and strong partnerships. The comparison between the

experiences of both towns clearly highlighted the necessity of re-focusing on the relationship between GNs and tourism policy.

It is widely acknowledged that heritage management plays a significant role in facilitating and supporting the sustainable development of heritage tourism (Moscardo, 1996; Garrod and Fyall, 2000; Tubb, 2003; Landorf, 2009; Chhabra, 2010). Heritage tourism lends itself well to the analysis of GN in relation to SUT since the nature of heritage management requires support from numerous stakeholders which are not only working towards shared goals but also have different and sometimes contradictory agendas. WHS has created a series of problems for heritage management, resulting in what has become a nascent crisis. Tension arises between the preservationist ethos of the WHS and local authorities attempts to obtain maximum economic benefit (Pendlebury et al., 2009). The challenges of maintaining effective partnership working in GNs are discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

This study compared urban WHS in England and Thailand by investigating the planning systems; involving planning policies, the integration of management plans with planning policies; and decision-making about individual proposals, coupled with the urgent problems and conflicts of implementing WHS requirements.

The experience of GNs in Margate, England and Pattaya, Thailand

Margate and Pattaya were selected as the seaside town case studies. The evolution of seaside resorts is essentially a form of urbanisation; the process often initiates with limited tourism facilities in natural coastal locations. As coastal resorts mature, ambience deteriorates, pollution levels climb, negative social impacts increase, and questions of equity arise. While Margate has been in decline due to a decrease in tourists and population loss, Pattaya is becoming more attractive as a destination for young travellers. According to a report by the Euromonitor International in 2015, Pattaya was ranked 20th out of 100 of the world's leading cities in terms of international tourist arrivals.

Pattaya has increased economic growth, job creation, and revenue due to tourism. At the same time, there is the need to consider SUT in relation to negative social and environmental impacts. Major contributing factors include the failure of policy planning and the absence of realistic physical and social planning in resort development. Overemphasis on tourist functions at the expense of non-touristic functions and nonphysical aspects has been a constant negative theme in SUT. It is acknowledged that this is not the conscious policy of any official or semi-official body. The private sector has become a key player in driving resort development but places more emphasis on profit than socioeconomic benefit. Thus, a desired balance of development will not be gained without government intervention to ensure the well-being of

residents through the provision of affordable housing, health care, and other public services.

2.6 Data collection and undertaking the research

To improve understanding of the development of GNs and dynamics, extensive data collection was drawn from multiple sources including documentary and in-depth interviews (Flick, 2004). This approach strengthened confidence in the findings and the validity of the study (Eisenhardt, 1989; Golafshani, 2003). Content and textual analyses of several secondary resources, including promotional material, policy documents, newspapers and other relevant reports were employed. The primary source of information was, however, semi-structured interviews that were conducted in each town/city with leading decision makers from the public, private, and non-profit sector involved in GNs associated with SUT. Some interviews were conducted at the regional and national level.

According to Buchanan and Dawson (2007) valuable insights into organisational change, which is a multi-story process, are gained through the role of the researcher who provides the narratives of changes relating to sequenced and thematic accounts. However, as a result of conflicting interests, negotiations, and alignments, these narratives are often multiple and conflicting (Bacharach and Lawler, 1998). 'Multi-story' also results from the

different experiences, viewpoints, and objectives of people subjected to the change process (Buchanan and Dawson, 2007).

Taking these aspects into account, the fieldwork incorporated qualitative data collection to develop inferences. The researcher opted to use documentary evidence and in-depth interviews as the primary research instruments.

2.6.1 Documentary data sources

Document analysis is often used in combination with other qualitative research methods as a means of triangulation – "the use of multiple forms of qualitative research methods, not the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods" (Denzin, 2012, p. 82). The researcher is expected to draw upon multiple (at least two) sources of evidence to seek convergence and corroboration. Documents can be a rich source of data and are useful in providing a 'behind-the-scenes' look at subprojects and follow-up activities that relevant. The information and insight gained from documents can help researchers understand the historical roots of specific issues and can indicate the conditions that impinge upon the phenomena currently under investigation.

The researcher can also use data drawn from documents to contextualise data collected during interviews. It was planned that documentary research would be used as an instrument for initial data collection in both countries. For the English cases, gathering documents was followed by in-depth interviews and

continued throughout the investigation. This plan could not be implemented in Thailand because published documents about the cases were scarce. Thus, the author changed the strategy and interviewed key stakeholders first, followed by a request for unpublished documents.

The English cases

The documents relating to the English cases comprised of councils' documents which were obtained by accessing council websites and visiting council offices. Documents included minutes of meeting, written reports of events, administrative documents, progress reports and council newsletters, and newspapers related to their partnership working. External bodies' documents were also used, including government discussion papers, and relevant policy statements and reports by UNESCO, and council consultants' reports. These documents provided extensive amounts of background information and historical insight.

Gathering documents led to the realisation that local governments' decision-making on GN policy changes over time, depending on the different driving forces in each period. Hence, this aspect needed to be examined through a longitudinal case study instead of through a study conducted at one point in time. This prompted the researcher to seek theories that contained a temporal dimension for analysing inter-organisational working (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995). Initial analysis of the documents allowed the researcher to

identify key themes on which to focus on (Stake, 1995), specific knowledge gaps and questions that needed to be answered in interviews.

The Thai cases

In contrast to the English cases, little information is publicly available on councils' websites in Thailand. In response, the researcher visited case sites to interview key stakeholders and obtained information which was supplemented by a number of internal and official councils' documents such as meeting minutes, reports, regulations and memoranda of understanding. These documents were obtained by asking the interviewees to provide them.

2.6.2 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were deployed to obtain insights into people's experiences, feelings, and motivations (May, 2011). Unlike other methods, interviews can exemplify ideas and enhance insight and understanding (Diefenbach, 2009). They not only enable participants to answer on their own terms and based on their own experience, but also provide opportunities for the interviewer to explain the context and content of the interview (May, 2011). It is also unlikely that a question would be misunderstood because of the face-to-face interaction between interviewer and interviewees. This method also affords the interviewer greater opportunity to prepare the interviewees for sensitive questions, and to clarify complex

issues to participants (Kumar, 2014). Therefore, the employment of semi-structured interviews was considered as likely to accomplish the objectives of the research.

2.6.3 Selecting and interviewing key informants

Although it was likely to be more descriptive than statistical, the interpretive approach to qualitative data was conducted (Henn, Weinstein and Foard, 2006). "The interpretive approach assumes that human behaviour is not determined by external factors and processes that researchers can measure, but instead is shaped by the meanings people have of the world" (Henn, Weinstein and Foard, 2006, p. 15). Gray (2004) pointed out that meanings can be shaped by the interpretive reaction of people to objects and actions in the world. It can be said that people mainly focus on subjectivity concerning their interpretation of the world and their social environment rather than the environment itself.

Selection of key informants

For a SUT approach to be workable, responsibility is shared by numerous stakeholders from the tourism industry, local government, civil society, and local community. These groups and individuals have divergent interests, goals, values, and perspectives, and need to be drawn into the process of planning and development (WTO, 1993; Long, 1997; Dinica, 2009).

The input of key informants is critical to the success of a case study. Therefore, it is essential to identify and select key informants who, taken together, would represent the GN structure for tourism in each of the case studies.

Key informants can be categorised as elites who occupy strategic positions within social structures because they exhibit high competencies and are better able to exercise influence (Parry, 1998; Woods, 1998; Aberbach and Rockman, 2002; Smith, 2006; Harvey, 2011). Key informants were selected from this hard-to-reach, specialised population by purposive sampling using specific criteria. It was clear that the context of the research these people were perceived as a significant decision-making influence within and outside the organisations, and interviewing them was highlighted as a major challenge.

Interviewing elites

Interviewing elites presents unique methodological challenges when compared with interviewing non-elites (Mikecz, 2012). Studies based on elites are quite rare; most social sciences research involves "ordinary" individuals, which provides information about the "masses" to the elites, leading to an asymmetry in the distribution of knowledge (Ostrander, 1995; Welch et al., 2002; Thuesen, 2011). This thesis diminish this asymmetry by improving the flow of information in the opposite direction.

Elite interviews provide political scientists with a cost-effective method for generating unique data to investigate the complications of policy planning and politics (Dexter, 1970; Beamer, 2002). Given the ability of 'elite interviewees' to generate highly reliable and valid data, they have long been a staple of state politic research (Morehouse, 1998; Beamer, 2002). Elite interviews target people directly involved in the political process (Dexter, 1970). These individuals may have insight into the experience of causal political processes, and interviewing them allows an in-depth exploration of political issues. The resulting information offers not just the potential for a greater description of GNs in SUT, but also for more reliable and valid data for inferential purposes.

As an international student, the researcher expected that making contact with elites would be difficult. However, it went positively and smoothly. They likely realised the importance of the research, and how they could uniquely can contribute to society. The researcher's experience supports the existing literature (Zuckerman, 1972; Hunter, 1995) on the importance of thorough preparation. Laurila (1997) suggested that trust building with interviewees can be increased by representing in-depth knowledge and understanding of the research topic. It was evident to the researcher that people working in local government, especially in high positions, seemed to be good at telling stories. In contrast, officers in lower positions seemed hesitant to participate in interviews, which might reflect their role and responsibilities within the networks.

Gaining access to elites has to be carefully negotiated, which can take time and entail more cost than gaining access to non-elites. Studying two different countries posed even more challenges. Elites purposefully erect barriers that sets them apart from the rest of society (Laurila, 1997; Welch et al., 2002; Shenton and Hayter, 2004). Elites are also able to manipulate information and to deny access to it. They can command significant resources and exert influence over others. They are hard to reach and are surrounded by numerous gatekeepers. However, "without gaining access, there can be no research" (Cochrane, 1998, p. 2124).

Elite interviewees were found to be unwilling to travel to the interview and were unlikely to fit in with the researcher's schedule, which costs time and money (Conti and O'Neal, 2007; Stephens, 2007). Thus, before undertaking the fieldwork, the researcher focused on preparation to decrease the status imbalance by emphasising the "seriousness of the interviewer" (Zuckerman, 1972, p. 164) and by projecting a "positive image in order to gain their respect" (Harvey, 2011, p. 434). Due to the power, privileges, and knowledge of elites, self-presentation and background characteristics of the researcher are crucial (McDowell, 1998; Okumus et al., 2007). PhD student status with institutional affiliation is emphasised to gain access, increase credibility and reduce the status imbalance (Zuckerman, 1972; Welch et al., 2002). In-depth knowledge of the research topic and familiar with the interviewees' culture and norms of behaviour helped in gaining their trust. The Margate case revealed that knowledge of the interviewees' background, particularly those in high positions in local governments and their preferences, such as their favoured means of

communication and their willing to contribute to academic research, helped gaining access.

The interviewees associated with the four case studies in this thesis were elites from specific sectors. The aim here was to ensure that all three pillars around SUT (economic, social, and natural environments) were represented in the interview programme.

Public authorities hold the primary responsibility for sustainable development, being active in policy domains that may also influence tourism, e.g. environmental protection, cultural heritage, waste management and infrastructure development. The involvement of government agencies occurs at all levels in SUT because they are responsible for implementing policies and plans, enforcing regulations and monitoring development (Timur and Getz, 2008). Interviewees were highly visible and occupied powerful positions as senior government officials, councillors, and chief executive officers. In this research, elite interviewees included former senior government officials with considerable policymaking influence – namely, former Vice Governor, former Attorney General, and former Advisor to the Deputy Minister of Interior. The 'high level' interviews provided in depth understanding of how tourism developed including infrastructure changes, transport and labour policies and water management. In particular, local councils with planning power can give permission or suspension projects.

Non-governmental/civil society stakeholders such as community groups, environmental preservation groups, local business organizations (e.g. chambers of commerce), and resident's associations are the key informants.

Business: the research programme recognised the argument made by March and Wilkinson (2009) that there is increased attention given to the role of business relations and networks in improving the performance of the tourism industry. Therefore, it was useful to obtain the business perspective in fostering SUT, particularly in the Margate and Pattaya cases. Similarly, Craik (1990) mentioned the private sector claim that policy should be shaped by them because they take risks and provide more resources. Craik clearly demonstrated that key industry associations are able to influence government policy in a manner which meets their specific interests.

2.6.4 Conducting interviews: procedures and realities

Pilot interviews

Pilot interviews were conducted with two participants: a native English speaker who worked for the National Football Museum in Manchester, and a government officer who worked for the Office of Public Sector Development Commission in Thailand. The native English speaker ensured the questions and interview structure were well formed, whilst the government officer in Thailand ensured that the questions were relevant. The pilot interviews were

carried out to test the utility of the interview topic guide and the interview 'flow' and also proved to be very helpful in developing and improving interview skills. They were also useful in identifying potential areas of weakness in the interview. The interviews were recorded on tape, which allowed the researcher to concentrate on the conversation. The main advantage of the approach was that it allowed the researcher to identify key events and changes, and also to gain an understanding of incidents and the people involved by exploring the context in which they happened and their effect on future actions.

Conducting interviews

A total of 37 participants (see Appendix C) were interviewed in four cities in two countries – Bath and Margate in England (18 interviewees), and Ayutthaya and Pattaya in Thailand (19 interviewees). Although, face-to-face interviews are costly and time-consuming due to the travel involved, they bring many positive impacts. Unlike telephone interviews where it is easier for an interviewee to end the conversation and trust is harder to build, face-to-face interview can provide lengthier and more detailed answers (Newmann, 2000).

After finalising the interview guide, there were a number of stages in the interview process that the researcher had to consider.

Introductions and introducing the research topic:

Before undertaking fieldwork both the information sheet and a consent form were delivered to key informants by email in England and by post in Thailand to ensure that participants were fully informed and understood the objectives and the questions of the study. Each respondent was informed that their participation was voluntary and their confidentiality would be protected.

Focus on opening and conveying straightforward goals and conditions for the research (Ostrander, 1995):

The researcher stressed the importance of emphasising why interviewees "should reserve time for the discussion and how they relate to issues addressed" (Laurila, 1997, p. 410) at the early stage of making contacts via email and letter. Most interviews were conducted face-to-face mainly at the participants' offices, particularly in the Thai cases. This reflects the bureaucratic position and power of elites (Mikecz, 2012). There were four interviews conducted in coffee shops. The researcher experienced a situation Thomas (1995) acknowledged: neutral locations for the interviews have three major disadvantages: noise, interruptions, and the neutral nature itself. Despite these difficulties, the researcher gained high-quality data and invaluable information from those interviews which were conducted in neutral locations.

Beginning the interview questions with a factual focus:

Healey and Rawlinson (1993) suggested that an open question is needed in the beginning of the interview, so that the content does not stimulate the

response. This approach also provides the interviewer with more time to build trust and confidence. A common strategy when conducting interviews is that questions should move from general to more specific questions (David and Sutton, 2004; Flick, 2014). Unlike non-elite studies, in which researchers are advised to avoid using jargon, the researcher expected the elites to be accustomed to being in charge and being asked about their opinions. The interviewees had the ability to converse easily, 'just talk' and get into monologues (Mikecz, 2012). It was evident to the researcher that councillors, governors, and senior government officers were very good at telling stories.

The quality of interview design and the way the questions are asked strongly affects the answers (Healey and Rawlinson, 1993). Due to the differences between the participants' background and personality, research questions were formulated differently, depending on the interview situation. Some questions were altered as a result of new information revealed in previous interviews. Notes were made in the interview topic guide for each interview. An audio recorder was used to record answers subject to permission of the interviewees. All interviews were fully transcribed to prepare data for longitudinal, within-case analysis, and then thematic, cross-case analysis.

Shifting to in-depth questions that may solicit an emotional response and moving back into more factual, less emotional questions (Rubin & Rubin, 2005):

A semi-structured interview typically includes a few broad, guiding questions which might begin with "Tell me about . . .," They are intended to solicit

descriptive responses and general background (Qu and Dumay, 2011). In the current study, each interview was initially asked, "Tell me about your role and responsibility and why and how you are involved in this network". This typically led to an account of their perspective, motivation, commitment and contribution to the development of the GN. Questions about types and dynamic of GN often began with "How would you define nature of the partnership working?", or "To what extent can an organisation goal be achieved through partnership working?", "Are/were these decisions contested? By whom?" Guiding questions are supported by prompts, or probes, which are sub-questions that encourage the participant to expand upon an answer or redirect them back to the main topic if they get side tracked (Gillham, 2005).

Regarding the factors which influence effective GNs, the interviewees were asked to define the factors found to be vital to operation in their cases and provide examples. Respondents were asked to identify key challenges of working across boundaries. Lastly, respondents defined and characterised sustainable tourism and provided key factors influencing the balance between economic, social and environmental issues. Ending the interview with an open-ended discussion can be a useful way to check the completeness of the information acquired (Healey and Rawlinson, 1993). Before finishing, interviewees were asked if they could provide further documentation on collaborative working and suggest other key informants for interview.

The challenge of gaining access to elite participants in Thailand and England

The researcher experienced a situation Feldman, Bell and Berger (2004) acknowledged; "finding the right people to learn from was largely an issue of finding people who were willing and ready to teach. Many of the potential informants were averse to being studied or simply saw no compelling reason to get involved" (p. 8). The researcher faced some difficulties in making contact with elites in both the English, particularly in Margate and Thai cases - albeit in different ways. The following sections describe the challenges and provide guidelines for gaining access to elite participants in both countries.

The English case studies

The argument made by Mikecz (2012) that as elite interviews are very difficult (if not virtually impossible) to repeat, careful preparation, systematic planning and contacting the participants well in advance are essential to make the most of the opportunity. The researcher tried to identify the participants as well as the best medium to gain access them. Many of the key informants in English cases were selected from news items appearing, for example, in the Bath Chronicle, The Guardian and the BBC.

It was found that the English preferred written to oral communication with strangers, although the literature (Shuy, 2002; Stephens, 2007) suggests

sending formal letters, followed up by phone calls, it was decided to arrange interviews in both English cases via email. British people are very much hi-tech oriented. The whole country is covered by Wi-Fi, with super-fast broadband (Ofcom, 2015). Contacting respondents via electronic media proved the right decision, since the nonresponse rate was below 30 percent. English people tend to be formal; thus, using the correct title, such as Dr or Professor, in the initial emails was crucial. Familiarity with the respondent's background was essential, as some asked why they were chosen. Knowing their career history also helped in understanding context during the interviews, and being able to ask specific and in-depth questions. This familiarity also improved the interviewee's perception of the researcher's knowledge, which decreased the status imbalance.

In addition to the high response rate, the researcher usually received the interview participation confirmation within a few days. On the few occasions when the wait was longer, the participants included an apology. The researcher faced difficulties when making contact with Margate council, which may be related to Laurila's (1997, p. 409) argument that "managers are "doers" who by definition do not value the theoretical concepts and categories of researchers . . . Thus they share little common ground with researchers". This was not the case in the Bath study. Many respondents stated they were "happy to participate in the interview and had an interest in the contribution of tourism governance and the study".

'Flexibility' was an important factor concerning the selection of time and place of the interviews (Bryman, 2015). The participants were not all contacted at the same time; neither, were the most important participants, interviewed first in order to gain experience and confidence. It is important to note that making contact with participants a few months in advance and allowing more choices of date and time proved an effective way of gaining access to elites. Only a few participants refused to participate because of work commitments.

The original selection sometimes acted as a source of potential interviewees, as illustrated by the following:

> "Your interview request was interesting but unfortunately as a result of conflicting schedule interviewee (X) is unable to meet. However, I do know someone you should speak to. He is Mr (Y), who represents tourist destinations. He will know far more about things you are interested in. Happy for you to mention my name'.

More than two interviews were never scheduled for the same day in order to allow for last-minute changes, or in case interviews over ran allotted time slots. Although this approach increased the time and cost of the interviews programme due to additional nights spent in hotels, and high travel costs, it proved worthwhile. On average, the interviews lasted for about one hour. In some cases the interviews took longer than expected and the researcher was content to take full advantage of the interviewee's willingness to talk.

At the end of the interview, the 'snowball' sampling strategy was employed whereby key informants were asked to provide the names of other potential

interviewees (Thomas, 1995). For example, following the interview with the CEO of Bath Tourism Plus, the CEO introduced the researcher to the Bath WHS coordinator who is largely responsible for the steering group. Without using the snowball technique, potential useful data would not have been found. Some interviewees also provided the researcher with additional reading material.

The Thai case studies

While an informal approach by e-mail is acceptable to arrange interviews in England, a more formal approach was needed in Thailand. A formal letter was required with the Manchester Metropolitan University letter confirming the researcher position for arranging interviews with persons in a high position within an organisation, particularly a public or governmental organisation e.g. politicians and senior officers. This reflects the formal, hierarchical culture of Thai society, in which Thai people are expected to have a higher level of respect for people in elevated positions within society. In addition, the letter must follow the formal procedure of an organisation. Sending formal letters and following up by phone proved to be effective and led to a high response rate.

Similar to the English cases, the Thai respondents were contacted a few months in advance. One of the main problems was gaining access to elites, as a large number of 'gatekeepers' surround them. In addition, the elites have

very rigorous time schedules, which makes it difficult to arrange meetings and to secure sufficient time for a meaningful interview. Table 2 summarises the challenges in conducting interviews.

Table 2: challenges in conducting elite interviews

Issues	British cases		Thai cases
	Bath	**Margate**	
Gaining access	Informal: email and telephone	Informal: email and telephone	Formal: official letter and formal procedure of organisations and gatekeepers
2. Obtaining information	Comfortable giving information and talking about their experiences and opinions.	Unlikely to be comfortable giving information and talking about their experiences and opinions, particularly the Council.	Those in lower positions seemed uncomfortable giving information.
	People working in local government, particularly high positions seemed to be good at storytelling.		

Source: developed by the researcher

2.7 Data analysis

Following recommended procedures for an exploratory comparative case study, data analysis included two elements. The first part consisted of a narrative, temporal within-case analysis, which was used to gain familiarity with each case and to identify key themes for cross-case comparison. Each case was analysed and written up as a narrative description through a

chronological development of partnership working. The second part consisted of a thematic analysis across the cases to address the research questions. Ultimately, the cross-case studies offered a new model of effective GNs in relation to SUT. Using multiple sources of evidence in case study research allows a researcher to address a broader range of historical and behavioural issues (Yin, 2013). Therefore, the interviews were supplemented with other forms of data collection, bringing together different sources and different forms of evidence. Sources included the local media, such as the Bath Chronicle, Bath Echo, BBC News, Thanet News, and KentLive news. A detailed description of the case emerges through data collection (Stake, 1995).

2.7.1 Within-case analysis: longitudinal case studies

The compiling of chronological events is a common technique in case studies, and may take the form of a time-series analysis. The chronological sequence focuses directly on the major strength of case studies, which allows an event to be traced over time. In the English cases, documents revealed that there were situations where a past event became a key determinant of collaboration. For example, the Bath case has a decades-long history of sustainable tourism development and partnership working began in 2001. Interviews revealed an incremental process with gradual steps toward collaborative solutions. Evidently, history and the temporal dimension influence the development of GN policy and planning. Therefore, this research focussed on using

longitudinal case studies, instead of studying policy at one point in time to investigate policy management and outcomes.

2.7.2 Cross-case analysis: thematic analysis

The research compared the experience of GN processes in SUT in WH sites in Bath and Ayutthaya and seaside towns in Margate and Pattaya, respectively. The goal was to identify the key factors that help to explain prolonged periods of successful partnership working, unsteady periods of policy implementation and inhibiting factors. Thematic analysis was conducted across the cases to address the research questions and obtain details of network formation and practice. Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organises and describes data in detail and can interpret various aspects of the research topic (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.6).

A coding mechanism or process was identified and recorded for each interview to assist follow-up work and verification (Dexter, 1970). The coding process employed a theory-driven deductive approach. Theoretical concepts and research questions were used to develop a pre-defined template of codes or codebook (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006) before commencing data analysis (see Figure 2 and 3 for the predefined codes linked to the three key research questions, and Table 3 for an example of a predefined template of codes for dealing with the first question). The template was then applied to

the data. The data were organised into central themes, and then displayed in subthemes for subsequent interpretation. In addition to this deductive approach an inductive approach was used as data was read and re-read to allow for the emergence of information related to the research questions.

This exploratory study opted to use a hybrid approach of inductive and deductive thematic analysis (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006) to interpret the qualitative data. Essentially, the identification of themes on how and why GNs had formed, the types of GN, and what factors were important for effective partnership working, resulted from the use of both the theoretical framework (theory-driven deductive approach) and within-case analysis (data-driven inductive approach). The deductive approach detected the emergence of tenets of GN development, while the inductive approach allowed for themes to emerge directly from the empirical data. NVivo qualitative data analysis (QDA) computer software was used to organise and analyse data (interview transcripts and documents), systematically.

Figure 2: The predefined template of codes linked to the first and second research questions developed in NVivo

RQ 1: How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstance?

RQ 2: How do different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why?
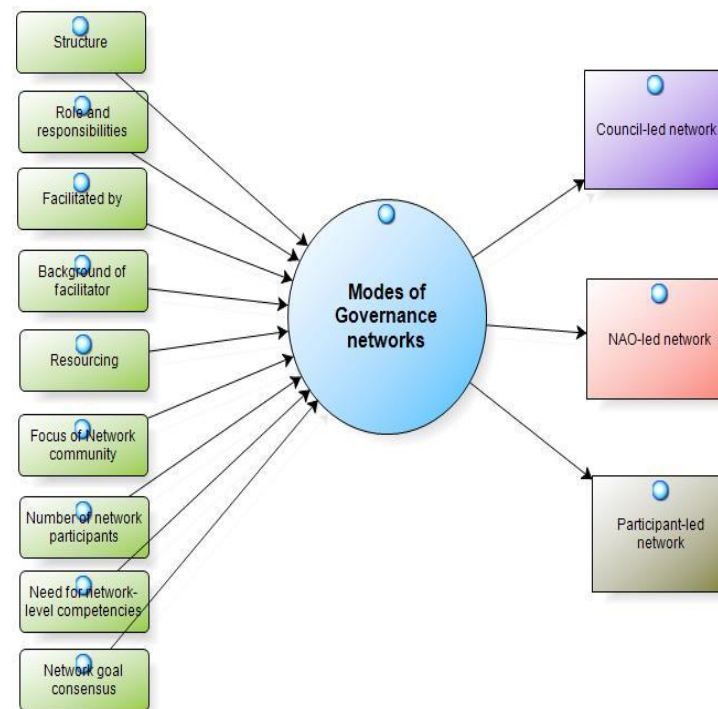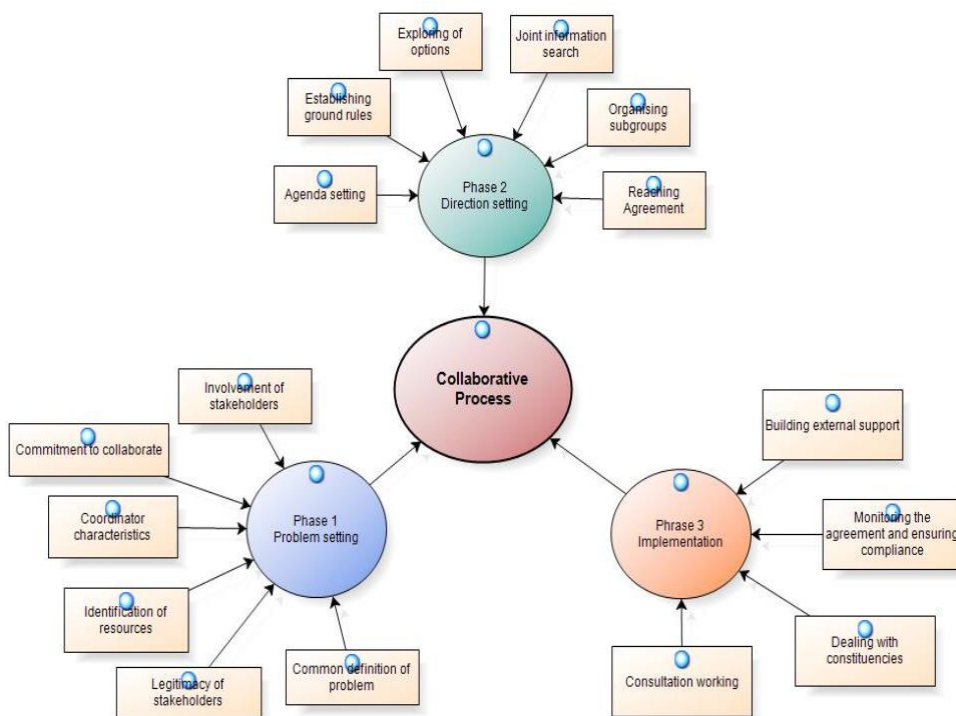
Source: developed by the researcher

Figure 3: The predefined template of codes linked to the third research questions developed in NVivo
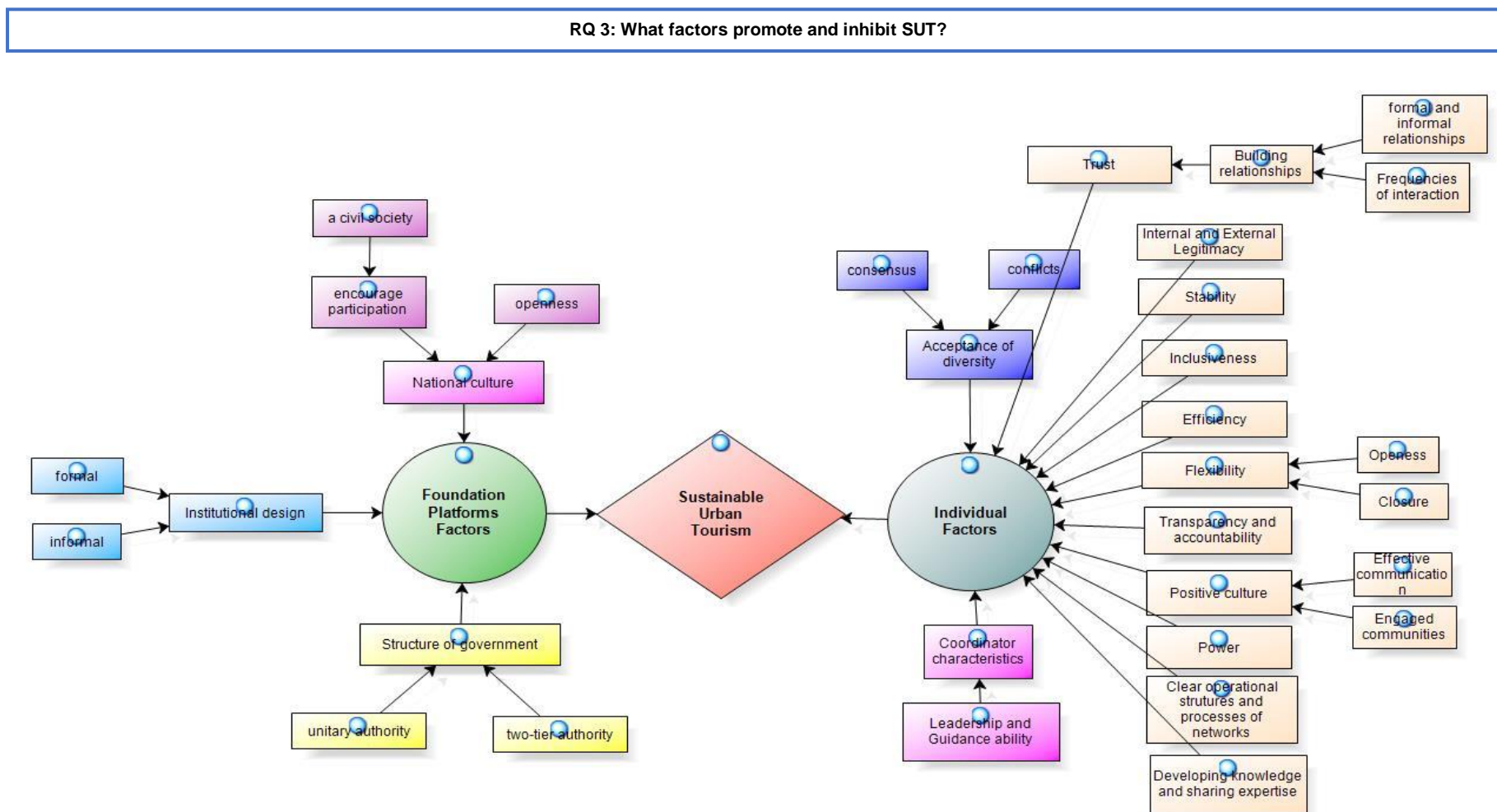
Source: developed by the researcher

Table 3: An example of a predefined template of codes, based on research questions and theoretical framework

Research Question 1: How do GNs influence SUT policies and practices?			
Theories:	**Theme**	**Sub-themes**	**Definition of themes**
collaboration theory (Gray, 1985; De Araujo and Bramwell, 2002)	**Phase 1: Developing networks**	Common Definition of Problem	The problem needs to be identified and set priority. Stakeholders need to understand and realise the importance of problems.
		Commitment to Collaborate	Stakeholders need to realise the importance of collaborating in terms of sharing resources and knowledge and eventually can solve their own problem.
		Involvement of Stakeholders	Various stakeholders are required to solve problem and achieve common goals. An inclusive process is required.
		Legitimacy of Stakeholders	It is crucial to emphasis both expertise and power relationship.
		Leader's Characteristics	Leader is the key factor in achieving collaboration. Leader should perceived as unbiased by stakeholders.
		Identification of Resources	Funds from government or foundations may be needed for less well-off organisations.
	Phase 2: Direction-Setting	Establishing Ground Rules	Equity and fair processes are needed to empower stakeholders.
		Agenda Setting	Common agenda is barely achieved when stakeholders have different motivation and objective for collaboration.
		Organising Subgroups	Smaller working groups are required.
		Joint Information Search	The joint search for information can help to reach agreement and understand others.
		Exploring of Options	Multiple options need to be considered.
		Reaching Agreement	A commitment is needed to go ahead on a particular course of action.
	Phase 3: Implementation	Dealing with Constituencies	Stakeholders need to ensure their organisation understand the compromises and support the agreement.
		Building External Support	Ensuring other organizations that implement are on-side.
		Structuring	It is important to involve voluntary efforts, but a formal organization may be needed to ensure long-term collaboration.
		Monitoring the Agreement and Ensuring Compliance	Financial negotiations are involved.

Source: Adapted from Gray (1996, pp. 61–64)

2.8 Challenges regarding the quality of case study research

Lack of rigour and limited generalisability are common concerns in case study research. The use of systematic and rigorous procedures can address such concerns and can increase the quality of research (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2009). The following sections will discuss these issues, and the methods used to improve research quality and credibility.

2.8.1 Validity

Construct validity

One of the common criticisms of case study research is that the researcher often uses 'subjective' judgement, instead of developing an appropriate operational set of measures to collect data (Yin, 2009, p.41). There is a need to obtain sufficient measurements of concepts and theoretical variables to establish implications (Yin, 2009). To increase validity, this study reviewed the established literature relevant to the three primary research questions (Chapter 1, Section 1.2), to develop an in-depth understanding of GNs and SUT, and to construct a conceptual framework before commencing data collection.

The initial analysis of documentary data for the English cases revealed that GN policy in real-life settings contained a temporal dimension. None of the existing models has the power to analyse interagency working over time. To

address this issue this study sought alternative theories that contained a temporal dimension. Consequently, the collaboration framework (Gray, 1985); and tourism planning process (De Araujo and Bramwell, 2002); typology of GNs (Provan and Kennis, 2008) were employed. The existing models, initially planned to be used as conceptual frameworks, were refined and adapted to construct an integrated conceptual framework, which was useful for investigating the development of GNs over time. The framework was subsequently used for gathering and analysing data and drawing findings and conclusions. This study also employed multiple sources of evidence to enhance the validity of the research (Yin, 2009).

2.8.2 Reliability

The research was carried out systematically and rigorously to achieve reliability and minimise errors and bias (Stake, 1995; Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2009). The study employed appropriate sampling techniques through carefully selected cases and participants. Therefore, bias in sampling was avoided (Hakim, 2000; Creswell, 2007). All stages of the research were properly recorded and documented as a further indicator of reliability. It is not claimed that the study areas chosen are typical in any statistically significant way but collectively they can nevertheless contribute to a greater understanding of the benefits of GNs in SUT.

This research generated a sophisticated theoretical framework which then provided a means of establishing the research design, selecting appropriate

methods for data collection and analysis, and generalising the findings. The framework effectively functioned as a standard research tool which enhanced the validity and reliability of the case study.

2.8.3 Generalisability

Generalisability refers to the extent to which research findings can be generalised to populations beyond the particular research context (Bryman, 2015). Generalisability was tested by conducting four case studies focusing on the same issues in a number of settings, using the same data collection and analysis procedures in each case. Multi-case studies can help specify the different conditions under which a theory may or may not hold (De Vaus, 2001). Multi-site case studies are normally more powerful and convincing, and provide more insights, than single-case designs. Investigating four case studies ensured that any correlations found around GNs would be more convincing, and diminished the impact of a third factor being an independent variable.

2.8.4 Ethical considerations

The research was conducted in accordance with ethical research guidelines. In terms of data collection, the participants were received acknowledged informed consent form before interview and the interview were voluntary. Participants' anonymity was respected and all responses were confidential. All interviewees clearly understood that the research was independent. This

approach eased concerns about information that could be considered sensitive by the interviewee.

A valid ethical evaluation of this research exists, which received approval from the University's Research and Knowledge Exchange. The information sheet and the consent form (see Appendix B), provided key information including the central purpose of the study; the uses of the research; the confidentiality of information; the benefit expected from the study; the anonymity of participants; the participation as voluntary; the right of participants to withdraw; and the time required for the interviews. These documents were sent by email in England and post in Thailand to interviewees prior to the interview, so that participants could confirm that their participation was voluntary and that their confidentiality would be protected. The consent form was signed by both the interviewee and the interviewer during the fieldwork and prior to commencing the interviews.

To protect confidentiality, the interviewees were only asked about their experiences and opinions relevant to the research questions. The data was stored and analysed in a confidential way. The specific details of interviewees, that could make a participant identifiable, were not included in any written work. Interview records and observation data were stored and used for the purpose of this study only (the Data Protection Act, 1998 cited in Bryman, 2012, p.137).

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter has justified employing an exploratory trans-national comparative case study approach, using a number of theoretical perspectives to understand the realities of GNs in relation to SUT in two different countries. The chapter explained how the research methods informed the total research process and how systematic procedures were employed for conducting the exploratory case studies. The practical realities and challenges of undertaking the study in two different countries and with elite participants were presented in detail. The resulting information offered not only a richer description of the development of GN processes, the dynamics of GNs, the crucial importance of leadership and decision-making and their perspective in enhancing SUT, but also more reliable and valid data.

CHAPTER 3

UNDERSTANDING THE DEVELOPMENT OF GOVERNANCE NETWORKS AND SUSTAINABLE URBAN TOURISM: THE INTEGRATED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the overarching research question that informed the integrated conceptual framework (Figure 4) utilised in this study: '*How exactly do governance networks (GNs) influence sustainable urban tourism (SUT) policies and practices?*'. The next section addresses the first question: '*How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances?*' and the second question: '*How do the different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why?*', final section reviews literature relating to the last question: '*What factors promote and inhibit effective sustainable urban tourism?*'. The primary aims of this literature review were:

(1) to show how academic theory shaped the research reported in this thesis;

(2) to explore the connections between GNs and SUT;

(3) to critically examine the key factors enabling and inhibiting GNs in SUT.

As mentioned the key themes from the literature shaped the research project and design of the questionnaire.

This chapter was divided into five main sections. Section 3.2 defined the key themes from the literature. Section 3.3 considered policy networks (PNs) and asks how the process of institutional design shapes the emergence and strategy of GNs – and under what circumstances. It considered theories of power and the state, as well as the influence of the latter, and examined macro- and meso-levels of analysis to develop theoretical concepts for GNs. Section 3.4 defined urban tourism and considered the characteristics of heritage and seaside towns tourism. Section 3.5 focused on the modes of governance, and asked how and why different types of GN influence SUT. It considers the conditions that result in the success or failure of GNs, as well as the ways in which the different national cultures of England and Thailand influence decision-making and administration. Finally, section 3.6 examined factors that enable and inhibit the promotion of GNs, and further explored the factors that influence SUT.

Figure 4 illustrated the theories and concepts that can be employed as analytical frameworks to investigate the emergence of GNs.

Figure 4: The conceptual framework of GNs
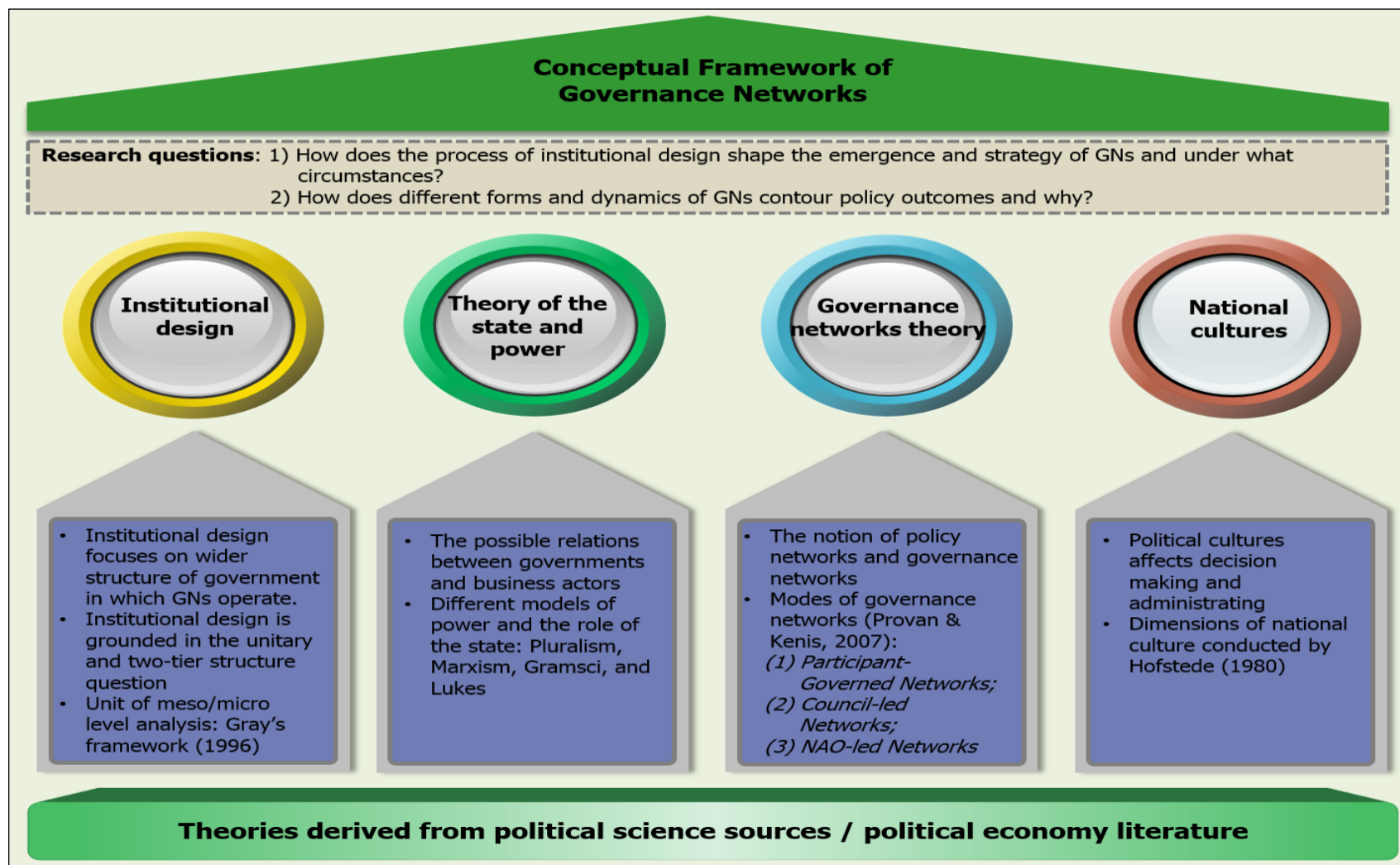
Source: developed by the researcher

3.2 Defining governance networks: key themes from the literature

GNs have been perceived as a suitable mechanism for guiding sustainable development in this age of complexity yet uncertainty (Sørensen and Torfing, 2007). GNs can be defined in various ways (Table 4). Marsh and Rhode's (1992) definition of GNs as "a limited number of participants, frequent interaction, continuity, value consensus, resource dependence, positive-sum power games, and regulation of members" (p. 23) is widely accepted. Koppenjan and Klijn (2004, pp. 69–70) defined the formation and interaction of GNs in a similar way: "more or less stable patterns of social relations between mutually dependent actors, which form around policy program and/or cluster of means and which are formed, maintained and changed through a series of games". Private, semi-public and public actors are involved in GNs and are likely to be dependent on each other's resources and capacities. However, independent operation is essential (Rhodes, 1985; Marin and Mayntz, 1991).

GNs can be distinguished from alternative hierarchical and market models in three ways. First, the relationships between participants in partnerships or networks are autonomous; they actively interact to achieve public preference rather than being authorised by a central authority nor pressured by self-interested stakeholders, such as those involved in competitive regulation seen in a business models (Stoker, 1995; Hodge and Greve, 2005; Osborne, 2000). Second, decision-making is collaborative and involves a negotiated process

that allows a plurality of stakeholders to produce joint decisions and mutual solutions. However, the drawback is that divergence of interests may result in conflicts (Mayntz 1993; McLaverty, 2002; Edelenbos and Klijn, 2005). Finally, stakeholders are likely to acquiesce with negotiated decisions based on a desire to build trust and on political obligation, which can subsequently maintain networks by creating self-regulation and norms (Bovaird, 2005; Bouckaert and van der Walle, 2003).

Table 4: Different terms and definitions of GNs

Author	Term	Definition and characteristics of GNs
Dubini and Aldrich (1991)	Networks	Patterned relationships among individuals, groups and organisations.
Gerlach and Lincoln (1992)	Alliance capitalism	Strategic, long-term relationships across a broad spectrum of markets.
Alter and Hage (1993)	Interorganisational networks	Unbounded or bounded clusters of organisations that are non-hierarchical collectives of legally separate units.
Kreiner and Schultz (1993)	Networks	Informal interorganisational collaborations.
Rhodes (1997)	Governance/ network governance	Governing with and through networks, characterised by interdependence between organisations, continuing interactions, game-like interactions and autonomy.
Klijn and Koppenjan (2000)	Governance networks	Mutual dependence between actors, sustainable relations, veto power, distribution of resources between

Author	Term	Definition and characteristics of GNs
		actors, rules and regulations, closeness of networks.
Sørensen and Torfing (2005)	Governance Network	Governance network is a horizontal process. Autonomous but based on interdependence. Stakeholders interact through negotiation, trade-off, and interactive decision making.
Klijn (2008)	Governance networks	Interactive policy making between government, business and civil society players, but no guaranteed equality.
Provan and Kenis (2008)	Network governance	Networks are collaborations between autonomous bodies to accomplish each organisation's goals and ultimately shared goals.
Emerson et al. (2012)	Collaborative governance	The processes and structures of public policy decision-making and management that engage people constructively across the boundaries of public agencies, level of government and/or the public, private and civic spheres, in order to carry out a public purpose that could not otherwise be accomplished.

Source: developed by the researcher

Table 4 illustrates that the key theme of GNs is the complex intersectoral operating process and negotiation in a network of governmental organisations and other organisations (including private, not-for-profit and civil society),

which are based on interdependencies of resources but inequitable is inevitably.

GNs involve linkages and overlap between the political and economic arenas and to recognise different forms and outcomes of networks (Agranoff and McGuire, 2003; Skelcher et al., 2005; Torfing and Marcussen, 2007). The crucial challenge, according to Stoker (1995), is to connect local and non-local sources of policy change and to place any analysis within the context of wider processes of change. Taking a GN approach allowed the researcher to do exactly this.

The following section draws upon the concept of policy networks (PNs) to examine the meso-level of governance. Meso-level theory can explain resources, direction and power relations between governance participants through PNs. For example, a neopluralist perspective characterises the Bath case where more powerful stakeholders deliver the project and received and distributed funding from the centre.

3.3 PNs and the link with GNs: how does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances?

The concept of GNs is assumed to have evolved from the notion of PNs. Both concepts recognised the significance of the interactions between stakeholders in policy making processes in both formal and informal ways (Blanco,

Lowndes, and Pratchett, 2011). The PNs tradition informs about the inclusion and exclusion of stakeholders through the differences of power in horizontal networks and in the context of agenda and problem definition (Börzel, 1997; Peters, 1997). The interactive decision-making in PNs can be traced back to the notion of power in agenda formation (Dahl, 1961; Cobb and Elder, 1972; Kingdon, 1984).

PN theories are considered to be necessary in the study of policymaking because they provide a valuable counterbalance to the 'optimistic' GN literature, which tends to underestimate the elites' continued hold over policy making and to overstate the extent to which networks represent a 'new stage' in the evolution of governance (Calhoun, 2000).

Many scholars consider a meso-level approach is required to understand the conditions of policy outcome based on interactive policymaking and power relation between stakeholders (Rhodes, 1988; Marsh and Rhodes 1992; Marsh and Smith, 2000; Shand, 2013).

Meso-level theory can explain how the structure of policy networks can be shaped by exogenous factors which affect the distribution of resources and relationships of the players within networks (Marsh and Smith, 2000). Pluralism and neo-pluralism perspectives are employed to explore how powerful stakeholders competition to embrace greater resources (Marsh and Rhodes, 1992). View this way, tensions and conflicts can be arising as a result of exogenous changes.

To understand the relationship of the various actors within the networks, Dowding (2001) suggests that network analysis can be employed to measure and generate empirical rather than descriptive findings. However, Dowding fails to explain the power relationship among stakeholders. Therefore, a decentred approach is undertaken to explain how players perceive and interpret their own role (Bevir and Richards, 2009). This allows researchers to obtain a bottom-up perspective on meaning in action through conducting interviews where different people see a particular situation that make sense in ways to themselves (Bevir and Richards, 2009).

Bevir and Rhodes (2006) developed the 'differentiated policy model' (DPM) to emphasise political exchange of resources and information. Marsh (2011) challenged the DPM model by introducing an 'asymmetric power' model to interpret, in critical realistic terms, the actors' role in a system of structured inequality. Marsh (2011) argues that DPM fails to explain the inequality of resources, while power and central government still plays powerful part. Viewed in this way, a segmented governance pattern is likely to be seen as pluralistic interpretation rather than neo-pluralist as suggested by Rhodes.

Marsh et al. (2003) argued that government is the most important stakeholders because they embrace more resources and authority to establish legitimacy. Therefore, they have more influence in the networks and also make decision about the inclusiveness of partners. Unlike the Westminster model, interest groups, particularly those which hold significant resources play an important

role in policy making. In such cases, the processes are not dominated or heavily influenced by the state and central government.

While Bevir and Rhodes (2008) argued that power is structured between elites, Marsh's (2008) analysis criticises the DPM model, suggesting that power inequality between partners within the policy networks can arise because of the stakeholders' role and reflect exogenous factors such as position and status. Such asymmetries can both constrain and facilitate the actions and likely success of individuals and interest groups in British policy. It is likely that government with greater resources have more influence in networks and control the inclusiveness of stakeholders. Therefore, it is considered there is a need to decrease their role (Bevir and Rhodes, 2008; Marsh et al., 2003).

Marsh et al. (2003) supported Rhodes' contention that the process of governing has become more complex due to increased involvement of various stakeholders such as public and private sectors, civil society and other agencies in delivery of public services. However, government still controls resources, power and legitimacy compared with other organisations. Hence, it is recognised that asymmetrical relationships between government and stakeholders is primary concern. Viewed in this way, the power structure involving government and stakeholders is asymmetrical and to provide a fuller account of British and Thai governance networks, there is a need to acknowledge and explore that asymmetry.

Drawing upon this policy networks and governance literature, the flow of resources can be examined using the Asymmetric Power Model, which emphasises the control of resources by a few powerful actors. Marsh et al. (2003) set out this framework with the example of government departments, yet it can be equally well applied to the key agency drivers favoured by government to oversee and implement urban tourism. The favouring of certain projects therein demonstrates the power and preparedness of government to assert and define control through resource allocation. This neo-pluralist approach to governance in the UK was clearly articulated by Marsh et al. (2003). A large number of actors in a network may result in disaggregation taking place and function being hollowed out to certain actors, as Bevir and Rhodes suggests in the DPM (2008). The extent to which the centre is set to concede function to other stakeholders is a controversial in the policy networks literature (Katzenstein, 1987; Taylor, 2000; Schmidt, 2003), and is expected to have a major influence on the structure and performance of governance models which were place in the selected case studies.

While European literature critically observes the management and role of network relations, the UK literature seeks to investigate power relationships between pressure groups and central and local governments in the UK. This is closer to pluralist theory (Marsh and Rhodes, 1992; Gains, 2003). Governance is essentially about power. The study of power distribution is vital in analysing the political dimensions and resource dependencies of tourism, because some agencies have more resources, autonomy and influence than

others on government policy making (Hill, 1997; Hay, 1998; Dredge and Jenkins, 2007).

The following section examines macro- and meso-level analyses to understand governmental relations with other tiers of government and various partners, and investigate the linkages and power relationships.

3.3.1 Theories of power and the state: the relationship between government and GNs

A basic assumption underlying this research is that the structure and culture of GNs operating in tourism strongly influences the success of developing and implementing SUT strategies. This section largely focuses on the role and activities of the state that affect SUT in England and Thailand. Lasswell (1936) suggests that decisions affecting the regulation of the movement of capital and people; the nature of state involvement in tourism; the institutional structures of tourism development; management, marketing and the selection of state-sanctioned place images all emerge from a political process.

There are many reasons why the state is often the most significant influence in governance. The state is expected to work for the collective interests of the population, and is politically accountable for its actions in democratic systems (Yüksel, Bramwell, and Yüksel, 2005). As regards sustainable tourism, government is expected to provide a forum to coordinate and integrate activities across a variety of policy issues. To enhance tourism, the state

inevitably intervenes in tourism planning in terms of economic expansion, power permission and marketing (Jessop, 2016). State and public authorities play dominant role in sustainable tourism policy (Wearing and Neil, 2009).

Many scholars suggest that over the last 30 years, the state has played a diminishing role in many countries (Rhodes, 1994; Sala, 1997; Roberts and Devine, 2003). The political direction has changed such that the state operates through a multiplicity of 'arm's-length' relationships, as found in the U.K. and U.S. public administration. Consequently, there has been an increasing role for agencies, including partnership bodies, the voluntary sector, and quasi-markets. The representative politic of government along with austerity and accountable governance has been changed to a form that is driven by public engagement, opinion, and consultation, legitimate opposition and criticism. However, many scholars argue that the state under neoliberalism continues to be integrated in tourism governance (Newman and Clarke, 2009). The state retains its dominant role through regulatory control and planning permission powers over many organisations (which initially may appear independent of it) and performs many functions which initially it may seem to have lost (Jessop, 2008; Newman, 2010; and Bramwell, 2010). The state's continuing influence in planning processes can occur, for example, through government steering of new agencies and prioritising goals. The steering role might be achieved through the state's use of contracts; competition for funding; performance indicators, audits and reviews (Kokx and van Kempen, 2010). Therefore, the state still plays an influential role in partnership working.

3.3.2 Theories of State

Theories of state have developed as a central linking element in contemporary political science and have guided research in a diverse range of fields. This thesis was conducted to explore asymmetry within networks and examine how the state influences other stakeholders.

Pluralism vs. elite theory

Pluralism is based on liberal and democratic ideas. The growth of cities has resulted in urban governance becoming more complex and pluralistic in form (Harding, 1995). Judge (1995) suggests that urban planning and decision-making requires a pluralist approach with an open political system accessible to every active and organised group. Waste (1986) also suggests that urban development was an arena more likely to appear pluralistic. Thus, power within modern societies is dispersed, fragmented, and decentralised to a degree where all groups have some resources. This contrasts with elite theory where not all groups have equal power and opportunities or access to resources. A small group of individuals in this model is able to exert more influence on urban decision-making than others (Judge, 1995).

Pluralism, defined as the dispersion of power within modern societies to a degree where all groups have some resources, is based on liberal and democratic ideas. Jordan and Richardson (1987) pointed out that pluralism

may be closed, but still opens opportunities to involve pressure groups and interests. Pluralists address the question of who has the power to influence policy decisions and to resist opposition (Bachrach and Baratz, 1962). Thus, Dahl and other pluralists have adopted this dimension of power. The contradictory between pluralism and elite theories runs through the literatures and will shape the evaluation and findings of the research.

Marxism

Unlike pluralism in which power in society is equal dispersed, Marxists point out that economic production is of primary importance in a capitalist society. This inevitably results in class conflict as a dominant few who own the means of production are able to accumulate resources to pursue their long-term interests and exploit the masses (Marsh and Stoker, 2002). Castells (1978) suggests that role of the state needs to be focus on regulation, subsidy and service delivery rather than responding to capital preferences. Dunleavy and O'Leary (1987) are critical of local government being pluralist. They argue that if this were the case then there would be a greater variation in the level, quality and variety of policies between local authorities. Instead, policy over large areas is influenced by public sector professionals who influence fashions nationally and which are adapted with little variation between authorities. From a Marxist perspective, the state offers long-term, collective interests of capital (Jessop, 2000).

Gramsci (1971) developed the notion of hegemony to support the understanding of class rule. Gramsci suggests that the state consists of an entire complex of political and theoretical activities within which the ruling class not only justifies and maintains its dominance, but manages to win the active consent of those whom it rules (Gramsci, 1971). Poulantzas (1978) further argued that individual actors within the state are not autonomous but respond to structural changes within the state. Miliband (1973) also acknowledged the important of the state but suggested individuals played a greater role in policy-making. Miliband argued that during a period of economic growth the state is more autonomous and responds to different classes in society. In contrast, during periods of economic crisis, the state responds to dominant classes which owns the means of production (Miliband, 1973). Miliband argues that both elites from the capitalist sector and the states apparatus share similar backgrounds and have the same objectives, of advancing the interests of the capitalist class.

Neo-pluralism

The pluralist perspective stresses on the political processes which assert directly or indirectly the domination of one group over another (Dahl, 1961). Neopluralism argues strongly for a reconsideration of the dominant views on firms, economies and governments in international political economy. Neopluralism integrates various inputs from multiple-elite and civil society movements (Mcfarland, 2007) and focuses on the scramble for control of policy outcomes among competing – and colluding – hierarchies, elites and

Foucauldian 'circuits of power' (Foucault, 1980). It is more a mixture of plural elitism, meso- or micro-corporatism and conflict theory, including parts of a relatively disaggregated state (Slaughter, 2004), especially the 'depleted state' of the neoliberal era (Lodge, 2013). There are basic principles which neopluralism uses to examine the complex interaction between many units with their own subjective interests, often with many interlinked issue-areas, which provoke observable changes. In this way, power and policy-making are increasingly shared and diffused as a number of actors emerge to the detriment of the monopoly of state theory. Globalisation has reinforced the causal power of non-state (Strange, 1996). There is an emphasis on structural power of non-state actors, particularly business sectors in shaping policies with the state (Mosley, 2003; Bell, 2005). However, business capacity alone cannot determine the outcomes of political and economic policies (Guzzini, 1993).

Economic factors

The state assumes a significant role in regulating economic and political systems in order to diminish instabilities and prevent crises (Jessop, 1990). The link between tourism and economic growth means that the state usually takes a primary role in influencing governance and SUT (Harvey, 2009). Purcell and Nevins (2005, pp. 212–213) suggest that "In order to maintain political legitimacy and effective authority over its people, the state must reproduce a politically stable relationship between state and citizen". The importance of society's materialist basis means that a key role for the state is

intervention to encourage capital accumulation and economic expansion in tourism areas (Jessop, 1997, 2002; Bevir, 2008).

However, the state may intervene and prioritise income generation to the state, then environmental, heritage conservation and socio-cultural priorities may be abandoned (Jessop, 2008; Harvey, 2009). Bramwell (2004) suggested that "the intense commercial pressures to gain immediate economic returns mean that the tourism sector often opposes government interventions that aim to protect the environment" (p. 34). For example, the Trump administration provides a good illustration of how environmental policies are now being abandoned in the US to maximise business interest's freedom to do as they wish, in contrast with the more balanced approach of Obama that recognised the importance of sustainability and was willing to curtail the power of energy companies.

Network approach

The pluralist model, as discussed previously, suggests that interest group representation is various and fragmented and expected to be an equal balance of power between interests. The pluralist model argues that state play a lesser role in shaping policy. In practice, many decisions have been made and authorised by authority groups (John and Cole, 1998).

However, the approach can be linked to the neo-pluralist principle that policy makers and civil society are unequal participants in the policy process

(Lindblom, 1982). Policy is shaped by a few powerful actors. The second network approach has been corporatism. The approach emphasises the relationships between government and elite actors, particularly the areas of economic policy. Policy decisions are made through those powerful groups (Evans, 1995).

The concept of policy networks has focus principally on two levels of analysis. The first is a meso-level analysis as it emphasises the structural relationship between political institutions in a policy network. This model addresses the relationship between the broader questions about the distribution of power within urban society and the impact of inter-institutional networking on urban policy decisions (Rhodes, 1981).

Power

The question of who has power is crucial in any social formation – such as the state or a network. Lukes (1974) classifies three dimensions of power that can be used to explain policymaking. The first dimension locates power by focusing on decisions made at a local level. The pluralist model applies here since the agenda is open, negotiation is key and one group is rarely dominant. (Dahl, 1961; Debnam, 1984). The second dimension of power arises when issues are not open for public scrutiny and debate, and demands for change do not enter the political arena (Bachrach and Baratz, 1962, 1970). One group is structurally dominant and controls the agenda. Lukes (1974) pointed that the third dimension of power may be revealed when it is not in accordance

with an individual or group's "real interest" (Lukes, 1974, pp. 24-25). This is a concept similar to Marxist ideas of false consciousness (Hyland, 1995) and Gramsci's concept of hegemony (Lukes, 2005).

The research is cognisant of how different models of power and the role of the state can influence policy generation and outcomes. The case studies of World Heritage Site (WHS), tourism in Bath and Ayutthaya, provided an opportune setting in which to investigate Lukes' dimensions of power and the role of power in shaping policy preferences (Hall, 2006). Institutional representations and reconstructions of heritage do not reflect the local community. Particular ideologies are represented to the tourist through museums, historic houses and monuments, guided tours, public spaces, heritage precincts, and landscapes in a manner that may act to legitimise current social and political structures (Norkunas, 1993).

3.3.3 Institutional design

This thesis critically examines the role of institutions in GNs associated with SUT since different models of governance not only reflect the different political orientations but also the success of partnership working which affects the achievement of set policy goals. The concept of institutional design is linked to a renewed interest in institutions and the emergence of the institutionalist approach in planning theory at the turn of the century (DiMaggio and Powell, 1991; Healey, 1999).

The structure of GNs varies depending on the national and local context to mirror norms, values, ideas, and practices. This leads to different policy choices and outcomes. For over a decade, many attempts have been made by various governments to diminish the problems of both the 'command and control methods' and 'competitiveness' models of governance. The literature on UK governance is dominated by two contrasting aspects of assumptions. The first assumption drawn from Rhodes (1996, 1997), emphasises horizontal relations in terms of autonomous, and self-governing networks, which are becoming removed from influence and control by the central state. However, Davies (2003, 2005), Bache (2003), Marinetto (2003) argued that the state still retains power over local authority.

From one perspective, GNs are the result of institutional incentives designed to promote collaboration – as happens, for instance, when the funding of a program is conditional upon the existence of a partnership. Historical or time-related factors may also play a significant role in institutional design. Van Thiel (2004) argues that prior decisions to establish an agency, rather than political or economic conditions, were decisive factors in agency creation.

On many occasions, institutional designs mediated through hierarchical, unitary/two-tier structures directly affect the role of stakeholders such as local government (Shand, 2013). GNs dominated by private business interests will create different urban policies and outcomes from those dominated by other participants (Marsh and Olsen 1989, 1996). Effective organization of urban governance reflects the values and interests of the local community.

Therefore, the complex web of economic, social, political, and historical factors plays a crucial role in shaping GNs. Institutional transformation can also be shaped by long-lasting interactions between stakeholders who seek to manage conflicting interests (Blatter, 2003).

Chisholm (2000) argued that unitary authorities or single-tier authorities provide a holistic views of planning processes, co-ordination of service provision, clearer accountability, more streamlined decision-making, and greater cost efficiency. GNs operating in a two-tier council structure are expected to be burdened with proportionately higher administration costs (Andrews and Boyne, 2009). Sullivan et al., (2006) argued that tensions can be raised between different tiers because of sharing time, resources and responsibility in dealing with local issues. The case studies conducted in this research involved a single -tier council, Bath & North East Somerset, and an upper/lower-tier local represented by Kent County Council and Thanet District Council. This selection allowed comparison of the influence of institutional design on the development of SUT.

3.3.4 Unit of meso-level analysis

A meso-level approach is useful to understand how networks shape different policy outcomes and highlights the structural relationship between political institutions. It also helps in understanding how power is distributed within networks and the impact of inter-institutional networking on urban policy decisions (Rhodes, 1981; Marsh and Smith, 2000). Network relationships are perceived as a 'game' in which each player uses its resources such as financial, political and information, to influence policy outcomes while remaining self-governing (Rhodes, 1981). Rhodes (1981) suggests that to achieve collective goals, stakeholders are required to exchange resources, contribute to decision making within networks and retain deliberation.

The English and Thai case studies were evaluated using Gray's framework of issues and phases in partnerships to investigate factors which affected the formation of effective partnerships. An evaluation was also made of whether or not the initiatives involved a broad range of interest groups. Based on the findings of the study, a framework was created to assist in evaluating the dynamics of other tourism partnerships.

The previous section focussed on the structure and performance of GNs and their potential advantages for enhancing policy planning and implementation. The following section draws upon the literature to provide an understanding of SUT and its importance, the potential benefits of GNs in SUT and the factors which promote and inhibit SUT.

3.4 Urban tourism

Sustainable development is a key aim of urban tourism (Bassett, 1993; Garrod and Fyall, 2000; Hall 2009), which lends itself well to governance network analysis. Monument preservation and cultural protection must be balanced with the economic, political, social, and environmental needs of cities. Successful development requires support from various stakeholders, working towards shared goals.

Urban tourism is a key factor in promoting economic development and increasing employment opportunities. However, managing urban tourism is becoming complex and highly challenging as a result of rapid changes in metropolitan areas and public preferences. As urban tourism encompasses numerous activities and stakeholders the focus of the research was confined to an analysis of GN structure and performance in relation to WHS and seaside towns in England and Thailand.

Defining urban tourism

The term 'urban tourism' simply denotes tourism in urban areas, where settlements are considered larger and dependent on activities such as manufacturing and services and possibly large-scale mining (UNWTO, 2002).

Tourism is just one of many economic activities within a city and must compete with other industries for resources such as labour and land (Edwards et al, 2008). The growth of urban tourism brings economic, infrastructure and social benefits (Timur and Gets, 2008) but planning and policy-making processes are consequently made more complex by the necessary engagement between tourism and the multiplicity of public and commercial organizations involved (Law, 1996). Finally, urban tourism is subject to a complex mix of constraints on development, with national environmental factors being generally less significant and cultural heritage and residential factors more significant than in other forms of tourism (Timur and Gets, 2008).

Heritage tourism

Heritage tourism is defined as an economic activity that makes use of sociocultural assets to attract visitors (Fyall and Garrod, 2008). Local traditions and community heritage are key factors attracting tourists, and heritage tourism embraces folklore traditions, arts and crafts, ethnic history, social customs and cultural celebrations (Hollinshead, 1988).

World Heritage Sites Tourism

World heritage properties are areas or sites of outstanding universal value (OUV) recognised under the Convention for the Protection of the World's Cultural and National Heritage (the World Heritage Convention; WHC),

adopted at a United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) conference in 1972. The WHC is one of the pinnacles of world conservation. Its aim is to provide an administrative, financial and legal framework for the protection of areas, or sites of OUV, on which WHS status is bestowed. These sites must meet certain cultural and/or natural criteria and pass tests of integrity and authenticity. UNESCO encourages engagement by the local community and international cooperation in conservation of the world's cultural and natural heritage. These principles are included as a component of World Heritage Sustainable Tourism, the role of which seeks to develop best-practice policy guidance for the management of tourism in World Heritage properties. Sites nominated for WHS status must have a detailed management plan and a strong legal framework as part of the nomination documents (Shackley, 1998). There is also a requirement for ongoing improvement of WHS management and conservation plans following WHS listing (Bianchi, 2002; Smith, 2002).

From a tourism perspective, WHS designation is perceived as an international top brand for attracting visitors and spending, but this is by no means certain because visitors have different interests (Buckley, 2004). From a conservation perspective, there are concerns that WHS listing will provoke increases in visitor numbers and have an impact that diminishes the quality of the site. Local residents who are not involved in tourism may be concerned about social impacts and the competition for recreational amenities.

Seaside town tourism

Coastal areas are transitional areas between land and sea. They are characterised by very high biodiversity and include some of the richest and most fragile ecosystems on earth, including mangroves and coral reefs (Abir, 2013). As a result of rapid growth in urbanization, some coastal areas are under pressure due to population increases. More than half of today's world population lives in coastal areas (within 60 km of the sea), and this number is continuing to rise (UNWTO, 2008).

During the 20th century, seaside towns changed their role from hospitable places to fostering the economy. Seaside towns are the most visited by tourists; indeed, in many seaside areas tourism is the most important economic activity, such as the Mediterranean islands of Cyprus, Malta, the Balearic Islands and Sicily (Abir, 2013). However, the massive influx of tourists has also brought negative impacts to small areas, for example increases in pollution, traffic congestion, waste and water problems and insufficient infrastructure.

In many areas, over development of tourism, namely establishing airports, ports, and hotels has created many problems, including social inequity. In some areas economic and physical impact have gained more attention from urban planners and policy makers than cultural and social impacts.

3.4.1 Sustainable urban tourism

SUT is perceived as a balanced approach between economic development, social demands and environmental protection (Spangenberg, 2004; Hovik, 2005). SUT requires sensible policies which should be contested by different stakeholders to strike a balance by negotiation to avoid overemphasis on one dimension at the expense of another.

Müller (1994) argues that the ideal situation is balanced tourism development in which no single element predominates. In contrast, Hunter (1997) argued that the concept of balancing all goals is unrealistic. Additionally, Hunter (1997) argues that the balance of urban tourism "need not (indeed should not) imply that these often competing aspects are somehow to be balanced" (p. 859). In reality, trade-offs or negotiation between competing interests will almost certainly produce priorities (Hunter, 1997). Thus, SUT could be seen as a strategic process through which conflicting or diverse interests may be accommodated. Part of the research reported in this thesis attempted to confirm that GNs operating in the pluralist paradigm are more likely to be conducive to the development of successful SUT strategies.

Figure 5: Characteristics of SUT

Sustainable Urban Tourism

Factors promote Sustainable Urban Tourism: Institutional designs and planning systems, clear role and responsibility, trust, leadership skills, effectiveness and legitimacy, balance between conflicts and consensus

1 **Environmental Sustainability**
- ensure long-term environmental quality
- strengthen of resilience to disasters and climate change
- avoid depletion or degradation of natural resources

2 **Inclusive Social Development**
- promote equity, reduce social and economic inequalities
- respect, protect and promote human rights
- enhance quality of life and well-being

3 **Economic Development**
- ensure growth, employment, income and livelihoods and decent employment for local communities
- promote opportunities for public and private investment in sustainable development projects

Effective Governance Networks

Source: developed by the researcher

3.4.2 Achieving sustainable development

The goal of sustainable development cannot be reached by the independent actions of single public or private actors (Bramwell and Lane, 2000). Byrd (2007, p. 12) also argues that "without stakeholder involvement, the term sustainable development would just be a marketing slogan or, at best, a topic of theoretical debate". Therefore, various stakeholders – namely tourism industries; government; the community, environment supporters and NGOs – are expected to be involved in the process of tourism planning (WTO, 1993; Long, 1997). Stakeholders are expected to share their knowledge, expertise, capital and other resources in the interests of sustainable tourism development (Kotler et al., 1993).

Complex institutional structures are required to meet the challenges of sustainable development, which are increasingly perceived to cut across policy sectors as well as public and private domains. Sustainable development also crosses territorial jurisdictions, whether local, regional or national. GNs are likely to be an effective tool to accomplish SUT development (Section 3.2).

3.5 The modes of governance approach: how do different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why?

During the 1980s, there was growing acknowledgement that cities do not operate as isolated, closed entities. Urban areas are influenced by local as well as external factors, and are not autonomous. New approaches emerged that emphasised this networked nature of urban planning. The network approach builds on the tradition of pluralism and considers urban planning processes as complex interactions in which many actors, with multiple goals and strategies, participate.

The network model considers "public policy-making and governance to take place in networks of various interdependent actors none of which possesses the power to determine the strategies of the other actors" (Kickert et al., 1997, p. 9). The network approach is a mode of coordinating governance. It sees effective action taking place within a pluralistic framework which involves the collaborative efforts of different interests and various organisations. Collaboration can't be strengthened and sustained through hierarchy or bargaining. Instead interactive relationships are based on the development of solidarity, trust building and mutual support. Stakeholders recognise the importance of mutual dependency (Stoker, 1995).

Especially in the case of tourism, local stakeholders are strongly dependent on each other in the face of increased national and international competition.

The GN approach is applicable to this thesis because it focuses attention on the way networks influence the making and implementation of public policy. The study provided a unique opportunity to compare different GN models working in one local government setting (tourism) in two countries (England and Thailand). A basic premise underlying this study is that the success of SUT is strongly influenced by the structure and culture of urban governance as well as by the tourism system in place.

3.5.1 Types of governance networks

This section examines why and how GNs are formed and developed to provide in depth understanding for typologies of GNs. The network concept was first applied in the 1970s (Klijn and Koppenjan, 2000). The application of PNs can be explained by applying interorganisational theory to the interaction between players, who eventually formulate complex objectives and strategies (Scharpf and Hanf, 1978). Different types of network structure have been drawn from various scholars (van Waarden, 1992; Provan and Kenis, 2008; Ansell and Gash, 2008). Provan and Kenis (2008) point out that goal-directed GNs are set up with a specific purpose, have clear participation, evolve as a result of conscious efforts and are increasingly important in achieving specific outcomes (Provan and Milward, 2001).

Studies of policy and governance usually capture information about PN structure to the detriment of policy implementation. In addition, most of the previous studies did not consider the role and power of leading stakeholders

in influencing GNs. Three basic forms of GNs may be identified, in accordance with the concept of Provan and Kenis (2008). Each type has unique benefits and drawbacks and no one model is ultimately superior. This proposition underpins the case studies analysis presented in Chapters 4, 5, and 6.

Figure 6: Modes of GNs
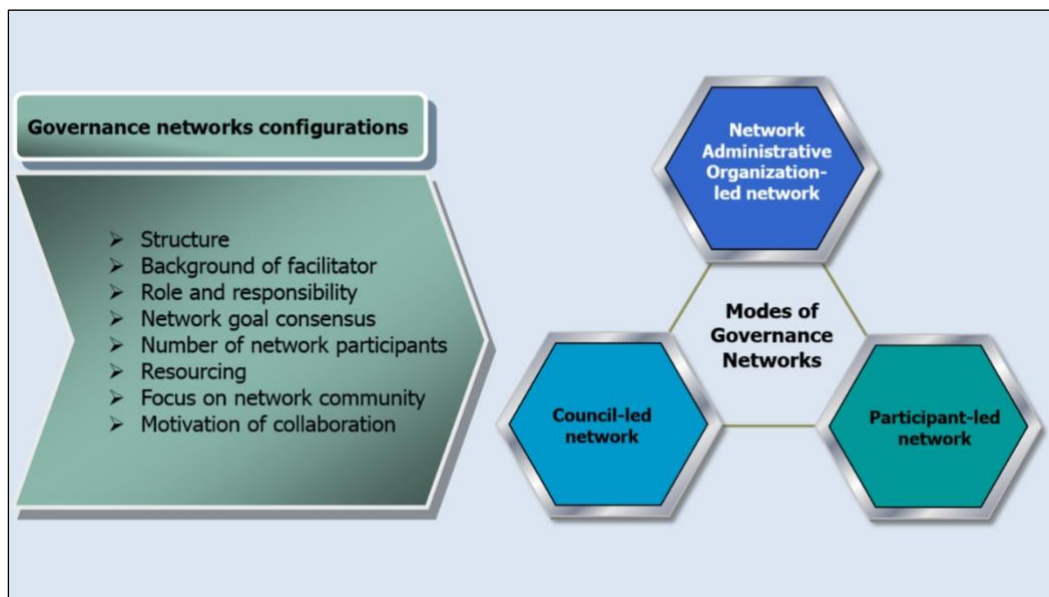
Source: adapted from Provan and Kenis (2008)

1. Participant-Governed Networks

This model is decentralised and governed by the network members themselves, who manage the entire network and control decision making. Viewed in this way, this model greatly benefits the stakeholders. This type of network is widely seen in grassroots community networks such as health and human services and in the example of the Dreamland case in Margate. It aims to strengthen "community capacity" (Chaskin et al., 2001; Beaumont and Dredge, 2010). Participant-governed Networks feature strong bonding and

current members can block the entry of new members. Power within the network, at least regarding network-level decisions, is more or less symmetrical, there is highly collective interaction and no single entity represents the network as a whole. As a result of partnership on an equal basis, participants are likely to be committed to the goals of the network.

2. Lead Organization–Governed Networks

These networks are 'horizontal' in structure. The key characteristic is one organisation having sufficient resources and legitimacy to influence the others (unlike participant-governed networks, which may involve any or all network members and collective self-governance). Thus, the structure of lead organisation-governed networks is perceived as highly centralised with an asymmetrical power distribution resulting in one group dominating management and agenda control. This correlates with the second dimension of power defined by Lukes (Section 3.3.2). This model often occurs in health and human services where there may be a core provider agency that assumes the role of network leader because of its central position in the flow of clients and key resources. Provan and Kennis (2008) suggest that to be effective and achieve network outcomes, trust is the key factor in lead organisation governed networks. Additionally, when network-level goal consensus and competencies are moderate, this approach is likely to be effectiveness. Beaumont and Dredge's (2010) investigation of Redland Council's Tourism Advisory Network in Australia suggests that inclusiveness is a vital factor without the involvement of expertise and resources,

effectiveness is barely occurs and the networks become internalised and bureaucratic.

This model often occurs in Thailand's local government system, where a local government may assume the role of network leader because of its central position in the flow of information and key resources (Krutwaysho and Bramwell, 2010).

3. Network Administrative Organization (NAO)

The NAO is externally governed by an administrative unit, which plays a central role in communication, coordination and decision-making. NAOs may operate under brokered or non-brokered governance (Provan and Kenis, 2008). Raab et al. (2013, p. 488) defined 'brokered' as "the extent to which network governance is administered by and through a single organisation (brokered)". This NAO model may initially be established by the government to monitor and provide funding to ensure that network goals are accomplished (Eggers and Goldsmith, 2004). It can be seen in the DASTA (Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration) control of the GN in the Pattaya case study. Provan and Kennis (2008) suggest that the NAO model will be the most effective for achieving network-level outcomes when trust is moderately to widely shared among network participants, when there are moderate numbers to many network participants and goal consensus and competencies are moderately high.

These three governance networks identified by Provan and Kennis (2008) provide the theoretical scaffolding for the research presented in this thesis. The four case studies of WHS and seaside towns involve different types of governance networks in one local government setting (SUT) and provide a unique opportunity to compare and contrast policy planning and implementation of each network.

3.5.2 The relationship between GNs and SUT

There are four main reasons why GNs are worth using as a framework to achieve SUT.

1. Most sustainability issues are buzzwords, unstructured, and need innovative thinking to change tools and methods. Kemp and Parto (2005) suggest four such 'tools' (i) shared long term goals (ii) common norm for planning and approval of vital tasks (iii) specified rules and legitimacies for trade-offs and negotiations, and (iv) collective indicators for operation and progress towards sustainability (Kemp and Parto, 2005).

2. One of the strengths of GNs, particularly relevant to SUT, is that they focus directly on the processes of policy-making and implementation, the involvement of various stakeholders and the institutional design, i.e. structure of government at a local level. Sustainability policies and projects require the involvement of various stakeholders to deal with the complex issues in social

inequity, economic development and limited environmental resources. Therefore, there is a need for diversity of participants.

3.   Governance networks (Section 3.2) have the capacity to make linkages among the community, civil society, local, regional and national government (Newman, 2001). Especially, in the case of tourism, localities are strongly dependent on each other in the face of competition. Most sustainability initiatives require structural changes in the dominant institutions (Daly, 2003). Since the 1980s, government institutions have not worked alone. The authoritarian structure has shifted to social relations through quasi- and non-government entities. In several ways, citizens have been empowered and engaged in the policy making process and how business activity is conducted. Engagement is likely to grow due to social networking. Decision-making has changed, and there are numerous opportunities for the pursuit of SUT (Daly, 2003).

4. Sustainable development is a long-term, open-ended project that precedes and supersedes limited-term, democratically elected governments. It also involves making trade-off decisions on highly contested issues (Farrell et al., 2005) and uncertainty in goals and processes make it difficult at times to set priorities and decide on implementation. GNs provide a compelling framework for guiding the development of SUT since monitoring and evaluation of GNs for SUT deals mainly with deliberative process, goal achievement and how to deal with changed preferences that would oblige the leading actor to adjust goals and outcomes.

3.6 Factors influencing the success and failure of GNs

To accomplish the research aims – exploring how GNs influence SUT policies and practices – each factor has been operationalised to apply to GNs' implementation in local governments. Factors influencing effective GNs can be categorised into two groups: foundational platforms factors, and individual factors (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Factors influencing the performance of GNs
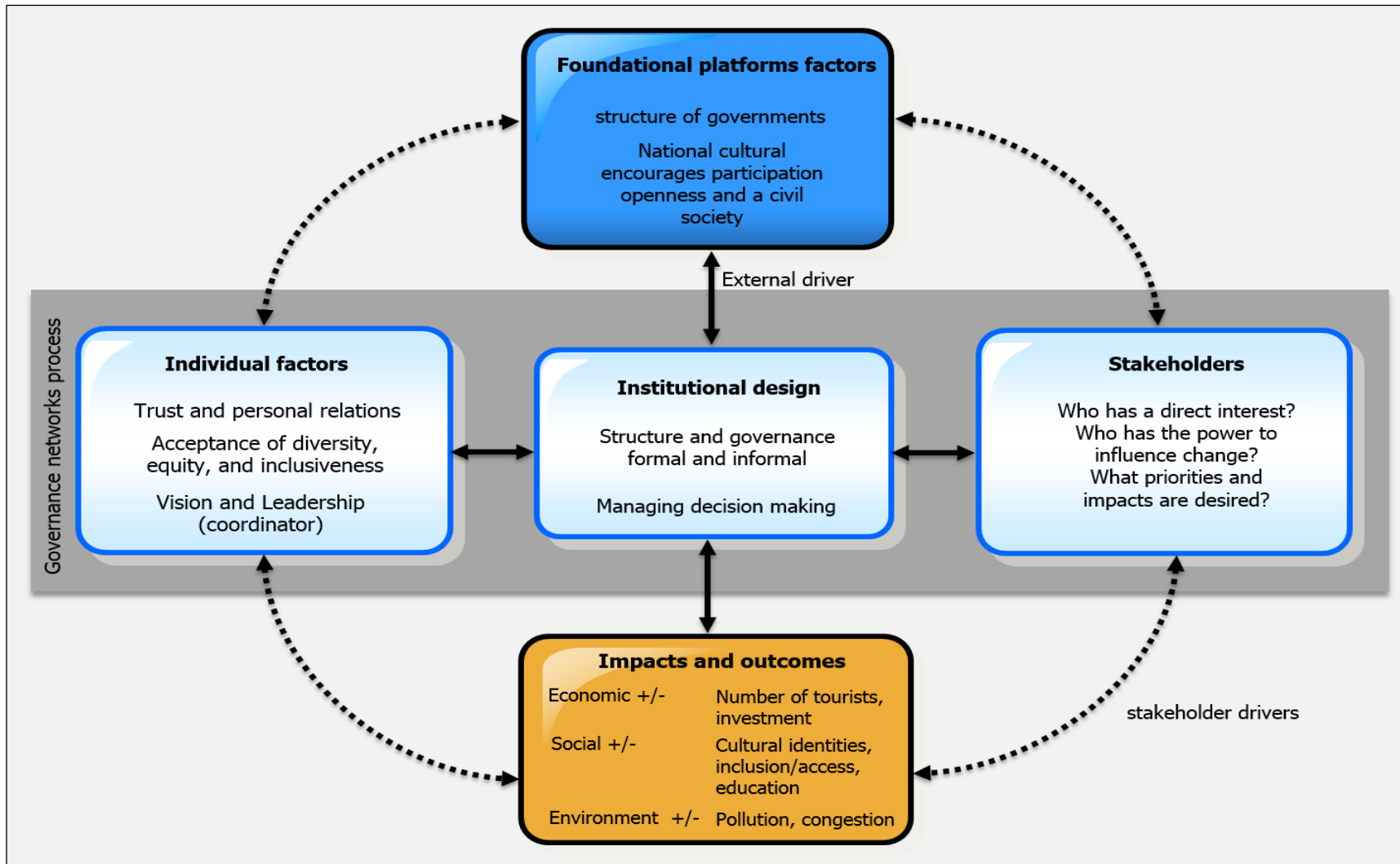
Source: developed by the researcher

3.6.1 Foundational platform factors

National cultures

As mentioned, it is important to ensure the right government structure and the right design from the beginning. Another important factor is national culture. Culture has been defined as the assumptions, values and artifacts shared by members of a group (Schein, 1996), and as the 'collective programming of the mind' (Hofstede, 1984, p. 21). Cross-cultural research (Hofstede, 1984; Ronen and Shenkar, 1985; Triandis, 1989) has catalogued how basic assumptions, values and behavioural norms vary across cultures. National culture – an often taken-for-granted product of primary socialisation – is thought to be particularly potent and its effects on individuals are particularly resistant to change. However, Schein (1985) suggested that organisational cultures arise from specific historical events experienced by a group, as well as from the influence of individuals engaged in their routine interactions. Thus, organisational and group cultures within the same, relatively stable national culture can vary widely (Brannen, 1994). In certain countries, the culture emphasis teamwork while other countries, possibly Thailand, are more authoritarian and do not encourage people to be critical, just to accept what they are told from a superior level.

Given that national culture is deeply rooted in managers' socialisation, it is plausible that nationality continues to affect team members' preferences and

work behaviour and how they interact with colleagues and outsiders (Hofstede, 1984). Even if members accord less salience to national identity over time, national identity-based intergroup dynamics could persist. Hofstede's culture factors or dimensions were selected to develop the analytical framework for the research presented in this thesis.

The first dimension is individualism, the degree of distance in social relationships. Less individualistic is likely to lead to closer relations. Power distance is the degree of inequality perception. Higher power distance translates into greater acceptance of inequality. The dimension of masculinity is the tendency to value achievement, assertion and performance, while femininity focuses on relationships, nurturance and the quality of life. More masculine societies emphasis tangible actions and materialistic gains. The Confucian dynamic consists of two poles; the higher or the positive end represents values of thrift, persistence, loyalty and a future orientation, whereas the lower or negative end represents respect for face, tradition and social hierarchy, and focus on the past or near-term.

These dimensions were adopted for the analytical framework primarily because of their conceptual merit, empirical support and managerial relevance. The dimensions are conceptually well-grounded, having been formulated on the basis of a wide range of studies in the social sciences.

3.6.2 Acceptance of diversity, equity and inclusiveness

Schaap (2007) argues that a major obstacle to implementing GNs is network closure, or the exclusion of some stakeholders who should be at the table. Shaap distinguishes two kinds of closure: social and cognitive. Social closure, occurs when certain stakeholders are excluded from interaction, for example because others fail to appreciate their contribution or dislike their presence. A network is closed in the cognitive dimension if and when knowledge, information, ideas, or proposals are ignored and denied access to the agenda. Cognitive closure can be divided into two forms: closure in the sense of an inability by networks to perceive and closure in the sense of an unwillingness to perceive.

Hovik (2005) conducted qualitative research in Norway which showed that having no balance (that is, a pluralist approach) to the distribution of power is a crucial obstacle to achieving integrated coastal zone planning and management. Practically, in terms of strategy formulation, important government officers persist in their own goals and values (hierarchical control) rather than hearing and getting involved in regional cooperation to create an integrated strategy. Another important hindrance is inequality of interests. Local councillors are likely to pay insufficient attention to all affected parties before taking decisions. They are often more concerned with crucial stakeholders, for example business interests which promote economic development (Hovik, 2005). This results in some participants (namely environmental groups) being reluctant to get involved in the networks – or they

may just be excluded. Empirical evidence from a managerial perspective shows that collaboration is likely to be achieved if all stakeholders are mobilised in open and fair ways (Rodriquez, 2007). Similarly, Robertson (2011) provides considerable empirical evidence to support the importance of power distribution; some stakeholders in RedeTuris hesitated to participate in the networks if they did not play a major role therein.

3.6.3 Leadership

Effective leadership and management of partnerships is essential to achieve effective policy planning and implementation (Evans and Killoran, 2000; Maddock, 2000; Asthana et al., 2002; Peck et al., 2002). Unlike traditional leaders who are likely to have a narrative expertise, being in control, and interact only with subordinates, partnerships require coordinators with 'boundary spanning' skills. They are able to collaborate with different stakeholders having different interests and backgrounds, to foster understanding of the importance of sharing resources, knowledges, information, and power (Alter and Hage, 1993; McKinney, et al., 1993; Kickert, et al., 1997; Lasker et al., 2001). O'Toole and Meier (2004) suggest that effective leaders and strategic management skills are the key factors in achieving successful policy outcomes of networks.

The personality and skills of coordinators have gained increasing attention in the literatures (Gray 1985; Chrislip and Larson, 1994; Kreuter, et al., 2000; Mitchell and Shortell, 2000). The role of coordinator is to strengthen

relationships by building trust, inclusiveness and openness among partners to gain their respect and to fulfil their obligations. Coordinators can create the environment for favourable and productive interactions, in which differences of opinion can be voiced and conflict can be successfully managed (Agranoff and McGuire 2001; Weiss et al. 2002; Koopenjan and Klijn, 2004).

To maximise partnership synergy, leaders need to have the ability to help stakeholders develop a common, jargon-free language that allows them to communicate meaningfully with one another; the capacity to promote harmony to relate and synthesise partners' different ideas; the ability to stimulate partners to be creative and exchange information; and the capacity to identify effective ways to combine partners' diverse resources and build up commitment (Agranoff and McGuire 2001; Lasker et al., 2001). Therefore, leadership is the key component in holding a network together and achieving successful outcomes (Bardach's, 1998).

3.6.4 Consensus and conflict

Koppenjan (2012) claims that the performance of GNs cannot proceed productively without considering the balance between conflict and consensus. Conflicting goals are at the core of arguments about sustainable tourism policies and actions (McCool, 2009), instilling a need for conflict resolution.

The degree of conflict and consensus has impacted GNs in both positive and negative ways. Klijn and Koppenjan (2000) point out that differences and disagreements in perceptions between stakeholders may cause conflicts and

block interaction. However, Koppenjan (2007) argues that conflict may have positive impacts on networks, providing more opportunities for participants to express opinion and increase transparency. Without a degree of conflict, new information, and innovation will definitely not be progressed. Simultaneously, a certain degree of consensus has brought positive impacts in preventing network failure by providing stability, establishing enduring relationships, simplifying problem solving and reducing transaction costs. Klijn and Koppenjan (2000) argue that stakeholders should be able to formulate mutual goals and interests to prevent disagreement, and allows them to achieve desired outcomes.

Marsh (1998) points out that specifying new collective goals and expected outcomes can prevent stagnation which eventually results in break down of the network. Additionally, there is an increasing 'free-rider' problem i.e. stakeholders who seek to obtain benefits without participating in networks. In this case, management should focus on protecting the interests of partners displaying real commitment and contribution (De Bruijn and Heuvelhof, 2002).

3.6.5 Effectiveness and legitimacy

Börzel and Panke (2007) analysed the relationship between effectiveness and legitimacy based on governmental theory. Effective GNs may be classified as those which identify local problems, initiate innovative policies, solve problems, realize joint objectives, and build trust and cooperation (Klijn and Koppenjan, 2004; Kickert, et al, 1997; Rhodes, 1997). In terms of legitimacy,

GNs are claimed to be weak on input legitimacy, since decisions in networks are often made in an informal way, making it unclear who is responsible for them and who should be held accountable for implementing the policy (Peters and Pierre, 2001). Bovaird (2005) claims that GNs should enhance democratic legitimacy by increasing participation. More attempts should be made to incorporate public governance principles within legislation. This has already been seen with the enactment of legislation on transparency, freedom of information, anti-corruption measures and equality.

Checks and balances are more attractive to engage stakeholders than the legitimacy approach (Bovaird, 2005). However, Klijn and Koppenjan (2000) claim that rules play an important role in the development of policy process. They not only enable participants to avoid unnecessary institutional disagreement, but also lead to reduced transaction costs and simplified collaboration.

3.6.6 Trust

Trust is the foundation of effective GNs in the same way that command and competition are the key drivers for bureaucracies and markets respectively (Bevir and Rhodes, 2003; Thomson and Perry, 2006). Edelenbos and Klijn (2007) conducted a survey of 220 practitioners in PPP projects in the Netherlands and confirmed that trust helps to smoothly manage interorganizational cooperation and produce desired and favoured outcomes. Higher trust stakeholders are likely to show greater cooperation, more

information exchange, and more innovative solutions for policy problems than those with lower trust level. Edelenbos and Klijn (2007) suggest that high-perceived competence of stakeholders, frequent interaction and active management to establish clear goals and achieve outcomes can enhance trust levels.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter identified and assessed theoretical frameworks that explained the structure of GNs and the factors which affect their performance in policy planning and implementation. The literature review also provided an understanding of SUT in relation to WH sites and seaside towns which provides the policy area for application of GNs in this thesis. The selection allowed exploration of the significance of local context on GN structure and dynamic and trans-national comparisons.

The first research question '*How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances?*' prompted a review of PN theory (Section 3.3); and institutional design (section 3.3.3).

The second question '*How do the different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why?*', recommended a review of Provan and Kenis (2008)'s theory (section 3.4.1) on the creation and initiation of GNs, which would inform a trans-national comparative analysis. A vital aspect of

GNs: 'Who has dominant power, how is it exercised and who is excluded?' recommended consideration of Lukes's dimensions of power (Section 3.3.2).

The final question '*What factors promote and inhibit effective sustainable urban tourism?*' required a review of foundational platform factors and individual factors to inform the research.

Integrating the notions of institutional design, with the typology of GNs, and factors influencing SUT, enabled a new conceptual framework to be generated to analyse the performance of different types of GN in SUT. The framework incorporated a pre-defined template of codes which was applied for thematic analysis of the relationship between networks configuration and dynamics, including leadership, trust, effectiveness, on the one hand, policy planning, policy outcomes, and how power is deployed, on the other hand.

CHAPTER 4

GOVERNANCE NETWORK STRUCTURES

IN URBAN TOURISM: LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF

HERITAGE TOURISM CASES

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a longitudinal analysis of the development of governance networks (GNs) within heritage tourism cases in Bath, England and Ayutthaya, Thailand. Both cases illustrated similar forms of GNs within which the Council was the principal steward of the WHS. This chapter utilised documentary sources to provide a descriptive narrative of each case, before drawing on primary data collection obtained from interviews with key stakeholders to provide a basis for thematic analysis and comparison of the two cases. A chronology of the GN development was constructed to demonstrate that the partnership approach in both cases developed and changed over time. The tensions inherent in each case are then discussed. A preliminary analysis of similarities and differences between the GNs in Bath and Ayutthaya was first performed as illustrated in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Preliminary analysis of Ayutthaya and Bath case studies
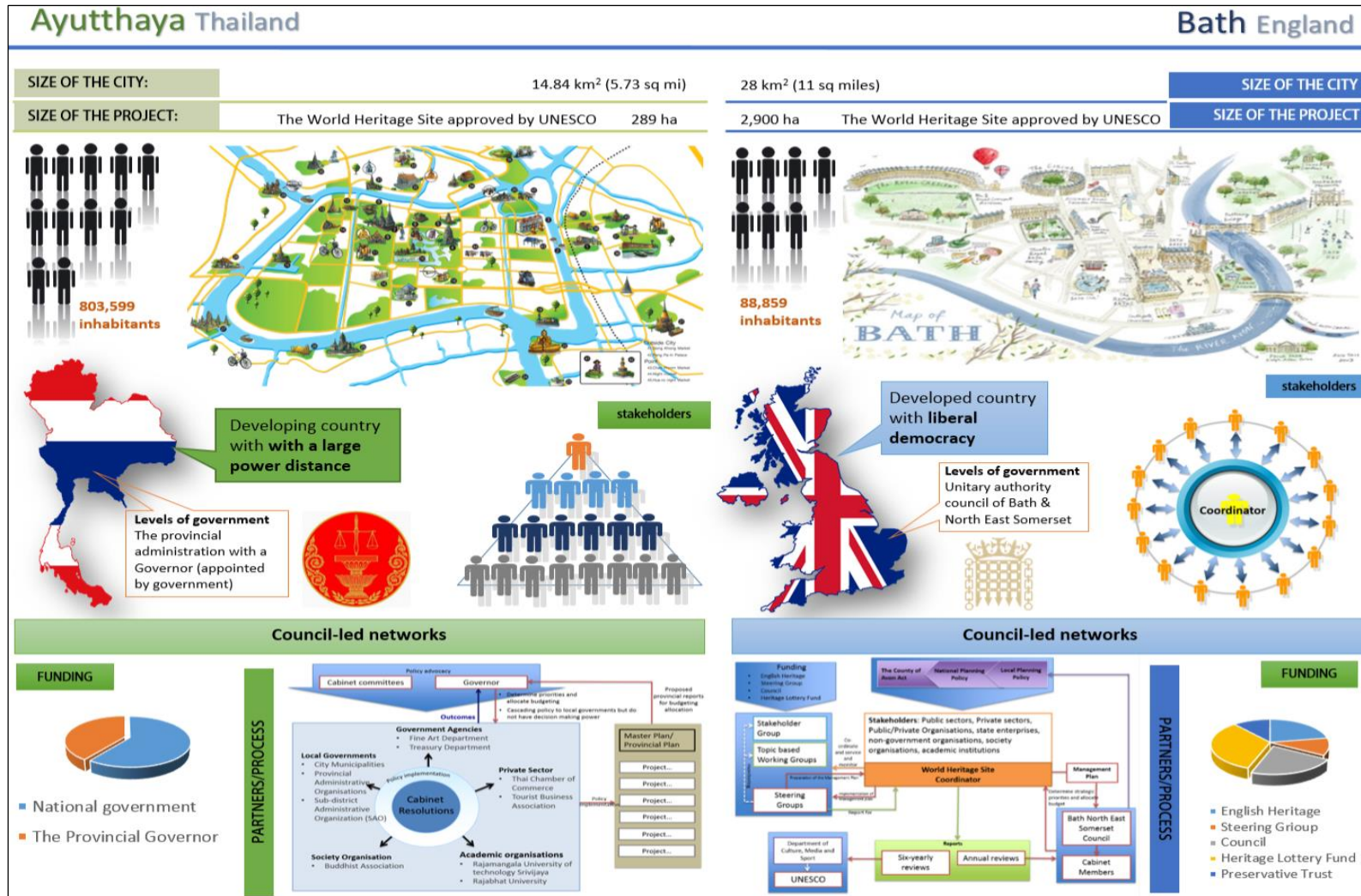
Source: developed by the researcher

4.2 Governance Networks of the World Heritage Site in Bath

4.2.1 Background

Geographical

Bath is located in the west of England, approximately 100 miles from London and 13 miles east of Bristol. It lies at the southern end of a Jurassic limestone belt forming the Cotswold Hills.

A strong visitor economy is key to the status of Bath as an international visitor destination and this is central to the continuing success of a broad and diverse retail sector. Tourism thrives due to the city's rich cultural offering and has a significant role to play in attracting broader investment. The city's reputation as an international visitor destination is also a driver for the cultural sector in Bath. The wider visitor economy, covering the tourism, leisure, culture and retail sectors accounts for 15,500 jobs, 25 percent of total employment in the city. Employment in the visitor economy has increased by 3.2 percent over the last five years and is forecast to continue to grow by circa 3,500 jobs (Bathness, 2014). The focus is on building a more sustainable higher value added product which will benefit both Bath and the wider area. Currently there are over 5.6 million people visitors each year to the city but only 16 percent are staying visitors, who on average spend five times more per head than day visitors.

Tourism

In 2015, the City of Bath ranked 12th in the VisitBritain ranking of top cities/towns for international staying visitors. Tourism in Bath is principally managed by Bath Tourism Plus (BTP), a 'destination management organisation' which is currently responsible for marketing, operation of the Visitor Information Centre and the website visitbath.co.uk. BTP are long-term members of the WH Steering Group. Although there is a Destination Marketing Strategy in place, there is a perceived need to also produce a sustainable tourism strategy to plan the future of tourism in the city, so that the negative points can be mitigated and the benefits maximised.

There is ongoing competition to attract tourists in domestic and international markets. To respond to this, the visitor economy sector needs to work in partnership; to attract, manage and develop a flourishing and sustainable tourism and leisure industry which contributes to economic prosperity, enhances the image of Bath and the surrounding area and is in harmony with its unique environment.

4.2.2 The City of Bath World Heritage Site

The City of Bath is an exceptional WHS. The inscription covers the entire urban area (Figure 9), to an extent totalling 2,900 hectares, a size rarely seen anywhere else in the world. Bath is widely acknowledged as demonstrating excellence in the integration of architecture, urban design and landscape.

Urban conservation also requires a balance between the need to preserve monuments and meeting the needs of the local community.

Figure 9: Map showing the location of Bath and its World Heritage Site
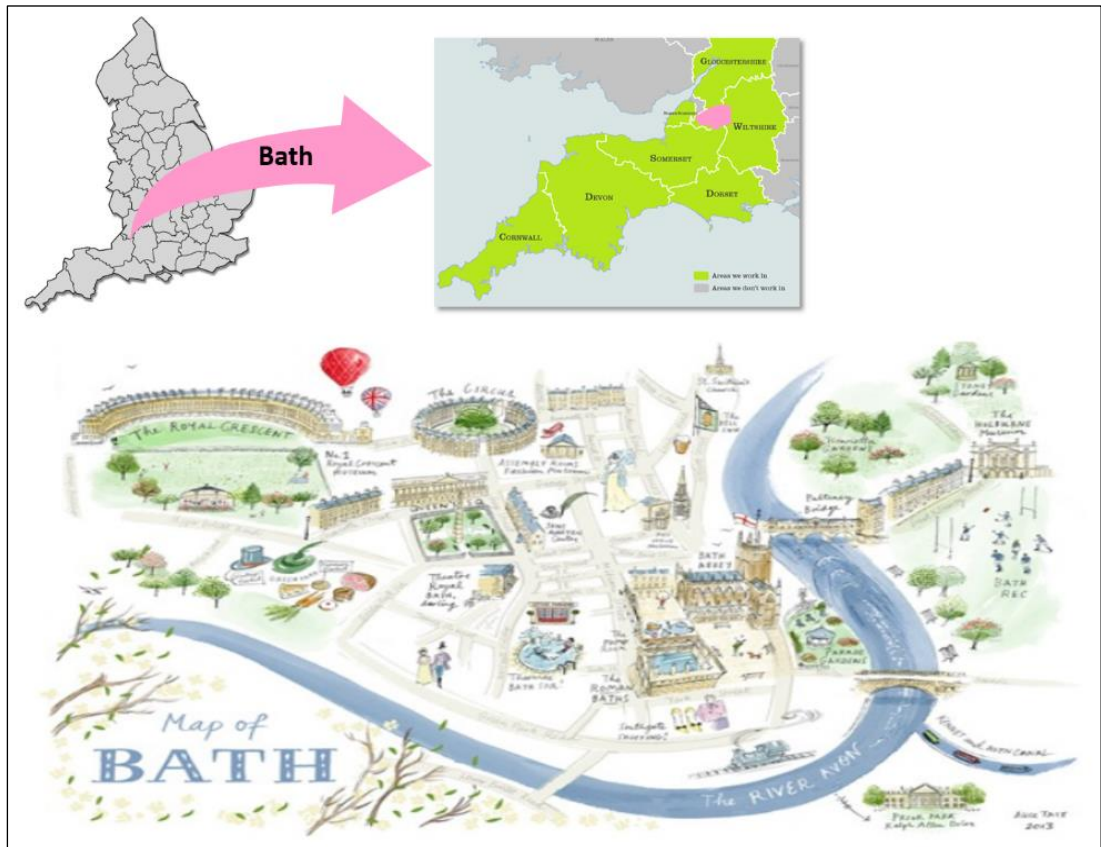
Source:http://images.bigcartel.com/product_images/133785045/Bath_Lo_res.jpg?auto=format&fit=max&w=600

4.2.3 Institutional design

The City of Bath World Heritage Site Steering Group established in 2001 by Bath and North East Somerset Council (B&NES) (Figure 11), as requested by UNESCO, provides advice direction for managing and overseeing the Site and the produces the Management Plan. The steering group provides a tried

and tested mechanism for bringing together the main partners concerned with the management of the site and meets approximately three times per year. The action resulting from this is to sustain that group. Details of the stakeholders can be found in following section.

The Steering Group consists of various stakeholders from both central government and local government. The Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) has lead responsibility for all UK World Heritage Sites, and sets national policy. Their statutory advisor on the historic environment, English Heritage, gives guidance, and the International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS UK) is a Non-Government Organisation (NGO) that derives its standing from the fact that it is the national committee of ICOMOS international which is a statutory advisory body to the UNESCO World Heritage Committee. The Steering Group sets both strategic priorities and local actions. B&NES Council is the predominant steward of the site and responsible for delivery and funding of most actions of this Plan. The Council is a unitary authority with the powers and functions of a non-metropolitan county and district council combined and is responsible for all aspects of local government.

The administrative area of B&NES Council is larger than the site, and there is no one tier of local government solely responsible for Bath alone. Daily management of the Site is provided by the **World Heritage Coordinator**, a full time Council employee who co-ordinates actions across the range of council services, including the Culture, Leisure and Tourism Directorate,

Planning Services, Heritage Services, Property Services, Transportation, Parks and Open Spaces, Archives and Libraries, and Education. The Council also provides local political direction, operating a cabinet system of governance, with the Cabinet member for Development and Major Projects having responsibility for World Heritage matters. Bath Tourism Plus, a public/private sector partnership, is responsible for tourism management, including the Tourist Information Centre, arranging promotional events, and marketing for the city.

4.3 Application of GNs model in Bath

4.3.1 The development of Bath partnership working

When this research was commenced in 2014, Bath already had a long tradition of caring for its heritage and management systems, both locally and nationally, were in place to ensure this continued. Bath also has a long experienced of partnership working with stakeholders committed to delivering the aims of the plan (personal interview, Bath WHS coordinator, 2015). The Management Plan produced by the City of Bath World Heritage Site Steering Group aims to provide a framework to conserve cultural heritage assets. The need to engage more people, especially local people, in the process is an objective. The plan sets out wide responsibilities including protection and enhancement of the architectural, archaeological, landscape and natural assets and their urban and landscape settings, improving understanding of

the site, its interpretation and use as an educational resource, and supporting the local community in its cultural, social and economic vitality.

The plan outlines the main issues that challenges the WHS and the potential opportunities of that status. These issues are addressed through a series of objectives and actions, specifically intended to fulfil the main aims of the plan. These are (B&NES Council, 2003, p. 2):

• Promote sustainable management of the WHS;

• Ensure that the unique qualities and Outstanding Universal Value (OUV) of the WHS are understood and are sustained in the future;

• Sustain the OUV of the site whilst maintaining and promoting Bath as a living and working city which benefits from the status of the WHS;

• Improve physical access and interpretation, encouraging all people to enjoy and understand the WHS;

• Improve public awareness of and interest and involvement in the heritage of Bath, achieving a common local, national and international ownership of WHS Management.

This wide remit emphasises the problems of managing complex heritage sites, particularly the balancing of conservation and development, which is especially challenging in the urban context and is evidently an ongoing issue in the city. Gray's (1996) framework was used to assess the issues and developmental phases that had emerged by 2003.

Figure 10: Chronology of Bath World Heritage Steering Group since 1987
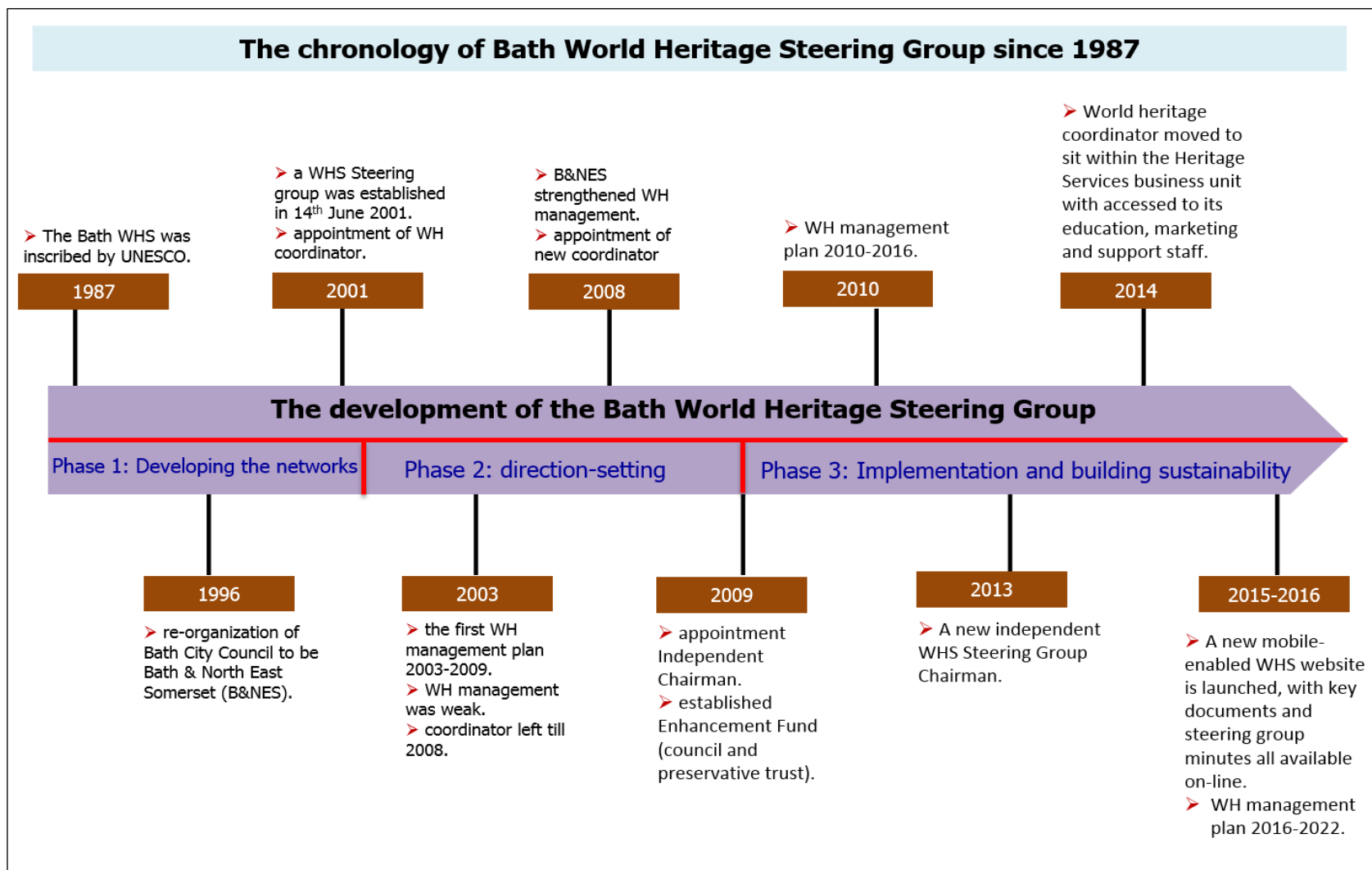
Source: developed by the researcher

4.3.2 Phase 1: Developing the networks

The chronology of Bath World Heritage Steering Group from 1987 – 2016 is shown in Figure 10. It has been UK Government policy since 1994 that all UK WHS produce a Management Plan, the purpose being to management set out how the commitments of the World Heritage Convention, will be applied, and to ensure that they are delivered. With regard to the City of Bath, management was taken on by the local authority (B&NES Council) and appropriate policies were added into the local plan, supplemented by a guidance note. A WHS Steering Group was convened on 14th June 2001 and an early task was the appointment of a 'World Heritage Coordinator'. The B&NES Council hosted this appointment, which was financially supported by English Heritage (now Historic England) using 'start-up' funding (reducing over a three-year period). The Coordinator and Steering Group produced the first Management Plan in 2003, the primary focus being the protection, conservation and transmission of those attributes which bear OUV status.

In terms of status, the Plan is a partnership document that represents the consensus view of the members of the City of Bath WHS Steering Group. As such, its successful implementation and achievement of the objectives therein depend to a large extent upon partnership working. The Management Plan is not a statutory document and does not diminish the responsibility of any agency or individual. The Plan informs and responds to other policies and management proposals relating to the area.

The empirical evidence collected in this research demonstrated the way in which the Council, as the principal steward of the site, has taken the lead role in preparing the Plan through its WHS co-ordinator. This work has been overseen by the WHS Steering Group.

The interviews conducted as part of this research indicated stakeholders in the Steering Group (listed under 'Institutional design', section 4.2.3) largely agreed about the project's major issues and policy priorities. All participants mentioned that transportation was a key issue. Other major issues that several mentioned included conservation of the environment, effective land-use planning, enhancing institutional capacity, sustainable development, and improvement in the community's quality of life and enhancing communication technology via the Internet.

The local authority viewed the maintenance of economic performance and vibrancy in the community as essential for the long-term protection of the city's heritage, which in its turn gives Bath its unique and much-celebrated character. Interviews indicate that all **stakeholders realised the importance of WHS management in all aspects**. The CEO of Bath Tourism Plus illustrated such a picture (personal interview, 2015):

> "I suppose everybody has the interest in maintaining the status of WHS. We are also interested in maintaining the status, the quality of heritage and visitors. There are many WHS towns, unlike Bath, where the WHS does not cover the entire urban area. So it is a very heavy responsibility'.

The key finding of Phase 1, developing the networks is that: ***Initiatives within the network were locally and UNESCO driven.***

Involvement of stakeholders

Bath is a large urban WHS. The number of partners involved in its management and the relationships between them are complex as shown in Figure 11. The Management Plan can only be successfully and comprehensively implemented through partnership working (B&NES Council, 2003).

Figure 11: Bath World Heritage Site Steering Group
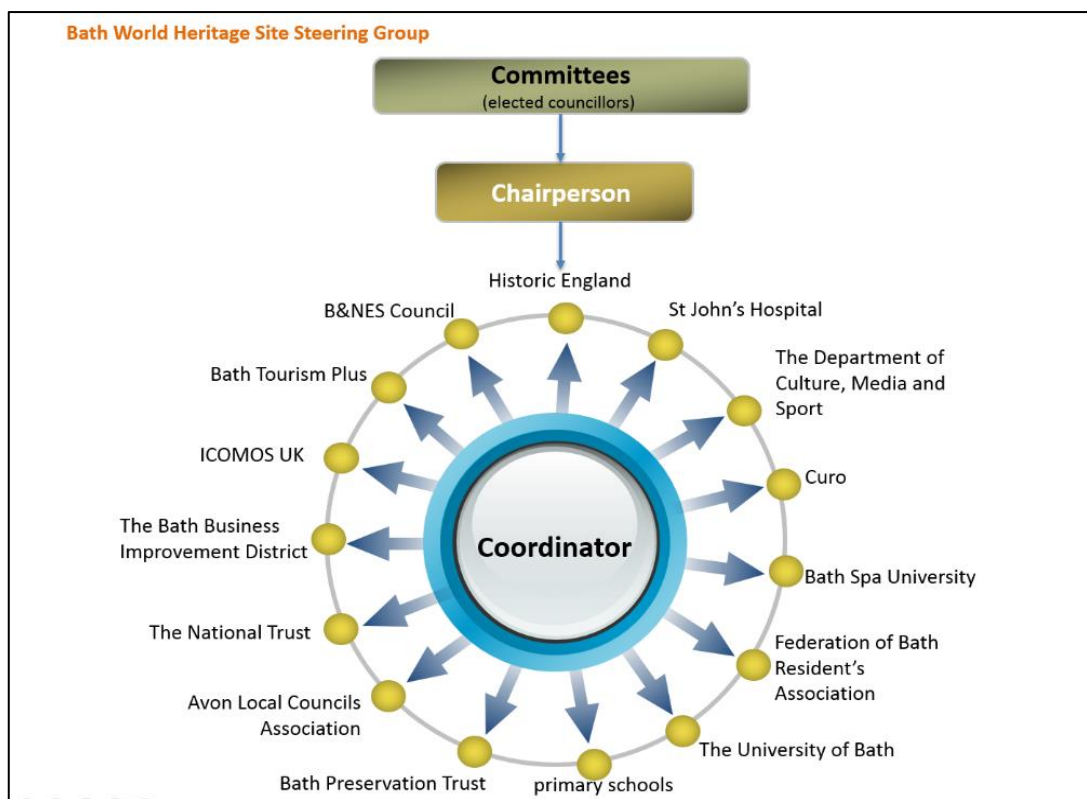
Source: developed by the researcher

It is important to acknowledge that most partners interviewed were invited to participate in the Steering Group supporting Sørensen's suggestion for inclusion (2002, p. 713) "to ensure that all those who are affected by a decision have the best possible chances of gaining influence if that is what they want". The Divisional Director of Development pointed out that (personal interview, B&NES council, 2016):

> "We are working together to bring the best solution possible. The more people involved, the more chance you have to get the right decision taking on board as many reasons as possible. It is useful because we (the Council) do not know everything'.

The Bath WHS coordinator stated that (personal interview, 2015):

> "We have formal partnership in the Steering Group. Not everyone is turning up or invited to the group. People like The National Trust owns a large land setting of Bath. They are obviously very important because what they do on their land will affect the site. The Council owns 60 percent of the land in the city. There are lots of buildings in the Site and most of them are owned by private people. So it is important to have representative from FoBRA [Federation of Bath Residents' Associations] on board to have their response in part of the site'.

A wide range of individuals and organisations is involved in or affected by the management of the WHS and management decisions. They require access to a comprehensive information system to make informed decisions. Inclusion here rests heavily on empowerment. The Chairman of Federation of Bath Residents' Associations also illustrated such empowerment of local government (personal interview, 2015):

"The local authority is responsible for the Plan and in imposing the rules through the planning laws in England and Wales. So they do not have to have a steering group at all. But they do because they need to consult with all stakeholders. So that we feel that we are consulted and we may have something important to say'.

National level

The Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) is the government department with responsibility for World Heritage in England. All formal communication between Bath WHS and the UNESCO World Heritage Centre will pass via DCMS, acting as the 'State Party'. DCMS is a named member of the Steering Group but its representatives do not attend in person. Historic England also plays an active role in site management by engaging as planning authority with B&NES on planning policy and development applications. A representative from the regional office (Bristol) sits on the Steering Group as well as the Head of International Advice, who works closely with DCMS at the national level. The International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS UK) is an advisory body on matters of cultural heritage. It is important to distinguish between ICOMOS UK and the wider international body.

Property owners

Property ownership is an extremely important element of site management since owners have significant control over how their land is used. Much of the land within the site and many historic buildings are in the ownership of private citizens, who are included in the site management in various ways. They are

principally represented on the WHS Steering Group through membership of the Federation of Bath Resident's Association (FoBRA) which is an umbrella organisation representing 28 local resident's associations, plus associate members. Curo, a house association and house-builder based in Bath, is a significant property owner, and another conduit for resident representation on the Steering Group.

Aside from residents, there are a number of organisations which hold large property portfolios. Ownership by conservation-minded organisations has historically been (and continues to be) highly influential in the good management of the site. Notable here are owners including the local authority, housing associations, The National Trust, the two universities and St John's Hospital charity. In this case, the Council has full responsibility for the management and conservation of the properties.

Civil society

Worthy of mention is the pressure group and independent charity, the Bath Preservation Trust (BPT), which can be seen as representing 'civil society'. The BPT provides scrutiny of major decisions, pushes for high standards, provides advice and assistance, mobilises volunteers and (through its museums) provides interpretation. The BPT is a long-standing and active member of the Steering Group.

Schools

There are around 21 primary schools in or adjacent to the WHS in Bath. The pupils are considered to be future custodians of the site and, as such, are important stakeholders. Secondary schools are not currently represented.

The private sector

Bath Tourism Plus (BTP) is a key partner on domestic and overseas tourism matters. The Bath Business Improvement District (Bath BID) is an independent, not for profit, business-led initiative voted for by the businesses of Bath. Working in conjunction with the Council, has brought private sector resources to bear in maintaining a high quality public asset and helped to shape and manage the retail and hospitality product. Optimally engaging all those "potentially affected" is an unworkable ideal in practice and necessitates that participants deliberate on behalf of each other as shown in the Ayutthaya case in the following section (Hendriks, 2008). Bath selects participants who mirror affected populations. They are often autonomous individuals engaged for their expertise or connections (personal interview, The Bath WHS coordinator, 2015).

The CEO of BPT also confirmed that (personal interview, 2015):

> "We are invited to participate on the Steering Group by local government. To manage the site, the local authority said to the government that they wanted to have a group from the wider

local authority that bring forward their own field of expertise and knowledge to the process of managing the WHS. We became in that category'.

In summary, empirical evidence demonstrated that stakeholders in the Steering Group are not only "potentially affected" parties but also organisations or individuals with competency, specialist and professional experiences. Volunteer citizen participation and civil society are essential for effective governance, conservation and interpretation of the site. Some positions such as the Steering Group Chair is an unpaid role, as are the positions of most councillors in and surrounding the site. With regard to conservation, bodies such as The National Trust and BPT are heavily dependent upon volunteer effort.

Viewed this way, the key finding generated was: **There were strong roles for non-departmental bodies and volunteer citizen participation in the GN of Bath WHS.**

Role of the Coordinator

The WHS Steering Group was convened in 2001 and soon after appointed a 'World Heritage Coordinator'. However, there were major changes in the Steering Group between 2003 and 2009, resulting in weak management and UNESCO received concerns from some commentators that the OUV of the site was under threat from new developments, namely the re-development of Southgate Shopping Centre, Bath Western Riverside (at the time the largest housing development in southwest England), and the new bus station.

In response, B&NES Council reviewed and strengthened its World Heritage management by introducing new players to change the network dynamics, shift the influence of existing stakeholders, and facilitate fluid leadership roles (Klijn, 1996; O'Toole and Donaldson, 2000; Klijn and Teisman, 2005). A new position of World Heritage coordinator was created in 2008, at **a higher level than the previous coordinator role, and better placed to influence key policy decisions across (and beyond) the organisation.**

These events raise the important point that the ability of a coordinator to effectively manage networks is strongly related to internal support, respect for authority, and cooperation of the leading primary organizations (councillors, city councils and their chief executives, and politicians). This gives the coordinator more confidence to engage in networking and achieve the strategic purpose at hand. During interview, the coordinator of Bath WHS Steering Group explained his/her role: *"to organise the production of the WHS Management Plan, and convene the WHS Steering Group and use the Steering group to guide the complex action plan'.*

The findings indicated that the coordinator is able to exercise choice and construct the network to reflect local requirements. He/she can frame the network context by introducing new ideas to the networks and offer suggestions or recommend an alternative decision-making system (personal interview, Divisional Director Development, B&NES council, 2016). The Interviews also illustrated that the coordinator is able to bring people together

and focus on enabling interactions, building relationships and trust, and negotiation on sharing resources and joint content (personal interviews, the CEO of BPT, 2015; the Chairman of Federation of Bath Resident's Association, 2015). A coordinator must often sell an idea to potential network participants to secure commitment. It is essential to build support for the network and its purposes (Gray 1985; Innes and Booher 1999).

The General Manager of The National Trust illustrated the importance of gaining respect (personal interview, 2016):

> "He/she is well respected within the city. Because of that, he/she carries respect with the Council and the external partners. They help him/her put together plans that make sense. He/she has a key role in building relationships with planner and with politicians as well'.

The interviews also revealed that the coordinator plays an essential role in not only keeping the WHS Steering Group management plan to political agendas, but also by defining and clarifying the strategic purpose of WHS through discussion (personal interviews, The CEO of BPT, 2015; The Chairman of Federation of Bath Resident's Association, 2015).

A key finding was generated as: **An effective coordinator can be a force for driving positive and proactive change.**

The following section explores direction setting and its implementation in the Bath case to identify significant factors which influence on network configuration and dynamics.

4.3.3 Phase 2: Collaborative working and direction-setting

In 2009, UNESCO reported that the earlier stage of implementing the WH Management Plan in Bath was weak. UNESCO argued that the local authority should do more to protect its landscape setting, reconsider the development of Western Riverside, aim to attract world-class architecture for new developments, and continuously enhance the interpretation and education surrounding the World Heritage Site (Bath Preservation Trust, 2009). The mission report of the WH Steering Group, considered by UNESCO World Heritage Committee, noted that the state of conservation was good and the site was well managed. The decision of UNESCO World Heritage Committee expressed satisfaction that the Dyson Academy Project had been withdrawn. The Committee strongly recommended that a revised plan showed inclusion of social facilities in Bath Western Riverside. They called for a revised management plan including a tourism plan, public realm strategy and traffic plan.

The empirical evidence demonstrated that many efforts were made by the local council to ensure that management and administrative arrangements were appropriate for effective implementation of the Plan, including encouraging community involvement, enabling partnership working and securing the required funding. **The Council was clearly proactive unlike in Margate and Ayutthaya, and this factor was probably the key to success of the GN in Bath.**

The Council declared that the Site and its setting are taken into account by all relevant planning, regulatory and policy initiatives (statutory and non-statutory) and by any future changes to the planning system. Additionally, the Site and its setting were to be considered in all relevant decisions taken by the local authority and other management partners (listed under section 4.3.2). Given the increased focus on partnership working, the shared goal was *"to ensure that the unique qualities and OUV of the Site are understood and are sustained in the future"* (B&NES Council, 2003, p. 2). In order to meet these requirements network structures were rearranged and shifted to achieve goals as shown in Figure 12.

As a result of this policy, the state of conservation in Bath is very good. The local economy is buoyant, with record high visitor numbers, low shop vacancy rates, high property values and high levels of employment, plus very few buildings at risk. Looking forwards, the **key challenges are maintaining and balancing this good state of conservation while delivering a further phase of substantial growth and maintaining a strong economy.**

Figure 12: Networking process of WHS management in Bath
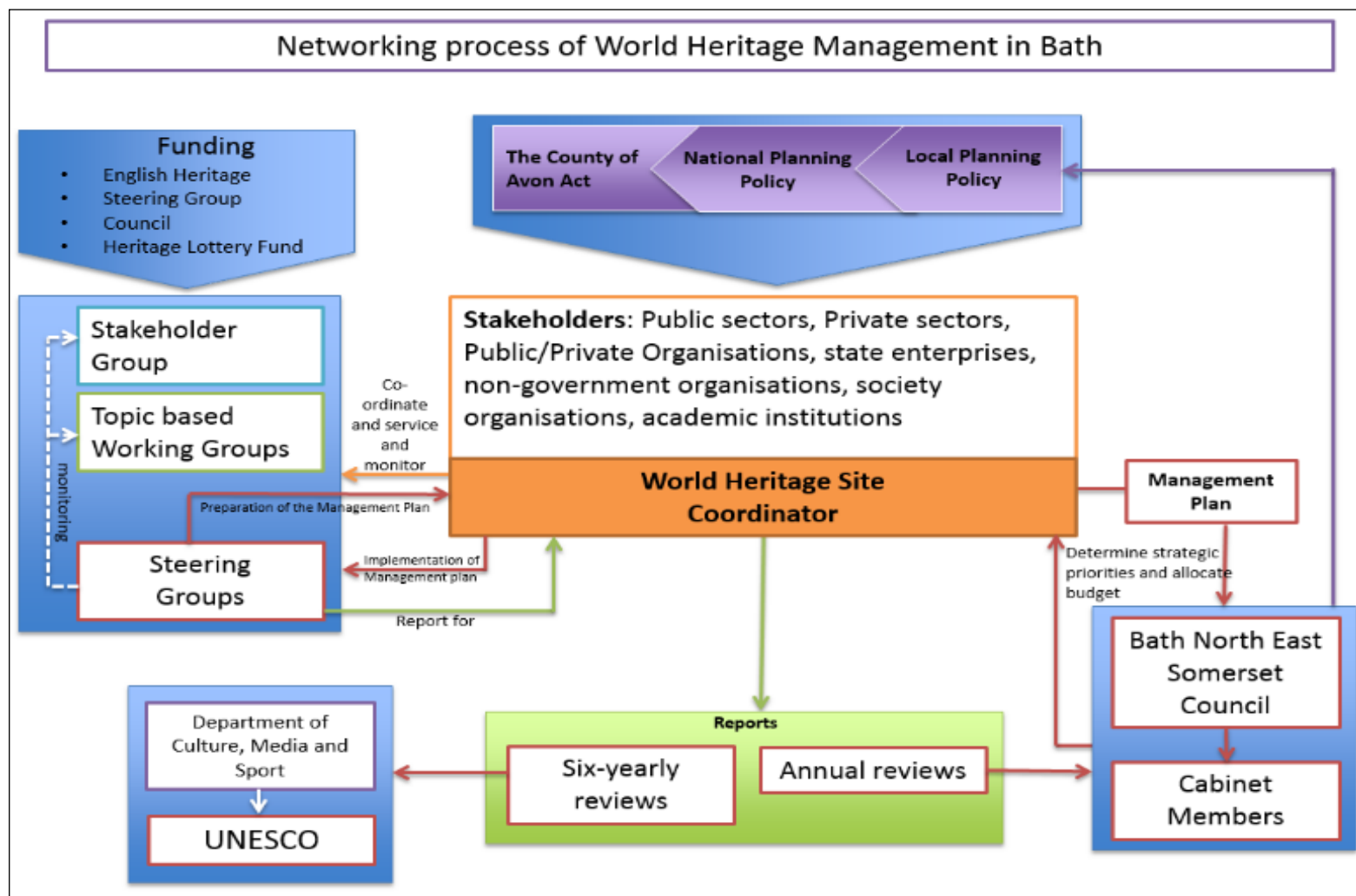
Source: developed by the researcher

Agenda Setting

The WHS Steering Group provides advice for managing and overseeing the site, however it is evident that the predominant steward of the site and the body responsible for delivery and funding of most actions of the Management Plan is B&NES Council. Management of the Site actually relies on the World Heritage Coordinator who is in charge of agenda setting and proposes the agenda - see below - and meeting set targets. It was also evident that there are relatively high level relations between the coordinator and stakeholders with both formal and informal interactions, signalling important information-sharing and information-seeking activities among professional peers. Additionally, there was evidence of joint searches for information.

The Bath WHS coordinator raised the following points (personal interview, 2015):

> "We just talk to people and send emails to say the meeting will be happening at a certain date. We have 2 to 3 meetings a year'.

> "We have good relationships with partners. So, they trust each other and this can solve problems'.

This implies that informal interaction has always taken place in Bath, which can create strong personal relationships and build trust.

Most stakeholders continue to use established fora (including transition arenas) for strategic ends: to network, to gain knowledge, and most

significantly to push their agenda, as the General Manager of The National Trust pointed out (personal interview, 2016):

> "We sit there to make sure that the green setting is valued and go forward to the plan rather than potential risk. In terms of planning process, the coordinator will propose the agenda and policy to elected politicians'.

Interviews indicated civil servants play an essential role in influencing agenda setting. As a unitary authority, B&NES Council is responsible for the whole local planning, and eventually makes proposals to the councillors on agreed development plans for approval or revision (personal interview, the Bath WHS councillor, 2016). **The key finding in Bath, unlike in Ayutthaya, was that stakeholders can express their views freely and listen respectfully to each other**. Once the Management Plan is finished, the coordinator reports to the Council to integrate with the core strategic plan and ensure the reference to WHS.

Phase 2, Agenda-setting informs the following finding: **The local authority plays an influential role in shaping the agenda-setting process.**

4.3.4 Phase 3: Collaborative Working and Implementation

Gray (1996) suggests that during the implementation phase of a collaborative process, specific actions are undertaken to follow-through on agreements already reached, and that this implementation requires systematic management of inter-organisational relations.

Analysis of current management

The Bath WHS case study demonstrated that the management systems in place were extensive and largely well established, tried and tested. The good state of conservation of the site demonstrates that the systems are working well (Crouch, 2014). There are a wealth of interacting management mechanisms and legislation affecting the WHS, which need to be kept under review. Local elections take place every four years and can result in a widespread change of local politicians. Changes also take place amongst Steering Group members and a review process is built into the programme. The Management Plan has been frequently reviewed and revised to meet WHS aims. The site is vulnerable to small scale detrimental cumulative change. For example, minor alterations to private buildings may not appear to be a problem, but enough of these can impact on the OUV. The planning system does not always address these small changes as well as it could. There is also a continuing need to train, educate and influence decision makers connected with stewardship of an important WH site. Risk management is also required to counteract the loss of key personnel which would result in a shortfall of knowledge and momentum.

Funding

Bath benefitted greatly from a forty-year historic building repair grants programme, funded jointly by central and local government. However, this ended in 1995/6 and it is now almost impossible for private householders to obtain financial assistance for building maintenance or repair. The World Heritage Enhancement Fund does exist for not-for-profit groups and charities, and the conditions that come with this funding generally insist on high standards of workmanship. This might be why the Council listens to every voice before making decisions, particularly those of the BPT and The National Trust (personal interview, Councillor A, 2016).

Heritage culture both generates and requires funding. While in management terms the focus is often on the need for funding, the income derived from heritage also warrants mention. As an example, B&NES Council's Heritage Services is run as an independent business unit within the Council and generates external income for the local authority of over £15 million per annum, which is expected to increase to £19 million per annum by 2020 (The City of Bath World Heritage Site Steering Group, 2016). This income is a strategic resource for the authority, and represents a direct contribution to its finances from the local tourism economy. There are also indirect contributions via parking fees and the impact on rental values of shops. Protection of the OUV is heavily dependent upon financial resources but funding through the public sector will continue to be under pressure. B&NES Council is currently managing a £38 million funding shortfall due to central government grant

reduction, and increases in pay, pensions, national insurance and an ageing population requiring more care. As a consequence, there is an increased expectation for the council to maximise efficiency and explore new funding mechanisms.

Viewed this way, it is argued that WHS funding provides a contribution toward total project costs, and looks to attract matching funds. The multiplier effect of the funding is therefore significant and in times where budgets within individual organisations for discretionary works are reducing, this partnership approach has proved very successful.

A key finding which emerged: **The risk of reduced Council funding impeding development of the WHS and the need to maintain future funding.**

The following section examines the type of GN in the Bath case, the tensions arising during interactive decision-making processes and who has the most influential role in making decision.

4.4 Modes of Governance

Structure

Responsibility for management of the site belongs to many decision makers, (elected members, council officers or others) through a Steering Group. However, the above discussion clearly demonstrates that B&NES council

plays the predominant role of steward in management of the site and is

responsible for delivery and funding of most actions of the Management Plan.

The key decision makers require a good understanding of the OUV of the site

and their roles and responsibilities in its management (personal interview,

CEO of BPT, 2015). Local councillors act in what they consider to be the best

interests of the public. One councillor clearly explained the role (personal

interview, 2015):

> "What we have got here is democracy. We have to make sure
> that everybody has a voice. If they have a legitimate concern,
> we have to address it. We can't just push it to the other side and
> say "No" because at the end of the day the city belongs to
> everybody. So everybody has to have input'.

The coordinator mediates crucial ideas, and subsequently transmits these to

other stakeholders within the network for consideration. Decision making may

arise from socialised or disciplined discussion. Governing may be regarded

as a subtle process through which dominant perceptions are internalised by

the members of society. The coordinator interacts frequently with independent

bodies, namely the Bath Preservation Trust and National Trust, reflecting the

importance of these bodies for the success of local government management.

The finding has emerged as follows: **The local authority here has sufficient
resources and legitimacy to play a lead role within the networks.**

Network tensions

Partnerships need a process that makes good use of different perspectives, resources, and skills so that the group as a whole becomes more effective at addressing and solving problems. However, diversity can lead to tension and conflict which is one of the greatest challenges of partnership working (Fried and Rundall, 1994; Kreuter, Lezin, and Young, 2000). Bath is inevitably faced with tensions which arise between development and conservation of the city-wide site. The main pressures currently are large-scale development and the need for improved transport, particularly a park and ride scheme. The Bath case study brought up a 2015 consultation on a potential new park and ride site which attracted over 4,000 comments.

The Bath WHS coordinator illustrated the problem (personal interview, 2015):

> "There are always tensions arising because people in partnership have different roles. So the council may be responsible for transport or a new bus system something like that. The other groups such as Bath BPT or pressure groups may disagree with the Council's decisions and they may say it is the wrong thing to do'.

The CEO of BPT commented that (personal interview, 2015):

> "In terms of the management plan, there is a pressure of economic development. There is a need to protect the landscape and buildings. Park and ride is one of the tensions to arise. We have tried to solve the problem of traffic around Bath. It has been a long running problem really. Without real consensus about what the answer is, so things that are controversial for planning around the city do emerge'.

The section below discusses how the Steering Group deals with such tensions and how much influence is wielded by partnerships over the decision-making process.

Interactive decision-making

This research confirmed that managing the interactions - or 'process management' in GNs - is vitally important for achieving satisfactory outcomes. Empirical evidence demonstrated the importance of various participants or 'players' in decision-making, who not only possess vital resources for realising policy goals but also have different perceptions of the problems and ideas on solutions. Councillors wield most influential in decision-making as described by one Councillor (personal interview, 2015):

> "It's democratic. All the people who have a view on it, all bodies and all residents. They form opinions. The Council policy strategy all comes together and members of the cabinet will consider that and then make a decision. Or it goes to full Council and there is a public debate in a public forum and the voting system is open. Then the council will determine the outcomes. It has to go through the democratic process which takes a long time, and you need a lot of determination and patience to get things through'.

Another councillor shared a perspective on decision-making (personal interview, 2015):

> "There is no barrier because we have got overall majority control in the political arena. We create initiatives and make decisions. The opposition does not have the number to be able to act against us. So that is the process of democracy. If the direction of a majority of people in that area weren't correct then the

opposition would challenge that direction. If their cognitive argument is good enough, it will adjust or amend that direction to one which is better for the greater part of this community'.

During decision-making, it is the responsibility of each stakeholder to push their organisation's point of view and negotiate with other stakeholders to accomplish shared goals (personal interview, the Chairman of Federation of Bath Resident's Association, 2015).

Interviews revealed the workings of the interactive process. Steering Group members actively engage in discussion and negotiation with each other or with other parties to inform opinion about policy issues and solve problems (personal interview, the Bath WHS coordinator, 2015). The active part involves providing information during the process, through presentations and/or brief (informative) answers to questions from stakeholders. The various stakeholders participate in order to provide substantive input from their own perspective, interest, and value. Additionally, the Bath case demonstrated a good reciprocity supported by Walsh (2007, p. 51) "reciprocity required a willingness to listen to and potentially agree with other's reason".

The Divisional Director for Development of B&NES council stated that (personal interview, 2016):

> "In the planning process, it is about being open and transparent and engaging and getting as many people as possible. This is why it can take time because you have to wait to get their views, assess them, and make reasoned arguments. You find everybody wants different things, so you have to make decisions on what is most important overall'.

Major problems arise due to the fact decision-making can take a long time due to the resistance of various stakeholders or the large gap in opinion between politicians, civil servants and citizens (Marin and Mayntz, 1991; Kickert, Klijn, and Koppenjan, 1997; Rhodes, 1997; Pollitt, 2003). A councillor described the problem (personal interview, 2015):

> "The biggest barrier in any process is the resistance to change. So every time you say you are going to do this, people go 'oh! You can't do that there would be more traffic, more pollution'. You have to make the arguments. If you do that, we can control those things and relieve the pressure'.

Public opinion

At the other end of the spectrum, the judgement of stakeholders is heavily influenced by public opinion through the democratic process, public hearing, information, and equality (personal interview, General Manager of The National trust, 2016). Decision making benefits from public debate, and the value of public knowledge.

Local amenity societies regularly comment on development and policy proposals, and can be very influential. This process cannot always achieve consensus, but it does ensure that protection and management of the site through the planning system is participatory. Decisions on individual applications would either be 'delegated' decisions made by planning officers, or in the case of more complex cases they will be heard by the Development. Management Committee comprised of democratically elected local

councillors, ensuring that the planning process is again both participatory, democratic and open.

Overall, it seems that Bath operates an effective interactive decision-making process. The Council has become the most important intergovernmental 'player' in many policy arenas, including economic development, tourism, environment and well-being, possessing the critical resources of funding, information, and management expertise. The absence of absolute control by central government enables the council to pursue resources through bargaining with political 'players' closer to home, relying less on federal programs and more on the large variety of resources available to government, private, and non-profit organisations. Bath is actively engaged in intergovernmental management and involved in a complex grid of activities. Such activities are not based on a constant battle over the distribution of power, as is often the case in top-down and bottom-up processes which are closer to pluralistic model, but in a daily sorting out of issues within a particular policy arena.

The coordinator is well supported and therefore encouraged to break out of the traditional bureaucratic boxes to find creative and synergetic ways of organising and managing. Perhaps most significantly, deliberative action has provided opportunities for communities to discuss issues and formulate solutions in their own terms as shown in the Park and Ride case (Fischer, 2003, pp. 206-208).

It seems that business and property development stakeholders do not play an influential role in the steering group. The CEO of BPT stated (personal interview, 2015):

> "If the major property developers wish to be involved, there might be issues around that because nobody in this steering group has a financial interest in decision making by the steering group at the moment'.

In a modern city such as Bath, economic development proceeds alongside conservation. However, developers value certainty and may view World Heritage as another level of bureaucracy and complexity. In addition, those opposing new developments are increasingly making complaints to UNESCO, having exhausted the usual national planning system avenues. These complaints result in extra cost, work, and can hinder a city's ability to attract investment.

Key findings which emerged from the Bath case study:

(1) Decision-making is a democratic process which heavily reliant on effective information sharing by the various stakeholders.

(2) The council strategically pursues problem-solving by involving stakeholders and utilising the right blend of resources, and removing critical barriers to action.

(3) A key accomplishment of the GN here was uniting stakeholders in the common goal of preserving the WHS for sustained urban tourism and economic development.

(4) The private sector has limited influence in the GN.

The next section examines the development of GNs within sustainable heritage tourism in the Ayutthaya case. Longitudinal analysis is conducted to investigate its collaboration and policy implementation, and eventually several issues and themes are identified for further comparison in Chapter 6.

4.5 Governance Networks of the World Heritage Site in Ayutthaya, Thailand

4.5.1 Background

This section examines the development of GNs within sustainable heritage tourism in Ayutthaya, Thailand. Longitudinal analysis of data obtained from documentary analysis and interviews was carried out to investigate processes of collaboration and policy implementation.

Geographical

Ayutthaya total population 810,320 (Office Statistics Registration Systems, 2016), is situated approximately 80 kilometres north of Bangkok. The historic city of Ayutthaya and associated historic towns underwent restoration before they became a World Heritage site. In 1935, the Fine Arts Department registered the historic city of Ayutthaya, covering an area of 289 hectares, as an ancient monument, and it has since been protected and maintained.

Figure 13: Map showing the location of Ayutthaya and its World Heritage Site

Source: http://www.thailovetrip.com/map/map-ayutthaya2.gif

The Ayutthaya Historical Park has prepared printed materials, video documentaries, exhibitions, and a website for visitors. Infrastructure includes parking space, public restrooms for visitors including the disabled, electricity, tap water, local and international telephone service, telegram, Internet, email, and currency exchange service. It has received an increasing number of visitors totally 6,698,561 in 2014 (4,902,774 Thai and 1,795,787 foreigners) (TAT, 2014) - possibly resulting from online promotion and the annual tourism calendar, as well as its WHS status. The Historical Park received Baht 25,810,020 (£573,556) from entrance fees in 2015 (personal interview, The Director of the Bureau of Archaeology, 2015).

4.5.2 Institutional design

Thailand is a unitary state governed by a parliamentary system that incorporate three-levels of administrative structure; central, regional, and local. The central administration consists of a number of ministries serving as the executive branch, which is responsible for policy formulation at the national level. The regional administration consists of a number of arms-length bodies of central ministries, covering 76 provinces. Ayutthaya is a regional administration governed by a Provincial Governor appointed by the Ministry of the Interior. Governors coordinate and facilitate the delegated tasks by staff dispatched from various ministries to work at the provincial level. However, these regional bodies are seen as branches of national government and have neither absolute autonomy nor power over policymaking (Krueathep, 2010). In contrast, at the local level administration consists of local governmental units, defined in the constitution to be autonomous bodies. The national and local structure in Thailand is shown in figure 14.

Figure 14: National and Local Government Structure in Thailand
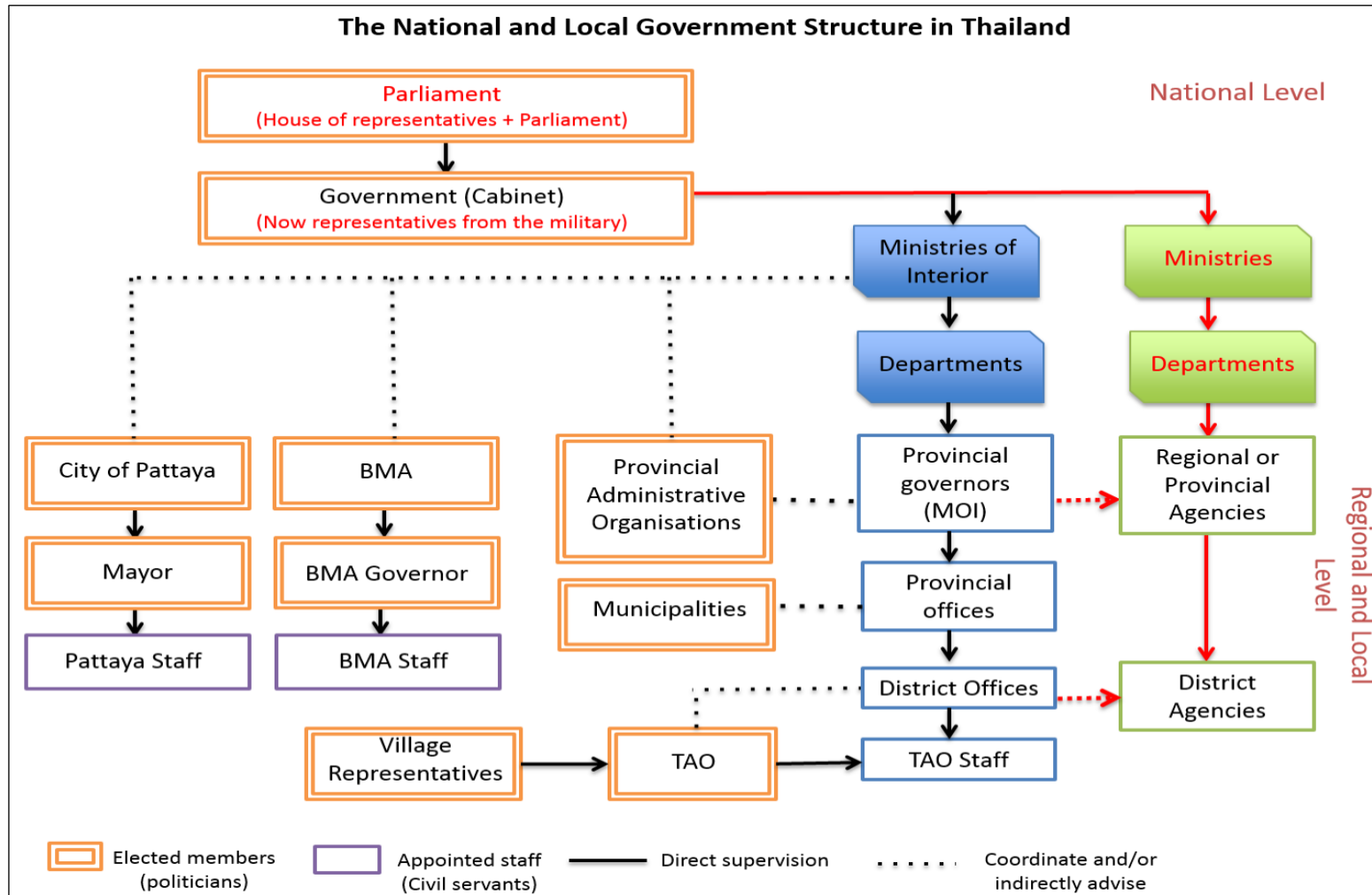
Source: adopted from Nagai and Kagoya (2008)

Regarding local government, Thailand employs a two-tier system, which is made up of five types of local authority. There are three types of local governments - The Provincial Administrative Organisation (PAO), Municipality (Thesaban), and Tambon Administrative Organisation (TAO), operated throughout 76 provinces. The PAO (76 units) is the upper tier responsible for large-scale public services provision covering an entire province. The lower-tier of local government is comprised of the Municipality and TAO. Municipality (of which there were 2,082 units in 2011) exists in three forms, differing in function as designated by law. TAO (of which there were 5,693 units in 2011), is the smallest unit closest to local people and, operates small-scale functions. While Municipalities are established in urban areas, TAOs are found in rural areas, to serve grass-roots democracy and to promote the public's participation (Rajchagool, 2001). Additionally, the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration and Pattaya City were established in 1975 and 1978, respectively as special forms of local government. Bangkok residents directly elect the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration's Chief Executive and members of the local assembly. Meanwhile, Pattaya's administrative arrangement replicates the US-style city management system. Its Chief Executive is also popularly elected.

4.6 Application of GN models in Ayutthaya

4.6.1 The development of partnership working

As in Bath, Ayutthaya's WHS management has a long history of development. The Strategic Plan of the Historic City of Ayutthaya was developed over 23 years (Figure 15) and was intended to involve several parties in policymaking, namely central governments, local governments, private sector, society organisations, and academic organisations. Gray's (1996) framework is used to assess the issues and developmental phases that had emerged by 1993.

As in the Bath case, the primary goals of the Ayutthaya plan are to develop sustainable tourism, enhance infrastructure, improve the environment and regulate land-use to avoid future problems. This study thus allowed a comparison of GN form and function in SUT in two countries having distinct political and cultural differences.

The following section examines the development and dynamic of GNs in Ayutthaya to identify the key factors that led to their formation.

Figure 15: Chronology of Ayutthaya Historic City since 1977

The chronology of Ayutthaya Historic City since 1977

➤ The Royal Government allowed the Fine Arts Department to conserve and manage the Ayutthaya Historical Park Plan.

1977

➤ The Master Plan was established by the Fine Art Department

1992

➤ specified core zone
➤ International assistance has been requested

1995

➤ The Fine Arts Department recalled the authority on building control in order to review, revise and adopt the better conservation approach.

2014

The development of the Ayutthaya Historic City

Phase 1: problem-setting

Phase 2: direction-setting

Phase 3: Implementation and building sustainability

1991

➤ The Historic City of Ayutthaya WHS was inscribed by UNESCO

1993

➤The cabinet approved the Master plan the committees were set up
➤Appointment of Chairman

2011

➤ The Fine Arts Department empowered its authority on building control in the Historic City of Ayutthaya to the municipality.

2015-2016

➤ Revised Master Plan and focus on sustainable development

Source: developed by the researcher

4.6.2 Phase 1: Developing the networks

In 1977, the Royal Government of Thailand appointed the Fine Arts Department to conserve and manage the historic city of Ayutthaya and to devise the Historical Park Plan, which aimed to restore only the monuments in the inscribed area. After becoming a WHS in 1991, the Fine Arts Department amended the Strategic Plan with the aim of maintaining the integrity and uniqueness of this World Heritage site. The Strategic Plan is the first project that makes use of local history to benefit economic and social development. It has become complex and therefore, requires the collaboration of various organisations to meet the plan's aims and objectives.

In the initial stage, the Ayutthaya study revealed a lack of evidence regarding the involvement of the local authority and other stakeholders in formulating the Plan. As such, the goals might not meet the expectations of local people and the local authorities. Similar to Bath, the purpose of the Plan was to preserve and develop the historical site, develop infrastructure, improve the environment and landscape, and promote cultural and historical tourism. These aims are consistent with the requirements of the National Economic and Social Development Plan (No. 7). The Plan focuses on promoting cultural tourism and balancing economic and social development and requires partnership working between public and private sectors and other organisations, including the local community. The interviews indicated that there was a high degree of agreement about the project's major goals among

partners. However, major problems associated with the Ayutthaya WHS can be defined as follows:

Land-use planning

The archaeological sites are interrupted by personal property, houses, government offices, roads, and traffic congestion. As a result, the archaeological and historical views are impoverished. The WHS is disorganised due to poor urban planning since infrastructure health, transportation, environment and waste disposal issues are not being taken fully into account.

Infrastructure

Many of the site's roads, pedestrian access and parking systems are poorly managed and adversely affected by the image of the site. There is also a main street running through the archaeological site which might harm it and electrical, high-voltage power lines cross the centre, disrupting the scenery and are potentially dangerous.

Communities in the WHS

Community management is a key component of governance of the historic city of Ayutthaya. Local residents have invaded some areas for residential and commercial purposes. Some areas are privately owned and some are

government properties. This has led to difficulties in landscape management on the entire site. Additionally, residents in the community suffer from poor physical health, and the quality of life is quite low.

Tourism development

Tourism services cannot impress visitors because of poor infrastructure and lack of communication. Public transport is inconvenient and the government plays little attention to transport systems in the WHS. Retailers and services, namely hotels, restaurants and souvenir shops are of low standard. There is no tour guide service or businesses that specializes in providing informative and entertaining tours through the WHS (personal interview, Director of Office of Tourism and Sport, Ayutthaya Province, 2015). Cultural and historical tourism are barely promoted. Government agencies responsible for WHS management and tourism are barely competent; thus it is necessary to outsource such services to the private sectors and specialists.

The following finding emerged: **Benefits of cultural tourism are recognised but absolute chaos has ensured with no care for improvement or development.**

Involvement of stakeholders

The involvement of stakeholders in the Ayutthaya GN is through a top-down process. Figure 16 illustrates the partnership dynamics and network process in Ayutthaya.

Central government

The state alone cannot undertake the task of WHS management. Over the past decade, Thai policy making has shifted from a centralised, top-down approach to a more decentralised, networked and cross-institutionalised mode of governance (Correlje and Verbong, 2004). To facilitate reform, the local authority and central government embraced a GN framework for the Strategic Plan, which was aimed at steering networks. The Fine Arts Department plays an essential role in preserving the WHS and formulating the conservation plans and activities. They are also consultants in the preparation of the WHS strategic plan and the action plans delivered to the stakeholders who are responsible for conservation activities. The Fine Arts Department also provides advice to the Advisory Board for approving the plan. The Director of the 3rd Regional Office of the Fine Arts Department stated (personal interview, 2015):

Figure 16: Network processes of WHS management in Ayutthaya
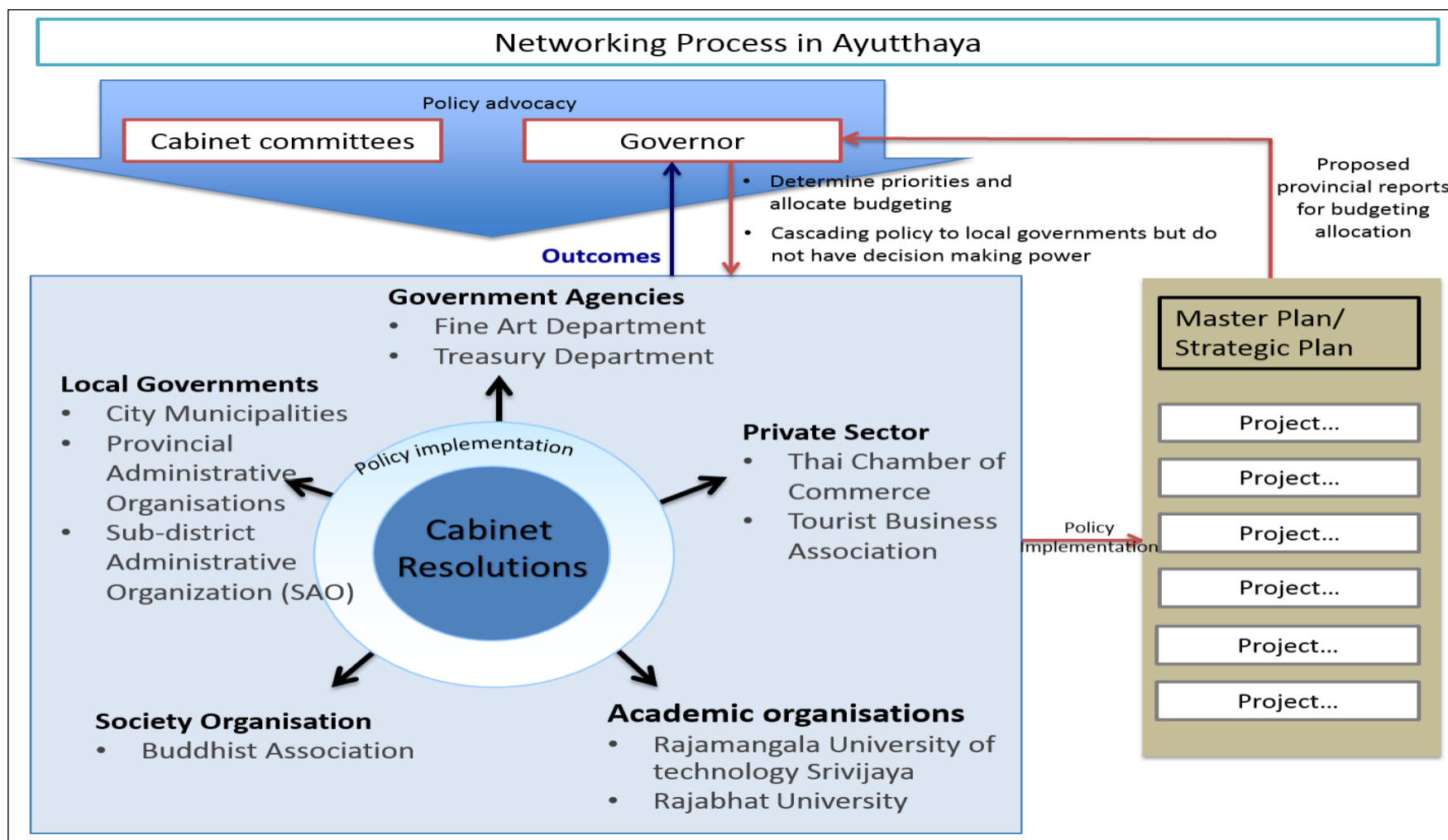
Source: developed by the researcher

> "Since the Strategic Plan of Ayutthaya was established, we have been working and collaborating with other organisations. The structure of the Advisory Board consists of the Deputy Prime Minister as the Chairman and involves other related organisations, namely central, regional, and local governments, and private sectors. We do not have sufficient power to manage the WHS and stakeholders. Therefore, we initially needed to have the authority of the Deputy Prime Minister in specifying the roles and responsibility of all stakeholders'.

Projects cannot be accomplished without referring to the Advisory Board (personal interview, Director of Bureau of Archelogy, 2015). Viewed this way, **the GN reflects Thai society in which inequalities are accepted; and a strict chain of command and protocol are observed.** People in lower positions show loyalty, respect and deference to their superiors in return for protection and guidance. This may lead to paternalistic management. Thus, the information flow is hierarchical and controlled (Hofstede, 1985).

Local government

The Regional Governor and the City municipality are responsible for budget allocation and raising funds from both local and international sources. The Governor acts as a consultant in preparation of the financial plan for the agencies which are responsible for the various activities. The Treasury Department is one of the most important stakeholders in fostering the WHS and owns over 90 percent of the land surrounding the WHS. Its role is to carry out land management, giving consideration to the natural environmental, social, political, economic and governance factors and to provide a holistic framework through which to achieve sustainable outcomes.

The present Constitution prescribes local agencies to take part in protection of cultural heritage. The Fine Arts Department mainly coordinates with local governments, namely the Pra Nakorn Sri Ayutthaya province, the Municipality of Pra Nakorn Sri Ayutthaya, the Provincial Administrative Organisation (upper-tier), and the Sub-District Administration Office (lower-tier), the Department of Religious Affairs and other related agencies. Local agencies can establish their own rules and policies concerning the preservation and management of cultural heritage.

The structure of the Strategic Plan is likely to serve as a conduit connecting the 'hands-on' working groups and stakeholders to more elite, hierarchical institutions. Ironically, it seems that in practice the structure replicates the very kind of network that scholars suggest should be avoided. It is clear that central and local governments play an influential role in implementing the Plan. However, the inclusion of some stakeholders selected as 'potentially affected', namely police, media, temples, electricity generators and schools is so broad to be unworkable in practice and the scale necessitates that participants deliberate on behalf of others. While the Bath case demonstrates the correct selection of stakeholders who reflect affected populations, provide specialist knowledge, have professional experience and display a positive attitude to the task, the interviews conducted in the Ayutthaya case suggest that there are too many unnecessary participants. Excessive diversity is likely to hamper the ability of the network's management to steer and engage key players (Hasnain-Wynia et al., 2003).

Furthermore, the Ayutthaya case showed that many GN participants were selected on the basis of their organisational background and area in which they were based. The danger here is that stronger stakeholders dominate or exclude the weaker ones (Esmark, 2007). When one takes a closer look at the extent to which 'potential affected sectors' are involved, two significant groups –private sector and non-governmental organisations - are absent.

Similar to the Bath case, the private sector has little influence in the WHS development plan as mentioned by the Director of Office of Tourism and Sport, Ayutthaya Province (personal interview, 2015):

> "The private sector participation is insufficient in Ayutthaya. Everything is conducted by the local governments. I think many private sectors are not involved in this Plan because they believe that the project is not worth investment. There are lots of constraints in terms of laws and regulations. The number of tourists is low'.

Furthermore, policy documents cite the need to engage 'civil society' in the Strategic Plan in order to build support. However, these intentions do not seem to have been translated into practice. A crucial limitation is the lack of non-governmental organisations that might have been highly valuable, given their potential importance in protection of environmental resources and advocating for social welfare (personal interview, Former Vice Governor, 2015). In the absence of social welfare and environmental interest groups attending the meetings, cautious approaches to social equity or environmental issues would be more likely. Limited resources also restrict the capacity of smaller organisations, namely TAO and temples to engage in the GN (personal interview, Deputy of TAO, 2015).

In summary, the GN operating in the Ayutthaya WHS sought to be inclusive and to provide equitable access to policy making. However, there was little evidence of actions to encourage diversity and equity of participation. Furthermore, the restricted range of the participants in the partnership was likely to have affected all aspects of policy planning and operation. The research here suggests, in line with others, that GNs remain relatively closed on and are dominated by political elites (Auel 2006; Taiclet, 2006).

The key finding which emerged: **The GN in Ayutthaya comprised too many unnecessary stakeholders and did not represent the full spectrum of tourism industry interests.**

Implementation of the plan - legal aspects

The implementation of the Plan follows ICOMOS standards. The Act on Ancient Monuments, Antiques, Objects of Art and National Museums is used to protect the historic city and specifies clear punishment for breaches of the law. The historic city of Ayutthaya and associated historic towns are protected by various national laws which impose the need for legitimacy when implementing policy on the WHS. This might reflect Thai cultural preference to avoid uncertainty; in pursuit of which, strict rules, laws, policies, and regulations are adopted and implemented. As a result of this 'high uncertainty avoidance' characteristic, society does not readily accept change and is very risk adverse. Change has to be seen to be for the greater good of the group they belong (Hofstede, 1985).

However, the legal framework appears to disconnect the central government and local government that it seeks to empower. Laws governing organisations' do not correlate with others, resulting in duplication of roles and responsibilities. The Former Vice Governor confirmed (personal interview, 2015):

> "There is nobody who undertakes overarching authorisation. When each organisation emphasises its goal and own laws, collaborative working hardly happens. They focus on their own self-interest'.

The key finding which emerged: **The lack of holistic laws and regulations created duplication of roles and responsibilities.**

4.6.3 Phase 2: Collaborative working and direction-setting

Agenda Setting

An important stage in GN processes is setting an agenda that is acceptable and acknowledged by all stakeholders. At the regional level, as in the case of Ayutthaya, tourism policy involves diverse partners, and is therefore likely to entail considerable delicate debate as the members often differ in their interests and in their levels of expertise and power. The 3rd Regional Office of Fine Arts Department illustrated the problem (personal interview, 2015):

"We are working with various actors but over the past years the meetings haven't been as good as we expected. Everyone doesn't understand the shared goals. They focus on their organisations' goals and interest without consideration of the overarching plan'.

The World Heritage Convention emphasises the importance of preserving the OUV of WHS. It concentrates on achieving a balance between conservation and sustainable development and issues of the economy, society and the environment. The public sector and the community are expected to maintain quality and standards in WHS management. The Strategic Plan of the Historic City of Ayutthaya also covered education and conservation and restoration of natural resources and the environment. Sustainable development was addressed. Land-use was intensely managed in accordance with town planning both in the city and outskirts and the expansion of urban areas and communities in the WHS were controlled.

It seems that agenda setting in Ayutthaya is cascaded from national to local level as stated by the Director of Bureau of Archaeology (personal interview, 2015):

"We are entirely centralised, placing all authority in the hands of a political regime. For example, presently we are under the military dictatorship, we perform in accordance with the military regulations. Luckily, we have the same goals with the military to organise the WHS and make it tidier. Our management is smoother. Unlike in the previous two years, we were under the political parties, so the work of each agency can't meet each other halfway'.

Stakeholders mentioned that the Fine Arts Department had influenced the policy agenda, often suggesting that this input had been substantial. The hierarchical process probably encourages acceptance among some partners. The Deputy of TAO mentioned that (personal interview, 2015):

> "We participate in this project in accordance with the government policy. We do what they want us to do. We just sat there and expressed our opinions. The decisions are made by the key organisations'.

The weakness in Ayutthaya is that central government can set its own agenda and dominate the other network members, causing resentment and resistance. Local government takes on many of the activities relating to governing the networks and, stakeholders can readily lose interest in network-based goals and focus instead on their own self-interests. Some participants who feel that their opinions are not being taken into account and consideration may drop out of the discussions and eventually exclude themselves (personal interview, Deputy Mayor of Town Municipality, 2015).

The key finding generated here is: **Agendas were set in accordance with central direction and national policy with limited local input.**

4.6.4 Phase 3: Collaborative Working and Implementation

Many efforts have been made by central and local government to implement the Strategic Plan. However, some of their plans have not yet been finished.

Analysis of current management

According to documentary analysis and interviews gained during this study, the implementation of the Strategic Plan by central and local government has faced many challenges as follows:

In terms of WHS management, there is duplication of role and responsibility between the Fine Arts Department and the local authority and no clear accountability. There is a lack of coordination between stakeholder organisations across all layers and sectors along with information gaps across departments and between jurisdictions.

The government officers responsible for public service provision have insufficient competency to deal with problems. Therefore, outsourcing to the private sector, which is likely to be more professional, is required. Laws and regulations are also needed to facilitate implementation. The 'invasion' of the WHS by local people remains a key issue because of lawlessness, the lack of enforcement and the ineffectiveness of administrative management.

One of the main problems is that stakeholders still work in their own interests without regard to the shared goals of the Strategic Plan (personal interview, the Senior Clerk of City Municipality, 2015).

The Director of the 3rd Reginal Office of the Fine Arts Department argued (personal interview, 2015):

> "There has been little progress in implementing the Strategic Plan, particularly sustainable tourism. The major obstacles are insufficient collaborative work of stakeholders. They still perform duties in accordance with their own goals and laws. On the one hand, various organisations can help to achieve the goal. On the other hand, there is a matter of cross-purposes in almost any game played in a field with various players'.

The key finding which emerged: **Common goals were difficult to achieve when stakeholders seek to pursue their own interests.**

4.7 Mode of GNs

The governance network operating in the historic city of Ayutthaya is organised by the Fine Arts Department and local governments and shows similarity of policy with the Council-led GN in Bath. However, Ayutthaya's model is highly centralised and brokered, with asymmetrical power (Provan and Kenis, 2007).

Structuring

Similar to Bath, the structure of the Ayutthaya GN involves key stakeholders and inter-organisations joint activities, including formalising the mechanisms required for implementation of the WHS (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Selin and Chavez, 1995). The Ayutthaya case shows that formalising implementation responsibilities began almost at the out-set in accordance with central government resolutions. In particular, there was an early decision that key responsibilities lay with three central government agencies (Fine Art Department, Department of Treasury, and Office of Tourism and Sport), four local agencies (Town Municipality, Ayutthaya Province, City Municipality, and Subdistrict Administrative Organisation), two private sectors organisations (Thai Chamber of Commerce and Tourist Business Association) and other related organisations (Buddhist Association, and universities). Some interviewees indicated that roles and responsibilities are still unclear in terms of actions. Overall, the GN structure of the historic city of Ayutthaya appears to be formal and hierarchical.

Network tensions

Similar to the findings in the Bath study, tensions were evident in the Ayutthaya case due to the conflicting demands of sustainability and local-well-being, economic competitiveness, and social exclusion. Tensions arose due to overlapping roles and responsibilities of central and local governments, land-usage, and the lack of law enforcement. For example, the City

municipality acted as a developer while the Fine Arts Department acted as the preservation stakeholder. However, the Ayutthaya case study revealed less conflict between developers and preservation organisations than in Bath. It seems that size matters; Ayutthaya's WH site area is ten times less than Bath, which leaves more space for industrial development on the outskirts without producing a negative impact on the WHS.

Interactive decision-making

In the Ayutthaya case, participants mentioned that agreements might not be reached collectively and most reported that consensus was difficult to achieve when stakeholders seek their own outcomes and lack a sense of collective responsibility.

Four interviewees felt it was difficult to reach an agreed perspective. The Director of Office of Tourism and Sport commented (personal interview, 2015):

> "There are always tensions taking place in this planning process. The main problem is the lack of holistic management. Each organisation, namely Fine Arts Department, City Municipality, etc., holds their own laws and regulations. So no one listens to each other. There is confusion about who is accountable to whom and how'.

The Director of the Bureau of Archaeology added (personal interview, 2015):

> "We hardly ever have collaborative work here because we don't recognise collective goals. The City Municipality aims at developing and responding to locals who are going to vote them in or out. However, our organisation focuses on conservative

and preservation. They do not know how to obtain benefit from the WHS'.

In summary, effective management of the Ayutthaya WHS and SUT under the GN currently in place, appears to be severely restricted not least because stakeholders cannot agree on or work towards collective goals and desirable outcomes.

The key finding which emerged: **Open, collaborative and networked responses were curtailed and stakeholders' interests often collided resulting in a blocking of decision making.**

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter described and compared the structure and dynamics of GN at WHS in Bath and Ayutthaya. Two main aspects emerged: firstly, effective interactive partnerships take a long time to develop. Secondly, GNs change over time to meet the changing policies of national and local government and SUT.

An 'adaptive' management style focuses on goal setting and achievement and welcome new ideas, whereas a 'closed' style is oriented more toward fixed goals from the outset. The Bath case clearly demonstrated operation of an adaptive style. The Ayutthaya case followed a closed style, where open, collaborative and networked responses were curtailed and stakeholders' interests often collided resulting in blocking of decision making. The Bath

study clearly demonstrated that the role of coordinator is critical to success of the GN and must be given sufficient authority to ensure that interaction with stakeholders result in enhanced problem solving and the achievement of set targets. There is no official coordinator of WHS management in Ayutthaya and the lead organisation, namely the Fine Art Department, is likely to form restricted interactions with stakeholders resulting in sub-optimum development of the GN and SUT.

Unlike Ayutthaya, Bath implemented a partnership approach which was locally driven. The proven success of Bath's pluralistic approach to GNs in SUT can provide a useful working model for sustainable heritage tourism in Thailand and may be applicable to other policy areas. Furthermore, the within-case analysis revealed a few key findings to be focused in order to address the key research questions, which will be the main focus of Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 5

GOVERNANCE NETWORK STRUCTURES IN URBAN

TOURISM: LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF

SEASIDE TOWN CASES

5.1 Introduction

This chapter investigates the application of Governance Networks (GNs) in relation to small-sized seaside town tourism. Smith (2004) suggests that while environmental "sustainability" was the 1990s buzzword for seaside towns looking to boost tourism by diversifying their offer in the market place, the concept of "cultural regeneration" replaced it in the early 2000s. Margate is an example of a seaside resort promoting cultural, creative and artistic character through arts-led regeneration. The seaside town case in Thailand centres on Pattaya, in which diverse and complex issues have arisen regarding tourism management and problem solving in terms of partnership working seems to be challenging.

A longitudinal analysis was employed to investigate the development of GNs within sustainable urban tourism (SUT) in seaside towns. A chronology of governance network (GN) development was constructed to demonstrate the development of collaboration in three phases based on particular periods in which key decisions on partnership policy were made. Figure 17 illustrates an overview of the preliminary analysis of Pattaya and Margate case studies.

Figure 17: Overview of the preliminary analysis of Pattaya and Margate case studies
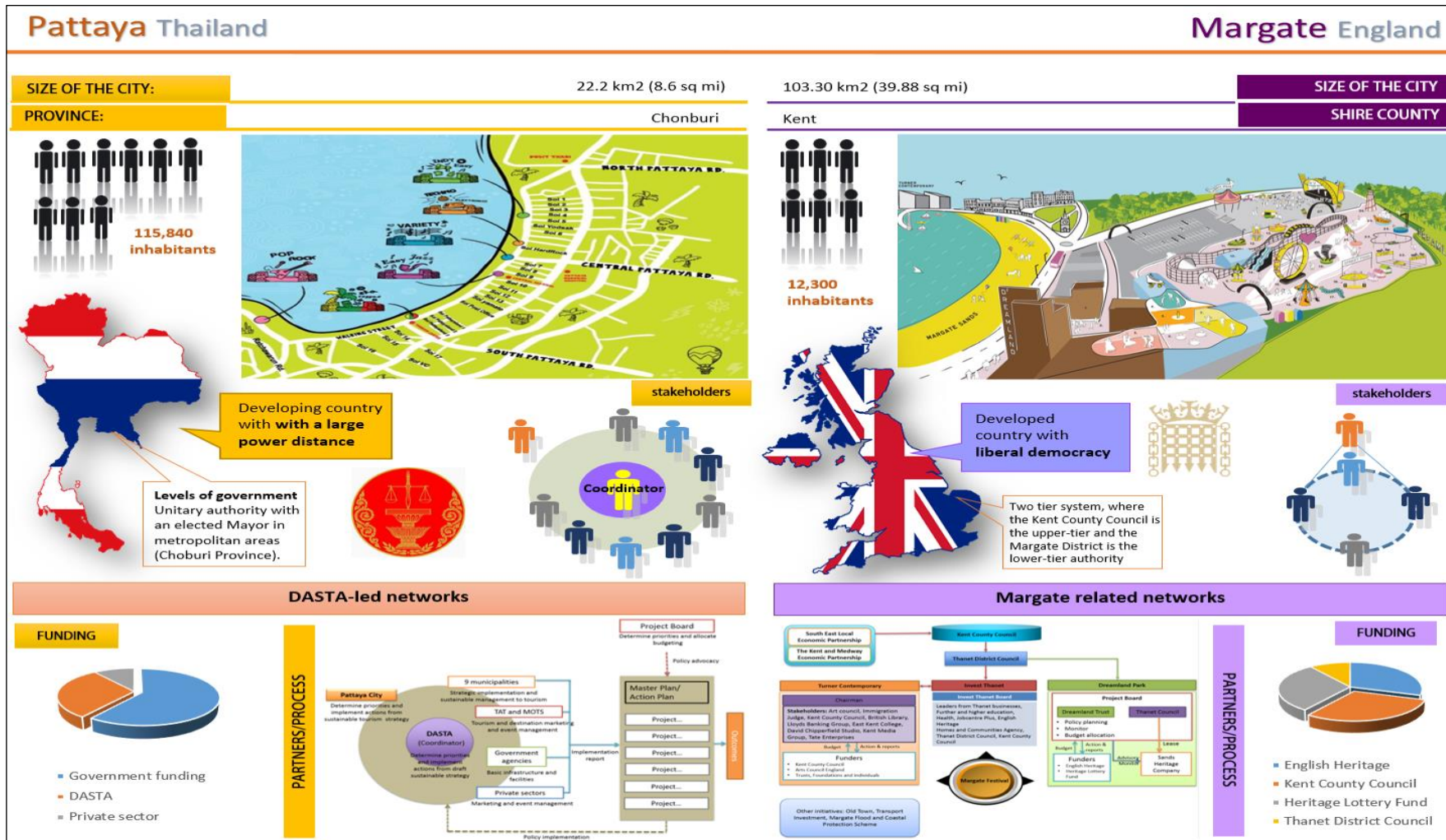
Source: developed by the researcher

5.2 GNs in SUT the seaside town of Margate

5.2.1 Background

Geographical

Margate is situated in the South East of England, on the north Kent coastline (Figure 18). It has a population of just over 119,000, of which 12,300 live on the district's northern coastline. The nearest city is Canterbury, and London can be reached in an hour and a half by train. The town and two neighbouring seaside towns, Ramsgate and Broadstairs, come under Thanet District Council.

Figure 18: Map showing the location of Margate

Source:http://airgates.co.uk/2015/03/27/dreamland-margate-opening-date-revealed/#more-9449
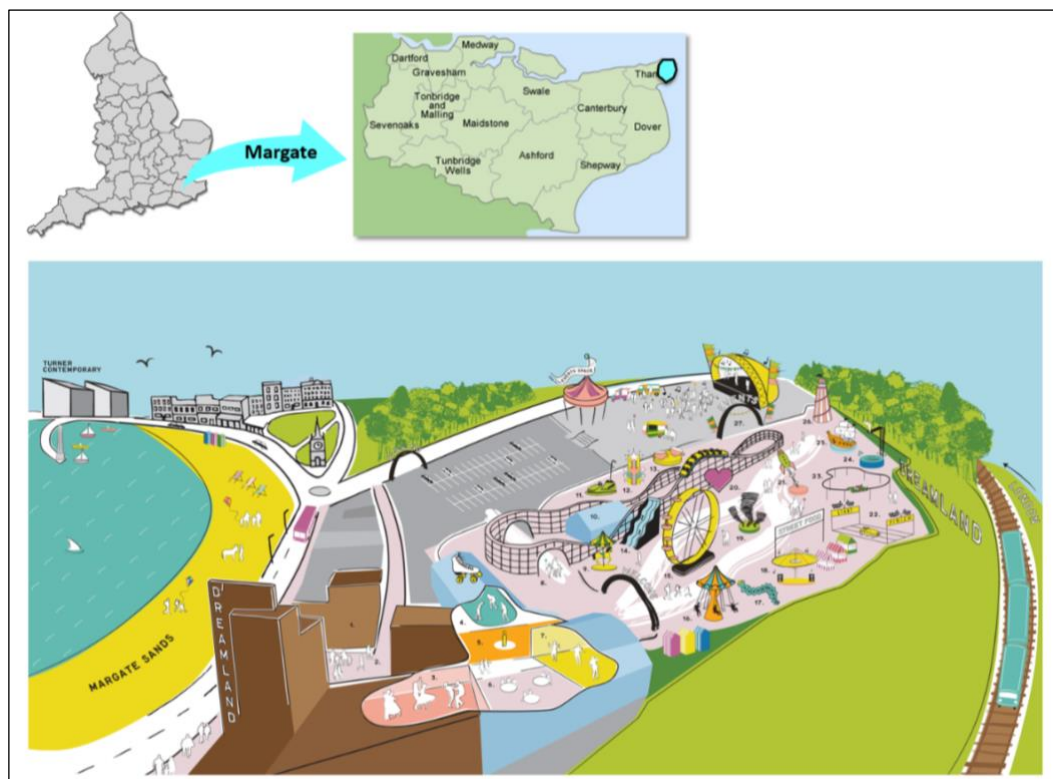
Tourism

Each seaside town has a distinctive history and personality. Margate has a strong place in the English psyche due to its longstanding reputation for traditional seaside fun, now mixed with added cultural and creative edge. Margate is known for its sandy beach located in Thanet, and these two names will be used interchangeably throughout this chapter.

Tourism and the visitor economy are priorities in Thanet (Jarques, 2013). Thanet is nationally renowned for the strength and diversity of its tourism industry, culture and leisure sectors which benefits from a wealth of heritage assets and distinctive architecture across the district. A councillor on Kent County Council pointed out that (personal interviewed, 2017):

> "Although the proportion of employment rate in Thanet is very small, tourism is rising up there. Its fastest growth is in the districts. So tourism is saving the economy of Thanet and it is the hub of the cultural tourism'.

Traditional seaside town tourism faces challenges linked to low pay and seasonality and there is an on-going need to improve the offer and respond to changing demands. The tourism, culture and leisure sector is adapting quickly, and broadening the profile of visitors to the area. High value elements such as Turner Contemporary in Margate have become cultural destinations in their own right.

Seaside destinations are losing market share to city breaks and trips to the countryside. The seaside also tends to attract fewer high-speeding visitors and more families with children, than other types of leisure destination. The majority of visitors to Thanet come for the day – 50 percent travelling from home - and another 25 percent arrive from a holiday base elsewhere. Most visit in summer, with a significant peak in August (Qa Research Ltd., 2012). To improve the local economy, Thanet needs to attract more staying visitors who will spend money on accommodation and also in restaurants and shops, thereby supporting the development of more quality and character retail and accommodation. Thanet is beginning to attract people from London to visit, live and invest and wants to attract more visitors who come for a short break rather than a day trip. Thanet also wants to invest in cultural-led tourism regeneration and improve quality.

5.2.2 Institutional design

Thanet is a local government district of Kent, and the Isle of Thanet makes up the major part of the district. The town of Margate is an unparished area: it has a charter maintained by charter trustees, having been a municipal borough before 1974. The Localism Act 2012 gave greater powers to town and parish councils as they offer democratic representation and accountability, the ability to influence other bodies' decision-making and to deliver existing services or provide additional ones. These include the preparation of a neighbourhood development plan or order, which when completed becomes part of the local

development plan for the area and must be used as a basis for planning decision-making.

Funding is allocated through five levels of planning processes: a) Government; b) South East Local Economic Partnership (SELEP); c) The Kent and Medway Economic Partnership (KMEP); d) Kent County Council (KCC); e) 12 Districts. However, there is less money from the top. In terms of policymaking, KCC is the lead decision maker and strategist in regeneration schemes in Margate (personal interview, KCC councillor, 2017). However, a policy problem here is how interactive decisions are made and how decision-making involves the community.

A key finding which emerged: **The strategic planning process here was generally top-down and is fundamentally a two-tier system.**

5.3 Application of the GN model in the Margate case study

5.3.1 The development of Margate partnerships working

Cultural regeneration in Margate

Margate felt the post-1970s decline in UK seaside tourism particularly keenly. Its economy was overwhelmingly dependent on tourism income, and its geographical separation from other urban or industrial centres left it with few opportunities to sustain its economic (Kennell, 2011). Margate itself contains

some of the most deprived Council wards in southeast England (Elsea, 2005).

In the late 1990s, local government and funding agencies decided to develop

new forms of economic activity to stimulate tourism and revive the town. This

decision led to the development of local regeneration plans, including the

promotion of a cultural quarter in the 'Old town' area of Margate and the vision

for a major new international art museum to be built on the seafront. It was

envisaged that cultural tourism, would drive regeneration of the town through

direct benefits and secondary spending in the local economy.

A local government officer of KCC informed (personal interview, 2017):

> "The tourism economy is recovering now. Part of this is because
> of the development of Turner Contemporary. We are conscious
> of the fact that we just can't allow the place to realise economy.
> I look back to the 1980s at that time we relied heavily on tourism.
> So part of the reasoning behind building up culture offering here
> is to also build up the creative economy. The creative economy
> in Kent is now a strengthening sector, so it was really important
> that in the past five years we brought this to the districts as well'.

However, the new developments raised controversy amongst the local media,

as well as community and resident groups. There were concerns about the

exclusivity of the cultural regeneration concept, dissatisfaction with the design,

the lack of community involvement in the decision-making process and the

cost of the project (Garcia, 2004). Figure 19 summarises the development of

Margate partnership working.

Figure 19: Chronology of Margate Regeneration since 2003

The chronology of Margate Regeneration since 2003

➤ Save Dreamland campaign by Dreamland Trust and local community

2003

➤ The TDC working in partnership with Dreamland Trust, funded £18 million by Heritage Lottery Fund and awarded £1.8 million from the Government's coastal Communities Fund

2007

➤ The establishment of Turner Contemporary funded £17.4 million by Kent County Council, Arts Council England and the South East England Development Agency.
➤ It is an independent charity trust body
➤ Margate Renewal Partnership was finished.

2011

➤ Thanet District Council compulsorily purchased the Dreamland Site

2013

➤ Dreamland was reopened in August
➤ Margate was nominated as a great town by Academy of Urbanism
➤ In 2015 partners appointed an independent producer who delivered the highly successful Tribes, a month long summer festival.

2015

The development of Margate Regeneration

Phase 1: Developing the networks | Phase 2: Direction-setting | Phase 3: Implementation and building sustainability

2006

➤ Dreamland closed
➤ Establishment of Margate Renewal Partnership with coordinator (but now redirects automatically to the Thanet Regeneration Board).

2008

➤ English Heritage and Art Council England had ringfenced funds to look at new ways of reimagining regeneration.
➤ funding for Margate's flagship Turner Contemporary gallery was secured.

2012

➤ The collaboration between Thanet council and English Heritage initiating regeneration scheme.

2014

➤ Restore the iconic Scenic Railway and Cinema building
➤ seafront shops were reopened.
➤ Margate Festival was the partnership between Turner Contemporary, Dreamland, and Kent County Council
➤ Thanet Regeneration Board changed to be Invest Thanet.

2016

➤ The Turner has achieved more than 2 million visits and has been a catalyst for the regeneration of the town.
➤ Dreamland has struggled to draw enough visitors – 50% fewer than anticipated over its first summer season.
➤ Margate Festival

Source: developed by the researcher

5.3.2 Phase 1: Developing the networks

Empirical evidence shows that the Thanet District Council (TDC) adopted a culture-led regeneration and partnership working to address its financial crisis. In fact, Margate was initially subject to this partnership due to Dreamland regeneration.

Involvement of stakeholders

Partnership working in Margate developed over two stages. The first stage was initiated by local community and pressure groups in 2003 (Figure 20) to reopen Dreamland (see below). The second stage involved the establishment of a formal body of Margate Renewal Partnership (now known as Invest Thanet) and Turner Contemporary.

Dreamland

The possible benefits of Margate adopting a GN approach to cultural regeneration and SUT was identified as early as 2003. Initially, key local heritage sites including the former amusement park 'Dreamland', which was once a landmark feature of the town and a significant employer, were integrated into the future development plans for the town. Originally, the site of the former 'Dreamland' theme park was the source of serious conflict between planners and residents.

The local community set up the 'Save Dreamland Campaign' as a pressure group in 2003. Eventually, the new plans for the town incorporated the Dreamland site and the pressure group became institutionalised as the Dreamland Trust. This charitable organisation is now an important stakeholder in local regeneration planning and was instrumental in obtaining the funding required from central government (personal interview, Chairman of Dreamland Trust, 2015).

The complexities of Dreamland's regeneration subsequently led to the formation of a working partnership between The Dreamland Trust (charitable), Margate Renewal Partnership (a partner from 2007 to 2010), Thanet District Council (land owner) and the Sands Company (operator). Other stakeholders included the Heritage Lottery Fund, Department of Culture, Media and Sport, and the government organisations, British Heritage, and Arts Council England. British Heritage oversees usage of the building with the aim of safeguarding it in the long term.

Creative people have become important figures in urban regeneration schemes. The social standing of the elite and other high-profile figures attracts other members to the networks, or helps in negotiating political tensions. Celebrities such as Wayne Hemingway, who co-founded the fashion business, Red or Dead in the 1980s and co-founded HemingwayDesign in 1999, which specialises in affordable and social design, was invited by Dreamland Trust to join the board. Many artists live in Margate, such as Tracey Emin. Emin was born in Margate and is an active ambassador for the town. Many people have

visited its main gallery as a result (personal interview, The Academician of Academy of Urbanism (AoU), 2016). Wayne Hemingway shared this perspective (personal interview, 2016):

> "The main thing is people who are creative move to Margate. So those people are creating businesses and restaurants, hotels, guesthouses. So lots of businesses and employment have been created. Land value is going up. They are not going up so much as people can't afford. But at least, the land price isn't so low. That means local people can make money and they can own their houses'.

Key finding emerged: **The local community and creative people were influential stakeholders in the culture-led regeneration schemes.**

Margate Renewal Partnerships

Regeneration bodies in Margate have changed over stages from the Margate Renewal partnership (MRP) to Thanet Regeneration Board (TRB) and currently Invest Thanet. In 2006, the MRP was constituted as a multi-agency organisation to oversee the town's regeneration (Square, 2005).

The MRP developed a complex set of projects to implement its renewal strategy but was terminated in 2011 because of political changes and ineffectiveness (personal interview, KCC councillor, 2017). This action resulted in **the absence of an official forum to bring the local community together.**

In 2012, the TRB was established by Thanet District Council to develop culture, heritage and tourism, the green economy, investing in assets and business

growth as priority themes for economic growth and regeneration. However, this network was unable to accomplish these goals because of insufficient funding (personal interview, Head of Planning and Regeneration of TDC, 2016). Consequently, Invest Thanet was set up in 2014, comprised mainly of business partners. They set agenda and collaborated to advise and support and deliver jobs and skills across Thanet. However, Invest Thanet did not perform as well as expected and this was attributed to some stakeholders being on the previous Thanet Regeneration Board that also underperformed (personal interview, KCC council, 2016).

The current networking process for Margate regeneration is shown in Figure 21. GN structures were rearranged to meet the goals of the regeneration scheme. Stakeholders will be changed, in future in accordance with the KCC strategic plan, demonstrating that while networks may be initiated by TDC, KCC plays a dominant role in the selection of stakeholders. **This reflects the power of upper tier over lower tier.**

Turner Contemporary

Funding for Margate's flagship Turner Contemporary gallery was secured in 2008 and the gallery opened in 2011. The majority of funding came from a partnership of public bodies – KCC, Arts Council England and South East England Development Agency (SEEDA) – with a charitable trust established to raise the remaining £2.9 million. The regeneration objectives of Turner Contemporary include the physical realm, economic – particularly as a major

iconic destination for tourists – and social. A KCC councillor pointed out (personal interview, 2017):

> "Turner Contemporary is our idea. One of the most significant impacts of Turner is well being. We set the standard and that is replicated. It is a combination of tourism and culture with Turner Contemporary'.

Turner Contemporary proved to be effective strategy in enhancing the economy through use of cultural tourism to attract new target groups and help generate incomes (Square, 2005; Kennell, 2011; Ellis-Petersen, 2015; Turner Contemporary, 2016; Ward, 2016). The gallery has come to occupy an increasingly important position in media representation of the town (Powell and Gray, 2009; Kennell, 2011; Ellis-Petersen, 2015). It has changed the way that Margate is perceived and experienced, and importantly is attracting more visitors. Turner Contemporary can be viewed as a new economic base and catalyst for Margate as a site of cultural regeneration, fostering relationships between producers and consumers, where ideas and markets can be tested and developed (Pratt, 2004; Rickey and Houghton, 2009).

The findings from stakeholder involvement inform the following: **Effective GNs in SUT include influential organisations which can promote culture-based urban tourism.**

5.3.3 Phase 2: Collaborative working and direction-setting

The possibility of Margate adopting an arts-led approach to regeneration was identified as early as 2004 (Powell and Gray, 2009). GNs structures were rearranged and shifted to meet the goals of the regeneration scheme as shown in Figure 20.

Agenda setting

Promotion of culture-led regeneration cascaded from KCC's strategy, influenced by Vision for Kent, and was seen as a blueprint for regeneration. The Cultural Strategy for Kent 2010 – 2015, which Kent and Medway partners devised, aimed to promote a shared understanding of how the county's cultural assets can enhance the lives of residents and strengthen the individual, collective and economic wellbeing of the county.

The effectiveness of local institutional modes was enhanced by financial support from other regional, national and European institutions. KCC formulates the strategic plan but Thanet District Council has bargaining powers to argue its choice and objectives in the capital investment process. KCC explained the process of agenda setting at county level as (personal interview, 2017):

Figure 20: Current Networking Process of Margate Regeneration
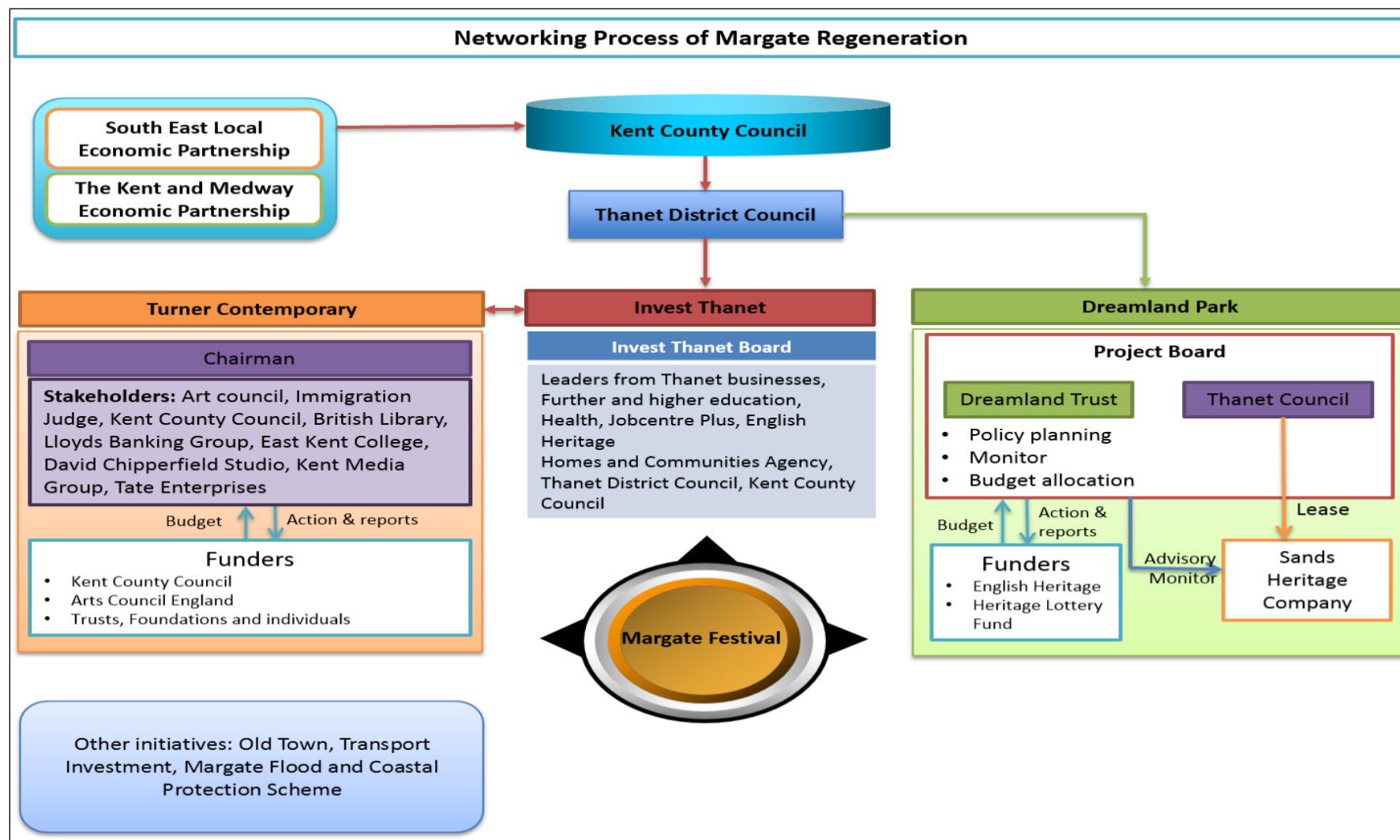
Source: developed by the researcher

"It is done from higher level because it can't be just one district. At the county level, we will know there will be some funding somewhere to help their idea and some ideas come from Invest Thanet…People from Margate come and sit on the board so they can influence this. I can make a decision and sign it off. So the strategy generally comes from Kent as a whole'.

The coordination bodies - Dreamland, Turner Contemporary, and Invest Thanet - have become fragmented. Their development would not in a sense be heavily tied to the overall development of the district. They have their own plans to foster regeneration, but are not (yet) covered by an urban strategy. This might reflect the overall urban strategic plan i.e. specifying broad regeneration scheme and aims, does not identifying an explicit direction or framework for those bodies involved. This is one reason why there are 'struggles' around regeneration agenda setting and why future development of the sites is often unclear.

The findings of this case study confirmed a fundamental tenet of two-tier influence: **Agenda setting is generally top-down.**

5.3.4 Phase 3: Collaborative working and implementation

Analysis of current management

Interviews carried out with local councils suggested that their major interests lay in promoting the role of the arts in attracting the 'right' kind of people to the city, regenerating the city centre, and raising the competitive intercity profile. Thanet is ideally placed to support a greater connection between the

creative/arts sector and manufacturing/engineering sector. Many existing businesses have seen and grasped the opportunity and economic performance has recently improved.

However, there continues to be many funding challenges in Margate's regeneration schemes as shown by the failure of Dreamland. Coldwell (The Guardian, 2016) pointed out:

> "The park has struggled to draw enough visitors – 50 percent fewer than anticipated over its first summer season – and in January its operator Sands Heritage was given five years to repay debts of £3m. On 27 May, administrators were called in, though the park will remain open while they look for a new operator'.

To overcome these problems, there is a need to strengthen officers' competency and attract sufficient funding (personal interview, Head of Planning and Regeneration, Thanet District Council, 2016).

The empirical evidence demonstrated that local institutions, such as Dreamland and Invest Thanet faced difficulties in securing funding, which had the effect of drawing the business sector into local arts policy. A KCC Councillor described the situation (personal interview, 2017):

> "The issue in Margate is money. The Council cannot influence business to invest more. Investment in Thanet is not easy because there is a lack of high quality new commercial properties. There are no high-quality buildings or sufficient land value to get a financial return'.

The interviewee from the Academy of Urbanism (personal interview, 2016) added:

> "I think the Council could be difficult. They are quite supportive in the beginning for investment. They can't do it on their own because they don't have resources or anything. I got this impression in Margate. Quite a lot of private sectors are interested in that planning process. It can work collectively. Using money is a big barrier. People don't believe in it'.

Clearly, Tuner Contemporary demonstrated the significant role of entrepreneurs and art firms in helping improve the local economy. The success of the gallery has highlighted the role the visitor economy can play in regenerating areas such as Margate Old Town – transforming vacant and derelict properties into shops, restaurants and galleries - and attracting investment for high-quality visitor accommodation (Ellis-Petersen, 2015).

The evidence shows that Turner Contemporary has helped to re-establish Margate as a destination town, over 2 million visitors attended the gallery in its first five years, 80,000 of whom had never been to a gallery before (Turner Contemporary, 2016). Pes (The Art newspaper, 2016) added:

> "Turner Contemporary gives "brand Margate" much-needed boost – nearly half of visitors to the faded seaside resort in south east England come to see the gallery'.

However, some believe that the Tuner Contemporary has no connection with the local community, and is creating socially excluded populations (personal interviews, TDC council, 2016; the Academician of Academy of Urbanism,

2016; Batty, 2016). Margate continues to apply for state grants and accesses capital from the private sector to fund urban renewal and development.

The above findings inform the following: **Obtaining inadequate funding is a major obstacle in fostering effective GNs.**

Phase 3, key finding which emerged: **Entrepreneurs were important actors for the success of Margate's culture-led regeneration. However, entrepreneurs failed with the Dreamland case.**

5.4 Modes of governance networks

Structure

The structure of GNs in Margate has become highly institutionalised via complex web of myriad of partnership bodies as opposed to an overarching one covering Margate in its entirety. Additionally, Margate is a top-down formalised decision-making process with channels of participation defined by the KCC (Turner Contemporary and Invest Thanet generated by KCC and TDC, respectively). However, some dissenting civic groups, such as squatter groups or groups protesting a specific urban redevelopment project are excluded. Therefore, the governance model based on participatory consensus - in which the city government is capable of incorporating citizens' pursuit of urban objectives - has been gradually diluted (Degen and Garcia, 2012).

The culture-based urban development structure in Margate is divided into two models as illustrated in Figure 21.

Figure 21: Structure of GN models in Margate
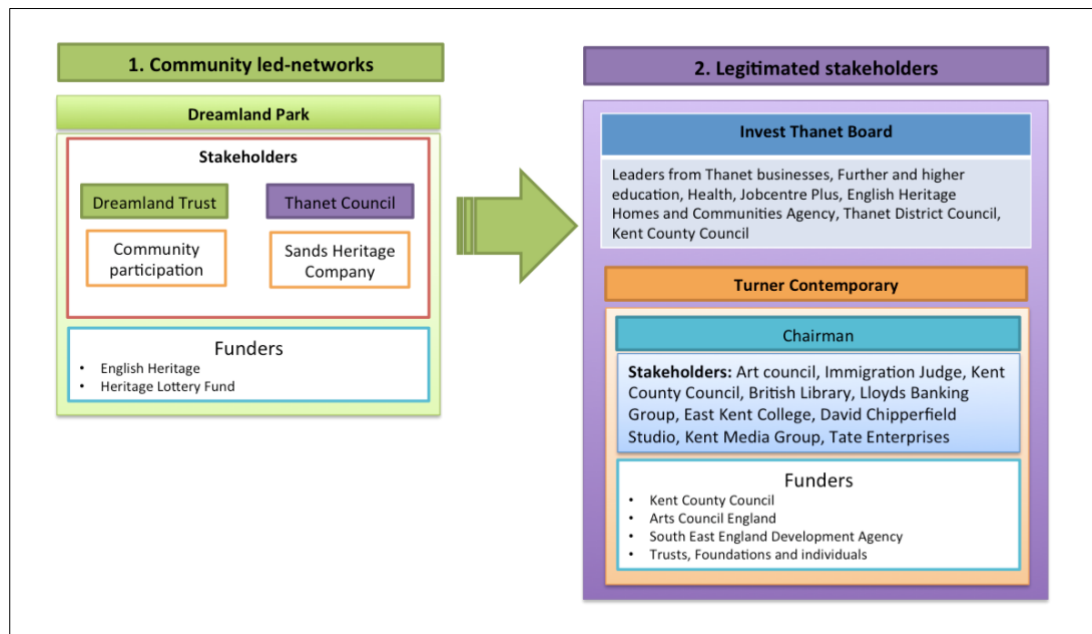
Source: developed by the researcher

The first model, represented by Dreamland, is a bottom-up process initiated by the local community. This model applies mainly to community-led networks, in which policies are not usually defined by a specific actor (e.g. at institutional level). This model develops when society self-organizes and eventually becomes regulated by the government (Provan and Kenis, 2008). Partnerships in this model operate on the basis of voluntary collaboration rather than hierarchical control. Consequently, the partnership's authority to set agendas, allocate resources, and resolve conflict is tenuous, deriving more from consent than from equity ownership or contractual authority (Alexander et al., 2001; Huxham, 1996).

The second model is a top-down formalised network, exemplified by Invest Thanet and Turner Contemporary. Development strategies emanate from the institutional level and are promulgated without consulting people at the local level. This strategy focuses on exploiting cultural assets to enhance tourism. Therefore, local residents are gained little attention concerning the long-term impact (personal interview, the Academician of Academy of Urbanism, 2016).

The key findings of this section inform the following: **The structure of GNs in Margate has become hierarchical via a complex web of myriad of partnership bodies as opposed to an overarching one covering Margate in an entirety.**

Interactive decision-making and network tensions

Empirical evidence revealed that interactive decision-making in Margate is based on stakeholders' roles and responsibilities and influential organisations, funding bodies, people in the creative/arts sphere, and entrepreneurs. A local government officer of KCC described this picture (personal interview, 2017):

> "Those funders, artists and entrepreneurs have lots of influence on us. We have a Cultural Transformation Board and they sit on the Board along with us. We agree a strategy with them. We take this to the board when they said to us because we think it is important. We do talk to each other and we do influence each other thinking and planning. The business influences us in Cultural Transformation Board and through KMEP. They are partner and decision-making bodies'.

The poor representation of social groups in the decision-making processes is a product of social inequity. In addition, the highly marginal involvement of the business sector reduced opportunities to secure wider appreciation of the project's concern for long-term sustainable development, and could hinder efforts to convert policies into practice. Furthermore, the restricted range of participants in the partnerships was likely to have affected all aspects of policy planning and operation.

Dreamland provides an example of an 'awkward' relationship between TDC and the business sector that may well have hindered subsequent efforts work to put policies into practice and resulted in loss of grassroots engagement. A KCC councillor stated (personal interview, 2017):

> "If you own something like Thanet District Council owns Dreamland and you sell the lease to someone to receive money for it, then it is an awkward relationship when you are in the same room with the company. You can't dispute with yourself over who should have done what and when'.

Viewed this way it can be argued that neither the Dreamland Trust nor TDC played effective roles in the planning processes. TDC needs to place a stronger emphasis on monitoring the long-term effect of business partnerships and it is essential to ensure that capital investment and building schemes have sustainability and long-term costs factored in from the outset (Garcia, 2004).

The findings regarding 'tension' inform the following: **Elites within GNs play a dominant role in the decision-making process.**

Inclusiveness in urban regeneration

Evidently, there is insufficient inclusion of the local community in decision making in Margate, particularly in the Dreamland case (personal interviews, secretary of Dreamland Trust, 2015; Academician of Academy of Urbanism, 2016). Although, there is a policy for involving the local community in regeneration schemes, in practice even organisations involved from the outset (like the Dreamland Trust, which includes representatives from the local community, and which is expected to run the park) play a minor role in planning. As the Heritage Advisor of TDC stated that (personal interview, 2016):

> "There has been tension over Dreamland because people think the initial visioning body should be on committees, but it has been lost. There are lots of questions about the financial properties we operated. The initial ideas for Dreamland were abandoned; instead it has been run by a commercial company which has not done well financially'.

The Dreamland Trust is slightly outside the lease. Therefore, they have less influence on Dreamland's operation. Its role is restricted to looking after the long-term legacy of Dreamland as a whole (personal interview, the KCC Councillor, 2017).

Dreamland was also excluded from Invest Thanet because of KCC's concerns regarding its transparency and the failure of its operator (the Sands company). A KCC Councillor illustrated these concerns (personal interview, 2017):

"They are not able to be involve in Invest Thanet because the Council has to be really careful. Dreamland suffers because it is never high quality. There are three business models absent because the operator hasn't done them on time and there is insufficient funding'.

The input of local people was excluded from the regeneration scheme, resulting in a feeling of abandonment in Cliftonville and many felt that the Council in particular, neglected the area. Tensions existed between groups but not to the extent witnessed elsewhere, especially considering the hardship and cramped living conditions many endured. A deep resentment was voiced towards TDC across the board, including accusations of corruption and anger at unfulfilled promises. There were also many Council officials who obviously cared for the area and its people, but were hindered by the lack of policy, coherent strategies or collective thinking. The Council seemed very distant from the people it served (personal interview, the Academician of Academy of Urbanism, 2016).

The empirical evidence demonstrated that KCC and TDC aimed to include only potential organisations or elites because their ultimate objective was to foster the economy of the area over the long-term. Therefore, local people likely felt alienated, misrepresented and lacked ownership, possibly leading to long-term unsustainability.

The key finding has emerged: **Cultural investment needs to ensure that it 'brings people and communities along' to accomplish SUT.**

In summary, the Margate case illustrates many challenges to accomplishing urban regeneration through cultural tourism. One of the most obvious issues is a multiplicity of bodies and the fragmentation of relationships within GNs. The structure of GNs in Margate has become a complex web of a myriad of partnership bodies as opposed to an overarching body covering Margate in an entirety. Networks here generally operate as top-down decision-making bodies. Additionally, Interviews indicated insufficient funding is a major obstacle in fostering regeneration and local communities are likely to be excluded from the decision-making processes.

The following section examines the dynamic of GNs in the seaside town of Pattaya.

5.5 GNs in SUT in the seaside towns of Pattaya

Pattaya offers diverse tourism products and tourism-related activities. There are multiple agencies involved in its sustainable tourism scheme which may add managerial complexity and difficulty in partnership working. Pattaya is subject to a special form of local self-government (Longjit, 2010), with other agencies from public and private sectors likely to be involved in secondary roles. Analysis of Pattaya as a case study was anticipated to lead to a better understanding of the diverse and complex nature of GNs operating at a mature coastal destination in a developing country. The context of Pattaya elicits understanding of how and why sustainable tourism is practised the way it is.

5.5.1 Background

Geographical

Pattaya is located in Bang Lamung District, Chon Buri Province on the eastern coastline of Thailand's Gulf. It is approximately 150 kilometres southeast of the capital city of Bangkok and divided into five areas: North Pattaya, Central Pattaya, South Pattaya, Jomtien Beach, and Larn Islands (Figure 22). Pattaya City is a tourist city with a beach resort extending to 15 km. and providing a full range of tourism services and businesses. Pattaya is one of the most famous and popular tourist destinations and resort cities in the Far East.

There are eight local governments which serve the municipal districts of Pong, Banglamung, Na Jomtien, Huai Yai, Takhian Tia, Muang Nong Prue, and Khao Mai Kaew Subdistrict Administration Organization as well as Nong Pla Lai Subdistrict Administration Organization. The total area is 482.60 km^2 (DASTA, 2013).

Pattaya City is an area of significant economic importance at both regional and national levels. The city is visited by a great number of travellers and tourists, resulting in major physical growth of the city and neighbouring communities.

Figure 22: Map showing the location of Pattaya
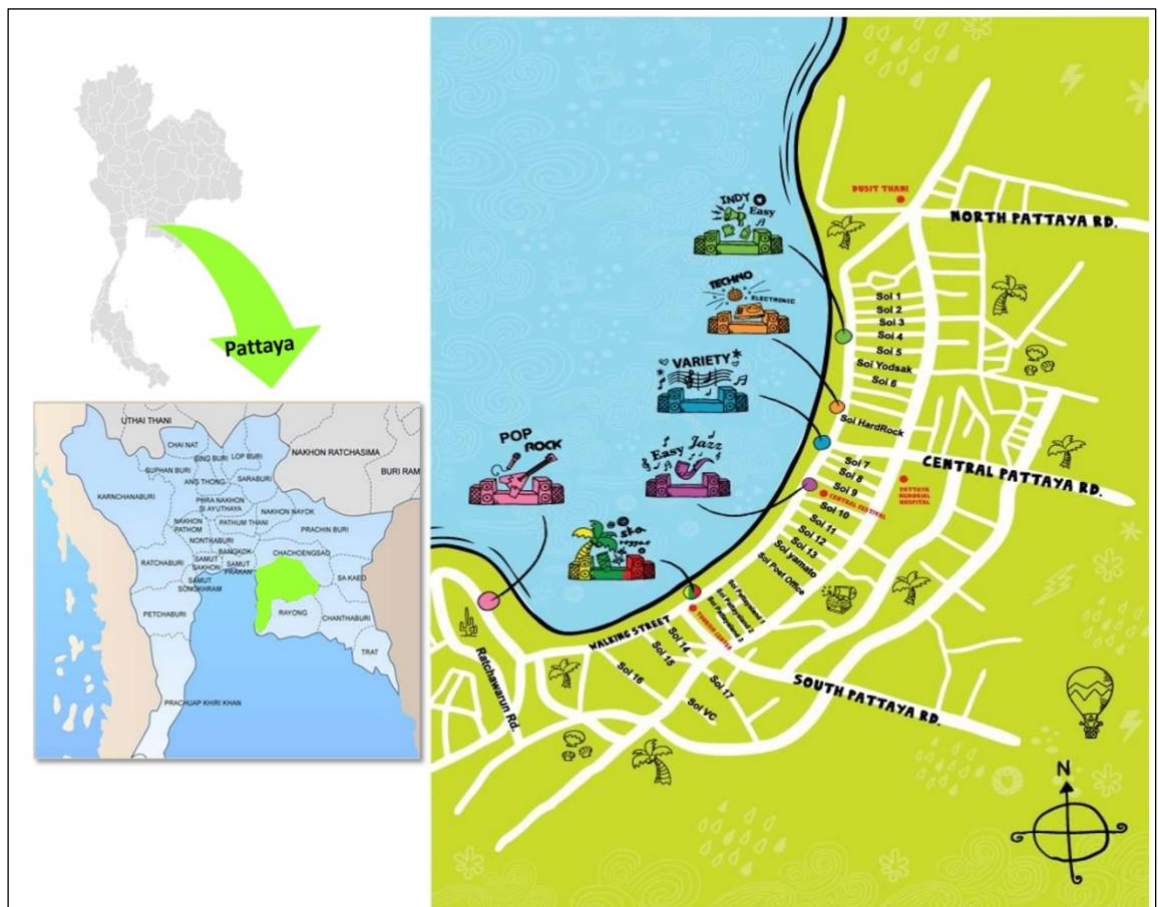
Tourism

Pattaya City and its surrounding areas have potential tourist attractions and services to be developed as tourist destinations linked to the main touring routes. In addition to plenty of interesting tourism activities, Pattaya City and related areas have potential as a Tourism Hub in Indochina and Tourists Centre on the East Coast of the Gulf of Thailand, as a Shopping Paradise, and International Conference Centre.

Pattaya experienced substantial, rapid and largely unplanned growth during the 1960s and 70s as a rest and recreation resort for US military personnel based in Thailand (Longjit and Pearce, 2013). Pattaya has subsequently been promoted as one of Thailand's major seaside towns and has continued to grow rapidly. Since tourism has been established in Pattaya for more than four decades, a variety of tourism products exist which creates diverse and complex issues regarding development and management. **This reflects the characteristics typical of mature destinations** (Smith, 1992; Pattaya City, 2004).

As the city expands rapidly, there is a risk that the infrastructure will not keep pace with its growth and the increased expectations of the population. The efficient operation of GNs in SUT in Pattaya therefore presents major challenges since multiple agencies are involved. Since Pattaya has contributed greatly to the country's economy, it seems to draw the attention of various agencies intent on solving its tourism-related issues or problems.

5.5.2 Institutional design

Pattaya City has been administered as a special autonomous system since 1978. Its status is comparable to a municipality; and is separately administered by the elected Mayor of Pattaya City who is responsible for making policies, organising public services, and supervising all employees (Pattaya City, 2007).

Although Pattaya City is a special form of local administration organisation, its administrative authority is limited and controlled by Thai bureaucracy's centralised nature (Chaiphadung, 1996; Sirilerttragoon, 1996). Pattaya is under the supervision of the Ministry of the Interior, which is represented by the Chonburi Governor (the provincial Governor). According to articles 94 to 99 of the Pattaya City Administration Act 1999, the provincial governor has the authority to monitor and control the overall activity of Pattaya City. In particular, the governor has the authority to advise, warn, and dismiss the Pattaya mayor. The Pattaya government views this as problematic, as it limits its efforts to independently and flexibly manage the city (Longjit, 2010).

However, interviews conducted as part of this research with public agencies and the private sector indicated that Pattaya City is autonomous and has more administrative and budgeting flexibility than other local government agencies in Thailand (personal interviews, Director of DASTA, 2015; President of Thai Hotel Association, 2015; Chief Executive Officer of Nong Prue Municipality, 2015). With this in mind, the local government in Pattaya should be able to operate the city more successfully. Like Margate, a myriad of council bodies here covering the same seaside town territory. Unlike Pattaya City, the aforementioned lower-tier local governments have been administered since the 1932 Constitutional Revolution under the concept of local self-government (Nagia andKagoya, 2008). Provincial councils were created alongside municipalities to perform consultative functions at the provincial level. The municipality is responsible for urban areas, and the TAO is responsible for

rural areas, including community planning and development, economic and tourism development, and local public services provision (Krueathep, 2004).

With the exception of Pattaya City, few municipalities have an adequate tax-based system to fund local initiatives. This makes local government dependent on central government grants (Krueathep et al, 2010), limits their authority and ties them to national priorities. Local tax collection from, for example, land development and surcharges on businesses and entertainment is often inefficient leading to municipal funding shortages.

From this perspective, a key finding was generated as: **Local governments have limited authority and funding, so they rely heavily on central governments.**

5.6 Application of GN models in Pattaya

5.6.1 The development of collaborative working

As mentioned above, Pattaya has an increasing population, physical assets, infrastructure and economic activities, which mean that the risks materialising at city level will have far greater potential to disrupt society than ever before. How effectively these risks can be addressed are increasingly determined by how well cities/towns are governed. Thus, much effort has been devoted to forming effective collaborations between Pattaya City, local governments, private sectors and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to address the aforementioned problems, as illustrated in Figure 23.

Figure 23: Chronology of urban regeneration and SUT in Pattaya since 2007
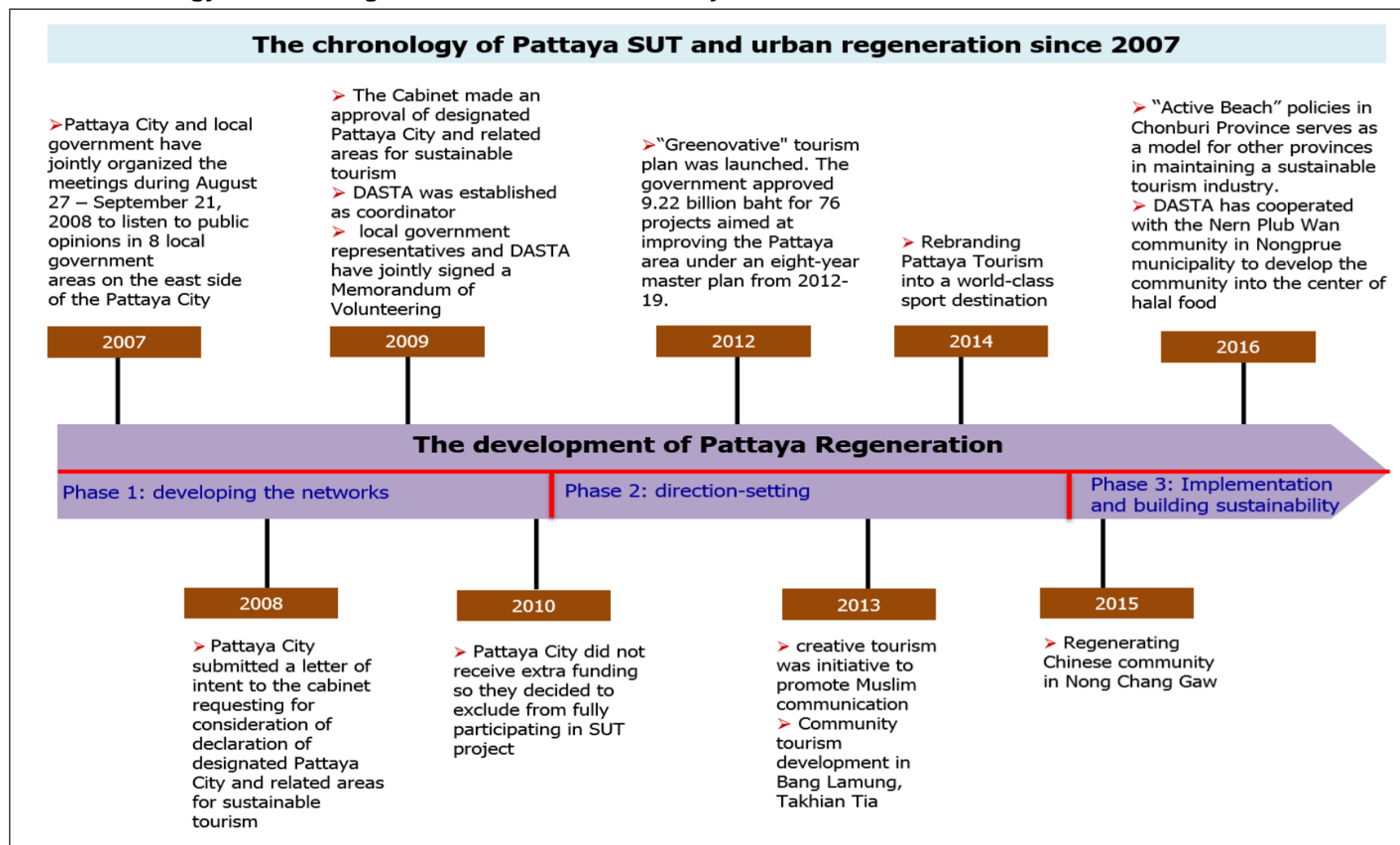
Source: developed by the researcher

5.6.2 Phase 1: Developing the networks

Pattaya started a process of regeneration during the mid-1990s and, in spite of the Asian economic downturn in 1997, managed to increase the number of foreign tourists. Both public and private organisations worked together to create a new image, and Pattaya continued to grow through domestic and international promotion.

Involvement of stakeholders

A first step towards partnership working involved the Cabinet of Thailand recognised the importance of tourism to the economy and approved SUT schemes in Pattaya. In 2008, Pattaya City submitted a letter of intent to the Cabinet requesting declaration of Pattaya City and related areas for sustainable tourism. On March 24, 2009, the Cabinet approved the proposal. Additionally, the public organisation, Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration or DASTA was established to act as **coordinator**.

DASTA plays an essential role in collaboration with development partners and relevant agencies to integrate infrastructure management, problem solving, environmental conservation and restoration, and social quality improvement as well as to increase activities which potentially develop tourist attractions (personal interview, Director of DASTA, 2015). Sustainable development in Pattaya was established with an aim to preserve heritage, history and culture, as well as contribute to the welfare of local communities.

Interviews conducted as part of this research illustrated that the motivation for stakeholders involvement was mainly due to the dependency of stakeholders on sharing financial resources and knowledge. The finding confirmed the tenet that partnership working is an attractive method for many local administrators seeking to mitigate institutional constraints (Green and Curtis, 2005). The empirical evidence highlighted the importance of the private sector in tourism management in Thailand as business organisations offering information and expertise in marketing and public relations. Their role is to provide marketing expertise and information sharing with other stakeholders (personal interview, the Director of Chonburi Provincial Tourism and Sports, 2016). It is noted that partnership working is very important because the public sector cannot perform alone.

The President of Hotel Association added (personal interview, 2015):

> "Presently, everyone is aware of partnership working. It is not easy to draw several generations to work together. We are lucky now to have an official forum to communicate with leaders from all sectors such as community, public and private sectors. We have shared information, recognised one another's burdens, and assisted each other to promote sustainable tourism and reduce the impact of tourism in many ways'.

A local government representative added (personal interview, 2015):

> "Unlike Pattaya City, we have small amount of budget allowance as we are small municipality. Luckily, we can have more funding from the coordinator. They also have experts in project planning. They help us to study the feasibility of each project, and draft project proposal for gaining funding from central government'.

This shows that mutual dependence clearly held the various stakeholders together. Resources exchanged included technical information, advanced equipment, design expertise, market information, venture capital, and operating funds. In 2010 Pattaya City decided to exclude itself from DASTA and 'go it alone' because of the perception that it received fewer benefits, particularly in terms of budgetary allocation than others. Thus, partnership working in Pattaya takes place through laws and regulations; but they do not guarantee that interaction will actually occur (Hall, 1987). Key actors – Pattaya City and Governor - were missing.

From this perspective, the key finding which emerged: **The main motivations for involvement by stakeholders in GNs were resource exchange and perceptions of the relative benefits and drawbacks.**

5.6.3 Phase 2: Collaborative working and direction-setting

The key factor for enhancing SUT in Pattaya is the awareness of the local community, local governments, relevant government agencies and private sectors of the economic and social benefits arising from tourism, which can reduce inequality in those tourism regions. Figure 24 illustrates the GN processes of Pattaya as relates to SUT. Focusing on partnership creation among communities has been prioritised as a means of achieving conservation of natural resources, protection of the environment and culture as well as socio-economic and local political development.

Figure 24: Networking process of Pattaya in SUT
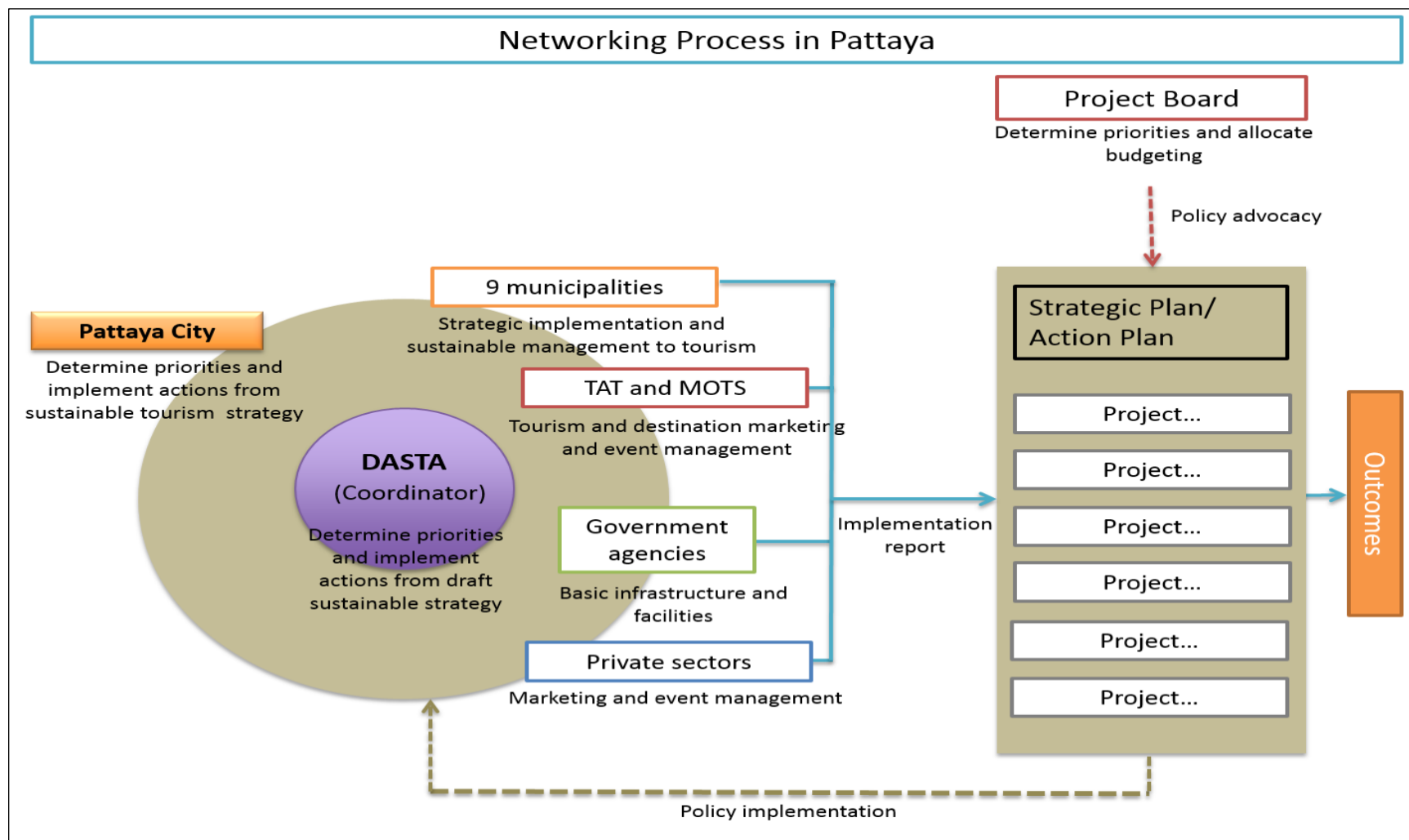
Source: developed by the researcher

Agenda setting

The Strategic Plan for Designated Pattaya City and Related Areas details clear work procedures. It emphasises negotiation and establishing mutually acceptable courses of action, through members exploring the problem in depth, attempting to reach agreement about alternatives and ultimately to meet local needs (Parker, 2000).

As a starting point, DASTA, Pattaya City and the local government jointly organised meetings from 27 August to 21 September 2007 to listen to public opinions in eight local government areas, obtain feedback and revise the Strategic Plan in accordance with the needs of local government, relevant agencies and local residents. The results of the meetings showed that 95 per cent of people agreed with declaring Pattaya and related areas as designated areas for sustainable tourism, and also wished to integrate their own precincts into these special areas.

All information gleaned from the meetings was used to formulate a Strategic Plan for development, including improving infrastructure, developing tourism, enhancing social quality and conserving the environment. The priority of development projects was set and guidelines were established for cost estimation, and framework for partnership working. Meetings were organised to raise queries and permit brainstorming throughout the course of the Strategic Plan preparation. The coordinator illustrates such a picture (personal interview, 2015):

"In this stage, we preliminary focused on stakeholders' opinions to obtain their feedback and their problems. Then we have drafted plans and activities. We discussed and prioritised those projects together. We concerned whether the projects were relevant to our goals. Without their consensus, many projects couldn't be accomplished'.

The findings confirmed the principle discussed in the literature review that the **existence of a coordinator plays an influential role in encouraging the various participants - each with conflicting goals or different perceptions or dissimilar values - to fulfil the strategic purpose of the network** (Klijn and Teisman 1997, p. 99).

Interviews indicated that the overall Strategic Plan was considered interesting, and agreeable by being development oriented (personal interviews, President of Hotel Association, 2015; President of Pattaya Business Association, 2015). Evidently, many projects were prioritised through pursuing mutual goals and the agreement of all stakeholders. Additionally, many agendas were set by local government (acting on behalf of the local community). Hence, network participants can be regarded as representative of the wider public.

The key findings which emerged: **The strategic plan was created through a careful process of public consultation with key stakeholders.**

5.6.4 Phase 3: Partnership Working and Implementation

Analysis of current management

Attempts to promote sustainable tourism are ongoing. In 2014, Rebranding Pattaya Tourism was promoted to be a world-class sports destination. However, some tourism experts say that what the city now needs is a planned sports future. The President of the Thai Hotels Association Eastern Chapter shared his/her perspective (personal interview, 2015):

> "In the past events have been organised on an ad-hoc basis without any real planning or coordination between agencies. Now we are working on longer-term plans, and intend to publish a calendar of forthcoming sports events at the beginning of each year. Such a strategy would enable potential visitors to time their stay well-ahead with the events they most enjoy'.

City planners agree that better planning is the key to success. Some local destinations - such as Koh Larn, which receives 10,000 visitors daily - are already oversubscribed. Meanwhile, Pattaya itself is suffering from waste, pollution and traffic congestion. A private sector interviewee mentioned (personal interview, 2015):

> "There are a number of infrastructure improvements underway which may take a year or two to complete and are currently causing some aggravation. But it is only through long-term strategies that we can ensure a sustainable flow of overseas and local visitors'.

Viewed in this way, and universally accepted, is the principle that **long-term strategic plans and effective partnerships are needed to help achieve concrete outcomes.**

5.7 Modes of GN

Structure

Unlike the other cases, in which councils play the lead role in partnership working, Pattaya operates closer to the "Network Administrative Organisation" (NAO) model suggested by Provan and Kenis (2008). The basic idea is that a separate administrative body, such as DASTA, is set up by the Cabinet specifically to manage and coordinate the network and its activities. Like the lead organisation model, DASTA plays a key role in coordinating and sustaining the network. Unlike the lead organisation model, however, the NAO is not another network agency providing its own set of services (Provan and Kenis, 2008).

NAOs are likely to provide a win-win solution. Sometimes there are trade-offs, which may create tensions, which will be discussed later. The NAO model is generally set up when the network first forms, in order to stimulate its growth through targeted funding and/or network facilitation, and to ensure that network goals are met (Human and Provan, 2000). The strengths of this model are its sustainability and legitimacy (being formed by Cabinet decision), especially to outsiders and, to a lesser extent, its efficiency. The weaknesses

of NAOs are that network participants may rely on the governance entity too heavily and it may adopt decision-making processes that seem overly bureaucratic.

The key finding which emerged: **Unlike council-led networks, the coordinator-led network was established with an exclusive purpose.**

Network tensions

Interviews revealed the problem that each stakeholder has its own goals and interests, which can lead to conflict and a lot of time is spent on cooperation and coordination efforts. Therefore, some projects may take time to reach the goals of SUT. The president of Pattaya Business and Tourism Association illustrated such a picture (personal interview, 2015):

> "We have different view to the local community. For example, we try to establish carrying capacity to support the increased number of tourists in Lan Island. We know this might affect local community businesses. However, local government needs to have their strong point. They need to weigh total benefits rather than do whatever to satisfy the local community to win the next election'.

The case study revealed that many conflicts have taken place within the networks and led to a major constraint in the promotion of SUT. The following section discusses how tensions occurred in Pattaya.

Interactive decision-making

The empirical evidence demonstrates that the private sector plays a minor role in decision-making. The President of Pattaya's Business and Tourism Association commented (personal interview, 2015):

> "I think it is Thai political culture, we [business] don't have the power to change local government's decision. I would say we have 50 percent influence over their decisions. It is really hard to be contrary with the government's policy. Our role is to express our view and push forward their policy. If there is political change, it might take time to have mutual goals'.

This reflects a poor understanding of the needs of the private sector which supports of the Thai tourism industry. Every effort must be made to ensure that enterprises and initiatives are not stifled, so that the private sector is able to respond competitively to highly dynamic market demands. Management of relations between the various private groups and with the public sector needs to be improved to allow for deeper understanding and closer cooperation.

5.8 Conclusion

Tourism is generally regarded as a key driver of urban regeneration. Longitudinal analysis within case studies conducted in seaside towns in England (Margate) and Thailand (Pattaya) clearly demonstrated the essential role of GNs in policy planning and implementation, through clear goal setting and effective partnerships while tuned to the need to address scarcity of resources.

The Margate case revealed that elites play an influential role in the decision-making processes. However, there was a need to provide a platform for local communities to express their views and expectations of the decision-making process. The Margate case in particular revealed a lack of inclusion of the local community in regeneration planning. Locally, Thanet district council (TDC) appeared to be the logical coordinator but the tier above, Kent County Council (KCC), clearly exercised controlling influence in decision-making, illustrating the top-down structure.

The success of GNs in SUT was clearly demonstrated by the Turner Contemporary which led urban generation through cultural tourism by linking the input of stakeholders with a clear goal of socioeconomic benefits.

The failure of GNs in SUT was illustrated by the Dreamland venture, which resulted from difficulty in securing funding, poor management and insufficient inclusion of the local community and civil society in decision-making processes.

Similar to Ayutthaya, the Pattaya case revealed that partnership working was initiated through central government. Local governments have limited authority and funding and rely heavily on central government. However, the strategic plan was created by a careful process of public consultation with key stakeholders. Therefore, many projects were prioritised through mutual goals

and the agreement of all stakeholders. Additionally, the existence of a coordinator – DASTA – played an influential role in facilitating collaboration. However, the GN still faced challenges of stability because key stakeholders namely, Pattaya City and Governor were not involved in the steering group. The business sector also played a minor role in decision-making. Clearly, GNs have failed to engage intensely, amounting to a shortfall in planning efficiency for SUT.

Overall, the study pinpoints the requirement for strong collaborative relationships between stakeholders to enhance the performance of GNs in SUT. There were many problems evident in these two case studies suggesting that Bath case study provided a better example. The findings of the study were used for further assessment and comparative analysis of the different cases as described in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF EFFECTIVE

GOVERNANCE NETWORKS: THEMATIC ANALYSIS OF

ENGLISH AND THAI CASES

6.1 Introduction

The theoretical background and conceptual framework for this research was presented in Chapter 3, while Chapter 4 and 5 examined the structure of tourism governance in World Heritage Sites (WHS) and seaside towns in England and Thailand. This chapter provides the results of a thematic analysis of the four cases within a rigorous conceptual framework, to examine how the structure and dynamics of GNs influence SUT. Figure 25 provides an overview of case study analysis. The analysis identified and characterised the key factors that have influenced the structure and dynamics of existing GNs. Figure 26 provides a comparative analysis of stakeholder involvement and funding of case studies. It integrated the key findings from the four case studies, using cross-case analysis to assist in determining the extent to which findings extended beyond individual cases. Figure 27 illustrates a comparative analysis of governance networks model of case studies. This chapter also discusses how national political and culture contexts, and individual factors are jointly manifested in reinforcing or inhibiting GNs. The study's research questions addressed in this chapter are presented in Table 5.

Figure 25: An overview of case study analysis
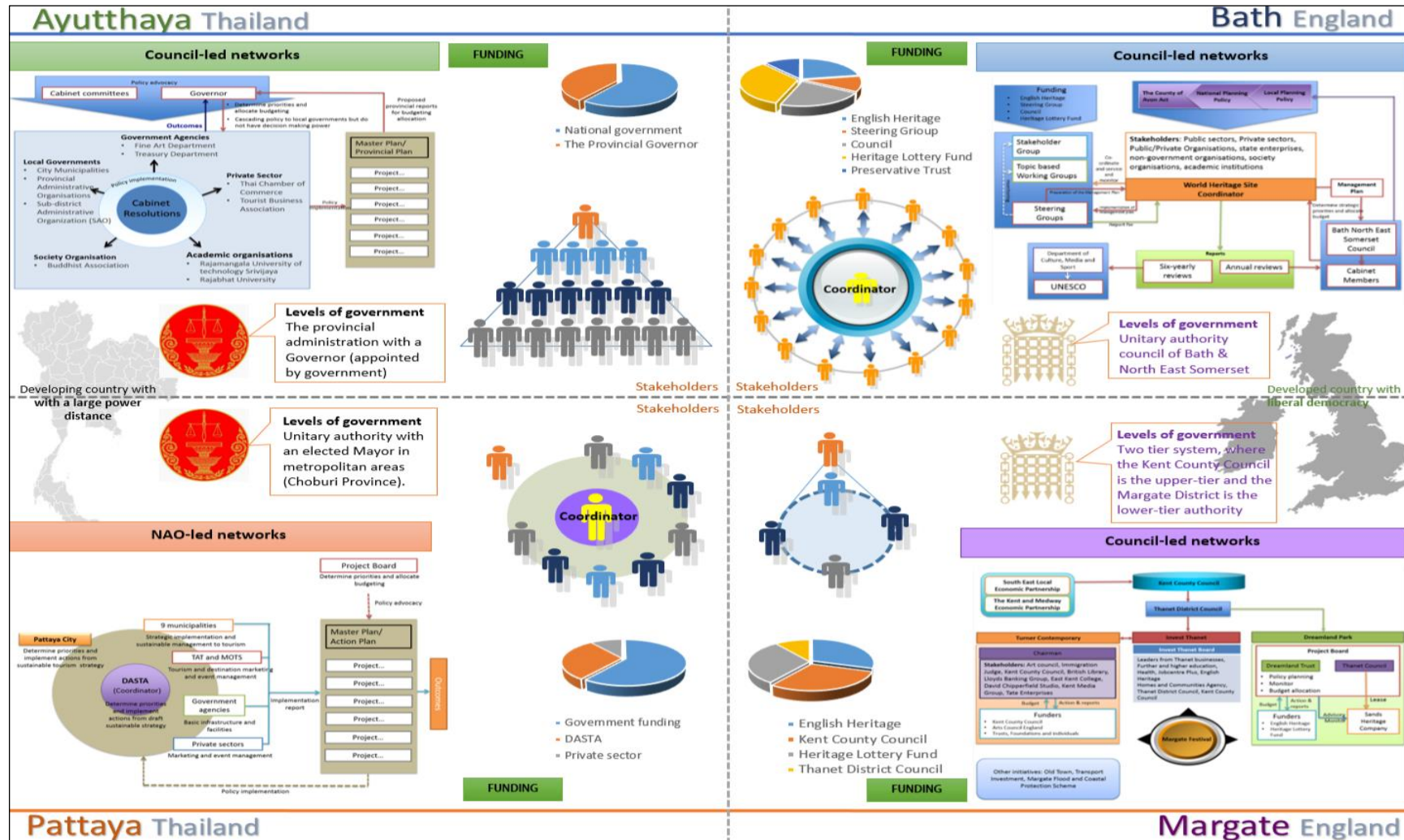
Source: developed by the researcher

Figure 26: A Comparative analysis of stakeholder involvement and funding of case studies
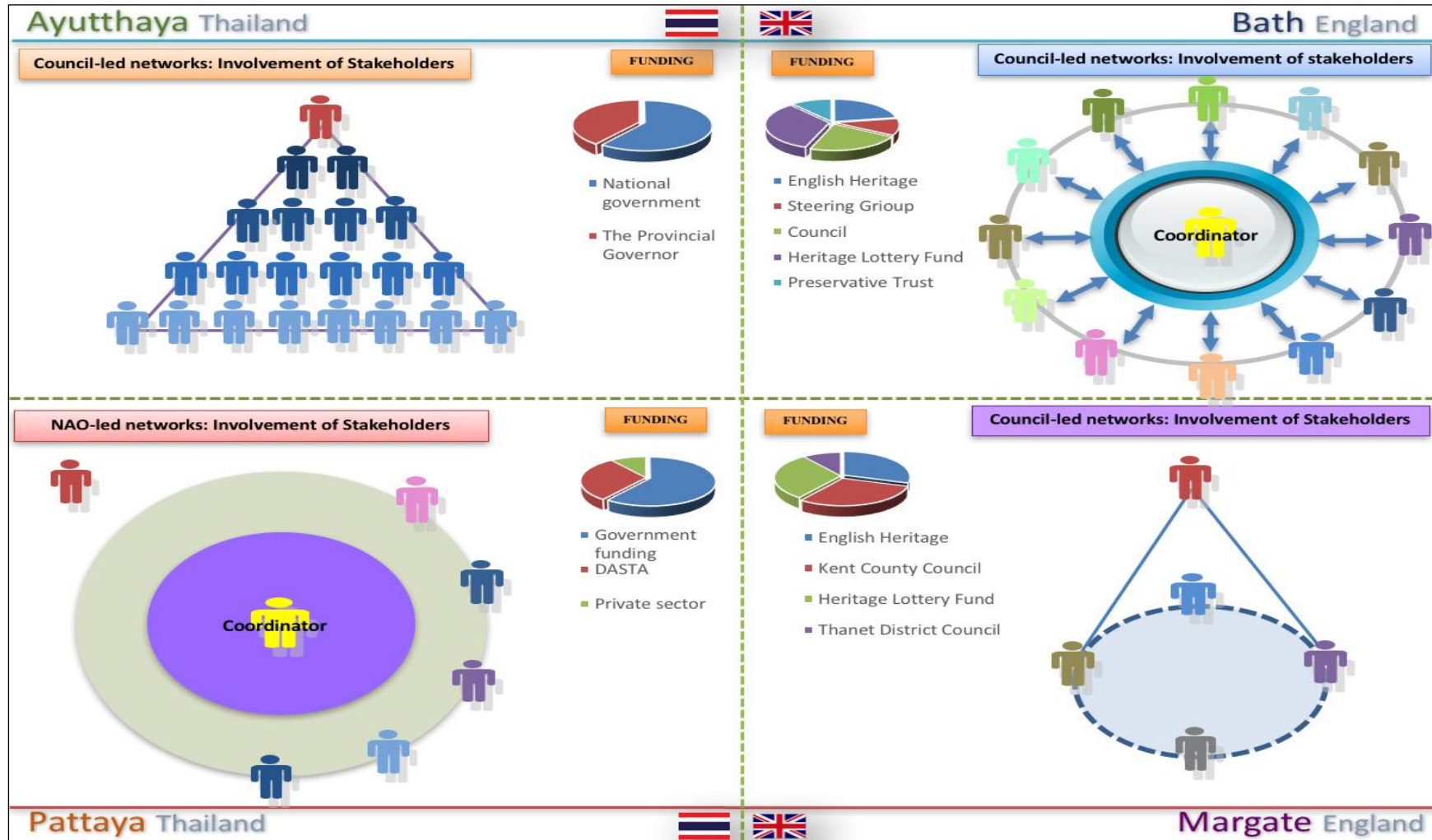
Source: developed by the researcher

Figure 27: A Comparative analysis of governance networks model of case studies
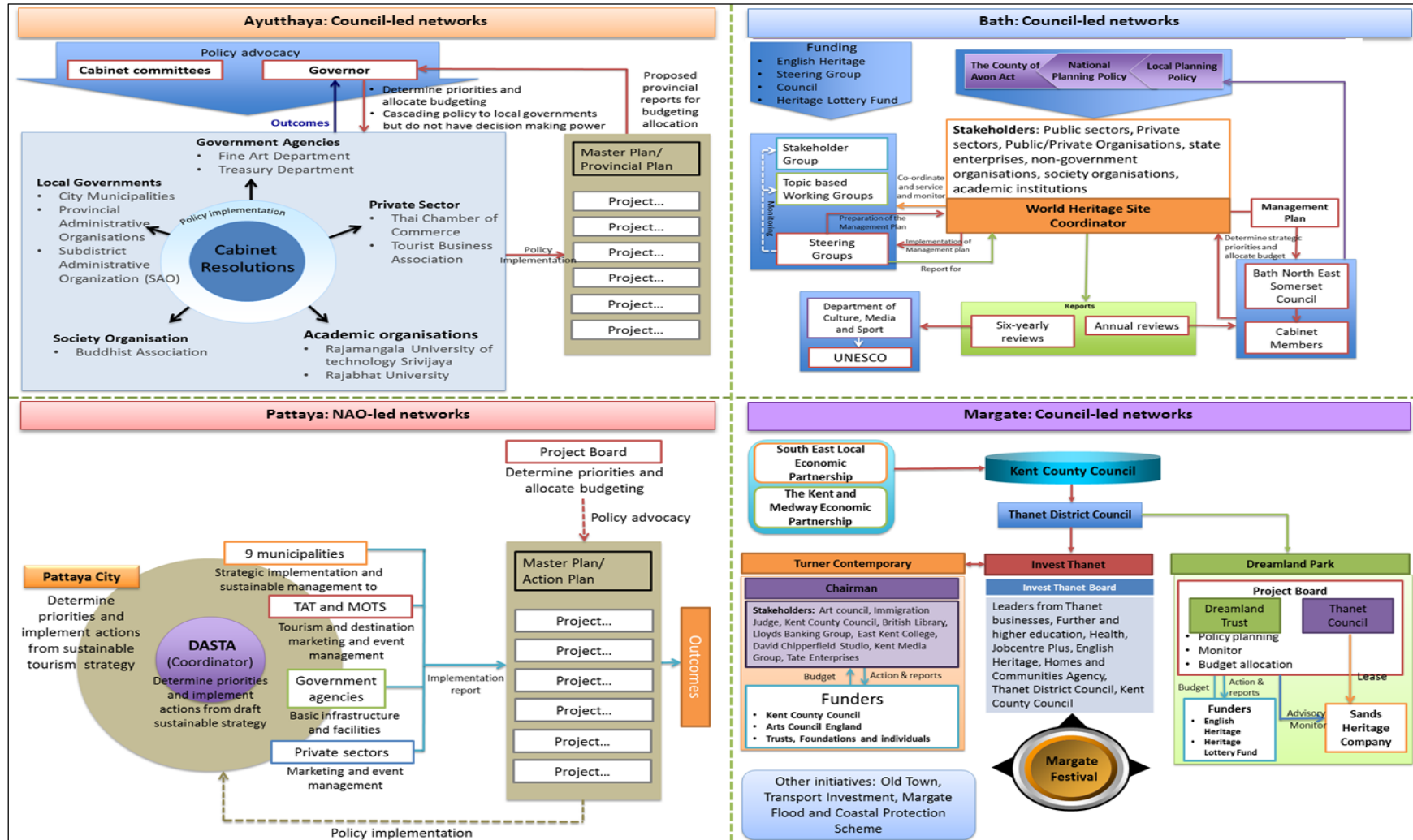
Source: developed by the researcher

Table 5: A comparison of GNs in the four case studies, Bath, Margate, Ayutthaya and Pattaya

Research questions (RQs)		English cases		Thai cases	
Overarching RQ: How do GNs influence SUT policies and practices?		**Bath**	**Margate**	**Ayutthaya**	**Pattaya**
RQ1: How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances? **(Gray's (1996) collaborative framework; Jamal and Getz, 1995).**	**Institutional design**	• **Levels of government:** B&NES Council is a **unitary authority** with the powers and functions of a non-metropolitan county and district council combined. • **Institutional initiative:** Network initiative has been **locally and UNESCO driven**. • A **coordinator** with a high leadership role and influence on key policy decisions across and beyond the organisation was appointed.	• **Levels of government:** Margate has **a two-tier system**, in which the Kent County Council is the upper-tier authority and the Margate District is the lower-tier authority operating in many areas. • **Institutional initiative:** The Thanet District Council (TDC) has initiated many networks, but the Kent County Council (KCC) plays an influential role in its management.	• **Levels of government:** Ayutthaya is **a regional level**. It is the provincial administration with a Governor (appointed by government). • **Institutional initiative:** Formalising networks and implementation responsibilities began almost at the out-set in accordance with cabinet resolutions and driven by UNESCO. • Lack of local authority and stakeholders involved in network initiative.	• **Levels of government:** Pattaya City is a **unitary authority** with an elected Mayor in metropolitan areas (Choburi Province). • **Institutional initiative:** Formalising networks began almost at the out-set in accordance with cabinet resolutions. • The cabinet established DASTA as a **coordinator.**

Research questions (RQs)		English cases		Thai cases	
		Bath	**Margate**	**Ayutthaya**	**Pattaya**
Overarching RQ: How do GNs influence SUT policies and practices?					
	Developing the networks	• Stakeholders recognised a need for large-scale development and improved transport. • Stakeholders realise the important of WHS management in all aspects. • **Stakeholder involvement:** • Private sectors played a small role in policy planning. • There is a strong role for non-departmental bodies and volunteer citizen participation.	• Stakeholder's recognised cultural initiatives are used as catalysts for the regeneration scheme. • All stakeholders noticed scarce funding is a major obstacle in fostering regeneration. • **Stakeholder involvement:** • Turner Contemporary is a lead catalyst for the regeneration scheme. • There is no coordinator.	• **Without holistic laws and regulations**, duplication of roles and responsibilities can occur. • **Stakeholder involvement:** • Neither the private sector nor non-governmental organisations (NGOs) were involved to any large degree. • A chance to secure grassroots engagement was lost.	• Stakeholders noticed infrastructure development was a key issue, as well as potential water crises, traffic congestion and, social problems associated with a large population of short term migrants and sex tourism. • **Stakeholder involvement**: Key actors were absent, namely the Governor (provincial level) and the Mayor (Pattaya City).
	Direction-setting	• *Agenda setting:* The coordinator assists in agenda setting as and	• *Agenda setting:* Each network sets its own strategies and plan to enhance the	• *Agenda setting:* The Fine Arts Department influenced the policy agenda. The	• *Agenda setting:* The Strategic Plan was created through a careful process of public

Research questions (RQs)		English cases		Thai cases	
Overarching RQ: How do GNs influence SUT policies and practices?		**Bath**	**Margate**	**Ayutthaya**	**Pattaya**
		consultation processes, allowing stakeholders to participate in the planning process. • *Reaching agreement:* Stakeholders freely expressed their views and listened respectfully to each other.	regeneration scheme. • *Reaching agreement:* Council and funders are the most influential bodies in the decision-making process.	hierarchical process probably encouraged some partners' acceptance. • *Reaching agreement:* Consensus was difficult to achieve when the state government had little credibility and there was much political uncertainty in the region.	consultation with key stakeholders. • *Reaching agreement:* Consensus search between local governments (except Pattaya City).
	Implementation and building sustainability	• A partnership approach was implemented through **voluntary collaborations** between networks. • **Funding** operated by a partnership has enabled conservation	• Councils have simultaneously included influential organisations who have resources. • There is a **fragmentation of relationship** between networks.	• A partnership approach was implemented through formal coordination between networks. • **Funding** was government allocated, so the amount was uncertain within government shifts.	• Long-term strategic plan and an effective partnerships are needed to help achieve concrete outcomes. • **Funding** was mainly government-allocated.

Research questions (RQs)		English cases		Thai cases	
Overarching RQ: How do GNs influence SUT policies and practices?		**Bath**	**Margate**	**Ayutthaya**	**Pattaya**
		projects to a high standard.			
RQ2: How do different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why? **(The modes of GNs built on Provan and Kenis, 2008: who has dominant power and how is it exercised builds on Lukes' dimensions of power).**		• Type of GNs: **Council-led networks** • All major network-level activities and key decisions are coordinated through and by the local authority in their efforts to achieve network goals.	Two types of GNs: • Dreamland refers mainly to **community-led network**; • Invest Thanet and Turner Contemporary cases refer to **council-led networks**.	• Type of GNs: **Council-led networks** • The structure is likely to be formal and hierarchical.	• Type of GNs: **DASTA-led networks**
		Network tension: • There are pressures relating to economic development and the need to protect conservation. • Business and developers do not play influential roles in the steering group.	**Network tension:** • Elites play an influential role in the decision-making process. • There is less inclusiveness of local community in the regeneration scheme.	**Network tension:** • There are pressures relating to economic development and the need to protect conservation. • Consensus is difficult to achieve when actors their personal gain and lack of a sense of responsibility.	**Network tension:** • Network participants rely on the governance entity too heavily and it adopts decision-making processes that seem overly bureaucratic.

Research questions (RQs)	English cases		Thai cases	
Overarching RQ: How do GNs influence SUT policies and practices?	**Bath**	**Margate**	**Ayutthaya**	**Pattaya**
RQ3: What factors promote and inhibit GNs?	**Foundational platform factors:** • An equal relationship between partners and local governments within the unitary authority. • A strong positive culture leads to strong interagency collaboration. **Individual factors:** • Strong leadership skills. • Clear roles and responsibilities.	**Foundational platform factors:** • There is the question of cooperation between lower and upper tiers. • A strong positive culture leads to strong interagency collaboration. **Individual factors:** • Clear role and responsibilities. • Elites play an influential role in decision-making.	**Foundational platform factors:** • Lower positions show loyalty, respect and deference to their superiors in return for protection and guidance. **Individual factors:** • Overlapping and diffused roles and responsibilities for stakeholder actions.	**Foundational platform factors:** • In a society in which inequalities are accepted, a strict chain of command and protocol are observed. **Individual factors:** • Consensus search between local governments (except Pattaya City).

Source: developed by the researcher

6.2 Research Question 1: How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances?

This section presents findings regarding how and why institutional designs affect the organisation and strategies of governance networks operating in SUT in England and Thailand (Chapter 4 and 5). The collaborative frameworks from Gray, 1996, and Jamal and Getz, 1995 were employed to validate the propositions generated from the Bath case and to assess their applicability to the case studies of Margate, Pattaya and Ayutthaya.

Figure 28: Applying propositions generated from the Bath case to the Margate, Ayutthaya, and Pattaya cases regarding the first research question

RQ1 How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances?	Supporting evidence
Phase 1: Developing the networks	
Institutional design	*Proposition 1:* Institutional design directly affects network initiatives and the roles of actors, such as local tiers of government.	*All cases*
Coordinator	*Proposition 2:* A coordinator needs to be appointed with **leadership skills** to	*Pattaya case*

	manage conflict among partners and to influence key policy decisions across and beyond the organisation.	
Stakeholders involvement	***Proposition 3:*** The involvement of social groups representing civil society and non-governmental organisations is expected to deliver an essential contribution to the policymaking process.	***Pattaya and Margate cases***
Phase 2: Direction-setting		
Agenda-setting	***Proposition 4:*** The more engaged the stakeholders are throughout the planning process, the greater their chances of making the right decisions.	***Pattaya case***
Phase 3: Implementation and building sustainability		
Funding	***Proposition 5:*** Partnership-operated funding enables projects to be carried out to a high standard.	***None***

Source: developed by the researcher

The following section discusses network development, the effect of institutional design, the roles of stakeholders and coordinator and the significance of involvement of diverse stakeholders.

6.2.1 Phase 1: Developing the networks

Institutional design

Proposition 1: *Institutional design directly affects network initiatives and the roles of actors, such as local tiers of government.*

Empirical evidence in all cases demonstrated that institutional design clearly shapes the development of GNs. This study confirmed Shand's (2013) argument that institutional design is grounded in the unitary vs. the two-tier model. Figure 29 illustrated the local government systems operating in Bath, Margate, Ayutthaya, and Pattaya.

The findings revealed that the lack of autonomy at the regional level in the case of Bath's unitary system, when compared with the Thai cases, gave more influence to non-governmental bodies allowing them to flourish. The system has been fostered since the 1990s by successive administrations in Bath.

Evidence from the Bath case suggests that a unitary system, where there is only one level of local government covering an area, promotes holistic management and the creation of highly efficient channels of communication. Bath's advantage lay in strong policies/plans for the WHS and successful implementation due to appointment of a coordinator.

Figure 29: Local government systems operating in Bath, Margate, Ayutthaya, and Pattaya

Government systems of England and Thailand

Bath — B&NES Council is a unitary authority with the powers and functions of a non-metropolitan county and district council combined. They responsible for all functions of local government.

Margate — Margate has a two tier system, where the Kent County Council is the upper-tier and the Margate District is the lower-tier authority operating in many areas such as recycling and waste, environmental protection and planning decisions etc.

Ayutthaya — Ayutthaya is a regional level. It is the provincial administration with a Governor (appointed by government). The central government delegates some of its power and authority to its officers who work in provinces and districts, and the provincial administration consists of provinces, districts, subdistricts and villages.

Pattaya — Pattaya City is a unitary authority with an elected Mayor in metropolitan areas (Choburi Province). Inside the provincial territory there are lower-tiers local governments: Municipalities and subdistrict - Tambon Administrative Organisations (TAOs), that provide local services in their specific territory.

Source: developed by the researcher

In contrast, the findings of the Margate case revealed the fragmentation of relationships involved greater levels of administrative and liaison work, particularly for coordinating bodies. For those with small staffing levels, scarce funding and time demands for management work were far too high. Kent County Council (KCC) seemed to be doing a good job of leading and structuring the GN. The Turner Contemporary project proved very successful, but Dreamland failed due to stakeholder failures and lack of trust. The Margate case showed an overlapping governance structure with joint decision-making between two tiers and illustrated the top-down structure. Locally, Thanet district council (TDC) was expected to be a coordinator but the upper tier, KCC, appeared to play an influential role in decision-making. Margate also does not benefit from involvement of organisations such as WH to insist on effective coordination.

Evidence from the Ayutthaya and Pattaya cases showed GNs driven at the national level through agencies appointed by central government. The state has decentralised some functions to the regional level. However, the state still play an influential role, particularly funding allocation. Therefore, power dispersion accommodates political, cultural and related differences within the governance network. Clearly, resource exchange between stakeholders occurs through control of funding by the national level. This creates an asymmetric power structure in the policy network because powerful stakeholders wield most influence and negotiate delivery as epitomised by neo-pluralist perspectives.

Overall, the above findings reveal that a unitary authority produces a clearer sense of strategic direction for stakeholders. However, changing priorities over time and funding cuts can lead to shortfalls in resources for particular sectors. An Academician of the Academy of Urbanism argues the positive and negative aspects of being a unitary authority for Margate (personal interview, 2016):

> "I think the benefit of a unitary authority is they are concerned for the whole town in every aspect. If you're not, you don't have responsibility for education and social care. Places like Margate have issues with education and social care. Education and social care can consume most resources. You have to provide them legally. Culture and tourism can suffer from that. Kent also has lots of problems because the government cutting back on their funding'.

The institutional design (or network structure) is not the only factor that influence the initiatives and roles of actors, interactions within networks also matter. In the Thai context, Ayutthaya is at regional level and the public administrative system is complex with various organisations, namely central government, local government, public enterprises, etc. working in the same area. The Governor of Ayutthaya Province explained the circumstances (personal interview, 2015):

> "The overlap and conflict of responsibilities may occur because there are too many agencies working in the same area. This can cause WHS management difficulties. Several organisations involved in Ayutthaya may result in different management directions'.

In Ayutthaya, each agency (stakeholder) has its own goals, authority, and legal system. This situation results in tension, which may ultimately lead to fragmentation. Administrative boundaries exist between local and central

234

governments in managing the WHS. It can be concluded that an institutional link is missing from the process of interactive decision-making in Ayutthaya and the GN is ineffective as a result.

In contrast, Pattaya' GN is stronger and more effective because it is autonomous, as the Former Attorney of the Office of the Attorney General explained (personal interview, 2015):

> "Unlike Pattaya where the elected Mayor can manage every task including tourism, the Governor in Ayutthaya doesn't have overall authority. So no one can deal with various agencies'.

The Pattaya case provides an example of inter-municipal collaboration which has led to effective GN function in SUT. Most stakeholders within the networks are formal institutions with specific tasks and equal status in the administrative structure. Therefore, their collaboration is stronger than in the Ayutthaya case. Network members are often part of bureaucracies connected with other organisations outside the line of formal authority. Many of these complex arrangements are required or strongly encouraged by policymakers; others emerged through mutual agreement between partners.

Stakeholders in the Thai and English cases interact frequently with central government and state regulators, which are crucial links for both regulation and financing (Long, 1949). In the Thai case, local governments directly obey central government demands (Chamchong, 2015), typical of a hierarchical structure. Additionally, although stakeholders are involved in the networks, they are rarely major players in shaping policy outcomes. These relations do

not reflect a pluralist power structure. In the English case, most GNs are initiated by central government policies, but the GNs have a greater degree of control over development policy (Sullivan and Skelcher, 2002; Johnson and Osborne, 2003; Cowell, 2004).

The role of coordinator in boundary spanning

Proposition 2: *A coordinator needs to be appointed with **leadership skills** to manage conflict among partners and to influence key policy decisions across and beyond the organisation.*

Evidence from the Bath case suggests that GN leadership works on two levels, through the existence of a formal authority which delegates essential powers to an assigned authority, namely, the manager or coordinator who assists in policy development and direct implementation. The remit of the office holder is to aid in developing policies and directing others in implementing them. Additionally, the coordinator is expected to be a civil servant who can mobilise support for the changes and interact effectively with all parties as explained by the general manager of the National Trust (personal interview, 2016):

> "Time is an inhibiting factor and administration in the local authority has to make sure WHS management has a core strategy concerning what is important about WHS, but can also influence local authority decision making, in particular administration changes. That is why a full time local government officer came in because he/she can be coming in between the shift between Labour and Conservative administration. He/she maintains the purpose of WH there'.

236

In terms of **formal authority**, unlike the Bath case, the coordinator in the Pattaya case – DASTA - appears to have less authority, as the position is neither permanent nor well-resourced and does not cover the entire territorial area. This may lead to network instability and lowered influence to pursue network goals. Therefore, sufficient authority is required to enable a coordinator to fulfil the expected role and enhance the effectiveness of the network.

There were similarities in the Ayutthaya and Margate cases. It was evident that the absence of a coordinator hinders the creation of effective partnership working. Findings from the Margate case revealed there had been no coordinator since the Margate Renewal Partnership was terminated in 2011 (personal interview, local government officer of Thanet District Council, 2016). This probably accounts for the fragmented networks in Margate and a need to improve communication with other stakeholders. However, the upper-tier of local government (KCC) acts as an influential agency, as stated by the KCC councillor:

> "We are co-ordinators. We help coordinate with other neighbours. We put people together. It will be good to have good senior teams and good staff. It is about partnership and getting the right people in the room. That is how we try to help'.

Empirical evidence showed that the GNs in Margate and Ayutthaya do not have a highly competent staff member specifically appointed to coordinate, convey and implement policies regarding SUT. These cases identified the

KCC and the Governor in Ayutthaya as the key players in bridging all relevant agencies to manage SUT at local level.

The findings also highlighted the need for highly developed **leadership skills** as illustrated most strongly in the Bath case. Bath demonstrated a collective commitment to preserve the WHS and benefit the community. Additionally, the coordinator advised on policy matters, encouraged, and facilitated stakeholder participation in the management plan. A B&NES councillor commented (personal interview, 2015):

> "The coordinator organise the WHS steering group and goes to the board and I also go to that, so we relate to each other. He/she is also involved in major issues around heritage and he needs to work on planning. He/she knows about planning and also works here. So he/she knows which issues he/she should get involved in and the discussion will help'.

The CEO of BPT added (personal interview, 2015):

> "I think the coordinator sees us as part of the key plan and supporting him in his/her role. His/her role is to drive forwards the planning, particularly management planning in WHS. I raised some issues which I though it is essential for the steering group to discuss, and he/she was very accepting of including some of my agendas'.

Similar findings were generated by the Pattaya case, in which the coordinator – DASTA - played an essential management role and built relationships with other stakeholders by listening to and respecting their opinions. However, this behaviour was rarely evident in the Ayutthaya case as indicated by the Senior Clerk of the City Municipality, who stated (personal interview, 2015):

238

> "The biggest problem in collaborative working here is the lack of respect as a result of the knowledge gap. Some stakeholders act as if they are higher than other people and do not want to collaborate with us as they claim we have a lower education level'.

The present study supported previous research, which showed that if coordinators are not trusted to fulfil their obligations and do not attempt to build trust and enforce procedural norms in relation to working, the networks' social outcomes will be zero (O'Toole, 1997; Weiner and Alexander, 1998; Agranoff and McGuire, 2001; Vidal, et al., 2006).

In summary, the case studies confirmed that coordinators in GNs need strong leadership and inter-personal skills to foster respect, trust, inclusiveness, and openness among partners; they need to create an environment in which differences of opinion can be voiced; and conflict can be successfully managed.

Diverse stakeholder involvement

Proposition 3: *The involvement of social groups representing civil society and non-governmental organisations is expected to deliver an essential contribution to the policy-making process.*

The appropriate number of representatives from various organisations are needed to produce various perspectives (Rotmans and Loorbach, 2008). However, while it is important that all groups impacted by SUT are involved in

policy planning and implementation, Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983) suggest that too many participants create an unwieldy situation which can lead to negative relationships and difficulty in achieving successful outcomes. Van de Kerkhof and Wieczorek (2005) suggest that the selection of participants should be on the basis of their competencies and abilities to communicate, learn, and innovate.

Empirical evidence from the Bath case confirmed the argument that a wide range of stakeholders is needed to help mobilise specific (local) expertise, improve awareness and support for policy measures, enhance the legitimacy of decisions, and build new networks and coalitions (van de Kerkhof, 2006).

Unlike in Bath, there was little evidence of such actions in Ayutthaya. A majority of the interviewees said that there were too many stakeholders and partners in the networks and they did not represent the full spectrum of tourism industry interests. As shown in Chapter 5, the private sector, social groups, and non-governmental organisations were not involved to a large degree. Without more social welfare and environmental stakeholders attending the meetings, economic development was likely to receive priority. Small organisations, namely Sub-district Administrative Organisations and Buddhist Associations, did not play active roles in policy planning. The overall effect was to weaken the GN and restrict development of SUT. The Deputy Mayor of Ayutthaya City Municipality defined the problem (personal interview, 2015):

> "It appears that we aren't taking our partnership working seriously. People who are directly impacted by WHS are never

involved in the meeting. I think it is necessary to involve those people from the very beginning and at all stages to ensure they understand the impact of WHS. We involved only local authorities and government officers, and I don't think it worked'.

The following section examines the interactions between stakeholders to ascertain their role in agenda-setting processes within different cases. The planning system is then explored to understand how individual intentions are part of the dynamics of interactive planning processes.

Figure 30: Applying propositions generated from the Bath case to the Margate, Ayutthaya, and Pattaya cases regarding phase 2: direction-setting

RQ1 How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances?		Supporting evidence
Phase 2: Direction-setting		
Agenda-setting	*Proposition 4:* The more engaged the stakeholders are throughout the planning process, the greater their chances are of making the right decisions	*Pattaya case*

Source: developed by the researcher

6.2.2 Phase 2: Direction-setting

Agenda setting as a starting point for long-lasting partnership working

Proposition 4: *The more engaged the stakeholders are throughout the planning process, the greater their chances are of making the right decisions.*

The four case studies examined the influence of interactions among stakeholders on the direction-setting phase of planning processes. The findings supported existing research, which found that stakeholder interdependency determines whether they block or hinder decisions and/or facilitate solutions (Klijn and Koppenjan, 2004; Edelenbos and Klijn, 2005; Portney and Berry, 2010). As discussed in Chapter 4, the GN operated in the Bath case achieved the best dynamics in its democratic landscape for several key reasons. First, the GN included different stakeholders who were engaged throughout the planning process. Secondly, the coordinator shared ideas and obtained agreement on issues often in an informal context. Finally, opportunities were provided for local residents to share knowledge and ideas in the initial stage of agenda setting. It can be concluded that the planning system is an expression of collective decision making by the whole steering group rather than a single organisation. By involving stakeholders early in planning and decision-making processes as in the Bath case (Figure 31), it is anticipated they would be less likely to obstruct (e.g. by litigation) and more likely to support decisions.

Figure 31: Bath North East Somerset Council Development Plan: Planning Framework
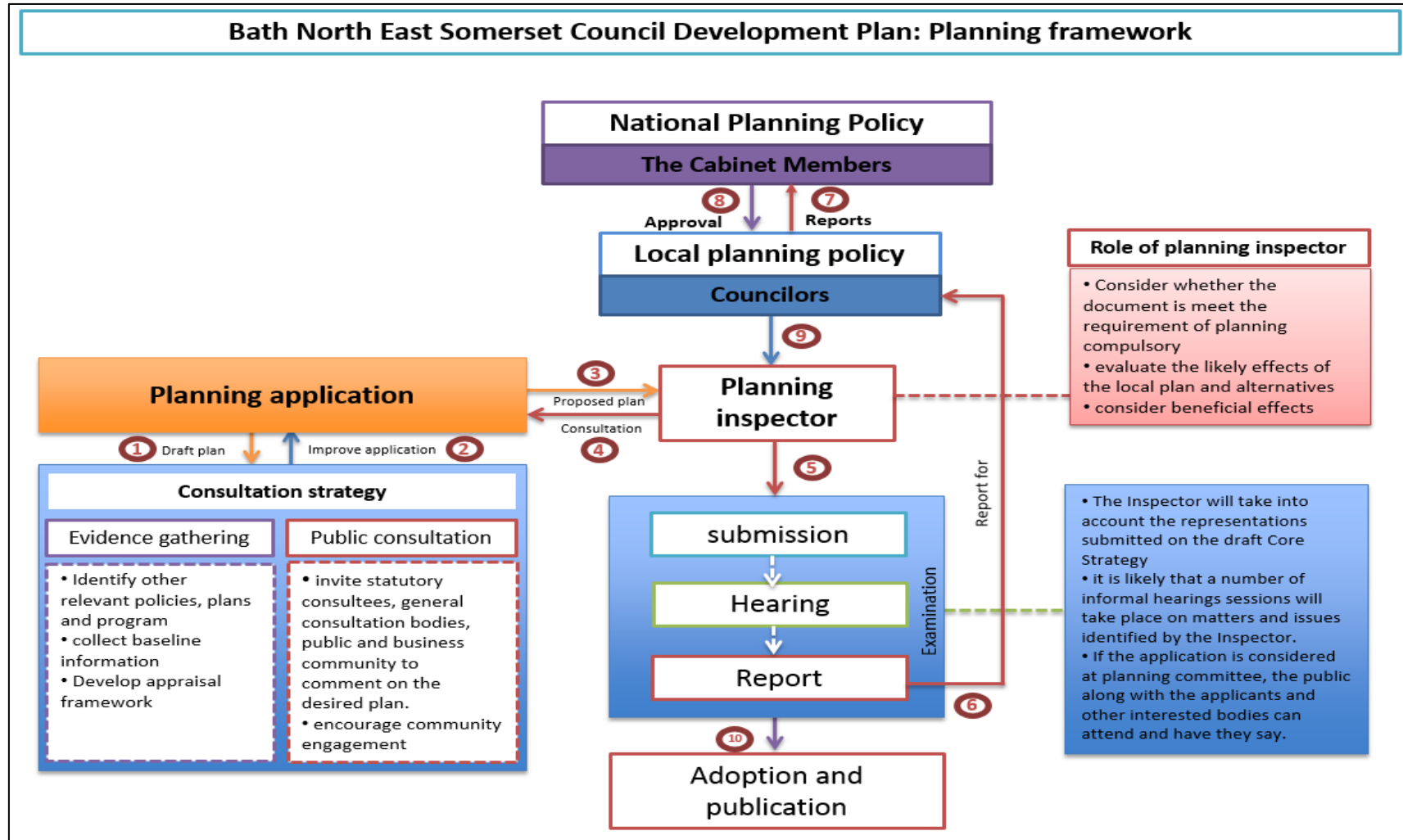
Source: developed by the researcher

The planning framework of B&NES council provides a good example of an interactive planning process that allows various stakeholders and the local community to be involved.

The B&NES council worked closely with town and parish councils, community groups, and local representatives in order to draw up a policy framework that took full account of local aspirations and concerns. The council also liaised with statutory bodies (Historic England, Natural England and the Environment Agency) as necessary to address any issues raised. This 'front-loaded' approach aimed to resolve as many issues as possible early in the preparation of the plan, so that it was underpinned by evidence to ensure the plan was sound when submitted for examination.

The General Manager of The National Trust explained the role of the stakeholder at the starting point of an interactive process (personal interview, 2016):

> "I think what we do is review and involve in the plan and steer the direction of that. Once that is adopted and owned by the council it is really about how it is integrated to other council policies and that it ensured there is cross referencing. WHS should remain in consideration the core policy document'.

The Divisional Director of Development of B&NES council added the following (personal interview, 2016):

> "I think it is useful to all parties to understand this is a complicated process and take that into account. It is about the engagement. Planning is there for public interest. We do not favour one

individual over another. This is why we have public policy, to find what works for everybody. That's the social initiative we have really'.

The Margate study illustrated the problems that occur when a number of different levels of councils are involved in the planning process. The county level plays an influential role in local planning systems, as stated by a KCC Councillor (personal interview, 2017):

"Thanet district has never been big enough to undertake a regeneration scheme. As county council we think of big things. Invest Thanet is quite small. A lot of them were on the previous board (Thanet Regeneration) that didn't work. Thanet Regeneration did not achieve much. Thanet is driven more from a county council level not a district level'.

Figure 32 illustrates the planning process in Margate, where the upper-tier of local government (KCC) plays an influential role in the decision-making process.

Figure 32: Thanet District Council Planning Framework
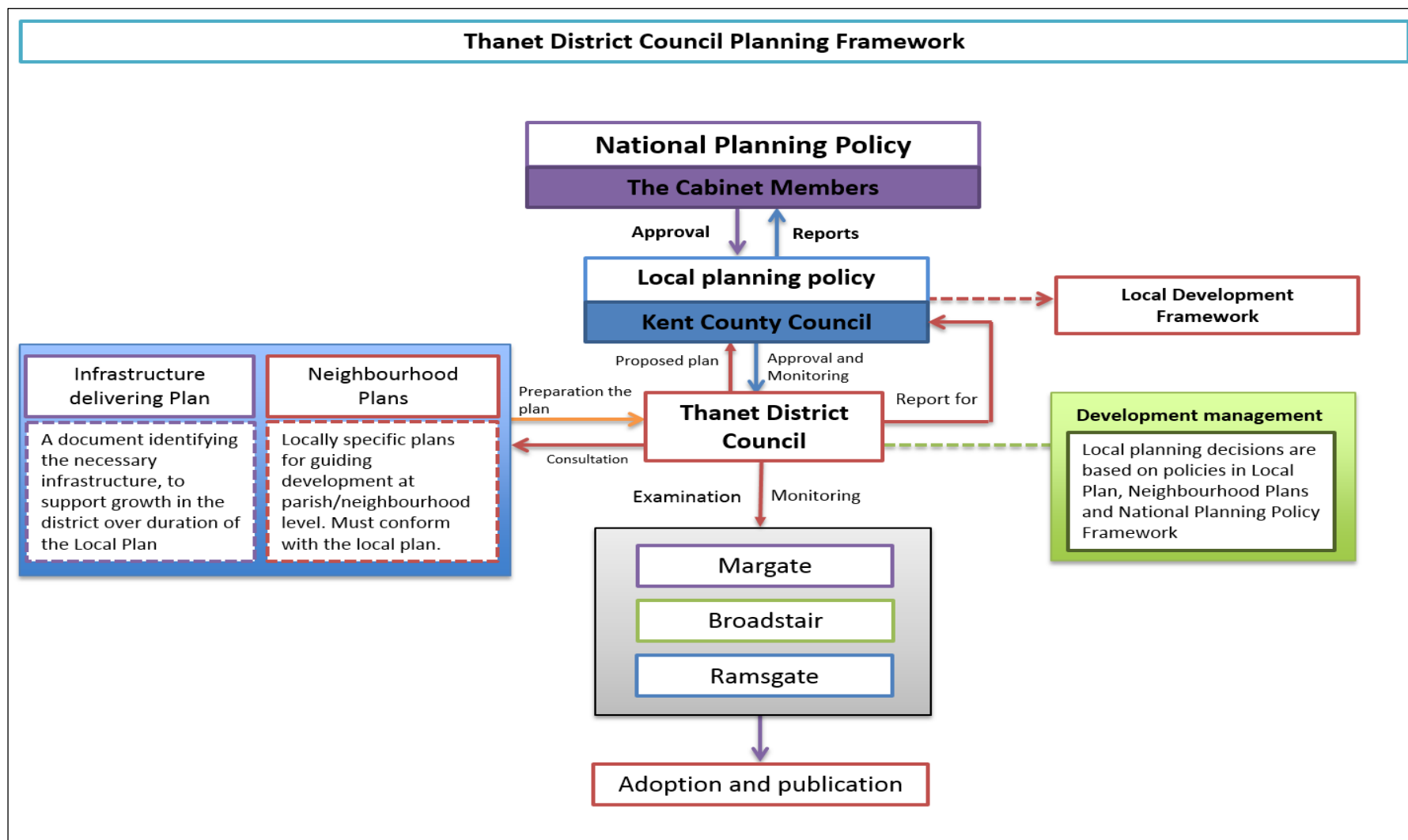
Source: developed by the researcher

In contrast to the Bath case, at the early stage of Ayutthaya's planning process, central government mainly formulated the Strategic Plan, without the involvement of local authorities or the public, as shown in Figure 33. Stakeholders were not expected to play a particularly active role in the Strategic Plan until it was approved by the cabinet. Locals feel they receive orders and direction from above without being consulted. Analysis shows that, in the Ayutthaya case, the GN was reserved only for elites and experts. Locals did not understand the importance of the WHS because they were not involved in agenda-setting, and this may explain why local residents believed that the WHS was likely to create more problems than benefits for the city. Thus, it seems that networks fully mandated by government agencies do not elicit effective cooperation, commitment and contribution by stakeholders to network goals.

In contrast, the inter-municipal collaboration has also been shown to be highly effective in establishing successful GNs in SUT. Pattaya's Strategic Plan involved the Pattaya City and its surrounding municipalities, and private and non-governmental organisations. The planning process had, as its starting point, a long-established interagency collaboration. However, it was noted that the collaboration was not regarded as very successful; in fact, several reports pointed out weaknesses and problems because key stakeholders (the Governor and Mayor of Pattaya City) were absent.

Figure 33: Ayutthaya Historic City Development Plan: Planning Framework
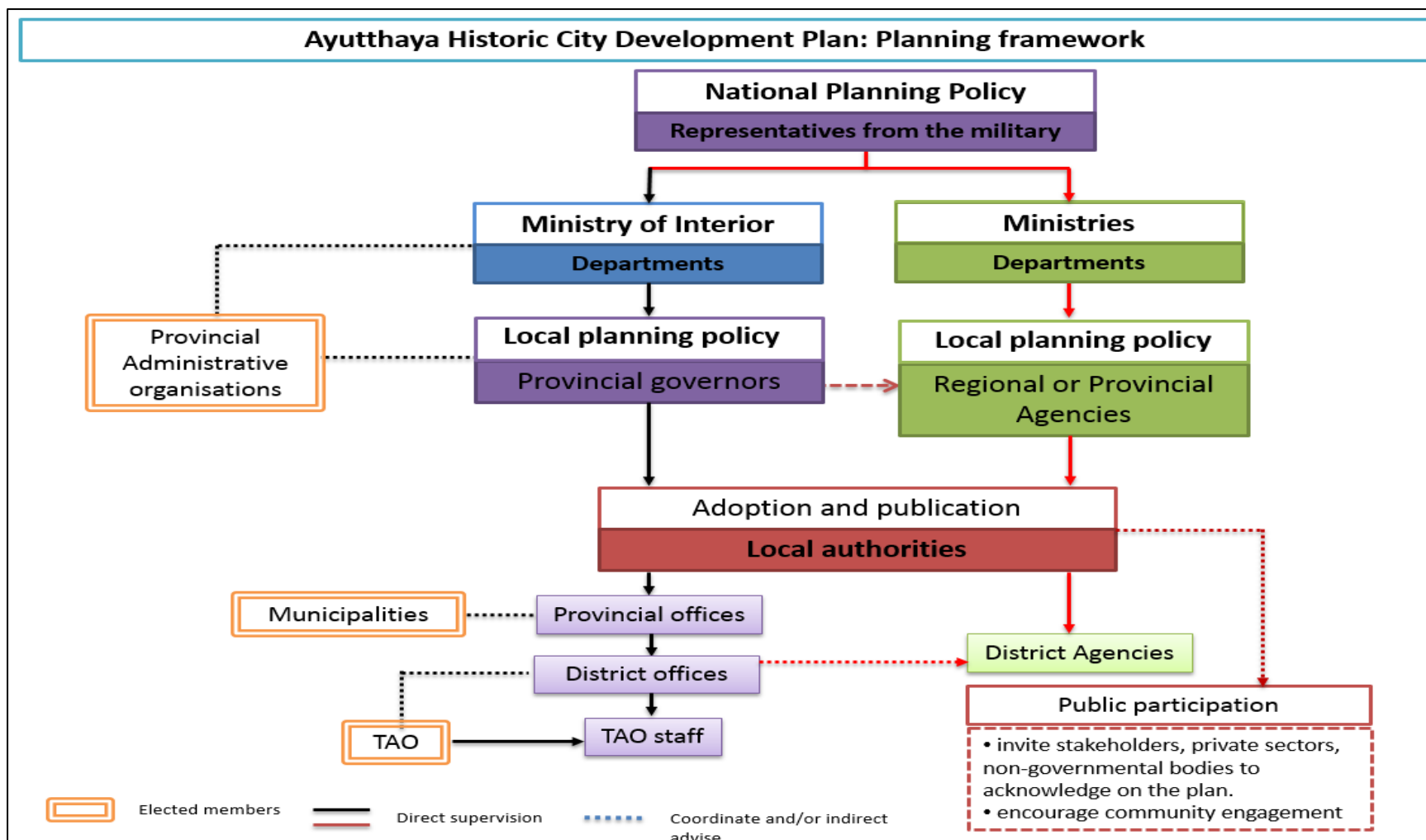
Source: developed by the researcher

Figure 34: Applying propositions generated from the Bath case to the Margate, Ayutthaya, and Pattaya cases regarding phase 3: implementation and building sustainability

RQ1 How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances?		Supporting evidence
Phase 3: Implementation and building sustainability		
Funding	***Proposition 5:*** Partnership-operated funding enables projects to be carried out to a high standard.	***None***

Source: developed by the researcher

6.2.3 Phase 3: Implementation and building sustainability

The effect of partnership funding

Proposition 5: *Partnership-operated funding enables projects to be carried out to a high standard.*

Unlike Bath, which received joint funding from central, and local governments, not-for-profit groups, and related stakeholders, empirical evidence from the Margate, and Thai cases demonstrated that scarce funding is an obstacle in network management. Evidence from the Thai cases illustrated that funding

was allocated by the government and therefore, becomes uncertain when governments change. Additionally, funding did not meet the requested amount in the Strategic Plan because of global economic conditions. In some cases, interviewees felt there was a lack of information concerning the use of WHS funding.

Similar to the Ayutthaya and Pattaya cases, Margate faced many difficulties funding cultural regeneration schemes. The evidence shows the failure of many networks initiated by the TDC Council, in particular the Margate Renewal Partnership (MRP) and Dreamland cases. The head of planning and regeneration of TDC also pointed out the challenges of implementing a regeneration scheme (personal interview, 2016):

> "It depends on funding from local authority, government and private sectors. TDC doesn't have enough money for planning in Margate, or to have an organisation set up'.

Another local government officer of TDC concurred (personal interview, 2016):

> "The Council has so many problems, not just in Margate. We lack money. We are planning to build an airport. Margate is simply not prosperous. I think scarce funds make a difference'.

The lack of funding means here is a need for innovative thinking to realise Margate's potential for economic growth. Enhancing cultural tourism, has been shown, through the Turner Contemporary project, to be answering the challenge.

In conclusion, the above findings revealed that formation of effective GNs in SUT requires institutional norms of functionality, stakeholders committed to collaboration and a common goal, a coordinator with highly developed leadership and interpersonal skills, interactive planning processes, and adequate funding.

6.3 Research Question 2: How do different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why?

This section discusses the structure and dynamics of GNs which are conducive to effective decision making and policy implementation.

Figure 35: Applying propositions generated from the Bath case to the Margate, Ayutthaya, and Pattaya cases regarding the second research question

RQ 2: How do different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why?	Supporting evidence
Proposition 6: The creation of a more formal, deeper interactive relationship over time influences sustainable collaboration.	**All cases**

Source: developed by the researcher

Similar to the Bath case, Ayutthaya featured a council-led network model in which the City Council plays a major role in establishing and controlling

collaborative processes. Evidence from the Margate case illustrated two types of GN. The Dreamland venture presented a model, similar to participant-governed networks as suggested by Provan and Kenis (2008) in which the participants are responsible for managing internal relationships and operations as well as external relations with groups such as funding bodies, government, and customers.

The other GN operating in Margate was similar to the Bath case where networks were initiated and led by the council. The Pattaya case provided an example of a network administrative organisation or the Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration (DASTA) - led network, where a central government appointed agency, DASTA, plays a broker role in coordinating and sustaining the networks. Such models are generally set up when the network first forms, to stimulate its growth through targeted funding and/or network facilitation and to ensure that network goals are met (Eggers and Goldsmith, 2004).

Evidently, none of the networks studied in all cases were established without the approval of local governments, as such, they are at the centre of the GN. Local government involvement may take various forms. As mentioned by Academician of Academy of Urbanism about the Margate case (personal interview, 2016):

> "I think it has been regenerated by the private sector rather than the Council. I don't say the Council hasn't improved anything. But it seems to respond to demands rather than invention. They appear to be follower rather than initiator'.

Empirical evidence from all cases confirmed that the formation of formal networks was likely to be advantageous for maintaining stability. However, the Ayutthaya case demonstrated that tight control of GNs by central government would mean destroying their core principles and purpose of GNs and alienate participants. On the other hand, high flexibility and adaptability could be difficult to sustain, especially in view of legitimacy and efficiency. Strategies for achieving stability of GNs are best learned from long established and successful networks as exemplified by the Bath study. This model featured a high degree of democracy and local control, inclusion, collective responsibility, effective coordination and collaboration of stakeholders, agreement on policy goals and implementation.

The next section analyses the important drivers and constraints identified in relation to effective partnership working to date – and importantly, how partnership working may be improved in the future. The four case studies will be compared and contrasted in terms of the dimensions of local governance identified earlier (Chapter 4, Section 4.6 and 4.7, and Chapter 5, Section 5.6 and 5.7).

Figure 36: Applying propositions generated from the Bath case to the Margate, Ayutthaya, and Pattaya cases regarding foundational platform factors

RQ3 What factors promote and inhibit GNs?		Supporting evidence
Foundational platform factors	**Proposition 7:** In weak state structures, a wide range of politicians and bureaucrats can claim some **jurisdiction and equal relationship**.	**Margate case**
	Proposition 8: A strong **positive culture** leads to strong interagency collaboration	**Margate case**

Source: developed by the researcher

6.4 Research Question 3: What factors promote and inhibit GNs?

Each network has strengths and weaknesses in promoting sustainable tourism and can profoundly influence how ideas and initiatives are promoted or inhibited. This section investigates the key factors influencing the performance of GNs engaged in SUT using empirical evidence as illustrated in Figure 37. Key influencing factors are characterised as foundational platforms, and individual factors. Table 6 and 7 summarises the findings and should be read in conjunction with this discussion.

Figure 37: Elements of an Effective Governance Networks
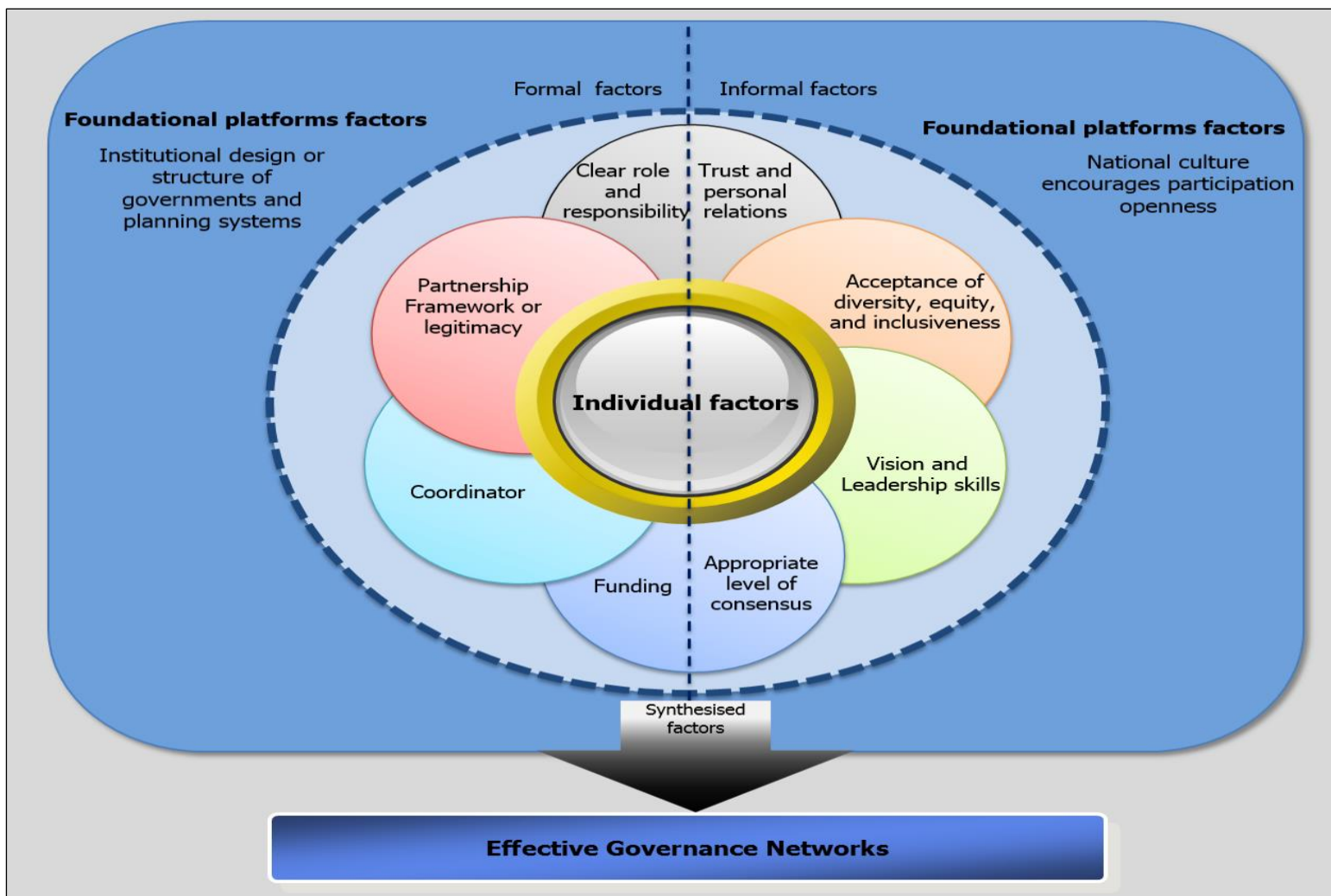
Source: developed by the researcher

Table 6: Comparative foundational platform factors influencing the effectiveness of GNs operating in the four case studies

Foundational platform factors	Bath	Ayutthaya	Margate	Pattaya
National political factors	Social forces lead to democracy and equality.	Decentralisation did not help weak and inefficient administrative bodies.	Reform objectives to enhance local democracy.	Inequalities among stakeholders should be minimised.
Effective partnership	High: An equal relationship between partners and local government.	Low: Asymmetric between central and local governments.	Low: Collaboration between KCC and TDC needed.	Low: Asymmetric between central and local governments.
Positive and negative cultures	High: Positive attitude and leans toward optimism.	Low: Nobody listened to or supported to partners.	High: Positive attitude.	Low: Key actors do not realise importance of partnership working.
Teamwork and collaboration	High: Partnership working seen as a viable and valued method of operation.	Low: Thais do not show a positive attitude toward teamwork.	High: Within each network Low: between networks.	High: Collaboration perceived as important between coordinator and municipalities. Low: Key actors prefer a stand-alone strategy.
Oral communication 'story telling'	High: Stakeholders encouraged to speak in whatever manner felt comfortable to them.	Low: Thais avoid criticism and leave problem on the table.	High: Stakeholders were encouraged to speak in whatever manner felt comfortable to them.	High: Communication between local municipalities.
Awareness of history and WH status	High: Most people feel their historical environment is precious.	Low: Modern generation have little knowledge of their town's history and culture.	-	-

Source: developed by the researcher

Table 7: Comparative individual factors influencing the effectiveness of GNs operating in the four case studies

Individual factors	Bath	Ayutthaya	Margate	Pattaya
Bringing together stakeholders	High	Low: There are too many unnecessary stakeholders.	Low: There is no official forum to bring local people together.	Low: Key stakeholders are expected to need to be included.
Leadership	High: Coordinator has full positional and personal authority.	Low: Council seemed to lack legitimacy and an ability to integrate all sectors to achieve shared goals.	Low: Local government plays inactive role.	Low: Coordinator's position is neither permanent nor well-resourced (Pattaya City decided not to take part).
Acceptance of diversity, equity, and inclusiveness	High: Bath seeks to empower and engage citizens.	Low: Nobody listens to or supports to their partners.	Low: Legitimate coordinator is required.	Low: Key actors are expected to be included).
Clear role and responsibilities of participants	High: Task-oriented and outcome-focused.	Low: Central and local governments were overlapping and diffused resulting in a lack of clarity and direction in WHS management.	High: Task-oriented and outcome-focused within each network. Low: No holistic view.	High: Task-oriented and outcome-focused but limited in broader sense.
Degree of consensus	High: Stakeholders agree on network-level goals.	Low: Each stakeholder seek to bring benefits for its organisational preference.	Low: Elites play influential role in decision-making.	Low: Search for consensus between local governments except Pattaya City.
Trust	High: Interactions are dense and frequent and funding are clear.	Low: Relationships between central and regional governments are tense.	High: Within each network Low: Between upper-tier and lower-tier.	High: Except Pattaya City.

Source: developed by the researcher

6.4.1 Foundational platform factors

National political and cultural factors

Proposition 7: *In weak state structures, a wide range of politicians and bureaucrats can claim some **jurisdiction and equal relationship***

This study confirmed the argument of Savitch (1998) and Klijn (2008) that national political and cultural factors distinguish partnerships in different countries.

Overall, different national factors can cause different institutional designs. The authoritarian "top-down" nature of modern Thai society has been a feature throughout history. This might reflect a power distance in Thai culture. It is a society in which a strict chain of command and protocol are observed, wherein lower positions show loyalty, respect, and deference for their superiors in return for protection and guidance. This system may lead to paternalistic management, where major issues do not come to the surface, resulting in stalemate outcomes as shown in the Ayutthaya case. Attitudes toward people in higher positions are more formal in Thai society and information flow is hierarchical and controlled. British society, on the other hand, believes that inequalities among people should be minimised (Hofstede, 1985). Clearly, a compelling reason for the success of Bath's governance model is that social forces lead to democracy and equality.

In the 1980s, decentralisation from national to sub-national governments changed structures and the distribution of competencies in the UK. Decentralised decision-making could be seen as providing a common context for partnership development. Reform objectives were to enhance local democracy. However, in Thailand, decentralisation did not help weak and inefficient administrative bodies. Local authorities acted as lobbyists before central government ministries, rather than acting as individual ultimately responsible for specific functions. Resource allocation tends to be more responsive to the political interests of central government rather than local demand.

The major challenges to establishing effective GNs in Thailand are a highly hierarchical and deferential culture and fierce bureaucratic resistance to decentralisation initiatives envisioned in the constitution. These traits remain very much a part of Thai political and administrative life.

Effective partnerships

All case studies clearly showed that effective partnership formation was a requirement of good governance and organisations were enthusiastic about the process. Although extreme 'command-and-control' approaches were not found in the case studies, the threat and enactment of legislation were evidence of explicit assertions of hierarchy.

All cases showed interaction between the national and local levels. A Bath Councillor stated (personal interview, 2015):

> "There are people who influence how we operate as tourism-centric. We cannot just make it up ourselves. We have to respect the top level as we are WH city and keeping that status is important. Therefore, we have to plan to make sure that the attribution and definition of Bath is protected and kept as original as possible'.

Empirical evidence from the Bath case demonstrated that successful partnership working was characterised by an equal relationship between partners and local government within the unitary authority. However, in the Margate case, there was question of cooperation between upper (KCC) and lower tiers (TDC). A TDC Council stated (personal interview, 2017):

> "Unlike Bath, where there is a unitary council with their own organisation, Kent has a different model that depend on how the local authority funds tourism. It depends on funding from local authority, government and private sectors. There isn't enough money for planning in Margate or to have an organisation set up. We have a tourism strategy. This plan is formulated by using England guidelines to develop a framework and management strategy for future tourism'.

Collaboration in the Thai cases was considered asymmetric between central and local governments, reflecting the strong hierarchical social system of Thai culture. In the English cases, the national level does not constitute a dominant factor in determining GN decision-making and outcomes on a micro level. In contrast, the Ayutthaya case shows the strong steering role of the centre as illustrated by the importance ascribed to the three agencies in the WHS (the

Fine Art Department, Department of Treasury, and City Municipality) and the distribution of funds.

The Director of the 3rd Regional Office of Fine Arts Department pointed out the following (personal interview, 2015):

> "As this Strategic Plan is related to various sectors and organisations, it is required that the Cabinet approve the Strategic Plan. The structure of the Advisory Board consists of the Deputy Prime Minister as the Chairman and other related organisations. Therefore, we initially needed to have the authority of the Deputy Prime Minister as well as the responsibility of all stakeholders. We do not have sufficient power to manage the WHS and stakeholders'.

The Pattaya case demonstrated a similar steering role by central government as mentioned by the coordinator (personal interview, 2015):

> "The Strategic Plan of Designated Pattaya City related areas for ST was established by the Cabinet resolution as proposed by the Pattaya City. Thus, the central government plays an influential role in monitoring our performance'.

Positive and negative cultures, communication and storytelling

Proposition 8: A strong positive culture leads to strong interagency collaboration.

Empirical evidence indicated that different cultures are likely to create GNs of different types and dynamics. Bath's GN demonstrates a strong positive culture and is organised to represent the broad city interests. The group has a positive attitude and leans toward optimism. A formal steering group meeting is held twice a year, and interviewees indicated there are also many formal and informal interactions with the coordinator and the chairman. Additionally, Bath has very strong communication within the networks and participants share a strong sense of purpose and strategic direction. Wider meetings allow actors to present their views.

Teamwork and collaboration

Effective communication strategies and mechanisms to coordinate partner activities are needed to facilitate synergistic thinking and action. Network members in the Bath case realised the importance of cooperative interaction to improve individual performance, enhance legitimacy, attract resources, and develop new ideas. They see cooperative interaction as a viable and valued method of operation. The CEO of BPT stated the following (personal interview, 2015):

> "I think collaboration here is like the air. I mean it is necessary. Many things are trying to be done but the collaboration is not rigid, but flexible like the air. I have quite a positive feeling about the partnership. The city has improved over the last five or six years. One of the challenges in Bath is that some organisations were working in their own little world. They did not actually collaborate with others and that kind of action is less productive than collaboration. So I think partnership working here is better. I think understanding its benefits has improved, especially for

small organisations. By coming together on an agenda, you can achieve more'.

Unlike in Bath, interviews in Ayutthaya and Pattaya demonstrated that Thai people do not show a positive attitude toward teamwork. The Senior Clerk of Ayutthaya City Municipality pointed out (personal interview, 2015):

> "We lack a team building culture at work. The solution is to communicate to each other and about aspects of the mission that we really agreed upon. Today we cannot reach a consensus, and therefore we let the problems continue and become troublesome'.

The Pattaya study also confirmed that Thais prefer a stand-alone strategy to collaborative working, particularly in Pattaya City, which has more power and resources than other municipalities. Interviews there raised the issue of the 'stand-alone' strategy of Pattaya City and how it can lead to a weak collaboration.

Awareness of history and WH status

In terms of WHS awareness, the Bath and Ayutthaya cases present a contrasting sense of ownership in different ways. The Bath case clearly demonstrated that most people feel their historical environment is precious and understand its value. After World War II, in the 1950s and 1960s, there was a great deal of disagreement and tension between heritage preservation and a desire for urban development (personal interviews, CEO of Bath Preservation Trust, 2015; CEO of Bath Tourism Plus, 2015). Some historic

environments in Bath had been maintained for over 66 years. Some people who experienced life in that era still remember the vibrant feel of an 'unspoiled' historic environment and they are very conscious of the need for heritage preservation. When asked about the possibility of losing UNESCO status, all interviewees in Bath expressed confidence this would not happen. Positive attitude like this play an essential role in preserving cultural heritage and developing SUT.

Broad stakeholder participation important in GNs and a positive attitude are advantages, as illustrated by The CEO of Bath Tourism Plus (personal interview, 2015):

> "The business and partners are very proud of the fact it is a WHS city and that's why everybody works together to maintain that status. We all think it is important for the tourists, business, restaurants, hotels, and everyone to get it'.

In the Ayutthaya case, in contrast, some young local people have not perceived the importance of WHS status (personal interviews, Director of Fine Arts Department, 2015; Former Vice Governor, 2015). One of the prominent factors in Ayutthaya is a lack of public participation in the WHS management plan, particularly in the early stages as mentioned above. Another important factor is timescale. The era of growth in Ayutthaya ended 225 years ago and residents are presently living within an old town environment. The modern generation has little knowledge of their town's history. This is a serious shortcoming, when paired with a lack of participation in policy planning, and seriously undermines Ayutthaya's efforts to develop cultural heritage. The

Director of the Regional Office of Fine Arts Department stated the following (personal interview, 2015):

> "Some people do not understand WHS. They do not see the benefit of WHS status. They think it brings more obstacles because there are lots of restrictions. The concept of WHS is not related to Thai culture. For example, in terms of preservation when we see the statue of Buddha's head broken we feel depressed and uncomfortable with allowing it to stay that way. We would like to repair it but UNESCO does not allow us to do that. Local people do not agree with the notion of UNESCO, which is why they think WHS brings small benefits'.

Oral communication 'story telling'

The Bath study demonstrated that effective oral communication 'storytelling' abilities were important in building effective GNs. Stakeholders were encouraged to speak in whatever manner felt comfortable to them. No conditions were placed on the way they shared or presented information (personal interview, the Chairman of Federation of Bath Resident's Association, 2015).

In regard to sharing information, one B&NES councillor expressed the following opinion (personal interview, 2015):

> "One of the best aspects is consulting people. We come up with issues that nobody in the Council would know about. These are new issues we can take on board, and share information that everybody gives to each other'.

Unlike Bath, assertive communication rarely occurred in the Thai cases, particularly among group members with lower positions. Most Thai are loyal to the group they belong to in a collectivist culture, and this over-rides most other societal rules and regulations. In order to preserve the "in-group", Thai are not confrontational and "yes" may not mean an acceptance or agreement. Offence leads to loss of face, and Thai people are very careful not to feel ashamed in front of groups. Personal relationships are key to conducting business, and it takes time to build such relations; thus patience is necessary as well as not openly discussing business at the first meeting. As a result, there are difficulties in reaching agreement.

To sum up, the traditional hierarchical model of governance has been mediated through unitary and two-tier structures but the influence of central government is omnipresent. The role and interaction of stakeholders such as local government, have been directly affected by institutional design.

The following section demonstrates the influence of both formal and informal individual factors on the development of effective GNs.

Figure 38: Applying propositions generated from the Bath case to the Margate, Ayutthaya, and Pattaya cases regarding individual factors

RQ3 What factors promote and inhibit GNs?		Supporting evidence
Individual factors	**Proposition 9:** Inclusiveness, empowers and broadens public participation in network arrangements.	**None**
	Proposition 10: Achieving interesting outcomes depends on **clear roles and responsibilities and finding attractive solutions**, which encourage actors to activate their resources and knowledge for the problem and/or policy process at stake.	**Margate and Pattaya cases**
	Proposition 11: Building **trust** can improve problem-solving capacity.	**Pattaya case**

Source: developed by the researcher

6.4.2 Individual factors

Bringing together stakeholders: acceptance of diversity and pursuit of equity and inclusivity

Proposition 9: *Inclusiveness, empowers and broadens public participation in network arrangements*

The empirical evidence from the Bath case suggests that it is crucial to involve the right partners (Chapter 4, section 4.3.2). Some problems perceived in policy practice arise because decision-making takes a long time due to the resistance of various participants having different perceptions and views. This can be a major obstacle to achieving meaningful outcomes that satisfy all stakeholders (personal interview, the Councillor B, B&NES council, 2015).

The importance of inclusion for achieving effective GNs was discussed in detail in Chapter 4 (Section 4.4). Empirical evidence in the Pattaya case illustrated that regional government and Pattaya City have not taken an active part in the networks by choice, implying that the work of the networks is not significant in their respect. Members claim they have no influence over decision making processes at the central government level, but they are more likely excluded at the political level by Pattaya City. However, with real commitment to inclusion, the networks have the potential to be an important integrating factor in the municipality.

In Pattaya, local government as a stakeholder can be regarded as representing the public and acting on behalf of local communities. The coordinator pointed out:

> "We obtain and respond to local people's needs through representatives from local governments. Many projects need to

be approved and acknowledged by local communities. We abolished sensitive projects which affect the public life such as a monorail that invades private areas and local business areas'.

It is acknowledged that fewer resources and less specialist knowledge and skills can cause the exclusion of some groups (Hendrinks, 2008).

Bath faced difficulty overcoming the feeling of local people that the WHS only benefits for visitors. This point was exacerbated by the fact that thousands of ordinary households are included within the boundary of the site and caught up in measures designed to protect cultural assets. One B&NES Councillor stated the following (personal interview, 2015):

> "That's always been an issue because if you live outside the city, you feel the city gets everything, all assets, all the resources in the city. They do not get the kind of benefit tourism can give them. They do not have asset value as the city centre has. But in bringing anyone to the area, I mentioned to people that they needed to focus on the Roman Baths, which are part of Bath. So that is the brand'.

Bath seeks to not only empower and broaden citizens participation in network arrangements, but also deepen participation, for example, by ensuring that preferences influence outcomes (Berry et al, 1993; Fung and Wright, 2003). The Park and Ride issue is a good example of empowered public debate and citizen engagement, as mentioned in Chapter 4. This was lacking in Thai examples. A more radical proposal would involve connecting network structures to more direct forms of citizen engagement (Bevir, 2006).

Unlike Bath, there is still the question of equity and inclusiveness in the Margate case. The local community there plays a lesser influential role in fostering regeneration schemes. There seems to be a disconnect between what policy documents describe and depict and the reality of GNs in practice. The Academician of Academy of Urbanism described such a circumstance (personal interview, 2016):

> "The Council isn't very concerned about poor people from Europe and working in that area, who live in poor circumstances. They do not seem to be focused. Improvement in Margate is brought by the private sector and creative people. So these people bought houses and build hotels which forces some other people out. The Council doesn't have a policy or anything about that. Areas like Cliftonville were developed for the private sector, so people who lived there before must go somewhere else, and the Council doesn't really care where they go'.

From the analysis above, it is clear that in the Margate network more emphasis must be placed on providing a platform for the local community to ensure that the socio-economic benefits of cultural tourism reach all residents. Additionally, the Margate case confirms the argument that fewer resources and less specialist knowledge can lead to cause omission of some stakeholders (Hendrinks, 2008). It has also been difficult for some groups like Dreamland to make an assessment of where to concentrate their efforts (personal interview, Councillor of KCC, 2017).

The dynamics of partnership: roles, operational structures communication, and appropriate levels of consensus

Proposition 10: *Achieving successful outcomes often depends on clear roles and responsibilities, which encourage actors to activate their resources and knowledge for the problem and/or policy process at stake.*

All case studies involved formal institutional structures. Therefore, they set down clear roles and responsibilities as stated in their strategic plan. The Bath network was effective because participants generally agreed on network-level goals. They wanted to create an attractive city and vibrant economy, as well as attract visitors and maintain their WHS status. The Divisional Director Development stated (personal interview, B&NES council, 2016):

> "It is difficult to say that anyone or any stakeholder always gets their way. The Council has to weigh out all positives and all negatives against policy and come up with recommendations from stakeholders. In terms of planning, it is about judgment. It will be harmful if you overlook somebody'.

In Ayutthaya, stakeholders' roles and responsibilities were identified in accordance with the cabinet resolution. However, they were overlapping and diffused resulting in a lack of clarity and direction in WHS management as described by the Former Vice Governor of Ayutthaya (personal interview, 2015):

"It is the lack of clear roles and responsibilities in implementing WHS management, even at national level. They have not yet determined who exactly is responsible for WHS management. The project involves three main organisations such as the Fine Arts Department, Ministry of National Resources and Environment, and Ministry of Education. They are overlapping and confusing. So, when we have conflicts we do not know who will deal with it'.

The dominance of overlapping governmental stakeholders in Ayutthaya due to the traditional bureaucratic system and the nature of Thai governance meant that the notion of a GN where each stakeholder was equal would be doomed to failure, especially given the territorial nature of responsibility among the stakeholders. Empirical evidence confirmed the importance of **appropriate levels of goal consensus** in network governance (Van de Ven, 1976). Interviewees recognised the importance of having a broadly shared vision and consensus among partners for achieving long-term goals.

In Ayutthaya's situation, there was a smaller chance of consensus because each stakeholder tended to respond to its organisational preference. Thus *high* expectations of interactive decision-making are not always met (interview, the Director of Fine Art Department, 2015).

Bath also seemed cognisant of the challenges presented in 'staying focused on the shared goal' and was better able to not only articulate these challenges but, more importantly, to respond to them. Unlike the other three cases, Bath possessed the discipline to commit to a long-term strategy and let it dictate the partnership's focus and structure, rather than letting short-term tasks

consume funding and lead them in vague directions. The CEO of BPT explained the situation further (personal interview, 2015):

> "Our major objective is to preserve world heritage through the management plan. So, I think collaboration helps because it gives a sense of implicit agreement with the plan itself by people sitting around participating, and so it is worthwhile to check and balance what we are doing in this group. More positively, it allows people to get together and say: 'in order to achieve particular actions, we need to work together to achieve them'.

'Influence' is an important parameter that can have a significant effect on network operations. Empirical studies indicated that influence is based on a number of factors, such as control of material resources, information, and knowledge, and social and political support. The link between centrality and influence has been well established in the general social network literature (Cook and Emerson, 1978, Burkhardft and Brass, 1990).

As discussed in Chapter 4, the Bath case illustrates effective GNs based on stakeholder commitment, sharing of information, and public support gained by opening up issues to public debate, and valuing public knowledge. The Bath case illustrates that being the lead organisation in the network is more likely to influence the decisions of other stakeholders. **Lead organisations can maintain a gatekeeping role in the network since they control access to valuable resources**. The coordinator of Bath WHS stressed this role (personal interview, 2015):

> "The influence over decision-making in a partnership should depend on a broad knowledge of stakeholders. We don't have

273

necessary strong control. We do have influence. So if you got the top of representatives from your organisations on to that steering group, they have a strong degree of influence so that you have a level of control. But there is no legal control, just more influence on people'.

In the Margate case, elite and high-profile participants, such as Wayne Hemingway and Tracey Emin were perceived to be the most influential bodies in policy networks.

The Ayutthaya case highlighted the power of stakeholders and their original affiliations. Influence on decision-making in Ayutthaya reflects the Thai culture. They always say 'yes' to influential organisations because they fear the consequences of conflict and exclusion from the group arising from a candid expression of views as confirmed by the Senior Clerk of Ayutthaya City Municipality stated the following (personal interview, 2015):

"During the meeting, no one expresses his or her view honestly. Some stakeholders do not tell the truth, making problems difficult to solve. We just leave problems on the table. We are sometimes afraid of superiors' authority. For example, we had problems of locals' invasion in WHS. I am afraid to handle this problem because I am just a civil servant but those people could ask politicians to help them, pressure and dismiss us'.

In Pattaya, most stakeholders within networks had equal status (sub-district councils) in the administrative structure. They have similar power and can freely express their opinions. Therefore, no one had influence over others. They can identify and solve problems and handle issues that local authorities would not be able to cope with on their own.

Trust and personal relations between partners

Proposition 11 *Building trust and relationships can improve problem-solving capacity*

According to Adams (1980), the purpose of network management is mainly to develop and maintain personal networks, and boundary spanners are those who manage such personal relationships.

The coordinators, particularly in the Bath and Pattaya cases highlighted the importance of personal relations. Pattaya's coordinator stated (personal interview, 2015):

> "We have known each other for a long time. We have been working with the agencies, the mangers, mayors, directors, and the entrepreneurs all the time. So I think stable and developed personal relations have strengthen our collaboration here'

In well-developed personal relationships, people know each other, roles and status are clear, objectives are clear, and the individuals get along with each other. Such relations lead more or less to similar attitudes, perspectives, and practices. Thus, forming a team or getting to know each other better helps team members to cope with different points of view and perceptions (Adams, 1980).

The empirical evidence confirmed that building strong relationships among partners is essential for the creation of effective GNs. The interviews showed the focus on building trust by sharing and discussing information, and forming long-term, and reciprocal relationships. The group thinks in new ways only if members talk to one other and are influenced by what they hear. The Bath case illustrated that trust exists because of frequent interactions and previous trusting relationships. Informal interactions were found to bring positive outcomes, particularly with planning issues (personal interview, the CEO of BPT, 2015). The coordinator also stressed the benefit of interaction by stating the following (personal interview, 2015):

> "There is a lot of informal working going on behind the scenes. That's why lots of problems get resolved. Because, formally, you get limited time, the formal meetings' set timetables make it difficult to talk about things openly. Once you have had a partnership for a long time, partners do build and get stronger'.

The Director of Fine Art Department of Ayutthaya also stressed the importance of personal relations (personal interview, 2015):

> "We have different goals from the City Municipality. So we currently rely on personal relationships for trade-off. But once we retire or move, what will happen?

The local government officer of TDC in the Margate case concurred by making the following statement (personal interview, 2016):

> "Because everybody knows each other from those days and we still talk to each other. It is the informal way. I think collaboration

> here went down when Margate Renewal Partnership was finished. We still manage to survive because our relationships past relationship have continued'.

The argument here is not only that trust should be viewed as a network-level requirement, but also that network governance must be consistent with the general level of trust density that occurs across the network as a whole. Trust density, as with the density of connections, means that many stakeholders in the network trust one another, thereby providing a dense web of trust-based ties.

Unlike Bath, decision-making in Ayutthaya is hampered by the unwillingness of actors to share information, because they fear opportunistic behaviour from other actors. The Former Vice Governor of Ayutthaya also pointed out the following (personal interview, 2015):

> "It is hard to say trust-based networks exist here. The relationships between central and regional governments are tense. There is no one who has autocratic power to manage overall plans and implementations. Each organisation is looking for loop-holes, as they hold different laws to gain benefits for their organisations. Therefore, there is no point to collaborating or enforcing them'.

Unlike Ayutthaya, Bath has voluntary relationships, reflecting the trust present in society. In Bath, where trust is presented and confidence in other stakeholders is strong, the flow of information and willingness to exchange information is likely to be greater. As a result, problem-solving capacity is enlarged (Deutshch, 1973; Nooteboom, 1998).

Distrust was evident in the Pattaya case because, as the manager of DASTA explained, Pattaya City - a key actor - perceived the claiming of credit for collaborative achievements to be a manifestation of power. The Manager of DASTA also viewed such behaviour as a hindrance to trust building (personal interview, 2015):

> "Pattaya City was afraid that we were going to claim the credit for pieces of work. This implied lack of trust, so we need to deal with glory seekers so as to build trust between partners. What we're doing now is encouraging community participation. We believe that if we have a strong community, we might have more power over politics'.

In order to form closer and more effective interactive relationships, people and organisations involved in partnerships need to be sure that other partners will follow through on their responsibilities and obligations and will not take advantage of them. Respect among partners is also likely to be critical (Kanter, 1994; Mattesich and Monsey, 1992). It is difficult to imagine how a partnership can achieve synergy unless its partners appreciate the value of the other's contributions and perspectives.

It is important to note that an element of 'distrust' is also necessary. According to the interviews, a certain amount of distrust seems 'healthy' in keeping partners sharp in their cooperative relationship (Sydow, 1998). It can increase the checks and balances that create better understandings. The CEO of the Bath Resident Federation Association stated (personal interview, 2015):

> "We would rather trust the National Trust than the council, therefore, the council needs to listen to our voices.

The empirical findings of the study are in line with theory that working relationships are built on norms of cooperation and trust (Larson, 1992; McEvily, et al., 2003). Interviewees suggested that trust leads to mutual commitment of the partners. The stakeholders in Bath indicated that trust can reduce transaction costs because it enhances the predictability of stakeholder behaviour i.e. partners do not invest in constant monitoring of contacts especially in the developing phase of the networks (Ring and van de Ven, 1992; Sako and Helper, 1998). There is also an intensification and continuation of interactions (solidification) when trust increases (McAllister, 1995; Klijn and Teisman, 2000). This encourages stakeholder cooperation both in terms of manpower and finances with anticipated benefits for the GN and SUT.

6.5 Policy transfer discussions: Best practice in partnership working

Policy transfer refers to the process by which actors apply policies developed in one setting to develop in another (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000). Confronted with a common problem, policy makers can learn from the response of their counterparts elsewhere. To put it very simply, policy makers draw positive lessons from the mistakes of others (Rose, 1991).

This study contributes to our understanding of the role of interagency relationships in facilitating and improving the process of policy transfer. Inevitably network analysis provides the optimum tool for studying the interactive process of policy transfer and characterising the relationships within networks to assess the effects of structure of governance (Marsh and Rhodes, 1992; Stone, 2001).

The research followed Rose (1993) suggestion for assessing transnational policy transfer and developed a conceptual model by identifying the success factors of the GN derived from the Bath case, which constituted best-practice in partnership working. Unlike the Thai and Margate cases, Bath implemented the partnership approach through voluntary collaborations, which were generally locally driven, but had some UNESCO steering. These partnerships were better able to leverage their initial successes to generate credibility, enthusiasm, and additional resources for future development. If fully developed, these could signify the emergence of possible partnership working.

The best practice principles defined in the Bath study provided a comprehensive understanding of effective partnership working and offered a policy transfer protocol for GNs operating in SUT in other countries. The Bath case essentially recommends a neo-pluralism model for GNs in SUT with a strong role for civil society groups. Figure 39 illustrates an effective GN model for application in the SUT and possibly other policy areas.

Figure 39: Recommendations for effective GN model
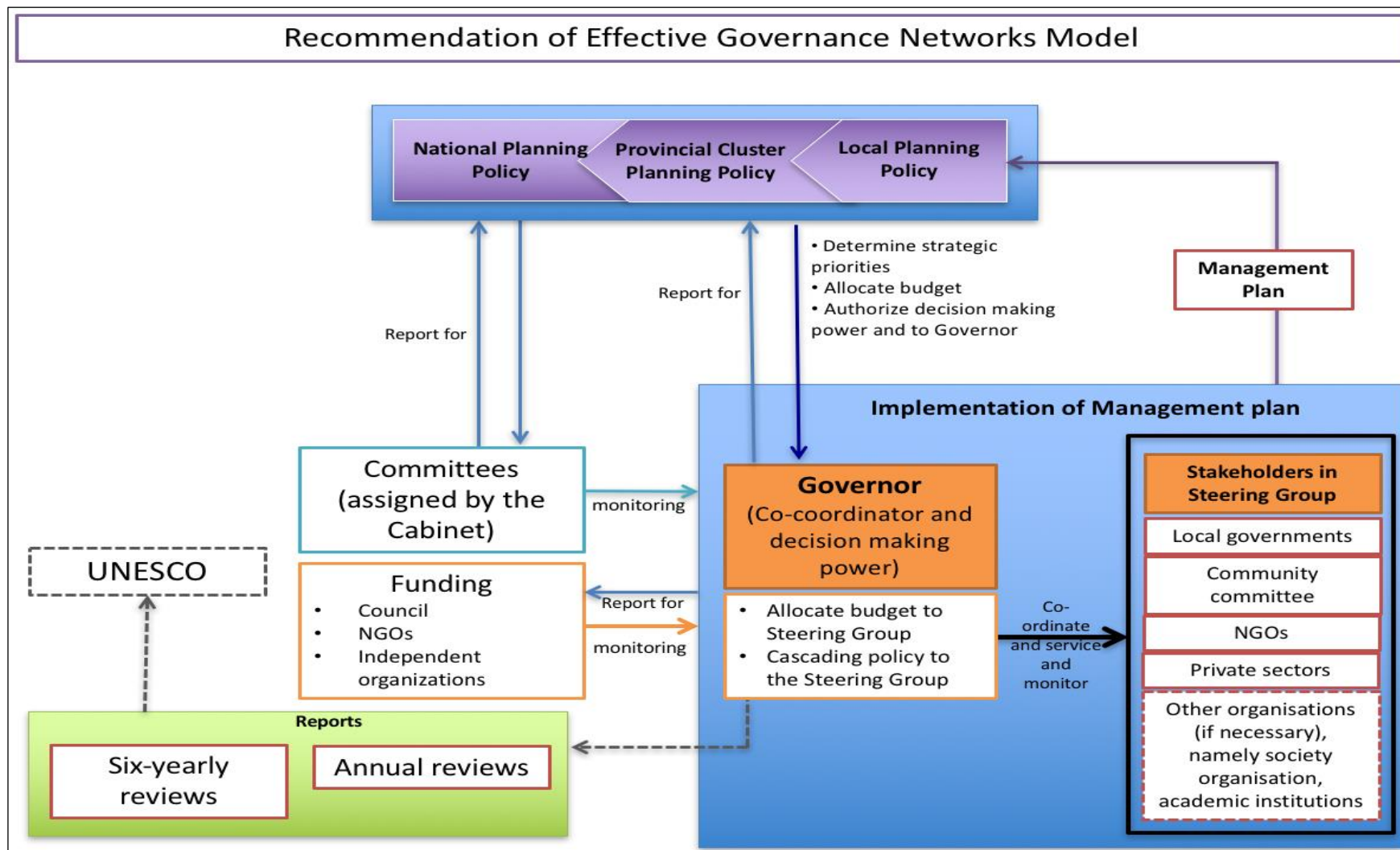
Resource: developed by the researcher

Effective policy transfer involves complex processes and is certainly not merely a matter of copying. Successful transfer also involves processes of learning and adaptation as follows:

Adaptive management: The first aspect concerned the orientation of network management towards an adaptive style, and focussed on realising goals and the inclusion of new ideas (A management style is described as closed if oriented toward goal formulation and fixed at the beginning of the process).

Coordinators: The pursuit of SUT requires guidance and governance on multiple levels. The second aspect thus concerns the interaction of coordinators, specifically whether they had wide and varied interaction with other participants in the GN. The findings showed that the Bath coordinator adopted a more 'adaptive' management style. Coordinators with authority and effective personality were required in Ayutthaya, Pattaya and Margate to improve communication with stakeholders. The Governor who was expected to be coordinator, did not have sufficient decision-making power across organisations, and there is no law currently supporting it. The national government should provide coordinator legitimacy. Guided by the success of Bath's GN, key policy decisions in the case of Ayutthaya and Pattaya's should be actioned by an effective coordinator.

Globalisation involves the transnationalisation and internationalisation of political, economic, and social processes. Therefore, the research considered examined the behaviour of international, state and non-state actors in relation

to obstacle to policy transfer. The classic characteristics of networks offered by Rhodes (1999, p. xviii) includes structural relationships, such as resource exchange and interdependence alongside managerial characteristics (connections between players, including reciprocity, diplomacy, and trust). Institutional formality provides openness, access, and predictability, all preconditions for effective popular participation. Agreements may be written; membership rules may be established; procedures may be arrived at for interaction between members. However, substantial differences in political and administrative cultures between two countries can severely reduce the relevance and applicability of best practices and their transfer from western countries to those in Southeast Asia. Although institutionalisation implies informal processes and structures as illustrated in western literature, in the Thai context, networks may also be governed through formal processes and structures. Formalisation plays a particular and necessary role in political processes. However, excessive formalisation runs counter to the very logic of network solutions. The key to network achievement is flexibility.

Sustainability, in network development, is a continuous process in which partners work together to achieve shared objectives, which may often be equivocal, contested and ambiguous. Benefits are not always tangible or assessed in monetary terms, and stakeholders may reach them within different timelines. Thus, one of the main challenges of GNs regarding sustainability is to ensure that all stakeholders perceive positive outcomes from shared goals for the common good. Sustainable thinking challenges them to balance exploitation of resources and exploration of economic

283

development. Essentially, stakeholders need to support each other to find shared goals for the common good instead of acting in their own interests. Sustainability - economic, social, and environment - was a central theme of policy in all cases. The concept was written into case study mission statements and evident in the selection of projects and their delivery.

Future cases for comparison: Policy transfer is not an 'off the shelf' immediate remedy for international ills (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000, p. 13). Different countries may have similar problems which may be solved by policy transfer, but at different time and different magnitude. Therefore, it is possible that, while emulation (which involves transfer of the idea behind the policy) is crucial at the agenda-setting stage, copying or combining (which involves blending several different policies or inspirations) may be more applicable at the policy formulation or implementation stage.

Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) suggest that policy transfer can result in success or failure. Therefore, the success of a policy transfer model rests on its ability to be adapted into a multi-level, multi-disciplinary perspective. For example, GNs are applied in a multitude of policy areas including education and jobs, affordable housing, infrastructure, the well-being of the community, economic activity and heritage conservation. It is worth mentioning that the economic advantages of SUT can help make a contribution in all these areas.

For WH sites, the key priority is to balance conservation and pressure of urban expansion. For seaside towns, key priorities are inward investment, urban

regeneration and meeting residents' requirements and concerns. GNs will need to be flexible to adapt to rapid change and look ahead to develop a vision for the future with new ideas that sustain communities as Margate was trying to do with Turner Contemporary and Dreamland.

The research findings highlighted examples of success and failure of GNs in SUT in England and Thailand regarding policy setting and implementation. However, ongoing development of SUT in Thailand over the longer term requires the government to provide more financial support and skills development, and also 'letting go' by central government in some ways to encourage greater involvement and synergy at local level.

6.6 Conclusion

This trans-national comparative case study examined how and why GNs influence SUT. The study emphasised emerging models of governance for managing a plurality of actors. This study indicated that in the globalised era only plural coalitions allows actors to achieve their goals by increasing their impact and implies a multidimensional policy implemented across many fields. A key finding was the need to create effective partnership working.

Bath has enjoyed a decades-long history of success in using GNs in the development of SUT. This has been achieved through a holistic approach based on democracy and equity and an effective dynamic of partnership working involving inclusion, trust and acceptance of shared goals.

The Margate case showed the influential role that the business sector and creative people can play in cultural regeneration. However, there was little inclusion of the local community in policy planning and decision making and no official forum to bring them together. Margate also demonstrated low levels of collaboration between tiers of local government, KCC and TDC. The major obstacle to implementing GNs in SUT in Margate is the complex structure of the network involving a myriad of partners with no overarching coordination body.

The Thai cases emphasised the power of central government in influencing GN structure, policy making and implementation. Ayutthaya illustrated a GN driven by central government through agencies. An overall poor performance in SUT related to WHS may be explained by poor communication between stakeholders, lack of teamwork and a low degree of consensus on priorities. The local authorities lacked legitimacy and authority in decision making and an ability to integrate all sectors to achieve shared goals because higher levels of government were prominent.

The Pattaya case study also illustrated asymmetry between central and local governments. Successful development of SUT is explained by the establishment of a coordinator to facilitate partnership working. There was generally a high level of consensus between stakeholders but a key player – Pattaya City – operated a 'stand-alone' strategy. The Pattaya case showed that the network was task-oriented and outcome-focused but development

activities were limited in a broader sense because the coordinator's position was neither permanent nor well resourced.

The following chapter summarises the issues and problems of implementing GNs in the pursuit of SUT. A model for tourism governance in Thailand is proposed with consideration of the cultural and political context.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

This chapter presents an overview of research conducted on the structure, role and performance of governance networks (GNs) in sustainable urban tourism (SUT). It summarises the key findings obtained by integrating data collected during international comparative case studies of World Heritage Site and seaside towns in England and Thailand. The chapter concludes with suggestions for future work.

7.1 Overview

This research generated a new model that links SUT policies with possible GN strategies for optimising operation and development. The thesis contributes to the literature on policy transference by showing how GNs can be adapted to facilitate global sharing. Furthermore, by applying the developed theoretical model of policy transfer, the research identified one case study in particular - the Bath case - as a powerful working model for improving the efficiency of policy networks.

Exploratory trans-national comparative case studies were conducted to answer the overarching research question: **"How exactly do GNs influence SUT policies and practices?"** In doing so, the research addressed the following maxim: "it is imperative that comparative research be conducted

internationally to identify the patterns and how they relate to political cultures and structure" (Klijn, 2008, p. 520).

Cross-case analysis was employed to deepen understanding of governance network (GN) processes by identifying and interpreting cross-case themes (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The assessment considered the key actors and their relative power and focused on SUT strategies. This enabled a review of how local tourism GNs operate, decision-making complexity and the effects of this governance approach on policy planning and implementation. The analysis produced key findings related to the strengths and weakness of various types of GN and their relative effectiveness.

An integrated conceptual framework, built on the combination of the collaborative framework (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Gray, 1996), GN modes (Teisman and Klijn, 2002; Provan and Kenis, 2008), Lukes' dimensions of power, and the notion of factors influencing GNs, was applied to empirical evidence collected by semi-structured interviews with various stakeholders involved in GNs. A thematic analysis was employed to systematically analyse the qualitative data (Chapter 4, 5 and 6), resulting in key findings, with policy and practice implications. The study revealed that the GN system operated by Bath in SUT, provided a powerful 'best practice' model for comparing competing systems.

Systematic data collection was carried out using interviews and documentary evidence to gain a comprehensive understanding of GN development and

performance. The research established clear and effective strategies for accessing and interviewing elites. The 'snowball strategy' was found to be effective (particularly in Margate) for finding additional potential interviewees. This strategy was successful in accessing potential interviewees, namely Wayne Hemmingway, councillors and journalists. Academics in the field provided contact details of possible interviewees and additional reading material.

In contrast to the English cases, interviewees in Thailand required formal communication, such as letters and face-to-face interviews were conducted mainly at their offices. This reflected the hierarchy and power of elites in Thai culture which can impede partnership building.

The next section discusses key empirical findings. The theoretical implications of the research and its relation to the integrated conceptual framework will be presented. Finally, recommendations for further research will then be provided.

7.2 Key findings: implications for policy and practice

The Bath WHS case study (Chapter 4) clearly demonstrated the ability of GNs to enhance SUT. The local council was the central player in the GN partnership model and the main funding source. The partnership model featured broad representation of key stakeholders including, in some cases, funding bodies from independent organisations and the private sectors. Non-

governmental organisations from civil society also played an active role in fostering SUT but were steered by the council leadership. It can thus be concluded that the local council is considered to be the focal actors in the Bath case.

The Ayutthaya WHS case (Chapter 4) demonstrated poor application of GNs principles. Formal hierarchical structures were in place which lacked the dynamic of GNs. Policy networks continued to be based on self-referential organisational decisions, rather than inter-organisational decisions. At the same time, practice showed that existing governmental organisations were incapable of developing practical and effective partnerships. Governance strategies call for an exchange of information between stakeholders and a willingness to seek mutually agreeable solutions. The Ayutthaya case clearly did not function in this way, recognising the need for cooperation but not converting this into practice. The Ayutthaya case also showed the difficulty of interactive decision-making when government stakeholders retain their primacy within the process. Consequently, private partners and non-profit organisations were reluctant to contribute knowledge and effort, which created serious obstacle to achieving synergy and problem solving. It is imperative, therefore, that traditional bureaucratic approaches are replaced by effective governance models rather than simply paying 'lip service' to the need for change.

The Margate and Pattaya seaside town case studies (Chapter 5) demonstrated GN initiatives driven by the need for councils to address

resource and funding scarcity. In Pattaya, the central government exerts overall control and primary decision-making powers through an appointed facilitator or coordinator (DASTA). The Pattaya system of governance seems to offer a successful 'inclusive' model of GNs in SUT since it is successfully managing rapid development of tourism and the associated increases in population and demands on infrastructure.

The Margate seaside town case study (Chapter 5) demonstrated the role of district council (TDC) in GNs was essentially subservient to the decision-making role of the county council (KCC) and there was little evidence of strong collaboration between the two tiers. Overall, the GN seemed more responsive to demands rather than being proactive. Nevertheless, the Margate GN model clearly showed how a unique cultural heritage can translate into urban regeneration and positive economic impact, as exemplified by the success of the Turner Contemporary gallery. However, it recognised that the attraction of 'high-value' cultural tourists can exclude local residents. In contrast, the Dreamland venture failed seemingly due to poor management and planning which resulted in a product offering which was not attractive to tourists.

7.3 Answering the research questions

This section discusses the main findings, key lessons and significant factors behind SUT progression which emerged in response to the three primary research questions. The discourse establishes guidelines for improving policymaking and policy implementation, particularly in Thailand where there

is limited application of GNs in relation to SUT. This will help policy makers improve understanding of the conditions necessary for improving the structure and working of GNs in relation to SUT for effective partnerships working and improve their existing GNs.

7.3.1 Research question 1: How does the process of institutional design shape the emergence and strategy of GNs and under what circumstances?

All case studies demonstrated that GNs were mediated through unitary or two-tier structures. The role of stakeholders such as local governments, was directly affected by institutional design. The empirical evidence revealed that the unitary authority, in the Bath case, working through a highly skilled coordinator, promoted effective holistic management and communication channels necessary to facilitate the activities of the complex GN. This allowed for stronger actors and greater collaboration. In contrast, there was little evidence of strong collaboration between tiers in the Margate case. It was evident from the English cases that institutional design requires strong, open, and accountable local government working in partnership with all interested parties.

Despite few non-governmental bodies being involved in Ayutthaya, the partnerships were driven and funded by national government agencies. Therefore, central and local governments overlapped in forming heritage tourism policy. A strong central government involvement, through a

coordinator body, DASTA, was also evident in the Pattaya case. However, DASTA was established as an institutional link between regional and local governments to form tourism policy and provide funds for SUT projects.

The key conditions for successful network formation

Given the above discussion, the key conditions necessary for successful GN formation and performance in relation to SUT may be defined as follows.

1. **A coordinator needs to be appointed with leadership skills.** The Bath case supported the argument that strong leadership is key in strengthening policy networks and achieving goals (Lasker et al., 2001; Weiss et al., 2002; Conrad et al. 2003). The coordinator in the Bath case enjoyed a high degree of positional and personal authority. Empirical evidence suggested that the network coordinator's role was to draw out common goals, create an atmosphere of trust, broker contributions, and ensure that agreed targets were met. A strong central government involvement through a coordinating body, DASTA, was evident in the Pattaya case. The Margate and Ayutthaya cases showed that the coordinator or institutional link is required to collaborate and manage with all relevant stakeholders involved in SUT schemes at all levels. In the Ayutthaya case, policy implementation was difficult because there was no coordinator to provide stakeholders to provide consultation and communication with stakeholders.

2. Bringing together stakeholders: acceptance of diversity and pursuit of equity and inclusivity. Stakeholders needed to be identified and selected based on their competencies, interests, and backgrounds. However, the Ayutthaya case indicated that the existence of actors who did not take the interests of a wide range of potential stakeholders into account policy planning could create inequity between actors and policy. The Bath case illustrated that the involvement of social groups, and non-governmental organisations from civil society was essential to the policy-making process.

3. All relevant stakeholders should be involved at the start of the planning process. This condition increases the likelihood of making good decisions. This approach was given high priority in Bath and Pattaya, resulting in stakeholders understanding common goals and being more likely to support them. In Ayutthaya, stakeholders were not expected to take an active role in the early planning stages. Consequently, locals were unaware of their role and the benefits of SUT and lacked a sense of ownership of WHS, leading to a lack of involvement, cooperation and weak commitment to network goals.

7.3.2 Research question 2: How do different forms and dynamics of GNs contour policy outcomes and why?

The need for inclusive decision-making

The tensions apparent in the four case studies clearly showed the need for public involvement in the policy planning and decision-making processes of

GNs. This emphasised the advantages of providing a platform for average citizens, authorities and specialist agencies to express their views and expectations and participate in decision-making, to encourage the 'local control', forging a 'local identity' and 'sense of place' (Stevenson, 2003). This can avoid feelings of alienation, misrepresentation, and lack of ownership that surrounds most current approaches to city regeneration and branding, which in turn preventing long-term distinction, credibility and sustainability

The need for flexibility and stability

Empirical evidence from all cases confirmed the most obvious mechanism for maintaining stability is the establishment of formal networks. It is acknowledged that networks can work efficiently to achieve specific goals by combining resources and expertise that hierarchies alone cannot accomplish (Kapucu and Van Wart, 2006). However, unlike the other cases, Margate had issues of instability, particularly as regards Dreamland (Chapter 5). Another mechanism for maintaining stability is the formation of a formal hierarchy. However, GNs constructed as bureaucratic entities in this manner would destroy the intent and purpose of the model and probably alienate most participants. Empirical evidence in the Margate case revealed that the network was highly inefficient and lacked long-term internal legitimacy. Under such conditions, participating organisations will likely leave the networks or greatly reduce their involvement and contribution.

Based on the real-life experiences of GNs revealed in this research, no single form of GN can expect to be stable in structure or activity. Rapid changes in SUT, combined with changes in policy and participants over time requires governance to adapt accordingly.

7.3.3 Research question 3: What factors promote and inhibit SUT?

The previous section discussed the findings from applying the integrated conceptual framework to the data. This section demonstrates the key influential factors of GNs development. This study found that a combination of foundational platform factors and individual factors are crucial when conducting a trans-national comparison of GNs in SUT. Figure 40 illustrates the key factors that influence SUT, and should be read in conjunction with the following discussion.

Figure 40: Factors influencing SUT
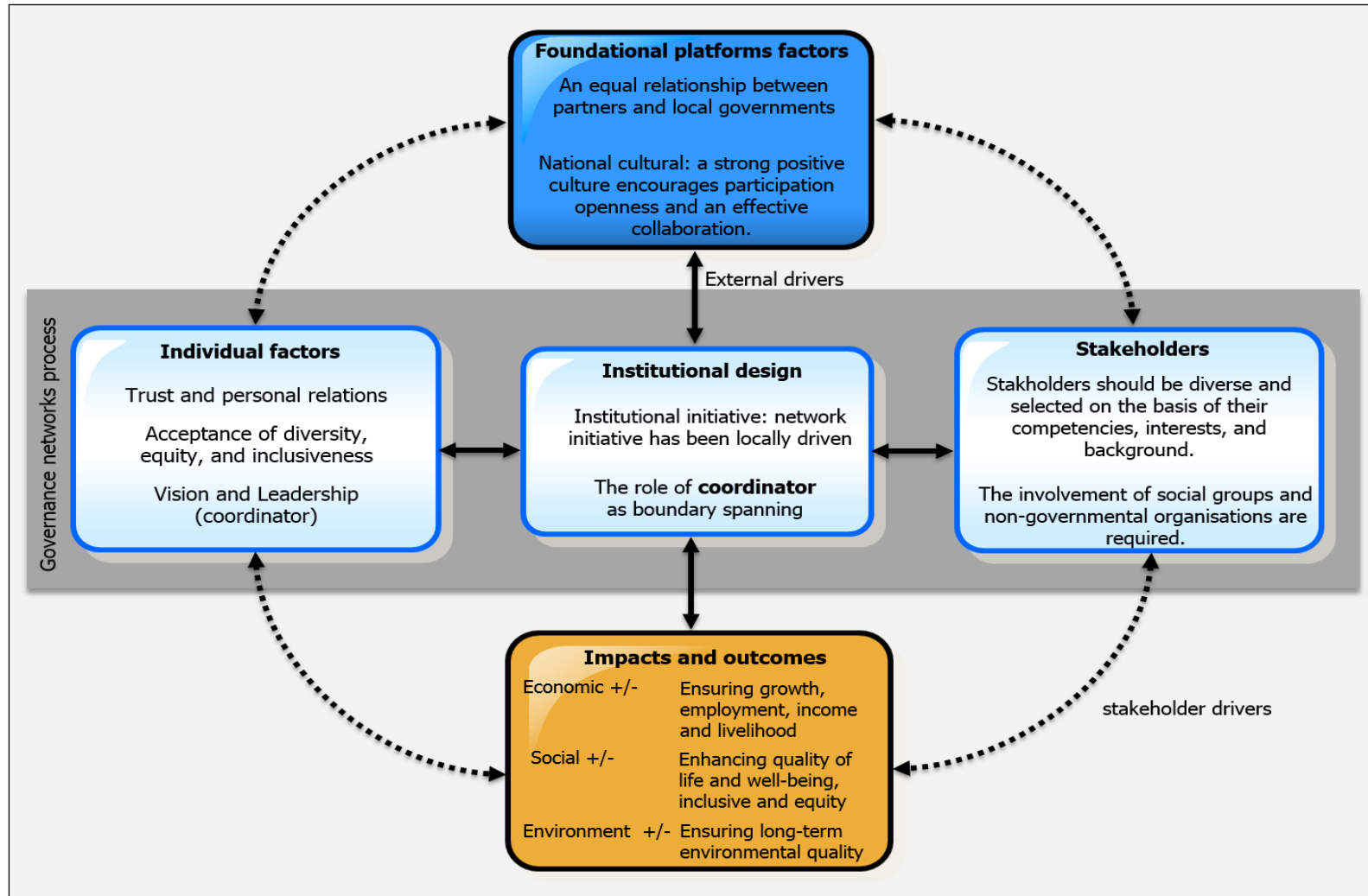
Source: developed by the researcher

Empirical evidence collected in this study confirmed that effective GNs could be found in Western democracies because these countries encourage dialogue, knowledge exchange, problem-driven collaboration and strategy agreement between political and administrative elites and those affected by governance outcomes (Jessop, 2000; Hirst, 2000; Fung and Wright, 2003, Dryzek, 2007).

Despite the Thai government's announcements regarding the adoption of SUT concepts, actual policy and practice remain mostly ineffective and insignificant and still wended to 'top-down' hierarchical thinking. Indications are that Thailand's main weakness are the absence of effective coordination between governmental authorities and other stakeholders involved in the GN.

Part of the problem is that Thai networks often serve as arenas for coalition building and bargaining among powerful elites instead of platforms for dialogue and collaboration between politicians and stakeholders (Benz and Papadopoulos, 2006; Marcurssen, 2007). Additionally, GN development in Thailand is constrained by a lack of teamwork, stand-alone preferences, and resistance to open discussion. A crucial challenge is the inequalities in Thai society, which lead to a strict chain of command and protocol. This study also found that poor commitment, and lack of transparency, trust, leadership, inclusiveness, and equity led to poor collaboration.

The research identified key factors that had a negative influence on GN formation and implementation in Thailand and thus provides strategies for enhancing GNs and the future development of SUT.

7.4 Contribution of the study to knowledge

This thesis combined literature review, interviews and comparative trans-national case studies to show how GNs might enhance SUT. The interdisciplinary approach created synergy by applying academic material (political science) and research in SUT public policy and governance. The study has contributed to knowledge in a theoretical and managerial sense by establishing relationships between previously unconnected subjects: collaboration theory, GNs, and SUT. This thesis contends that research on the governance of tourism and sustainability benefits from greater use of themes and theory taken from political sources which is rarely evidenced in tourism policy. Social and policy learning within a governance process allow a better understanding of this topic as it allows for the transfer of concepts and interpretations between research fields.

Sustainable tourism will be improved by considering the potential reasons for "policy success and failure" recorded in this thesis and applying these lessons. The GN model which was developed during the research may be applied in a real policy setting to help policymakers and practitioners in tourism. From a practical viewpoint, the findings identified effective GN dynamics, and stakeholder roles for managing SUT. The findings highlight the importance of

maintaining and strengthening relationships within the networks. Overall, this study has established a solid foundation for future research on enhancing SUT by means of dynamic GNs.

The research shared and presented a summary of the case study at two international Conferences. The first one was ICOT Conference in 2016. The paper was presented on ISSN: 2241-9314/ISBN: 978-618-81503-1-7. The second was the 4th Annual International Conference on Law, Economics and Politics in 2017. The paper was published on ISBN: 978-1-911185-43-7.

7.5 Conclusion

Empirical evidence confirmed that effective GNs are more likely to be formed when dialogue is encouraged, strategy is agreed, knowledge is freely exchanged, and problems are addressed and solved through collaboration.

The study identified key factors affecting the formation and effectiveness of different types of GNs, and their impact on SUT. The norms of leadership, inclusiveness, transparency, responsibility and equity must be followed at the network level. However, GNs continue to be a contested domain between different stakeholders and are subject to competing imperatives. The existing political system in Thailand is expected to restrict and freedom of action of GNs thus impeding development of SUT. The challenge for Thailand where stalemate in policy development is the more likely outcome is to build on the existing centrally controlled and directed policy networks there to create

governance partnerships which include more local control. In England, national democratic concerns play a decisive role in governance but do not guarantee the development of effective partnerships as illustrated by the case of Margate. This reflects in policy outcomes. Therefore, individual factors including commitment to collective goals, trust and inclusion need to be considered and synergised.

The present and future challenge facing GNs is to create and develop long-term partnerships that benefit SUT and all stakeholders. Applying the current best practices as found in Bath which was most closest to the pluralistic model offers a sound GN framework for adaptation to the Thai context. Many issues and problems faced by the tourism sector in England and Thailand are similar, even if the political frameworks differ markedly. Each country has its own tourism governance model, produced and defined by a unique set of circumstances. However, GNs offers the most effective way for addressing the challenges of SUT in both countries.

Appendix A

Interview topic guide

A topic guide for interviews on GNs in SUT

A: Interview guide

Interview ID:	
Name of Research Area	
Name of the locality where the interview took place	
Interview date	
Interview recorded	Yes [INTERVIEW RECORD ID] Yes [INTERVIEW RECORD ID], but partially, [explain why] No [name of assistant]
Other persons present during the interview	Yes [who] No
Language interview	English and Thai

- **Interviewees should be explained that:**

1. The interview will take about an hour and will include topics of GNs regarding their experiences and how this can contribute to SUT.

2. The interviewees will be asked for their permission to tape record during the interview.

3. All of interviewees' responses are confidential.

4. The purpose of this study is to explore the comparative case study in the relationship between governance networks and urban tourism systems which have emerged to drive forward sustainable tourism governance.

5. Interviewees will be reminded of their written consent to participate in this study.

6. Interviewee participation in this interview is completely voluntary.

7. Interviewees may also withdraw their participation at any time without consequence.

A: Collaborative framework

Issues	Questions
Interviewee background in partnership working and networks formation: developing networks, directing setting; and implementation	1. Tell me about your role and responsibility in your organization. What role do you play in the World Heritage Site Steering Group? How has your role changed?
	2. Who are the stakeholders or other actors in this group? What role do they play? How has their role developed and changed?
	3. How was this group was created? Who initiated this group?
	4. Why are you involved in this group? What are the main motivations of involving in the Steering Group?
	5. What is your commitment in the Group?
	6. What are the main contributions of the Group?
	7. Tell me about the structure of meeting? Who organizes the meeting? When do you have meetings? How do you set the agenda? How do you arrange the meeting? Do you have a set of protocol?
	8. How do you select your collaborative partners?

B: Type of governance networks

Issues	Questions
The modes of GNs, structure and dynamics of GNs in SUT	1. How are these networks managed, controlled and coordinated?How would you define the collaboration (e. g. partnerships/networks/forums?) How are stakeholders are involved in strategic planning and decision- making or other processes?

Issues	Questions
	2. Has collaborations between stakeholders changed over time?
	3. Who are excluded from the Group?
	4. To what extent can organisational goals can be achieved through network involvement? Do you normally agree/have arguments over network goals?
	5. Are there any tensions arising? How are they dealt with these – circumventing?
	6. How do you manage the budget? (council budget%/business%) W Who are the main actors who provide financial resources?

C: Evaluating the governance networks of sustainable tourism system

issues	Questions
Factors enabling and inhibiting GNs in SUT	1. Were there any policy that you do not agree? Why? Who make decision and dealt with this problem?
	2. Were there any policy that you and other stakeholders think they were important but failed to set agenda? Why do you think that they didn't become important issues?
	3. How are decisions made and by whom and what types of lead actors? Can you give me an example?
	4. What types of actions and policy outputs are generated?
	5. What types of outcomes result? (Can you define and be characterize 'sustainable'?) Do you have common objective? How do you and other actors collectively support the decision making process?

issues	Questions
	6. How do you achieve goals? Share decisions? Does your organization support the partnership approach?
	7. How do you compliance with collectively negotiated decisions?
	8. Do you normally open opportunity for involving new actors?
	9. What have been changes in policy outcomes since your involvement?

Appendix B

Informed Consent Form

Name of Participant:

Participant Identification Code for this project:

Name of Supervisors: Dr. Annabel KIERNAN, Mr. Francis CARR, and Dr. Steven HURST

Name of Researcher: Thanaporn Tengratanaprasert

Title of the Research Study: Fostering and Sustaining Urban Tourism Systems through Governance Networks: a Comparative Analysis of England and Thailand

Ethics Committee Approval Number:

Participant Statement

I confirm that all participant information sheet I have read the participant information sheet for this study and understood the objectives of this involvement and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the interview procedure. The researcher have opened opportunity for me to ask questions concerning the study and the researcher have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that this is voluntary involvement and that I may decide to withdraw from the study at any point without giving a reason.

I understand that my responses will be sound recorded and used for analysis for this research project. I am aware that I am entitled to stop the recording of the interview at any time if I feel the subject matter has become too sensitive for me to discuss. I am also aware that I am entitled to stop the interview entirely should I wish to. I understand that at my request a transcript of my interview can be made available to me.

All concerns have been answered and any further concerns that arise during the time of the study will be addressed by the researcher. I therefore agree to participate in the study.

I agree to allow the interview to be recorded.   ☐ **YES** ☐ **NO**

I agree to allow direct quotations to be used.   ☐ **YES** ☐ **NO**

I wish my identity to remain anonymous.   ☐ **YES** ☐ **NO**

Signed (Participant)   [_____]   Date   [_____]

Signed (Investigator)   [_____]   Date   [_____]

Please provide a contact number in case we need to get in touch with you.

Telephone :   [_____]

Email: [_____]

Participant Information Sheet

Title of the Research Study: Fostering and Sustaining Urban Tourism Systems through Governance Networks: a Comparative Analysis of England and Thailand

Participant Identification Code for this project:

Name of Supervisors: Dr. Annabel KIERNAN, Mr. Francis CARR, and Dr. Steven HURST

Name of Researcher: Thanaporn TENGRATANAPRASERT

Emergency Contact: Thanaporn TENGRATANAPRASERT, Unite, Chester Street, Manchester, M15 6JX, Mobile number: 07521567530/ email: thanaporn.tengratanaprasert@stu.mmu.ac.uk

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You are being asked to take part in a research study undertaken by Thanaporn Tengratanaprasert, PhD student of Department of Politics & Philosophy, Faculty of Humanities, Languages & Social Science, Manchester Metropolitan University. This form clarifies the purpose of this study and your section if you agree to participate in the study. Please take your time to read the form carefully. Your participation is voluntary which means you can choose whether or not to participate. Your decision will not have any consequences. There will be no loss of benefits if you decide to participate or not to participate. You can change your mind during the interview, or later or quit at any time. There will be no penalty. Before you make a decision you will be informed of the purpose of the study, the possible risks and benefits of being in the study.

Any questions concerning the study, please ask the researcher to clarify, including any language contained in this form. If you agree to proceed and participate, you will be asked to sign this form and a copy will be given to you. You will received contact information. This study has been approved for human subject participation by the Chair of the ESS Ethics Sub-Committee, Manchester Metropolitan University.

What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between governance networks and sustainable tourism systems both in national and local government in Thailand and England to gain a broader understanding of the theoretical aspects of governance networks, and in order to investigate the factors enabling and inhibiting the development of governance networks. This research will contribute to academic writing on the subject of an enhanced understanding of sustainable urban tourism and its practical applications and create knowledge that can help to foster improvements in governance networks in the pursuit of sustainability. This research will offer the Thai government some guidelines on how networks can be used in public policy. Additionally, in practical terms it may offer some guidance on how countries can develop and implement more effective sustainable urban tourism strategies.

Why have I been invited?

You are being asked to participate in this study because of your position as (1) the top executives, middle managers, and frontline officials working at the selected agencies, namely Department for Culture Media and Sport, Ministry of Tourism and Sport, and local councils and relevant departments; (2) representatives from private and related organizations involved with the selected agencies; (3) top executives of the central government agencies such as OPDC, Office of The Council of State. In this role you possess knowledge about the sustainable urban tourism and are responsible for development and implementation of sustainable urban tourism strategies which is directly linked to the existence and the dynamics of what can be labelled as a 'governance network' at work across a range of organisations in the urban tourism sector.

Do I have to take part?

You will be informed the purpose and your contribution to this study through the information sheet by the researcher. You will be asked to sign a consent form to show you agree to proceed and take part in this study. You are free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason.

Where will the study take place?

Each study participant will be contacted by Thanaporn TENGRATANAPRASERT to schedule the interview for a time and place that is most convenient to the respondents. The interview will be conducted within an hour.

What will I be asked to do?

1.   Study participants will be asked to return the signed consent form to Thanaporn TENGRATANAPRASERT.

2.   The researcher will contact study participants to schedule an hour-long interview. Prior to scheduling a specific interview date and time, study participants will be asked to confirm his/her willingness for this interview to be recorded.

3.   On the scheduled date of the interview, the interviewee will be informed about conducting and recording an hour-long guided interview. Before conducting the interview, the respondents will be asked to verbally confirm consent for audio recording. At any time, the respondent will decide to withdraw consent to record the interview, in which the interviewed will be directly terminated, the respondent's name will be deleted from the study and all records will be demolished by Thanaporn TENGRATANAPRASERT.

4.   Participants will be asked to answer some questions about their knowledge and perspectives about sustainable urban tourism strategy linked to the existence and the dynamics of 'governance networks'. Participants are

free not to answer any questions that they may find objectionable. All participants' answers will be confidential. Participant name will not be given to anyone and cannot be linked back to the answer. The questions will take about an hour to complete.

What are the risks?

There are no known risks for participating in this study. We can stop the interview for a few moments, you can skip a question or you can decide to stop participating.

How will I benefit from the study?

Your participation could help us to extend our knowledge of how governance networks work in practice. It will, in academic terms, be enhancing the knowledge base. This research will offer the British and Thai government some guidelines on how networks can be used in public policy, which can benefit you indirectly. In practical terms it may offer guidance on how countries can develop and implement more effective sustainable urban tourism strategies.

What happens if I do not choose to join the research study?

Your participation is voluntary. You may choose to join the study or you may choose not to join the study.

When is the study over? Can I leave the study before it ends?

The study is expected to end after all participants have completed the interviews and all of the information has been collected. If you no longer wish to be in the research study, please contact Thanaporn TENGRATANAPRASERT, at 075-2156-7530. There will be no consequences what so ever if you withdraw from this study.

How will confidentiality be maintained and my privacy be protected?

The research team will make every effort to keep all the information you tell us during the study strictly confidential, as required by the Data Protection Act 1998. The College RGEC at the Manchester Metropolitan University is responsible for protecting the rights and welfare of research volunteers like you. The research team and the RGEC Institutional at Manchester Metropolitan University are the only parties that will be allowed to see the data, and access to study information. These documents will be kept confidential. Individual participant research data will be anonymous. A master list linking identifying participants to the research will be held on a password protected computer known and accessed only by the researcher, Thanaporn TENGRATANAPRASERT. Hard paper/taped data will be stored in a locked cabinet, within a locked office, accessed only by Thanaporn TENGRATANAPRASERT. The data for this study will be kept for three years after the completion of the study as required by College RGEC. All the documents will be destroyed when the study is over.

Will I have to pay for anything?

There are no costs associated with participating in this study.

Who can I call with questions, complaints about my rights as a research subject?

Any questions, concerns or complaints concerning your participation in this study, you should speak with the Supervisor Team and the researcher on page one of this form. If a member of the research team cannot be reached or you want to talk to someone other than those working on the study, you may contact the Graduate School Team with any question, concerns or complaints at the Manchester Metropolitan University by calling 0161 247 1744.

When you sign this document, you are agreeing to take part in this research study. If you have any questions or there is something you do not understand, please ask. You will receive a copy of this consent document.

Signature of Subject:

_____

Print Name of Subject:

_____

Date:

_____

TO INITIATE YOUR PARTICIPATION IN
THIS STUDY
PLEASE EMAIL THIS SIGNED DOCUMENT TO
thanaporn.tengratanaprasert@stu.mmu.ac.uk
THANK YOU

Appendix C

The list of interviewees

The list of participants in the English cases

Case study	Interviewee	Date of Interview
Bath	Chairman, Federation of Bath Residents' Associations	3rd June 2015
	World Heritage Manager, Bath & North East Somerset Council	4th June 2015
	Chief Executive Officer, Bath Tourism Plus	4th June 2015
	Chief Executive Officer, Bath Preservation Trust	27th October 2015
	Councillor A, the Cabinet member for economic development	29th October 2015
	Councillor B, the Cabinet Member for Community Services	29th October 2015
	Divisional Director – Development, Bath & North East Somerset Council	12th November 2016
	General Manager, National Trust	2nd February 2016
Margate	Chairman, Dreamland Trust	20th September 2015
	Secretary, Dreamland Trust	2nd October 2015
	Head of Planning and Regeneration, Thanet District Council	4th April 2016
	Tourism Manager, Thanet District Council	4th April 2016
	Head of Learning and Visitor Experience, Turner Contemporary	15th April 2016
	Academician, The Academy of Urbanism	24th November 2016

Case study	Interviewee	Date of Interview
	Wayne Hemingway, HemingwayDesign	5th December 2016
	Local government officer, Thanet District Council	6th December 2016
	County Councilor, Kent County Council	10th January 2017
	Local government officer, Kent County Council	10th January 2017

The list of participants of the Thai cases

Case	Interviewee	Date of Interview
Ayutthaya	Director, 3rd Regional Office of Fine Art Department	4th December 2015
	Director, Bureau of Archaeology	3rd December 2015
	Director, Department of Treasury	27th November 2015
	Deputy, Thanu Subdistrict Administrative Organisation	24th November 2015
	Deputy, Town Municipality	26th November 2015
	Governor, Ayutthaya Province	4th December 2015
	Director, Office of Tourism and Sport, Ayutthaya Province	25th November 2015
	Former Attorney, Office of The Attorney General	25th December 2015
	Former Vice Governor, Ayutthaya Province	12th January 2016

Case	Interviewee	Date of Interview
	Deputy Mayor, City Municipality	27th November 2015
	Senior Clerk, City Municipality	26th November 2015
Pattaya	Director, Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration (DASTA)	8th December 2015
	Officer, Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration (DASTA)	8th December 2015
	Chief Executive, Nong Prue Municipality	16th December 2015
	President, Pattaya Business and Tourism Association	15th December 2015
	President, Thai Hotels Association	14th December 2015
	Chief Executive, Na Chom Tian Municipality	17th December 2015
	Director, Office of Tourism and Sport, Chonburi Province	15th December 2015
	Former advisor to the deputy Minister of Interior	14th January 2016

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