



EMESE PANYIK

**A GOVERNANCE APPROACH TO INTEGRATED
RURAL TOURISM**



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**A GOVERNANCE APPROACH TO INTEGRATED
RURAL TOURISM: FACTORS INFLUENCING
ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE AND TOURISM
SUPPORT OF LOCAL DEVELOPMENT
ORGANISATIONS**

Dissertação apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro para cumprimento dos requisitos necessários à obtenção do grau de Doutor em Gestão em Turismo, realizada sob a orientação científica do Doutor Carlos Manuel Martins da Costa, Professor Associado com Agregação do Departamento de Economia, Gestão e Engenharia Industrial da Universidade de Aveiro

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palavras-chave

Rural, governança, participação, integração, “empowerment”, turismo

resumo

Ao longo das últimas três décadas, o envolvimento das comunidades na formulação de políticas locais tem vindo a ganhar cada vez mais atenção como uma abordagem sustentável para o desenvolvimento rural na União Europeia (UE) e no mundo. Emergendo da globalização, novas estruturas de governação têm desafiado a base territorial restricta da autoridade do Estado soberano através do envolvimento de uma rede complexa e de auto-organização de atores governamentais e não-governamentais na tomada de decisões coletivas.

A reestruturação territorial e institucional das zonas rurais, associada à expansão da governança rural, ganhou atenção considerável na literatura. No entanto, o potencial de empregar princípios de governança como fatores que determinam as direções de desenvolvimento rural através de desempenho organizacional e apoio no turismo não tem sido amplamente explorado na literatura.

Deste modo, o principal objetivo desta tese consiste no emprego de ‘integração’, ‘participação’ e ‘empowerment’ como fatores críticos que influenciam os rumos do desenvolvimento rural (1) através do desempenho organizacional das organizações de governança rural e (2) apoio no turismo de organizações de desenvolvimento rural tendo em vista a validação da abordagem de governança para o turismo integrado. Ao longo deste duplo objectivo geral, a tese é dividida numa componente qualitativa de ‘desempenho’ e numa componente quantitativa de ‘apoio’.

Seguindo uma abordagem sistemática baseada num sistema conceptual, foram realizadas 38 entrevistas em profundidade com pessoas chave envolvendo gestores do programa LEADER da UE na Hungria (34% do número total de Grupos de Ação Local [GAL]), seguido por um levantamento de campo transversal realizado através de um sistema de recolha de dados na Internet, tendo resultado em 662 questionários válidos para uma taxa de resposta de 63.6%.

Os resultados da componente “desempenho” revelaram padrões na implementação dos princípios de governança, que por sua vez permitiram a identificação de fatores que permitem e restringem o desempenho organizacional. Os resultados da componente “apoio” permitiram destacar que o ponto de vista de redes de desenvolvimento local nos princípios de governança não é homogéneo. Diferenças significativas foram encontradas entre organizações responsáveis pelo planeamento e os grupos de aconselhamento. Contudo, os resultados sugeriram que a dimensão sustentável de turismo rural integrado é um prognosticador da contribuição do turismo para o desenvolvimento global da comunidade e para o apoio do turismo ao longo das redes de desenvolvimento local.

Este estudo responde a uma necessidade crescente de investigação, que resulta da proliferação à escala mundial de formações de governança em sistemas de administração pública, tanto no lado dos investigadores como no lado dos praticantes.

keywords**Rural, governance, participation, integration, empowerment, tourism****abstract**

Over the past three decades, community involvement in local policy-making has gained increasing attention as a sustainable approach to rural development in the European Union (EU) and worldwide. Emerging from globalisation, new governance structures have challenged the strict territorial base of sovereign state authority by involving a complex, self-organising network of governmental and non-governmental actors in collective decision-making.

The territorial and institutional restructuring of rural areas associated with the expansion of rural governance has gained considerable attention in the literature. However, the potential of employing governance principles as factors determining the directions of rural development through organisational performance and tourism support has not been the focus of analyses.

Thus, the main objective of this thesis is to employ 'integration', 'participation' and 'empowerment' as critical factors influencing the directions of rural development through (1) organisational performance and (2) tourism support of rural governance organisations in order to validate a governance approach to integrated tourism. Along this two-fold general objective, the thesis is divided into a qualitative 'performance' component, and a quantitative 'support' component.

Following a systematic approach based on a conceptual framework, 38 in-depth, key-informant interviews were conducted with programme managers of the EU LEADER initiative for participatory rural development in Hungary (34% of the overall number of LEADER Local Action Groups [LAGs]), followed by a cross-sectional field survey undertaken by Internet-based data collection from four local development networks including the LAGs, resulting in 662 usable questionnaires for a 63.6% response rate.

Findings of the 'performance' component revealed patterns in the implementation of governance principles, which in turn allowed for the identification of enabling and restricting factors of organisational performance. Results of the 'support' component highlighted that the view of local development networks on governance principles is not homogenous. Significant differences have been found between organisations with a planning competence and the advisory offices. However, the results suggest that the sustainable dimension of integrated rural tourism is a predictor of the contribution of tourism to overall community development and tourism support across local development networks.

This investigation responds to an increasing need of research resulting from the worldwide proliferation of governance formations in public administration systems on both the researchers and the practitioners' side.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ARDA	Agricultural and Rural Development Agency
ARDOP	Agricultural and Rural Development Operational Programme
CAP	Common Agricultural Policy
DMO	Destination Management Organisation
EAFRD	European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ERDF	European Regional Development Fund
IRT	Integrated Rural Tourism
FVM	Földművelésügyi és Vidékfejlesztési Minisztérium (See: MARD)
LAG	Local Action Group
LDS	Local Development Strategy
LEADER	Liaison Entre Actions de Développement de l'Économie Rurale (Links between the rural economy and development actions)
LPA	Law on Public Administration
LRDO	Local Rural Development Offices (Új Magyarország Pontok)
MARD	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (See: FVM)
MPMA	Multi-Purpose Municipal Associations (Többcélú Kistérségi Társulások)
NHDP	New Hungary Development Plan (2007-2013)
NHRDP	New Hungary Rural Development Plan (2007-2013)
NMRC	Network of Micro-Regional Coordinators (Helyi Vidékfejlesztési Irodák)
PASOLP	Product's Analysis Sequence for Outdoor Leisure Planning
PCA	Principal Components Analysis
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SME	Small and Medium-sized Enterprises

TALC	Tourism Area Life Cycle
VIF	Variance Inflation Factors

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The first introductory chapter provides an overview of this thesis, divided into six sections. First, the main arguments supporting the relevance of the topic are presented (Section 1.2). Next, is a brief account of the main issues surrounding the definition of the research problem (Section 1.3) in the qualitative (Section 1.3.1) and in the quantitative (Section 1.3.2) component, which leads to the identification of the literature gap in each component. The questions from which the focus of this study stems from will be presented along with the general goal of this study: to determine the directions of development in rural areas by exploring the role of rural governance principles as factors influencing organisational performance and tourism support of local development organisations (Section 1.4). In addition, the specific research objectives that act as a means to accomplish the principal objective will be discussed. Next, is a discussion of the methodology (Section 1.5) followed by the potential contributions arising from addressing the proposed research questions (Section 1.6). Finally, the organisation of the thesis will be briefly outlined (Section 1.7).

1.2 The relevance of the topic

Over the past three decades, community involvement in local policy-making has gained increasing attention as a sustainable approach to rural development in the European Union (EU) (Barke & Newton, 1997; Clark, Southern, & Beer, 2007; Diaz-Puente, Yague, & Afonso, 2008; MacKinnon, 2002; Marsden & Murdoch, 1998; Osti, 2000; Ray, 2000a, 2000b; Saraceno, 1999; Scott, 2002; Shucksmith, 2010; Storey, 1999; Valentinov, 2008) and worldwide (Belsky, 1999; Curtis & Lockwood, 2000; Fox, 1995; Francis & James, 2003; Rigg, 1991). The strategies of exogenous rural intervention, prevailing from the early post-war period till the 1970s, promoted the state-led import of industries, technologies and skills into the underdeveloped rural areas, and received growing criticism of the excessive dependence on state subsidy, the marginalisation of the local,

small-scale enterprises and the conservation of local inactivity (Ellis & Biggs, 2001; Murdoch, 2000).

Breaking with the bureaucratic mechanisms of state intervention, the concept of governance emerged from the neoliberal paradigm with the aim to set clear limits on political authority, and to view communities as essentially self-regulating entities with an inherent capacity for self-help, empowerment and self-responsibility (Barry *et al.*, 1996; Burchell, 1996; Rose, 1996 a,b cited in MacKinnon, 2002).

Governance is a product of globalisation, which challenged the strict territorial base of sovereign state authority (Hall, 2007). Due to the shifting patterns in styles of governing, the concepts of 'government' and 'governance', formerly known and used as synonyms, have separated. While 'government' refers to the formal institutional structure of authoritative decision-making (Stoker, 1997; cited in Marsden & Murdoch, 1998), 'governance' extends beyond the restrictive notion of government as an activity of the state. It is a dynamic and more inclusive term that involves a complex, self-organising network of governmental and non-governmental actors working together (Marsden & Murdoch, 1998; Rose, 1993, cited in Herbert-Cheshire, 2006; Woods, 1998), and it focuses on the relationship between these various actors (Goodwin & Painter, 1996). Thus, inherent in the notion of governance is community participation in local decision-making. As Denters (2011) puts it, governance is now generally accepted as a convenient conceptual tool to characterise contemporary patterns of collective decision-making and collective action, particularly in the local public domain.

1.3 Definition of the research problem

1.3.1 Rural governance principles as factors determining organisational performance

The withdrawal of the state at both the national and supranational levels has brought along the emergence of multi-level governance in the EU: the devolution of decision-making competences to lower levels and cooperation between governmental and non-governmental actors. In order to meet the growing demand for clearer distribution of powers between different levels of government, the principle of subsidiarity was adopted in the Maastricht Treaty in 1992 by the European Commission. This principle claims that

decisions should be taken as closely as possible to the citizens, and powers should partly be delegated to mixed private and public entities at the local level (CoR, 2002). Subsequently, the local partnership approach has become a standard feature of many EU programmes and initiatives across various sectors, such as the Urban programme for the development of deprived city districts, the Poverty3 programme for the integration of the most marginalised social groups and the LEADER¹ Programme for participatory rural development (Geddes, 2000). Although the latter was launched as an experimental initiative in 1991, it is currently applied as a mainstream instrument of the common rural development policy for the 2007-2013 financial period. As such, it is a mandatory component in all Member States' individual rural development programme.

In the rural context, integration involves a vertical and a horizontal dimension. Vertical integration refers to community participation as the synonym of 'bottom-up', 'grass-roots' or 'endogenous' approaches (Ray, 2000a). In the LEADER Programme, the actors, activities and areas are linked together through the Local Action Groups (LAGs), which comprise representatives from the local private, public and non-profit spheres with a restriction of 50% for public representation.

Horizontal integration, at the same time, reflects the diverse demands that are currently being made upon rural spaces in terms of sectoral diversification (Marsden & Murdoch, 1998). Despite a series of agricultural reforms (1992, 1999, 2003), and a gradual decrease in internal agricultural support, the EU is still struggling with the problem of overproduction. The protectionist Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), which is based on direct subsidy payments and price support mechanisms, has been subject to substantial criticism by the World Trade Organisation (Kiss, 2003). The retreat of agriculture, both in economic terms and in relation to the numbers employed, has been accompanied by the diversification of the rural economy and a multifunctional approach to rural development. During the course of the latest reform of the CAP in 2003, the rural development pillar of CAP has been reinforced: not only rural development expenditure increased by EUR 1.2 billion, but the range of objectives also expanded (Kiss, 2003).

As agriculture has retreated from its hegemonic position in the contemporary countryside, raising attention is focused on the complementary sectors of agricultural activity such as

¹ A French acronym derived from 'Liaison Entre Actions de Développement de l'Économie Rurale', meaning 'Links between the rural economy and development actions'.

light manufacturing, handicrafts, food processing and tourism (Marsden, 1998; Marsden & Murdoch, 1998; Saxena & Ilbery, 2008). Indeed, tourism is one of the principal areas of development targeted in the local development strategies of many of the LAGs throughout Europe (Barke & Newton, 1997; Dinis, Panyik, & Breda, 2011; Scott, 2002). Not only it is considered a pathway to rural regeneration and to the diversification of rural economy (Hegarty & Przezborska, 2005; Hjalager, 1996), but also a means to prevent businesses from overdependence on agricultural income (Kaila, 1999, cited in Hegarty & Przezborska, 2005). This is because the primary or complementary income generation achieved through tourism allows for the adjustment to price-cuts and increased competition.

Furthermore, tourism is included in Axis 3 of the EU rural development policy, which is a measure dedicated to the diversification of the rural economy financed by the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD) (EC, 2005b). Axis 4 is the LEADER measure, which finances projects included in the local development strategies. Axis 3, together with Axis 4 is exerted by the LEADER LAGs at the local level. Considering that tourism supply in rural areas is typically characterised by small and micro enterprises specialised for niche markets, retailing or small-scale accommodation, Axis 3 and 4 can be considered as principal EU support for tourism development in rural areas, because these measures were designed specifically to support the establishment and development of micro-enterprises and small-scale infrastructure.

The territorial and institutional restructuring of rural areas have raised considerable attention in the literature (See: Table 2.1 presenting a literature overview of the key themes of rural governance in Section 2.4.3). Research has focused on issues related specifically to the reconfiguration of the scalar hierarchy of the state; democratic deficit of unelected bodies (including legitimacy and accountability); the influential role of the public sector in governance formation; the shifting position of local government; the relational perspective of government (including partnerships and networks) and rural identity. One particular research stream is centred around the LEADER approach, focusing specifically on issues of limited empowerment of the LAGs; evaluation of the programme; and social capital and inclusion. However, the overwhelming majority of these studies have been undertaken in old Member States, particularly in the UK, Ireland and Spain, and **considerably less attention has been directed to new Member States and candidates.**

Perhaps the most important conclusion that can be drawn from these studies is that there is a fundamental contradiction between the exercise of top-down power and the essentially bottom-up nature of governance. The underlying assumption is that 'as soon as there is power, there is a possibility for resistance' (Foucault, 1988, cited in Herbert-Cheshire, 2006). Hence, it is argued that the relationships between local areas and the higher levels of authority has been still problematic (Barke & Newton, 1997), and that **power relationships at both national and local levels need to be explored** (Storey, 1999). Despite Foucault's own insistence about the omnipresence of resistance in relations and strategies of power, the way this resistance occurs, what form it takes, and how the state responds are matters that are rarely addressed in the literature (Herbert-Cheshire, 2006). As O'Malley (1996) observes: **there is a 'silence on issues of 'government from below', the relationships that form between rule and resistance and the tensions and instabilities this creates'** (p.312).

Herbert-Cheshire (2006) further suggests that, in order to advance understanding on contemporary forms of government, **attention should be focused on the changing techniques of governing** rather than on the factors triggering the state-led devolution of responsibilities. This approach is in line with Foucault's (1986) distinction between 'how is power exercised', as opposed to 'who possesses it'.

Further, findings highlighted **the influential role of case-specific circumstances in variations of governance trajectories**. According to Little (2001): 'Differences in the way in which different sectors and organizations have entered into the process of governance have been shown to be tied into variations in the operation of the local state in particular places at particular times' (p.101). Such findings give weight to Imrie & Raco's (1999) call for future research to adopt 'more nuanced characterizations and interpretations of the changing nature of local government/governance'. As Little (2001) concludes: 'By so doing **there is more scope for appreciating the local variations in the practices of rural governance and of the relative power of different agencies and institutions'** (p.101).

Nevertheless, there is a dearth of empirical evidence of these trends and issues in the analysis of governance. **'The field remains remarkably short on empirical investigations which draw on the literature to see new manifestations of governance'** (Hajer & Wagenaar, 2003; p. 4). As Jordan, Wurzel, & Zito (2005) explain,

‘the governance turn’ has generated much theorising, but there is still surprisingly little comparative empirical work’. In setting out emerging research issues of rural governance, Goodwin (1998) suggested that **the systematic theorising of the changing structures and practices of the governance of rural areas have not gained much attention in the contemporary academic discourse.** Furthermore, the limited number of studies using primary data tend to overlook details of data collection and analysis, which raises concerns about the accuracy of methodology and results or lack a clear conceptual framework used to guide the empirical research (See for example: Barke & Newton, 1997; Díaz-Puente, Yagüe, & Afonso, 2008; Maurel, 2008; Storey, 1999), suggesting that there is a need for more systematic approaches to the analysis of the underlying theoretical assumptions of rural governance.

1.3.2 Rural governance principles as factors determining support for tourism development

The emergence of power contexts in tourism research is a result of changing interpretations and distribution of power in nation states, which is also reflected in tourism policy-making. The central role of the community in tourism planning has come to be recognised as one of the principal tenets of sustainable and socially responsible tourism (Hall, 2003). Subsequently, community-based planning has become an important drive in academic and bureaucratic approaches to tourism development (Murphy, 1985, 1988; Hall, 2003). One principal tenet emerging from the community tourism planning literature is that community is rather a dynamic political and social process characterised by heterogeneity and change, than a static geographical entity. Thus, a local focus allows for the dynamics of planning to be altered in accordance with the different levels of interdependencies between stakeholders at a place-specific level (Hall, 2003).

Tourism destinations are generally characterised by a diverse and highly fragmented supply structure, comprising ‘different types of complementary and competing organizations, multiple sectors, infrastructures and an array of public/private linkages’ (Pavlovich, 2003, p.203). The structural combination of these complex relational linkages originates from strong market interdependencies between suppliers in provision of a comprehensive tourist experience. Thus, the performance of a tourist destination does not only depend on the individual characteristics of the component actors, but also on the

links between them (March & Wilkinson, 2009). Furthermore, these linkages have become a critical factor in achieving strategic leverage in destination management (Pavlovich, 2003).

The recognition of heterogeneity, complexity and the dynamic nature of actors and relationships of destination systems have led to the emergence of adaptive and proactive strategies based on the primacy of local conditions to achieve sustainable development, with the consideration of local interests and conflict management to most effectively harmonise stakeholder interests. While Hall (2007) argues that the study of tourism governance has become increasingly multi-scalar through the activities of supranational entities as the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) and the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), there is an apparent lack of horizontal diversification into governance approaches to tourism.

In particular, **the variety of stakeholders involved in tourism destinations is not reflected in studies exploring community perspectives on tourism**, given that the overwhelming majority of research focuses on residents' perceptions. Considerably less attention has been devoted to the comparison of different stakeholders' perceptions of tourism impacts within the community (Andriotis, 2000, 2005; Byrd, 1997; Byrd, Bosley, & Dronberger, 2009; Kavallinis & Pizam, 1994; Lankford, 1994; McNicol, 1996; Murphy, 1983; Puczko & Ratz, 2000; Stewart & Draper, 2007). These studies compared views of two or more of four stakeholder groups: residents, entrepreneurs, tourists and government officials, the latter being the least researched stakeholder group. **The limited number of studies addressing policymakers' perspectives do not examine factors determining their support for tourism** (Costa, 1996; Hollinshead, 1990; Stevenson, 2008). The dearth of studies exploring decision-makers' support for tourism is most surprising in light of the highly fragmented supply structure of destinations, the complexity of the local policy arena and the influence of its actors over the direction of tourism development.

Earlier research indicated that significant differences in perspectives of resource use may occur between public groups such as residents and special interest groups or government officials and expert groups such as resource managers and planners (Craik 1970; Sewell 1970, 1971; Penning-Roswell 1974; Kaplan 1977; Smardon 1986; Dearden and Berg 1993; Madrigal 1995, cited in McNicol, 1996). All but one study (Andriotis, 2000) revealed

significant differences in the attitudes of the stakeholder groups, with the exception revealing much agreement between three community groups towards further tourism development. However, **all studies stressed the importance of addressing and understanding the differences in attitudes to promote the congruency of policy and public opinion.**

As Lankford (1994) argued: 'policy formulation and adoption in tourism requires some degree of consensus among all those involved with tourism development at the local level. (...) If government employees and decision makers (elected or appointed board/commission/advisory group members) are in disagreement with the public and business community regarding the type and extent of tourism development, the goals of community development cannot be achieved because policies are made without incorporating their mutual support and understanding' (pp. 35 - 36). Shortt (1994) and Godfrey (1998) also argued that **the attitudes of local land-use planners concerned with tourism have been overlooked in the literature. In the rural context in particular, research on integrated rural tourism (IRT) explicitly points out the dearth of studies with regard to the basis upon which rural networks of exchange are structured, and to the basis for various actors' potential to cooperate** (Saxena, *et al.*, 2007).

Factors to date employed to assess community support for tourism can be divided into four groups: (1) individual characteristics (including socio-demographic characteristics, employment in/personal benefit from tourism, involvement in decision-making, community attachment, type, extent and frequency of resident-visitor interactions, community concern and level of knowledge about the industry); (2) Community characteristics (community participation, community dependence on tourism, community's economic activity and overall community satisfaction); (3) Destination characteristics (level of tourism development, seasonality) and (4) Tourism impacts (economic, social, cultural, environmental).

Community participation is considered as one of the major factors of community characteristics influencing support for tourism. According to Simpson (2001), one of the principles of an optimal relationship between community tourism development and sustainability is the recognition that local resident perceptions determine attitudes to tourism development. The underlying notion is that the more local residents are involved, the more positive their attitudes will be towards tourism development (Inskeep, 1991).

While the majority of studies focus on participation in terms of involvement in tourism business, the limited number of studies addressing community participation in tourism-related decision-making appear to support a positive relationship (Allen, *et al.*, 1988; Andereck, *et al.*, 2005; Brougham & Butler, 1981; Cooke, 1982; Lankford & Howard, 1994). **However, there is a dearth of studies addressing the role of rural governance principles – participation, integration and empowerment – as determinants of tourism support of local decision-makers, who are, in addition to being local residents, responsible for formulating and implementing local development plans with a major impact on tourism development in rural areas.**

1.4 Objectives

In sum, the above discussion of the research problem suggests that there are two literature gaps identified and addressed in this thesis. First, it has been highlighted that there is an essential need to explore empirically the nature of relationships between local participants and central authorities in order to unravel the fundamental contradiction between the top-down nature of power and the essentially bottom-up nature of governance, and seek for feasible consensus mechanisms. *Notwithstanding various attempts to advance understanding of central-local relationships, the role of governance principles as factors determining the directions of local development in rural territories through organisational performance, has not been a source of considerable academic discourse.*

Second, there is a dearth of studies addressing the diversity of stakeholders within the local community – specifically organisational views –, and the influence of governance principles on tourism preferences. In particular, *a governance approach, in which the perspectives of local governance decision-makers on governance principles are considered as determinants of local development directions through tourism support, has been neglected in the community tourism planning literature.*

In consideration of these literature gaps, the following research questions have been raised, of which two addresses each literature gap:

1.1 What are the patterns of the implementation of rural governance principles – integration, participation and empowerment – in the case of the European Union LEADER Local Action Groups?

1.2 How do these principles, as critical factors of rural governance, influence the organisational performance of the LEADER LAGs and thus the directions of local development?

2.1 How do these principles, as critical factors of rural governance influence the contribution of tourism to overall community development and the support for tourism of local development organisations, thus the directions of local development?

2.2 Are there differences in views between networks of local development organisations?

Thus, the main objectives are to (1.1) identify patterns (recurrent issues) of the implementation of rural governance principles in the case of the top-down initiated LEADER LAGs and to (1.2) employ them as critical factors influencing the directions of rural development through organisational performance of rural governance organisations, and (2.1) through the contribution of tourism to overall community development and the support of local development organisations for tourism; lastly, (2.2) to explore whether differences exist in views between networks of local development organisations under scrutiny. The first two objectives are concerned with an in-depth research for the identification of patterns and factors, whereas the second aims to explore relationships between factors and differences between networks under scrutiny.

Considering the nature of these research questions and objectives, the first two are addressed by qualitative methods using a small-scale sample of key-informants, whereas the last two are addressed by quantitative methods using a large-scale (country-wide) sample of local planners: in addition to the LEADER LAGs, it includes three other networks of local development organisations. Along these objectives, there are two components of this thesis: a qualitative 'performance' component, and a quantitative 'support' component.

In response to the research questions, the qualitative component focuses on the implementation of three fundamental governance principles: integration, participation and empowerment in the formation process of the LEADER LAGs during the 2007-2011 financial

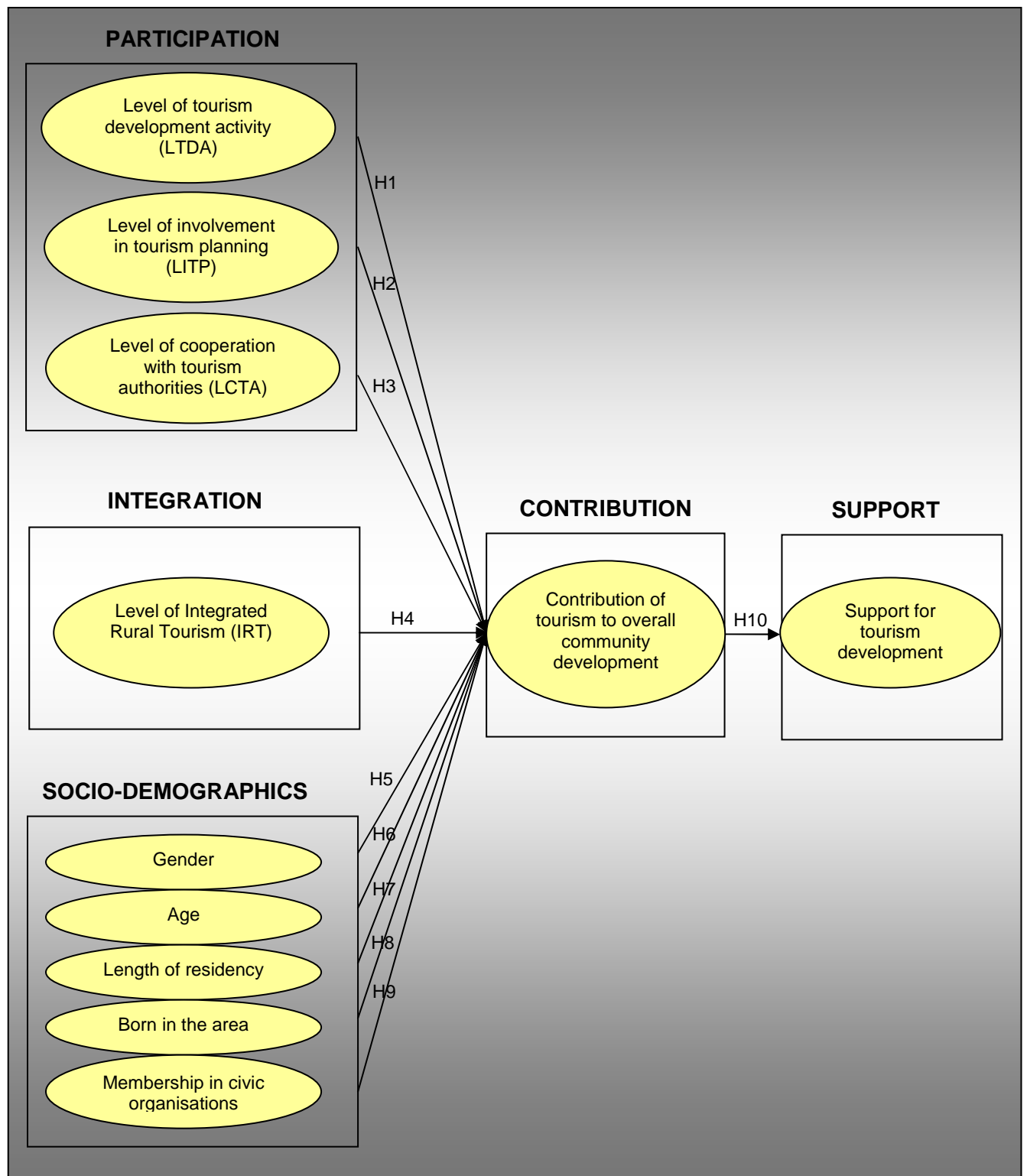
period of the EU in Hungary, a new Member State that accessed the EU in the first stage of the latest (fifth) enlargement process in 2004, together with nine other, mostly Central and Eastern-European countries. The research follows a systematic approach guided by a conceptual framework, which was developed based on the literature in order to link the conceptual and empirical manifestations of rural governance.

Accordingly, stakeholder integration is explored in the patterns of organisational structure, relationships and dynamics identified in the establishment process of the LAGs; whereas sectoral integration is analysed through the strategies of cross-sectoral cooperation. Participation is interpreted as the involvement in the formulation of local development strategies; and lastly, empowerment is interpreted as a dynamic process of power transformation, through which power relationships evolve and power is distributed among stakeholders, resulting in a certain configuration of power dependence. The focus is on the decision-making competences of the LAGs as they unfold in the principal activity of the LAGs: the project appraisal and selection process during the tendering of the public EAFRD funds. Thus, power relations and the changing techniques of governing are explored by contrasting state-local decision-making strategies.

The quantitative component employs these three governance principles as critical factors influencing the support of local development organisations, mediated by the contribution of tourism to overall community development (Figure 1.1). The assumption is that the more contribution to community development policymakers of local development organisations attribute to tourism, the more they will support additional tourism development. Social Exchange Theory (SET) serves as the theoretical underpinning of the model, given that the ultimate goal of any – sectoral or territorial – development policies is to improve the standard of living of the population. As such, the guiding principle has been adapted from Jurowski (1994): *Rural governance policymakers' evaluation of the exchange of benefits and costs affects perceptions of their participation in tourism development and the integration of local stakeholders, which in turn affect their perception on the contribution of tourism to overall community development, and thus their support for tourism.*

Integration and participation form separate constructs, whereas empowerment is included as one dimension of the integration construct as suggested by the literature on IRT. Participation measures the involvement of rural governance policymakers in tourism development and comprises three conceptual dimensions.

Figure 1.1: Hypothetical model of factors influencing the support of local development organisations for tourism



The first dimension identifies and measures their level of tourism development activity. The second measures their involvement in tourism planning and the third their level of cooperation with local and regional tourism authorities. Integration is measured by the seven dimensions of IRT adopted from the literature, complemented by two additional items measuring the level of integration of service providers and supply elements. The model further includes five socio-demographic variables as suggested by the literature.

1.5 Methodology

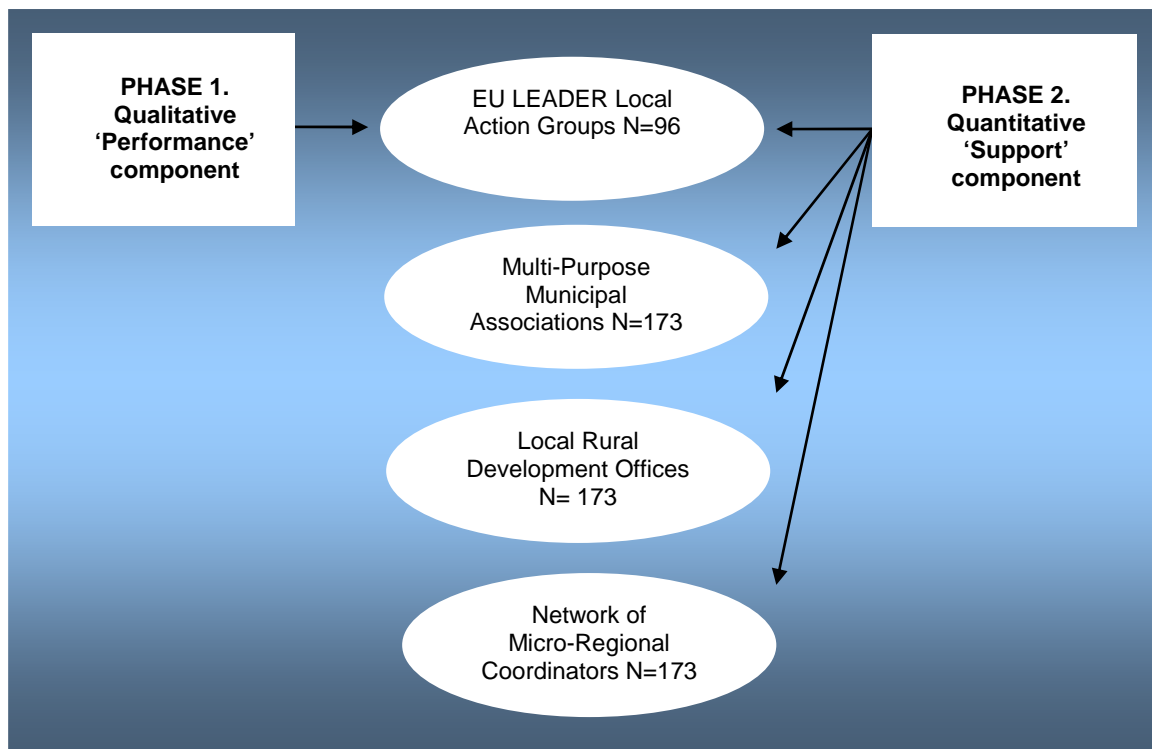
The thesis is a mixed – methods research in which the qualitative and the quantitative components are structured in a sequential exploratory design. The two components are divided along the principal objective of the research.

Under the guidance of the conceptual framework of the qualitative component, a field research was designed and applied in a key-informant approach. The research population comprises the actors of rural governance in Hungary, that is, the LEADER LAGs, while the quantitative component includes all four national-level networks responsible for micro-regional development in Hungary as presented in Figure 1.2.

In the qualitative 'Performance' component, 38 in-depth, semi-structured, key-informant interviews were conducted in two series in 2008 and in 2009 (34% of overall number of LAGs). The method of data analysis was selected in consideration of the research objectives, the research population and the nature of data collected. Thus, a relatively recent method, 'Framework approach' was found to be the most suitable method for data analysis.

There are three features of this method that justifies its usage in this research. First, it was developed in the context of applied policy research and many characteristics of this component resemble applied policy research. Second, as opposed to 'Grounded Theory' analysis, it allows the inclusion of *a priori* concepts in addition to the emergent themes. Third, there are pre-defined samples of professional actors to be addressed. Grounded Theory uses theoretical sampling and collects data from a diverse group of people, not from a specific research population.

Figure 1.2: Research population: Networks of local development organisations in Hungary



In the quantitative 'Support' component, a cross-sectional field survey was designed and applied through an Internet-based questionnaire in the second part of 2009. The quantitative data collection yielded 662 usable questionnaires for a 63.6% response rate. Various multivariate methods were used for data analysis, starting with exploratory factor analysis for measure purification and identification of underlying dimensions; one-way ANOVA for the identification of group differences and lastly, hierarchical regression analysis for assessing whether the dependent variables can be predicted from the proposed linear combination of predictor variables.

1.6 Potential contributions

As demonstrated in section 1.3, salient conceptual issues on one hand, and relevant organisational concerns on the other have been identified, in order to bridge theory and practice. Concerning the theoretical approach, two sub-fields of tourism research (community tourism planning and integrated rural tourism) have been linked to governance theory from political sciences to understand local development organisations' perspectives

on rural governance principles regarding organisational performance, the contribution of tourism to overall community development and tourism support, and thereby establish a governance approach to integrated rural tourism. This is in line with Denyer & Tranfield (2009) and Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart (2003), who argue that the understanding of complex issues requires a holistic and systematic approach to investigation, since they are better understood through multi-disciplinary lenses.

Accordingly, the potential theoretical contribution lies in the knowledge derived from the research that informs and enriches these three underpinning areas. The qualitative component potentially informs the rural governance literature about the empirical manifestations of governance principles in the implementation of rural governance in a new member state. Furthermore, and in particular, the major contribution in this regard is the identification of factors that influence the organisational performance of rural governance organisations and thereby determine directions of local development. Since tourism is a major activity of the LEADER LAGs, it further informs community tourism planning and IRT about the role of rural governance policymakers in IRT development, and the patterns of stakeholder and sectoral integration in tourism development by rural governance organisations.

Concerning that the quantitative component focuses on tourism support, it contributes to the community tourism planning literature, primarily the sub-fields of IRT and tourism impacts research. First, it focuses entirely on the tourism preferences of local development organisations, a rather underrepresented stakeholder group in the literature. Second, it operationalises governance principles as determinants of the contribution of tourism to overall community development and ultimately, the support for tourism. As such, the novelty of this research lies in the approach to test the validity of social exchange theory in the context of rural governance principles.

The potential managerial implication of the research arises primarily from the population under scrutiny. The focus on the totality of four different networks of local development organisations across the country allows for a broad view on managerial views, practices and experiences, which may be valuable for planning purposes for the national and regional-level rural and tourism development agencies. Most notably, the findings could help to synchronise the development goals and priorities of different, relevant local actors of spatial development policy during the formulation of national and regional development strategies.

1.7 The structure of the thesis

This chapter has presented a brief overview of the research in light of the relevance of the topic, the research problem and the objectives, along with the methodology and potential contributions. The next three chapters of the thesis will review the relevant empirical and conceptual research that constitutes the theoretical background to both components of this study. In particular, Chapter 2 contains a review of rural governance, which serves as the theoretical underpinning for the qualitative component. Chapter 3 reviews the overarching field of this study, namely, community tourism planning, which has implications for the tourism patterns identified in the implementation of rural governance principles, as well as for the entire quantitative component. Chapter 4 is dedicated to the sub-field of community tourism planning that provides the direct conceptual base for the quantitative component, namely, IRT. Chapter 5 discusses the methodology of the research in four sections: the first introducing general considerations and the overall structure; the second discussing the methodology of the qualitative component followed by the development of variables and lastly, the methodology of the quantitative component. Chapter 6 and 7 reports on the results of the qualitative and the quantitative data analysis respectively; and lastly, the conclusions are presented in Chapter 8, with a particular emphasis on the theoretical contributions and managerial implications for local and regional policymakers in area-based development as well as in tourism.

Chapter 2

Rural Governance

2.1 Introduction

Rising interest in rural governance across the political science landscape has attracted the attention of pioneering scholars, notably from the fields of rural development planning and sociology (Cloke & Goodwin, 1992; Cloke, Marsden, & Mooney, 2006; Goodwin, 1998; Goodwin, Cloke, & Milbourne, 1995; Marsden, 1995, 1998; Marsden & Murdoch, 1998; Murdoch, 2000; Murdoch & Abram, 1998; Ray, 1999, 2000, 2002). A sign of importance conquered by rural governance is the growing rate of papers published in high-ranking journals as *Sociologia Ruralis*, *Journal of Rural Studies* – each of which dedicated a special issue to the topic (2000, 16/4; and 1998, 14/1, respectively) – *Environment and Planning A* and *European Planning Studies*.

Given that, ultimately, both components of this thesis aims at advancing knowledge on the influence of governance principals on the directions of development in rural territories, it is essential to understand the origins and evolution of governance theory from which rural governance has evolved. The purpose of this chapter is, therefore, to revisit the roots and history, and to present the contemporary interpretations of, rural governance, with the aim to set the basis for subsequent discussions with regard to the research objectives defined in the previous chapter.

To this end, the next section provides an overview of the theoretical foundations of governance, with particular emphasis on the recently evolved conceptual distinction between 'government' and 'governance'. Next, the evolution of governance theory will be presented, from the core philosophical issues of the 'art of government' till contemporary manifestations of governance stemming from globalisation. The focus of the chapter will then gradually narrow down to the emergence of rural governance analysed from a territorial and organisational perspective of contemporary rural restructuring, which will be followed, in the last section, by a discussion on the implementation of rural governance in the EU through the LEADER approach.

2.2 The shifting concept of governance

Over the past three decades, the shifting patterns in styles of governing have brought along the separation of the concept of government and governance. While formerly known and used as synonyms, the term 'governance' has no longer been in use in its traditional sense and dictionary entry defined as a synonym for government (Stoker, 1998). Traditionally, government was defined as 'the activity or process of governing or governance' (Finer, 1970) (pp. 3-4), and its usage has been limited to the conduct of the 'affairs of the state' (Jessop, 1998).

According to the *Encyclopedia of Political Theory*, the term 'governance' is derived from the Latin word *gubernare*, which means "to direct, rule, guide". The Latin *gubernare* is, however, originated from the Greek word *kybernan*, which means "to steer or pilot a ship", and which forms the basis of the notion of cybernetics (Torfing, 2010). 'Government', on the other hand, is derived from the medieval French notion of *gouvernance*. Subsequently, although the etymology of the two terms is different, government in its roots is a synonym for governance. An early example of the traditional use of governance is Sidney Law's book *The Governance of England* (1904), in which the author does not define the term, but uses it implicitly as a synonym for government in his analysis of the British government (Rhodes, 1996).

It was first Plato (428-347 BC), who used 'steering' in a metaphorical sense and introduced the notion in the political thought (Feldman, 2005). In *The Republic* (380 BC) he uses the allegory of a captain of a ship and its sailors to describe the main ingredients of good government. These are, according to Plato, the acceptance of the sailors to be governed and their trust in the captain that he would make a good use of the consent. If the captain proves his abilities in setting an 'appropriate' course and defining a 'correct' set of parameters to reach the desired 'destination', he would eventually earn the sailors' respect and become the 'head of the ship', as a *single steering centre*. Plato's conceptualisation, as Feldman (2005) argues, has linked the phenomenon of government inextricably to hierarchical steering and the process of governance with 'governing by governments'.

Common to both terms is the root verb '(to) govern'. By definition of the act of governing, neither 'government', nor 'governance' is, however, restricted exclusively to the activity of

the state. 'To govern means to influence, shape, regulate, or determine outcomes, and in this sense there are many other agencies and institutions that are involved in governing a social order' (Gamble, 2000; p.110). In our everyday understanding, governance refers to the *process* or act of governing, while government refers to the *entities* – institutions, agents and typically, the government – which are in charge of governing. However, in many languages there is no proper equivalent to the term 'governance', because only the noun 'government' and the verb '(to) govern' exist and are used interchangeably, which frequently creates translation problems. Recently, for example, this problem has led to linguistic difficulties during the preparation of the *White Paper on Governance* (EC, 2001a) and hampered the propagation of the already complex term among the public (Sloat, 2003).

The key difference between the two terms is that governance implies *change* in the role and nature of government. It can be defined as 'the complex process through which a plurality of societal actors aims to formulate and achieve common objectives by mobilizing and deploying a diversity of ideas, rules, and resources.' (Torfing, 2010; p.564). This comprehensive understanding of governance involves the different modes of coordinating individual actions as basic forms of social order (Mayntz, 1998), or, as Jessop (1998) puts it: 'any mode of coordination of interdependent activities' (p.1).

This broader meaning is originated from transaction cost economics, in particular Oliver Williamson's analysis of market and hierarchy as alternative forms of economic organisation (e.g. Williamson 1979, cited in Mayntz, 1998). As explained by Mayntz, (1998), Williamson's typology was quickly extended to include other forms of social order such as associations and networks. Most importantly, it was precisely the 'discovery of alternative forms of coordination not only different from hierarchy but different from the pure market form that led to the generalization of the term governance to cover all forms of social coordination - not only in the economy, but also in other sectors' (p.2).

Thus, 'governance' has become a popular buzzword of both governmental and non-governmental rhetoric used in various contexts and meanings. Rhodes (1996) identified at least six uses, referring to the (1) minimal state; (2) corporate governance; (3) the new public management; (4) 'good governance' (5) socio-cybernetic systems and (6) self-organising networks.

There is a general consent in the literature that it is the latter that defines governance in its broader sense (Bevir & Rhodes, 2011; Jessop, 1998; Pollack, 2005; Rhodes, 1996). Jessop (1998) distinguished three levels of self-organisation, which he refers to as 'heterarchy': interpersonal, inter-organisational, and inter-systemic. The term itself is, however, often limited to practices on the second level, which is consistent with the recent usage of governance that 'refers to the mode of conduct of specific institutions or organisations with multiple stakeholders, the role of public-private partnerships, and other kinds of strategic alliances among autonomous but interdependent organizations' (p.2). These self-organising networks 'complement markets and hierarchies as governing structures for authoritatively allocating resources and exercising control and co-ordination' (Rhodes, 1996; p.1). This definition reflects the shift in the modes of governing from government to governance, which is related to the coordination by the state in the context of governmental and non-governmental relationships.

Thus, governance is exercised outside the traditional realm of state bureaucracies (Sawicki, 1994; cited in Herbert-Cheshire, 2006), and involves the transfer of power from elected authorities to other organisations through 'government at a distance'. As Murdoch & Abram (1998) explains, 'The state seeks out those external agencies which seem most appropriate to the delivery of particular governmental objectives and programmes and aims, at least in principle, to co-ordinate and manage complex relations in line with some notion of the 'public interest' (p.41).

Considering that there is an emphasis on the relational aspect of governance, it should be understood as a process rather than a structure (Ross & Osborne, 1999). In particular, as Stark (2005) puts it, governance is not merely government as a *system*, but also governance as *practice*, because partnerships are dynamic, rather than steady constructs (Murray, 1998).

Hence, the distinctive feature of governance, as compared to government, is three-fold: first, governance is a (1) *dynamic process and structure* based on the (2) *collective action* of (3) *heterogeneous actors* from the state, economy and civil society (Torfing, 2010). The separation of concepts, which is at the centre of discussion of this chapter, is a process preceded by centuries of political philosophy yielding theories on the act of governing (See: Figure 2.1), which will be discussed in the next section.

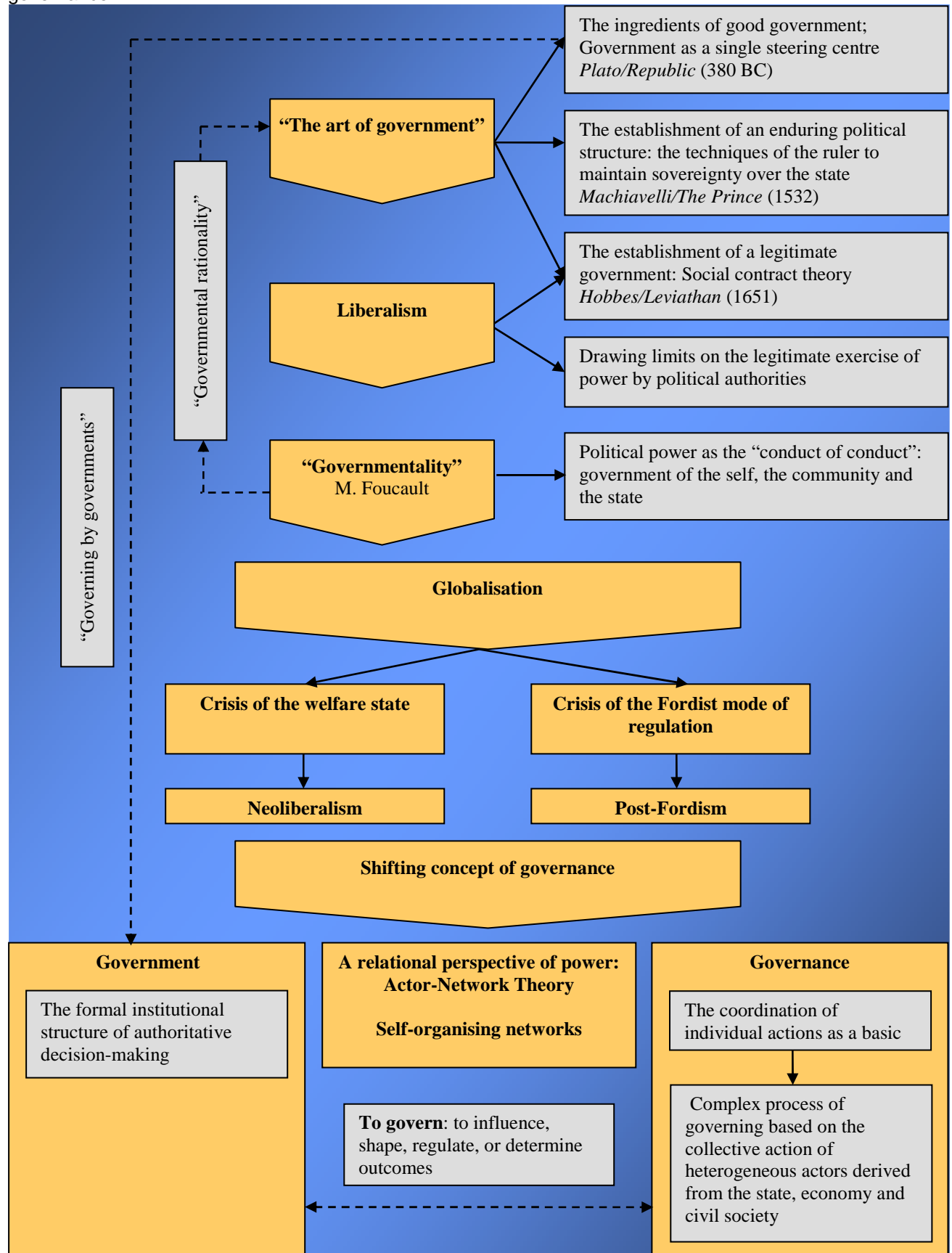
2.2.1 The theoretical foundations of governance

From a broad historical perspective, the 'art of government', in particular the questions how to govern oneself, how to be governed, how to govern others, by whom the people will accept being governed and how to become the best possible governor, became characteristic in the sixteenth century, on the crossroads of the shattering structures of feudalism which raised these questions from the socio-political dimension of government, and the movements of reformation and counter-reformation, which raised philosophical and spiritual questions of government (Foucault, 1991).

According to Foucault (1991), Machiavelli's *The Prince* (1532) is the single text relative to which the entire literature on government established its standpoint. Fundamentally, *The Prince* deals with the practices of the governor to build an enduring political structure, and contemplates the assumption that the ends of rulers to establish a secure and powerful state can justify the use of immoral means to achieve those ends. This has been the source of existing politics guided exclusively by considerations of expediency (Strauss, 1987), which, throughout the history, has been linked to the politics of Napoleon during the latter stages of the French Revolution; to the writings of Clausewitz, the Prussian soldier and German military theorist who emphasised the moral and political aspects of war (Foucault, 1991) and further, twentieth century dictatorships such as Hitler's, Mao Zedong's and Pol Pot's (Fischer, 2000).

Certainly, the philosophical question raised by Machiavelli on how to maintain the ruler's sovereignty over the state is closely related to the prime issue of the contemporary concept of governance regarding the level and extent of devolution of power. On one hand, the allocation of too much power at sub-central levels may shatter the integrity of the political structure due to insufficient cohesion of the central power, but on the other hand, little devolution may lead to an overly centralised state and forms of autocracy.

Figure 2.1: Synopsis of the literature review on governance theory: Understanding the shifting concept of governance



The new concept of governance is originated from the political philosophy of liberalism, which came to rise during the Age of Enlightenment. Liberalism rejected several foundational assumptions of earlier theories of government, such as hereditary status, established religion, absolute monarchy, and the divine right of kings. According to classical liberalism, the formation of a common and supreme power is necessary to escape from the dangerous existence of humans in a natural state of affairs, in which human instincts are driven by survival and self-preservation, and '*man is wolf to man*' ('*homo homini lupus*'), as described by Thomas Hobbes using the ancient aphorism. Hobbes, in his major work the *Leviathan* (1651), sets out his doctrine of the process of establishment of states and legitimate governments: in order to avoid the 'state of nature', individuals accede to a social contract with an authority and give up their natural freedom in order to obtain the benefits of political, social and economic order.

Central to the political philosophy of liberalism is the limits it draws on the legitimate exercise of power by political authorities (Rose & Miller, 1992). While Machiavelli argues for the occasional use of brutal force and deceit in order to stabilise and maintain a political structure, liberalists emphasise that 'poor and improper governance gave the people authority to overthrow the ruling order through any and all possible means, even through outright violence and revolution, if needed' (Young, 2002; p.32). As Thomas Paine (1776), one of the founding fathers of the United States puts it: 'Government, even in its best state, is but a necessary evil; in its worst state an intolerable one: for when we suffer, or are exposed to the same miseries by a government, which we might expect in a country without government, our calamity is heightened by reflecting that we furnish the means by which we suffer.'

The criticism of the excesses, inefficiencies and injustices of the state has been apparent not only to the liberal but other philosophical doctrines as well, speculating on the limits of power. Rose & Miller (1992), for instance, in their analysis on the political power beyond the state, cite Friedrich Nietzsche (1969) who went as far as that: 'The state is the coldest of all cold monsters (...) only there, where the state ceases, does the man who is not superfluous begin' (p.75).

Current discourses on governance are derived from Michael Foucault's interpretation of political power (MacKinnon, 2002), presented in his domain of research called

'governmentality' or 'governmental rationality'. The latter term he used almost interchangeably with 'art of government' (Colin, 1991).

In the work of the French historian and philosopher Foucault, who was admittedly influenced by Nietzsche, the problem of government was a link between his interest and research into the genealogy of the state and the genealogy of the self. The semantic linking of governing ('gouverner') and modes of thought ('mentalité') suggests that the techniques of power can only be understood by the analysis of the political rationality underpinning them (Lemke, 2001). On this basis Foucault contends that, at the very elementary level, the most minute and local social practices are linked up with the large-scale organisation of power *within* the individual (Dreyfus & Rabinow, 1982 cited in Herbert-Cheshire, 2006; italics by the author). With other words, political power is built up of the most fundamental social practices inherent in each and every individual, through which they are bounded to the state. Foucault claims that the individual *voluntarily* shapes his or her own conduct in accordance with established norms or truths; hence the relationship with him or herself remains inextricably linked to the political power of the state (Dean, 1999 cited in Herbert-Cheshire, 2006). Accordingly, government does not only refer to political conduct at the macro-level, but to social, educational, psychological and religious conduct at the micro-level such as household management, guidance for the family and for the children and self-control (Lemke, 2001).

Foucault therefore understood political power as the 'conduct of conduct', which includes the 'governing the self', as well as 'governing others'. As such, it is '*a form of activity aiming to shape, guide, or affect the conduct of some person or persons*' (Colin, 1991; p. 2). By seeing power as a network of social relationships, he reverses the traditional assumption that it is the property of a single centre (Herbert-Cheshire, 2006). In his conceptualisation, power is not held, it is exercised; it is not a property, it is a strategy: 'power to' and 'power over' (Goodwin, 1998). Thus, there is no clear distinction between the rulers and the ruled, 'for individuals may very well find themselves simultaneously undergoing and exercising power at any given time' (Foucault, 1986, 1978; cited in Herbert-Cheshire, 2006).

2.2.2 Contemporary approaches to governance

Governance is ultimately a product of the changing role of the state in modern societies, the reorganisation of contemporary political power and the deepening of market relations, which are consequences of the accelerating globalisation experienced in the past four, but especially in the past two decades. As Gamble, *et al.* (1996) put it: 'A new stage in the development of the world economic and political system has commenced, a new kind of world order, which is characterised both by unprecedented unity and unprecedented fragmentation' (p.3). There is a consensus in the literature that the restructuring of power must be considered in the broader social and economic context of change (Goodwin & Painter, 1996; Woods, 1998a). The emergence of governance formations have been generally explained by two parallel, interrelated, and in the beginning, predominantly economic phenomena of globalisation: neoliberalism and Post-Fordism.

2.2.2.1 Neoliberalism

The first approach traces back to the crisis of the welfare state in the early 1980's. As a result of various social, economic and demographic changes that caused greater numbers of people to be eligible for state assistance, it was recognised that the all-round national welfare systems are no longer sustainable in the long term, even in advanced capitalist nations (Herbert-Cheshire, 2006). This problem has been more acute in Europe than anywhere else in the world (except Japan), where the pension crisis has become a continental problem for two reasons: first, the welfare state has been extended throughout Europe more than in other countries, and the aging of population is also more advanced than elsewhere (Siebert, 2002).

As a consequence, there has been a retreat from welfare state activities, and in turn, the emergence of market provisioning of formerly public goods and services (Larner, 2000). In Britain for example, the 1997's New Deal Program aimed at increasing employment by requiring that recipients of unemployment benefits actively consider seeking employment. More recently, the Welfare Act of 2007 introduced new measures to assess an individual's entitlement and the possible support needed to get back into the workplace. These actions reflect the idea that citizenship must be 'activated' (Kearns, 1995) based on the notion that individuals are bounded 'to the wider social community not only through

their 'rights' as citizens, but also through their responsibilities – as citizens – to improve their own conditions of existence' (Herbert-Cheshire, 2006; p.21).

The response to these processes has been the adoption of neoliberal principles, in particular a shift towards the market as the guiding principle of government activity (Herbert-Cheshire, 2006; Larner, 2000). Breaking with the bureaucratic structures of state intervention established in the 1960s and 70s, new forms of globalised relations and financial systems has forced a shift of attention from expanding social welfare policies to enhancing economic efficiency and international competitiveness (Larner, 2000). Consequently, the restructuring of the welfare state have brought along the involvement of individuals and organisations in formations that conform to market principals. Thus, the concept of governance emerged from the neoliberal paradigm to set clear limits on political authority, and to view communities as essentially self-regulating entities with an inherent capacity for self-help, empowerment and self-responsibility (Barry *et al.*, 1996; Burchell, 1996; Rose, 1996 a,b cited in MacKinnon, 2002). This paradigm is represented by neo-Foucauldian writers such as Nikolas Rose, Colin Gordon, Graham Burchell and Peter Miller (Herbert-Cheshire, 2006; MacKinnon, 2002), who drew on, and further expanded, Foucault's theory on governmentality.

While advanced or (neo)liberalism shares most of the principals of classic political liberalism, in particular safeguarding individual liberty; strong private property rights and minimal state, there is a particularly strong emphasis on the free market mechanisms and the expansion of market transactions to guide virtually all human action and areas of life. Furthermore, while liberalism stresses the free, self-organisation of markets and the economy, advanced liberalism recognises that a minimal state intervention is necessary to create and secure the conditions for free competition and entrepreneurship. As a result, 'free markets and free trade will, it is believed, set free the creative potential and the entrepreneurial spirit which is built into the spontaneous order of any human society, and thereby lead to more individual liberty and well-being, and a more efficient allocation of resources' (Thorsen, 2009; pp.15-16).

2.2.2.2 Post-Fordism

The second approach sees the emergence of new local governance as a response to the crisis of the Fordist mode of regulation and the need for a new 'Post-Fordist' regulatory structure for local economic activity (Cochrane, 1992; Esser & Hirsch, 1989; Goodwin, Duncan, & Halford, 1993; Goodwin & Painter, 1996; Mayer, 1992; Painter, 1991; Peck & Tickell, 1992; Stoker, 1989; Stoker & Mossberger, 1995; Tickell & Peck, 1992; Trouvé, Berriet-Sollic, & Déprés, 2007). In brief, Fordism was originally a method to improve the productivity in the automotive industry through mass production of standardised products using unskilled labour and specifically designed machinery. However, it has become a model of economic expansion and technological progress applicable to any kind of manufacturing process. In the context of political economy, the social-scientific dimension of Fordism was introduced as the so-called 'Regulation theory', which views capitalist production as a cycle of paradigms: one paradigm is born from the crisis of the previous paradigm, and a newborn paradigm is also bound to fall into crisis sooner or later. This approach considers not only the role of the government in the regulation of capitalist economies, but focuses primarily on the role of the social and institutional systems. It argues that the transformation of social relations creates new economic and non-economic structures and reproduces a determinate structure, the mode of reproduction (Boyer, 1990).

Between the late 60s and 70s Fordism fell into a brake down, which manifested in slow or nil economic growth in Western economies, rising inflation and growing unemployment. Since the late 20th century, Post-Fordism has brought along a shift away from manufacturing and industry towards service, information technology and the knowledge economy. Meanwhile, industry has moved from the west to second- and third-world countries, where production is cheaper and environmental and worker regulations are less strict (Baca, 2004). Regulationist analysts argue that the changes in organisation of government have occurred as a response to, and as part of, shifts within the social mode of regulation (Little, 2001). The organisation of government mirrored the hierarchical and bureaucratic organisational forms of the Fordist mode of regulation, and post-Fordism has imposed new requirements on local government: devolved management, limited state services, active citizenry and deregulated labour markets (Cloke & Goodwin, 1992; Goodwin & Painter, 1996; Woods, 1998a).

However, Goodwin & Painter (1996) note that the rise of the new local governance is not merely a consequence, but also a causal factor of the breakdown of Fordism, because the twin processes of globalisation and localisation systematically undermined the possibility of a relatively stable regulation of economic activity due to the geographical unevenness of local governance. The authors argue that it is precisely because of this geographical differentiation of contemporary regulatory processes that local governance is unlikely to contribute to a stable regulation. Further criticism has been directed by Jessop (1995) at the blending of regulation and governance. While the concepts have various underlying theoretical assumptions in common, contradictory insertions could lead to, as experienced by the British case (Tickell & Peck, 1992), contradictions in the operation of governance mechanisms. He suggests that the current expansion of networks at the expense of markets and hierarchies and of governance at the expense of government may not be more than a specific stage in the dominant modes of policy-making.

It is nevertheless clear that both globalisation trends presented above are intimately linked to the new forms of governing through the patterns of deterritorialisation of space, so much as to nourish the idea that globalisation has become a form of governing itself (Peine & McMichael, 2005). The *Encyclopedia of Political Theory* (Bevir, 2010) indicated that a Google search on 'governance' in August 2008 gave more than 50 million hits, almost twice as many as on 'globalization'. The same search in March 2011 gave almost 75 million hits on 'governance' and 28 million on 'globalization', indicating that the worldwide interest on globalisation remained roughly the same as three years ago, while, on governance it grew by 50 per cent. Clearly, as the *Encyclopedia* further concludes, governance has become an instance of globalisation.

2.2.2.3 Actor-network theory

Common to both approaches is a relational perspective of power manifesting in network formations. Networks have been identified as the dominant organizational form of the post-Fordist era (Murdoch, 1995), and governance, as the management of networks (Rhodes, 1996). Recently, the actor-network theory (ANT) has been suggested as an appropriate framework for capturing the interactions between heterogeneous actors who are assembled in governance formations, with particular attention to the micro-, and

macro-actor relationships in the rural context (Donaldson, Lowe, & Ward, 2002; Herbert-Cheshire, 2006; Lee, Árnason, Nightingale, & Shucksmith, 2005; Marsden, 2000; Murdoch, 1995, 1998, 2000; Parker, 2007).

Related to the work of Foucault, ANT attempts to map relations that are simultaneously human (between individuals) and non-human: material (between things) and/or semiotic (between concepts). The fundamental difference between ANT and social network analysis is that the latter is restricted to the analysis of *social entities*, mostly individual human actors (but may also include groups, organisations, websites or publications), while ANT extended the word actor – or ‘actant’ as used by ANT theorists – to non-human, non-individual entities (Latour, 1996). It assumes that nothing lies outside the network, for network stability can only exist within ‘a topos of network’ (Law, 2002), and there is no difference in terms of action of objects, humans, animals, technology or any other non-humans in the relational structure of the network. The fit of ANT is supported by the fact that the three constituting elements of local governance comply with ANT principals: First, it includes a complex, heterogeneous set or sets of organisations drawn from the public, private and voluntary sectors; second, these organisations are connected by inter-organisational linkages and third, they exchange resources (money, information, expertise), ‘to achieve their objectives, to maximize their influence over outcomes, and to avoid becoming dependent on other players in the game’ (Rhodes, 1996, p.658).

Furthermore, governance involves social regulation, which, as opposed to the regulation of the state which is based on authority, legitimacy and control, relies on collective action typical to network designs (Parker, 2007). Translating the twin processes of localisation and globalisation mentioned above to the network context of governance organisations, the localised procedures of power are adapted, reinforced and transformed by global strategies, while in turn the global strategies are also influenced and reshaped by local agents (Foucault, 1980; Latour, 1986, cited in Herbert-Cheshire, 2006). Drawing on actor-network theorists such as Michel Callon, John Law and Bruno Latour, Murdoch (2000) pointed out that it is specifically this aspect of networks that makes it possible to reconcile the contradiction between exogenous and endogenous approaches to development. Instead of choosing between them, it offers a ‘third way’ between the state and the local. Furthermore, although ANT recognises that micro and macro actors differ in terms of power distribution, it does not distinguish between them in any way, but considers them in exactly the same manner. As such, the main goal of ANT is the ‘deconstruction of the

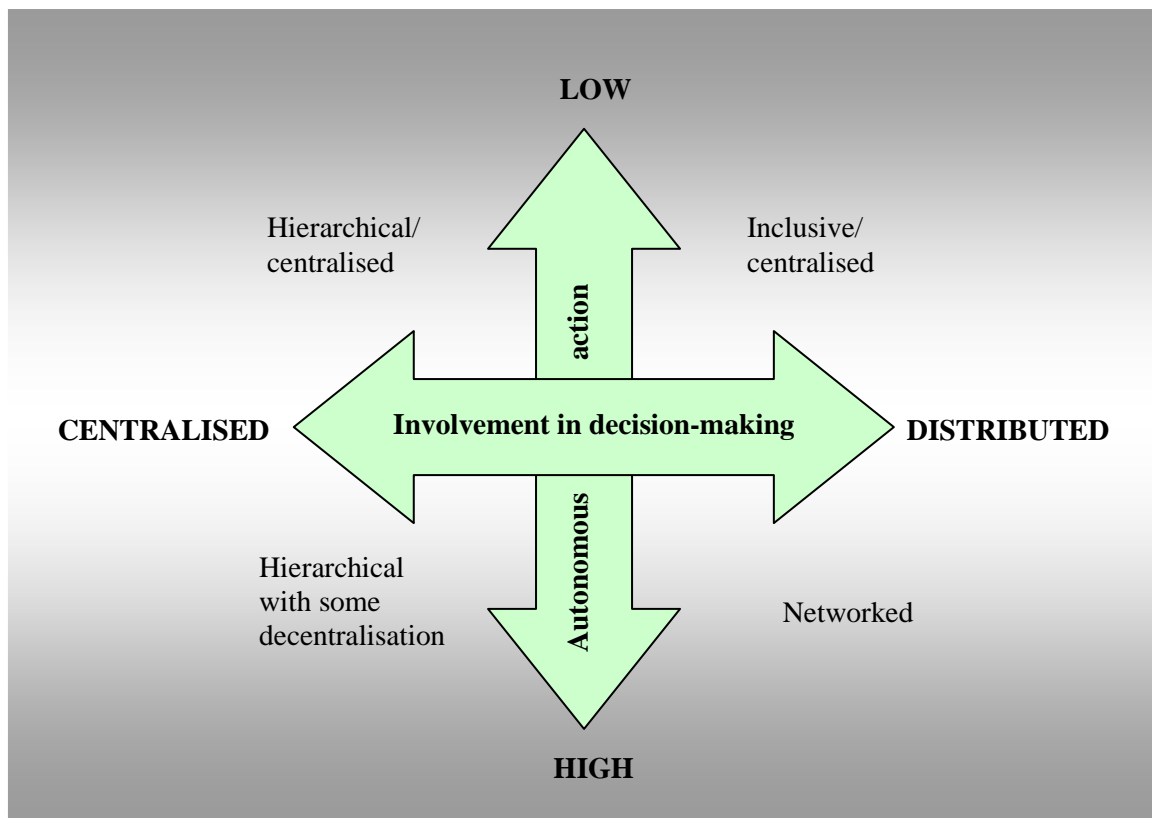
powerful' (Murdoch, 2000; p.410) by examining 'the process of network construction through which taken-for-granted effects, such as macro-actors, power and inequality are generated' (Law, 1992; cited in Herbert-Cheshire, 2006).

2.2.2.4 Territorial governance

Government is indeed one of these taken-for-granted effects, considering that, all types of governance involve, one way or another, government, the entity that in the end has the right and/or the obligation to take binding decisions in issues of territorial development (Bruszt, 2007). Relative to the position of the government in decision-making, Bruszt (2007) identified four types of territorial governance, based on the involvement in decision-making (ranging from centralised to distributed), and the level of autonomous action taken by the actors involved (ranging from low, in which only the central authority can take actions to high, in which actors at lower levels can also take autonomous action). These four types (hierarchical/centralised; inclusive/centralised; hierarchical with some decentralisation and networked) are presented in Figure 2.2.

On the axis of involvement in decision-making, Bruszt suggests that distinction should be taken between discretionally and non-discretionally power sharing, which allows for the differentiation between the 'developmental state' (Evans, 1995) and 'networked governance' (Ansell, 2000). The first refers to the absence of institutionalisation of power distribution. In this model the consultation of even the widest variety of regional and local state and non-state actors 'is meant primarily to improve the intelligence of a top-down 'developmental state' (pp.5-6). For the developmental states, connections with the society are merely connection to industrial capital, and hardly anything else (Evans, 1995; p.235). Networked governance, on the other hand, is characterised by non-discretionally power sharing, in which formal rules oblige the central state to share binding development decisions in order to accommodate heterogeneous interests of 'state below' actors.

Figure 2.2: Four ideal types of territorial governance



Source: Adapted from Bruszt, 2007

2.3 The emergence of rural governance

In the past three decades, community involvement has gained increasing attention in local policy-making as an alternative approach to rural development in the European Union (EU) (Barke & Newton, 1997; Clark, Southern, & Beer, 2007; Diaz-Puente, Yague, & Afonso, 2008; High & Nemes, 2007; Danny MacKinnon, 2002; Osti, 2000; Ray, 2000; Saraceno, 1999; Scott, 2002; Storey, 1999; Valentinov, 2008) and worldwide (Belsky, 1999; Curtis & Lockwood, 2000; Fox, 1995; Francis & James, 2003; Rigg, 1991).

The advent of this new rural development paradigm is an upshot of a series of gradual structural transformations shaping the rural territorial and relational dynamics. An overview of the rural development timeline from the 1950s till the present days provided by Ellis & Biggs (2001) suggests that six key mainstream rural development trends can be distinguished, which are presented in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: Key stages of rural development between 1950s and 2000s

1950s	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s	2000s
Modernisation Dual economy model					
	Transformation Technology transfer Mechanisation Agricultural extension Growth role of agriculture				
		Redistribution State agriculture policies, including integrated rural programmes State-led credit			
			Market liberalisation Retreat of the state Free markets Rise of NGOs		
				Participation Participatory Rural Appraisal Actor-oriented research and development Stakeholders	
					Sustainability Decentralisation Good governance Critique of participation

Source: Adapted from Ellis & Biggs (2001)

Following the early post-war period, the era of modernisation is considered to be the first paradigm shift in rural development, which entailed that the traditional small-farm agriculture ceased to being considered the very engine of growth and development in rural territories. Rather, the *dual-economy approach* emerged from the recognition that the traditional or 'subsistence' sector could only play a marginal role in rising productivity by supplying resources to the 'modern', large-scale agriculture, until eventually the latter takes its position.

The idea that large-scale farms make more efficient use of resources and modern technologies became a guiding tenet of agricultural policy in the establishment of collective and state farms in the Soviet Union and in the Eastern Bloc. The transformation period extended from the early 1960s till the mid-1970s, and it was characterised by a shift towards large-scale farming using mechanised technology. A further characteristic of

the modernist or 'exogenous' approach is that rural development was considered to be dependent on the urban economy, and therefore the main problem of rural areas identified was their long distance from urban centres (Vermeire, *et al.*, 2008). Accordingly, urban and industrial centres were responsible for initiating rural development through investment allocation for transport, accessibility and the improvement of the economics of scale of lagging rural areas (Vermeire, *et al.*, 2008).

Subsequently, the excessive state intervention has become evident in the state-led import of industries, technologies and skills into underdeveloped rural areas. These policies received growing criticism for triggering overdependence on state subsidy, the marginalisation of the local, small-scale enterprises and the conservation of local inactivity (Ellis & Biggs, 2001; Murdoch, 2000). The overreliance on government support, external policy decisions and external, large-scale firms operating in single sectors often led to the export of development benefits outside the region (van der Ploeg, 1999; cited in Vermeire, *et al.*, 2008). Although the 1970s brought forward the notion of redistribution and the pursuit of specific agriculture policies and rural development programmes, 'this was more to do with the identification of 'rural' with 'poverty' than with anything specifically rural or agricultural in their formation' (Ellis & Biggs, 2001; p.438).

The second paradigm shift after modernisation occurred during the 1980s and 1990s, marked by a switch from state-led rural development to market liberalisation (Ellis & Biggs, 2001). It can be seen on Figure 5 that the predominant themes of rural development have not occurred in neatly organised time periods but rather they overlapped, which is most evident in the past four decades when the interrelated themes of market liberalisation, participation and sustainability have become blurred. Defined in the contrast of exogenous development, the endogenous approach to rural development has arisen from the criticism of excessive state intervention. As Ray (2000) puts it: 'Endogeneity (and its synonyms 'bottom-up', 'grass roots' and 'participation') is based on a critique of an over-dependency on, and vulnerability to, development designed and controlled by extra-local forces' (p.447).

Further, major criticism has been directed at the limited ability of government to foster local character and to design policies that are in keeping with local circumstances (Woods, 2006), due to the standard measures applied that failed to consider geographical and cultural differences (Nemes, 2005). It has been argued that local people are aware

that it is them who are generally best placed to identify their own needs and solutions to those needs, because self-help and independence are traditional strengths of rural communities (Murdoch & Abram, 1998). Their historical understanding of local dynamics enables them to identify salient issues of local concern, determine the utilisation of local resources and the pace and scale of development (Simpson, 2001). 'Thus, not only should the scope of government be limited, but local, 'rural' people expect this: they know, almost instinctively, that they are best placed to solve their own problems' (Murdoch & Abram, 1998; p.42).

2.3.1 The territorial perspective of contemporary rural restructuring

Taking first the territorial perspective of this paradigm shift, the restructuring of rural spaces has brought along the diversification of the rural economy and the multifunctional approach to agriculture by the development and exploitation of new rural resources (Marsden, 1998). In particular, multifunctionality gained increasing importance as a way to operationalise sustainable development, and also a way to reintroduce a range of different perspectives into the development of agriculture (Noe, Alrøe, & Langvad, 2008). As productivist agriculture has retreated from its hegemonic position in the contemporary countryside (Marsden & Murdoch, 1998), attention has been increasingly turned to the complementary sectors of agricultural activity, such as light manufacturing, handicrafts, food processing and tourism (Saxena, 2008).

The postulated transition from Fordism to Post-Fordism has been found to be evident in the diversification process of the rural economy away from intensive agriculture and in the commodification of rurality (Cloke & Goodwin, 1992; Goodwin, Cloke, & Milbourne, 1995). While the regulatory aspect allows for a territorial analysis in the context of wider social and economic structures, the governance perspective allows for addressing inter-organisational coordination on the level of the territory (Trouvé, *et al.*, 2007). Hence, this shift can be, in turn, associated with changing levels of governing and, ultimately, the erosion of power of the state as the sole deviser and shaper of policies affecting rural communities (Wilson, 2004).

While 'post-productivist rural spaces' have gained currency as a key theme in contemporary rural discourses (Roche, 2002), there is still no consensus about the characteristics and even existence of a transition from a 'productivist' to a 'post-

productivist' agricultural regime (Wilson, 2004). This echoes the opinion of those questioning that the signs of the currently ongoing rural change in general are actually heralding a new social dynamic, and instead suggest that a clear understanding of the processes and underlying mechanisms of change is yet to be gained (Hoggart & Paniagua, 2001; Jenkins, Hall, & Troughton, 1998).

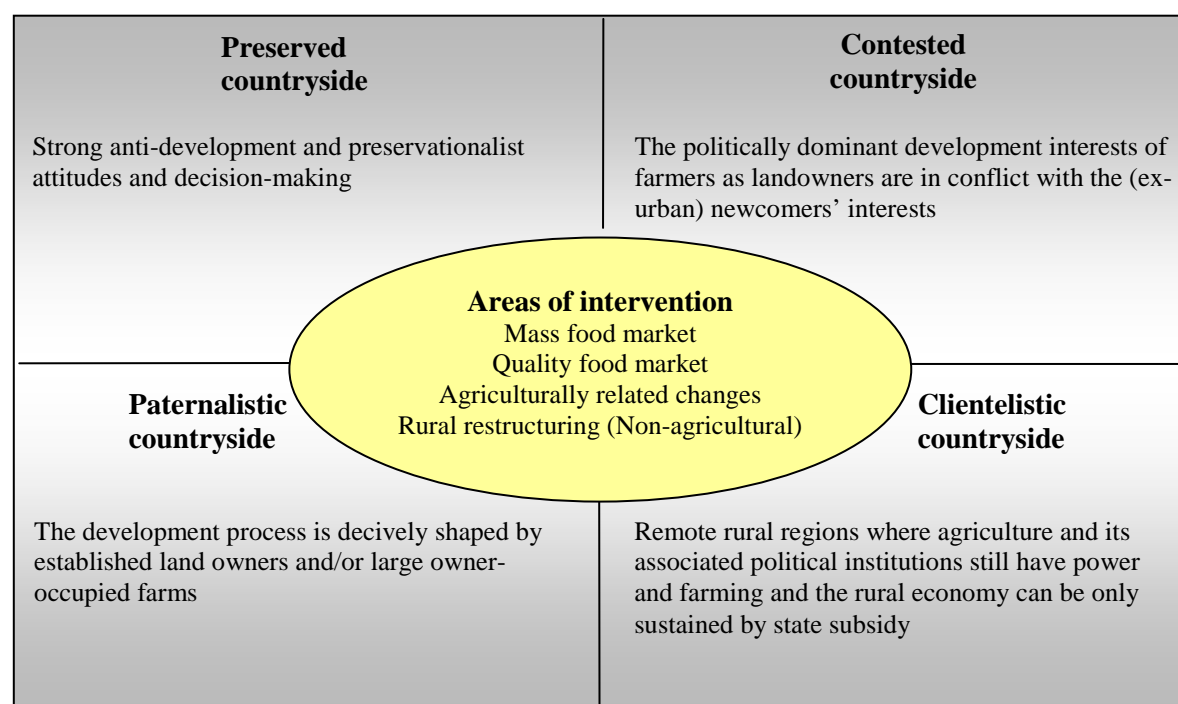
In addition to arguments pro (e.g. Ilbery & Bowler, 1998) and contra (e.g. Evans, Morris & Winter, 2002; Morris & Evans, 1999), Wilson (2001) highlighted that the spatial differences in contemporary agricultural spaces, as well as the emergence of a multifunctional agricultural regime suggest the co-existence of both productivist and post-productivist patterns of actor spaces (For a more detailed literature review on post-productivist rural governance, see: Wilson, 2004). Specific post-productivist indicators characterising contemporary patterns of change have been identified, in particular, as summarised by Wilson (2004), changing food regimes and farming ideologies, environmental concerns of agricultural policies and farming methods, and changing policy implementation methods through recent shifts in EU agricultural policy.

Furthermore, the examination of one of the most innovative, participatory rural programmes in advanced economies, the *Landcare* movement in Australia highlighted that individual components of post-productivist rural governance (such as attitudinal factors) and the underlying socio-political productivist structures (most importantly the retreat of the state and the empowerment of local stakeholders) are not synchronised in terms of the pace and scale of change; while the former may change dynamically, thereby creating the basis for the implementation of post-productivist rural governance structures, the latter will take much longer time to change (Wilson, 2004).

The major feature of the perceived rural spatial change is the differentiated countryside, in terms of agricultural use, the development of land and not least regulation, since restrictive state policies have been applied in rural areas in advanced nation-states (Marsden, 1998). Nevertheless, agriculture still has a significant hold on the processes of regulation as well as on differentiation. In recognition of the fact that different rural areas are developing contrasting strategies of adjustment, Terry Marsden and his colleagues conceptualised the differentiation of rural spaces by outlining the ideal typical conditions, drawing on the characteristics of the British countryside (Marsden, 1995; 1997, Marsden, *et al.*, 1993; Murdoch & Marsden, 1994). This conceptualisation was later applied to the

wider European context by Hoggart, Buller, & Black (1996). They distinguished four types of rural spaces (Preserved/contested/paternalistic/clientelistic), which are presented in Figure 2. 4 in the context of four key areas of intervention identified in a following paper by Marsden, (1998), reflecting the different dynamics, regulation, production and consumption relationships. Central to the notion of governance is the different configurations of power produced by these spheres, and the relative position of one another in different rural spaces. Thus, rural areas can no longer be defined by the strict geographical boundaries of locality; rather, the differentiating rural spaces extend in a web of supply and consumer chains, networks and regulatory dynamics (Marsden, 1998).

Figure 2.4: Characterisation of the four ideal typical types of differentiated rural spaces and the key areas of intervention



Source: Author, based on Marsden (1998).

Reflecting on the economic impacts of the Foot and Mouth Disease in the UK in 2001, and the 9/11 terrorist events in the USA on rural territories, Ray (2002) highlighted the growing need to reconceptualise rural economy, and drew attention to the emergence of a new model: the neo-endogenous or territorial approach to rural development. His discourse was based on empirical observations of the European Commission's LEADER Programme and the phenomenon of cultural regionalism. He suggested that the long-

term economic and social fragility of many rural areas described above is a proof of the declining capacity of the state-supported orthodox agricultural sectoral policy to sustain many rural economies.

Drawing on the Modes of Production theory (as set out by Marx in Giddens, 1971), which states that economic systems are constructed by socio-political forces and that they exist and are maintained by, historically contingent social relations, he argues that new, potentially more effective modes of production could emerge. This is because, the contemporary processes and types of social relations, in particular the globalisation-induced advanced consumer society (Lash & Urry, 1994) and the emergence of social capital as trust-networks (Fukuyama, 1995) point towards this direction. He further complements these notions with a 'territorial' component in his model of production in rural economies. In particular, there are three dimensions of the territorial/neo-endogenous approach: first, it focuses on territories of need rather than certain sectors of the rural economy; second, it valorises and exploits local resources; and third, it focuses on the needs, capacities and perspectives of local people through participation of the local community in the design and implementation of action.

This conceptualisation is in line with Stark (2005), who argues that effective rural governance comprises three major components: collaboration, sustained citizen engagement and leveraging regional resources. Collaboration involves the crossing of sectors (public, private and non-profit) and the crossing of political boundaries; sustained citizen engagement refers to the involvement of new actors (especially the underrepresented and the youth) and the bottom-up approach of development; and lastly, leveraging the regional resources includes analysing a region's competitive advantages, strengthening competences of local elected officials, engaging key intermediaries and investing local capital.

The shift to the territorial approach has brought the act of territorial identity construction to the forefront of the development process (Ray, 1999). As a result of the global interrelations between agriculture and society, agriculture has readjusted to the rapidly changing needs and expectations of society towards rural spaces, which is no longer the sole source of 'cheap food' supplying the surrounding urban areas (Van Der Ploeg, *et al.*, 2000). The 'flexible spaces' of the differentiated rural countryside draw on historical, cultural and environmental resources in the process of 'territorial identity construction' as

an emerging form of local governance. In fact, participatory development promotes personal development in two ways: first, regional cultures can be considered as a social category, in which rural identity is interpretable as a set of symbols of locality that producers and consumers attach to local goods and services, and second, participatory methods are generally characterised by (self)-interpretation activities drawing on heritage, history and the natural environment (Ray, 1999). These processes imply a transition from rural development to territorial-cultural identity construction. Identity can be, therefore, understood as emanating from 'social capital', i.e. from those intangibles, or non-economic aspects of the community that promote economic growth, through the construction of social relationships (Lee, *et al.*, 2005).

2.3.2 The institutional-relational perspective of contemporary rural restructuring

Focusing next on the organisational perspective of the paradigm shift, the roots of rural change are considered to be evident in the politico-administrative apparatus that formulate, implement and co-ordinate development policies (Douglas, 2005; Marsden & Murdoch, 1998). The traditional understanding of the role of local government as a *provider*, which was supposed to respond to local needs through the provision of services and facilities has faded due to the repositioning of the local government in four ways (Woods, 1998a). First, services traditionally provided by elected local authorities have been transferred to non-elected organisations (such as in education, health provision, etc.). Second, the introduction of competitive tendering and privatisation of certain municipality services resulted in the outsourcing of municipality activities in which the municipality plays the coordinator's role and is responsible for service provision but not directly for the delivery of that service. Third, and closely linked to the previous point, there has been an increasing emphasis placed by the central authority on the role of the private and non-profit sectors in the provision of public services. Lastly, tight budgetary constraints imposed by the central state limited the local governments in responding to the local needs within the totality of their areas of competence. Indeed, the devolution of responsibility to the local level is a cheap solution to the growing pressures on the welfare state, hence it may very well be part of long-term governmental ambitions to cut back on public spending (Herbert-Cheshire, 2006; see for example: Murdoch, 1997).

Consequently, in parallel with the retreat from its welfarist position as a *'provider'*, a new role of the state has emerged as an *'enabler'* and *'manager'* of the various participants in the process of governance (Little, 2001). At the heart of the reformulation of the role of local politicians, lies the notion that they are no longer the sole sources of accountability and representative democracy; rather, they have become facilitators and supporters of such accountability and democracy (Ross & Osborne, 1999).

Adopting a relational perspective of power, Foucault's governmentality theory has been applied in analyses of governance formation in rural territories (Herbert-Cheshire, 2000, 2006; MacKinnon, 2001; 2002; Martin, 1997). The governmentality approach was found to be useful in linking 'the emphasis on community to broader shifts in the nature of government' (MacKinnon, 2002, p.308) and as such to explore the functioning of governance through the underlying governmental rationalities and the changing techniques employed by government agencies. In recognition of the relational advantages of collaboration and territorial proximity in rural spaces, the spotlight has been recently focused on partnerships (Clark, *et al.*, 2007; Edwards, *et al.*, 2001; Geddes, 2000; Jones & Little, 2000; McArthur, 1995; Ross & Osborne, 1999; Scott, 2004) and networks (Donaldson, *et al.*, 2002; High, Pelling, & Nemes, 2005; Lee, *et al.*, 2005; Lowe, Murdoch, & Ward, 1995; Murdoch, 1995, 2000; Rosenfeld, 2001; Sommers, 1998; Vermeire, *et al.*, 2008; Wiskerke, Bock, Stuiver, & Renting, 2003; Woods, 1998b) of rural governance.

Collaboration has been perceived to offer benefits to all parties, and as such, it has the potential to offer a genuine new vision of the governance of local communities (Ross & Osborne, 1999). For the local government, it offers direct access to genuine local and community experience and views; for the local community and voluntary groups it offers a valuable source of funding; while for the local community it offers a chance to influence the shape of initiatives aimed at their local communities (Osborne, 1998 cited in Ross & Osborne, 1999). The foundation of these relationships is trust, which is a result of previously successful working relationships (Davis & Walker, 1997, Lowndes & Skelcher, 1998; Ouchi, 1980; Ring & Van de Ven, 1992, cited in Ross & Osborne, 1999). Trust is nevertheless not a new concept in governance; referring back to Plato, he argued that the captain of the ship could only earn the trust of his crew by proving his abilities as a 'skilful navigator' (Plato, 1997). This setting implies that local or community governance is a product of constantly shaping, sequential forms of state-local relationships, and that the

continuity of the formation process is essential (Ross & Osborne, 1999). Further, the implementation of the bottom-up approach requires 'cultural change' of the staff responsible in terms of the values upon which the relationship is based, because those are incompatible with the values, as well the structures and processes of the top-down approaches which usually form the basis of the new structures (Ross & Osborne, 1999).

In addition to the advantages, some drawbacks of the participatory approach have also been identified. As pointed out by Vermeire, *et al.* (2008), despite the heterogeneity of territories and communities, the model assumes that a growth potential exists in each region, yet fails to define the scope of that growth potential. The perspectives of the actors involved in the implementation of rural development strategies differ not only in terms of aspirations but also orientations (Leeuwis, 2000), implying that there is no coherent interpretation of the participatory approach. Thus, it may be concluded that it rather describes a desired way of development than clear development goals (Vermeire, *et al.*, 2008). Further, endogenous development tends to favour actors who are already powerful and possess a greater capacity to act (Shucksmith, 2000). The domination of such powerful local actors may be conducive to disputes, jealousies and challenges to the power relations culminating in 'endogenous fraternities' and the 'hostile brothers' scenario' (Saxena, 2008). Alternatively, in the absence of active local players, the initiatives are undermined by local apathy' (Vermeire, *et al.*, 2008; p.295).

In recognition of the disadvantages of, and following the debates around, exogenous and endogenous development, a 'third way' approach has emerged by the implication of the network concept (Murdoch, 2000; Lowe, *et al.*, 1995), which does not only reject the exogenous/endogenous dichotomy, but eliminates the forced choice between the two methods and allows for a combination of both. In line with the current interpretation of rural development as a 'multi-level, multi-actor and multi-faceted process' (Van Der Ploeg, *et al.*, 2000), the network perspective directs the spotlight on the interplay between local and external forces (Vermeire, *et al.*, 2008). Lowe, *et al.* (1995) provide an account of mixed exogenous and endogenous elements that are discernible in rural areas, such as, among others, the reduction of migration flows from rural to urban areas; the high priority given to non-material goods such as recreation, nature and wildlife and the favouring of rural locations by new-wave technologies such as biotechnology.

Taking into account the differing types of contemporary rural spaces, Murdoch (2000) delineated two contrasting approaches to rural networks. First is the less common innovation-based networks of learning economy, where the local tacit knowledge is used to boost local capacity, comprising of small and medium-sized enterprises bound together by reciprocal, trust-based linkages (such as in areas of the Third Italy). Second, is the mainstream standardised vertical networks of commodity chains, in particular agro-food production, which are aligned according to standardised conventions (such as the large cereal farms of East Anglia or the 'pig cities' in North Carolina).

In addition, there are many peripheral rural areas that stand outside both models of innovative or standardised networks and lack strong and dynamic network relationships of either type. Consequently, the network approach does not provide a unilinear form of rural development; rather, the network strategies adopted by development agencies must be adjusted to the particular set of economic, social, cultural and environmental conditions and requirements of given rural areas, because the development outcomes will be determined by the imposition of new economic forms on pre-existing conditions (Murdoch, 2000).

Considering the interplay between local and extra-local forces as a major focus of the network perspective on rural governance, one prevailing issue is the new role of the local government discussed above, as an enabler or coordinator in these relationships. Of particular interest is the strategy of the elected local government to redefine its role and confirm its political legitimacy in the context of a restructured rural polity (Woods, 1998a). In particular, local government has been situated in three interrelated spheres of engagement: first, the central-local government context; second, the local governance environment, and third, the diverse groups of local constituents (Welch, 2002). Jessop, (1990) referred to this as the 'part-whole paradox' of the state, since the local government, as one institutional order among others in a social system is responsible for the integrity and cohesion of that wider social order.

In the conflicting pressure of the central state and the local communities, the local government must maintain its discursive power and coherent action. One strategy adopted has been the repositioning of the local government as a 'pressure group', lobbying external actors on behalf of the local people and representing local opinions (Woods, 1998a), while another strategy explored was the possibility of awarding advisory

and consultative bodies of local government more statutory powers in rural governance as part of the reorganisation of local administration (Tewdwr-Jones, 1998).

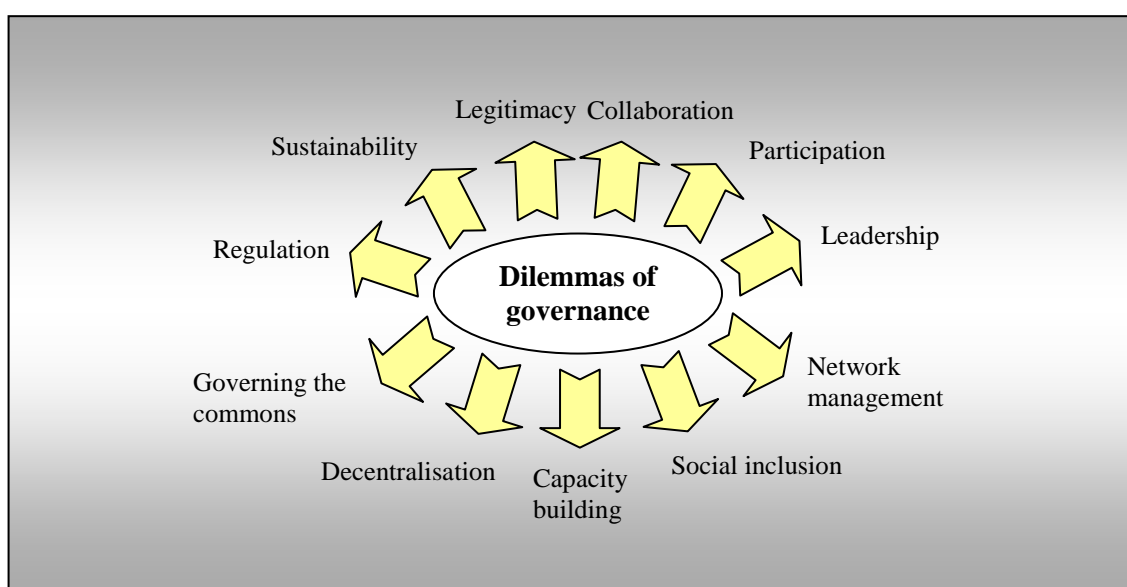
A major source of conflict between the local elite and the local government identified has been the struggle for hegemony over the social representations of the locality. In a case study approach, (Brunori & Rossi, 2007) explored how the dominance of wine elites had been challenged by a coalition of actors led by the mayors in the creation of rural governance patterns in the area. They pointed out that due to the strive of the two parties to retain control over the production of social representations of the area, difficulties have arisen in negotiating shared goals and agendas. The resulting power imbalances constrained the development of favourable governance patterns that would have strengthened the symbolic capital and the position of the territory in global networks.

Within this context, the question posited by Little (2001) and Herbert-Cheshire (2006) is of particular relevance, concerning the extent to which rural people and communities are actually empowered by the governance approach. Herbert-Cheshire (2006) notes that rather than debate the issue of whether governance represents a 'genuine' attempt to devolve power to the local level, a more beneficial approach would be to focus on the changing techniques of governing. Yet, there is a growing body of literature questioning that governance in practice contributes to more balanced power relations (Day, 1998; Douglas, 2005; Wilkinson, 1992), specifically based on recent case study evidence (Clark, *et al.*, 2007; MacKinnon, 2002; Maurel, 2008; Panyik & Costa, 2010; Storey, 1999; Wilson, 2004). This is in line with Ellis & Biggs (2001) who indicated that the major themes of rural development in the 1990s and 2000s are participation and sustainability (See: Figure 2.3), but, conversely, among the contemporary issues a critique of participation has evolved, highlighting the weaknesses of the governance approach. Indeed, participation is one of the dilemmas of governance addressed in the recently published *Sage Handbook of Governance* (Bevir, 2011), which are presented in Figure 2.5.

Certainly, community development through governance is a dialectical process, for it is shaped by continuous interaction and exchange of arguments between actors. However, as MacKinnon (2002) argues in his analysis on state-community relationships in the Scottish Highlands, it is clearly not a partnership of equals, since the balance of power is weighted towards the governmental side of the relationship, resulting in, what was

described by him 'limited empowerment' of selected local actors. Indeed, Clark, *et al.*, (2007) found that partnership funding helped to reinvigorate the community, whilst at the same time reaffirmed 'the legitimacy of those in established leadership positions and the continuing role of the central and regional state in initiating, structuring, financing and regulating partnership working' (p.264). Similarly, Van Der Ploeg, *et al.* (2000) emphasised that social exclusion indeed occur within rural development programmes, and policy programmes may be used by the local elites in the interests of clientelism.

Figure 2.5: Contemporary dilemmas of governance identified by Bevir (2011)



Source: Author, based on Bevir (2011)

Considering the process of 'government at distance', the legitimacy of rural governance is a fundamental issue. The 'distance' of the actors involved in decision-making of governance formations further away from the state and the plurality of these actors lead to the reduction or even the complete loss of public control and transparency (Wiskerke, *et al.*, 2003). Given this complexity, the principles of legitimacy and accountability of representative democracy, in which the holders of power derive legitimacy principally through democratic elections, no longer apply (Goodwin, 1998). If power is to be devolved, however, the new holders of power should have the right (legitimacy) to act and they should as well be responsible (accountable) for those actions. The question, therefore, emerges: 'In this new context, where the 'simple' legitimacy of representative

democratic government no longer captures the complexity of rural governance, how can legitimacy be understood?' (Connelly, Richardson, & Miles, 2006; p.267).

As pointed out above, legitimacy and accountability are closely interrelated terms; legitimacy converts power into authority and allows for the exercise of power, 'as the actions of those that rule are accepted voluntarily by those who are ruled' (Schmitter, 2001, cited in Connelly, Richardson, & Miles, 2006; p.269). The origins of the concept can be traced back to the social contract theory described first by Thomas Hobbes in the *Leviathan* in 1651. Accountability, in its broadest sense, is a feature of all social relations: to justify our actions and attitudes and to demonstrate our social competence, we give accounts of ourselves in many diverse contexts and different ways (Whittaker, *et al.*, 2004). In the context of hierarchical power relations, accountability exhibits two aspects: 'that those exercising power offer an account of their actions, and that they are held to account for those actions' (MacKinnon, 2002; p.309).

The rationale for accountability is two-fold: first, it is functional, to ensure that public policies and interventions achieve the purpose for which they are designed; and second, it is ethical, to guarantee that they comply with some accepted moral standard (Considine & Kamran, 2011). Accordingly, the relevant authorities must possess effective sanctions over those bodies that exercise power, which enable them to punish unsatisfactory conduct or performance. The major problem of governance is, however, as MacKinnon (2002) aptly puts it, that: 'unelected local agencies are characterised by an absence of local political accountability given that local communities lack effective sanctions that would allow them to hold these agencies to account' (p.309).

Despite the currency of this issue, it is most surprising that only a very limited research has addressed this problem directly in the rural context, let alone contemplating solutions to this 'democratic deficit' of (rural) governance (Connelly, *et al.*, 2006; Wiskerke, *et al.*, 2003). Relying on case study evidence, these studies approach legitimacy from the viewpoint of community groups (Connelly, *et al.*, 2006; O'Toole & Burdess, 2004) and from the local government (Welch, 2002). Connelly, *et al.* (2006) aimed at capturing, and providing a snapshot of, the construction of legitimacy through policy deliberations of community decision-making groups. Their results revealed a diverse and complex process: while in each of the three deliberative arena analysed there was an explicit discourse of legitimacy and a common understanding of its importance, the underlying

rationale of its rules and procedures was not only different in each case but also established differently. This hybridity, as the authors argue, had one very significant consequence: 'that each arena and its processes, taken as a whole, was of dubious legitimacy judged against any single norm, and therefore open to challenge' (p.275).

Besides the weak and differing deliberative norms that characterise the construction process of legitimacy, O'Toole & Burdess (2004) revealed that there is a contradiction between the importance of voluntary local groups in community development and the lack of their legally constituted democratic base. Democratic legitimacy was substituted by a symbolic representation, allowing these groups to act as 'pseudo-councillors' or lobbyists for their community. Accountability was limited to those groups incorporated in the statutory bodies under the corporation statute; nevertheless it was still not the accountability of an elected local body. In the absence of statutory power, the fund raising capacities of these groups were also limited and their incomes haphazard, prompting the conclusion that without an established institutional base that has an assured income, the activities of these community groups are at risk.

Indeed, cooperative action within and between rural communities may be difficult, if not impossible, without public sector intervention, because the small rural communities are often in lack of sufficient financial resources, infrastructure and technical assistance (Panyik, Costa, & Rátz, 2011). Underpinning the scholarly argument on the role of the public sector in enabling bottom-up initiatives and stimulating collaboration (Edwards, *et al.*, 2001; Gedikli, 2009; Murdoch & Abram, 1998; Panyik, Costa, Rátz, 2011), it has been argued that the state continues to shape and guide human action in various ways, despite the blurring boundaries between public and private sectors (Herbert-Cheshire, 2006).

In fact, governance is inseparable from the government because 'the government is the vehicle of governance, in the sense that it makes appropriate choices on the implementation of policies: the two dimensions are thus intimately connected and they may influence each other' (CoR, 2002). Furthermore, hierarchical relations between the centre and localities persist, and the existing scalar hierarchy of the state may be influential on structuring the scales of partnerships (Böcher, 2008; Edwards, *et al.*, 2001), and in certain policy areas there is still a requirement for the state to impose a dominant strategic line (Murdoch & Abram, 1998). Also, the involvement of different sectors in the decision-making process may prove to be difficult or even impossible, due to, among

others, the absence of private sector interest and a lack of skills and experience within the rural community. In such instances the public sector continues to take a major role in shaping the local responses to policy (Jones & Little, 2000; Little, 2001).

2.4 Rural governance in the EU and the LEADER approach

The implication of the governance approach in rural development in the EU is a result of the intersection of two mainstream trends that have directed the Community's territorial agenda towards diversification. The first is the establishment of a separate rural development policy that has gained gradually but steadily growing importance and brought along horizontal diversification into agricultural development; and second, is the implementation of multi-level governance in policy-making which has resulted in vertical diversification in EU decision-making.

2.4.1 The establishment of a distinct rural development policy

Considering the first aspect, the Central Agricultural Policy (CAP) has, as a central element in the EU institutional system, undergone substantial changes since its establishment in 1960, three years after the signing of the Treaty of Rome, which laid down its foundations. While it still represents the largest share of the EU budget, i.e. 41.3% of overall payments in 2011¹ (EU, 2011), the major trend is that agricultural expenditure is gradually decreasing on the expense of structural investments. In the first year of the first ever EU financial framework (1988-1992), agricultural spending represented nearly 61% of the budget. By 2013, it is expected to decrease to almost half, to 32%. At the same time, cohesion expenditure represented 17% in 1988; it has increased to 31% ten years later and it will double to reach almost 36% by 2013 (EU, 2007).

Reflecting the diverse demands that have been made upon contemporary rural spaces in terms of sectoral diversification (Marsden & Murdoch, 1998), the 'Agenda 2000' reforms divided the CAP into two 'pillars': (agricultural) production support and rural development,

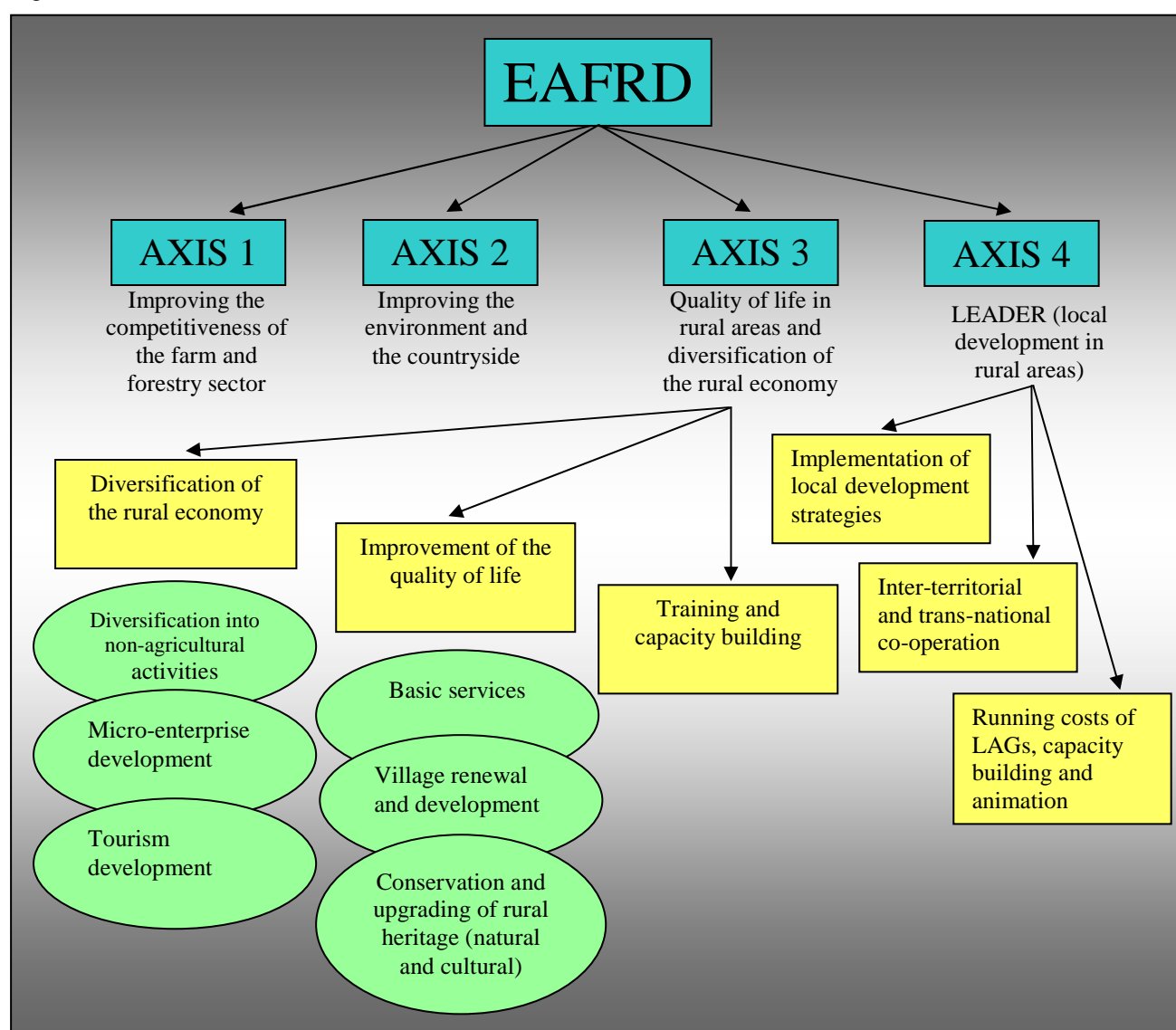
¹ This figure includes (1) direct (agricultural) aids and market-related expenditure (30.2%) and (2) rural development, environment and fisheries (11.1%)

with the latter aiming to promote a multifunctional role for agriculture through economic, social and environmental development in the countryside (Râmniceanu & Ackrill, 2007). Accordingly, the European Agricultural Guarantee and Guidance Fund was replaced by the European Agricultural Guarantee Fund (EAGF) financing the first, and the European Agriculture Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD) financing the second pillar, respectively (EC, 2005).

The budget of the new 'second pillar' has been approximately third part of the first pillar (currently 11%). It is allocated along four areas, known as axes, which are presented in Figure 2.6: Axis 1 is dedicated to the agricultural and forestry sector, Axis 2 to the environment and the countryside, and Axis 3 to the quality of life in rural areas and the diversification of the rural economy. These three are so-called vertical or thematic axes. The fourth is the LEADER axis which is horizontal because it grants support for projects undertaken with the objectives of one or more of the three other axes. Projects under Axis 4 are selected and financed in accordance with the local development strategy prepared by Local Action Groups (LAGs) for their area, and implemented by the LEADER approach (EC, 2005).

Despite a series of agricultural reforms (1992, 1999, 2003), and a gradual decrease in internal agricultural support resulting from these reforms, the EU is still struggling with the problem of overproduction. Furthermore, the protectionist approach of CAP, based on direct subsidy payments and price support mechanisms, has been subject to substantial criticism by the World Trade Organisation (Kiss, 2003). As discussed previously, the retreat of agriculture, both in economic terms and in relation to the numbers employed have been accompanied by the diversification of the rural economy and a multifunctional approach to rural development. During the course of the latest CAP reform in 2003, the rural development pillar has been reinforced: not only rural development expenditure increased by EUR 1.2 billion, but the range of objectives also expanded (Kiss, 2003).

Figure 2.6: The structure of EAFRD and the three measures of Axis 3



Source: Author, based on EC 1698/2005.

2.4.2 The implementation of multi-level governance in EU policy-making

During the 1990s, the EU struggled with a democratic deficit in the decision-making of its three main institutions: the Commission, the Council and the European Parliament. This democratic deficit manifested in the lack of representation, accountability and transparency, issues which affected primarily the executive body – the Commission –, given the absence of democratic legitimacy of its extensive decision-making power (CoR, 2002). Concerns have been raised in relation to the distant and opaque nature of decision-making: the strong role of indirectly elected officials in the Council of Ministers

and of unelected officials in the European Commission, the weakness of the EP and the second-order nature of its elections (Greven, 2000; Pollack, 2005; Scharpf, 1988; Williams, 1991). Furthermore, several authors have pointed out that Europe lacks the sense of community as a European identity that could provide the constituent basis for an EU-level democracy (Pollack, 2005).

In order to meet the growing demand for clearer distribution of powers between different levels of government, the principle of subsidiarity was adopted in the Maastricht Treaty by the European Commission in 1992. This principle states that decisions should be taken as closely as possible to the citizens, that is, at the lowest possible level, and powers should partly be delegated to mixed private and public entities. Thus, the logic of subsidiarity explicitly suggests that the appropriate level of decision-making may not be the state but the sub-national levels (CoR, 2002). The main aim of establishing multi-level governance in accordance with the principle of subsidiarity has been to increase the rate of democratic input by a more informed role of the Member States in decision-making.

The European Commission established its own concept of governance in the White Paper on European Governance in 2001, in which the term 'European governance' refers to the way in which power is exercised at the European level, particularly as regards the five 'principles of good governance': openness, participation, accountability, effectiveness and coherence (EC, 2001). In effect, these are the qualifications that the new governance partners, such as NGOs, have to fulfil in order to be able to rightfully participate in political decision-making and steering (Wiskerke, *et al.*, 2003).

2.4.3 The concept and main issues of the LEADER approach

Subsequently, the local partnership approach has become a standard feature of many EU programmes and initiatives across various sectors, such as the Urban programme for the development of deprived city districts, the Poverty3 programme for the integration of the most marginalised social groups (Geddes, 2000), EQUAL for tackling the problems of inequality and discrimination in the labour market (Potter, 2005) and the LEADER Programme for participatory rural development. Although the latter was launched as an experimental initiative in 1991, it was reinforced by the Cork Declaration in 1996, envisaging the integrated EU rural policy based upon the LEADER model.

The first, experimental phase of the LEADER Programme, LEADER I. (1991-1994) was followed by two extended phases: LEADER II (1994-1999) and LEADER+ (2000-2006), which generated growing interest and gained increased budgetary allocations. The application of LEADER as a mainstream instrument in the common rural development policy for the current financial period (2007-2013) expressed the commitment of the European Commission to decentralisation and local participation. Subsequently, LEADER is now a mandatory component in all Member States' individual rural development programme. However, despite being extended gradually in terms of territory and population, the LEADER budget still represents a minor portion of the CAP sources.

The LEADER Programme differs from other mainstream policies in that the unit of intervention is the local territories and its communities, rather than the traditional economic sectors (Ray, 2000). The holistic approach to development can be illustrated by the seven principals of the programme: area-based development, bottom-up approach, local private-public partnerships, innovation, integrated, multi-sectoral design, cooperation and networking (EC, 2010).

The actors, activities and areas are linked together through the Local Action Groups (LAGs), which comprise representatives from the local private, public and non-profit spheres with a restriction of 50% for public representation. According to Ray (2000), the rhetoric portrayed the initiative as a 'rural laboratory', in which 'innovative ideas for rural development would be explored, local people would be encouraged to rediscover and valorise their local (cultural identity), and the social, cultural and environmental dimensions would be recognised as vital ingredients in a sustainable, endogenous, territorial, development dynamic' (pp.449-450).

The LAGs elaborate a local development strategy for their territory, appraise and select projects and monitor the implementation processes. There are shared decision-making competences allocated to the staff and board of the LEADER associations. To guarantee the satisfactory operation of the partnership and the ability to administer public funds, the LAGs are legally constituted organisations, most commonly associations or limited companies (Ltd). The LAG functions as a 'Local Development Agency' in its area of intervention due to its all-round view on spatial processes, acquired by generating projects and participating in community activities.

Being a viable method for the top-down initiated participatory approach implemented across the EU, the LEADER approach has attracted considerable attention in the literature. Notably, two mainstream journals in the field dedicated a special issue to rural governance, with partial (*Journal of Rural Studies*, 1998, 14/1) and exclusive (*Sociologia Ruralis*, 2000, 40/2) focus on the LEADER method.

Furthermore, various case studies have explored what is behind the fashionable scientific term 'rural governance' in practice, and how it is actually implemented through LEADER. The vast majority of these studies have been undertaken in old Member States, particularly in Spain, Ireland and the UK (Barke & Newton, 1997; Böcher, 2008; Bruckmeier, 2000; Buller, 2000; Díaz-Puente, Montero, & Carmenado, 2009; Díaz-Puente, Yagüe, & Afonso, 2008; Osti, 2000; Pepper, 1999; Perez, 2000; Ray, 1998; Ray & Allanson, 1996; Scott, 2002, 2004; Shortall & Shucksmith, 1998; Shucksmith, 2000; Storey, 1999; Thuesen, 2010; Valve, 2002; Ward & McNicholas, 1998) since these countries, that are among those few in which LEADER was first implemented as an experimental approach in 1992, gained most experience in its implementation. Studies appear sporadically focusing on new Member States, mainly on Hungary (Kováč, 2000; Kováč & Kučerová, 2006; Maurel, 2008; Panyik, Costa, 2009) and there are recent conference reports discussing the potential of the LEADER approach in rural development of candidate countries such as Serbia (Duric, Hamovic, & Potrebic, 2009) and Croatia (Toliš, Gluhak, & Kaminski, 2009), the latter reporting on the first pre-accession experiences with LEADER.

The programme firmly sits within a wider set of discourses on the 'new governance' (Clappison, 2009). On one hand, it is considered to be a successful initiative in terms of stakeholder engagement (Storey, 1999), social learning (High & Nemes, 2007), the establishment of a transnational network of regions (Nemes, 2000), increasing European awareness (Maurel, 2008) and the accumulation of social capital through partnership development (Kis, 2006).

On the other hand, issues related primarily to the dichotomy of the bottom-up approach and top-down intervention prevail. This reflects, in the broader sense, the problematic nature of partnerships between the two distinct spheres of state and society, manifesting in limited empowerment as discussed in the previous section (Barke & Newton, 1997; Clappison, 2009; Kováč, 2000). In Table 2.1, the key themes of rural governance

identified throughout the literature review are presented. It can be seen that limited empowerment is one of three major issues identified in LEADER research, which is nevertheless a prominent theme addressed in the wider research framework of rural governance.

Translated to the LEADER context, the traditional power triangle between the state, society and territory has been replaced by a 'double triangle', which further includes the EU Commission and its relationships with the state and the territory (Ray, 2000). Inevitably, tensions arise when organisations that are inherently 'top-down' in nature sponsor a 'bottom-up' approach (Ray, 2000). Since implementation requires the political and financial support of the orthodox politico-administrative system, LEADER, as a territorial approach is at the forefront of the discourse of democracy due to the lack of practical mechanisms to ensure and display legitimacy and accountability credentials (Ray, 2000).

This has generated a debate not only on the methods of the state-sponsored endogenous approach to development, but also on evaluation methodology. The distance between the principal and local agents is greater for EU structural programmes than for nationally funded public sector services, therefore objective performance targets are considered as an important accountability tool (Whittaker, *et al.*, 2004). Indeed, mainstream methods of evaluation favour top-down models dealing with tangible outcomes (Ray, 2000). Its advantages are, nevertheless, drawbacks at the same time: these methods allow for determining generalised outputs and thereby facilitating horizontal comparison. However, while the primary target is chiefly set in terms of job creation, it has been debated whether conventional job creation is equivalent to development, because the priorities, as well as the style and skill requirements of a more qualitative, process-oriented evaluation is very different from the top-down models of evaluation (Ray, 1998, 2000; Whittaker, *et al.*, 2004). The basic tenet is that territorial approaches of development policies with locally defined objectives, strategies and actions for intervention have a different set of underlying assumptions and cannot be evaluated with the same tools and by the same criteria that are used in conventional evaluations (Saraceno, 1999)

Table 2.1: Literature overview focusing on key themes of rural governance

Main themes		Specific themes and/or key contributions
Rural restructuring as a paradigm shift		<u>Constructing the theoretical foundations</u> (Van Der Ploeg, <i>et al.</i> , 2000) <u>Differentiation of rural spaces</u> (Marsden, 1995; Marsden, 1997; Marsden, <i>et al.</i> , 1993; Murdoch & Marsden, 1994) <u>Neo-endogeneous or territorial approach</u> (Ray, 2002)
Post-productivist rural governance		Cloke & Goodwin, 1992; Goodwin, <i>et al.</i> , 1995; Evans, Morris & Winter, 2002
Implication of Foucault's governmentality theory		Herbert-Cheshire, 2006; MacKinnon, 2001; 2002; Martin, 1997
Reconfiguration of the scalar hierarchy of the state		<u>Scale of governance</u> (Edwards, <i>et al.</i> , 2001) <u>Comparison of governance models</u> (Clark & Beer, 2007) <u>Governance patterns</u> (Brunori & Rossi, 2007) <u>Governance failure</u> (Jessop, 2002)
Democratic deficit of unelected bodies		<u>Legitimacy through deliberation</u> (Connelly, Richardson, & Miles, 2006) <u>Legitimacy of community groups</u> (O'Toole & Burdess, 2004) <u>Legitimacy of local government</u> (Welch, 2002) <u>Accountability</u> (MacKinnon, 2001; Whittaker, <i>et al.</i> , 2004)
The influential role of the public sector in governance formation		Böcher, 2008; CoR, 2002; Edwards, <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Gedikli, 2009; Herbert-Cheshire, 2006; Jones & Little, 2000; Little, 2001; Murdoch & Abram, 1998; Panyik, Costa, & Rátz, 2011
The shifting position of local government		Brunori & Rossi, 2007; Douglas, 2005; Tewdwr-Jones, 1998; Welch, 2002; Woods, 1998a;
Relational perspective of power		<u>Partnerships</u> (Clark, <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Edwards, <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Geddes, 2000; Jones & Little, 2000; McArthur, 1995; Ross & Osborne, 1999; Scott, 2004) <u>Networks</u> (Donaldson, <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Lee, <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Lowe, <i>et al.</i> , 1995; Murdoch, 1995; 2000; Rosenfeld, 2001; Sommers, 1998; Vermeire, <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Wiskerke, <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Woods, 1998b)
Rural identity		<u>Territorial-cultural identity construction</u> (Ray, 1999) <u>Linkages between social capital and identity</u> (Lee, <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Kis; 2006)
	Limited empowerment	Barke & Newton, 1997a; Clappison, 2009; Clark, <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Day, 1998; Douglas, 2005; Kováč, 2000; Little, 2001; MacKinnon, 2002; Maurel, 2008; Panyik & Costa, 2010; Storey, 1999; Wilkinson, 1992; Wilson, 2004
LEADER	Evaluation	<u>Empowerment evaluation</u> (Díaz-Puente, Yague & Afonso, 2008; Díaz-Puente, Montero & Carmenado, 2009) <u>Evaluation as a social learning approach</u> (High & Nemes, 2007) <u>Participative evaluation</u> (Ray, 1998; 2000) <u>Process vs. performance accountability</u> (Whittaker, <i>et al.</i> , 2004) <u>Methodological problems of evaluation</u> (Saraceno, 1999)

In participative evaluation, as Ray (2000) explains, the development process is animated by the principle of enabling local people to participate in and manage knowledge construction, which in turn allows them to animate social change. The bottom line of empowerment evaluation in programmes such as LEADER is therefore to facilitate learning and change (Diaz-Puente, *et al.*, 2008). It induces changes at the individual, interpersonal and collective levels in attitudes and actions, which has been described as the 'evaluation influence' (Diaz-Puente, *et al.*, 2008). It further emphasises the plurality of knowledge, which is constructed through divergent stakeholder perceptions and interests (High & Nemes, 2007). Just as participative evaluation, participative policymaking is a self-reflective process which 'consists of diffuse, interactive processes of social learning in which modifications to existing policies and programs are made on the basis of administrative experience' (Thomas, 1998; p.373 cited in Whittaker, *et al.*, 2004).

Quantitative forms of performance measurement and formalised assessment have become necessary when agents and principles are unfamiliar with each other, therefore the stocks of social capital and trust are low, or when several organisations are involved in delivering a service (Whittaker, *et al.*, 2004). Furthermore, in the candidate countries where LEADER has been recently introduced, the high level of rurality is coupled with great territorial differences and development disparities, urging the establishment of objective local indicators in the process of local strategy development (Toliš, *et al.*, 2009). In any other case of local rural development, a centrally administered evaluation that privileges scientific knowledge compatible with formal procedures over locally constructed multi-layered knowledge and flexible processes hampers further learning and community enrichment (High & Nemes, 2007).

In order to effectively represent divergent stakeholder views and display credibility, the integration of endogenous and exogenous perspectives, as well as the involvement of internal and external evaluators are necessary (High & Nemes, 2007). However it takes time to learn the modus operandi of a substantially different policy approach and to develop an evaluation culture and trust (Diaz-Puente, *et al.*, 2008; Whittaker, *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, social capital can also be accumulated only over a long period of time, especially in the case of lagging rural areas where actors usually have the least capacity to act (Shucksmith, 2000). Again, this is particularly true in the candidate countries, where various challenges emanating from the implementation of the LEADER have been identified, highlighting that it is embedded in a wider and long-term process of structural

adaption to EU procedures. Specifically, the democratic mechanisms necessary for the implementation of bottom-up approaches have not yet reached sufficient level in the administrative apparatus and there is also a lack of specialised staff (Duric, *et al.*, 2009).

Similar to the problem of the lack of democratic mechanisms in the candidate countries, the recently joined new Central-Eastern members have had not more than twenty years since the collapse of the Soviet Union to rehearsal democratic practices. The local network relationships of the municipalities with the civil society and other non-governmental entities that form the basis of LEADER partnerships have been traditionally problematic due to the dominance of conflicting political interests over local government decision-making, the tight budget of the municipalities and not least the deficiencies of political culture (Pálné Kovács, 2001). The problematic nature of relationships between civil society and public actors was also confirmed by Kovách, (2000) not only with reference to Hungary but also to the Central-Eastern European region in general, who added another important aspect particularly relevant in the LEADER context. He argued that the strengthening of civil society and its control over the development system are necessary to offset the power of bureaucracy and the economic elite.

The process of contractual accounting, based on a relationship with the evaluator body under obligation to satisfy the requirements of the sponsor-initiative, places the act of evaluation formally within the ethos of the contractual, normally public body (Ray, 2000). The demands of contractual accounting appear to lead not only to too much bureaucracy and conservatism (Whittaker, *et al.*, 2004) but the national governments seem to have a strong hold on steering the use of these financial sources. In particular, the government rhetoric might very well differ from government action in terms of devolution of power (Maurel, 2008; Storey, 1999; Wilkinson, 1992). As Storey (1999) puts it: 'the wish to promote a more locally attuned strategy does not mean there is in reality a wish by the state to cede control of developments' (p.314). In the context of three Central-European countries that joined the EU in 2004 – Poland, Hungary and the Czech Republic –, Maurel (2008) pointed out that the implementation of the LEADER Programme has been entrusted to agricultural ministries, which apply interventionist methods. Indeed, the actors of the local government, in their new role as members of the partnerships, have transferred the traditional practices such as favouritism and paternalism, to the LAGs. This suggests that, if major decision-making power is granted to central government

stakeholders in these partnerships, it may limit the effectiveness and impede the progress of governance construction.

2.4 Conclusions

Drawing on the theoretical foundations of the notion of governance, this chapter reported on the current debates in the field of rural governance, with implications for the next steps to analyse governance principles in the context of organisational performance and tourism support. The concept of governance, although grounded on principles that date back many centuries, has separated from the concept of government and gained currency on its own right during the past three decades. The evolution of the concept presented illustratively in Figure 2.1 highlighted that the philosophical questions and principles of 'the art of governing' established by *Plato*, *Machiavelli*, *Hobbes* and *Foucault* not only determined our current understanding of, but are as well reflected in, the contemporary issues of governance.

As an upshot of geographical, political and economic trends of globalisation, governance has emerged from the restructuring of the state in modern societies. The increasing interconnectedness of the globalised world 'is perhaps most apparent in the blurring of three traditionally important distinctions: between domestic and international spheres; between policy areas; and between public, private and non-profit sectors' (Cleveland, 2002; Kettl, 2002, 2008, cited in: Bryson, 2011; p.6). In the late 20th century, the crisis of the welfare state and the Fordist mode of regulation fundamentally challenged the traditional understanding of the principal role of the state as a *provider* and brought forward an entirely new interpretation of the state as an *enabler*. Hence, governing is now increasingly the domain of non-state organisations leading to the formation of non-state market-driven governance systems, and market rule has gained currency as a governing discourse (Bernstein & Cashore, 2007; Peine & McMichael, 2005).

The principal issue emerging from contemporary discourses of 'governance-beyond-state' is the contradictory way in which this profound restructuring of political democracy has developed new arrangements of governance to empower certain actors while disempower others (Swyngedouw, 2005). The substantial democratic deficit created by

this 'Janus-faced' process is reflected in the key issues of rural governance identified throughout this review, which are presented in Table 2.1.

On the grounds of the recent academic discourse on the *raison d'être* of a new rural development paradigm, contemporary rural restructuring has been analysed from a territorial and an institutional-relational perspective. The territorial dimension has been evident in the diversification of the rural economy manifesting in differentiated rural spaces, as a result from a multifunctional approach to agriculture. Central to the institutional-relational dimension of this process is the politico-administrative apparatus that formulate, implement and co-ordinate development policies. In particular, a relational view of governance revealed that the formerly singular public source of legitimacy and accountability has been extended to heterogeneous collaborative entities such as partnerships and networks. In order to reach consensus on these values, a cultural change is required in terms of the principles upon which the relationship is based. However, the interplay between state and non-state forces suggests that the underlying socio-political productivist structures lag behind the individual components in terms of the pace and scale of change, manifesting in patterns of limited empowerment.

This lack of synchronicity confirms the relevancy of the basic assumption of the 'performance' component, namely, that the configuration of governance principals in the implementation process influences the organisational performance of local development organisations, which in turn impact upon the directions of rural development. Having looked at the background theory of the 'performance' component, the next chapter will focus on the theoretical underpinning of the 'support' component: community tourism planning.

Chapter 3

Community Tourism Planning

3.1 Introduction

In this thesis the focus is entirely on the perspectives of local development organisations on governance principals. These actors are but one group of stakeholders from the local policy arena constituting the supply-side of tourism at destinations. Local developers are indirect stakeholders, in that their principal goals may not be directly concerned with, or designed principally for, tourism development. Yet tourism is generally present, though at varying levels depending on the importance of tourism in their region, as one area of their community development activity. Saxena (2008) defined them as 'resource controllers', 'who operate mainly in the non-profit sector and (...) exert ownership, management or service provision control on many natural and cultural resources for tourism' (p.235). While according to Saxena's definition these resources are, typically, cultural centres, museums and historic buildings, local developers exert control over public funds. Referring to Getz & Jamal (1994)'s definition, the rationale for the involvement of these groups in collaborative tourism planning arises from 'having direct bearing on resource allocation' (p.198).

Being primarily local developers, these actors are, at the same time, community members, who simultaneously influence, and are influenced by, development. Focusing on their perspectives explicitly imply their involvement, which in turn requires a theoretical underpinning drawing on community tourism planning and development. The purpose of this chapter is therefore to critically review, and to identify, the main conceptual building blocks of community tourism planning, in order to understand the rationale, objectives, practices and key issues of community involvement.

3.2 Definition of constituting concepts

Essential to the interpretation of this complex term, is to evoke the discourses revolving around its constituting concepts. The word '**community**' has been used as convenient shorthand for describing the residents of a particular locality or a particular group of people (Storey, 1999). A community is generally a social unit larger than a household, thus in

geographical terms, local, regional, national and international communities can be distinguished. Essentially, a community can form on the basis of shared interests/values or shared residency, but, as Storey (1999) pointed out, one is not a logical consequence of the other: 'Difficulty arises when those residents in a particular area are assumed to have mutual interests as a result of shared residency' (p.309). The twenty-first century has witnessed the separation of these two underlying assumptions by the advent of the Internet. It has brought along the demolition of geographical limitations and the rise of virtual communities, in which the basis of social cohesion is mutual interests or values and not shared residency. The concept of community is, therefore not only interpreted in different ways in different scientific areas such as biology, sociology psychology and anthropology, but it is also not a static term. Citing Dalby & Mackenzie (1997), Storey (1999) concluded that 'community may be better understood as a political and social process rather than a taken-for-granted social geographic entity'.

Indeed, **planning** is also a process; specifically, it is a systematic process of action and thought for producing a plan (Appiah-Opoku, 2010; Costa, 1996). There is a strong element of predictability in planning, because it attempts to envision and organise the future to achieve certain objectives (Inskeep, 1991). At the most fundamental level, planning intertwines our everyday human life, for 'consciously or otherwise, an individual's life is a series of planned activities' (Costa, 1996, p.16). Hence, planning can also cover a wide variety of areas other than territorial planning, ranging from sociology to architecture and economics. According to the Encyclopedia of Geography (Appiah-Opoku, 2010) planning is 'intended to contribute to effective decision making for the welfare and integrity of communities and the sustainability of the natural environment. It involves forethought and the judicious or systematic use of scarce resources to attain a desired goal. The primary objective of planning is to make an informed decision.' Thus, planning can be considered as the process of making informed decisions about the objectives and method of development.

Planning, just as community, is a dynamic concept which has been substantially influenced and continuously shaped by the changing historical settings. Costa (1996) discusses in details the emerging local planning paradigms with a major focus on the twentieth century, and points out that up to the 1970s planning was viewed as the implication of scientific methods to policymaking, while nowadays it is rather considered as 'a process for determining future action through a consequence of choices' or, with other

words, as an activity 'concerned with anticipating and regulating change in a system' (Faludi, 1973; Murphy, 1985; cited in Costa, 1996). This analysis further highlighted, with reference to the previous chapter (Chapter 2.2.2 on the contemporary approaches to governance theory), that the very same political ideologies that have historically shaped the countries' political structures have been reflected in the types and methods of planning applied. Notably, considering the level of state intervention as a theoretical continuum, the type of planning can vary between two extreme poles: central or total planning on one hand, used in centralised political and economic systems such as state socialism in the former Soviet Union, and spontaneous order created by free market mechanisms represented by (neo)liberalism, which aims to replace state intervention with monitoring by feedback.

The ultimate goal of planning is **development**, which is also a dynamic term, considering that it implies *change*. In fact, it is interrelated not only with planning but also with community, because the change induced by development is intended to foster the improvement of groups of people, that is, a (given) community. As defined by Kulkarni & Rajan (1991, p.102, cited in Walsh, 1996): development is 'an organised and articulated effort of a community to empower itself in the context and conditions of its collective existence'. It is a multi-dimensional process, through which society seeks to achieve a variety of objectives. In particular, it involves social, economic and political processes to achieve economic, social, cultural, political and environmental objectives, which may be at times in conflict (Walsh, 1996). Thus, as pointed out by Walsh (1996), development is partly directed at the establishment of procedures to reduce and ameliorate potential conflicts of development objectives. Storey (1999) emphasises that the consideration of development rather than a series of concrete development goals implies the notion of sustainability. On this basis, clear distinction can be made between short-term improvements in living conditions and development as a synonym for sustainable and strategic process (Hoggart & Buller, 1987). Thus, common to both of the terms planning and development, is the implication of the dimension of time, through the notion of sustainability.

Based on a literature review of local development models Walsh (1996) identified three common features as interrelated rationales for local or, as often used interchangeably, community development. These are (1) to improve local capacity; (2) to facilitate empowerment; (3) to overcome market failures. It is however often necessary to undertake

planning for areas larger than a single community, which may or may not have well-defined political boundaries (Appiah-Opoku, 2010). In fact, the effects of development and the interrelationships of socioeconomic and natural processes in a community are transmitted through space regardless of political or administrative frontiers (Appiah-Opoku, 2010).

As defined by one of the pioneers of the theory of regional planning, John Friedmann: 'Regional planning is concerned with the process of formulating and clarifying social objectives in the ordering of activities in supra-urban space' (Friedmann, 1963) – that is, in any area which is larger than a single settlement (Wannop, 1997), though it may be further extended to apply to any area which is larger than a single settlement, either a city, a town or a village. The concept of regionality is nevertheless ultimately bound to that of locality. In contemplating how activities should be distributed in space to meet social objectives, Friedmann (1963) further argued that this formulation links regional planning to its roots in the pure theory of location (Friedmann & Weaver, 1979), and the theoretical underpinning of regional planning has been established in the theories of location and spatial organisation (von Böventer, 1964).

While community, development and planning are concepts with a strong spatial connotation, the last concept to discuss here as a composite of the main issue under scrutiny, namely, **tourism**, is an inherently spatial concept, considering that it involves temporal displacement of individuals outside the usual place of residence. As Mathieson & Wall (1982) put it, tourism is: 'a temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in their destinations and the facilities created to cater for their needs' (p.1). It is nevertheless a rather elusive and problematic concept which lacks a normative definition that could capture the complexity of the term. This is attributed to the fact that tourism is not merely an activity but a sector and an industry, which involves a wide variety of actors on the supply and demand-side of tourism. Although there is a consensus that tourism involves some form of travel, there is no agreement neither about 'temporality' of travel nor the 'normality' or 'usualness' of the place of residency (Hall, Williams, & Lew, 2004).

From the practitioners' viewpoint, the convenient definition may be that of the UN World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), which defines tourism as 'the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one

consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes' (WTO, 1991, cited in Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006). This is clearly a demand-side perspective, which understands tourism as an activity of the tourist. The UNWTO provided certain technical criteria of tourism: while the maximum length of stay was defined as one year, the minimum length of stay should be one night, for visitors who do not stay overnight at a destination are referred to as 'excursionists'. Considering the 'usual environment' of tourists, the UNWTO recommendation is 160 km (Cooper, *et al.*, 2008), though the appropriateness of this distance is still disputable in view of the subjective nature of distance and the usual environment for people in different parts of the world.

From the scientific point of view, the existing definitions generally emphasise one key characteristic of tourism, thus these conceptualisations are criticised for failing to incorporate other, equally important aspects. Such approaches define tourism from a supply-side view (Smith, 1988), from a systems approach (Leiper, 1979) or from a community approach (Murphy, 1985); emphasise tourism impacts (Jafari, 1977; Mathieson & Wall, 1982) or the relational aspect of tourism (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006). Arguably, the problem of defining tourism is caused by conceptual deficiencies, since they have been created to satisfy particular needs and situations (Cooper, *et al.*, 1993; cited in Costa, 1996). Thus, as recognised by Smith (1988) and Cooper, *et al.*, (1993), more cohesion and consensus is yet to be achieved in order to reach scientific maturation and to be able to define explicit strategic aims at the conceptual level of tourism.

As it could be seen, the constituting concepts of community tourism planning and development are interrelated and dynamic in nature. Pertaining to the field of social sciences, these concepts describe societal processes. In social sciences, there is no such thing as a unique approach to the same problem, because the context and the observer of the problem determine its explanation (Costa, 1996). Hence, understanding stems from the constant change triggered by the evolution of society. Accordingly, in order to embrace the concept of community tourism planning, in the next section its evolution will be discussed.

3.3 The emergence of a community focus

Following World War II, three early stages of the development of national tourism policies could be distinguished: (1) the facilitation of travel, (2) the promotion of tourism, and (3) the recognition of tourism as an industry in the 1960s (Getz, 1986). This latter stage has attracted considerable attention in tourism planning, but mostly from the view of maximising economic benefits (Getz, 1986). These stages reflected the rapid expansion of the tourism industry after World War II, which culminated in the mass tourism boom of the 1960s. Illustratively, world international arrivals increased by 174% only between 1950 and 1960; by 63% between 1960-65, and by 47% between 1965-70, showing that even with a slight decrease, tourist arrivals remained steadily expanding (Costa, 1996, based on WTO, 1995).

The community approach to tourism emerged in the late 1970s from the recognition that behind the outstanding growth rates of international tourism after World War II, the *ad-hoc*, uncontrolled development focusing primarily on economic and business considerations has been contentious and at times destructive. It has become evident that tourism is a major agent of transformation, which, wherever occurs, changes the society and its environment (Murphy, 1983). Since the communities are the destination of most travellers, it is the communities themselves where tourism occurs (Blank, 1989). Thus, the impacts of tourism, both positive and negative, are most readily apparent at the level of the destination community (Timothy, 2002). However, while not every aspect of mass tourism has been negative, relatively few of its positive impacts have been directly beneficial for the communities (Timothy, 2002). As a response, 'there have been many calls for making tourism planning more sensitive to non-economic issues and moving it away from its traditional, narrow focus on development' as concluded by Getz (1986) in his analysis of over 150 tourism planning models (p. 32). In particular, a shift occurred in views of participation in tourism planning, which has been apparent in the literature between early and late 1970s' works.

Notably, Murphy (1985) pointed out that Gunn (1972; 1979) placed emphasis on the economic and physical problems of tourism. However, a major difference between these two publications was that the earlier reflected the traditional view on the central role of 'expert planners', while in the latter some critical arguments have been put forward for the involvement of more actors, not only those who are experts but also those who are

affected. In particular, Gunn argues that: 'Early in all tourism planning it is essential to identify the full range of actors, those who have the ability to make changes in the development and management of the tourism system. The decisions of many governmental and private organisations are important to tourism and maybe not all can actively participate in planning. Even so, it is the responsibility of the planner to be comprehensive in his assessment of tourism development actors. Lack of this has been major deterrent to implementations of plans generally' (Gunn, 1979; cited in Murphy, 1985 p.172). By the same token, de Kadt (1979) suggested a community-controlled, strategic planning that aims to maximise social benefits for the hosts. Getz (1986) and McIntosh (1977) defined the goals of tourism development within a community framework, which are, in particular, to raise the living standard of local people through the economic benefits of tourism; to develop infrastructure for both visitors and residents, and to ensure that tourism development is well-suited to the characteristics of the area (Murphy, 1983).

3.4 Ecological model based on systems theory

It is specifically the argument of public participation on the basis of which Murphy (1985) sharply criticised previous planning approaches, in particular the *Product's Analysis Sequence for Outdoor Leisure Planning* or the PASOLP model (Baud-Bovy, 1982; Baud-Bovy & Lawson, 1977). This model was widely used by tourism planners in the 1970s and early 1980s as planning has gradually shifted from non-integrated to more integrative approaches (Marcouiller, 1997). While it can be considered as an early example of integrated approaches for recognising the interdependencies between the tourism sector and the regional economic, social, environmental, cultural and social resources, it fails to provide opportunities for citizen participation. Murphy (1985) is quite explicit in expressing his opinion: 'Residents must put up with the congestion, put on "smiles", and live with the physical development, but have little or no say in the decision-making process that will inevitably affect their community and way of life' (p.163).

As a pioneer of the community approach, Murphy (1983; 1985) developed the earliest community-based model, with the aim to establish a conceptual alternative to the economic orientation of tourism planning. In his ecological approach, tourism is viewed as a resource industry, which forms part of the community's ecosystem. The assumption is that tourism is, just as ecosystems, based on interactions between living organisms and

non-living substances – that is, visitors and physical amenities – in an exchange process of resources between sectors. In a system as such, the destination community does not only provide resources (community assets, public goods and hospitality), but the industry also returns from the benefits to the community so that both the industry and its community base can mutually benefit from the relationship. The aim of community tourism development, in this context, is to successfully merge the business considerations and community aspirations (Murphy, 1988).

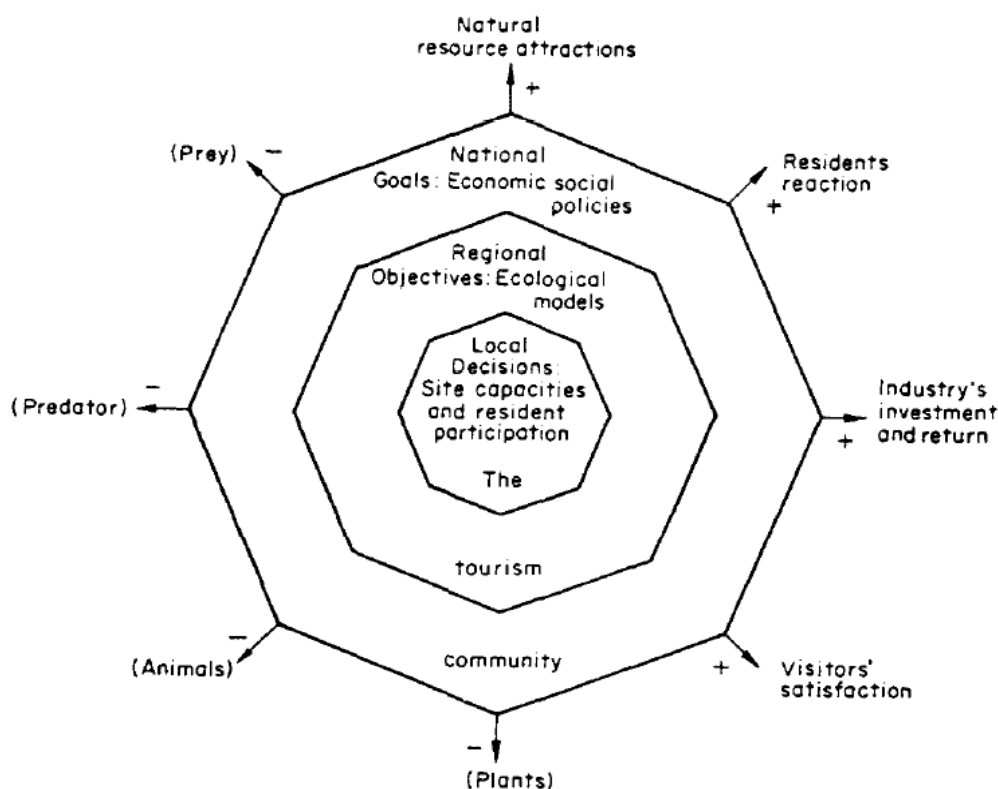
Ecological communities are hierarchically structured, because each community is characterised by an ecological potential based on its own carrying capacity, represented by ‘the number of organisms and activities a local ecosystem can sustain’ (Murphy, 1983, p.185). Murphy argues that the spatial characteristics, including the associated hierarchical structure, as well as the temporal characteristics of an ecological community can help planners to define the scale of development most appropriate for their management purposes and to incorporate tourism seasonality.

Accordingly, there are different development objectives assigned at the national, regional and local levels of tourism planning, as presented in Figure 3.1. At the national scale the main concerns are economic and social issues, such as the balance of payments and socioeconomic problems of lagging areas. At the regional level, attention is turned to more specific issues, in particular environmental concerns and at the local level the residents’ interests and destination carrying capacity come to the fore. The four components of an ecosystem, namely, plants, animals, predators and preys are, in the tourism system, equated with the natural tourist attractions of the community, local residents’ reaction to tourism development, the industry’s investment and return from developing the tourist resources and visitor satisfaction, respectively. The balance between the various components and scales in the ecological community model is of key importance, because it ensures competitive destination development.

Taking into account the complexity of the multidimensional tourism industry within a community framework, the ecological approach further draws on, just as the previously mentioned PASOLP model, systems theory, which is mainly concerned with complex systems comprising of highly interdependent components (McLoughlin, 1969). Based on Ashby’s (1956) and Bertalanffy’s (1962) work introducing General System Theory (GST), the system perspective emphasises that the understanding of complex systems emerges

from the dynamic interrelationships between the elements of the system (Formica & Kothari, 2008). Systems evolve over time through constant interactions with their environment. The systems approach integrates human activity, communication, space and time in the organisational model, which, according to Murphy, offers two advantages: 'First, its flexibility enables it to be applied at various levels with a different emphasis at each level. Second, the concept of continuous monitoring ties together the twin objectives of planning and management' (pp.180-190). This is because the interactions between humans and the environment in an ecosystem need to be constantly monitored in order to detect when areas or people are increasingly exposed to stress.

Figure 3.1: Ecological model of tourism development



Source: Murphy, 1983

Due to this immediacy of community interaction with tourism at the local level, and the opportunity to coordinate and integrate individual features and complementary attractions at the regional level, Murphy (1988), based on Krippendorf (1982) and Murphy (1985) argued that the most appropriate scale for tourism planning is a combination of the local

and regional levels. In this community-driven planning approach 'the community comes into focus through the two lenses of a local area within its regional setting' (Murphy, 1988, p.99). Its key feature is community workshops, which, on one hand, allow for information provision to the public; as (Keogh, 1990) pointed out, the basic aim of any type of public consultation is information provision, for the lack of sufficient information about development proposals may negatively affect the general attitudes towards tourism projects. On the other hand, community forums allow for bringing together community and industry representatives and thus the pooling of interests in order to establish synergistic partnerships (Murphy, 1988).

The result of the process is a 'community tourism product', which is an amalgam of resources a community wishes to present to the tourism market (Simmons, 1994). The underlying argument is two-fold: not only the impacts of tourism can be most immediately felt at the local level (as mentioned earlier), but the local community is an essential ingredient in the 'hospitality atmosphere' of a destination (Simmons, 1994). As Murphy (1985) puts it: 'The product and image that intermediaries package and sell is a destination experience, and as such creates an industry that is highly dependent on the goodwill and cooperation of host communities...It is the citizen who must live with the cumulative outcome of such developments and needs to have greater input into how his community is packaged and sold as a tourist product' (p.16).

3.5 Sustainable approaches to community tourism planning

3.5.1 Defining sustainable tourism development

Besides the recognition of interrelationships between the physical environment and tourism in an ecological understanding of the tourism system, the second conceptual building block of community tourism planning is the notion of sustainability, which has simultaneously been the rationale, the guiding tenet and the principal aim of community tourism development. Tourism planning based on the principle of sustainability is perhaps the most comprehensive and widely accepted approach (Ruhanen, 2004), and one of the mainstream areas of tourism research (for a detailed review on the conceptualisation and literature of sustainable tourism development see: Berno & Bricker, 2001; Butler, 1999; Hardy, Beeton, & Pearson, 2002; Sharpley, 2000; Swarbrooke, 1999), particularly from the

establishment of the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* in 1993 with an explicit focus on sustainability. It is also an umbrella term used to include much of the community planning practices addressed in this chapter such as participation techniques and the implication of stakeholder theory, the present review is therefore confined to discuss approaches with the aim to implement sustainability principles in community tourism planning.

In the first editorial article of *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* the origins of sustainable tourism were traced back to the publication of the book *Ecological Principles for Economic Development Sustainable* in 1973 (Bramwell & Lane, 1993), though the concept of sustainable development was, for the first time formally defined by the Brundtland Commission's report '*Our Common Future*' as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (WCED, 1987). Of particular relevance is the role of the concept in tourism, where the contradiction between tourism development, community development and environmental conservation has for long been apparent, and the continuous interest of tourism geographers in the relationships between tourism and the environment has been increasingly interweaved by issues of sustainability (Hall & Lew, 1998 ; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Pearce, 1989, 1995; Richards & Hall, 2003; Wall, 1997).

The contradiction in the concept of sustainable tourism development is twofold: as Harrison (1996) contended, development is clearly a value-laden, while sustainability is allegedly a non-operational concept. That is to say, while development is generally associated with growth, increase, and improvement, sustainability refers to conservation, preservation and maintenance. Furthermore, as mentioned above, sustainable tourism has been interpreted simultaneously as the process and outcome of development (Berno & Bricker, 2001). Consequently, both the definition and operationalisation of the concept has proven difficult. There are literally hundreds of definitions of sustainability (Cooper, 2008), as well as a wide range of definitions of sustainable tourism development which generally fall into two categories: those with a predominantly economic focus, and those which consider tourism as one component of wider sustainable development policies (Sharpley, 2000). A comprehensive review of these definitions was provided by Swarbrooke (1999) and Butler, (1999). Following Ritchie & Crouch (2003), reference is made here to the definition given by Swarbrooke (1999), who contends that sustainable tourism is 'economically viable, but does not destroy the resources on which the future of

tourism will depend, notably the physical environment, and the social fabric of the host community' (p.13).

In recognition of a spectrum of views on the concept and the limitations of existing definitions, Hunter (1997) suggested that sustainable tourism be considered as an adaptive, over-arching paradigm, within which several development pathways may be legitimised in accordance with case-specific circumstances. Given the variety of antecedent conditions at actual or potential tourism destinations, he advanced four models of sustainable tourism as conceptual underpinnings for tourism development policy formulation. The models (tourism imperative, product-led, environment-led, and neotenuous tourism) can be distinguished by two axes: the level of interpretation of sustainable development (ranging from very weak to very strong) and the extent to which tourism development represents the interests of tourists and tourism operators over the first axis.

In his concluding remarks he argues, by pointing out a major issue worthwhile for future examination, that the different pathways of sustainable tourism development may require different levels of community participation, considering that ecological conservation objectives may not be compatible with community desires (Stocking & Perkin, 1992) and the various levels of community participation (Pretty & Pimbert, 1995). His sustainable planning models were adapted by Bramwell & Sharman (2001) and integrated with the analytical framework developed by these authors (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999) to assess the extent to which power imbalances are reduced within the community participation process. The combined use of these frameworks was identified by the authors as a useful method to support understanding of the approach to sustainable tourism found in a particular destination.

3.5.2 Incorporating sustainability principles in the community tourism planning process

A review of the existing definitions suggests that at the most fundamental level, inherent in the concept of sustainability are the two fundamental characteristics of sustainability: the long-term focus and community participation. More precisely, as Cooper (2008) puts it, the key principles of sustainability are: 'appropriate consideration of the long-term economic, environmental, socio-cultural and political well-being of all stakeholders, and that to

achieve such long-term goals requires the engagement of all of the stakeholders involved in the production and consumption process' (pp.218-219).

This holistic conceptualisation was first addressed in the tourism context by Inskeep's (1991) landmark book entitled: "*Tourism planning: an integrated and sustainable approach*", which, together with Mathieson & Wall (1982) and Murphy's pioneer work laid the foundations of community tourism planning. Inskeep's major contribution has been the recognition that sustainable tourism development can be achieved by integrating environmental and socio-cultural considerations into the planning process, and as such, his book is also one of the three essential texts establishing a conceptual base for sustainable community tourism planning. In his interpretation, tourism planning is seen as a continuous, incremental and flexible process, which is evolving by adjustments made through monitoring and feedback, while maintaining the basic objectives and policies of tourism development. Sustainability is ensured by combining environmental carrying capacity and community involvement in the process.

The integrated approach, or sometimes also referred to as comprehensive planning (Timothy, 1998), defines two levels of integration. First, tourism is viewed as an interrelated system embedded in a geographical area, which requires a comprehensive approach covering all aspects of tourism development. Gunn (1994), in accordance with Inskeep (1991) argues that all elements of the regional tourism system, including institutions, facilities and services (transportation, accommodation, promotion, information provision, etc.) should be considered during the planning process to avoid conflicts between sub-sectors. Timothy (1998) highlights that this notion has received criticism (Hudson, 1979; Mitchell, 1989) suggesting that it is impossible to consider all elements simultaneously in the planning process. At the second level of integration, tourism is implemented in the overall area development patterns, and tourism planning is integrated in the overall development strategy of the region or the country. This approach explicitly incorporates the regional economic, social, political and environmental contexts within which tourism operates, which allows for an assessment of natural, built-environment and cultural resources in the planning process (Gunn, 1994; Inskeep, 1991; Marcouiller, 1997).

Marcouiller (1997) summarised the specific features presented above and identified three concepts associated with the integrated planning approach. First, it entails *calibration*, which is a continuous incorporation of new ideas, concepts and practices based on

surveys and analysis; second, drawing on general systems analysis, it views tourism as an *interrelated system* of all regional tourism elements (as discussed under Section 3.4) and third, it involves *complementarity*, that is, the recognition of the tourism system's external ramifications.

There is however one more essential element of the integrated approach to complement the above three, which is *cooperation*. Timothy (1998) asserted that in order for successful integrative tourism development to occur, cooperation between the various planning sectors must exist. Based on this argument he developed a normative planning model which identifies at least four types of cooperation, between government agencies, between various administrative levels of government, between same-level autonomous polities, and between the public and private sectors. By applying this framework to a case context, the level and practices of, and constraints to, cooperation can be identified.

Further developing this planning approach Simpson (2001) integrated sustainability, stakeholder participation and strategic orientation in his tourism planning model to explore the role of 'stakeholder driven strategic planning' in implementing the principles of sustainability. He developed a quantitative instrument for the evaluation of the extent to which three domains of stakeholder participation (stakeholder identity, stakeholder consultation, scope of participation) and three domains of strategic orientation (visions and values, situational factors, goals and objectives and implementation and review) are addressed during the planning process. The measurement items had been identified based on the literature review of the three areas coupled with a survey conducted with an expert panel, and the instrument was tested on 26 local tourism planning strategies in New Zealand. A tentative set of qualitative conclusions were drawn on the sub-national level of tourism planning in New Zealand, and study replication was suggested in alternative geographical settings.

In response to the argument that there is in fact a gap between sustainability doctrine and its 'real world' application (Simpson, 2001; Trousdale, 1999), Ruhanen (2004) applied Simpson's (2001) instrument in 30 local tourism strategies in Queensland, Australia, and found that the plans generally had not met the sustainability planning criteria. Wallace (1996) reported on similar results in the state of Amazonas, Brazil, indicating that ecotourism principles had only been partly implemented by ecotourism operators. In particular, the principles that ecotourism has contributed to conservation and management

of natural areas; maximised the early and long-term participation of local people and provided special opportunities for them and ecotourism employees to utilise and learn about the natural areas, received the lowest scores in the evaluation by operators. Subsequently, these principles were not recognised as goals to be achieved, even though they receive increasing attention in other areas. This is clearly a lost opportunity to mitigate the negative impacts of tourism which are most apparent at the local level (Ruhanen, 2004). Furthermore, these results demonstrate that there is a gap between the theoretical advancement of sustainability principles and their implementation in practice, and draw attention to the need for a shift from seeking definitive articulation of the concept to more pragmatic discussions regarding implementation (Fyall & Garrod, 1997; Robinson, 1999).

More recently, an integrated dynamic model was introduced by Patterson, *et al.* (2004) developed on a four-fold theoretical basis drawing on general systems theory (Ashby, 1956), game-theoretic and agent-based modelling (Luna & Stefansson, 2000) and static-learning theory as reviewed by Grant & Thompson (1997). The model aims to conceptualise the impacts of different tourism development strategies over an extended time-scale of several decades, accounting for interactions and feedback loops between ecology, economy and society. As such, the model adopts an ecological economics approach (Costanza, *et al.*, 1997) in tourism, which serves as the fourth theoretical underpinning for the model, and is as well one aspect of its novelty in tourism research, in addition to using the modelling environment primarily as an accounting tool to track the interactions of a large set of heterogeneous data (both qualitative and quantitative).

Ecological economics is a trans-disciplinary field of economics, which addresses the interdependence and co-evolution of human economies and natural ecosystems over time and space (Xepapadeas, 2008). It has been distinguished from conventional economics and conventional ecology, in the basic world view, time and space frame, subject of analysis and development goal (See: Table 1.1 on p.5 in Costanza, 1991). Most notably, ecological economics considers the whole ecosystem, as opposed to traditional economics which focuses on humans, and ecology which focuses on non-humans only. While the space frame of traditional approaches ranges from local to international, ecological economics adopts a global view. Lastly, while the principal aim of economics is the growth of national economy, and that of ecology is the survival of species, ecological

economics adopts an integrated view and is concerned with the sustainability of ecological-economic systems.

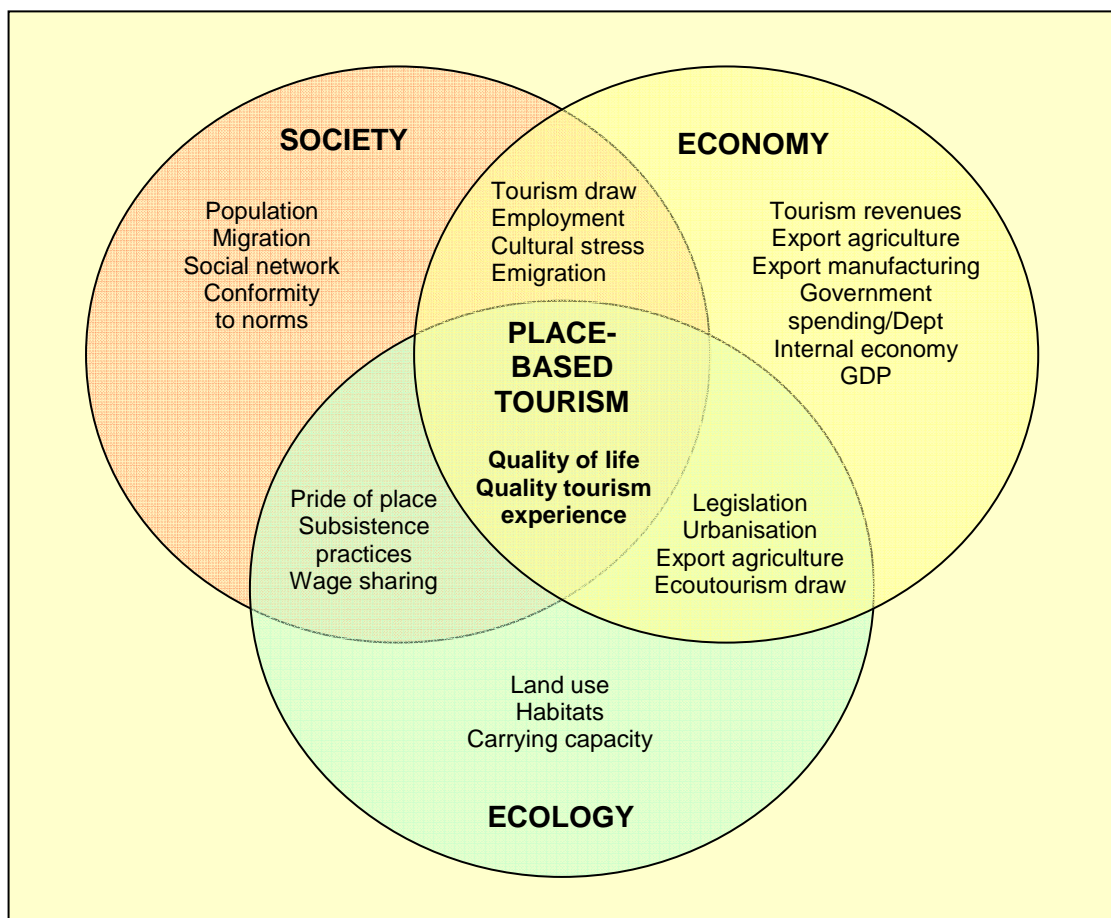
In this view, there are three pillars of sustainability (social, environmental and economic), which are organised in a way that emphasises that economy and society are subsets of the global planetary ecological system. Patterson, *et al.* (2004) adopted this model in the context of the Commonwealth of Dominica due to the prominence of tourism as a development concern for the island, to present how the three indigenous domains intersect in the area of tourism (Figure 3.2). The model suggests an area-based development approach with the ultimate goal of improved quality of life conditions for the host communities and enhanced tourism experience for the tourists. Besides its comprehensive view, a major strength of the model is that it allows for a focus on one part of the system without overlooking the complex interactions which make up the whole system.

In further reviewing the approaches for incorporating sustainability principles in the community tourism planning process, Sharpley (2000) explored the level of theoretical division between sustainable tourism and its parental paradigm, sustainable development by developing a conceptual model of sustainable development, incorporating the fundamental principals, development and sustainability objectives and requirements for sustainable development against which sustainable tourism can be compared (Table 3. 1). This framework can be used by managers to implement a sustainable tourism philosophy in the design of development proposals.

Lastly, Bramwell, *et al.*, (1996) identified a set of principles of sustainable tourism management, which are presented in Figure 3.3. These principals are largely process-oriented and present how sustainable tourism might be achieved (Swarbrooke, 1999). While some of these considerations overlap with other conceptualisations and general definitions (long-term approach, equity and fairness and stakeholder consultation), this set of principles approaches sustainability from the limitations of development. In particular, it recognises that there are limitations to tourism growth that should be defined in the specific development context, and tourism should be managed within these established confines.

Closely related to this point, it highlights that a long – term approach means that the range of goals that can be achieved in the short – and medium – term may be limited. Furthermore, it recognises that there are often conflicts over the use of resources, and that the potential gains and losses of different individuals and stakeholder groups should be taken into account while balancing the costs and benefits.

Figure 3.2: An integrated dynamic tourism model of the Commonwealth of Dominica: economic, ecological and social factors



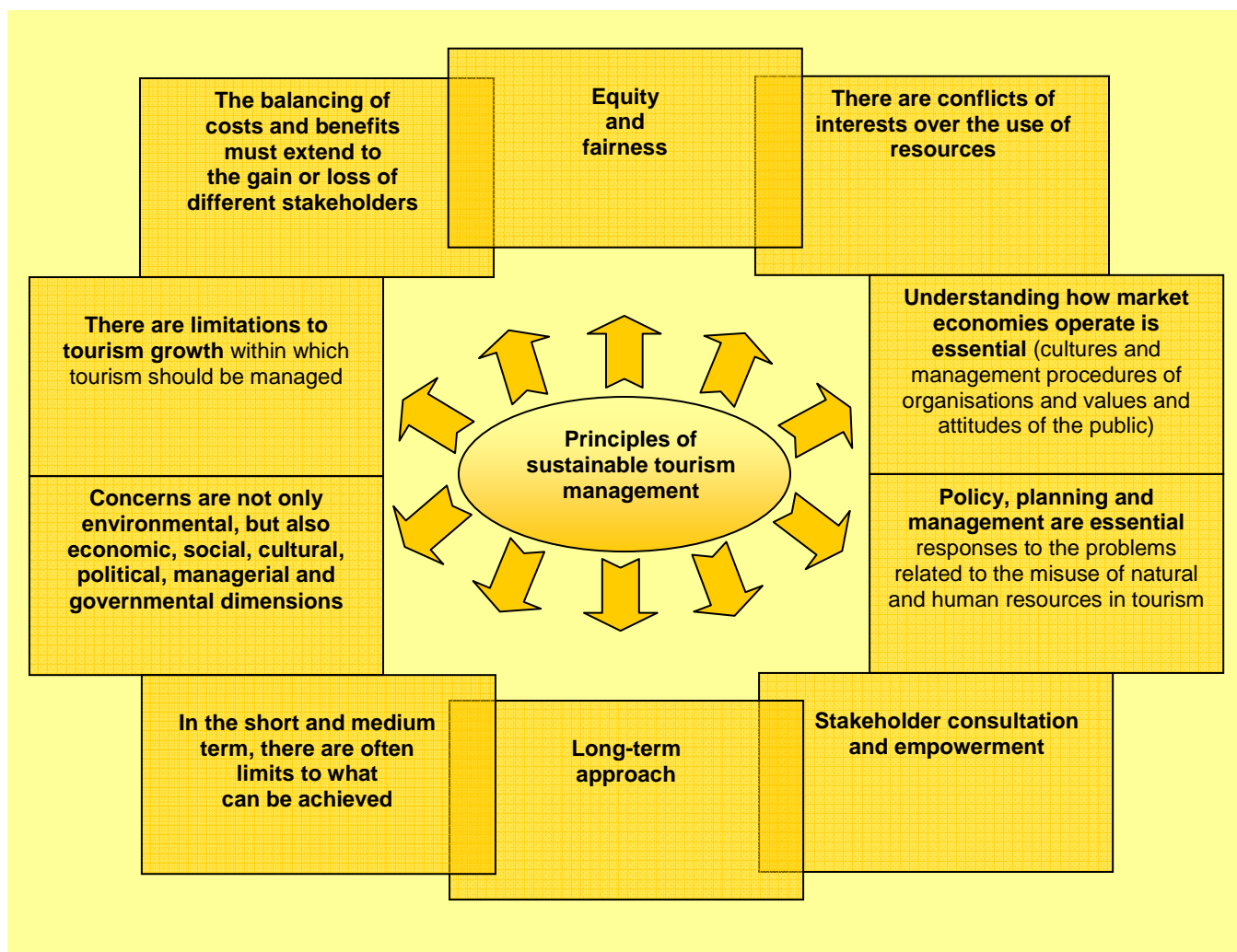
Source: Patterson, *et al.* (2004)

Table 3.1: A model of sustainable tourism development: principles and objectives

Fundamental principles	<i>Holistic approach:</i> development and environmental issues integrated within a global social
	<i>Futurity:</i> focus on long-term capacity for continuance of the global ecosystem
	<i>Equity:</i> development that is fair and equitable and which provides opportunities for access to and use of resources for all members of all societies, both in the present and future
Development objectives	Improvement of the quality of life for all people: education, life expectancy, opportunities to fulfil potential
	Satisfaction of basic needs; concentration on the nature of what is provided rather than income
	Self-reliance: political freedom and local decision making for local needs
	Endogenous development
Sustainability objectives	Sustainable population levels
	Minimal depletion of non-renewable natural resources
	Sustainable use of renewable resources
	Pollution emissions within the assimilative capacity of the environment
Requirements for sustainable development	Adoption of a new social paradigm relevant to sustainable living
	International and national political and economic systems dedicated to equitable development and resource use
	Technological systems that can search continuously for new solutions to environmental problems
	Global alliance facilitating integrated development policies at local, national and international levels

Source: Sharpley, 2000, referenced from Streeten, 1977; WCED, 1987; Pearce *et al.*, 1989; IUCN/UNEP/WWF, 1991).

Figure 3.3: Principles of sustainable tourism management



Source: Author, based on Bramwell, *et al.* (1996)

3.5.3 Performance indicators

Butler (1999) draws attention to Bramwell, *et al.*'s (1996) argument, i. e., that sustainable tourism management is not exclusively concerned with issues of the physical environment, but there is a parallel emphasis on the human environment. This argument has led to the recognition of the principle of multidimensionality, which is reflected in various sustainable tourism development models. Traditionally, tourism has been considered to include economic, social and physical dimensions (Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Runyan & Wu, 1979). However, following research indicated that in order to embrace the complexity of sustainable tourism, more dimensions should be considered. For example, Bramwell, *et al.* (1996) identified seven dimensions as presented in Figure 3.3, Ritchie & Crouch (2003)'s

competitive destination model involve four dimensions (ecological, economic, socio-cultural and political/governance) as four primary pillars of sustainability. Most recently, Choi & Sirakaya (2006) suggested six dimensions: economic, social, cultural, ecological, political and technological.

Butler's (1999) review complements Bramwell, *et al.*'s (1996) model with one more essential element of sustainable tourism management: monitoring. He highlighted that the need to develop performance indicators had been referred to by various authors (Getz, 1982; Gunn, 1994; Inskeep, 1991; WTO, 1993 cited in Butler, 1999). While all of the above dimensions may not be of equal importance, environmental concerns are often in a pivotal position among sustainability issues. However, in consideration of the multidimensional nature of sustainable community tourism, Butler (1999) and Ritchie & Crouch (2003) stress the importance that these dimensions be included in a framework for monitoring and evaluation. According to Butler, 'to assess the real impacts of tourism and the level of sustainability achieved requires in-depth longitudinal research and environmental, economic and social auditing' (p.19). Furthermore, he argues that without sustainability indicators, the term 'sustainable' is meaningless. Indeed, the UN World Tourism Organisation's conceptual definition of sustainable tourism includes this element. The rationale is that sustainable tourism is a continuous process, which 'requires constant monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures whenever necessary' (WTO, 2004).

However, monitoring and measuring sustainable community tourism in particular, have attracted considerably less attention (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006) and the lack of sustainability indicators was identified as one of the key issues of sustainable tourism (Swarbrooke, 1999).

3.5.3.1 Measuring community impacts of tourism

The need for monitoring was first raised by Mathieson & Wall (1982) in the context of community impacts of tourism, and since then measuring host community perceptions and attitudes has become one of the most well studied, systematic areas of tourism research (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009) (For a comprehensive literature review see: Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Harrill, 2004; Jurowski, 1994; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009a).

The basic premise of community impacts research is that the success and sustainability of any development depends on the favourable reception and active support of the host community (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Jamal & Getz, 1995). Understanding why residents support or oppose tourism development can help planners identifying and minimising the negative, and maximising the positive impacts in order to enhance, or at least maintain, the quality of life of the local residents (Williams & Lawson, 2001). It further allows to determine planning processes in favour of all community residents by providing planners with an aggregating data base of community perspectives and issues (Lankford & Howard, 1994; Liu & Var, 1986) and by identifying groups of people more concerned or opposed to tourism development (Lankford, 1994). As such, residents' attitudes is not only one of the most important factors contributing to the attractiveness of a destination, which indeed affects tourists' choices (Hoffman & Low, 1981, Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001 cited in Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009a), but it also informs planners about community carrying capacity, a key issue of sustainability in tourism planning and development (Allen, Long, Perdue, & Kieselbach, 1988; Butler, 1997; Coccossis, 2004; Jovicic, 2009; Korça, 1998; Long, Perdue, & Allen, 1990; Perdue, Long, & Kang, 1999). Therefore, monitoring host perceptions and attitudes is a key component of sustainable tourism (Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001).

So far, three underlying paradigms of community perceptions of tourism have been most widely used. The first is Doxey's (1975) Index of Tourist Irritation or 'Irridex' model, which suggested that as impacts from tourism increases, a community passes through a predictable sequence of reactions toward it, regressing from euphoria through apathy and irritation to antagonism (Ap & Crompton, 1993). Doxey's model was developed based on two case studies conducted in two significantly different destinations: the rapidly developing Caribbean Island of Barbados and the small Canadian town Niagara-on-the-Lake for a comparative assessment of irritation level. Doxey found that in Niagara, irritation had reached serious levels while in Barbados, the rapidly changing influx of tourists had permanently been changing the reaction of the society, which might have also reached antagonism if further unrestricted development were to continue. Shared by tourists and residents alike, there was a fundamental fear of identity loss in both destinations.

The second model is Butler's (1980) concept of tourism area life cycle (TALC), which traces back to an earlier three-stage evolution of resorts, as recalled by Getz (1992) in his

analysis on the implication of destination life cycle to tourism planning: discovery, growth and decline. Butler expanded this model to six stages to 'correspond more closely with the modern concept of a product life cycle' (p.753). In this interpretation, the stages of exploration, involvement, development and consolidation lead to either stagnation and decline or stagnation followed by rejuvenation. Getz (1992) summarises the subsequent reactions to this model and notes that the validity and generalisability of the model has not yet been proven.

Concerning the applicability of the model, it was emphasised that there are various interpretations of capacity and capacity thresholds (Debbage, 1990); that each stage in the life cycle reveals different capacity thresholds (Martin & Uysal, 1990); and that a single measure as such is insufficient to effectively cover all aspects of resort evolution (Cooper & Jackson, 1989). In line with the latter authors Getz (1992) argued that while empirical evidence corresponds closely to the destination life-cycle to a certain level, it is not useful as a forecasting tool or for strategic management of a given destination, as later stages of the evolution – consolidation, stagnation and decline – may be interwoven after reaching a certain level of maturity.

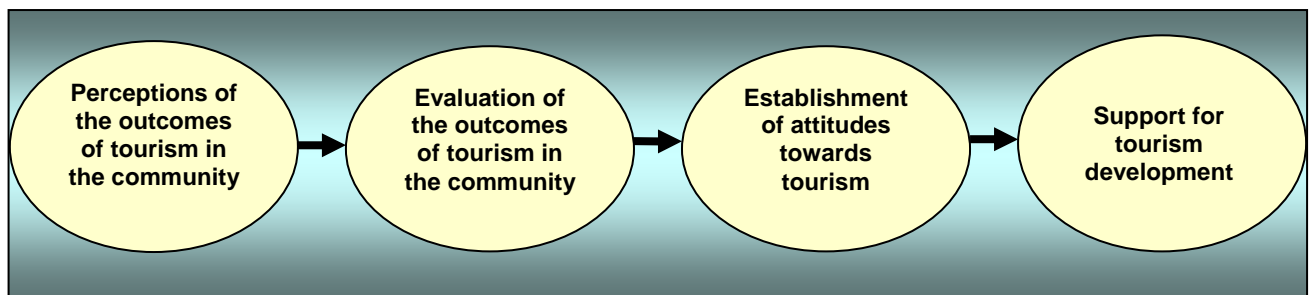
Furthermore, both models have been criticised for granting attitudes and community reactions to tourism development a degree of homogeneity (Mason & Cheyne, 2000), on the basis of various studies that reported on heterogeneity of community responses and diversity of residents' attitudes (e.g. Brougham & Butler, 1981; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Husbands, 1989; Joppe, 1996; Lawson, Williams, Young, & Cossens, 1998; Ryan & Montgomery, 1994). TALC, in particular, 'has not been found easily applicable to any given situation without modification to suit the destination's specific characteristics' (Choy, 1992; cited in Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009a; p.338).

Lastly, Ap's (1992) adaptation of Social Exchange Theory (SET) was described as the most promising underlying theory (Getz, 1994), which provides possibly the most valuable contribution to the understanding of variations in the response to tourism within communities (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997). Most fundamentally, SET views the trade of valued objects and sentiments as the foundation of social order (Jurowski, 1994; Jurowski, Uysal & Williams, 1997). It seeks to understand this exchange process of resources between individual and groups in an interaction of situation (Ap, 1992). According to SET, individuals are likely to engage in exchanges if valued rewards are perspective outcomes

of the process. That is to say, 'social actors seek mutual benefit from the exchange relationship' (Ap, 1992; p.669).

From the tourism perspective, the model assumes that the residents' ultimate goal for entering exchange relationships is to improve the community's overall standard of living (Ap, 1992). Thus, SET 'postulates that an individual's attitudes towards this industry, and subsequent level of support for its development, will be influenced by his or her evaluation of resulting outcomes in the community' (Andereck *et al.*, 2005, p.1061). The four phases of this process are illustratively presented in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4: The basic model of community perceptions on tourism based on Social Exchange Theory



Source: Author, based on Andereck *et al.* (2005)

The majority of community impacts research draw on SET to assess residents' support for tourism development (Andereck, *et al.*, 2005; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Haley, Snaith, & Miller, 2005; McGehee & Andereck, 2004), despite the fact that support for SET has been mixed in the literature; some found support while others have not been conclusive (Andereck, *et al.*, 2005). This is because, modelling residents' evaluation of perceived benefits and costs obtained in return for their services was found to be methodologically easy to design in the context of SET (Lee & Back, 2006) using quantitative survey methods.

These studies applied a-priori conceptualisation and developed hypotheses based upon SET using structural equation modelling (SEM) (Dyer, *et al.*, 2007; Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Lee & Back, 2006; Oviedo-Garcia, *et al.*, 2008; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009b; Yoon, Gursoy, & Chen, 2001) path analysis (Jurowski, 1994; Jurowski, Uysal & Williams, 1997) and regression analysis (McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Teye, Sirakaya, & Sönmez, 2002; Wang & Pfister, 2008) to

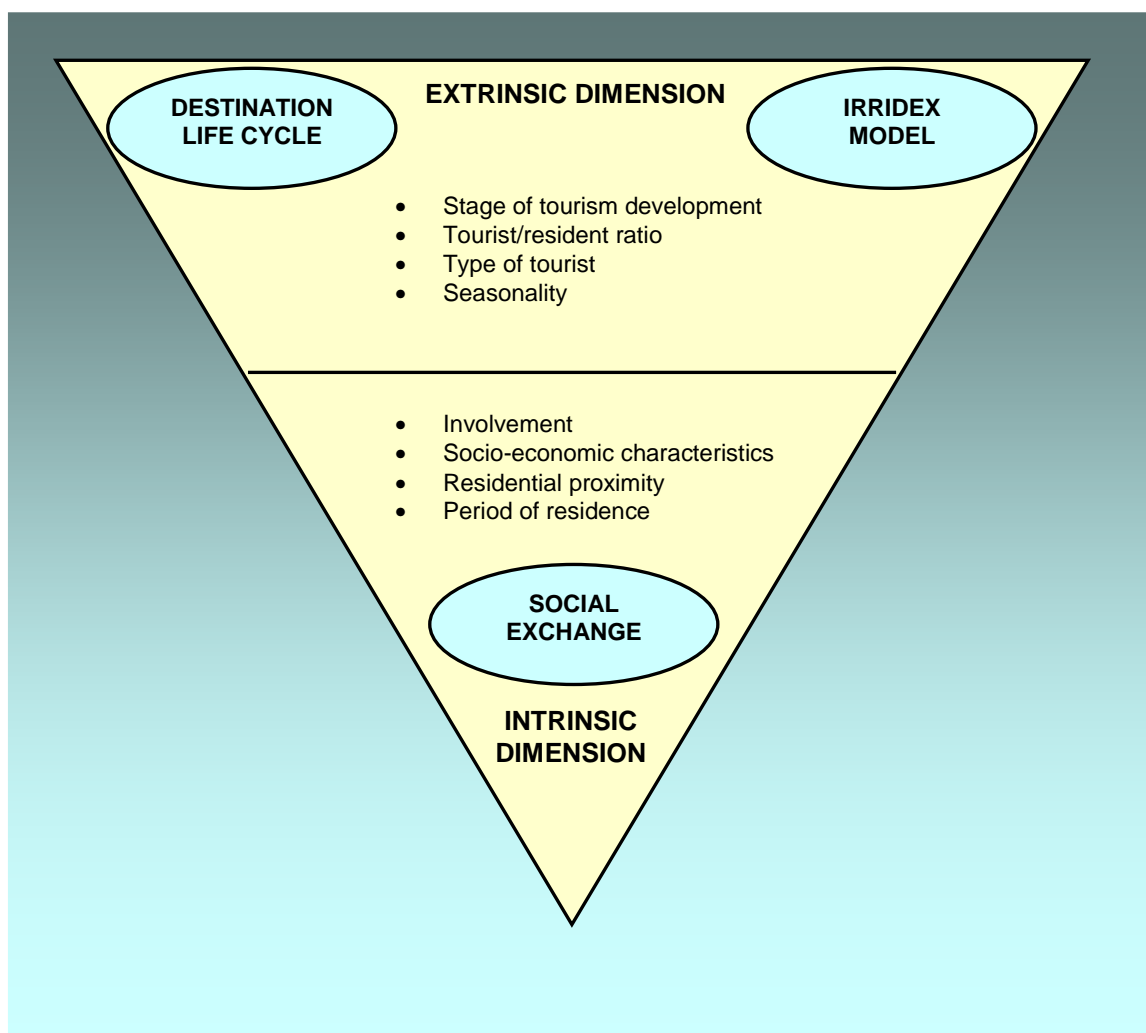
test multiple relationships between variables. Others, using factor analysis also relied on SET to extract and identify factors from a range of observable variables that explain residents' perceptions on tourism (Andereck, *et al.*, 2005; Rätz, 1999; Wang & Pfister, 2008). Most recently, authors who built up their argumentation on the criticism of SET and TALC in order to introduce a new qualitative method for the investigation of host attitudes towards tourism (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009a), used SET in their following study to develop and test a model of community support for a proposed integrated resort project (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009b). However, SET has also been a subject of criticism for assuming that individuals are rational decision-makers and process information in a systematic way, whereas psychological research revealed that humans process only part of the information actively, and use mental shortcuts rather than effortful mental processing during decision making (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Pearce, Moscardo & Ross, 1996). Nunkoo & Ramkissoon (2009a) based on Horn & Simons (2002) further argue that quantitative survey methodologies using TALC or SET as the theoretical foundation do not allow for an understanding on how historical and social contexts influence residents' attitudes.

Until now, the factors that have been examined in the literature as determinants of attitudes towards tourism development were summarised by, Faulkner & Tideswell (1997), Fredline & Faulkner (2000), Andriotis & Vaughan (2003) and Harrill, (2004). Faulkner & Tideswell (1997) and later Fredline & Faulkner (2000) identified extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions of the tourism development/community interface. Basically, the extrinsic dimension refers to factors related to the characteristics of tourism in the area, whereas the intrinsic dimension refers to the characteristics of members of the host community (Figure 3.5).

Their classification allowed the incorporation of the three major conceptual models of community perceptions and provided a synthesis of the array of variables and theoretical approaches in a general framework. The extrinsic/intrinsic dichotomy was further complemented and summarised by Andriotis & Vaughan (2003), who reviewed the literature from a methodological point of view and distinguished studies using single and multiple factors, the latter studies examining more than one variable simultaneously. Harrill (2004) distinguished socio-economic factors, spatial factors and economic dependency as major categories of determinants.

A review of the existing literature suggests that a primary focus has been on using different dimensions to identify perceptions and measure attitudes of perceived tourism impacts (Pizam, 1978; Lindberg, Dellaert, & Rassing, 1999; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009a). Various authors have developed an overall community tourism impacts framework for monitoring purposes, which appear to empirically confirm recent conceptualisations on the multi-dimensional nature of tourism comprising more than three dimensions (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005; Ap & Crompton, 1998; Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Lankford & Howard, 1994a, 1994b; Teye, Sirakaya, & Sönmez, 2002). These studies are summarised in Table 3.3, comparing the number and list of dimensions and variables, and the method of measurement used.

Figure 3.5: Framework for analysing community impacts of tourism



Source: Faulkner & Tideswell (1997)

As it can be seen, the authors aiming to identify factors of overall community impacts used multi-level quantitative scale development techniques including item pooling, thereby displaying improved content and convergent validity of scales. In particular, Lankford & Howard (1994a; 1994b) and Ap & Crompton (1998) developed standardised taxonomic scales using key independent variables derived from the literature. While the cross-cultural equivalence of these scales have been extensively tested (Rollins, 1997; Schneider, Lankford, & Oguchi, 1997; Wang & Pfister, 2008), the development of taxonomic frameworks generated criticism and a debate among authors, most notably because of the variation in communities, the site-specific characteristics, the different levels of development as well as the limited capacity of authors to consider all literature relative to the variety of tourism impacts (Ap & Crompton, 2001; Lankford, 2001). Ko & Stewart (2002) and McGehee & Andereck (2004) adapted Perdue, Long, and Allen's (1990) model of support for tourism development, which explored relationships between personal characteristics of residents, personal benefits from tourism, perceptions of impacts and support for tourism development.

Another line of research that can be identified is based on Jurowski's (1994) model that incorporates tourism impacts, the utilisation of tourism resource base by residents, ecocentric attitudes, economic gain and community attachment to determine support for tourism development by testing and estimating causal relations using path analysis. Later variations used SEM and expanded the model by the state of the local economy and perceived costs in addition to perceived benefits (Gursoy, Jurowski & Uysal, 2002) and by further distinguishing social costs and benefits and cultural costs and benefits (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004).

The multi-dimensional nature of tourism impacts, which include both intrinsic (such as certain social and economic impacts) and extrinsic (such as environmental impacts) factors suggest that an alternative classification of variables may be one that makes a distinction between individual, community and destination characteristics and tourism impacts, as presented in Table 3.2.

This classification shows that the groups of individual and community characteristics correspond to the intrinsic dimension and the extrinsic dimension involves destination characteristics. Tourism impacts, as the exclusive focus of a large number of studies is a

separate category which has been interpreted not only in terms of dimensions but also along the positive/negative and cost/benefit dichotomy.

Table 3.2: Summary of determinants of host community impacts of tourism

Individual characteristics	Community characteristics	Destination characteristics	Tourism impacts
Socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, occupation, income level, education) Involvement Personal benefits from tourism / Employment in tourism Involvement in decision-making Community attachment Community concern Type, extent and frequency of resident-visitor interactions Length of residence Ecocentric attitude Residential proximity Level of knowledge about the industry	Community dependence on tourism Community's economic activity Overall community satisfaction Utilisation of tourism resource base	Level of tourism development Tourist/resident ratio Type of tourist Seasonality	Positive/negative Costs/benefits Type (Economic, social, cultural, environmental)

3.5.3.2 Sustainability indicators

Considering next the sustainability indicators, Table 3.3 shows that a series of early theoretical analyses on the measurement of sustainability (Nelson, Butler, & Wall, 1993) have been followed by a limited number of empirical contributions (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005, 2006; Manning, Clifford, Dougherty, & Ernst, 1996; Miller, 2001; Tsaur, Lin, & Lin, 2006; Twining-Ward & Butler, 2002; Wallace & Pierce, 1996; WTO, 2004). As it can be seen, indicators have been developed mostly by using the quantitative Delphi-technique. The shortcoming of the Wallace & Pierce (1996) study in this regard is that despite collecting both qualitative and quantitative data, only descriptive statistics was used for data analysis.

Common to all sustainability indicators developed in these studies is the emphasis on the environmental dimension. Tsaur, Lin, & Lin (2006) approached sustainability in a relational

view of tourists, local residents and resource administration, by exploring the perceptions of each group on the other two in order to identify local environmental, social and economic concerns. By applying Prescott-Allen's (1997) *Barometer of Sustainability*, they found that that the natural and cultural resources were most influenced by the community, indicating that resources and the environment are the most important factors in ensuring the sustainability of tourism development.

Another significant aspect that emerges from this summary is that the cultural dimension of sustainable tourism has been under-emphasised. For example, Miller (2001) uses environmental, employment, financial, customer satisfaction and environmental impacts assessment, but he fails to employ social, and cultural, and, potentially, political and managerial indicators.

Table 3.3: Factors of community support for tourism and sustainability indicators identified in the literature

Author(s)	Number of indicators identified	Method of measurement	Description of variables used
Factors of overall community tourism impacts			
Jurowski, 1994	8 dimensions comprising 62 items	Quantitative scale development – Path analysis	Economic (4 items)/social (7 items)/environmental impacts (1 item); use of tourism resource base by residents (8 items); ecocentric attitudes (15 items); economic gain (3 items); community attachment (12 items), support for tourism (12 items)
Lankford & Howard, 1994a; 1994b	27 items	Quantitative scale development – Factor analysis+multiple regression	Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (TIAS) instrument involving 27 items grouped in two factors: concern for local tourism development; personal and community benefits
Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997	6 factors comprising 30 items	Quantitative scale development – Factor analysis	Economic and regional development benefits (10 items), adverse environmental effects (7items), quality of life and employment opportunities (6 items), improved community environment (4 items), cultural erosion (2 items), crime factor (1 item)
Ap & Crompton, 1998	7 dimensions comprising 35 items	Quantitative scale development – Factor analysis	Social and cultural, economic, crowding and congestion, environmental, services, taxes, community attitude
Yoon, Gursoy, & Chen, 2001	6 dimensions comprising 29 items	Quantitative scale development – SEM	Economic (8 items); social (6 items); cultural (4 items); environmental impacts (4 items); total impacts (2 items); support for tourism (5 items)
Gursoy, Jurowski & Uysal, 2002	8 dimensions comprising 29 items	Quantitative scale development – SEM	Community concern (4 items); community attachment (4 items); ecocentric attitude (6 items); use of tourism resource base by residents (4 items); the state of the local economy (3 items); perceived benefits (4 items); perceived costs (2 items); support for tourism (2 items)
Ko &	5 dimensions	Quantitative scale	Personal benefits from tourism development (2 items);

Stewart, 2002	comprising 60 (based on Perdue, Long, and Allen 1990)	development – SEM	perceived positive/negative impacts (24 items); overall community satisfaction (33 items); attitudes for additional tourism development (1 item)
Teye, Sirakaya, & Sönmez, 2002	7 factors comprising 29 items	Quantitative scale development - Factor analysis	Social interaction with tourists (5 items); cultural impacts (6 items); welfare impacts (5 items); negative interference with daily life (5 items), economic costs (3 items); sexual permissiveness (2 items); perception of crowding (3 items).
Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004	11 dimensions comprising 39 items	Quantitative scale development – SEM	Community attachment (4 items); community concern (3 items); ecocentric attitude (5 items); use of tourism resource base by residents (3 items); the state of the local economy (3 items); economic benefits (4 items); social costs (4 items); social benefits (4 items); cultural benefits (3 items); cultural costs (3 items); support for tourism (3 items)
McGehee & Andereck, 2004	7 dimensions comprising 41 items (based on Perdue, Long, and Allen 1990)	Quantitative scale development – Multiple regression analysis	Resident characteristics (6 items), community tourism dependence (1 item), personal benefits from tourism (2 items); perceived positive (12 items) /negative (11 items) impacts; support for additional tourism (8 items); support for tourism planning (1 item)
Andereck, <i>et al.</i> , 2005	6 factors comprising 38 items	Quantitative scale development – Factor analysis	Community environment (7 items); community problems (7 items); community life (8 items), community image (4 items), community services (6 items), community economy (6 items)
Jackson & Inbakaran, 2006	5 dimensions comprising 20 items	Quantitative scale development – Cluster analysis	Positive/negative tourism impacts; positive/negative tourism change; the role of tourism in the local community
Sustainability indicators			
Wallace & Pierce, 1996	6 ecotourism principles including various indicators+perceived positive and negative changes	Qualitative and quantitative – case study approach	Ecotourism ¹ minimises the negative impacts to the environment and to local people; increases awareness and understanding of an area's natural and cultural systems; contributes to conservation and management of natural areas; maximises the early and long-term participation of local people; directs economic and other benefits to local people; provides special opportunities for local people (shortened)
Manning, <i>et al.</i> , 1996	11 core indicators of sustainable tourism	Varies on a case study basis. Mostly qualitative - participatory workshop approach (see: WTO, 2004; pp. 30-31)	Site protection, stress, use intensity, social impact, development control, waste management, planning process, critical ecosystems, consumer satisfaction, local satisfaction, tourism contribution to local economy
WTO, 2004	13 groups of indicators		Wellbeing of host communities, sustaining cultural assets, community participation, tourist satisfaction, health and safety, economic benefits from tourism, protection of natural assets, managing scarce natural resources, limiting impacts of tourism activity, controlling tourist activities and levels, destination planning and control, designing products and services, sustainability of tourism operation and services

¹ Ecotourism has grown to be a distinct focus in the literature, though it is still in its infancy stage lacking a definitional perspective in scope and criteria used (Diamantis, 1999) and in its position as a market or a market segment (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). Some writers use the term interchangeably with sustainable tourism, while others see them as diametrically opposed (Swarbrooke, 1999). The Ecotourism Society defines it as: "responsible travel to natural areas which conserves the environment and improves the welfare of local people", which may apply to subsets of nature, cultural or adventure tourism (Wallace & Pierce, 1996). Distinctively, it often favours supply over demand (Wight, 1993), seeks to maintain harmony between nature and humankind, to use resources efficiently, and perhaps distinctively, to save resources from use rather than saving them for use (Fennel, 1999).

Miller, 2001	5 groups of indicators	Quantitative – Delphi technique	Environmental, employment, financial, customer satisfaction, environmental impacts assessment
Choi & Sirakaya, 2005	7 factors	Quantitative – Factor analysis	Environmental sustainability, social costs, economic benefits, community participation, long-term planning, visitor satisfaction, community-centred economy
Choi & Sirakaya, 2006	6 dimensions with 125 indicators	Quantitative – Delphi technique	Economic, social, cultural, ecological, political and technological
Tsaur, Lin, & Lin, 2006	6 relationship aspects in a relationships framework of resource, community and tourism	Quantitative – Delphi technique	Community/tourism, Tourism/community; Resource/tourism, Tourism resource; Resource/community, Community/resource

This is in line with Robinson (1999) who contended that sustainable tourism has tended to overlook important, but sometimes opaque and therefore neither easily measurable, nor easily articulable, cultural parameters of man-environment relationships such as identity, belonging, spiritual meaning, and moral and legal rights. Tourism as a cultural influence can initiate dramatic and irreversible changes in the cultures of host communities, therefore cultural consent is essential for consensus building within a sustainable development process (de Kadt, 1979; Smith, 1989 cited in Robinson, 1999).

Perhaps the most comprehensive attempt to develop indicators so far has been undertaken by the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (Manning, *et al.*, 1996; WTO, 2004) and Choi & Sirakaya (2006). The UNWTO identified 11 core indicators (Manning, *et al.*, 1996) and an extended 13 groups of indicators (WTO, 2004). While these collections provide a good starting point for sustainability assessment, they have been criticised for various shortcomings, such as the rather narrow focus on tourism indicators, the failure to justify indicator selection and the absence of a clear monitoring framework to help implement indicator information into appropriate management action (Twining-Ward & Butler, 2002). Reflecting the latter issue, the major contribution of the Twining-Ward & Butler (2002) study, in addition to identifying sustainability indicators in the small island context of Samoa, was to produce an indicator implementation framework.

Choi & Sirakaya (2006) identified six major domains including 125 indicators after multiple rounds of scale purification procedures. The top priority indicators for each domain presented the most important concerns of sustainability, highlighting, among others, that resident involvement in tourism industry is the most important indicator of the social

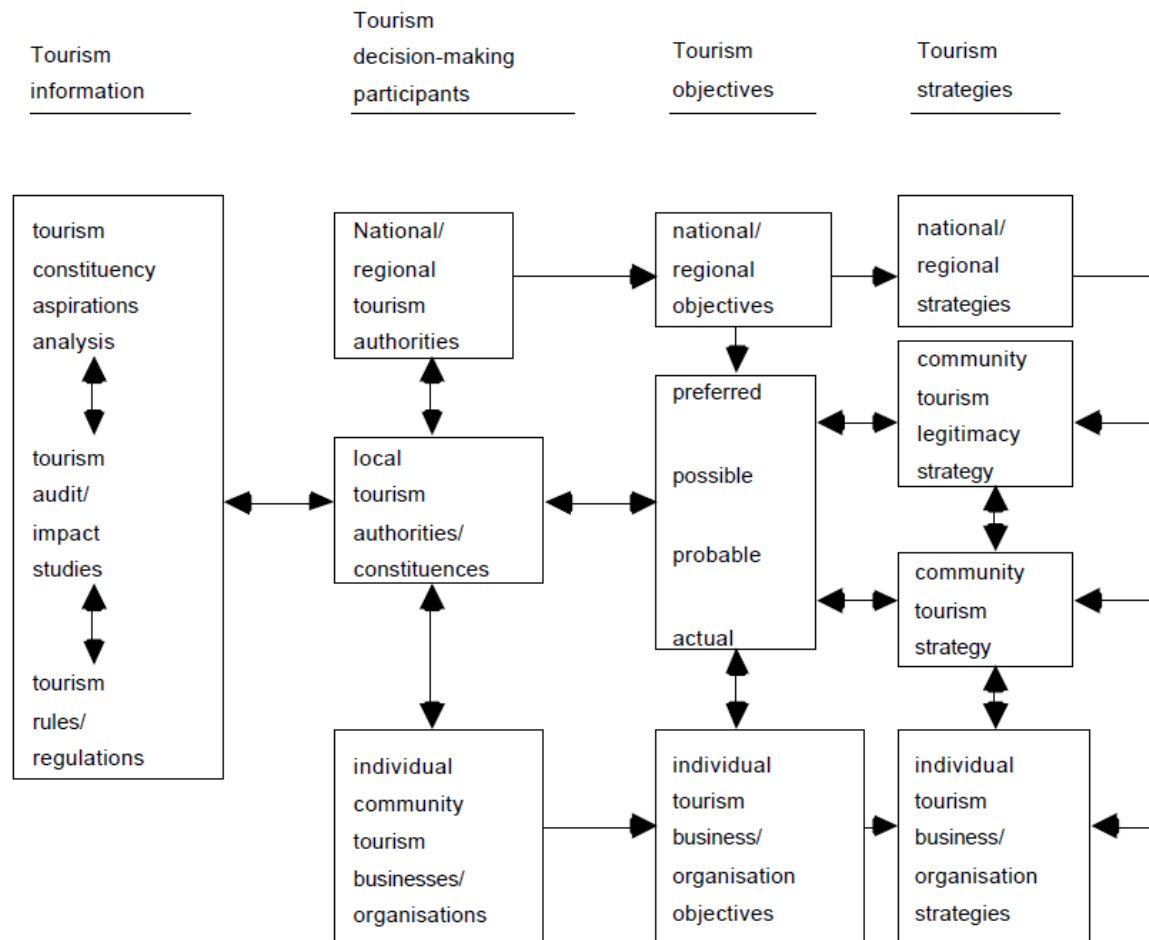
dimension. The aforementioned WTO definition of sustainable tourism, as well as McKercher (2003) emphasise that wide participation and consensus building require not only the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, but of equal importance, a strong leadership, which involves simultaneous coordination of, and cooperation with, the stakeholders. Within this context, the next section will discuss this relational context of community involvement from the perspective of collaboration theory.

3.6 Collaborative planning drawing on collaboration theory

Following Murphy's ecological model, the intimate and interdependent relationship between tourism, the environment and local communities has been the focus of analysis in subsequent research (Blank, 1989; Donald Getz & Jamal, 1994; Haywood, 1988). In particular, Haywood (1988), Getz & Jamal (1994) and Jamal & Getz (1995) emphasised the symbiotic nature of this relationship; the former author provided a detailed schematic representation of the complex, interdependent relationships between tourism information, objectives, strategies and actors involved in tourism decision-making from the national to the local level (Figure 3.6).

The latter authors introduced a dynamic collaborative planning approach drawing on collaboration theory, which was firstly employed, and later further developed in destination planning and management based on a series of seminal work of Gray (1985; 1989; Gray & Hay, 1986) and Trist (1977a, 1977b, 1979, 1983). Collaboration was defined in relation to cooperation, which allowed for highlighting key differences between the two concepts. Cooperation, in a general sense, refers to 'working together to some end', while collaboration, according to Gray's definition is 'a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a problem domain and about the future of that domain' (Jamal & Getz, 1995; p.187). Thus, cooperation is a broad term involving, in its simplest sense, the harmonious co-existence of things, as well as more complex forms of working or acting together. Collaboration, on the other hand, is a more specific term, which refers to 'a flexible and dynamic process that evolves over time, enabling multiple stakeholders to jointly address problems or issues' (Jamal & Stronza, 2009). Accordingly, the aim of working together is to realise shared goals through joint decision-making on a consensus-basis.

Figure 3.6 Community tourism planning model developed by Haywood (1988)



Source: Haywood (1988; p.114)

Adapting Gray's definition in the tourism context, Jamal & Getz (1995) defined collaboration for community-based tourism planning as 'a process of joint decisionmaking among autonomous, key stakeholders of an inter-organizational, community tourism domain to resolve planning problems of the domain and/or to manage issues related to the planning and development of the domain' (p.188). On the basis of this definition, they laid down the foundations of the collaborative approach to community tourism development in terms of the process and organisational forms of collaboration. Most importantly, collaboration is centred around a complex, inter-organisational problem domain, which is beyond the capability of any single entity and requires a multi-organisational response. Increasing interconnectedness of organisations leads to turbulent environments, thus the goal of collaboration is to reduce the turbulence in the field, optimise pay-offs among

stakeholders and reach a 'negotiated order'. However, collaboration does not only help to reduce difficulties related to a problem domain, but also to achieve a more shared communal benefit than each could accomplish as an individual player (El Ansari, Phillips, & Hammick, 2001).

Based on Gray (1989), Jamal & Getz (1995) indicated that the three stages of community-based tourism collaboration are (1) problem-setting (identifying key stakeholders and issues); (2) direction-setting (identifying and sharing future collaborative scenarios); (3) implementation (institutionalising shared meanings that emerge). They advanced six propositions that characterise tourism collaboration and that are claimed by the authors to be facilitators of one or more of the three stages of the collaboration process. These propositions involve six key issues, which are presented in Table 3.4. These are the interdependency of actors, their actions and outcomes; the individual and/or mutual benefits derived from the process; the legitimacy and power of the process to either make or strongly influence the planning decisions stemming from the inclusion of stakeholders; external/internal mandate and the presence of adequate resources that guarantee the successful implementation of objectives; participation of all relevant stakeholders; the existence of an initiator or facilitator as central actor of the process, and lastly, establishment of a strategic vision for action.

Since it is based on interactions between various levels of the responsible organisation and between the organisation and the stakeholders to realise vertical and horizontal partnerships (Hall & McArthur, 1998 cited in Hall, 1999), tensions and friction are inevitably created. In fact, 'conflict and disagreement between members of a community over the outputs and outcomes of tourism are a norm' (Hall, 2003; p.100). On this basis, Murphy's approach was criticised for not addressing the issue of adversarial conflicts within communities (Getz & Jamal, 1994), and it was pointed out that one of the major advantages of collaboration is that it helps to avoid such conflicts between stakeholders in the long term (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999), most notably by facilitating consensual strategies. Furthermore, since collaboration requires the pooling of knowledge, expertise, capital and other resources from various stakeholders (Bramwell & Lane, 2000a), it improves the coordination of policies and related actions, adds value by building on the knowledge, insights and capabilities of actors and thereby facilitates co-production through shared ownership (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999).

Table 3.4: Six propositions of collaboration for community-based tourism planning

Issue	Proposition
Interdependency	Collaboration for community-based tourism planning and management requires a high degree of interdependency.
Benefits	Collaboration for community-based tourism planning requires that individual and/or mutual benefits be derived from the process.
Legitimacy and power	Collaboration for community-based tourism planning requires that decisions arrived at will be implemented.
Participation	Collaboration for community-based tourism planning depends on the involvement of the local government and other public organisations having a direct bearing on resource allocation; tourism industry associations, sectors and regional tourist authority; resident organisations; social agencies and special interest groups.
Initiator	A convener is required to initiate and facilitate community-based tourism collaboration. The convener should have the following characteristics: legitimacy, expertise, resources and authority.
Strategic vision	An effective community collaboration process for strategic tourism planning for the destination requires a joint formulation of a vision statement, and self-regulation of the process through the establishment of a collaborative (referent) organization to assist with ongoing adjustment through monitoring and revisions.

Source: Based on Jamal & Getz (1995)

Thus it can be seen that the theoretical foundations of the initial conceptualisation put forward by Getz & Jamal (1994) and Jamal & Getz (1995) has been further expanded by Bramwell & Lane (2000b) and enriched by local collaborative approaches (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Vernon, *et al.*, 2005), public policy perspective (Hall, 1999) and case studies (Jamal & Stronza, 2009; Aas, Ladkin, & Fletcher, 2005; Ladkin & Bertramini, 2002).

In addition, collaboration has been recognised as an essential and accepted mechanism of sustainable development in research exploring the extent and nature of collaborations between groups involved in the planning and management of environmental resources in various cultural contexts (e.g. Ghai, 1994; McNeely, 1995; Singh & Ham, 1995; for more examples see: Robinson, 1999). By reorganising control over resources, collaboration addresses both sides of the 'fairness and equity' principal of sustainability: intra-and inter-generational equity, the latter being recognisable by its absence in sustainable tourism (Williams & Shaw, 1998). Robinson (1999) argues that collaboration is not merely a useful mechanism to address the cultural dimension of sustainable tourism, but it is also a legitimate policy goal. Since collaboration contributes to a greater representation of

diverse cultural groups within a community, the need for community-based collaboration, in particular, has been emphasised (Getz & Jamal, 1994).

There are two consistent streams that have emerged from subsequent community tourism planning research, which are presented and discussed below.

3.6.1 Power relations in collaboration

The first stream explores the nature of power relations by reflecting on the balance of conflict and consensus in collaborative contexts (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Jamal & Getz, 1999; Reed, 1997; Vernon, *et al.*, 2005). The underlying notion is that power relations are endemic features of tourism settings (Reed, 1997). In fact, 'the stakeholders – elected, appointed, professional or volunteer – are not neutral conveners of power' (Reed, 2000; p.268). Power in tourism is multi-scalar in nature with horizontal and vertical power relations operating in regulatory structures (Hall, 2007). Furthermore, community tourism systems are characterised by complexity, change, uncertainty and conflict (Reed, 2008).

The principal aim of these studies has been to test the common assumption that 'collaboration can overcome power imbalances by involving all stakeholders in a process that meets their needs' (Reed, 1997; p.567). Within this context, criticism was directed at Murphy's ecological approach for lacking consideration of conflict. In particular, Reed (1997) asserted that ecological models tend to assume that people have equal access to economic and political resources. She argued that power relations do not only influence collaboration but may as well modify its results or even hinder collaborative action.

Bramwell & Sharman (1999) contemplated about the question how it can be subjectively evaluated whether collaboration is, in reality, inclusive, and involves or not, collective learning and consensus-building. They proposed a framework in which three sets of issues are considered: the scope of collaboration, the intensity of collaboration and the degree of consensus. The framework allowed for a wide-ranging analysis of collaboration, and it was applied in a case study to examine the policymaking process in the Peak District National Park in the UK. Their results indicated that despite the collaborative

efforts, the unequal power relations remained among stakeholders, thereby questioning the extent to which power imbalances may be reduced, if at all, through collaboration.

In concordance with these findings, Jamal & Getz (1999) pointed out that collaboration is a *Janus-faced* process: on one hand, it has the potential to increase both individual and community capacity to address local-level conflict over community direction and planning, by means of improving relationships, healing tensions and recovery from historic strife and increasing group knowledge and skills. On the other hand, the very same process demonstrates the potential to repress participants by group pressure, or even by the 'tyranny of the majority' through unspoken threat of repercussion from the community. Hence, as concluded by Jamal & Getz (1999): 'a 'consensus' process is no guarantee that the voices and words of a participant will necessarily be heard or incorporated into the decision-making. Careful attention needs to be paid to the design and enactment of such processes, for the same process structures and rules can be both enabling and constraining, while an instrumental focus on consensus may result in 'manufacturing consent' (p.305).

Vernon *et al.* (2005) complemented the three set of issues in Bramwell & Sharman's (1999) evaluative framework with the implementation and effectiveness of policies resulting from collaboration. In line with Jamal & Getz's (1995) observation on the critical role of the convener in collaborative processes, they argue that the public sector plays a dominant role in the initiation, organisation and resourcing of collaborative arrangements. However, as a complex process, it is not merely an alternative means for the public sector to discharge its responsibilities (Edwards, *et al.*, 2000). Rather, it is to *complement* and *stimulate* the activities of the private sector, as defined a long ago (IUOTO, 1974). They further confirmed the role of collaboration in advancing the implementation of sustainable tourism in line with Bramwell & Lane (2000) and highlighted that neither the partnership structure is static, nor community input and participation are equal over time and across issues.

Later research adopted a Foucauldian perspective of power, employing various key features in tourism: the omnipresence, the network relations, the gaze, the repressive and reproductive aspects (Cheong & Miller, 2000); the power of 'gaze' or surveillance in relation to the 'tourist gaze' as conceptualised by Urry (1990) and reviewed by Leiper (1992) (Hollinshead, 1999); and the Foucauldian 'power-knowledge' (Beritelli & Laesser,

2011; Hall, 2003; 2007; Wearing & McDonald, 2002). Relevant from the community tourism planning perspective are those that examine power relations, the role of power in community decision-making, and stakeholder perceptions of power dimensions.

Firstly, Cheong & Miller (2000) adopted Foucault's model of power relations, in which 'targets' and 'agents' structure the differentiated positions of individuals in a localised system. Targets are subordinate actors in a power relationship in relation to the agents, such as for example a patient in a hospital relates to a doctor or a criminal in a prison to a chief inspector. In the tripartite tourism system comprising of tourists, locals and various types of mediators or *brokers* (such as hotel owners, employees and guides, city planners and politicians), tourists are targets in their relation to the agents, which are the locals and the brokers. However, power relationships in tourism are dynamic and constantly changing, thus one type of actor may become another type, such as for example tourists become brokers if they start entrepreneurial businesses, or they become locals if they establish permanent residency at a destination. By the same token, locals can become brokers and brokers can become tourists, and so on. As a result of this shifting identity of actors, members of the tourism system may be both Foucauldian targets and agents in power relationships. This orientation of touristic power outlines a tourism system in which the tourists are not given a central priority (Wearing & McDonald, 2002), but attention is redirected to the agents, who are in a prominent position of control and conduct of tourism development, thus the success of sustainable projects lies rather in the power of brokers and locals than in the power of tourists (Cheong & Miller, 2000).

Secondly, Hall (2003, 2007) adapted Lukes's (1974) three-dimensional approach to power in community decision-making in the tourism context. Each approach in the analysis of power focuses on different aspects of the decision-making process as presented in Table 3.5.

The one-dimensional view focuses exclusively on the observable, overt behavioural elements of power relationships. Community decision-making in this interpretation is observable through the overt action of pluralist interest (Dahl, 1961; Debnam, 1984; cited in Hall, 2007).

Table 3.5: Approaches to the analysis of power dimensions in community decision-making

	Author	Major focus
One-dimensional view	(Dahl, 1961; Debnam, 1984)	Observable power: overt behaviour, conflict, pluralism and decision-making.
Two-dimensional view	(Bachrach & Baratz, 1962, 1970)	In addition to the one-dimensional view it includes non-decision-making, as well as observable (overt and covert) conflict.
Three-dimensional view	Lukes (1974, 2005)	In addition to the two-dimensional view it includes institutional bias, hegemony and the manipulation of preferences.

Source: Based on Lukes (1974, 2005)² as conveyed by Hall (2007).

The pluralist model served as the underlying notion for community-based tourism planning, which has been subject of criticism, as mentioned above, by Reed (1997) but also by Hall (2007), for naively assuming that everyone has, or should have, equal access to power and representation. However, community leadership and decision-making is heterogeneous, drawn from various power bases (Blank, 1989). Thus, power is not evenly distributed within a community: 'Some groups and individuals have the ability to exert greater influence over the tourism planning process than others through access to financial resources, expertise, public relations, media, knowledge and time to put into contested situations and the nature of what is discussed' (Hall, 2007; p.253). Furthermore, power distribution also shifts according to the relevancy of the issue at stake for different groups and individuals.

The two-dimensional approach therefore incorporates *non-decision-making* in addition to decision-making as well as observable overt and covert conflict. Non-decision occurs when demands for change in the existing allocation of benefits and privileges in the community are suffocated before they are even voiced, or suppressed at later stages of the policy process, either in the decision-making area or during implementation. Hall (2007) indicates that non-decision-making have generated considerable interest in tourism research into collaborative arrangements in the context of public-private partnerships and networks. Lastly, the three-dimensional view of power includes all previous dimensions, and further adds to these the third dimension of institutional bias, hegemony and the manipulation of preferences. The rationale for this is the premise put forward by Lukes (1974), namely, that power influences, shapes and determines human preferences. According to Lukes (1974), non-decisions and latent conflicts provide evidence for the

² Lukes (2005) is the second edition of Lukes (1974).

existence of the third dimension, which can be revealed when there is discordance between the interests of those exercising power and the real interests of those they exclude. This conceptualisation reflects Foucault's power/knowledge framework (1972; 1980) which also emphasises the relational nature of power. To Foucault, power is a coordinated cluster of relations, which is inseparable from knowledge. Power impacts the formation of knowledge, while knowledge, as a form of power, disseminates its effects.

Lastly, recent research includes power as a relevant dimension for the explanation of inherent imbalances in destination governance (Beritelli, Bieger, & Laesser, 2007) and highlighted the perceptions of power, and its dimensions, by different stakeholder groups at the destination level (Beritelli, 2011; Beritelli & Laesser, 2011). The latter studies highlighted the pivotal role of knowledge as a driving force of influence among power dimensions, and promoted, in line with Foucault's power/knowledge framework, a less institutional and stakeholder group-oriented, but more individual – and relationship-oriented perspective of destination planning and development (Beritelli & Laesser, 2011). These studies further argue that the interpretation of power as a source of influence varies across stakeholder groups, therefore power must be regarded as a perceptual, not only as a structural concept.

3.6.2 Organisational forms of collaboration

The second research stream discusses the role of various organisational forms of collaboration, namely, partnerships and networks, in community tourism development.

The supply structure of destinations is characterised by two relational aspects that define and distinguish local tourism supply systems. First, these relationships form a complex structure fashioned around a mix of vertical and diagonal linkages. Second, the structural combination of these relationships stems from strong market interdependence between organisations, as suppliers pass customers from one organisation to another, with the aim to provide a comprehensive tourist experience (Grefe, 1994; cited in: Pavlovich, 2003). As March & Wilkinson (2009) explain: 'People, organisations and firms depend on other people, organisations and firms in important ways in carrying out their tasks and achieving their goals.' Accordingly, tourism destinations are generally characterised by a diverse and highly fragmented supply structure, comprising 'different types of complementary and

competing organizations, multiple sectors, infrastructures and an array of public/private linkages' (Pavlovich, 2003, p.203). Thus, the performance of a tourist destination does not only depend on the individual characteristics of the component actors, but also on the links between them (March & Wilkinson, 2009). Furthermore, in destination management, these linkages become a critical factor in achieving strategic leverage (Pavlovich, 2003).

3.6.2.1 Partnerships

Partnerships, within this context, emerge when 'pooling or sharing of appreciations or resources (information, money, labour, etc.) among two or more tourism stakeholders to solve a problem or create an opportunity that neither can address individually' (Selin & Chavez, 1995a; p.260). From the public policy viewpoint, partnerships have been considered as one means of dealing with an increasingly complex and multifaceted tourist industry (Greer, 2002).

Selin (1999); Selin & Beason (1991) and Selin & Chavez (1995a, b) established a solid conceptual base for a typology of tourism partnerships. Adopting Waddock's (1989) evolutionary model of partnership organisations from the field of organisational behaviour, Selin & Chavez's (1995b) evolutionary tourism partnership model draws on Grey's (1985; 1989) theoretical advancements on collaboration theory. As opposed to an organisation set perspective which emphasises the pivotal role of a focal organisation, it adopts a domain-level focus, which includes a set of actors joined by common interest, values or a problem. As such, it focuses on partnership dynamics of the system rather than on individual actors. It postulates the existence of turbulent organisational environment in the tourism context (Trist, 1977b), consisting of various economic, social and political forces that influence the direction of tourism policy.

The model identifies five key stages of the partnership development process. (1) *antecedents*, or the context of environmental forces and conditions that induced the partnership process; (2) *problem-setting*, which is the beginning of collective action based on the collective recognition of interdependence and benefits to derive from cooperation; (3) *direction-setting*, or the establishment of common goals, (4) *structuring*, which is the management of stakeholder interactions in a systematic manner; and (5) *outcomes*, the results of implementation, which can be both tangible or non-tangible, such as improved relations. From the last stage, feedback arrows indicate the dynamic and cyclical nature of

partnership evolution. This model outlined and empirically examined successful tourism partnership initiatives, therefore the authors suggest that constraints of partnership success and factors contributing to partnership failure should be explored for a better understanding of the process.

Selin (1999) further developed a typology of partnerships along five primary dimensions (geographic scale, legal basis, locus of control, organisational diversity and size, and time frame), by which tourism partnerships vary or cluster. This typology highlighted that collaboration may take many forms in response to diverse environmental forces, and provided evidence on the dynamic process of partnership evolution.

3.6.2.2 Networks

Though geographical scale is a useful objective measure for the extension of partnerships, destination networks are not restricted by geographical boundaries. Rather, they are 'loosely articulated groups of independent suppliers linked together to deliver the overall product', characterised by cooperative and competitive linkages fashioned by internal and external capabilities (Scott, Cooper & Baggio, 2008, p.171). According to Dredge (2006b), they involve 'sets of formal and informal social relationships that shape collaborative action between government, industry and civil society' (p.270). While the previous is a more business-oriented, and the latter is a more policy-oriented definition, common to both is the understanding that these interactions transcend dyadic ties and form an overarching pattern of relationships in the network architecture (Pavlovich, 2003).

The earliest implications of network theory in tourism date back to the work of Fridgen (1986) and Stokowski (1990), with the latter study examining the role of rural business owners in tourism development from a network perspective (Selin & Beason, 1991). In its broadest sense, network theory is concerned with networks of objects, in areas spanning from natural to social sciences. It shares common mathematical roots with graph theory, as the origins of both fields are Euler's solution of the puzzle of Königsberg's bridges in 1736 (Euler, 1736; Fortunato, 2010; Scott, Cooper, & Baggio, 2008). In social sciences, the implication of network theory spanned over the 20th century beginning with Simmel's, (1908) work on trust relationships (Möllering, 2001), through various stages covering areas such as 'social behaviour as exchange', 'social psychology of groups' and 'exchange and

power' (For more details and literature on the origins, key concepts and techniques of network representation of network theory see: Costa, 1996; Chapter 4). These research fields highlight the co-evolution and overlapping focus of collaboration and network theory, both of which are concerned with the collective nature of organisational action.

In their review of the implication of the network concept in tourism, Scott, Baggio, & Cooper (2008b) noted that network research in tourism has gained most attention only very recently, specifically since the ATLAS conference in 2004 dedicated to: 'Networking and Partnerships in Destination Development and Management'. In this review the various forms of collaboration – partnerships, alliances and networks – were all included, suggesting that these terms are often used interchangeably across the literature. They identified six areas of network research in tourism, the first being the overlapping research between collaboration, trust and networks. The remaining five areas, with an explicit focus on networks are: marketing, knowledge transfer, tourism governance, social capital and networks as representations of complex systems.

Dredge & Pforr (2008) took a different approach and distinguished three research streams based on the main issue of the network profile (business/community/environmental) and Dredge (2006b) identified two groups: business networks and public-private partnerships. She argued that critical discussion on the theoretical and operational dimensions of partnerships and networks as a management approach beyond economic development has been limited (Dredge, 2006a). In addressing this gap, she and others (Costa, 1996; Pavlovich, 2003; Pforr, 2002; Scott, Baggio, & Cooper, 2008a) introduced the theoretical and operational dimensions of the network approach in the field of collaborative planning for the analysis of local tourism policy networks involving interrelations between government, tourism service providers and civil society. Tourism governance in Scott, Baggio, *et al.*'s (2008b) classification refers to this emerging destination focus. Within this context, the fourth classification approach of tourism literature in network research is centred around governance issues in tourism, and identified eight key themes: participation, rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, consensus, equity and inclusiveness, effectiveness and efficiency and accountability. (Dredge & Pforr, 2008).

For the purpose of this chapter, the present review adopts the approach of Dredge (2006b) and focuses on the role of partnerships and networks in community involvement in destination governance. Omitting studies on the nature of collaboration, as well as on

integrated approaches in the rural context which are discussed in Section 3.6.1 and in Chapter 4 respectively, three broad clusters of tourism partnerships research can be identified based on the public/private continuum. The first group involves industry-oriented inter-organisational analysis (Costa, *et al.*, 2008; Erkus-Öztürk, 2009; Mitchell & Schreiber, 2007; Novelli, Schmitz, & Spencer, 2006; Pansiri, 2007; Plummer, *et al.*, 2005; Scott, Cooper, *et al.*, 2008; Telfer, 2001; Tinsley & Lynch, 2001) the second comprise of research examining public-private partnerships and networks at destinations (Augustyn & Knowles, 2000; Buckley, 2002; Dredge, 2006b; Halme, 2001; Pavlovich, 2003; Pforr, 2002, 2006; Saxena, 2005; Timur & Getz, 2008; Tyler & Dinan, 2001; Wray, 2009). Finally, the third includes studies that analyse partnerships within the public sector, such as cross-border cooperation (Greer, 2002) and joint event management and marketing (Stokes, 2006) of tourism authorities and planning and organisation of regional tourism boards (Costa, 1996).

From a stakeholder perspective, Augustyn & Knowles (2000) drew attention on the limited research undertaken in the context of public-private partnerships. The above classification indicates the absence of research into the role of the civil society not only in tourism partnerships and networks, but also in satellite organisations, such as governance formations with an interest and/or responsibility in tourism. This is especially surprising in view of the fact that the emergence of research into tourism partnerships and networks from the late 1990s onwards matches with an era of increasing organisational complexity and stakeholder diversity as discussed in Chapter 2.2.2 about contemporary approaches to governance.

Also, the underlying tenet from the network perspective is that in order to create an environment in which collective action can be realised, more contacts have to be established (Timur & Getz, 2008). Furthermore, as Dredge (2006b) pointed out referring to Bogason & Toonen, (1998) and Börzel (1998), it is specifically in these new governance formations where the network approach holds significant potential for the analysis of policymaking in an environment of diffused power and responsibility.

The existing limited research provide insights into the evolution, dynamics and configurations (Pavlovich, 2003), the nature of exchange structure (Saxena, 2005), performance (Augustyn & Knowles, 2000), tourism plan formulation process (Pforr, 2006) critical stakeholder positions (Timur & Getz, 2008) the evolution of policy and planning system (Wray, 2009) and local government and industry relations (Costa, 1996; Dredge,

2006b; Tyler & Dinan, 2001) of tourism destination networks. Based on these studies, a number of key findings on the operation and structure of public-private partnerships and networks with reference to community involvement can be identified, which are particularly relevant from the community planning perspective.

- Network theory as an analytical tool. In the context of tourism destination planning and management, network theory provides an important analytical approach for the study of local tourism policy development and for a better understanding of government, industry and community relations (Dredge, 2006b; Timur & Getz, 2008; Wray, 2009).
- Convergence of underlying theoretical bases of collaboration. Analyses on tourism destination networks appear to confirm previously discussed findings of stakeholder analysis in collaborative tourism approaches, suggesting inter-theoretical linkages between collaboration theory, stakeholder analysis and network theory. The need for wider community and private sector involvement, understanding of power imbalances between actors, clearly formulated rules of conduct and acceptance as a reality that the resourcing of tourism attracts considerable conflict, are some of such examples (Saxena, 2005).
- Position of civil society in power relations. Interdependency in partnerships and networks may work as a preventive mechanism from the escalation of conflicts, since actors are aware that such situations would damage all participants (Costa, 1996). However, power imbalances in the 'face of fierce competition' may result in the oppression of less powerful actors, most typically the nonprofit partners. Thus, 'the establishment of agreements on the role of each participant in the network may be seen as a useful strategy capable of avoiding situations of control of the network by a few organisations' (Costa, 1996; p. 406).
- Relational capital. Indubitably, there are two prominent values of the networking process: *horizontality*, since it is an inherently inclusive approach, and *knowledge exchange*, since actors are simultaneously consumers and sources of information. By way of corollary, the potential in exchange relationships lies in the presence of relational capital available to the different actors (Saxena, 2005).
- Informal relations. Informal exchanges may serve as catalysts for local entrepreneurial activity, creation of new resources and collective learning (Saxena, 2005).

- Social processes. An emphasis on social processes, in particular on relational exchange as opposed to transactional exchange, trust, commitment, interactivity and the incorporation of 'real-life experiences' in strategies trigger learning dynamics and subsequent accumulation of relational capital (Saxena, 2005).

3.7 Collaborative tourism planning based on stakeholder theory

The second conceptual building block of the collaborative planning approach draws on stakeholder theory. In general terms, stakeholder in an organisation is any individual or an identifiable group who can affect, or is affected by, the achievement of the organisation's objectives (Freeman, 1984). Thus, a stakeholder has a legitimate interest in aspects of the organisation's activities, and has either the power to affect the firm's performance, and/or has a stake in the firm's performance (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984; cited in Sautter & Leisen, 1999). As the actors of collaboration, stakeholders have been defined by Jamal & Getz (1995) based on Gray (1989) as: 'the actors with an interest in a common problem, including all individuals, groups, or organizations directly influenced by the actions others take to solve a problem' (p.188).

Stakeholder theory emerged in the mid-1980's by Freeman's landmark book *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach* (1984). Contrary to the separation thesis which claims that ethics and economics can be clearly and sharply separated, stakeholder theory is based on the premise that values are necessarily and explicitly a part of doing business (Freeman, 1994; Freeman, Wicks & Parmar, 2004). Most fundamentally, the theory claims that an organisation is primarily characterised by its actors and relationships with various other groups and individuals (Freeman, 1984). The principal aim of the organisation is to manage the myriad of these corporate groups and resulting relationships in a strategic fashion (Freeman & McVea, 2001). With other words, the main goal is to establish a single strategic framework that facilitates the formulation of a corporate strategy along ethical lines, and is as well responsive to managerial concerns of extreme environmental turbulence and change (Freeman & McVea, 2001; Robson & Robson, 1996). Stakeholder theory recognises that there are various groups that can and should have a direct influence in managerial decision-making (Jones, 1995; cited in Sautter & Leisen, 1999). 'The central task in this process is to manage and integrate the relationships and interests of stakeholders (shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, communities and other

groups) in a way that ensures the long-term success of the firm' (Freeman & McVea, 2001; p.192).

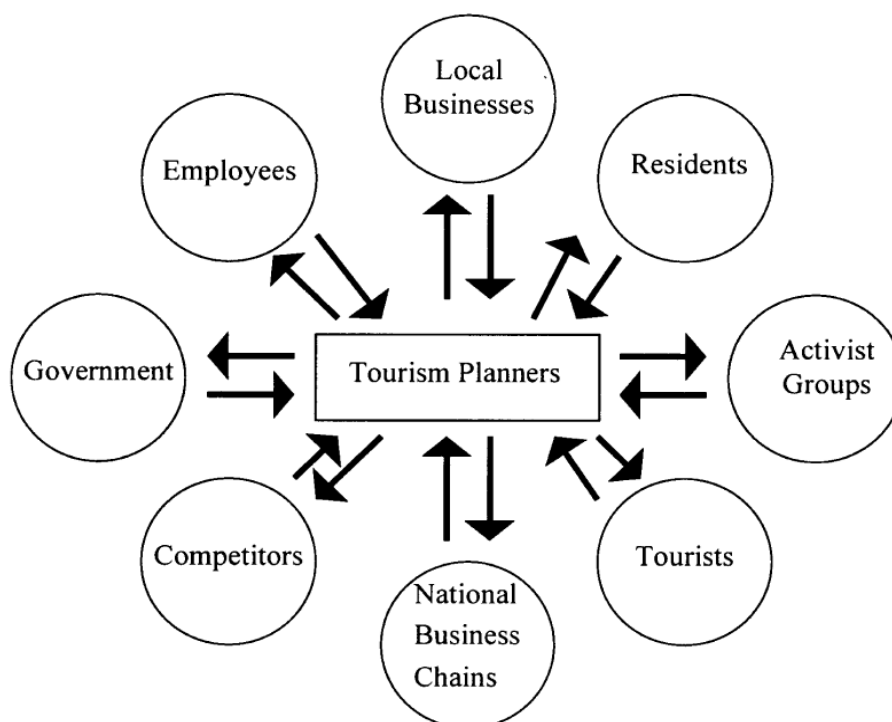
One of the major distinguishing characteristic of the theory is the recognition that managers must formulate and implement processes which satisfy all, by dealing with only those groups who have a stake in the business (Freeman & McVea, 2001). This notion of strategic stakeholder management has been best explained by Freeman (1984): 'To be an effective strategist you must deal with those groups that can affect you, while to be responsive (and effective in the long run) you must deal with those groups that you can affect' (p.46).

The implication of stakeholder theory in tourism planning arose from the argument that runs across the community tourism planning literature, namely, that there is a need to more effectively involve those affected by tourism development. The industry has been often criticised for being reactionary rather than integrative (Reid, Mair, & George, 2004) for using methods that impose planning decisions on the local population (Keogh, 1990; cited in Sautter & Leisen, 1999), for maintaining the dominance of the profit-oriented tourism industry (Blackstock, 2005) and for being driven by level of government (Joppe, 1996) rather than empowering local residents in the lack of a genuine transformative intent.

Thus, there is a wide-ranging consensus that 'a viable tourism industry requires a co-ordinated and co-operative management effort from those responsible for delivery of the tourism product' (Plog, 1991; cited in Simpson, 2001). While the ethical and moral dimensions of managerial decision-making were addressed by Wheeler (1992), the conceptual foundations of stakeholder theory in tourism planning have been laid down by Robson & Robson (1996) and Sautter & Leisen (1999). These studies argue that stakeholders need to be identified, their relationships mapped and perspectives explored, in order to understand and synthesise them in a strategic framework that allows for the management of transactions or bargains between stakeholders and the organisation responsible for tourism planning (Goodpaster, 1993; cited in Robson & Robson, 1996; Freeman & McVea, 2001; Sautter & Leisen, 1999). Adapting Freeman's stakeholder map of the firm (1984; p. 55), Robson & Robson (1996) identified the stakeholder groups and presented the stakeholder map of tour operators and that of the local government tourism marketer. Using the same method, Sautter & Leisen (1999) constructed the stakeholder

map of tourism planners, which is presented in Figure 3.7. They emphasise that the framework depicts only a starting point for the identification of stakeholders in mapping the stakeholder relations of a tourism initiative, the complexity of which – both the process and the resulting structure – is often underestimated by planners.

Figure 3.7: Stakeholder map of tourism planners



Source: Sautter & Leisen (1999), adapted from Freeman (1984)

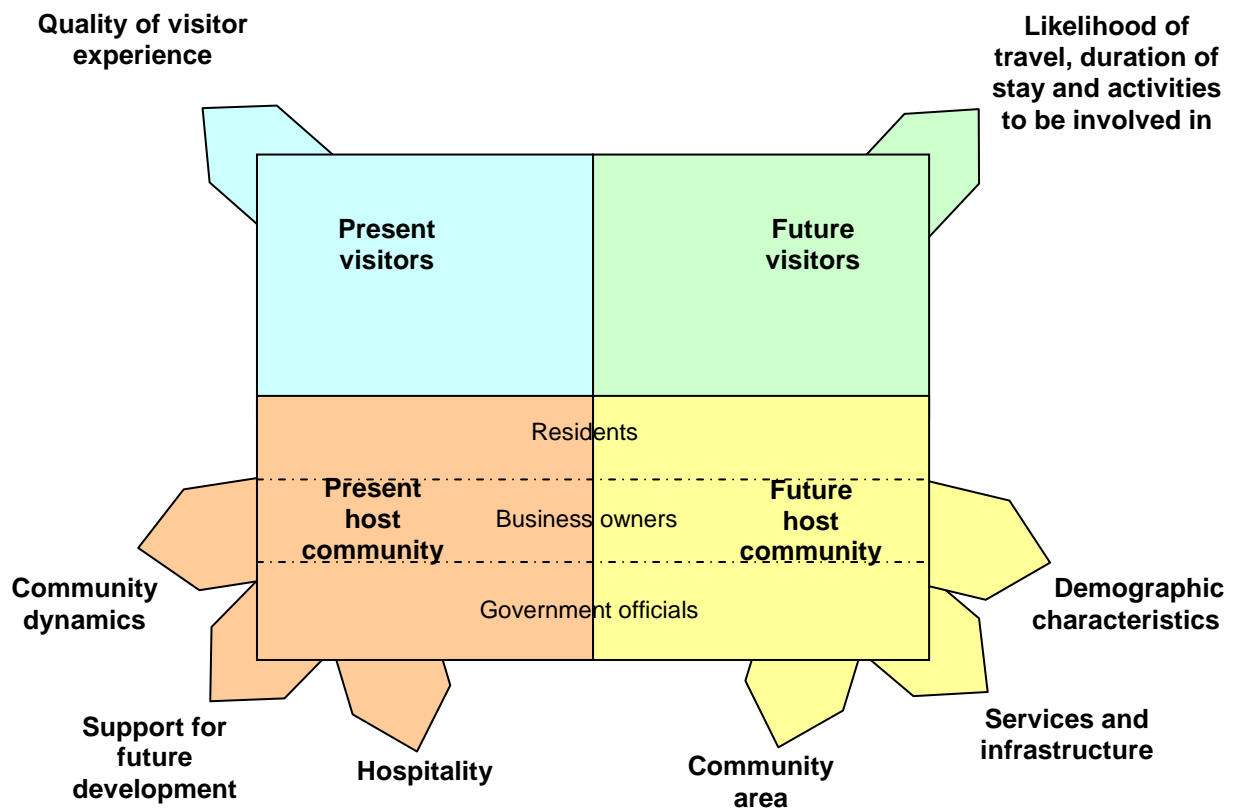
In addition to the identification of stakeholders and their network relationships, stakeholder theory stipulates the identification and classification of 'stake' of the relevant groups or individuals. While all stakeholders' interests have intrinsic value, they vary in the 'worth' or substance from the view of the issue at stake. To distinguish them, is again a challenging task because a stakeholder may share other perspectives than those represented by the stakeholder group he or she pertains, and may as well serve in multiple roles within the larger macro-environment. Thus, those interests or perspectives should be addressed by planners that are 'defined by the roles which they serve with regard to the particular development initiative' (Sautter & Leisen, 1999; p.316). That is, the role played by an entity in a system determines the value of its stake or interest.

Following the conceptualisation of stakeholder theory as a normative planning tool to promote collaboration, in a series of research, Byrd (2003; 2007; Byrd, Cárdenas, & Greenwood, 2008; Byrd & Gustke, 2007) addressed the questions who should be considered stakeholders in tourism development and how could relevant stakeholders be involved in the tourism planning and development process. He argued that by taking into consideration sustainability as a normative rule, four tourism stakeholder groups can be distinguished: the present visitors, future visitors, present host community, and future host community. The host community comprises the residents, business owners and government officials. The planning considerations arising from Byrd's (2007) conceptualisation based on the community changes by these stakeholder groups are presented in Figure 3.8.

The figure illustrates that the interests of the present visitors involve the quality of experience they have or will have, while in the community. Any change to the community may impact the present visitor's experience positively or negatively, and will impact the likelihood of future visitors' travel to the community, the duration of their stay and the activities they may engage in. Hence the underlying argument for stakeholder involvement from the sustainability perspective is that in addition to the tangible part of the tourism product (the number of rooms, facilities, and natural resources) the intangible part of the tourism product is the overall experience for all stakeholders (not only for the tourists), which should also be incorporated in product development.

Concerning the host community, and in line with the above conceptualisation, there is not a definable single generic interest for the host community (Byrd, 2007). The level of stakeholder involvement varies between and within communities according to the interests and empowerment of the stakeholder groups, stemming from different social roles, missions and value platforms (Robson & Robson, 1996). Changes to the community may impact the present host community in three ways: first, it influences community dynamics by assisting in drawing new or keeping the present residents in the community or by accelerating emigration. Second, it will determine their support for future development and will as influence their interactions with visitors that is, community hospitality. Lastly, changes will impact the community area, infrastructure and services and the demographic characteristics of the future community. This shows that support and participation interact and influence the social dimension of sustainable tourism in relation to the stakeholders in the community (Byrd, 2003).

Figure 3.8: Planning considerations based on the impacts of community change by tourism stakeholder group



Source: Author, based on Byrd (2007)

While all stakeholders can not be and need not to be included in the decision-making process equally, all interests should be identified and understood (Donaldson & Preston, 1995 cited in: Byrd, 2007; Freeman, 1984; Donald Getz & Timur, 2005). A failure to identify the interests of a single relevant stakeholder group may jeopardise the entire development process (Clarkson, 1995; cited in Byrd, 2007). Thus, the stakeholder approach does not guarantee a win-win situation for all stakeholder groups, but it will distribute both harms and benefits in a way that ensures the long-term support of all stakeholders (Freeman & McVea, 2001).

3.8 Community participation

The notion of community participation has been the focus of analysis in a recent series of research undertaken by C. Tosun and D. J. Timothy involving three threads: first, a conceptualisation and typology of community participation (Tosun & Timothy, 2003; Tosun, 1999, 2006); second, the nature and challenges of community participation in developing countries where tourism is often the principal area of economic development (Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 1998; 2000; 2001; 2005; 2006; Tosun, Timothy & Öztürk, 2003) further complemented by Li (2004; 2006) and Pongponrat (2007) and lastly, community empowerment in tourism (Timothy, 2002, 2007). In the following two sections, participation and empowerment will be addressed, respectively.

3.8.1 Typology of community participation

Within the context of developing countries, there has been an increasing recognition of economic dependency on metropolitan core countries as a result of tourism development, which often replicates the implementation system of an earlier colonial era (Britton, 1980; Forbes, 1984; Harrison, 1992; Naipaul, 1962 cited in France, 1998). This directed the spotlight on the issue of sustainability in destinations with traditional mass tourism structures dominated by profit-oriented multinational companies. France (1998), in particular, explored the relationship between dependency and participation in the Caribbean. She defined participation as a process of empowerment, through which local people are actively involved in the identification of problems, decision-making and implementation.

In practice, various levels of community participation exist, and certainly not all can contribute to the delivery of desired outcomes of development. In order to identify them in the context of tourism development, France (1998) adapted Pretty's (1995) typology of community participation, which includes seven stages (See: Figure 3.9), and suggested that local involvement ranges from no participation to self-mobilisation, as presented in Table 3.6. It is at the stage of interactive participation where residents are actually in control of all local decisions and contribute decisively to planning. Complete participation means that residents proactively contribute to development and strengthen and extend their activities also into a wider range of economic activities.

In addition to Pretty's (1995) typology, Tosun (1999; 2006) also drew on Arnstein's (1969) typology to develop his own taxonomy of community participation. As it can be seen in Figure 3.9, Arnstein (1969) distinguished various levels of citizen participation ranging from manipulation to citizen control according to the degree of power distribution. Focusing on the forms of community participation in a tourism destination, Tosun (1999) distinguished three levels of participation (coercive, induced and spontaneous) corresponding to the levels of participation in the previous models. He argues that involvement is influenced by the different interest groups' power, objectives and expectations. By applying this framework at a destination through a case study (Tosun, 2006), the differences between the desired forms of participation by the community and the actual level of involvement could be recognised. His findings suggest that meaningful devolution in public administration and the establishment of local non-governmental organisations are key policy interventions to achieving community participation as citizen power.

While France (1998) defined participation as the active involvement of people in decision-making, Tosun & Timothy (2003) based on Stone (1989) point out that active involvement implies the mobilisation of the communities' own resources. In their normative model of community participation they put forward seven propositions in favour of participatory development, highlighting its benefits at all stages of planning. They argue that public participation (1) helps experts to design more suitable plans by (2) satisfying locally identified needs, and therefore (3) stimulates the formulation of implementable policies. It (4) strengthens the democratic process at tourist destinations by (5) contributing to a fair distribution of costs and benefits among community members, therefore it (6) contributes to sustainable tourism development. Lastly, since destination communities are recognised as being an important component of the tourism product, the willingness of community members to support the industry (7) increases tourist satisfaction.

Table 3.6: Types of participation in tourism

Type	Characteristics	Examples from tourism
Plantation	Exploitive, rather than developmental. Possibly paternalist.	No attempt to participate on the part of the workers, who are commonly racially and culturally different from management and owners. Purely for material gain of owners.
Manipulative and passive participation	Pretence of participation	Some highly centralised multinational corporations based in developing countries. Neocolonial attitudes prevail through the use of expatriate labour, capital and technology.
Consultation	Residents are consulted but there is external definition of problem and control	Operations of some MNCs are devolved from metropolitan centres to local elites.
Material incentives	Locals contribute resources but have no stakeholding	Local employment in tourism services where local expertise is used and locals are hiring in some managerial positions.
Functional participation	Participation is seen by outsiders as a way of achieving goals. Major decisions are external	Increasing use of local technology, capital and expertise. Some small hotels are locally owned. Minority élites often the most likely to participate. In larger hotels some decisions are made locally but according to external forces.
Interactive participation	Residents contribute to planning. Groups take control of local decisions.	Hotels are owned by local people or groups of local people. Locally owned services. Maintenance of local events is taken place for the benefit of residents and tourists.
Self-mobilisation	Independent initiatives	Local people who accumulated capital from tourism strengthen and extend their activities.

Source: Based on France (1998) and Timothy (2002)

Despite the widespread recognition of these advantages, case studies focusing on developing countries revealed some of the major challenges of community participation, which are summarised in Table 3.7. The socio-economic situation of any given country is, as de Kadt (1979) asserts, reflected in the problems of any sector. Emerging from this selection of challenges and potential policy responses provided by the authors, some recurrent patterns of over-centralised public administration structure, widespread patron-client relationship and an elitist approach to democracy can be identified (Tosun, 2006). As summarised by Timothy (2002), the mitigating factors of community participation – which are most apparent in developing countries are: socio-political conditions; gender and ethnicity, information accessibility, lack of awareness, economic issues, lack of cooperation/partnerships and peripherality.

Figure 3.9: Normative typologies of community participation

7. Self-mobilization	←	8. Citizen control	Degrees of Citizen Power	→	Spontaneous Participation Bottom-up; active par.; direct participation; par. in decision making, authentic participation; self planning;	
6. Interactive participation		7. Delegated power				6. Partnership
5. Functional participation	←	5. Placation	Degrees of Citizen Tokenism	→	Induced Participation Top-down; passive; formal; mostly indirect; degree of tokenism, manipulation; pseudo-participation; participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between proposed alternatives and feedback.	
4. Participation for material incentives		4. Consultation				3. Informing
3. Participation by consultation		2. Passive participation				2. Therapy
1. Manipulative participation	1. Manipulation					
Pretty's (1995) typology of community participation	Arnstein's (1971) typology of community participation			Tosun's (1999a) typology of community participation		

Keys: Corresponding categories in each typology → ←

Source: Tosun (2006)

Table 3.7: Challenges of community participation in tourism identified in developing countries and policy recommendations

Study	Region/Country	Challenges identified	Policy recommendations
France (1998)	Caribbean	The global nature of tourism coupled with the power exerted by multinational companies	Investment in training and education of local communities; Creating linkages among different sectors of economy such as through public-private cooperative marketing; Promotion of local products and festivals.
Tosun, Timothy & Öztürk, 2003	Turkey	Spatial concentrations of mass tourism investment induced by tourism incentive policies in relatively developed coastal regions have increased disparities among regions and classes.	Deliberate government policies may promote alternative forms of tourism development in the less developed regions where sun-, sea-, and sand-driven mass tourism could not be established.
		The over-centralization of tourism administration and lack of local participation in tourism are causing low acceptance of centrally prepared plans and programs among local residents.	Meaningful devolution in public administration: The central authority should delegate significant parts of its authority and responsibility to lower level of governmental bodies.

Tosun, 2006	Turkey	The reluctance of different levels of bureaucracy to relinquish part of their authority.	
		The relative weakness of civil society institution.	Establishment of NGOs
		<u>Internal factors:</u> Lack of financial sources, negligible local experience of tourism, lack of expertise and competence of tourism matters at the local level; cultural remoteness of host communities to tourism-related businesses.	Financial and entrepreneurial commitment by local people; Provision of cultural familiarities of local people with tourism related businesses through a long and flexible educational process
		<u>External factors:</u> High market and international tour operators dependency	Distribution of costs and benefits of tourism equitably among the actors of tourism in Briton's (1982) "three-tiered hierarchy" by putting neglected local people's needs first.
Li, 2004	China	The developer's unwillingness to let the local community be involved in the planning process, and the local residents' apathy and unawareness about participation. Elite domination	Improvement of coordination mechanisms among the government bodies, the domestic and overseas investors, the tourism planners, and the local populations. An industry code of conduct can direct tourism operations to be more effective and ethical. Reduction of the traditional government bureaucracy.
Li, 2006	China	Property rights arrangements as a key factor of differences between patterns in China's community participation and Western models (State ownership of land and natural resources).	To maintain a sustainable business, the administration has to preserve the natural resources and consider the livelihood of the local residents at the same time. Elite management in order to balance short- and long-term benefits. A viable method of community participation is through employment as workers or as small business operators.

3.8.2 Empowerment

In line with France's (1998) interpretation as discussed above, Timothy (2007) defines empowerment as the 'process of transferring powers to the communities and community stakeholders' (p.199). He however notes that it is not only a process but also a condition (a capacity). Despite this distinction, empowerment is beginning to be utilised to denote types and scales of community participation in tourism development. Specifically, based on Friedmann (1992), Scheyvens (1999) proposed an empowerment framework in the ecotourism context, in which four types of empowerment (economic, psychological, social and political) are distinguished. The framework allows for determining the impacts of

tourism initiatives on local communities, by comparing signs of empowerment and disempowerment. Economic empowerment provides financial benefits for the community; psychological empowerment enables the enhancement of self-esteem in local cultures; social empowerment helps to improve community cohesion and equilibrium; finally, political empowerment provides a representational forum for the local community and thereby a deliberative arena of local tourism matters.

Empowerment is only interpretable through the exercise of power, since it is based on power relationships between those empowered (the authority) and disempowered (other organisations and individuals). This indicates that empowerment is an area on the superimposition of collaboration theory, stakeholder theory and participation. Full political empowerment in this interpretation only exists when decision-making and ownership of benefits lie in the hands of the destination community (Timothy, 2007). Thus, these two dimensions have been identified as vital components of empowerment (Timothy, 2002).

3.7 Conclusions

The present review focused on the historical and current understanding of community involvement in tourism development. It has been seen that the interpretation of community as a group of people distinguished based on shared residency, does not necessarily imply shared values and interest. On the contrary, community is a social fabric of diverse groups of people with different value bases and world views, even if prevailing or specific community interests connect them. Values and interests change over time as the community evolves; thus community can be considered rather a dynamic political and social process than a static geographical entity.

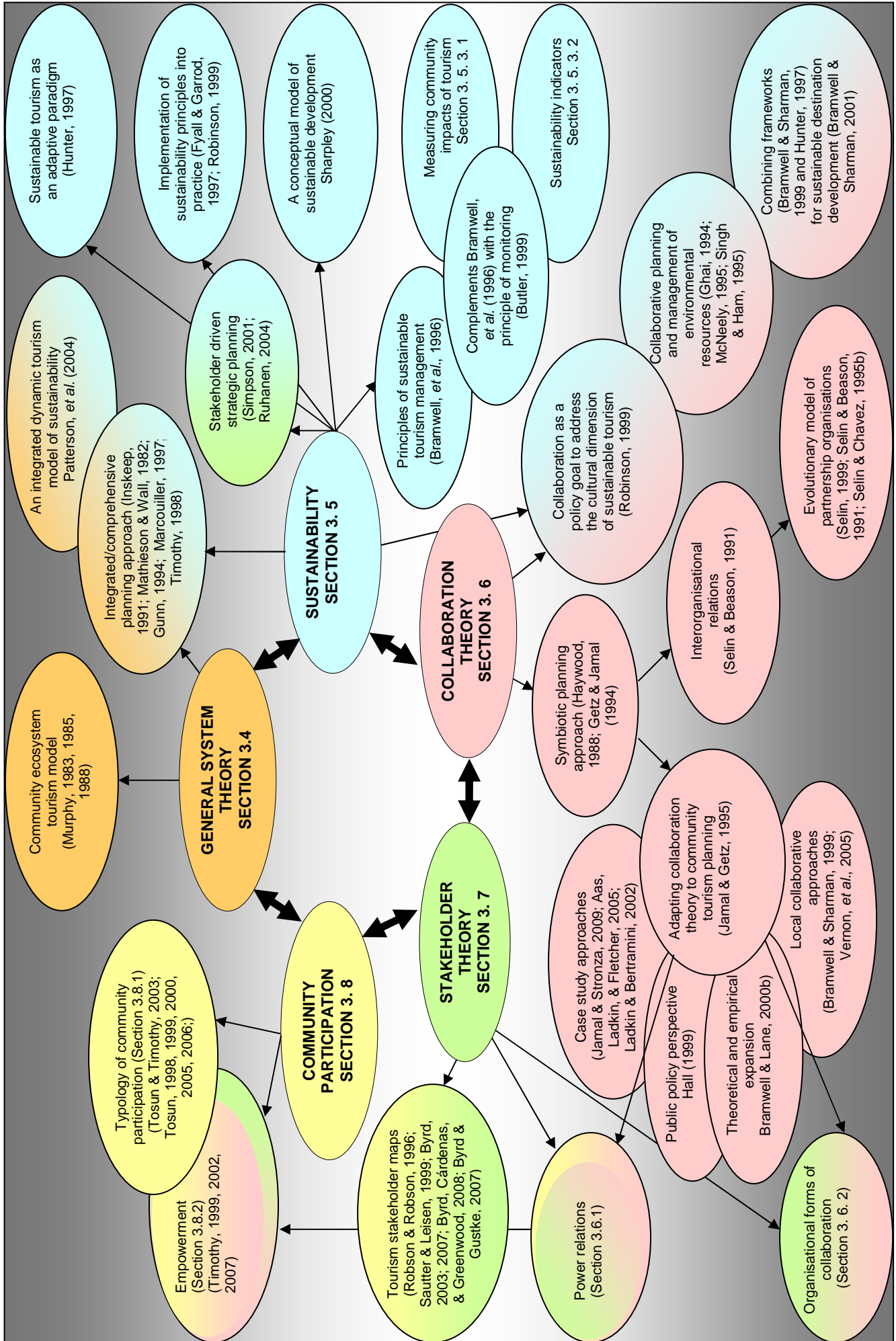
It could be further seen that inherent in all constituting terms of the concept 'community tourism planning and development' are *community*, *heterogeneity* and *change*, which are reflected in all its key theoretical building blocks analysed throughout this review. The recognition of heterogeneity, complexity and the dynamic nature of communities involved in destination systems allows for the identification of adaptive and proactive strategies based on the primacy of local conditions and conflict management to achieve sustainable development by aligning stakeholder interests most effectively.

There are five interrelated areas – general systems theory, sustainability, collaboration theory, stakeholder theory and community participation – identified, which are presented in Figure 3.10. The figure provides a synopsis of the literature by illustratively presenting how sub-fields have emerged throughout the scientific evolution of community tourism planning. The sub-fields and main research contributions as cornerstones of theory construction are differentiated by colour codes in order to expose relationships between fields and highlight areas that emerged on the basis of more than one of the main fields.

General system theory was the earliest theoretical application in community tourism planning, yielding the community ecosystem tourism model and integrated tourism planning approaches on the interface of systems theory and sustainability. Considering that the social dimension of sustainability implies community participation in development, sustainability has become a comprehensive area embracing all other fields. The relational perspective of community tourism planning has gradually turned to focus on more complex systems: the symbiotic approach originally proposed by Haywood (1988) and Getz & Jamal (1994) was followed by the emergence of interorganisational analysis, which in turn formed the basis of the evolutionary tourism partnership model. At the same time, the implication of collaboration theory has led to the analysis of complex organisational forms of collaboration, notably partnerships and networks. Stakeholder theory has formed the basis of tourism stakeholder maps and the taxonomies of community participation have been used to identify the different levels of community participation in tourism development. On the interface of collaboration theory, stakeholder theory and community participation, two interrelated areas have emerged: power relations and empowerment.

In order to explore how governance principles have been interpreted in the tourism literature, the field of community tourism planning has been reviewed. In the next chapter, attention will be focused to one specific and fairly new area. Emerging from the collaborative approaches of community tourism development in the rural setting, integrated rural tourism provides the immediate context for the present research.

Figure 3.10: Synopsis of the literature on community tourism planning



Chapter 4

Integrated Rural Tourism

4.1 Introduction

Within the context of recent debates around integrated and territorial approaches to rural development in Europe's lagging regions, the concept of integrated rural tourism (IRT) has emerged from the research stream exploring collaborative approaches to tourism development in rural areas. Introduced through a series of research conducted under the EU's SPRITE¹ project, IRT promotes the differentiated rurality associated with the shifting agenda in contemporary European agricultural policy seeking to challenge the conventional sectoral vision. Despite being a recently coined concept, it finds its roots in social network theory, which can be distinguished from actor-network theory in that it considers only people as actors of networks, non-human actants are not in the scope of analysis (See: Chapter 2.2.2.3). One of the major distinctive characteristics of IRT as compared to other collaborative approaches in rural tourism is that on the basis of social network theory it focuses on the social characteristics of networks, notably embeddedness, endogeneity and empowerment. It explores to what extent these integrative features are apparent in tourism networks in rural areas and in the European countryside in particular.

For this reason IRT provides the rationale for adopting rural governance principles in the context of tourism support of local development organisations. Correspondingly, it offers the theoretical underpinning of the quantitative 'support' component of this thesis. The present chapter therefore explores the rationale for integrated approaches in rural tourism development, reviews the present state of the art of such initiatives and presents the concept, characteristics and evolution of IRT.

¹ Supporting and Promoting Integrated Tourism in Europe's Lagging Rural Regions (2001-2004)

4.2 Rationale for integrated tourism development in rural areas

The progressing agenda of devolution across Europe coupled with accumulating evidence on spatial trajectories of rural development suggest that there is growing recognition of the need for greater spatial sensitivity in rural policy making (Lowe & Ward, 1998; Marsden, 1998, cited in Bristow, 2000). Innovative strategies are required which encourage economic development yet preserve the rural character of the countryside (Caalders, 1997). This in turn raises questions about the territorial and institutional structures required to encapsulate sectoral diversification and the multifunctional use of resources in rural restructuring (as discussed in Chapter 2.3.1 and 2.3.2 dedicated to the territorial and institutional dimension of contemporary rural restructuring). As it has been argued in Chapter 1.3.1 and 2.3.1, engagement in tourism provides significant implications for this process. Fundamentally, tourism contributes to rural revitalisation by the provision of new uses for old facilities and resources, often through a focal point on community activity (Hegarty & Przezborska, 2005).

This is because the rural tourism product is usually a commodification of the local history, culture or the natural environment shaped by the historical trajectories of old and new social relations of the localities (George, Mair, & Reid, 2009; Kneafsey, 2001). Tourism supply is typically characterised by small and micro enterprises specialised for niche markets, retailing or small-scale accommodation. Although an intrinsic feature of sustainable rural tourism is small-scale business, the fragmented nature of diversified businesses reveals a number of weaknesses, notably limited market knowledge, low quality products/services, lack of finance, low levels of knowledge of tourism and tourists, and inadequate supporting infrastructures (Hall, 2004; cited in: Sharpley & Roberts, 2004).

Indeed, the small and remote rural communities usually lack sufficient financial sources, infrastructure and technical assistance. Subsequently, they are characterised by insufficient collaborative capacity to capitalise on cooperative marketing opportunities. As Cai (2002) argues, 'a common challenge for tourism development in a single rural community is its limited drawing power [...] coupled with the absence of a distinctive image. [...] In order to make the most of rural tourism resources, communities must approach their marketing activities from a cooperative perspective' (p.738). For this reason, the modernisation of supply structures, marketing, training, the protection of potentially attractive areas and the widening of opportunities for participation in rural

tourism have been identified as areas of intervention by the authorities for the development of rural tourism (Grefe, 1994).

Furthermore, it has been also pointed out in Chapter 3.2 that communities are not homogeneous entities. Rural tourism development is a negotiated process, which 'involves many social actors who continually reshape and transform plans and policy through interaction and negotiation' (Verbole, 2000). In order to rural tourism strategies be sustainable, wide consultation among all interest groups is essential (Lane, 1994). Different actors are involved in the development process whose interests should be identified and understood in accordance with the principles of stakeholder theory (For more details, see: Chapter 3.7).

Oliver & Jenkins (2003) draw attention to the difficulties that lie in the identification of legitimate stakeholders in emergent rural tourist settings, where interests are often not collectively organised. Thus, the establishment of networks has been recognised as an essential ingredient for the successful development of rural tourism. The potential of networks has been described as the 'a new paradigm' (Murdoch, 2000) and the 'yin and yang' (Rosenfeld, 2001) of rural development. The main stimuli for networking in rural areas identified in the latter study are the development of cluster strategies, the creation of social infrastructure, access to specialised labour and growing policy interest in learning organisations and regions.

In the tourism context, networking both amongst similar suppliers and other businesses which combine in the provision of the total rural tourism experience has been emphasised (Barke, 2004; Embacher, 1994; cited in Sharpley & Roberts, 2004). Rural tourists have varied motivations, which provides a unique opportunity for rural operators to cluster their activities and establish networks of different service providers 'organised in such a way as to maximise opportunity and offer a diverse range of activities' (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004). In addition, the sustainability of the process also requires backward linkages or networks to ensure local supply of goods and services (Sharpley & Roberts, 2004). Besides cooperation within the private sector, Wilson, *et al.* (2001) identified public-private cooperation as a success factor for rural tourism development. In fostering and maintaining good public-private relationships, they emphasised the role of non-profit organisations such as convention and visitor bureaus.

Murdoch (2000) and Kneafsey, Ilbery, & Jenkins (2001) further argued that a successful culture economy within a networks framework in rural territories is achieved through a combination of both horizontal and vertical networks. Vertical integration is manifested in co-operation and partnership as in any supply chain structure, whereas on the horizontal axis of integration, tourism-related businesses and activities and ultimately tourists themselves, are linked to other economic, social and cultural activities within a particular landscape. While vertical integration enables links to the outside, horizontal integration promotes greater embeddedness of the tourism product and the touristic experience within the rural landscape. However, Bramwell & Lane, (2000a) highlighted that complete vertical and horizontal integration is likely to be relatively rare in tourism collaboration. It is therefore necessary to explore the processes whereby different types of partnership alliance, ranging from co-existence, cooperation, collaboration to integration are formed in specific situations and regions.

In Table 4.1 below, the arguments identified in support of integrated approaches are summarised, centred around rural demand and supply, the rural tourism product and development process. Following Bramwell & Lane (2000a), in the next section the different types of rural partnership alliance will be examined drawing on case studies from the literature.

4.3 Integrated approaches to rural tourism development

For almost three decades, stakeholder involvement has remained among the recurrent themes of the literature on rural tourism identified by two special editions of main tourism journals dedicated to rural tourism (Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 1994, 2 (1+2) and International Journal of Tourism Research, 2004, 6). A decade after the edition of the first special issue in 1994, Sharpley & Roberts (2004) posited two questions which, in the authors view, still remained unanswered. 'Why, even within the European Union (EU), where integrated rural development is well understood and policy emerging, has rural tourism no overt role (Roberts and Hall, 2001b)? Why is it so difficult to translate the worthy rhetoric of policy and strategy into action at the local level when benefits of doing so are well documented and understood in principle?' (p.123). Almost a decade later, the present state of the art on integrated approaches to tourism development still reflect these questions. Notably, it could be seen in the previous chapter that there is a well identifiable

research stream of community tourism planning focusing on the implementation of sustainability principles into practice (Chapter 3.5.2), which pointed out that there is in fact a gap between sustainability doctrine and its 'real world' application (Fyall & Garrod, 1997; Robinson, 1999; Ruhanen, 2004; Simpson, 2001; Trousdale, 1999; Wallace, 1996). More recently, a gap between tourism planning and implementation was also identified (Lai, Li & Feng, 2006). These cases highlight the relevancy of the second question.

Table 4.1: Arguments identified in the literature in support of integrated approaches to tourism in rural areas

	Arguments	Author(s)
Rural demand	Rural tourists have varied motivations covering a diverse range of activities and experiences.	Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004
Rural supply	Rural tourism businesses are typically small and micro enterprises specialised for niche markets, retailing or small-scale accommodation.	Hall, 2004; Panyik, Costa & Ratz, 2011
	Rural communities generally lack sufficient financial resources, infrastructure and technical assistance.	Barke, 2004; Hall, 2004; Panyik, Costa & Ratz, 2011
	Rural communities are generally characterised by limited drawing power and the absence of a distinctive image.	Cai, 2002
	Tourism interests are often not collectively organised, which makes it difficult to identify the legitimate stakeholders.	Oliver & Jenkins, 2003
The rural tourism product	It is a commodification of the local history, culture or the natural environment.	George, Mair, & Reid, 2009
	It is based on historical trajectories of old and new social relations of the localities.	Kneafsey, 2001
The rural development process	It is a negotiated process, which involves many social actors who continually reshape and transform plans and policy through interaction and negotiation.	Verbole, 2000
	Sustainable rural tourism strategies require wide consultation amongst interest groups.	Lane, 1994
	Sustainable rural tourism development requires the creation of backward linkages or networks to ensure local supply of goods and services.	Sharpley & Roberts, 2004

Considering the first question, tourism has become a measure of the EU rural development policy in 2007-2013 financial period in Axis 3 as well as in the LEADER Programme. The importance of tourism in the LEADER Programme is widely recognised (Barke & Newton, 1995; Bull, 1999; Hjalager, 1996; Roberts & Hall, 2001; Wanhill, 1997), since tourism is one of the principal areas of development targeted in the local development strategies of most LAGs across the EU (Barke & Newton, 1997; Dinis, Panyik, & Breda, 2010; Scott, 2002). However, integrated approaches to tourism in rural

areas in general, as well as the collaborative capacity of the LAGs for innovative tourism actions in particular, have been underrepresented in the academic discourse (Panyik, Costa & Ratz, 2011).

Emergent themes are nevertheless evident. The insufficient collaborative capacity to capitalise on cooperative marketing opportunities described by Cai (2002) in a marketing consortium comprising rural counties was also identified in the context of cross-border networking initiatives (Ilbery, Saxena & Kneafsey, 2007; Saxena & Ilbery, 2008). Ilbery, Saxena & Kneafsey (2007) underlined that the failure of cooperative branding and marketing efforts occurred despite the unique opportunity that the national border presented for such initiatives. Underpinning the scholarly argument on the importance of the public sector in enabling bottom-up initiatives and stimulating collaboration (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004; Murdoch & Abram, 1998; Vernon, 2005; Wilson, *et al.*, 2001), Beeton (2002) pointed out the missed opportunity to apply the Australian innovative, community-based 'Landcare' programmes as a destination marketing tool. Notwithstanding the recognition of the clear link between Landcare and rural tourism by both the tourism and Landcare representatives, the cooperative networks that farmers developed to promote and sell their goods were proven to be incapable of promoting and selling their tourism products. The case reflected the ignorance of the government-led destination marketing agencies towards the enormous potential benefit of extending such promotional activities with educational and marketing aspects of rural tourism.

Conversely, Fleischer & Felsenstein (2000) draw attention to the pitfalls of public support. A typical enterprise, such as the bed-and-breakfast establishment, is perceived as having low barriers to entry; employing existing, underutilised (fixed and human) capital; and placing modest demands on public assistance (Slee, *et al* 1997). Yet, intuitively, this form of economic development is associated with the generation of local jobs and incomes. Fleischer & Felsenstein (2000) argue that the small-scale character of these operations could perhaps render them marginal in terms of any efforts to improve local welfare. Thus, supporting them may only serve to cannibalise existing enterprises as demand is redivided among more operators.

Successful cases in the literature emphasised the importance of clustering activities, attractions and events to promote local tourism as a package (Wilson, *et al.*, 2001; Novelli, Schmitz & Spencer, 2006; Hall, 2005). The main aim of clustering is to generate business

and market diversification through inter-firm synergies (Novelli, Schmitz & Spencer, 2006). A mix of complementary businesses involving a chain of projects such as tourism routes stimulates entrepreneurial opportunity and cooperation (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004; Fagence, 1991; Greffe, 1994; Lew, 1991; Telfer, 2001).

Briedenhann & Wickens (2004) enlisted international examples on tourism routes, namely, the European Cultural Routes, the Santiago de Compostela Pilgrim Ways and the Australian Queensland Heritage Trails Network, and discussed the development and utilisation of rural tourism routes in South Africa through the African Dream Project established in 2000. This study broadly confirmed the factors identified by Hall (2004), which inhibit rural tourism development due to the fragmented nature and small-scale of rural businesses. These are limited understanding of tourism, need for educational programmes and infrastructure upgrading and development, which fall primarily within the public sector domain.

The identification of specific qualities of rural communities and a unique portfolio of activities are crucial in the clustering process. Briedenhann & Wickens (2004) cite the old Japanese saying 'a lighthouse does not throw a light on its own foot', meaning that as a result of limited understanding of tourism, many communities fail to recognise their own potential and the value of their own resources. For this reason, Fagence (1991) argue that in remote areas with a geographically-dispersed pattern of townships, each small town should be considered as a nodal point of tourist attraction in a 'community-attraction complex' (Gunn, 1972, 1988), capitalising on its special qualities and opportunities. Cai (2002) further argues that cooperative branding helps to synchronise the drawing powers of the attractions based on shared destination attributes across multiple rural communities.

Still in the context of rural tourism routes, Hall (2005) emphasised the role of food and wine clusters and networks in rural tourism development. Telfer (2001) pointed out the importance of formal and informal links between intra-sector and multi-sector alliances in the establishment of wine routes, which enhance the multiplier effect of tourism. Such business networks and partnerships should strive to find and maintain the balance between internal information share and external support for joint tourism promotion (Saxena & Ilbery, 2008). Agricultural diversification through innovation in the production portfolio and community-level organisations (Hjalager, 1996), whereby maintaining a balance between economic development and preservation of the rural character of the

countryside (Caalders, 1997) were also found to be crucial to increase the ability of communities to attract more tourists.

Table 4.2 below presents the three main themes identified – cooperative marketing, public sector intervention and vertical and horizontal clusters and networks – and the specific contributions provided by case studies in the literature on integrated approaches to rural tourism development. In the next section, the focus of attention will be directed at the concept of IRT.

4.4 Conceptualising IRT

To address the challenges posed by the diversity of resources and stakeholders involved in rural tourism, the notion of IRT has been first introduced by Jenkins & Oliver (2001) and Oliver & Jenkins (2003), and later conceptualised by Cawley & Gillmor (2008), Saxena, *et al.* (2007) and Saxena & Ilbery (2008). As already mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, the theoretical foundation has been developed through a series of research conducted under the EU Fifth Framework in various rural territories across the EU. The evolution of the concept is illustratively presented in Figure 4.1, which shows how new areas of research have emerged following the conceptualisation of IRT. Within the research stream measurement tools have been developed (Clark & Chabrel, 2007; Bousset, *et al.*, 2007), stakeholders' attitudes explored (Ilbery, Saxena & Kneafsey, 2007) and organisational structures analysed (Cawley, Marsat & Gillmor, 2007; Petrou, *et al.*, 2007). More recently, an event-based approach towards the implementation of IRT has been introduced (Panyik, Costa & Rátz, 2011).

As a holistic approach to tourism in rural territories, IRT was formally defined as the formation of powerful network connections that link tourism explicitly to the social, cultural, economic, environmental and human resources of the localities in which tourism activity takes place (Saxena, *et al.*, 2007; Jenkins & Oliver, 2001). There are seven dimensions identified by Jenkins & Oliver (2001) from the literature that characterise IRT: networking, scale, endogeneity, embeddedness, sustainability, complementarity and empowerment, which are defined and summarised in Table 4.3. These concepts have been used as the theoretical foundation of IRT in subsequent studies. In particular, Oliver & Jenkins (2003) compared them against preliminary findings of the SPRITE project and Cawley & Gillmor

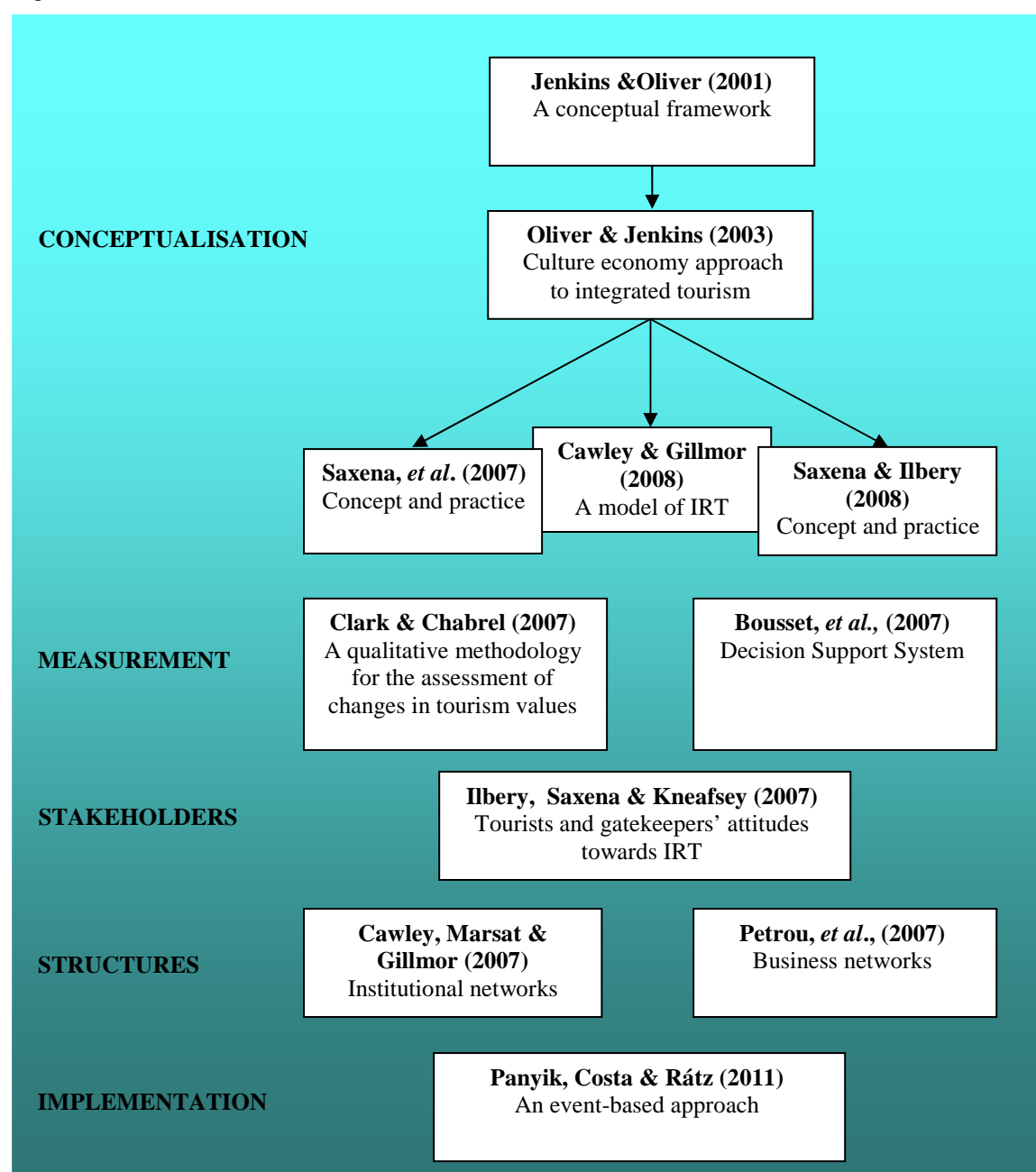
(2008) and Clark & Chabrel (2007) employed them as seven dimensions in measuring IRT.

In particular, under the SPRITE project, the perceived changes on each dimension identified by the various actor groups – the communities, gatekeepers, institutions, resource controllers, visitors and businesses – have been explored through qualitative methods. As Clark & Chabrel (2007) argued, this actor-based approach to measuring value change is in line with experience-based approaches to the study of tourism (Skayannis, 2003). Statistical methods were dropped due to difficulties linked to the collection and international comparison of large-scale statistical data. The aim was to cluster these actor groups in time and space in order to map the process and way tourism experiences have been elaborated.

Table 4.2: Case study findings on integrated approaches to rural tourism development

Author(s)	Main themes	Specific contributions
Cai (2002)	Cooperative marketing	Cooperative branding allows for the creation of stronger linkages of the image to the brand identity and more favourable affective and attitudes-based brand associations for a region
Beeton (2002), Ilbery, Saxena & Kneafsey (2007), Saxena & Ilbery (2008)		Insufficient collaborative capacity to capitalise on cooperative marketing opportunities
Fleischer & Felsenstein (2000),	Public sector intervention	The small-scale character of rural tourism businesses could render them marginal in terms of any efforts to improve local welfare. Thus, supporting them may only serve to cannibalise existing enterprises as demand is redivided among more operators.
Beeton (2002)		The misled opportunity to apply the educational and marketing aspects of community-based programmes as a rural destination marketing tool.
Hall, (2004); Briedenhann & Wickens (2004)		Areas of intervention that fall primarily within the public sector domain
Telfer (2001)	Vertical and horizontal clusters and networks	The role of formal and informal links between intra-sector and multi-sector alliances in the establishment of wine tourism routes
Novelli, Schmitz & Spencer (2006)		Cluster formation through implication of 'healthy lifestyle tourism'
Briedenhann & Wickens (2004)		The development and utilisation of rural tourism routes
Hjalager (1996), (Caalders, 1997)		Agricultural diversification into tourism
Fagence (1991)		Small towns as nodal points in regional strategies for rural areas.

Figure 4.1: The evolution of IRT



Cawley & Gillmor (2008) also used qualitative methods to gain understanding of the way in which IRT operates in practice, by seeking the views and documenting the experiences of six closely-involved actor groups: tourists, tour operators, owners and managers of tourism businesses, providers of resources for tourism, institutions involved in pertinent policy and planning, and host community members in destination areas. The purpose of the analysis was to derive an overall qualitative evaluation of the value added by IRT in the region,

over four years. Accordingly, purposive and quota sampling were used so as to best illustrate the operation of IRT in the study region. Value was measured on a scale from 0 to 3, from “no change” (0), to “minor” (1), “some” (2), and “major” (3) change, in either a positive or a negative direction, to measure the order of fit by each of the seven nodes of integration. In general, the study emphasised the need for a clear definition of multidimensional sustainability. The findings revealed that entrepreneurs tend to prioritise economic gain even when they are generally supportive of broader aspects of sustainability, whereas some host community members reject tourism as intrusive rather than accepting its importance for the wider economy. In promoting empowerment, a more effective joint involvement of these two stakeholder groups has been suggested.

Table 4.3: The seven dimensions of IRT

Dimension	Description
Networking	The ability of people, firms and agencies in the locality and beyond to work together to develop and manage tourism
Scale	The extent of tourism in an area in terms of its distribution over time and geographically, bearing in mind any thresholds related to the area's carrying capacity
Endogeneity	The degree to which the area's tourism is recognized as being based on the real resources of the area
Sustainability	The extent to which tourism does not damage, and possibly enhances, the environmental and ecological resources of the area
Embeddedness	The role tourism plays in the politics, culture and life of the whole area and population as a local priority
Complementarity	The degree to which tourism provides resources or facilities that benefit those who live locally in the area even if not directly involved in the tourism industry
Empowerment	The extent of political control over the tourism industry through ownership, law or planning; particularly control exercised at a local level

Source: Clark & Chabrel (2007)

In order to formulate future scenarios of the likely impacts of integrated tourism policies, Bousset, *et al.*, (2007) developed a decision support system, which allows for the evaluation of hypothetical policies by simulating stakeholders' decision-making. The instrument was applied in three case-study areas under the SPRITE project. Findings indicated that the results of the evaluation of policies are highly sensitive to resources and preferences of tourism supporters and to the distribution of local resources. The results of the negotiation process, on the other hand, were found to be sensitive to the willingness of the most powerful and best-resourced actors to negotiate with other actors, and to the level of networking.

While Bousset, *et al.*, (2007) provided a methodological tool to assist planning in the design of proper integrated policies in a given area, Panyik, Costa & Rátz (2011) took a different approach and focused on the way in which such policies could be implemented in rural areas. As mentioned in Chapter 5.2.5, they examined an event-based approach in the context of a nation-wide event for the promotion of rural tourism organised by LEADER Programme, and the study served as a preliminary research for this thesis). In addition to the results briefly summarised in Chapter 5.2.5, one intriguing finding of this research was the importance of local marketing of a national-level event confirmed by both qualitative and quantitative methods. It was argued that the major challenge of the event-based approach to IRT rests in the capacity of the actors to collectively plan and implement a marketing strategy at the local level.

The network characteristics of IRT have been the focus of analysis of various case studies under the SPRITE project, in different sectoral and geographical contexts. Ilbery, Saxena & Kneafsey (2007) and Saxena & Ilbery (2008) explored rural networks in the England-Wales border region through stakeholder perceptions and attitudes; Cawley, Marsat, & Gillmor (2007) analysed and compared institutional networks and Petrou, *et al.* (2007) examined and compared business networks, both in more than one countries.

The first two studies highlighted some of the major difficulties facing rural networks of today in peripheral tourist destinations. As discussed earlier in Section 4.3, Ilbery, Saxena & Kneafsey (2007) reported on the dearth of cooperative branding between rural networks from different sides of the border. They pointed out that borders can be either a lever or a barrier for tourism development. In fact, 'where a tradition of tourism is limited, it is hard to develop a sense of collective good that can transcend the barriers of narrow self-interest; individual firms prefer to compete than cooperate. The spatial barrier of the England-Wales border (reinforced by different gatekeepers, funding and promotional styles) divides the tourist space more sharply than the few miles between the towns would suggest' (p.463).

Saxena & Ilbery (2008) also found a low level of integration of existing local business networks with strategic regional tourism planning, despite significant soft-network activity. A failure to link the different local actors through coordinated actions such as wider marketing policymaking was also identified. As a consequence, cross-cutting, multi-dimensional issues such as competitiveness and sustainability have not been adequately

addressed. It was argued that overly embedded networks can be socially exclusive leading to 'defensive localism', which manifests in frictions between city and the countryside. The domination of powerful local actors may be conducive to disputes, jealousies and challenges to the power relations culminating in 'endogenous fraternities' and the 'hostile brothers' scenario'.

In recognition of the importance of institutional linkages in networking, Cawley, Marsat, & Gillmor (2007) adopted a comparative approach to the analysis of networking by tourism institutions during four key stages in the production chain, from policy formulation to marketing. Ireland and France were compared and similarities and differences in effectiveness of institutional networking and varying level of involvement in tourism had been identified. The institutional framework pertinent to tourism was found to be characterised by considerable dynamism in both countries, involving a transfer of functions to sub-national levels and the emergence of new governance structures such as LEADER and other local area partnerships.

Inputs to regional and local tourism planning, and policy to a lesser extent, took place in both regions through subsidiary types of relationships between regional tourism institutions. Notably, support for tourism training involved extensive local networking. These structures facilitated local networking in the context of 'soft' supports, small-scale funding for business development, aspects of quality promotion and local organisation for promotional purposes. Perhaps one of the key findings of this study is that notwithstanding the growth in regional and local institutions and some devolution of decision-making to sub-national levels, strategic decision making remained centralised within national state institutions in Ireland and, to some extent, in France, too.

The local business networks play a crucial role in balancing the interests of various stakeholders. Petrou, *et al.* (2007) focused on the way in which formal and informal interactions between businesses shape the tourist product. Essentially, networking requires social embeddedness of firms, which leads to a deviation from single-minded profit-maximisation strategies towards collaborative action in uncertain, complex or other challenging situations. They found that rural businesses clearly weigh up the advantages and drawbacks associated with (dis)embeddedness and the decision to join a network is eventually based on an informal cost-benefit analysis.

4.5 Conclusions

In order to provide a comprehensive review of the current understanding of IRT, this chapter has been divided into three main sections. The first section presented arguments from the literature in support of the integrated approach to rural tourism development. It could be seen that these arguments embrace both sides of tourism, as well as the process and product of rural tourism development, which reinforces its importance and relevancy. Essentially, as Saxena, *et al.* (2007) put it: 'Rural communities are affected in distinctive ways by the paradigm of competition that dominates traditional economic development policy. This is particularly true for the communities in lagging rural regions that lack the critical mass of people or infrastructure to compete for industry and business. Thus, the guiding philosophy of IRT recognises that local actors are an important and significant part of a region (both in terms of culture and geography) and can benefit from policies that empower them and enhance their long-term well-being' (p.363).

In the second section, attention has been directed to case studies from the literature to explore how actors integrate in practice. The systematic review of case studies suggests that there are three main areas of interest in this context: cooperative marketing, public sector intervention and vertical and horizontal clusters and networks. Indeed, cooperative branding and marketing has been considered as perhaps the most important area of, and a major potential for, collaborative action. It has the potential to make up for the disadvantages of most rural communities, arising from limited financial sources, drawing power, technical assistance and infrastructure capacity. In this regard, the support of the public sector is essential in a way that does not impose decisions on communities from above but rather provide conditions for development and stimulate local activity.

Among the stakeholders' formations, networks have been at the centre of analysis. The evaluation of network characteristics allows for the understanding of IRT in any given rural region. Furthermore, 'for tourism to qualify as integrated - both as a theory and approach - the notion of network connections among social, cultural, economic and environmental resources, different tourism actors, and the end product is central' (Saxena, 2008; p.234).

In the last section, the development and main areas of the recently emerged and therefore still fairly narrow research stream of IRT has been discussed. In particular, the research contributions have been presented in Figure 4.1, which provided an overall view of the

evolution of IRT. As it has been seen, IRT is a complex concept, which comprises seven dimensions and focuses on the role of rural networks as linkages between actors and rural tourism resources.

It is closely linked to the normative conceptualisation of sustainability, in that it seeks to achieve balance between the optimal use and the protection of resources. Also, it emphasises participation and recognises that 'its meaning at any point in time and the methods adopted for its attainment are negotiated among differing interests in particular contexts' (Cawley & Gillmor, 2008; p.319).

In regard to the present review, there are sufficient arguments to support the employment of rural governance principles in the context of tourism support of local development organisations. Subsequently, in the next chapter, the methodology of the research will be presented.

Chapter 5

Methodology

5.1 Introduction

On the basis of the literature review carried out in the previous chapters, the proposed research will be presented in this chapter. To this end, it opens with a section dedicated to the general methodological considerations that have guided the research process and the overall structure of the research (5.2). In this section, the literature gaps will be first presented in the context of key segments of the previously reviewed literature to provide rationale for the two-fold research structure. Emerging from the literature gaps, the chapter then moves on to present the research questions, hypotheses and objectives. To provide an overall view on the evolution of the thesis, the key components are summarised and illustratively presented in the research structure. The research design that best suited for this particular structure will be then discussed, along with the underlying paradigm adopted in this study. The section on the general considerations closes with a critical evaluation of Internet-based data collection and justification for its usage in the present case.

Considering that, as it will be seen in the next section, this thesis comprises two components that are addressed by different research methods, the qualitative and the quantitative methods will be discussed separately. This allows for a thorough description and evaluation of each method. In addition, it helps to prevent one of the main pitfalls of mixed-methods research, namely, that one of the multiple methodologies applied becomes less rigorously defined and implemented than the other (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Hence, in Section 5.3, the qualitative methodology will be addressed. First, the rationale of the method and the conceptual framework of the research will be presented, followed by a brief discussion on the wider historical-organisational context to support the understanding of the research problem. Detailed description will be then provided on the research design, including the data collection and analysis and the evaluation of the qualitative methodology.

Before moving forward to the quantitative methodology, the development of the variables employed in the quantitative component will be explained in Section 5.4. The reason why it precedes the quantitative methodology is that the variables should be first introduced and explained before they are operationalised in the quantitative methodology. This section starts with the theoretical foundation of variable development, and proceeds by systematically addressing each of the three concepts of rural governance that serve as a basis for variable development. In the end of this process, the hypothetical model of rural tourism governance is presented, thereby summarising the results of this section.

The last section (5.5) presents the methodology of the quantitative component, which, as discussed above, begins with the operationalisation of the variables. The research design will be addressed next, with particular emphasis on the data collection process and sampling issues. The chapter then continues with an explanation of the final decisions regarding the implementation of the survey instrument, and finalises with a characterisation of the sample on which the quantitative component of this investigation is based.

5.2 General considerations and overall structure

5.2.1 The literature gaps

The most common way of producing research questions is to spot gaps, such as overlooked areas in the existing literature, and, based on that, to formulate specific research questions (Sandberg & Alvesson, 2011). Perhaps the single most difficult task of any research is to identify those gaps in the literature. In order to be able to do so in the field of tourism, one has to turn to other disciplines or sub-disciplines, since the roots of tourism research originate from a diversity of academic disciplines, including geography, political sciences, sociology, anthropology, economics, marketing and management (Pansiri, 2009).

The present thesis draws on political sciences to link rural governance with IRT, a subfield of community tourism planning, by employing governance principles as determinants of organisational performance and tourism support. Thus, the thesis aims at bridging these fields in order to advance understanding of the role of rural governance principles in the

tourism context. Accordingly, three underpinning areas have been previously discussed in the literature review: rural governance (Chapter 2), community tourism planning (Chapter 3) and within the latter, the specific area of this research: IRT (Chapter 4).

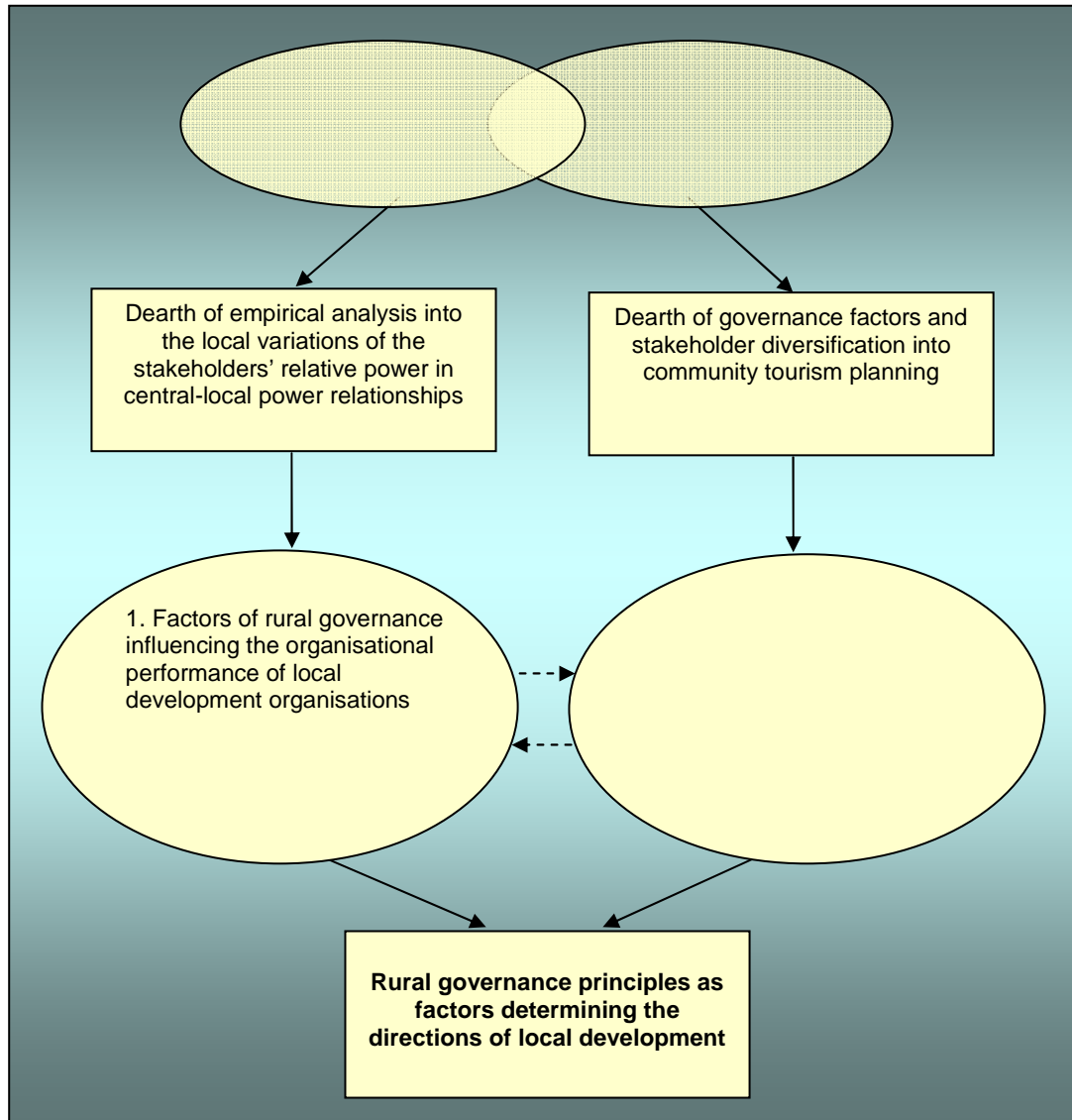
Reflecting the two principal fields of literature, two literature gaps have been identified, which justifies the methodological division of the thesis along two components: a qualitative 'performance' component, and a quantitative 'support' component, as presented earlier in Chapter 1. Figure 5.1 illustrates the identification process and the relationship of the literature gaps, starting with the areas of literature, along with the steps of recognition of areas with potential contribution till the overall aim of the research linking both components. As such, the configuration of the literature gaps determines the basic structure of the research.

Firstly, the literature review of rural governance shed light on the dearth of empirical analysis into the nature of relationships between local participants and central authorities in rural governance. In particular, as Goodwin (1998); Hajer & Wagenaar (2003); Herbert-Cheshire (2006); Imrie & Raco (1999); Jordan, Wurzel, & Zito (2005); Little (2001); Storey (1999) and O'Malley (1996) pointed out, research on rural governance is largely absent in empirical investigation into local variations of the stakeholders' relative power in central-local power relationships of governance structures. As it could be seen in Chapter 2, past research is indeed comprise predominantly of theoretical approaches; contemporary debates are centred around the legitimacy of rural restructuring as a paradigm shift, the currency of the transition to a post-productivist agricultural regime and the implication of Foucault's governmentality theory (For references see: Table 2.1 on the key themes of rural governance on p.53).

The relatively low number of case studies focus on the characteristics of governance (See under the section entitled: 'Reconfiguration of the scalar hierarchy of the state' in Table 2.1), its relational forms: partnerships and networks (See under 'Relational perspective of power' in Table 2.1); and the key issues related to the way governance is being implemented and negotiated between central and local actors. These are, specifically, the democratic deficit of unelected bodies, the influential role of the public sector, the shifting position of local government, evaluation and limited empowerment (For references see: Table 2.1). However, when considering central-local relationships, there is a missing link between the implementation of governance principles – participation, integration and

empowerment – and the performance of governance organisations, which has not been at the centre of attention so far.

Figure 5.1: Identification of the two-fold literature gap with regard to the main theoretical areas and the ultimate goal of the thesis



Thus, in consideration of the above discussion, the first literature gap identified and addressed in this thesis is as follows:

Literature gap 1: The role of rural governance principles as critical factors of rural governance influencing the directions of local development through organisational performance of rural governance organisations.

The literature review of community tourism planning highlighted the dearth of stakeholder diversification and the implication of governance factors into research on community support for tourism. In particular, while the overwhelming majority of studies addressing perceptions on and attitudes towards tourism development focus on residents, Byrd, Bosley, & Dronberger (2009) pointed out that only a very few studies addressed different stakeholder groups by means of comparative analysis. Moreover, as pointed out in Chapter 1.3.2, Shortt (1994) and Godfrey (1998) argued that the attitudes of local land-use planners concerned with tourism have been overlooked in the literature. Lankford (1994) even went further by contending that the goals of community development cannot be achieved if policies are made without incorporating the mutual support and understanding of government employees and decision-makers.

The comparative studies analysed the views of two or more of four stakeholder groups: residents, entrepreneurs, tourists and government officials, with the latter being the least researched stakeholder group. Results of these studies revealed that group differences on tourism development preferences are indeed manifest (Andriotis, 2005; Byrd, 1997; Byrd, Bosley, & Dronberger, 2009; Kavallinis & Pizam, 1994; Lankford, 1994; McNicol, 1996; Murphy, 1983; Puczko & Ratz, 2000; Stewart & Draper, 2007), which confirms the importance to investigate other stakeholder groups within a community in order to advance the congruency of policy and public opinion. Furthermore, while community perceptions studies investigate hypothetical relationships between individual, community and destination characteristics in addition to tourism impacts, the role of governance principles as determinants of tourism support has been neglected in the literature. Thus, the second literature gap identified and addressed is as follows:

Literature gap 2: The role of rural governance principles as critical factors influencing the directions of local development through the contribution of tourism to overall community development and tourism support of local development organisations.

The literature gaps identified indicate that the originality of this research arises from the expansion of the existing body of literature in the two principal areas mentioned above, with IRT in particular considering the second area. Correspondingly, contribution is provided to the field of rural governance by the implication of governance principles as determinants of the directions of local development through organisational performance of rural governance organisations, and to community tourism planning and IRT by the

implication of rural governance principles as determinants of the contribution of tourism to overall community development and tourism support of local development organisations.

5.2.2 Research questions

With regard to the identified literature gaps, there are four research questions raised, of which two addresses each literature gap:

1.1 What are the patterns of the implementation of rural governance principles – integration, participation and empowerment – in the case of the European Union LEADER Local Action Groups?

1.2 How do these principles, as critical factors of rural governance, influence the organisational performance of the LEADER LAGs and thus the directions of local development?

2.1 How do these principles, as critical factors of rural governance influence the contribution of tourism to overall community development and the support for tourism of local development organisations, thus the directions of local development?

2.2 Are there differences in views between networks of local development organisations?

In order to address the literature gaps and respond to the research questions, the objectives of the research should be specified, which will be presented in the next section.

5.2.3 Objectives of the research

In response to the research questions and following the two-fold structure of the research set by the literature gaps, there are two main objectives of this research, each of which comprising two specific objectives:

Objective 1: To employ rural governance principles as critical factors influencing the directions of local development through organisational performance of rural governance organisations. In particular:

1.1 – To map the patterns (recurrent issues) of the implementation of rural governance principles (the mapping process will be further specified in Chapter 5.3.1);

1.2 – To identify factors that influence the organisational performance of the LEADER LAGs.

Objective 2: To employ rural governance principles as critical factors influencing the directions of local development through the contribution of tourism to overall community development and the support of local development organisations for tourism. In particular:

2.1 – To explore whether relationships exist between rural governance factors, the contribution of tourism to overall community development and support for tourism;

2.2 – To identify differences in views between networks of local development organisations.

It can be seen that in accordance with the literature gaps, the research questions and the objectives also suggest a two-fold research structure. First of all, there are two specific objectives pertaining to each main objective: the first two address the first two research questions and the second two the last two research questions. Furthermore, while the first two research questions and the first main objective specify that the research population comprise rural governance organisations, in particular the LEADER LAGs in Hungary, the second two questions and the second main objective indicate that a wider research population, i.e., local development organisations will be considered. Lastly, the first objective is concerned with the identification of patterns and factors, which suggests an in-depth, qualitative research focussing on a (relatively) small research population, and the second objective aims at exploring relationships between factors and differences in views between networks, thus suggests a large-scale quantitative research.

Since the influence of rural governance principals are addressed in two major contexts: that of organisational performance and that of support for tourism development, the first component of the thesis is entitled 'performance' whereas the second is entitled 'support'.

In addition, Objective 1.1 aims at mapping patterns of the implementation of rural governance, based on which Objective 1.2 aims at identifying influential factors. The mapping process will be further specified under Section 5.3.1, after a conceptual framework has been developed and presented to guide the analysis.

Before presenting the structural organisation of the two components of the thesis within the overall research structure, the last methodological component, the hypotheses will be discussed.

5.2.4 Hypotheses

The hypothesis is a statement of prediction on the outcomes of the research. Emerging from the research questions and objectives, there are hypotheses of the present thesis pertaining to each component. Considering the qualitative component, the hypothesis reflects back to the missing link identified between rural governance principles and organisational performance, and it includes a prediction on the literature gap based on previous research on rural governance discussed in Chapter 2. Since the logic of inference is inductive, it is general enough to mirror just the basic aim of the research, in order to be able to approach reality without pre-conceived ideas and pre-structured hypotheses that might limit its focus (Sarankatos, 1998). While hypotheses in qualitative research process are not a condition but rather the aim of the research (Sarankatos, 1998), Miles & Huberman (1994) pointed out that any researcher, no matter how inductive an approach, knows which general constructs and social labels are likely to be play a role in their research. These intellectual 'bins' come from theory and experience and often from the general objectives of the study envisioned. Since qualitative findings do not serve with measurable evidences, the aim of this research is not to test but to generate a theory. Thus, in accordance with the principles of qualitative research, the findings could provide qualitative support for the hypothesis below, which may serve as a basis for subsequent deductive approaches.

Taking into consideration the above arguments, the hypothesis of the qualitative component is as follows:

The three conceptual building blocks of rural governance, - integration, participation and empowerment - influence the organisational performance of rural governance organisations, and thereby the directions of local development. Thus, the influence of rural governance on the directions of local development is a function of the varying levels of integration, participation and empowerment of local stakeholders.

The hypotheses of the quantitative component reflect the hypothetical relationships to be empirically tested, and are as follows:

- 1. There is a direct relationship between the level of participation of local development organisations in tourism development and their support for tourism development, and this relationship is mediated by the contribution of tourism to overall community development.*
- 2. There is a direct relationship between the level of integration of local tourism stakeholders, and the support of local development organisations for tourism development, and this relationship is mediated by the contribution of tourism to overall community development.*
- 3. There is a direct relationship between the contribution of tourism to overall community development and the support of local development organisations for tourism development.*

Next, the overall structure of the research will be presented, in which the methodological phases of the thesis will be summarised and presented in a timely order.

5.2.5 Research structure

The overall structure of the thesis and the evolution of the research are illustratively presented in Figure 5.2. The two literature gaps were identified after a preliminary fieldwork had been conducted in Hungary on an innovative, event-based approach to the

implementation of Integrated Rural Tourism (IRT) (Panyik, *et al.* 2011). This national-level event was initiated by the coordinative body of the LEADER Programme in Hungary, the Hungarian LEADER Centre, with the aim to promote rural tourism through the network capacity of the Local Action Groups (LAGs).

The principal objective of the study was to derive key success factors of an event-based approach to IRT from the experiences of the LAGs. The supply-side perspectives on the successes and failures of the organisation and management process have been the focus of analysis. In particular, a mixed-method approach was applied to explore and compare the viewpoints of the organisers and the tourism operators. The research shed light on the relationships of central and local actors of rural governance through the even organisation process and provided evidence on the consequences of the failure to integrate local concerns into multi-level event planning.

The figure further illustrates that the combination of a preliminary fieldwork and the in-depth literature review of two main areas and a special focus on IRT resulted in the identification of a complex research problem (presented in Section 5.2.1), and the formulation of four research questions, of which two address each literature gap. The two-fold research problem, the nature of the research questions and objectives suggested a split research structure comprising two main components, as discussed in the previous sections. These components - one is qualitative and the other is quantitative - are interlocked by the central research objective of this thesis to explore the influence of rural governance principles on the directions of local development.

In the qualitative 'performance' component, data is collected by in-depth, key-informant interviews, and analysed by the 'Framework' approach (for a detailed discussion see: Section 5.3.7). The quantitative 'support' component, on the other hand, involves a cross-sectional field survey, in which data are analysed by exploratory and predictive techniques (See: Chapter 7). The research population of both components comprises actors of micro-regional development in Hungary. The qualitative component focuses exclusively on the network of the LEADER LAGs, which are key-informants of rural governance. The quantitative phase, on the other hand, includes the wider policy environment of rural governance and in addition to the LEADER LAGs, involves all three national-level networks responsible for micro-regional development in Hungary. The results of the empirical analysis of both components reflect back to the theory the research was built on.

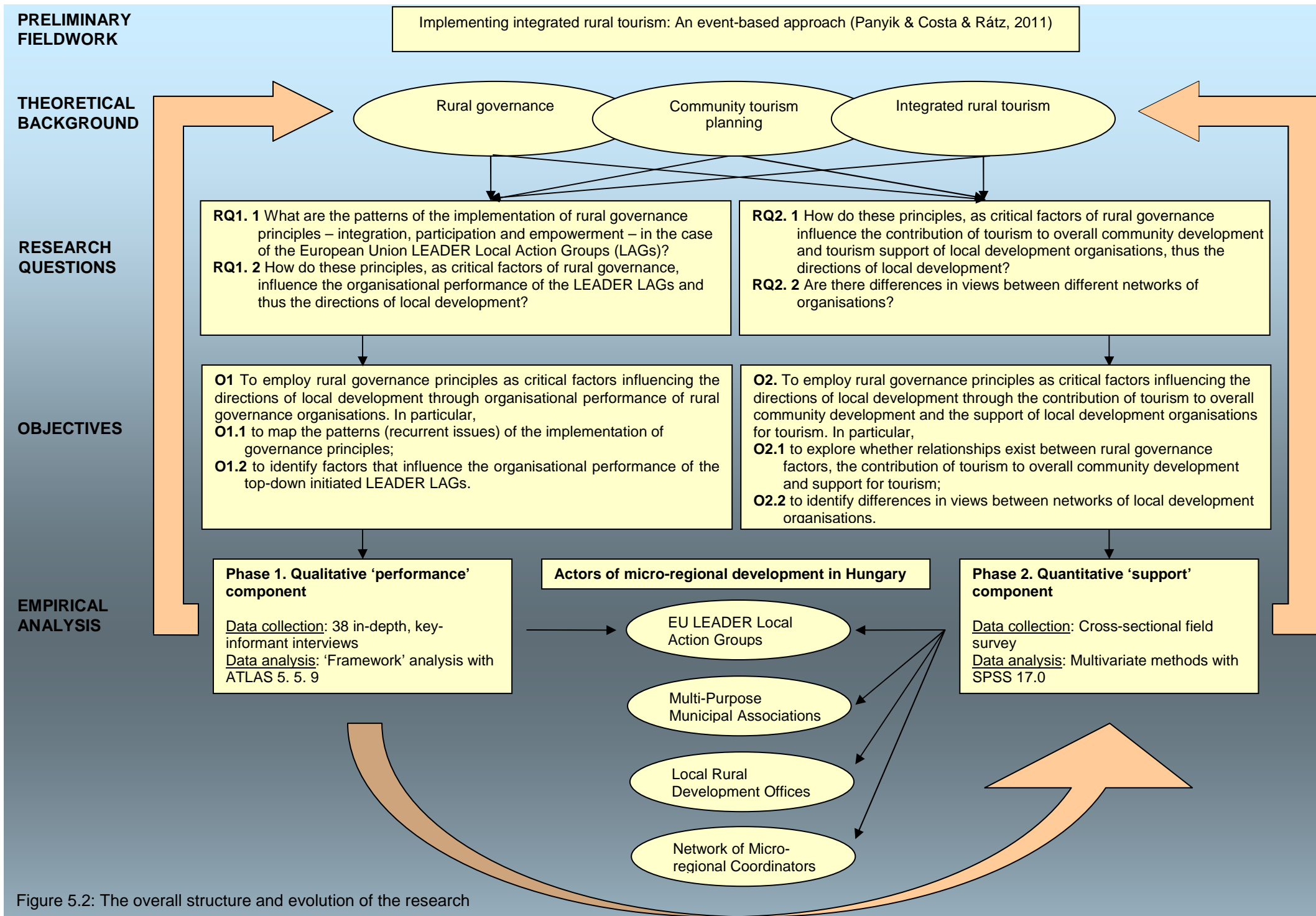


Figure 5.2: The overall structure and evolution of the research

5.2.6 Research design

5.2.6.1 Mixed-methods design

The basic premise of the methodological choices made here is adopted from Bechofer (1974), who describes the research process in a social science context as ‘not a clear cut sequence of procedures following a neat pattern but a messy interaction between the conceptual and empirical world, deduction and induction occurring at the same time’ (p.73). Hence, there is no best method as such for a particular research problem, because all methods have strengths and weaknesses, and reveal different aspects of reality (Bechofer, 1974). Different methods are best suited for, and used to answer, particular type of questions (Morse, 2002).

It has been widely accepted that most qualitative research is exploratory in nature and involves theory generation, while much of quantitative research is confirmatory and involves theory verification (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). However, the researcher’s task in social sciences – to understand, describe and explain the complexity of human behaviour and experiences – is restricted by the existing research methods (Morse, 2003). In recognition of the limitations of the single – either qualitative or quantitative – methods, the multiply methods design takes advantage of both by providing a view through ‘different lenses’, and thus a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Most importantly, however, ‘the major advantage of mixed methods research is that it enables the researcher to simultaneously answer explanatory and confirmatory questions, and therefore generate and verify theory in the same study’ (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003, p.15).

Although most researchers agree upon the basic definition of mixed-methods research, i.e., that it involves at least one qualitative and at least one quantitative component in a single research study or programme¹ (Bergman, 2008), there is still inconsistency around its terminology and typology. Mixed-methods research has been denoted by a great variety of terms, such as for example: multitrait-multimethod research, multimethodological research and multimethod designs (Creswell, *et al*, 2003). The terms ‘multimethod design’ and ‘mixed-methods design’ were often confused with one another (Teddlie & Tashakkori,

¹ Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner (2007) compared definitions of *mixed-methods research* collected from leader researchers of the method and found that most definitions differed in the stage and the breadth of mixing the components.

2003). For reasons of semantic precision, the typology applied here is that of Teddlie & Tashakkori (2003), who define *multiply methods design* as a research in which more than one method or world view are used. It is an umbrella term which includes *multimethod* and *mixed-methods designs*. Multimethod design refers to a research strategy in which more than one, either qualitative or quantitative methods are used (for example two qualitative or two quantitative methods), while mixed-methods design involve both qualitative and quantitative methods².

The strengths and the weaknesses of mixed-methods research are presented in Table 5.1 based on Chih Lin & Loftis (2005), Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) and Morse (2003).

Table 5.1: Strengths and weaknesses of mixed-methods research

Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Can answer a broader and more complete range of research questions because the researcher is not confined to a single method or approach; ➤ Can provide both qualitative and quantitative research strengths; ➤ Numbers can be used to add precision to words, pictures and narratives, and <i>vice versa</i>; ➤ The domain of inquiry is less likely to be constrained by the method itself; ➤ The strengths of an additional method can be used to overcome the weaknesses of another method used in the study; ➤ Can provide stronger evidence for a conclusion through convergence and corroboration of findings; ➤ Can add insights and understanding that might be missed when only a single method is used; ➤ Can be used to increase the generalisability of the results; ➤ A grounded theory can be generated and tested within the same study; ➤ Qualitative and quantitative research used together can produce more complete knowledge to inform theory and practice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The researcher has to learn about multiple methods and approaches and understand how to mix them appropriately; ➤ Can be difficult for a single researcher to carry out both qualitative and quantitative research, especially if two or more approaches are expected to be used concurrently; it may require a research team; ➤ More time consuming; ➤ More expensive; ➤ If there is a priority given to one of the components, the research is challenged on the grounds of being less rigorous than if a single method was used; ➤ There is no guarantee of targeting the original method's shortcomings; ➤ Methodological purists contend that one should always work within either a qualitative or a quantitative paradigm; ➤ Some of the details of mixed-research remain to be worked out fully by research methodologists (e.g., problems of paradigm-mixing, how to qualitatively analyse quantitative data, how to interpret conflicting results).

Source: Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morse, 2003; Chih Lin & Loftis, 2005.

² The prefix 'multi' in this interpretation refers to multiple applications of the same thing (such as for example 'multilevel') and 'mixed' refers to the combination of one thing with another, different thing.

Basically, mixed-methods research is suitable for complex research designs, which either aim at approaching a single research problem from multiple angles or involve more than one, different type of research questions, as is the case of the present thesis. Thus, the analysis can profit from both qualitative and quantitative research strengths, which may not only mutually complement each other, but as well minimise or even eliminate each other's weaknesses. Since it can provide stronger evidence for the conclusion through the corroboration of findings, it can be used to increase the generalisability of the results.

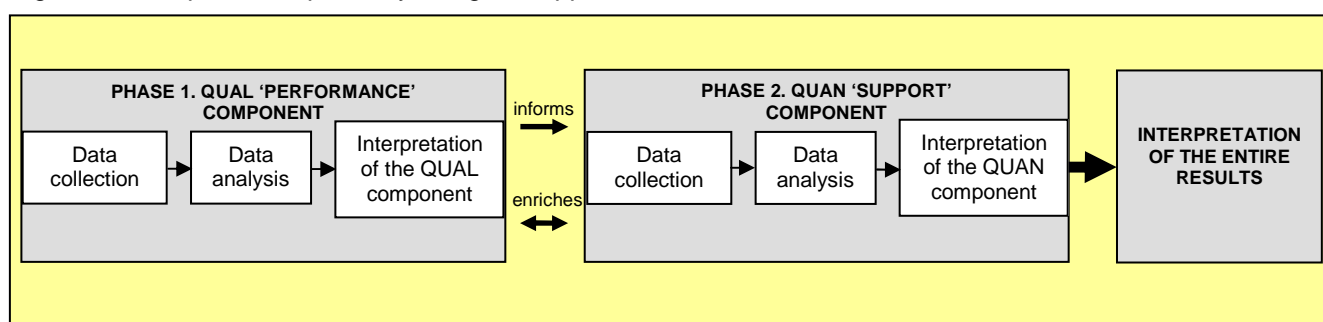
However, considering that a broader range of research questions are addressed and more than one methods are used, the research is more time-consuming, generally more expensive and requires in-depth knowledge of multiple methods. Thus, it may be more suitable for a research team. Lastly, mixed-methods designs raise the issue of paradigm mixing.

In order to offset some of these drawbacks of mixed-methods design, Internet-based data collection was used, which will be discussed in Section 5.2.7. The compatibility issues of the underlying paradigms of mixed-methods research will be addressed in Section 5.2.6.3. Next, the specific research design will be presented, which was selected considering that the thesis comprises two individual research components.

5.2.6.2 Sequential exploratory design

From the various typologies of mixed-methods designs (Creswell, *et al.* 2003; Greene & Caracelli, 1997; Morgan, 1998; Morse, 1991, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) the one applied here was developed by Creswell, *et al.* (2003), who distinguished six major mixed-methods designs based upon a four-fold criteria: the sequence of implementation, the priority and phase of integration of the components and the theoretical perspective of the study. Considering these criteria, the type of research questions asked and the overall structure of the research, this thesis follows a sequential exploratory design, which is characterised by an initial qualitative phase of data collection and analysis (QUAL), followed by a quantitative phase of data collection and analysis (QUAN). The findings are interpreted separately in each phase, and integrated in the conclusions (See: Figure 5.3).

Figure 5.3: Sequential exploratory design as applied in this thesis



Source: Adapted from Creswell, *et al.*, (2003).

By definition, priority is generally, but not exclusively, given to the qualitative phase; however, Creswell *et al.* (2003) allow flexibility within the design to fit a particular research situation. Accordingly, priority is not given here to either of the components, because the results that have emerged from the first component are not imported and employed as hypothesis in the second component. Rather, the QUAL component stands alone, as an individual study but also has a role to aid the second, QUAN component, in that the three conceptual building blocks of rural governance analysed in the first phase are operationalised as variables in the tourism context in the second phase. Thus, the phenomena under scrutiny can more clearly be understood or defined before it can be measured (Ritchie, 2003). Furthermore, conducting qualitative interviews previous to research on tourism perceptions provides an opportunity to examine specific socio-political contexts of the destination planning units and communities (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009; Teye, Sirakaya, & F. Sönmez, 2002).

5.2.6.3 Compatibility issues of underlying paradigms in mixed-methods research

To date, perhaps the most important issue related to the discourses of mixed-methods research is the compatibility of different underlying paradigms. What is at the centre of the compatibility issues is that it does not only combines different research techniques, but in most cases conflicting worldviews that legitimise those techniques. Furthermore, mixed-methods research has only relatively recently separated from the mainstream quantitative and qualitative schools and gained currency as an autonomous research method. As mentioned earlier in this section, some of its basic concepts and definitions are still malleable (such as terminology, standard typology and validity criteria) and there are also

diverse standpoints regarding the use of underlying paradigms in the context of mixed-methods research. This issue therefore needs to be briefly addressed in order to move forward to a statement on the research paradigm adopted in this thesis. Furthermore, a review of the research philosophy stimulates reflection on the research problem and helps clarifying methodological details, which in turn helps reducing methodological error (Hughes, 1997).

The origins of mixed-methods research are closely related to the rise of the alternative, so called 'relativist' paradigms – postpositivism, constructivism and pragmatism – , which formed in opposition to the traditional logical positivism after World War II. Positivism was challenged by postpositivism on the grounds of critical realism, questioning the fundamental positivist tenet of the existence of a single, objective reality (the known), which is independent from the observer (the knower). Postpositivism, while recognises most criticism that have been raised against positivism, attempts to preserve its basic assumptions and reconcile them by claiming that although reality exists, it is not separable from the observer (the knower). This worldview is reflected in the methodological approach of postpositivism: it emphasises critical 'multiplism', i.e. the importance of multiple measures and observations, and the influence of the researcher, and the theory he or she uses, on the research (Cook, 1985, cited in: Guba, 1990). Thus, postpositivist tenets promoted the emergence of the first multi-method designs incorporating both quantitative and qualitative methods.

The most significant developments of mixed-methods research, however, came along with the rise of constructivism between 1970 and 1990, which was described by Denzin & Lincoln (1994) as the 'quiet methodological revolution of social sciences', leading to the widespread acceptance of the qualitative movement. In sharp contrast to the positivist realism, the constructivist-interpretivist paradigm³ assumes multiple, equally valid realities (Schwandt, 1994). In the constructivists' view, all knowledge is a matter of interpretation, which is constructed in the mind of the individual (researcher), through an interactive dialogue with other individuals (research participants) on their thoughts, ideas, and meanings that are important to them; with other words, knowledge is being constructed by

³ Interpretivism is considered by some authors as part of the constructivist family of paradigms (Crotty, 1999), Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003), while others use the term as a synonym for constructivism (Schwandt, 1994), (Ponterotto, 2005).

the 'lived experiences' ('*Erlebnis*') of those who live it day to day (Schwandt, 1994 cited in (Ponterotto, 2005). Furthermore, constructivists reject the objectivity of *any* research.

As Kant (1881/2003) argues in the *Critique of Pure Reason* (p.220) 'the conception of a thing, which can exist *per se* only as a subject and never as a predicate, possesses no objective reality'. Thus, value-free data cannot be obtained, because the inquirer uses his or her preconceptions while interacting with the human subjects of the inquiry, which changes the perceptions of both parties (Walsham, 1995). Subsequently, the investigator does not only influence the inquiry; any investigation into the social sciences, as Sciarra (1999) explained, is an investigation of two subjects: that of the investigator, and that which is being investigated. By accepting the existence of multiple, equally valid realities, the arguments in support of the legitimacy of qualitative research provide, at the same time, arguments for multi-method designs, concerning that it implies that 'qualitative realities' could exist in parallel with 'quantitative realities'.

The 'quiet revolution' was followed by what was called the 'war of paradigms', prompted by advocates of the incompatibility thesis or 'paradigm purists' such as Guba (1987), Smith (1983a, b) and Smith & Heshusius (1986), who claimed that qualitative and quantitative research methods are incompatible due to the antagonistic nature of underlying paradigms (Gage, 1989; Howe, 1988; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil, 2002).

Subsequently, current standpoints regarding the relationships of underlying paradigms and methods are characterised by great diversity, which include conflicting standpoints. Teddlie & Tashakkori (2003; 2008) identified six contemporary views on the use of paradigms in the context of mixed-methods research, which are summarised in Table 5.2.

Perhaps the most important single-paradigm approach to resolve the incompatibility thesis was advanced by Howe (1988), who claimed that the argument that abstract paradigms should determine research methods in a one-way fashion is untenable, because paradigms must demonstrate their worth in terms of how they inform, and are informed by, the research methods employed. Given such a two-way relationship between methods and paradigms, he proposed the compatibility thesis based on pragmatism, which has gained wide acceptance among mixed-methodologists.

More recently, the transformative-emancipatory paradigm was posited by Mertens (2003, 2007) as an alternative single paradigm to pragmatism, though with considerably limited applicability. As a value-oriented approach, it provides a suitable framework for mixed-methods research to accommodate cultural complexity through diverse viewpoints on social realities, particularly those of the marginalised groups based on gender, race, ethnicity or disability.

Table 5.2: Contemporary views on the relationships of paradigms and mixed-methods research

Views	Statements
Incompatibility thesis	The underlying paradigms of qualitative and quantitative methods are incompatible.
Single-paradigm approach	Promotes the usage of either pragmatism or the transformative-emancipatory paradigm.
A-paradigmatic stance	Epistemologies and methods are independent from each other and the link between them is irrelevant.
Complementary strengths thesis	The qualitative and the quantitative components should be kept separate so that the strengths of each underlying paradigms can be realised.
Dialectic stance	Proposes multiply sets of paradigms to build on, based upon the belief that all paradigms are valuable, but only partial, worldviews.
Multiply paradigms thesis	Links a different paradigm to each type of mixed-methods research.

Source: Adapted from: Teddlie & Tashakkori 2003, 2008

There is evidence suggesting that a considerable amount of contemporary instances of mixed-methods research is atheoretical, with no explicit philosophical premises or statements whatsoever provided as explanations of methodological choices⁴ (Bryman, 2006; Denscombe, 2008). The a-paradigmatic stance claims that research can be conducted without working explicitly with a particular theoretical or philosophical perspective because epistemologies and methods are independent from each other. The complementary strengths thesis emphasises the separation of the components in order to maximise the strength of each underlying paradigm. Lastly, there are two stances that propose multiply underlying paradigms for mixed-methods research, based upon the belief that paradigms are valuable, but partial worldviews (the dialectic stance) and that different paradigms are best suited for different methods (the multiply paradigms thesis).

⁴ Bryman (2006) conducted a content analysis of 232 journal articles which combined qualitative and quantitative methods and found that 27% did not give rationale for employing mixed methods.

5.2.6.4 The underlying paradigm

The present thesis aligns with the stream of research philosophy that rejects the 'either-or' metaphysical assertion and supports the compatibility thesis (Cherryholmes, 1992, 1994; Chih Lin, 1998, 2005; Datta, 1997; Dewey, 1908; Haase, 1988; Howe, 1988; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Maxcy, 2003; Morgan, 2007; Rallis, 2003; Reichardt, 1994; Rossman & Wilson, 1985). While in concordance with various theoretical assertions arguing for the compatibility of paradigms from the above presented stances, namely, the multiply paradigms thesis, the complementary strengths thesis and the dialectic stance, this thesis adopts pragmatism as the underlying paradigm believing that it provides the most comprehensive theoretical underpinning for the compatibility thesis. Following John Dewey (1859-1952) and William James (1842-1910) – founders of the philosophy of pragmatism – it is argued that scientific theories and models are tools for coping with reality, that should be evaluated by their problem-solving power and practical outcomes (Kloppenber, 1996), and not by their philosophical origins and particular relations to antecedent data or facts (MacDermid, 2006).

Pragmatism combines ontological, epistemological and methodological stances. First, as far as the nature of reality (ontology) is concerned, pragmatism accepts the existence of external reality, but promulgates the primacy of practice. It claims that understanding is essentially superior to dogma and that cognition is ultimately derivative of practice (Blattner, 2000). Second, in the pragmatists' perspective, the relationship of the knower and the known (epistemology) can be both objective and subjective, and third, the process of research (methodology) can be both inductive and deductive.

Contrary to methodological purists, pragmatists view the positivist and the constructivist/interpretivist approaches as essentially complementary, and not conflicting, worldviews, which allows for the combination of methods. As Chih Lin (1998, p.163) succinctly explains, 'it is precisely because the logics of inference are different and suited for answering different questions that research combining both logics is effective. Positivist work can identify the existence of causal relationships that are present in data, with some degree of probability. What it cannot do is to explain how the mechanism implied by a particular causal relationship works. Interpretivist work, by contrast, can produce detailed examinations of causal mechanisms in the specific case, explaining how particular variables interact.' By way of corollary, the adequacy of pragmatism as an underlying

paradigm for the current research problem lies in the power of 'what works', which permits the employment and examination of the same variables in different analytical contexts. Causal mechanisms and interactions between factors of rural governance and organisational performance are explored, followed by an analysis into the existence of causal relationships between the same factors and tourism support.

Various authors have promoted methodological diversification into tourism research both in a within-method (Decrop, 1999) and a between-methods fashion (Davies, 2003; Pansiri, 2005; Walle, 1997). These authors argue for mixed-methods based on the complexity of the tourism phenomena and its environment. However, the philosophical consistency of the use of different methods has gained considerably less attention. Downward & Mearman (2004) advocated critical realism as a basis for a consistent research programme involving the triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods. Pansiri (2005) proposed a pragmatism-based research model to obtain corroborating evidence from using a variety of methods. Lastly, Davies (2003) developed an integrated framework for studying the tourism business environment that embraces qualitative and quantitative methods. He claims that an improved understanding of the industrial organisation and strategic decision making requires a broader research methodology than presently exists. These instances drawn from the literature highlight the emerging use of multiple methods within a single research project reflecting the diverse views on underlying paradigms in the area of tourism.

The discussion on the research design indicated that in the present thesis more than one method has been used, implying that relatively large samples were drawn. In the next section, the most suitable method for data collection selected to sample multiple nationwide research populations will be presented.

5.2.7 Internet-based data collection

During the first decade of the 21st century, the Internet-based, computer-mediated communication has become a universal phenomenon worldwide. The global system of the Internet provides empirical researchers with tremendous opportunities and significant advantages over more traditional survey techniques (Kraut, 2004; Solomon, 2001). Notably, it allows for fast and direct access to even large or specific populations through

mailing lists, community websites, discussion boards or chatrooms, collectively referred to as virtual communities. Drawing on these advantages, and considering the characteristics of the research population, data in this thesis has been collected entirely online. It is therefore important to address Internet-based data collection, as a fairly recent alternative to the traditional paper-and-pencil techniques, and discuss why it was found to be the most appropriate method for the present research. Inevitably, just like every other method, it also has certain drawbacks. Thus, special attention is devoted in this discussion to the strategies used to leverage the advantages and eliminate the disadvantages of the method that may occur during the process of data collection.

By definition, a virtual community is an 'aggregation of individuals or business partners who interact around a shared interest, where the interaction is at least partially supported and/or mediated by technology and guided by some protocols or norms' (Porter, 2004; cited in Illum, *et al.*, 2009). Often, the size of the samples obtained online far exceeds those obtained with traditional techniques (Gosling, 2004) because online data collection is less intrusive and administration of online surveys is convenient, easy and fast (Cook, 2000). Furthermore, not only it is easier to study large populations, but characteristics or behaviour of very specific or small groups can be directly observed (Kraut, *et al.*, 2004), given that virtual communities are typically structured around shared interest, activities or characteristics. Last but not least, web-based research is relatively inexpensive and time efficient (Gosling, 2004; Illum, *et al.*, 2009; Kraut, *et al.*, 2004) and data entry is dispensable.

Despite these major advantages, online data collection has received suspicion for two set of issues, namely, the quality of the data and research ethics. Considering the first issue, criticism has been directed in particular to the generalisability of Internet samples (To whom does research based on Internet generalise?) and to biases arising from the lack of control over the environment in which the research is conducted (Who and how is exactly administering the questionnaire?) (Kraut, *et al.*, 2004; Gosling, 2004). Issues of research ethics are related to the privacy and informed consent of the research objects given the sometimes blurred borders between public and private spaces (Eysenbach & Till, 2001).

Gosling (2004), in his intriguing paper entitled: '*Should we trust web-based studies?*' compared traditional paper-and-pencil methods with Internet data collection on six preconceptions related to Internet questionnaires, on massively large samples (Internet-

based: N=361,703; and traditional: a set of 510 published samples). His findings indicate that only one out of six preconceptions on Web-based studies proved to be factual, namely, that Internet data are compromised by the anonymity of participants, which can lead to repeat or fake responses. As the author points out, the great accessibility of Web questionnaires makes them easy targets for non-serious responses. However, he noted that this concern also applies to the traditional post-mailed questionnaires, and that various steps can be taken to detect or eliminate these submissions, as it will be shown later. Other preconceptions, namely, that Internet samples are not sufficiently diverse; Internet samples are unusually maladjusted; Internet findings do not generalise across presentation formats; Internet samples produce high(er) rates of non-responsiveness (unmotivated or non-interpretable responses) and that Internet findings are not consistent with findings from traditional methods had not been supported.

The rationale for Internet-based data collection in this thesis lies primarily in the characteristics and accessibility of the sampling population, but also in the advantages it provided in terms of flexibility of and control over data management and data quality and the time and cost of data collection. The research population included four national networks of local development organisations, which operated largely based on Internet communication and information technologies. Each of the networks had a central website and the majority of the local units operated own, individual websites (For more details on the characteristics of the sampling population see: Section 5.5.4.2 in this chapter).

Previous research comparing Internet-based and mail surveys indicate that Internet-based surveys may be more effective than mail surveys in a setting in which the target population has both Internet access and e-mail (Truell, *et al.*, 2002). The contacts of the local units, including e-mail addresses, telephone numbers and addresses, were available online. The respondents' work was largely computer-based and e-mail was the major form of internal and external communication, in particular the main form of correspondence of the local units – the source of respondents – with the central authority. These internal communication channels provided the most plausible solution for accessing geographically scattered local units of the target population fastly and directly.

According to Aoki & Elasmr (2000), cited in Cook, *et al.* (2000) 'though there are still limitations to be overcome if the Web is used for general population survey, the Web will present advantages over traditional modes of data collection if it is used for specific

populations that are known to be Internet savvy.’ In addition, the quality of the data can further be expected to improve if the specific population under scrutiny is characterised by some level of public responsibility and accountability, and the sensibility of the population for the theme of the questionnaire is presumable.

Selecting a specific sampling population is also indispensable in terms of generalisability, because no sampling frame currently exists that provides a random sample of Internet users. Thus, generalising from an Internet sample to the larger population is especially problematic (Kraut, *et al.*, 2004), unless the research population from which the sample is taken is clearly identifiable.

Nevertheless, the lack of control over the environment is still an existing problem, just as it is in every study that uses indirect data collection methods to reach and sample the population. As mentioned earlier, various steps can be taken before and after data collection to handle potential threats to the integrity of the data, such as repeated and fake responses. Following the recommendations of Gosling (2004), proxy methods were used to identify respondents (through demographic data), and a personal e-mail address was requested to provide in case the respondent wished to receive the results of the research. Also, scale reliabilities and discriminant validities were examined (John & Benet-Martinez, 2000) and data were screened for markers of non-responsiveness such as long strings of identical responses (Johnson, 2001). As a consequence of providing direct and fast access to the research population, a major advantage of online data collection for the present research is that it was time-efficient and inexpensive.

While data for both components were collected online, different methodologies have been applied for the qualitative and the quantitative component. Following the timely order of the research process, the methodology of the qualitative component will be discussed first in the next section.

5.3 Methodology of the qualitative component

5.3.1 Justification of the method and the conceptual framework

The implication of qualitative methods emerged from the holistic approach of this research to obtain in-depth understanding of complex structures, processes and interactions through the practitioners' rich experiences (Getz, 1983; Gilmore, 1996). Qualitative research study things in their natural settings using a set of interpretative practices that transform the world into a series of representations such as field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs or recordings in order to understand and interpret a phenomena through the meanings that people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). While quantitative research represents a perspective which implies that social research is static and external to the observer, the same reality in qualitative research is procedural, socially constructed and interpreted in a multiple way (Bryman, 1988). The principal objective of qualitative research is therefore to show how people being studied understand and interpret their social reality.

Ritchie (2003) presented features of the phenomena under investigation that determine the usage of qualitative methods as an independent mode of research enquiry. These features also indicate that the phenomena are not suitable for analysis in structured surveys. Considering that the focus of this component of the thesis is on central-local relations, these features match the objectives of the component in that (1) the aim is to provide a deeper understanding of the subject matter; (2) the phenomena is complex; (3) the phenomena is deeply set within the participants' personal knowledge and activity; (4) the study concerns the collection of information from individuals or groups that have a singular or highly specialised role in society and aims to describe the phenomena from the vantage of their specific positions; (5) the subject is fragile or abstract in its manifestation, and lastly, (6) the topic involves sensitive matters, values or sometimes conflicts which is likely to generate an emotional response at a varying level depending on the sensitivity of the topic.

Reflecting on the six points presented above, the first objective of the thesis is to explore rural governance principles as critical factors influencing the directions of local development, by analysing patterns of its implementation process and thereby identifying factors that influence organisational performance. These two methods suggest that the

aim is to obtain deeper understanding of the constituting concepts (integration, participation and empowerment) under scrutiny (1); Rural governance is a complex process because it simultaneously builds vertical and horizontal integration of sectors and actors (Panyik, *et al.*, 2011) (2). Furthermore, it is developed bottom-up and shaped continuously by its highly committed participants lead by experts of local development (3, 4) and, as presented in Chapter 2, due to the fundamental contradiction between the exercise of top-down power and the essentially bottom-up nature of governance, it is a source of conflicting issues and sensitive matters of empowerment (5, 6).

In order to guide the empirical analysis on mapping the implementation of rural governance principles, a conceptual framework was developed based on the literature. As mentioned earlier in Section 5.2.4, there are general constructs and social labels – so called intellectual ‘bins’, that come from theory, experience and often from the general objectives of the study –, which guide the research process not only of hypothetico-deductive research designs but also of inductive approaches (Miles & Huberman, 1994). ‘Setting out bins, naming them, and getting clearer about their interrelationships leads to a conceptual framework’, which then ‘explains the main things to be studied – the key factors, constructs or variables – and the presumed relationships between them’ (Miles & Huberman, 1994; p.18).

With regard to the research questions, the conceptual framework defined the structure of the empirical analysis and further specified the research objectives. In particular, as presented in Figure 5.4, the conceptual building blocks of rural governance were broken down into constituting elements, which allowed for the systematic analysis of rural governance through the empirical manifestations of those elements. The three-fold conceptualisation is based on Storey (1999), and the interpretation of empowerment further draws on Stoker’s (1998) five propositions of governance theory. The empirical manifestations of the constituting concepts were developed based on the prominent, EU-wide LEADER network of rural governance.

As can be seen in Figure 5.4, integration is interpreted as stakeholder and sectoral integration, reflecting the vertical and horizontal dimensions of rural governance (Panyik, *et al.*, 2011). Stakeholder integration is examined through the establishment of the local LEADER organisations, in particular the organisational structure, relationships and dynamics of the LAGs. Sectoral integration is explored through the cross-sectoral

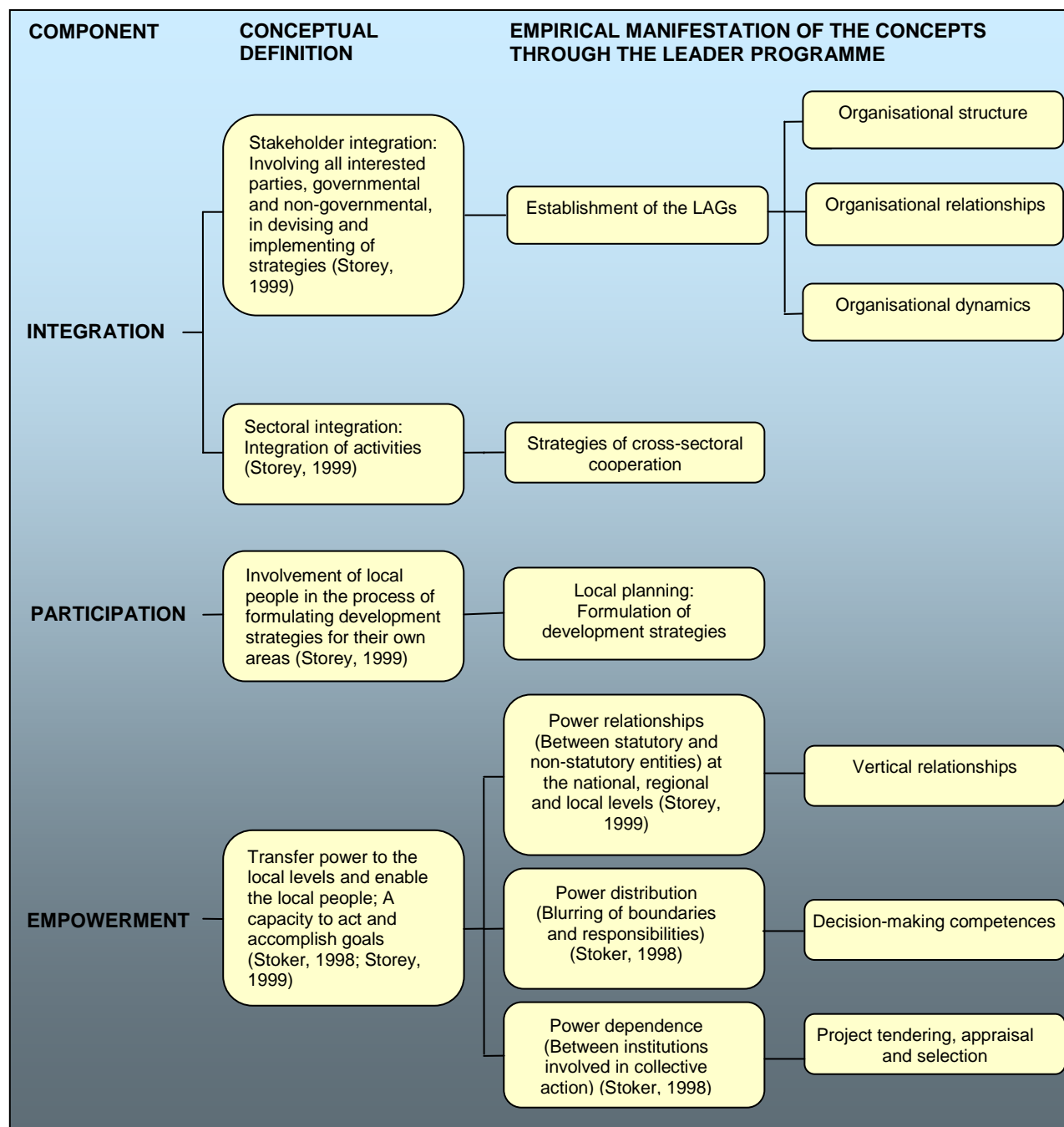
strategies as part of the LAGs' project generation activity. Participation is interpreted as the involvement of local people in the process of formulating development strategies for their own areas (Storey, 1999) and analysed in the context of the LAGs' planning process. Lastly, empowerment refers to the transfer of power to the local level, manifesting in the formation of vertical (hierarchical) relationships, the distribution of decision-making competences and subsequently the evolving power dependencies. Defined as the capacity of the local actors involved to act (Stoker, 1998; Storey, 1999), it is explored through the key activities of the LAGs: project tendering, appraisal and selection.

Under the guidance of the conceptual framework, a field research was designed and applied in a key-informant approach. The decomposition of the principal concepts resulted in constituent elements that are approachable empirically, the examination of which provided information on the influence of the constituents on organisational performance of the LAGs and thereby on the directions of local development. Hence, the conceptual framework not only guided the mapping process but further specified the emerging patterns of rural governance principles, which are summarised in Figure 5.5.

Considering that the analysis draws on local experiences, the qualitative methodology applied here is consistent with a number of studies from the tourism policy literature focusing on local planning (Burns & Sancho, 2003; Tosun, 2006; Yuksel, Bramwell, & Yuksel, 1999) policy making (Stevenson, Airey & Miller, 2008) and organisational structures (Saxena & Ilbery, 2008; Dredge, 2006), as well as with studies from the rural governance literature exploring local involvement through state-community relations (MacKinnon, 2002) and decision-making in local policy arenas (Connelly, Richardson & Miles, 2006).

As such, the methodological design reflects some of the key characteristics of applied-policy research (Haas & Springer, 1998; Majchrzak, 1984). Specifically, it is concerned with policy-manipulable factors, i.e. focuses on those aspects of a social phenomenon that are open to policy-level influence and intervention; it is actionable research, which provides decision-makers with pragmatic recommendations and thus can be used as the basis for action and lastly, it explicitly incorporates, and is driven by, numerous – and sometimes conflicting – values of the stakeholder groups.

Figure 5.4: Conceptual framework for the analysis of rural governance through the empirical manifestations of integration, participation and empowerment

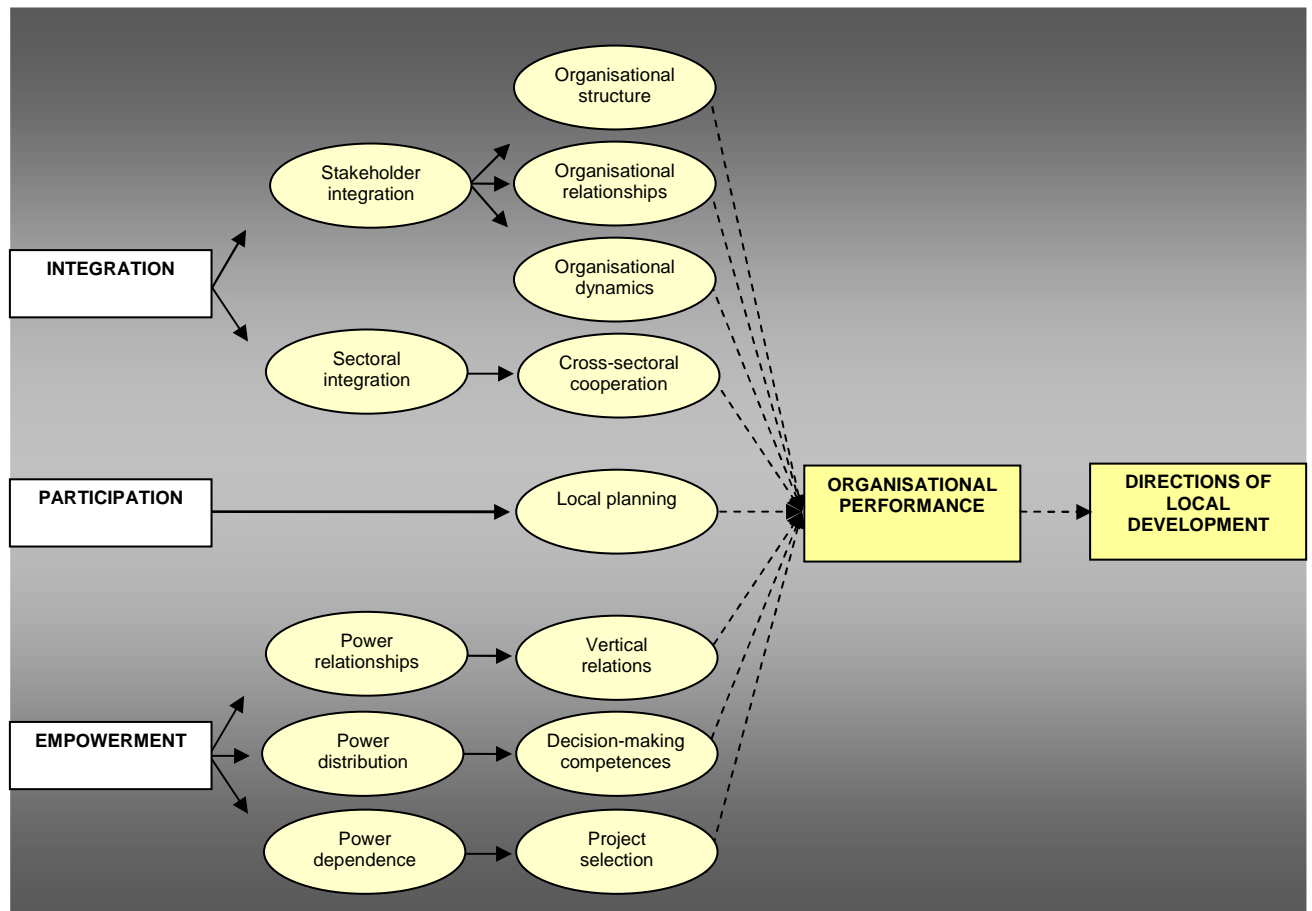


5.3.2 The historical-organisational context

In the previous section it was presented that a conceptual framework was designed as the first step to guide the empirical analysis of rural governance through the LEADER Programme. Since the aim was to collect primary data in a key-informant approach, the choice on the local LAG management as the research population was plausible. The

preliminary fieldwork discussed in section 5.2.5, which was carried out in the context of a national-level event organised by the Hungarian LEADER Centre to promote rural tourism allowed for the familiarisation with the actors and the functioning of the LEADER Programme in general and in Hungary in particular.

Figure 5.5: Emerging patterns of key concepts of rural governance



The LEADER concept and the characteristics of the programme have been discussed under Chapter 2.4 in the literature review of rural governance. Thus, here a brief review of the evolution of the programme in Hungary is provided in order to place the research in the specific historical-organisational context and thereby support the understanding of the findings. This contextualisation highlights region- and country-specific features which influence the functioning of the programme. Notably, perhaps the most evident of all is that while the LEADER Programme operates in sequential phases of the EU financial planning, it was launched at different times in old and new Member States. Although it was set off in

1991, it was initiated more than a decade later in the ten countries that joined the EU in the Fifth Enlargement process in 2004, including Hungary. Hence, of the four sequential phases [LEADER I (1991-1996), LEADER II (1996-2001), LEADER+ (2001-2006) and LEADER (2007-2013)], only the latter two has been implemented in Hungary.

Prior to the EU accession, however, a pilot rural development programme had been undertaken between 2001 and 2004, with the aim to lay down the foundations of the participatory LEADER approach and acquire the essential skills and practices. Fourteen local development working groups, incorporating local public, private and non-profit actors were selected by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MARD) and started operating on an invitational basis in accordance with the LEADER principals (FVM, 2006). These working groups fulfilled the *interlocutors'* role between the national and the local levels and generated a number of successful projects, but issues such as inadequate local human capital, lack of experience in administering public funds, scepticism, low level of project generating activity and reluctance of project-holders to comply with the financial regulations and the LEADER principals were reported (Krolopp, *et al.*, 2005).

In addition to the invitational base upon which the LAGs had been selected by the Ministry, there are two more features indicating a prevailing top-down approach of implementation of the pilot scheme: first, the LAGs could not assume responsibility over key activities such as the coordination of local planning, project selection and administration in the absence of a legal entity. Instead, these responsibilities were delegated to a local organisation with legal entity, typically one of the LAG's municipalities, which resulted in power imbalances within the LAGs. Second, fundamental decision-making competences related to the implementation of the programme, in particular the elaboration of the operational manual for the pilot scheme, the approval of the final selection of projects and the administration of the fund remained at the national level (FVM, 2006).

The first LEADER programme in Hungary, LEADER+ was introduced in 2004. As the first step, a group of LEADER managers were selected through an open, public tendering procedure to assist the establishment of the LAGs, which was followed by a two-step selection procedure of the LAGs (*EC/LEADER+/Member State files/Hungary*, n.d.). In addition, a central coordinative body, the Hungarian Leader Centre (HLC) was established to coordinate the formation of the LEADER network. After completion of this task, the HLC ceased operating in the end of 2007, at the beginning of the new LEADER period. Since

then, the LEADER network functions without a central coordinative body; however, as in all Member States, the Managing Authority designated by the Government is responsible for the coordination of the programme (At the time of data collection for the present thesis, it was the Department for Rural Development of the MARD), and the accredited Paying Agency (Agricultural and Rural Development Agency – a governmental organisation which runs a central as well as regional offices) performs tasks related to the payments (FVM, 2007a).

During LEADER+, 186 LAGs had formed and applied for the LEADER+ financial support, but only 70 were found to meet successfully the LEADER eligibility criteria. Although the LAGs still had not been granted a status of a legal entity, competences within the groups were shared between three divisions: the appraisal and monitoring committee (a decision-making body consisting of elected members of the LAG), the managing organisation (a representative body which was typically a municipality) and third, the administrative unit (or staff), which collected and handled the tenders and did a preliminary evaluation.

The Programme consisted of four priority actions: (1) acquisition of skills; (2) preparation of integrated rural development strategies; (3) support for inter-territorial and transnational co-operation and (4) communication and network development (FVM, 2006). The selected LAGs comprised of 980 settlements, covering approximately 1/3 part of the country's territory. During the programme, 2700 project had been completed till the end of 2008, about ten times more than in the pilot phase. On average, 30 % of these projects belonged to tourism, another 30 % to preservation and development of cultural heritage, and the rest (40%) to the development of local enterprises, partnerships and agricultural products (FVM, 2007a).

The focus of present research is on the transition from LEADER+ to the present financial period (2007-2013) and the beginning of the new LEADER programme. In particular, it covers the period between October 2007 and May 2009, and includes the re-organisation of the LEADER LAGs, the local planning for the current financial period and the first tendering process.

5.3.3 Research population and sampling considerations

In order to gain insights into the formation of rural governance, the 96 LAGs operating in Hungary in the 2007-2013 financial period, more specifically the local LEADER management constituted the research population. The main aim was to conduct semi-structured key-informant interviews with staff leaders or staff members (LAG programme managers) depending on availability of potential interviewees. The rationale for using a key-informant technique was to obtain information from expert sources who are able to, as a result of their position within the society, provide more information and a deeper insight into the phenomenon under investigation (Marshall, 1996). To this end, the five criteria of key-respondent eligibility suggested by Tremblay (1989) have been applied to verify the eligibility of the selected population.

The LEADER local management can be characterised as comprising highly educated people, typically holding a degree in agricultural engineering, management, economics or other related areas. Under their responsibility there are a wide variety of activities including, but not limited to, the preparation of the local development strategy, project generation and appraisal, technical assistance, development of international relationships, and information provision for the local communities. Typically, they are highly committed members of the local community and intermediaries between the public and civil spheres with wide-ranging network relationships. On the one hand, they take part in, and exert influence on, strategic decisions on the directions of micro-regional development through the administration of public funds. On the other hand, they are essentially 'civic entrepreneurs' or bottom-up developers who primarily represent the civil society (Saxena & Ilbery, 2008). In line with Saxena & Ilbery's (2008) characterisation, they can be further described as 'boundary crossers', who work beyond traditional governmental structures and collaborate across political jurisdictions; 'integrators' whose principal role is to foster more connected regional approaches, and lastly, 'coalition builders', 'who build support from local leaders, businesses, interest groups, and policy professionals towards a shared vision' (p. 236). Their formal role and knowledge therefore exposes them to the kind of information being sought by the researcher (Marshall, 1996).

The impartiality of the respondents is an aspect which is the most difficult to assess, hence some sources suggest a more flexible criteria that is adaptable to any given research (Howard, 1986; cited in: Marshall, 1996). Evidently, the staff members of the LAGs

represent local views, which matches the objective of this research to explore the micro-political perspective of rural governance from the civil side of the local management.

As far as the accessibility of respondents is concerned, it has been previously mentioned that all contacts of the LAG offices were available to the public through the Internet. The complete list could be obtained from the website of the 'New Hungary' Rural Development Programme,⁵ and more detailed information was available on the individual websites of the LAGs.

Considering that the research population was clearly identifiable, key-informants were selected randomly from each of the seven NUTS2 regions of Hungary. The LAG offices were contacted through e-mail in which an appointment for telephone interview was requested, after the research had been briefly introduced, the purpose of the interview explained and the affiliations of the researcher provided to the recipient LAG managers. Snowball sampling was also used because after completing an interview, respondents were asked to suggest staff members from other LAGs, who, in their opinion, were particularly informative and would be willing to participate in the research.

The sampling strategy rested on three criteria. One, in order to provide a broader, quasi-longitudinal perspective on the turn of two programming periods, interviews were undertaken in two series. First, between May-September 2008 when 15 interviews, and second, between February-May 2009, when 23 interviews were conducted (Table 5.3), resulting in an overall number of 38 interviews.

Two, the aim was to provide an even representation of LAGs of at least, or, around 30% of the overall number of LAGs in every region. Although this threshold could be reached in five regions, it could not be passed in the South Great Plain region (Dél-alföldi régió) and in the Central Transdanubia region (Közép-dunántúli régió) due to insufficient or invalid contact information and unresponsiveness or unwillingness of respondents. However, the ratio of LAGs interviewed in these regions is close to 30% and the total average achieved is 34.4%. Lastly, the third consideration to be taken into account was to collect data until data saturation, i.e. information was repetitive and no new insights were being gained (Guest, *et al.*, 2006; Morse, 1995).

⁵<http://www.umvp.eu/?q=leader>

Table 5.3: Key-informant interviews conducted with LEADER LAG staff members

NUTS2 Regions	Overall number of LAGs/region	Overall number of interviews			% share of overall number of LAGs interviewed/region
		1 st period	2 nd period	All	
Southern Great Plain region (Dél-alföldi régió)	14	2	2	4	28.6
Northern Great Plain region (Észak-alföldi régió)	17	3	4 (1*)	7	35.3
Northern Hungary (Észak-magyarországi régió)	15	2	3	5	33.3
Central Hungary (Közép-magyarországi régió)	8	1	4 (1*,1**)	5	37.5
South Transdanubia (Dél-dunántúli régió)	15	4	3	7	46.6
Central Transdanubia (Közép-dunántúli régió)	14	-	4	4	28.6
Western Transdanubia (Nyugat-dunántúli régió)	13	3	3 (2*)	6	30.7
All:7	96	15	23	38	34.4

1st period: May-September 2008

2nd period: February-May 2009

* Interview repeated with the same person already interviewed in the 1st period. These repeated interviews are not included in the % share of the overall number of LAGs interviewed/region.

** Interview undertaken with a person from a LAG in which someone else was already interviewed. These repeated interviews are not included in the % share of the overall number of LAGs interviewed/region.

5.3.4 Key-informant interviews

The LAG managers who accepted the invitation were sent a copy of the interview topics and questions, to allow them to familiarise with the interview themes in advance. The respondents were ensured about confidentiality in the beginning of the interviews in accordance with the ten-point ethical issues checklist developed by Patton (2002). The interviews were conducted through the Skype software, which allows for making Internet calls to computers, landline or mobile phones. In the present case, landline telephones of the interviewees' offices were called, which is an acceptable method to access distant participants (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004). Interviews lasted on an average of 1 ½ hour (1/2 – 3 hours), were type-recorded and transcribed.

Despite the fact that the interviews were conducted by telephone, the vast majority of the interviewees were open and very communicative, showing a willingness to share their experiences, often even those involving sensitive matters such as political conflicts or

cases of fraud. This contradicts the assumptions put forward, first by Arksey & Knight (1999), that telephone interviewing usually generates short-answer responses in interviews and second, by James & Busher (2006), that in the absence of the normal social signal systems the extent to which it is possible to build collaborative conversations and trust and allow participants to feel able to explore topics in depth is problematic. Rather it highlights that respondents who take part in public service provision have an elevated sense of responsibility to share experiences of public interest, which, together with the 'neutrality' of the researcher on the field are crucial factors in obtaining the necessary quality information.

The interviews were semi-structured to allow further relevant themes to emerge throughout the interviews and to shed light on the research participants' concerns (Holstein, 2003). Accordingly, the interview questions were preliminary structured into six broad categories as follows: 1) The establishment and organisational structure of the LAGs; 2) The preparation of the local development strategies for the new programming period (2007-2013) and project generation techniques; 3) Key areas of development and strategies for the diversification of activities; 4) Hierarchical and horizontal relationships; 5) Tendering procedure for Axis 3 measures, project appraisal and selection; 6) The strategic role of tourism in the development of rural territories from the LAG' s perspective.

The first round of interviews allowed the researcher to familiarise with the complex micro-political setting, acquire the specific LEADER terminology and identify relevant issues related to the six themes. These interviews were then transcribed and revisited several times, which helped the researcher to broaden and refine the frame of reference. This was especially important because the method used by Stevenson, *et al.* (2008) i.e. to ask the respondents about other important issues that were not discussed during the interview, did not turn out to be useful in this case because the participants either made very generic or vague comments or claimed to have nothing more to say. Therefore this technique was not used during the second series of interviews, but the first round of interviews provided valuable information to rely on to refine and extend the interview questions to be asked.

Open-ended questions were posed on purpose to reduce the constraints on opinions expressed and to facilitate discerning attitudes and values (Hsu, *et al.*, 2007; Yuksel, *et al.*, 1999). Related to each category, respondents were asked about issues and best

practices, emerging and applied solutions on the former and policy responses at the national level.

The researcher's strategy was to place the respondents in the centre of attention during the interviews and allow them to talk freely about the interview topics to let the relevant issues emerge from the conversation (Patton, 2002). It was very important to create an atmosphere of understanding and empathy in order to optimise disclosure (Douglas, 1985; Gubrium & Holstein, 2003; Miller & Glassner, 2004), because 'knowledge and wisdom are partially the product of creative interactions' (Douglas, 1985; cited in: Miller & Glassner, 2004; p. 73). For example, in order to create a friendly and less formal environment, the researcher referred to the interviews as 'conversation' instead of the more formal 'interview' when contacting the respondents.

The shortest interview lasted only 30 minutes while the two longest about 3 hours. Naturally, the interviews differed in terms of the amount and quality of data, but the shortest interviews did not allow for an in-depth discussion of the interview themes and therefore produced more superficial information. Considering the relatively low number of LAGs in each region and the difficulties in making sufficient number of interviews, six respondents that proved to be especially informative during the first round were interviewed again in the second round to minimise the number of short interviews and ensure insights into new events and emerging issues through in-depth conversations. As suggested by Patton (2002) and Miles & Huberman (1994), right after each interview field notes were taken by the researcher reflecting the first, fresh impressions and enlisting tasks (such as clarifying details, asking new questions and searching for written material that the respondent suggested).

The interpretation of the findings includes verbatim quotations to illustrate the results. In particular, quotations are used as a means to depict complex socio – cultural 'micro' realities of the LEADER LAGs with which the readers might not be familiar. Verbatim quotations are known to help clarifying links between data (Corden & Sainsbury, 2006) and conveying personal thoughts and feelings to unveil deep, embedded meanings (Fetterman, 2010). Furthermore, using excerpts from transcripts in the final report allows respondents' perspectives and personal thoughts to be conveyed in their own words, which enhances the authenticity of the results and the generative power of people's accounts (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003).

5.3.5 Secondary data

Considering that the interview themes focused on the actual situation of the LAGs, there were abundant secondary data available to complement and support the interviews. Basically there were two groups of secondary sources used. First, some of the respondents, especially those interviewed more than once, provided voluntarily or upon request written materials related to the topics of the interview. These documents included the appraisal forms for project selection, communications of the Ministry, opinions of the LAGs on the LEADER regulation requested by the Ministry, final reports on the implementation of the local development strategy and micro-regional tourism development plans.

Second, information was retrieved from websites of the Hungarian LEADER programme and related organisations, in particular: regulations of the 3rd and 4th axes of the 'New Hungary' Rural Development Programme from the website of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, articles from the online journal of the National Rural Development Network (Magyar Nemzeti Vidéki Hálózat) entitled: 'Voice of the Countryside' (Vidék Hangja; <http://mnvh.hu/ptPortal/?mod=news&nst=1&lang=en>)⁶, documents from the 'New Hungary' Rural Development Programme and from the website of the LEADER Programme. All these documents and written materials were analysed in parallel with the primary data.

5.3.6 Data analysis: the 'Framework' approach

The conceptualisation of rural governance as a symbolic process of integration, participation and empowerment shaped by constant action and interaction among people has implications for the research design in general, as well as for the method of data analysis in particular. At the centre of the research are narratives of local policymakers revealing their perspective on rural governance through their everyday work experiences, which simultaneously affect and are affected by, policy decisions. Hence, a bottom-up approach of data analysis was employed which allows generating theory from a systematic analysis of raw, unstructured interview data.

⁶ The English-language version of the website is provided here. (Last updated in January 2012)

Much of qualitative research uses sequential (Becker, 1971) or as Miles (1994) calls it, interim data analysis, in which the analytical process starts during data collection as the data already gathered are analysed and shape the ongoing data collection (Pope, 2000). As evidenced throughout the data collection of this research, the researcher goes back and forth between empirical data and theory, refine questions and develop hypotheses in pursuit of patterns and depth.

Considering the research questions and objectives, the research population and the method of data collection, a relatively recent inductive approach, Framework Analysis (Ritchie & Spencer, 1994) was found to be the most suitable method for data analysis. This approach was developed in the context of applied policy research by the Qualitative Research Unit of the National Centre for Social Research, which is Britain's largest independent social research institute (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). This is particularly important because this research resembles, in many of its characteristics, applied policy research.

The basic distinction between theoretical and applied policy research is that the former refers to the traditional academic research which is guided by disciplinary departments of universities, whereas the latter is driven by the specific information requirements and needs of the funding body, typically a public agency, to aid decision-making and/or evaluate policies or programmes (Haas & Springer, 1998; Majchrzak, 1984). Applied policy research is therefore responsive to the study users and provides them with action-oriented recommendations. It is multi-dimensional and empirico-inductive research, which is concerned with policy-manipulable factors and incorporates numerous, sometimes conflicting values (Majchrzak, 1984).

Although Framework Analysis shares many of the common features of much qualitative analysis, particularly Grounded Theory (Glaser, 1967/1999), there are significant differences between them (Lacey & Luff, 2007). Grounded theory sets a broad, general concept as a starting point with no *a priori* issues or a specific sample assigned (Lacey & Luff, 2007). Theory is generated systematically from the new emerging themes and the sample is identified and expanded gradually by 'theoretical sampling', which is not concerned with drawing samples of specific units of analysis such as groups of individuals, but it is driven by concepts, incidents and events, thus usually interrogates a diverse group of people.

In contrast, framework analysis allows the inclusion of *a priori* concepts in addition to the emergent themes, at various stages of data analysis, for example during the development of the thematic framework and the coding process. This can be particularly important in studies where there are more specific information requirements and pre-defined samples of professional actors to be addressed. The 'Framework' approach is a systematic data analysis method based on data reduction by the development and continuous refinement of a thematic framework, which allows the identification of patterns and clusters in the data.

The method draws on the theory of 'social representations' (Yuksel, *et al.*, 1999), which is a social-psychological framework to explain collective psychosocial phenomena in modern societies. A social representation is understood as a fundamental organisational principle of the human society, which constructs a stable, predictable world and social order from the diversity of individuals, attitudes and phenomena (Moscovici, 1984). It is based upon consensual understandings, emerging through informal everyday communication and action between group members (Hogg & Vaughan, 2008). These cognitive patterns shape the social interactions within and between groups and are in turn shaped by those interactions (Yuksel, *et al.*, 1999). Thus, the identification of patterns and clusters in social activities within a group representative to a social phenomenon helps the global understanding of the phenomenon.

There are five key stages of the method, which are presented in Table 5.4, based on Lacey & Luff (2007). These five stages are: (1) Familiarisation; (2) Identification of a thematic framework; (3) Indexing; (4) Charting; (5) Mapping and interpretation. Before presenting how these stages of data analysis have been applied in the context of this research, first a brief description follows of the considerations on selecting the computer-based qualitative data analysis tool to assist the process.

Table 5.4: Key stages of Framework Analysis

❖ Familiarisation	Transcription and several readings of data
❖ Identification of a thematic framework	Designing an initial coding framework both from <i>a priori</i> issues and from emerging issues from the familiarisation stage. This thematic framework should be developed and refined during subsequent stages.
❖ Indexing	The process of systematically applying the thematic framework to the data, using numerical or textual codes to identify specific pieces of data which correspond to differing themes (this process is more commonly known as coding from Grounded Theory analysis)
❖ Charting	Headings from the thematic framework are used to create charts of the data so that one can easily read across the whole dataset. Charts can be either thematic or case charts.
❖ Mapping and interpretation	Searching for second-level orders in the data such as patterns, associations, concepts, and explanations, aided by visual displays and plots. The aim is to define concepts, map the range and nature of phenomena, create typologies, find relationships and provide explanations.

Source: Lacey & Luff (2007)

5.3.7 Data analysis: Atlas.ti 5.5.9 qualitative data analysis software

The transcription of a single interview lasted on an average of three times longer than the interview itself and yielded about 5-10 pages of textual data (written with 1.0 line spacing), depending on the length of the interview. In the end, about 250 pages of raw interview data and an additional app. 100 pages of secondary data were obtained and included for analysis. Given these large bodies of unstructured raw data, analysis was carried out by using computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS), – in particular Atlas.ti 5.5.9 (Muhr, 1991) – which are increasingly utilised by graduate students pursuing qualitative research projects (Bringer, Johnston, & Brackenridge, 2004; Johnston, 2006; Pandit, 1996; Wickham, 2005).

There has been much debate surrounding the usage of CAQDAS, both in terms of pros and cons. On one hand, it has been acclaimed for speeding up the coding process, providing a more complete view of the relationships in the data, allowing a more accurate and consistent analysis and offering a clearer data management than manual methods (Barry, 1998; Weitzman, 2003). According to Goulding (1999) ‘the system ensures

minimisation of clerical effort and error, thus, it may be argued, legitimising the findings over and above those derived from manual interpretation' (p. 13). However, concerns have been raised about the distance between data and researcher and the convergence towards a single orthodoxy of data analysis that may be a result of using CAQDAS (Barry, 1998; for a more detailed discussion see: Fielding & Lee, 1991; Weitzman, 2003).

If one were to draw conclusions from the arguments pro and contra the adequacy and the usefulness of these software, there are three crucial considerations that should be taken into account in order to avoid the pitfalls most commonly associated with using CAQDAS and to maximise its utility. Perhaps the most important would be, as emphasised by all authors, that CAQDAS should be seen merely as a tool and not as a substitute for the researcher. As Barry (1998) explains with reference to Kelle (1997), it certainly does some tasks related to data administration, management and archiving but only provides technical assistance in theory construction and theoretical thinking, which are, as have always been, the job of the researcher himself. Moreover, the researcher should evaluate whether these software meet his/her needs, in terms of the structure of the data and the research problem (Barry, 1998; Silver & Fielding, 2008; Weitzman, 2003).

Second, over-reliance on computer-based analysis should be avoided as it might lead to reduced personal experiences and situational factors which serve to add depth (Goulding, 1999). Rather, it should be treated as a complementary tool in the analysis armoury of the researcher (Barry, 1998). For example, the visual display of emerging theory is limited to the relationships of concepts, whereas conceptual-level diagrams and models are not allowed (Goulding, 1999). In the present research therefore, following Barry (1998), various conceptual-level presentations have been prepared manually, adopting designs from Miles & Huberman (1994). Lastly, since one of the comparative advantages of CAQDAS is cross-case analysis by coding, the analysis may become overly mechanistic because of over-emphasising coding at the expense of intuition, creativity and eventually, theory emergence (Glaser, 1967/1999; Goulding, 1999).

Weitzman & Miles (1995) provided a complete categorisation of the available software packages in the market. The simpler models deal with basic functions of content analysis such as searching for and counting key words and phrases (text retrievers), storing and organising texts (textbase managers) which are more suitable to discourse analysis. The most sophisticated programmes are the so-called 'code-based theory builders', which

incorporate all the functions of the others and go beyond them, most importantly by specific features allowing the construction and analysis of multi-level relationships between codes. These programmes are extended with diverse memoing functions and hyperlink options and support the analysis of various data formats such as audio, video, websites, photos, and graphics. There are various examples of these software such as AFTER, AQUAD, Atlas.ti, N*VIVO, MAXqda, and Ethnograph.

There is no one best CAQDAS as such (Weitzman & Miles, 1995), because all packages have strengths and weaknesses which roughly delineate the kind of research project that is more or less suitable for their individual profile. However, specific packages differ at the most basic level of data interpretation (Lewis, 1998) thus perform different effects on the research process (Barry, 1998). It is therefore important to address the software selection considerations in light of the differences between these products. Two leading and competing software packages, Atlas.ti and NVivo have been selected to be briefly compared as an illustration of the researcher's final choice, based on two papers comparing the products, one inclining more towards Atlas.ti (Lewis, 1998), and the other to Nivo (Barry, 1998). The comparison is based on four criteria: (1) interface of the programme, (2) structural characteristics of the programme, (3) complexity of the project, (4) network presentation. Nevertheless it is worth mentioning that both authors stress the importance of the researcher's personal preference, abilities and skills in selecting a software, which are clearly subjective factors.

Considering first the interface of the programme, Atlas.ti has an admittedly more user-friendly interface as compared to NVivo, organised in a relatively simpler fashion that helps the orientation among functions and aids the understanding of the overall structure. It places the objective of analysis (document, video or audio file, etc.) at the user's centre of attention, similar to Microsoft Word's interface. By contrast, NVivo displays several divisions simultaneously, including nodes and strings of numbers indicating the position of nodes, which can easily distract the attention of the user and distance the researcher from the text. While Atlas.ti is characterised by a more visual, image centred structure (which is the researcher's personal preference), NVivo is predominantly verbal. Furthermore, the coding features of Atlas.ti are more intuitive, allowing more creativity in pattern recognition and more representation of interconnectedness within the text. NVivo, on the other hand, is more linear and sequential in terms of information processing. Barry (1998) further suggests that simple projects are more suitable for Atlas.ti while complex projects are

better fitting for NVivo. Considering that the present research uses a homogeneous group of participants and only one mode of data collection, Atlas.ti may be a better choice. Lastly, NVivo displays a pre-determined hierarchical structure of concepts symbolised by a tree, where the project starts with the roots and ends with a tree. By comparison, Atlas.ti presents a web of relationships that may or may not be hierarchical (Lewis, 1998), which allows the data to manifest its inherent structure.

Due to the logic behind the structure of both programmes, they are known to be suitable for conducting research according to the principles of Grounded Theory analysis. Since Framework Analysis is a recent method, there has not been a specific CAQDAS developed for its needs yet. However, as mentioned earlier, it shares many of the common features of Grounded Theory, thus using Atlas.ti, particularly at the early stages of data analysis is acceptable and adequate. Especially, because perhaps the greatest advantage CAQDAS offers is the automation of clerical tasks such as managing and storing codes and performing complex Boolean (e.g. and/or/less/not) searches, which allows a more precise data management and more time for the researcher to spend on analysis (Bringer, Johnston, & Brackenridge, 2004).

5.3.8 Data analysis process

After critically evaluating CAQDAS and the specific programme selected for this research, the steps of data analysis will be presented.

(1) Familiarisation

The first step of data analysis was to organise and prepare all materials for analysis by editing and formatting the texts. The familiarisation process started with several reviews of the raw textual data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Atlas.ti was not used at this early stage because it is designed for the analysis of static (not editable) texts, which is one of the drawbacks of the programme (and version 5.5.9 in particular) (Lewis, 1998). Thus, basic document editing tools (underlining, highlighting or changing font colours) were not available.

On the raw, transcribed documents line-by-line analysis was used. Quotes were selected and segments of texts were underlined and colour-coded to enable thoughts to develop

and to identify key words and concepts (Stevenson, *et al.*, 2008). This was part of the abstraction and conceptualisation process leading towards the next phase in which a thematic framework was devised. Familiarisation was very important to re-engage with the contents, to ensure that the large bodies of data are purified for further analysis.

The next step was to create a division, or individual workspace for the analysis in Atlas.ti called the Hermeneutic Unit (HU), to which all materials, including interview transcripts and secondary data had been uploaded. These documents are called the Primary Documents, which form the fundamental basis of analysis.

(2) Identification of a thematic framework

A systematic case by case analysis was carried out to break down the data and identify codes based on key words and quotations. Throughout the coding process, labels (codes) were developed by assigning units of meaning to these chunks of particularly important data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In Atlas.ti, *open coding* was used to identify new codes, *in-vivo coding* to name a code directly from the text and *code-by-list coding* to assign already existing codes to a new segment of the text or key word.

Next, cross-case analysis was applied to systematically compare cases and detect recurring themes and patterns. The process of systematic comparison of single cases is a key stage of theory construction of much qualitative data analysis methods (Miles & Huberman, 1994) such as the constant comparison method in Grounded Theory (Glaser, 1967/1999), and cross-case analysis in case study research. It allows the emergence not only of concepts, themes and patterns, but associations between variables (Eisenhardt, 1989). The terminology used here ('within-case' and 'cross-case' analysis), although not used by Framework Analysis, was adopted from Miles & Huberman (1994) and case study research (Yin, 1984) to facilitate explanation.

The thematic framework was devised by drawing on three sources. First, *a priori* conceptualisation, second, emergent new issues raised by the respondents themselves and third, analytical themes arising from the coding process (Ritchie & Spencer, 1994). This was a rather time-consuming process because the framework was gradually developed and refined while new themes and sub-themes were formulated. The higher-order system of data in Atlas.ti is represented by so-called families. Just as codes describe a quotation, the primary documents, codes and memos are clustered in families.

(3) Indexing

Indexing is a second-level coding in Framework Analysis, because the themes and subthemes of the framework are numerically labelled and systematically applied back to the corresponding fragments of data. This is a judgemental procedure, when data is broken down into thematically coherent fragments.

(4) Charting

The fragments of data produced by indexing were then reorganized under the headings and subheadings of the framework in a case chart during the charting process (The differences between a thematic and a case chart are presented in Figure 5.6). This way, the material with similar contents or properties could be located together (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). Atlas.ti facilitated not only the identification of a thematic framework, but also the indexing and charting process, because it automatically assigned the quotations to the code it represented, in a drop-down menu enlisting all codes in an alphabetical order (See: Appendix 1 presenting a screenshot of the programme on the organisation of quotations and codes through the example of the code 'stimulation of entrepreneurial activity').

Figure 5.6: Thematic and case charts

Thematic chart

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
Theme			

Case chart

	Theme 1	Theme 2	Theme 3
Case			

Source: (Lacey, 2007)

(5) Mapping and interpretation

At the most basic level, Framework Analysis breaks down the data into elementary theoretical units (quotations), which are then reassembled in compliance with patterns (themes) that are inherent in the data. Hence, the results of the analysis are not merely descriptive reports but rather actively constructed mental maps, or abstracted webs of meaning (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Richards & Richards, 1994; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). Each of the broad clusters of data that were pulled together under the headings and subheadings of the thematic framework represent a recurrent theme, which could be used to summarise and synthesise the data and map the range, nature and dynamics of the phenomenon. Empty boxes frequently appeared in cases when the respondent was not applicable to the topic, as experienced also by Curtin & Busby (1999). However, 'omissions are data in their own right and can reveal as much as admissions' (Marshall and Rossman, 1995, cited in: Curtin & Busby, 1999; p.141). Visual displays of mapping and results include partial network views, checklist matrix, flowcharts and clustered summary tables, adapted from Miles & Huberman (1994).

One challenging dilemma of the iterative data analysis methods, particularly when combined with CAQDAS, is the integration of the data audit trail in the linear documentation of the research (Bringer, Johnston, & Brackenridge, 2004). Considering that it would have been very difficult to provide visual displays of the process without revealing some parts of the findings, it was decided that the data audit trail be integrated with the discussion of the results.

5.3.9 Evaluation of the qualitative methodology

The philosophical debate around the inconsistency of the positivist and naturalistic/constructivist paradigms has been evident not only in the issue of methodological (in)compatibility, but also in the evaluation of the qualitative methodology. As tersely summarised by Seale (1999), 'the belief in multiple constructed realities, rather than a single tangible reality, which lies at the heart of the constructivist paradigm, is not consistent with the idea that criteria for judging the trustworthiness of an account are possible (p. 468)' in the absence of a single, absolute truth. In contrast to quantitative methodologies, there is no generally accepted set of guidelines for the assessment of qualitative research. On one hand, methodologists argue that the 'trinity of truth' (Kvale,

1995; Tobin & Begley, 2004) of the concepts validity, reliability and generalisation are not applicable to the evaluation of qualitative methods because they are rooted in the positivist epistemology (Altheide, 1994; Leninger, 1994; Peck & Secker, 1999) and should be redefined in the context of qualitative research (Golafshani, 2003; Strauss, 1990; Tobin & Begley, 2004).

Nonetheless, it has been widely acknowledged that scientific rigour as a means of legitimising the research process through demonstrating integrity and competence is an essential criterion for all scientific inquiry regardless of the underlying paradigm (Seale & Silverman, 1997; Tobin & Begley, 2004). In the absence of scientific rigour, qualitative research may be considered as nothing more than an assembly of anecdote and personal impressions (Pope, 2000) thus subjective, unreliable, invalid and, eventually, unscientific (Morse, 1999). Another substantial body of methodologist literature therefore insist on the usage of the three standard criteria (Morse, 1999; Morse, *et al.*, 2002).

While there are currently various conceptualisations, typologies and conflicting positions (for more details, see: Creswell & Miller, 2000; Morse, *et al.*, 2002; Seale & Silverman, 1997), a widely used set of criteria across disciplines were established by Lincoln (1985), who introduced the concept of 'trustworthiness' as comprising of four dimensions: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. These concepts are counterparts of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity, within the realm of qualitative research. The evaluation of the present research is based on these criteria, but it further relies on Baxter & Eyles (1997); Decrop (1999); Tobin & Begley (2004) and the checklist of Lacey & Luff (2007).

First of all, credibility, (comparable with internal validity) is perhaps the most important principle for guiding qualitative studies, which refers to the congruency between the experiences of groups and the description of the researcher. Credibility was addressed in this study by a key-informant-based sampling method which was extended by snowball sampling. Since sampling was undertaken from a strictly defined population which comprised exclusively of potential respondents, the initial random sampling applied did not violate the overall purposefulness of the method. The criteria of prolonged engagement was met by conducting interviews in two series, while member checking was carried out by conducting interviews with the same person twice, by iterative discussions - keeping in touch with many of the respondents over two years by exchanging emails, sending letters

to the LAG offices to formally thank for their contribution in the research, establishing contacts with a few of the respondents on community websites, and also, by including them in the second phase of the research in the pretest of the questionnaire and statistical data collection. These iterative discussions with the participants also allowed to interrogate the authenticity of the participants' voices (James & Busher, 2006). Lastly, negative case analysis took place throughout data analysis by examining and reporting on cases that contradict the evidence. However, Lincoln (1985) cautions against accounting for all negative cases because some cases may be so hidden or obscure that only entail little theoretical consequence.

Triangulation is one of the most powerful techniques for improving credibility (Baxter & Eyles, 1997), which refers to looking at the phenomenon under investigation from different angles. Various forms of triangulation developed by Denzin (1978) and further elaborated Decrop (1999) have been used. Data sources were triangulated by collecting both primary and secondary data, by writing field notes after each interview session (Decrop, 1999), and by including verbatim quotations from different participants in the final report (Baxter & Eyles, 1997). Investigator triangulation (or inter-analyst reliability), which refers to the consistency of the results obtained by multiple analysts, could not be evaluated since only one researcher was doing the research. However, it was substituted by peer-debriefing, which involves exposing the research material to a respected colleague or expert (Baxter & Eyles, 1997). Throughout the orientation of the supervisor, all phases of the research have been accompanied, which allows 'to confirm adherence to sound research practices' (Decrop, 1999; p.159). The research was also presented at multiple academic conferences and discussed by expert audiences. Theoretical triangulation, which refers to the implication of multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data, was done by examining emerging results by considering multiple theoretical perspectives within the field of rural governance (territorial and an institutional-relational), and by confronting them with the theoretical framework devised to guide the research process (Decrop, 1999).

Transferability (comparable with external validity) refers to the generalisability of the study. As Eisenhardt (1989) noted, replication is appropriate in theory-testing research, but in theory-building research, the goal is new theory. Transferability in the sense of qualitative studies refers to the fit within context outside the study situation. Although statistical representativeness is not a prime requirement when the objective is to understand social processes (Pope, *et al.*, 2000), generalisability could be enhanced by the endeavour to

provide an even geographical representation of the respondents and by employing a regional representativeness threshold coupled with the saturation criteria to ensure that the principles of qualitative data collection remain intact. As a general rule, qualitative research is only transferable to similar cases. This means that the research developed a theory on the formation of rural governance based on the community of LAGs in Hungary, it therefore reflects the Hungarian case. Nevertheless, it may show broad similarities with LAGs in other EU member states due to the standard LEADER regulations, particularly in neighbour countries with shared historical-political roots bearing in mind the unique social, political, geographical and economical characteristics of other countries.

Dependability (comparable with reliability) shows that the research process is logical, traceable and clearly documented (Schwandt, 2001; cited in: Tobin & Begley, 2004). Thus, it can be achieved by providing a carefully prepared audit trail that allows others to examine the evolution of the research. This should include the approach and procedures for data analysis, justification why these are appropriate within the context of the study, and clear documentation on the process of generating concepts, themes, relationships and eventually, theory from the data (Lacey & Luff, 2007). In addition, digital recording of the interviews offers the opportunity for subsequent analysis by independent observers (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Pope *et al.*, 2000). In order to enhance transparency and augment the written account on the analytic process, the method suggested by Bringer, Johnston, & Brackenridge (2004) was adopted and a print screen was added to the audit trail to illustratively document the data analysis carried out in CAQDAS.

Presenting audit trail products and providing thick description of the audit process, peer debriefing and respondent validation as addressed above, also contribute to the last criterion, confirmability (comparable with objectivity) of the research, because it is concerned with the researcher bias, in particular 'the extent to which biases, motivations, interests of the inquirer influence interpretations' (Baxter & Eyles, 1997; p.512).

Following a discussion on the research process of the qualitative component from the justification till the evaluation of the methodology, the next chapter proceeds with a discussion on the methodology of the quantitative component, starting with the development of variables. In accordance with the evolution of the research, the findings of the qualitative component will be discussed first, followed by the results of the quantitative component.

5.4 Development of variables

5.4.1 Theoretical foundation

As presented earlier in Chapter 3.5.3.1 dedicated to the measurement of community impacts of tourism, social exchange theory (SET) has become widely accepted as the most appropriate theoretical basis for understanding residents' perceptions and attitudes (Pérez & Nadal, 2005), as there is sufficient evidence to suggest that it provides a suitable framework for exploring the differences in perceptions and attitudes in the host community (Jurowski, Uysal & Williams, 1997; Ap, 1992; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990).

Two fundamental arguments have been selected from the literature that explain why SET can be adapted to the tourism context, which are used here as the basic tenet for adapting SET from a general community context to explore local development policymakers' support for tourism.

First, in order to have, sustain and develop tourism in a community, exchanges must occur (Andereck, *et al.*, 2005; Ap, 1992). These exchanges are evident in the interactions between different stakeholder groups where tourism takes place. SET interprets them as the exchanges of valued resources, which can be both tangible and non-tangible, such as impressions, experiences, gestures, actions. The focus of community tourism studies is generally on tourist-resident relationships, though these influential interactions are certainly not limited to them. It has been long recognised that residents play a crucial role in the success or failure of the local tourism industry, and tourist-resident encounters may lead to positive but also to negative experiences (See: Chapter 3.5.3.1). As Knox (1982; cited in Ap, 1992; p.669), put it: 'The tourist may have his vacation spoiled or enhanced by the resident. The resident may have his daily life enriched or degraded by the unending flow of tourists.'

Second, the ultimate goal of community participation in tourism development by any stakeholder group within the community is overall community development. As explained by Ap (1992): 'Participation by a community (residents, civic leaders and entrepreneurs) in developing and attracting tourism to their area is generally driven by the desire by some members of the community to improve the economic and social conditions of the area' (p.668).

Based on SET, not only the resources of exchange but the stakeholders that participate in the exchange can also be specified. Ap (1992) developed a model of the social exchange process, in which residents' perceptions are used as predictors of behaviour in host resident–tourism exchanges (for more details, see: Chapter 3.5.3.1, p.78). While Ap focused on the *process of exchange* between residents and tourists, Jurowski (1994) presented the *system of exchange* of the actors involved: the tourist businesses/services, the host community and the tourists. She described the process of tourism based upon their role in the exchange process: valued objects and/or sentiments are brought to the relationship and evaluated by each of the component. Enduring interaction will be that which satisfies both components; if any of the components perceives that the distribution is positive, it will seek to maintain the exchange relationship. However, if that component perceives a negative distribution, it will seek to discontinue the relationship (Jurowski, 1994).

The present research extends the system of exchange to the local policymakers, drawing on the proposition that there are four major tourism stakeholder perspectives: tourists, residents, entrepreneurs and local government officials (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006). It seeks to identify the valued objects and sentiments that policymakers bring to the tourism exchange. Byrd, Bosley, & Dronberger (2009) enlisted studies from the literature focusing on the perspectives of each of the individual stakeholder groups and noted that much of the research investigating tourism impacts has focused on the residents and considerably less attention has been paid to the perceptions and attitudes of tourists and entrepreneurs (See: Chapter 1.3.2).

Furthermore, there are only a few studies addressing the policymakers' perspectives (Andriotis, 2000; Burns & Sancho, 2003; Costa, 1996; Godfrey, 1998; Lankford, 1994; McGehee, Meng, & Tepanon, 2006; McNicol, 1996; Murphy, 1983a; Shortt, 1994; Stevenson, 2008; Yuksel, Bramwell, & Yuksel, 1999). Bouquet & Winter (1987) and Pearce (1989; cited in: Madrigal, 1995) argue that local government is recognised as being the most important authority in establishing tourism development policies. Local planners are at the centre of impact assessment (Shortt, 1994), because at this level the impacts of development – both negative and positive – are felt most acutely (Madrigal, 1995).

Nevertheless, only a very limited number of studies focused specifically on, and explored the attitudes of local policymakers towards tourism. McGehee, Meng, & Tepanon (2006) compared the perceptions of North Carolina legislators of the industry with thirteen years difference in 1990 and 2003. Burns & Sancho (2003) and Godfrey (1998) examined the attitudes of public sector tourism managers towards the principles of sustainable tourism. The former authors investigated local perceptions of the strategic tourism development plan in Cuéllar, Spain with regard to key themes including sustainability, local participation and the key objectives, stages and appraisal method of the plan by using qualitative methods. Findings indicated that despite the general positive attitude of public representatives towards the plan, there was a lack of consensus on the interpretation of sustainability and on the applicability of the principles of sustainability into practice. Furthermore, there was a dearth of technical expertise and knowledge about tourism, in particular about the methods of diversification of tourism supply, among local planners.

The latter study is based on the results of a large-scale survey conducted with UK tourism officers, which revealed general support for creating a more inclusive approach to local tourism management, however, with core differences in the priority and methods of integration. Those in favour of greater industry coordination between public, private and community interests were found to be more supportive for a greater integration. In contrast, those who did not strongly support greater coordination were also more in favour of a strong public sector role and integration limited to public relations and democratic elections, rather than integration applied as a wider consultation approach.

Shortt (1994) further argued that the attitudes of professionals concerned with planning for tourism have been overlooked in the literature. He conducted an exploratory study on the attitude systems of a number of subgroups concerned with planning in Australia and identified contradictions in the attitudes towards tourism. The differentiation in attitudes allowed for the formulation of recommendations for human resource management.

Byrd, Bosley, & Dronberger (2009) identified two studies that compare perceptions of residents, entrepreneurs and government officials of tourism (Lankford, 1994; Murphy, 1983). However, the authors overlooked three other relevant studies that focus on the same stakeholder groups (Andriotis, 2000; McNicol, 1996; Stewart & Draper, 2007). Murphy (1993) investigated various decision-making groups in tourism centres, and Lankford (1994), Andriotis (2000), McNicol (1996) and Stewart & Draper (2007) included a

diverse group of government employees, local planners and elected or appointed decision makers in their study in addition to residents and entrepreneurs to discover stakeholder perceptions of tourism.

Since decisions of community leaders are often not congruent with the desires of the public regarding specific community issues and concerns (Allen & Gibson, 1987), the reconciliation of different stakeholder perceptions is indispensable for the sustainable development of the industry. Godfrey (1998) further noted that one limitation of his study is that tourism officers *a priori* are generally in favour of tourism development, thus future research should explore opinions of local land-use planners and private sector representatives.

For this reason, SET is particularly suitable as a theoretical basis for exploring policymakers' and local developers' perceptions, because the ultimate goal of any – sectoral or territorial – development policies is to improve the standard of living of the population. This is especially true in the case of territorial policies, where the target of intervention is not a sector but different levels of geographical areas (national, regional, micro-regional, local). Through area-based development, these policies are directly targeted at the communities. Local developers are engaged in overall community development, therefore their attitudes towards various factors influencing community development (Allen & Gibson, 1986, 1987; Ayres & Potter, 1989; Molnar & Smith, 1982; Nix & Seerley, 1973), local service provision and residents' perceptions on community leaders (Filkins, Allen, & Cordes, 2000; Goudy, 1977; Rojek, Clemente & Summers, 1975) are of great importance in rural community satisfaction research (Filkins, *et al.*, 2000; Theodori, 2000).

Local developers view tourism as a function of their role in influencing its impacts on the community: diminishing the negative, and increasing the positive impacts. They evaluate tourism in an existing or potential destination by taking into consideration the level of development of the surrounding towns and villages and the development priorities of the area. While residents' respond to tourism with increased or decreased hospitality, cooperation and friendliness, entrepreneurs start new tourism businesses, diversify existing services, or, on the contrary, reduce or cease service provision in response to the positive or negative impacts of tourism. Policymakers of area-based development policies, at the same time, determine the role of tourism in territorial development strategies in

accordance with the overall characteristics of the region, weighing the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the area when evaluating the impacts of tourism. Based on this evaluation, tourism-related development is encouraged or discouraged by policy tools, most importantly by the allocation of financial sources.

Subsequently, it is reasonable to conclude that the argumentation here provides justification for the inclusion of policymakers in the system of exchange; next the hypothesised determinants of rural governance policymakers' support for tourism development will be presented and discussed.

5.4.2 Variables and relationships of the model

As indicated earlier in Chapter 3.5.3.1, there are clearly distinguishable individual and community characteristics employed in the literature as determinants of host community attitudes. This implies that the intrinsic dimension comprises an individual and a community component. In fact, various studies have proven that individuals evaluate the consequences of tourism both at a personal and a community level. These studies provided evidence that collective community benefits can supersede individual interests, suggesting that the understanding of social exchange in the tourism context could shift from the primacy of personal benefits to the wider community interests, 'in such a way that costs to the individual might be tolerated in the interest of broader community benefits' (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; p.24; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Liu & Var, 1986; Ryan & Montgomery, 1994; Stewart & Draper, 2007). Taking the most important personal benefit, employment in tourism as an example, Faulkner & Tideswell (1997) cites a study conducted by the Hawaii Department of Business and Economic Development, which concluded that 'it appears that tourism employment alone is a less persuasive form of benefit than is earning a good income in a tourism driven economy' (p. 24). They also call for the development and application of variables that isolate personal and community-wide benefits that may influence individual responses.

The present study, viewing tourism from the perspective of local development organisations, focuses on overall community benefits. It interprets participation from the individual and integration from the community perspective. The former refers to the level of involvement of local governance policymakers themselves in tourism development, while

integration refers to the extent to which tourism has been integrated at the community level.

The core question of model development is as follows:

How do policymakers' perceptions of their participation in tourism development ('individual dimension') and the integration of local tourism stakeholders ('community dimension') influence the perceived contribution of tourism to overall community development and their support for tourism?

Drawing on social exchange theory, the assumption here is, derived from the analysis above, that the more contribution rural policymakers of local development organisations attribute to tourism, the more they will support additional tourism development. The guiding principle of the model was adapted from Jurowski (1994) to the particular research context:

Rural governance policymakers' evaluation of the exchange of benefits and costs affects perceptions of their participation in tourism development and the integration of local stakeholders, which in turn affect their perception on the contribution of tourism to overall community development, and thus their support for tourism.

In the following sections justification is provided for the inclusion of the two key constructs in the model as determinants of rural governance policymakers' support for tourism development.

5.4.2.1 Participation in tourism development

In the conceptual framework designed for the analysis of the formation of rural governance in Section 5.3.1, participation was defined as the involvement of local people in the development process, in particular in the formulation of development strategies (Storey, 1999). This definition implies the proactive role of the local community in recognising their own needs and development priorities, mobilising their own resources and making their own decisions about how to meet them (Stone, 1989; cited in Tosun & Timothy, 2003). In the tourism context, the nature and process of participatory development have been

explored in great detail, providing a well-established conceptual foundation for participatory tourism development (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999; Beeton, 2006; Blackstock, 2005; Garrod, 2003; Gunn, 1988; Haywood, 1988; Jamal & Getz, 1999; Keogh, 1990; Li, 2006; Loukissas, 1983; Moscardo, 2008; Murphy, 1983b, 1985, 1988; Reed, 1997; Reid, Mair & George, 2004; Simmons, 1994; Simpson, 2001; Tosun, 2006; Tosun & Timothy, 2003; For more details, see: Chapter 3.8).

Benefits of participatory tourism development have widely been acknowledged, particularly with reference to sustainability (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Joppe, 1996; Simpson, 2001; Vernon, 2005) in developing countries (Aref & Redzuan, 2008; Fallon & Kriwoken, 2003; Li, 2004; Nyaupane, Morais & Dowler, 2006; Pongponrat & Pongquan, 2007; Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2000; Victurine, 2000) and in rural territories (Burns & Sancho, 2003; Cees, 2000; George, Mair & Reid, 2009; Kneafsey, 2001; Stokowski, 1990). Additionally, distinct attention has been directed at the obstacles to the community-based approach both at the community level such as lack of economic, cultural and social conditions (Aref & Redzuan, 2008; Dukeshire & Thurlow, 2002; Moscardo, 2008; Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2000), and at the governmental level such as centralised public administration (Tosun, 2000; 2006).

The normative model for participatory tourism developed by Tosun & Timothy (2003) (See: Chapter 3.8.1) serves as the theoretical basis for the inclusion of the 'participation' construct in the present model. Recognising the various benefits that the participatory approach may provide for the community, allows that a link between the participation of rural governance policymakers in tourism development and their support for tourism be established. The authors collected various arguments for community participation in development that have emerged from diverse disciplines to underlie their argumentation and to examine them from the tourism perspective. These arguments are summarised in Table 5.5.

In sum, these arguments emphasise that involvement enhances responsibility of the community for the utilisation of local resources. By drawing on local knowledge and expertise, it improves the quality of services, increases the community's self-reliance and thus it may encourage bottom-up development initiatives.

In the tourism context, the arguments in support of participatory tourism development are summarised in Table 5.6. The principal argument arises from Blank (1989), who

contended that it is in the communities where tourism happens, because the communities are the destination of most travellers. Hence, local people are not only affected by tourism, but they are expected to be part of the tourism product (Scheyvens, 1999; Simmons, 1994; cited in Nyaupane, Morais & Dowler, 2006). Their historical understanding of local dynamics enables them to identify salient issues of local concern, determine the utilisation of local resources and the pace and scale of development (Simpson, 2001). Particularly in rural territories, where the tourism product is usually a commodification of the local history, culture or the natural environment (George, Mair & Reid, 2009), the local community is an essential part of the product.

Table 5.5: Arguments for community participation in development collected from different disciplines by Tosun & Timothy (2003)

Studies	Discipline/ perspective	Arguments
White (1982)	Education	<u>Advantages of the participatory approach:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More can be accomplished; • Services can be available at lower cost; • Intrinsic value-added; • Catalyst for further development efforts; • Leads to sense of responsibility; • Guarantees that a community need is addressed; • Ensures things are done in the right way; • Uses indigenous knowledge and expertise; • Provides more independence for communities from professionals.
Hollnsteiner (1977)	Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhances sense of responsibility; • Allows rectification of planners' misconceptions; • Increases community's self-reliance.
(Boaden, <i>et al.</i> (1982)	Public administration	<u>Community participation can be a viable response to:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Functional fragmentation of public administration; • Centralisation of local government; • Professionalisation of service provision; • Increasing remoteness of government from people.

Source: Author, based on Tosun & Timothy (2003)

Simpson (2001) established a set of guideline principles which summarises an optimal relationship between community tourism development and sustainability. One of these principles is the recognition that local resident perceptions determine the attitudes to tourism development. According to Inskeep (1991), the more local residents are involved, the more positive their attitudes will be towards tourism development. Although only a few studies address community involvement in tourism from a decision-making perspective – contrary to the economic perspective –, findings appear to support this statement.

Negative attitudes towards tourism were related to a lack of resident involvement in tourism-related decisions (Cooke, 1982); Potts & Harrill (1998) found that negative resident perceptions of tourism development, arising from a dearth of opportunities for participation can lead to tourist dissatisfaction and decreased visitation. Consistent with these results, Allen, *et al.*, (1988) found that opportunities for citizen involvement dropped off significantly at higher levels of tourism development of the research area. Andereck, *et al* (2005) cites Brougham & Butler (1981) and Lankford & Howard (1994) who employed the variable 'involvement in tourism decision making' and concluded that 'findings to date suggest residents who are more engaged with this business and tourists are more positively inclined toward it and express more positive attitudes' (p.1062).

Table 5.6: Arguments for participatory tourism development

Studies	Arguments
Tosun & Timothy (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • stimulates the formulation of implementable policies; • is a pre-requisite to sustainability; • increases tourist satisfaction; • helps tourism professionals design better tourism plans; • contributes to a fair distribution of costs and benefits among community members; • helps satisfy locally identified needs; • strengthens the democratisation process in tourist destinations.
Tosun, 2000; 2006)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • facilitates the implementation of the principles of sustainability;
Simmons (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fosters a more democratic local community;
Blank (1989)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • communities are the destination of most travellers, therefore it is in communities where tourism happen;
George, Mair & Reid (2009); Scheyvens, (1999); Simmons, (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • local people are the ones most closely affected by tourism; • local people are expected to be integral part of the tourism product; • local people have a historical understanding of how the region adapts to change;
Simpson (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • local resident perceptions determine attitudes to tourism development; • local residents must identify salient issues of local concern; • local residents must determine pace and scale of development; • development must coincide with community aspirations and abilities; • a wide range of opinions exist within and between communities; • resident participation will result in support for ensuing development;
Inskeep (1991; 1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • is essential to maximise the socio-economic benefits of tourism; • contributes the conservation of local resources; • results in more positive attitudes to tourism development.

Source: Author, based on George, Mair & Reid (2009); Nyaupane, Morais & Dowler (2006); Simpson, (2001); Tosun (2006); Tosun & Timothy (2003)

In line with Simpson (2001) who suggests that an enhanced range of stakeholder groups be involved in all stages of tourism planning, the following causal relationships are hypothesised:

Hypothesis 1. There is a positive relationship between the perceived level of rural governance policymakers' tourism development activity in their area and the contribution of tourism to overall community development, thus their support for tourism development.

Hypothesis 2. There is a positive relationship between the perceived level of rural governance policymakers' involvement in tourism planning in their area and the contribution of tourism to overall community development, thus their support for tourism development.

Hypothesis 3. There is a positive relationship between the perceived level of cooperation of rural governance policymakers with the tourism authorities in their area and the contribution of tourism to overall community development, thus their support for tourism development.

As the three hypotheses show, participation of rural governance policymakers in tourism development is interpreted comprises three dimensions. First, taking into account that rural governance policymakers are not tourism officers, but assume a community developer role, their distinct contribution to tourism development through the EAFRD should be first evaluated. This is referred to as 'Level of tourism development activity' in the first hypothesis. Second, the 'Level of involvement in tourism planning' dimension of the participation construct refers to the involvement in the stages of the regional tourism planning process driven by the tourism authorities (Garrod, 2003; Pongponrat & Pongquan, 2007). The third dimension of participation is the level of cooperation with the tourism authorities in their area (local and regional), in terms of frequency, efficiency and effectiveness (Costa, 1996).

5.4.2.2 Tourism stakeholder integration

In recognition of the multi-sectoral nature of tourism industry and the highly fragmented supply structure of tourism destinations, there has been a well-established pattern of

integration on the supply side since tourism became a popular activity (Butler, 1999). Integration can be interpreted as economic, policy, organisational or stakeholder integration (Oliver & Jenkins, 2003). Economic integration refers to the integration of tourism with other economic sectors, in particular retailing and local industries such as farming. Policy integration is the integration of tourism into broader economic and social development policies; while organisational and stakeholder integration refers to the various forms of cooperation between entities ranging from collaboration (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Vernon, 2005) to alliances (Gunn, 1990; Palmer & Bejou, 1995; Telfer, 2001), partnerships (Augustyn & Knowles, 2000; Bramwell & Lane, 2000; Selin, 1999) and networks (Dredge, 2006; Pavlovich, 2003; Scott, Baggio, & Cooper, 2008), as discussed in Chapter 3.6.2.

As a concept, integration has gained most attention in planning (Butler, 1999; Inskeep, 1991), particularly with reference to sustainability (Bramwell & Lane, 2000; Gössling & Hörstmeier, 2003; Inskeep, 1991; Mitchell & Eagles, 2001; Page & Thorn, 1997; Selin, 1999). By definition, integrated tourism planning and development is the process of introducing tourism into an area in which it mixes with other existing elements (Butler, 1999). As a collaborative approach, it requires interaction between the various levels of an organisation and between the responsible organisation and the stakeholders to realise horizontal and vertical partnerships (Hall & McArthur, 1998; cited in Hall, 1999). Collaboration represents the pooling of knowledge, expertise, capital and other resources from various stakeholders (Bramwell & Lane, 2000), therefore the integrated approach is recognised as being one with most potential to stimulate local capacity building (Panyik, Costa & Rátz, 2010).

More recently, increasing attention has been directed to integrated approaches to tourism in rural areas (Jenkins, 2001; Oliver & Jenkins, 2003), where tourism is considered to be a tool for rural regeneration through agricultural diversification (Hegarty & Przezborska, 2005; Hjalager, 1996) due to its strong ties with the complementary sectors of agriculture such as food processing, light manufacturing, arts and handicrafts (Saxena & Ilbery 2008). Cooperation between rural tourism entrepreneurs and between entrepreneurs and the local public sector were found to be key success factors in rural development (Wilson, *et al.*, 2001). Community-based networks allow the joint promotion and maintenance of local tourism resources (Cawley, Marsat, & Gillmor, 2007; Saxena, *et al.*, 2007; Saxena & Ilbery, 2008), cooperative branding in small rural communities help synergising the

drawing power of their attractions (Cai, 2002) and networks of different service providers such as tourism routes stimulate entrepreneurial opportunity (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004).

Based on the literature review presented in Chapter 4, the 'integration' construct is defined in the context of IRT as the formation of powerful network connections that link tourism explicitly and directly to the social, cultural, economic and environmental resources of the localities in which tourism activity takes place (Saxena, *et al.*, 2007). The notion of IRT is theorised in relation to the concepts of endogeneity, embeddedness and empowerment in a holistic approach to tourism, focusing on the network connections between actors, resources and products (Saxena & Ilbery 2008).

The rationale for the exchange process in the case of this construct is adopted from Saxena & Ilbery (2008) who argue that 'tourism can permeate, and be integrated with, local and regional economies in a complex manner, leading to direct income benefits and wider developmental bonuses for the localities' (p.234). Furthermore, as argued by Briedenhann & Wickens (2004) 'the clustering of activities and attractions in less developed areas, stimulates cooperation and partnerships between communities in local and neighbouring regions and serves as a vehicle for the stimulation of economic development through tourism' (p.72).

On this basis, the following hypothesis can be formulated:

Hypothesis 4. There is a positive relationship between the perceived level of tourism stakeholder integration by rural governance policymakers and the contribution of tourism to overall community development, thus their support for tourism development.

5.4.2.3 Contribution of tourism to overall community development

A few researchers have studied the relationship of overall community satisfaction and the support for tourism development. Allen, *et al.* (1988) identified seven dimensions of community life and analysed whether residents' perceptions of community life satisfaction vary with the levels of tourism development in their community. Adopting this scale, Ko & Stewart (2002) employed a construct measuring overall community satisfaction based on

the model of Perdue *et al.* (1990) as one of the antecedents of attitudes for additional tourism development. Both studies revealed negative relationships: Allen *et al.* (1988) found a non-linear relationship between the level of tourism development and satisfaction with three dimensions of community life: citizen involvement, public services and the environment. Although in the study of Ko & Stewart (2002) the relationship between overall community satisfaction and attitudes for additional tourism development was also found to be negative, it was not significant, which, according to the authors, can be attributable to the long history of tourism development in the study area. These results indicate that residents are indeed sensible to the relationships of tourism and the overall community and to the impacts of tourism on the level of community development. They tend to prioritise overall community well-being above tourism development, which underlies the assumption that the contribution of tourism to overall community development is an antecedent of their support for further tourism development.

Gursoy, *et al.* (2002) and Gursoy & Rutherford (2004) investigated the state of the local economy as determinant of host community support for tourism. Their findings appear to support the above results in that the more residents felt that the economy needs to be improved, the more likely they were to support tourism. In other words, residents considered tourism as a means of local economic development suggesting that the contribution of tourism to overall community development is one important concern of the local communities. Considering these findings and taking also into account the principal role of rural governance policymakers as community developers, the following hypothesis can be formulated:

Hypothesis 5. There is a positive relationship between the perceived contribution of tourism by rural governance policymakers to overall community development and their support for tourism development.

5.4.2.4 Support for tourism development

Social exchange theory suggests that positive attitudes towards tourism imply support for additional tourism development while negative attitudes may lead to more opposition against the industry. As Yoon, *et al.* (2001) explains, 'if residents have a positive perception of tourism, they will render support for additional tourism development and, therefore, they will be willing to participate in an exchange with visitors. However, if they

believe that tourism development would have more costs than benefits, they are likely to oppose tourism development' (p.364). Although previous research findings partly remain inconclusive or contradictory, there is sufficient evidence to support the existence of dependence relationships (Jurowski, Uysal & Williams, 1997; Andereck, *et al.*, 2005; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1987; Teye, *et al.*, 2002; Yoon, *et al.*, 2001).

Furthermore, most studies revealed that residents in a great diversity of communities seem to be positively disposed to tourism (Andereck & Vogt, 2000), in particular as an economic development strategy (See: Jurowski, 1994, for a list of references). While they do have concerns about the negative impacts of tourism (Andereck, *et al.*, 2005; Liu, *et al.*, 1987; Teye, *et al.*, 2002; Yoon, *et al.*, 2001) and there certainly are exceptions to overall positive attitudes of residents (Johnson, *et al.*, 1994; O'Leary, 1976; Pizam, 1978), they have not found to be greatly concerned about the negative aspects on a general level (Andereck & Vogt, 2000).

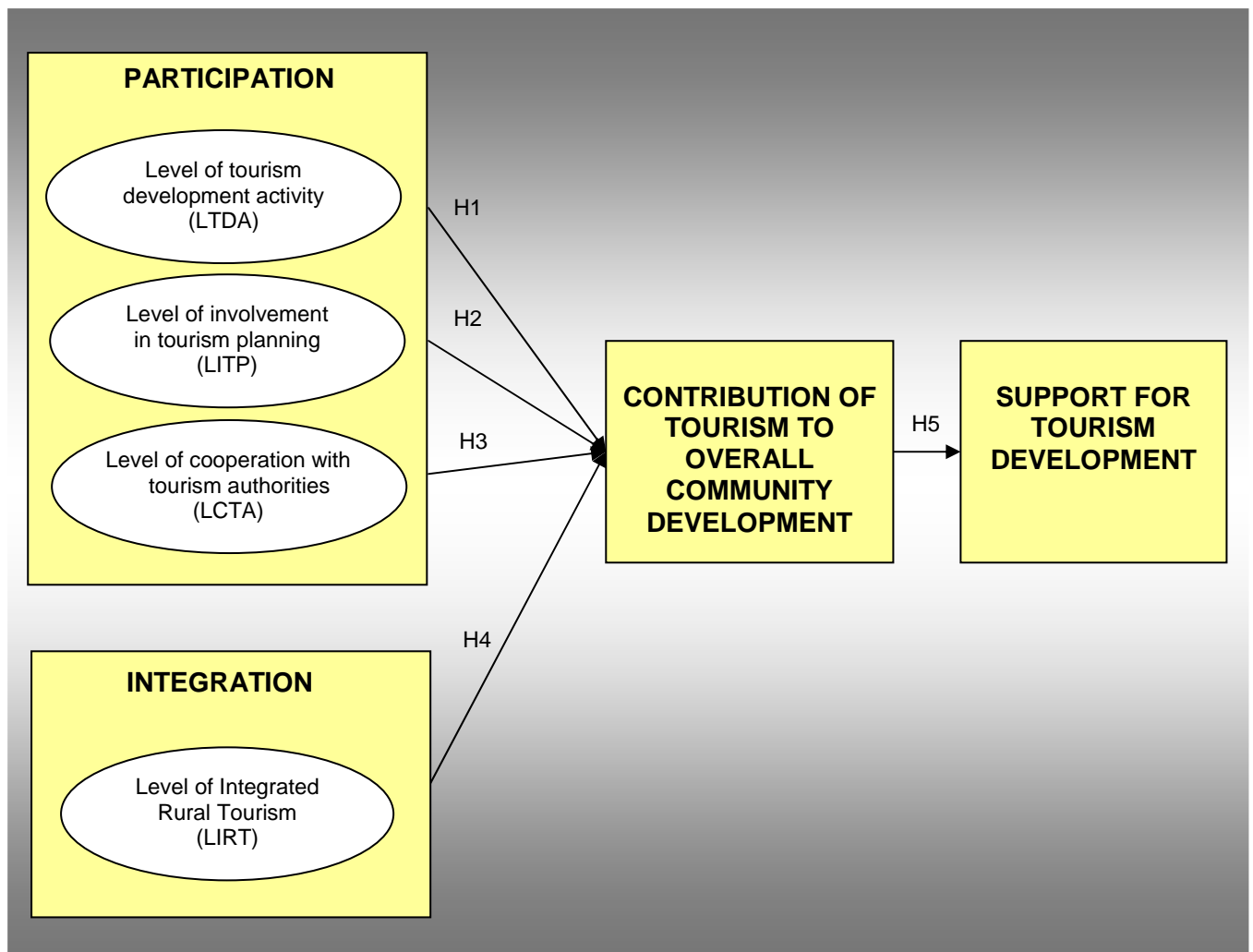
Support for tourism development as a construct has been employed as a dependent variable in various studies (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Korça, 1998; Lee & Back, 2006; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Oviedo-Garcia, *et al.*, 2008; Wang & Pfister, 2008; Yoon, *et al.*, 2001). The examination of support for tourism is further substantiated by the importance of host community perceptions and attitudes in tourism impacts research.

5.4.2.5 The hypothetical model of rural tourism governance

Following the discussion above, the variables and hypothesised relationships are presented in Figure 5.7. The structural solution of the model draws on recent host community support research models (Dyer, *et al.*, 2007; Lee & Back, 2006; Oviedo-Garcia, *et al.*, 2008; Yoon, *et al.*, 2001) that examined causal relationships between multiple tourism impacts and residents' support for tourism. In contrast to the host community support models, however, the present model is designed to test causal relationships between governance factors and rural governance policymakers' support for tourism.

There are two independent variables ('Participation' and 'Integration'), one mediator variable ('Contribution') and the ultimate dependent variable ('Support') included in the model. Empowerment in the context of IRT is interpreted as one dimension of integration, therefore it is not considered as a separate variable. Hypothetically, each phenomenon under scrutiny influences the perceptions on the contribution of tourism to overall community development, which in turn determines support for tourism. The assumption is that if the exchange relationships can be explained at the individual level, then higher and more complex levels of relationships can be understood. Thus, as Jurowski (1994) explains, 'group outcomes can be predicted through individual interactions' (p.10).

Figure 5.7: The hypothetical model of rural tourism governance



In the context of perceptions research it is important to highlight that the propositions derived from the model represent causal processes rather than causal links between

variables. This is because variables are tools to observe causal processes, or, with other words, changes in variables are used to analyse changes in causal processes (Vieira, 2008). For example, to suggest that integration has an impact on contribution and thus on support means that differences in the value of the former are associated with differences in the causal processes that determine the value of the latter for each individual (Hunter & Gerbing, 1982; cited in Vieira, 2008).

5.5 Methodology of the quantitative component

5.5.1 Operationalisation of variables

In the previous section the key constructs of analysis have been conceptualised and the relationships between the constructs identified. It has been hypothesised that factors related to participation and integration determine rural governance policymakers' evaluation of the contribution of tourism to overall community development, and thus, their support for tourism development. The structure comprising multi-level constructs and multiple relationships between independent and dependent variables forms the hypothetical model of rural governance policymakers' support for tourism.

Choi & Sirakaya (2006) argued that the attitude of local political and NGO leaders towards development is a sustainability indicator for the political dimension of community tourism management. Thus, in order to validate the proposed rural tourism governance theory by determining the attitudes of local developers towards tourism, the variables presented in the previous chapter will be operationalised next in the context of community tourism management of rural territories.

5.5.1.1 Participation in tourism development

5.5.1.1.1 Level of involvement in tourism development

In order to measure the level of involvement in tourism development of a specific stakeholder group on the supply side other than tourism officers, their distinct role should be evaluated. This is because the diverse groups of resource controllers participate in

different ways, to different extent and for various purposes. Their involvement in tourism planning also differs as well as their relationship with tourism authorities.

Thus, there are three dimensions of the participation construct. The first dimension, 'Level of involvement in tourism development' (LITD) is measured by five items (Table 5.7), drawing on the community tourism self-assessment instrument developed by Reid *et al.* (2004) and the sustainability indicators for community tourism management proposed by Choi & Sirakaya, (2006). Considering that these items were developed in the wider community context, most items were developed by the author to be applied in the specific context of local developers.

The first item measures the importance of tourism in the organisational profile and activities of the respondents (LITD1). The second evaluates the influence of the organisation on the directions of tourism development of the area (LITD2). Third, the awareness of respondents of the problems and needs of tourism in the area is measured based on Reid *et al.* (2004) by an item which was slightly modified to fit the particular context (LITD3). The fourth item measures the contribution of the organisation and its activities to tourism development (LITD4). Lastly, the future development of tourism is evaluated by the item measuring the importance of tourism in the local development strategy/long-term vision of regional development of the organisations (depending on whether the organisation prepares or not a development strategy) (item LITD5). This item is based on a sustainability indicator of the political dimension of community tourism management (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006), which measured the inclusion of tourism into the community planning process as one of major components.

5.5.1.1.2 Level of involvement in tourism planning

The second dimension of participation comprises a set of items that measures the involvement of rural governance policymakers in tourism planning. It draws on the analytical framework of collaboration in local tourism policymaking developed by Bramwell & Sharman (1999). The framework allows for the evaluation of local collaborative policymaking through three sets of issues: the scope of collaboration, which identifies the range of participating stakeholders; the intensity of collaboration, which specifies the characteristics of cooperation; and thirdly, the degree of consensus which measures the

level of agreement among stakeholders about the outcomes of action and resulting policies.

Table 5.7: Items for measuring the perceived level of involvement in tourism development (LITD)

Items	Description	Target of measurement	Scale	Source
LITD1	The role of tourism in our organisation's current activities and profile. (Merged with LITD5 after the pre-test)	Profile	1. Not important at all 2. Slightly important 3. Moderately important 4. Fairly important 5. Very important	Author
LITD2	Our organisation influences the directions of tourism development in its area.	Influence	1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much	Author
LITD3	We are aware of the problems and needs of tourism in the development scenarios unfolding in the region at this very moment.	Awareness		Author, based on Reid <i>et al.</i> (2004)
LITD4	Our organisation and its activities have contributed to the development of tourism in the region.	Contribution		Author
LITD5	The role of tourism in our local development strategy/long-term vision of regional development.	Future	1. Not important at all 2. Slightly important 3. Moderately important 4. Fairly important 5. Very important	Author, based on Choi & Sirakaya (2006)

The items have been developed based on the three broad phases of tourism planning as examined by Pongponrat & Pongquan (2007): decision-making, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. The rationale for considering the planning phases separately arises from the complexity of the planning process. Furthermore, it is important to measure participation from the earliest stages because involvement from the beginning of the planning process might result in a higher level of citizen commitment to developing a tourism plan (Gunn, 1994; cited in Bramwell & Sharman, 1999).

As presented in Table 5.8, 'level of involvement in tourism planning' (LITP) is measured by seven items. Involvement in the first phase (decision-making) is measured by the participation in the identification of local needs and problems (LITP1) and in meetings and/or workshops together with the tourism authorities (LITP2). Involvement in the second

phase (implementation) is measured by the incorporation of the respondents' opinions and suggestions in the tourism development plans (LITPM3), and by the development of common projects or programmes (LITPM4). Involvement in the third phase (monitoring and evaluation) is measured by the frequency of sharing and discussing results of tourism development with rural governance policymakers and asking for their feedback (LITPM5). The outcomes and the effectiveness of participatory planning are measured by the level of consensus between actors (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999) regarding tourism development. In particular, the level of agreement among stakeholders about the resulting policies is measured by the level of conformity between the regional tourism development strategy and the tourism development goals of the local development strategy/long-term vision of tourism development of rural governance organisations, both in terms of synergy (LITP6) and conflict (LITP7).

Table 5.8: Items for measuring the perceived level of involvement in tourism planning (LITP)

Items	Description	Target of measurement	Scale	Source
LITP1	The local and/or regional tourism authorities ask us to identify local needs and problems of tourism.	Decision-making	1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Very often	Author, based on Choi & Sirakaya, (2006) and Pongponrat & Pongquan, (2007)
LITP2	We participate in meetings and workshops related to tourism together with the local and/or regional tourism authorities			
LITP3	Ideas stemming from our organisation are incorporated in the tourism development strategy of the region.	Implementation		
LITP4	Our organisation takes part of, or assists projects, programmes or other initiatives together with the local and/or regional tourism authorities.			
LITP5	Local and/or regional tourism authorities share and discuss results of tourism development with us and ask for our feedback.	Monitoring and evaluation		
LITP6	To your knowledge, does the regional tourism development strategy reflect your organisation's local development strategy / long-term vision concerning tourism development in the region?	Consensus	1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much	Author, based on Bramwell & Sharman (1999)
LITP7	To your knowledge, are there any development objectives in the regional tourism development strategy that are in conflict with your organisation's local development strategy / long-term vision concerning tourism development in the region?		1. Yes, there are a lot 2. Quite a lot 3. More or less 4. A few 5. None at all (reverse coded)	

5.5.1.1.3 Level of cooperation with tourism authorities

The characteristics of cooperation are of key importance when evaluating the level of participation of stakeholder groups. As mentioned earlier, Bramwell & Sharman (1999) defined the scope of collaboration, the intensity of collaboration and the degree of consensus as being the cornerstones of the analytical framework of collaboration in local tourism policymaking. Costa (1996) also examined the characteristics of cooperation, among the members of 'Rota da Luz' Tourism Board in Portugal. The factors used were based on the network analysis literature.

They identified a set of issues that helps to evaluate the intensity of collaboration and the level of contacts respectively, which are summarised in a simplified way in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Factors for evaluating cooperation with and within tourism authorities

Intensity of collaboration in local tourism policymaking (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999)	Level of contacts among tourism board members (Costa, 1996)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The degree of stakeholder acceptance of collaboration ➤ The frequency of stakeholder involvement ➤ The extent of information dissemination and consultation with stakeholders ➤ Whether participation involves direct interaction among stakeholders ➤ The degree of mutual understanding ➤ The degree of mutual learning ➤ The extent to which the facilitator of collaboration exerts control over decision-making 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Frequency of contacts ➤ Method of contacts ➤ Reason of contacts ➤ Basis of contacts ➤ Terms of contacts ➤ Influence of contacts ➤ Importance of contacts ➤ Benefits of contacts ➤ Tension in contacts ➤ Quality of communication

Source: Based on Bramwell & Sharman (1999) and Costa (1996).

These studies show that there are two broad categories of factors used to evaluate cooperation with tourism authorities. The first is the frequency of cooperation, and the second is the quality of cooperation, the latter including factors such as the degree of mutual understanding and learning, and the influence, importance, benefits and tensions of contacts.

Based on these studies, the third dimension ('Level of cooperation with tourism authorities', LCTA) is measured by three items, which are summarised in Table 5.10. The first measures the frequency of cooperation between rural governance policymakers and the (local and regional) tourism authorities in terms of information exchange (LCTA1). The second and the third measures the quality of cooperation in terms of efficiency (referring to the *process* of cooperation) (LCTA2), and effectiveness (referring to the *results*) of cooperation (LCTA3).

Table 5.10: Items for measuring the perceived level of cooperation with tourism authorities (LCTA)

Items	Description	Target of measurement	Scale	Source
LCTA1	The frequency of information exchange between your organisation and the local/regional tourism authorities.	Frequency	1. No relationship/ Infrequent 2. Rare 3. Moderate 4. Frequent 5. Very frequent	Author, based on Bramwell & Sharman (1999), Costa (1996) Author, based on
LCTA2	The efficiency of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities in terms of the process of cooperation (such as mutual understanding, willingness to help, etc.).	Efficiency	1. No relationship/ Inefficient 2. Little 3. Moderate 4. Efficient 5. Very efficient	
LCTA3	The effectiveness of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities in terms of the results of cooperation (success or failure).	Effectiveness	1. No relationship/ Ineffective 2. Little 3. Moderate 4. Effective 5. Very effective	

5.5.1.2 Tourism stakeholder integration

In order to measure the level of IRT, tourism stakeholder integration is operationalised by adapting the seven dimensions of IRT defined by Saxena, *et al.* (2007), Clark & Chabrel (2007) and Cawley & Gillmor (2008). The seven features that are identified as being characteristic of integration in tourism of rural territories are endogeneity, embeddedness, empowerment, networking, scale, sustainability and complementarity, as presented in Table 4.3 in the previous chapter. The phrasing of the items is based upon these definitions complemented by Saxena & Ilbery (2008).

In this table adopted from Clark & Chabrel (2007), embeddedness is defined as 'the role tourism plays in the politics, culture and life of the whole area and population as a local priority', while endogeneity is interpreted as 'the degree to which the area's tourism is recognized as being based on the real resources of the area'. Clearly, the first definition emphasises the extent to which tourism forms part of ('is embedded in') the local life, while the second accentuates the degree of authenticity of the tourism base.

Saxena & Ilbery (2008) further argue, while recognising that both endogeneity and embeddedness are conceptualised in relation to the linkages of tourism to the local resources, that the crucial point is that embeddedness is interpreted in a territorial context in which resources, activities and relationships are directly linked to the place. Endogeneity on the other hand is structured around the community by focusing on the requirements, capacities and values of its people to retain maximum benefits in the locality by using and adding value to its resources.

Empowerment is defined by Clark & Chabrel (2007) as 'the extent of political control over the tourism industry through ownership, law or planning; particularly control exercised at a local level'. According to Saxena & Ilbery (2008), empowerment enables a shared understanding and ownership of goals and objectives, facilitates local actors to exercise their choices, enhance their capacity to innovate and draw on their own resources, whereby the whole community benefits from being included in decision-making. Bearing these definitions in mind, embeddedness, endogeneity and empowerment have been defined based on the combination of the above authors, and the rest of the items measuring IRT (networking, scale, complementarity and sustainability) were formulated by adapting the definitions from Clark & Chabrel (2007).

In addition to the seven items corresponding to the seven dimensions of IRT, two more items were included in the construct based on the two-fold interpretation of integration in the qualitative component of the thesis distinguishing stakeholder and sectoral integration (See: Figure 5.4 in Chapter 5.3.1). Accordingly, one item specifies the level of stakeholder integration in terms of public-private-non-profit partnerships drawing on Bramwell & Lane (2000), and the other measures the level of entrepreneurial integration in terms of clustering of tourism supply elements and development of integrated projects as described by Briedenhann & Wickens (2004).

Considering the above discussion, the items measuring the level of integrated rural tourism (LIRT) are presented in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11: Items for measuring the perceived level of integrated rural tourism (LIRT)

Items	Description	Target of measurement	Scale	Source
LIRT1	Tourism in the area originates from, and is directly linked to, the locality through ownership and employment base, and forms part of the community's politics, culture and life.	Endogeneity	1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much	Author, based on: Cawley & Gillmor, (2008); Clark & Chabrel, (2007); Saxena, <i>et al.</i> , (2007); Saxena & Ilbery (2008)
LIRT2	Tourism in the area draws on the distinct geographical, socio-cultural, economic and environmental resources of the region, thus uses and adds value to its resources and to the community.	Embeddedness		
LIRT3	The communities of the area exert influence over the planning, management and utilisation of their own tourism resources through participation in decision-making.	Empowerment		
LIRT4	People in the area are able to work together in the locality and beyond, to develop and manage tourism.	Networking		
LIRT5	Demand and supply-side tourism activity of the area has grown in terms of its distribution over the past few years.	Scale		
LIRT6	Bearing in mind the negative environmental impacts of tourism, on the whole, tourism does not damage, but possibly even enhances the environmental and ecological resources of the area.	Sustainability		
LIRT7	Tourism provides benefits (through the utilisation of resources and facilities) also to those local people that are not directly involved in the tourism industry.	Complementarity		
LIRT8	The integration of supply elements through integrated projects or projects chains (such as wine or equestrian routes) for tourism development of the area is:	Sectoral (Entrepreneurial) integration	1. Not important at all 2. Slightly important 3. Moderately important	Author, based on Briedenhann & Wickens, (2004)
LIRT9	Establishing public-private-non-profit partnerships for tourism development of the area is:	Stakeholder integration	4. Fairly important 5. Very important	Author, based on Bramwell & Lane (2000)

5.5.1.3 Contribution of tourism to overall community development

The construct 'Contribution of tourism to overall community development' (CONTR) is a mediator variable, the role of which is to define the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The tenet stipulated in the present model is that the perceived level of contribution of tourism to overall community development is a precondition to the formation of attitudes towards tourism, because rural governance policymakers evaluate tourism in consideration of the overall economic situation of the area. As such, the assumption is that the perceived level of participation of rural governance policymakers in tourism development and local stakeholder integration influence the perceived contribution of tourism to overall community development, which in turn determines the level of support for tourism development.

The aggregative approach to the perceptions of tourism via the inclusion of a mediator variable was introduced by Yoon *et al.*, (2001), who postulated that there are four dimensions of tourism impacts (social, cultural, economic and environmental) influencing the total impacts, which in turn influences the support for tourism. Based on this model the aim of the authors was to analyse which dimension of impacts had the strongest influence on total impact perceptions and thus support for tourism.

The two-item solution applied by Yoon *et al.*, (2001) was adopted in the operationalisation of the mediator variable. The two items¹ used in this study were adapted to the specific context but the original measurement scales were retained (Table 5.12).

Table 5.12: Items measuring the perceived level of contribution of tourism to overall community development (CONTR)

Items	Description	Scale	Source
CONTR1	How do you perceive the contribution of tourism to overall community development?	1. Very negative 2. Negative 3. Neither negative nor positive 4. Positive 5. Very positive	Adapted from Yoon <i>et al.</i> , (2001)
CONTR2	Do you agree or disagree that tourism contributes with more benefits than costs to overall community development?	1. Strongly disagree 2. Disagree 3. Neither agree nor disagree 4. Agree 5. Strongly agree	

¹ 1. How do you perceive the overall impacts of tourism development in your community?

2. Do you agree or disagree that the benefits of tourism are greater than the costs to the people in your community?

5.5.1.4 Support for tourism development

There are various strategies in the literature to measure the support for tourism development as a separate construct. Some studies employ a single 'overall opinion' variable (King, Pizam, & Milman, 1993; Korça, 1998) or measure overall support level in community context and regional context separately by two items (Ko & Stewart, 2002). Others select multiple indicators from previous studies such as the four items used by Long, Perdue, & Allen (1990) to measure resident attitudes towards additional tourism development, or combine the literature review with empirical sources to generate items (Lee & Back, 2006).

There is a well-definable approach to measure support in terms of tourism development options (Jurowski, 1994; Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Yoon, *et al.*, 2001). Oviedo-Garcia, *et al.* (2008) used a combination of statements measuring the attitudes to tourism development in general e.g. 'More tourism would help my community to grow in the right direction' and to tourism development options in particular: 'Tourism must be developed focusing on cultural and historical attractions (museums, palaces, music, historical sites, etc.)' and 'Tourism must be developed focusing on events and outdoor programs (sports facilities, expositions, public events, etc.)'. Lastly, there are studies examining support for a specific tourism product such as casino (Lee & Back, 2006), or a specific type of tourism development such as nature-based tourism (Jurowski *et al.*, 1997) or cultural tourism (Ritchie & Inkari, 2006).

Clearly, the variety of items and approaches used to interpret support for tourism development indicate that the selection of indicators depends largely on the judgement of the researcher based on the case context and the objectives of the research.

The items measuring support for tourism development were adopted from two studies that developed a 'Support for tourism development' variable ad-hoc (McGehee & Andereck, 2004) and by principal components factor analysis (Wang & Pfister, 2008) from scales adopted from earlier studies, including, by both studies, the Tourism Impact Attitudes Scale (TIAS) (Lankford & Howard, 1994). The approach here is to embrace support for tourism by general statements rather than specific options, with a strategic view on development including a statement on the long-term engagement of rural governance policymakers with tourism. Of the four indicators used, three were adopted from McGehee

& Andereck (2004) because of being statements employed specifically in the rural context, and one from Wang & Pfister (2008) (Table 5. 13). These items are, however, frequently used also in other studies (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Oviedo-Garcia *et al.*, 2008; Ap&Crompton, 1998).

Table 5.13: Items measuring the support for tourism development (SUP)

Items	Description	Target of measurement	Scale	Source
SUP1	I support tourism as having a vital role in our area.	Role	1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much	McGehee & Andereck (2004)
SUP2	I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in the communities of the area.	Encourage		Wang & Pfister (2008)
SUP3	I'm proud to see tourists coming to see what my community has to offer.	Proud		McGehee & Andereck (2004)
SUP4	Tourism holds great promise for my community's future.	Future		McGehee & Andereck (2004)

5.5.1.5 Socio-demographic data

Socio-demographic data allow not only to provide descriptive statistics of respondents, but also to test the difference in perceptions of variables among residents based on their demographic characteristics. The categories employed here are based on those used by Wang & Pfister (2008) and McGehee & Andereck (2004), and include sex, age, formal education, length of residency, membership in local civic organisations and region as presented in Table 5.14. In general, these variables have been used to profile the respondents, to investigate their relationships with other variables (Korça, 1998; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Wang & Pfister, 2008) and to cluster attitudes towards tourism (Bastias-Perez & Var, 1995; Iroegbu & Chen, 2001; Jackson & Inbakaran, 2006; Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001).

Furthermore, in the study of Wang & Pfister (2008), community attachment was measured by the respondents' length of residence and active membership in civic organisations. As the authors note, these two variables have been identified as critical variables measuring community attachment in previous research. In the present case, one more question was included in the questionnaire pertaining to this section, which asks whether the respondent was born in the area.

Table 5.14: Socio-demographic data of respondents

Variable	Measurement scale
Gender	Male= 0, Female= 1
Age	(provided by the respondent)
Education	1= Secondary school 2= College/University degree 3= Masters degree (MSc, MBA, etc.) 4= PhD in progress 5= PhD
Born in the area	0= No, 1=Yes
Length of residency	1= I don't live here 2= Less than 5 years 3= 5-10 years 4= 11-20 years 5= 21-30 years 6= 31-40 years 7= 41-50 years 8= 51-60 years 9= 61-70 years 10= More than 70 years
Membership in local civic organisations	0= No, 1= Yes
Region	1= Central Hungary 2= Central Transdanubia 3= Northern Great Plain 4= Northern Hungary 5= Southern Great Plain 6= Southern Transdanubia 7= Western Transdanubia 99= Left blank

5.5.2 Development of the survey instrument: Questionnaire design

5.5.2.1 Measurement scales

The assessment of the proposed model was carried out by empirical data obtained from a field survey, which employed a self-administered, Internet-based questionnaire. There are four broad constructs of the model measured by 29 items. 'Participation' comprises three latent exogenous variables measured by 14 items and 'Integration' is directly measured by 9 items. The latent endogenous variable, 'Contribution' is measured by 2, and 'Support' by 4 items as presented in the previous section. All items are continuous variables measuring attitudes (except for the categorical variables employed to measure the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample) on ordinal scales.

The measurement of variables consisting of two or more dimensions can be carried out by derived measurement (Kent, 2001). Hence, scaled-choice items were used, which provide

a number of alternative responses on a continuum (Newman & McNeil, 1998). This is one of the most commonly applied methods in social sciences for derived measurement (Kent, 2001). Given that the survey was designed to measure attitudes, summated rating scales, in particular Likert scale and Likert-type scales were found to be most appropriate to measure the items, as these were developed specifically for measuring attitudes.

In addition, the Likert scale is one of the most commonly used attitude-scaling technique (Malhotra, 2004; cited in Vieira, 2008). It is as well considered to be more reliable and easier to construct than other attitude-scales such as that of Thurstone (Edwards, 1946). The Likert scale is used to rate items' quality or content, through which a person's attitude is measured by combining his/her responses across all items (Uebersax, 2006).

A five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1-5 was used throughout the questionnaire. The rationale for this solution is three-fold: first, the decision was based primarily on cultural grounds. In Hungary, the common method of evaluation, for instance in the educational system, is the rating scale ranging from 1-5, where 1 corresponds to the lowest and 5 to the highest value. Second, the definition of Likert scale implies an odd number of response options (Uebersax, 2006), thereby providing respondents the option to express neutral or mid-point opinions (Vieira, 2008, based on DeVellis, 2003 and Malhotra, 2004).

However, the seven and nine-point scales were ruled out for the above-mentioned cognitive difficulties that they could have triggered in a Hungarian sampling population. Lastly, the overwhelming majority of studies conducted on host community attitudes towards tourism use five-degree Likert scales and/or Likert-type scales, such as satisfaction scales, importance scales and other anchor scales (Allen, *et al.*, 1988; Haley, *et al.*, 2005; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Ko & Stewart, 2002; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Oviedo-Garcia, *et al.*, 2008; Ritchie & Inkari, 2006; Wang & Pfister, 2008; Yoon, *et al.*, 2001). This is in line with Maddox (1985), who recommended the use of Likert-type scales in tourism impacts research due to its superior properties in terms of convergent and discriminant validity.

The difference between Likert scales and Likert-type scales have been clearly pointed out by Uebersax (2006). Genuine Likert-scales measure attitudes in terms of level of agreement/disagreement to a target statement. In the present study, mostly Likert-type

scales are used to measure the items (satisfaction scales, importance scales and other anchor scales), bearing in mind the observation of Ap & Crompton (1998) that there is a prevailing approach in the literature to measure attitudes of tourism by asking the respondents' level of agreement with a positively or negatively worded statement, which may lead to biased responses, such as for example: 'Tourism creates more employment'.

Andereck, *et al.* (2005) also mention this problem, arguing that neutral statements allow directionality to be established by respondents. As they explain: '...rather than asking a respondent to agree or disagree with a statement, such as tourism development increases the traffic problems of an area, they are asked to indicate whether traffic conditions are worsened or improved as a result of tourism (King *et al.*, 1991; Tosun, 2002; cited in Andereck *et al.*, 2005, p.1064).

Consequently, in the present research the standard agreement (Likert) scales were mostly substituted by a 'Not at all/Very much' scale and another Likert-type scales which leave the judgement to the respondent. Also, these are easier to respond to because it directly reflects on the statement, and measures directionality. For example, instead of phrasing LITD5 as: 'Tourism *is a priority* in our local development strategy/long-term vision of regional development' (Strongly agree/strongly disagree), respondents were asked to indicate whether the role of tourism in their local development strategy/long-term vision of regional development is: Not important at all/very important. This way, respondents are not influenced *a priori* but instead they are exposed to a neutral sentence and allowed to judge 'freely' the level of importance of tourism in their strategy.

Thus, in line with Jurowski (1994), 'in this study, an effort was made to avoid bias commonly associated with agree/disagree statements. In order to appear neutral, the instrument was designed without statements that might suggest a desired response' (p.79).

Furthermore, as opposed to the Likert scale, Likert-type scales allow the respondents to directly answer to a question rather than to agree or disagree with a statement which first has to be mentally 'translated'. For example, in the case of the statement 'The prices of goods and services have increased because of tourism', the option 'Strongly disagree' corresponds to the answer the prices of goods and services have not increased at all, 'Disagree' corresponds to a little increase, 'Neither agree nor disagree' to moderate

increase, and so on. This cognitive processing prior to responding can be spared by using the 'Not at all/Very much' scale. Furthermore, this method rules out one of the important problems associated with Likert scales, namely, acquiescence (Kalton & Schuman, 1982), which refers to the tendency of the respondents to agree rather than disagree with a statement.

The complete list of scales used in the questionnaire is presented in Table 5.15. Considering that perceptions rather than factual knowledge was measured, a 'do not know' option was not included (Andereck, *et al.*, 2005).

5.5.2.2 Questionnaire layout

The questionnaire was designed in 'Google Docs', which is a Google product specialised for creating, storing and sharing documents of various formats online. Google Docs is accessible for clients with a Google e-mail account and provides various services including creating and sharing online spreadsheets.

Throughout the design of the questionnaire, a set of rules and standards suggested in the literature were taken into account (De Vaus, 2002; Sarankatos, 1998; Vieira, 2008). In the case of self-administered questionnaires, the inquirer is not present at the time of data collection, therefore clarity and simplicity should be of primary concern (De Vaus, 2002). Hence, efforts were made to design a simple questionnaire layout that is easy to read and easy to follow (Sarankatos, 1998). A professional appearance reflects expertise and responsibility, and encourages the respondents to complete the form. Thus, an appealing but conservative and simple layout theme was selected in Google Docs.

Table 5.15: Types of scales used in the questionnaire

Type	Measurement
Importance scale	1. Not important at all 2. Slightly important 3. Moderately important 4. Fairly important 5. Very important
Agreement (Likert-scale)	1. Strongly disagree 2. Disagree 3. Neither agree nor disagree 4. Agree 5. Strongly agree
Agreement (Likert-type scale)	1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much
Frequency scale	1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Very often 1. No relationship/Infrequent 2. Rare 3. Moderate 4. Frequent 5. Very frequent
Efficiency scale	1. No relationship/Inefficient 2. Little 3. Moderate 4. Efficient 5. Very efficient
Effectiveness scale	1. No relationship/Ineffective 2. Little 3. Moderate 4. Effective 5. Very effective
Other anchor scales	1. None at all 2. A few 3. More or less 4. Quite a lot 5. A lot 1. Very negative 2. Negative 3. Neither negative nor positive 4. Positive 5. Very positive

In order to avoid placing two conceptually closely related and relatively complex questions next to each other (LITP6 and 7 measuring consensus as part of 'involvement in tourism

planning' - LITP), LITP6 has been exchanged with LITP4. The new order of items is presented in Table 5.16 below.

Table 5.16: The new order of LITP items in the questionnaire

Items	Description
LITP1	The local and/or regional tourism authorities ask us to identify local needs and problems of tourism.
LITP2	We participate in meetings and workshops related to tourism together with the local and/or regional tourism authorities
LITP3	Ideas stemming from our organisation are incorporated in the tourism development strategy of the region.
LITP4 (Formerly LITP6)	To your knowledge, does the regional tourism development strategy reflect your organisation's local development strategy / long-term vision concerning tourism development in the region?
LITP5 (Formerly LITP4)	Our organisation takes part of, or assists projects, programmes or other initiatives together with the local and/or regional tourism authorities.
LITP6 (Formerly LITP 5)	Local and/or regional tourism authorities share and discuss results of tourism development with us and ask for our feedback.
LITP7	To your knowledge, are there any development objectives in the regional tourism development strategy that are in conflict with your organisation's local development strategy / long-term vision concerning tourism development in the region?

Online spreadsheets are generally easier and faster to administer. The respondents do not need effectively to write, but to click on the answer selected or, less frequently, type the answer. Furthermore, no additional efforts, such as mailing are needed to return the questionnaire, just a click on the 'submit' option in the end of the form. These features also motivate the respondents to complete the questionnaire. Questions were kept as short as possible, except in the case of two specific and complex concepts (embeddedness and endogeneity), which needed some additional explanation to ensure that respondents would clearly distinguish them. No negative feedback related to these questions was received during the pilot test of the instrument. All questions were checked for potential bias and ethical adequacy (Sarankatos, 1998). Since the cover e-mail included all the necessary explanation on the research, the introduction section of the questionnaire was kept very succinct in order to minimise the time of completion of the survey.

Online spreadsheets in GoogleDocs can be designed to warn the respondents if question(s) have been missed during completion of the questionnaire. By choosing the

option 'answer is required', the questionnaire can only be submitted if all questions have been responded. This way missing and broken data – a critical issues of statistical data analysis –, can be minimised or, depending on the type of questions, eliminated completely.

The length of the questionnaire can be considered as optimal (29 questions and 7 additional questions on socio-demographic data). For reasons of simplicity, the questionnaire was separated into four broad sections (participation, integration, contribution and support, and socio-demographic data).

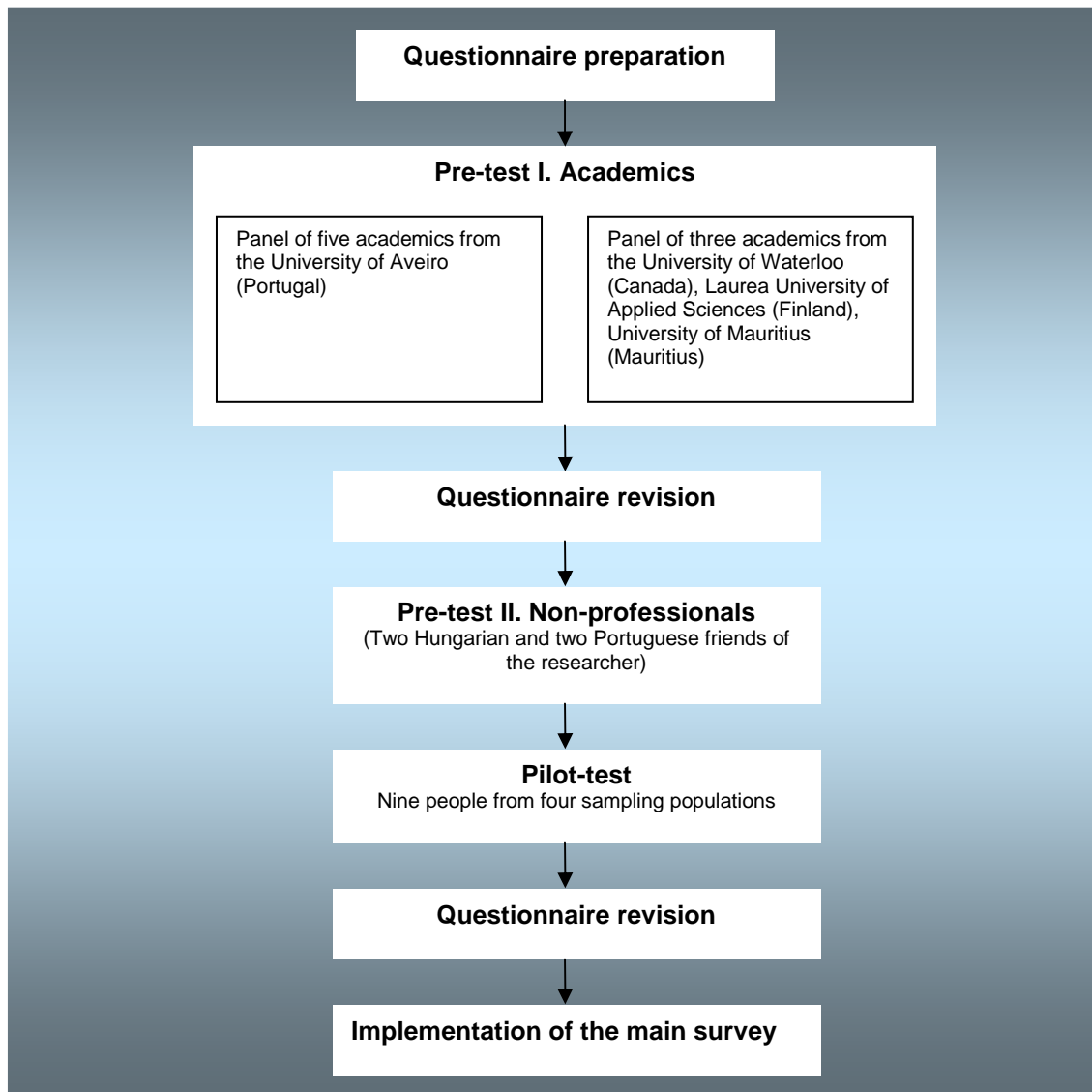
5.5.3 Pre-test

The most common way to reduce procedural and measurement error during the research process is by pre-testing the survey instrument (Newman & McNeil, 1998). The pre-test informs the researcher about how the questionnaire works in 'real life', whether the variables are administered consistently and the questions are clear and comprehensible for other people, in particular the target population. The pre-test allows the identification of problems and issues inherent in the survey tool that can seriously jeopardise the accuracy of the data (Iarossi, 2006). Hence, it is critical for the success of the research, because once the questionnaire has been taken forward to the implementation phase, changes cannot be done any more (Kent, 2001).

In line with the procedural steps suggested by Sarankatos (1998), the pre-test process comprised of various phases, which are presented in Figure 5.8.

The main aim was to test the survey instrument, which had previously been checked for wording, style, content, layout and language by the researcher (Iarossi, 2006) on three different groups of people: academics, non-professionals and the target population. At the first stage, the questionnaire was scrutinised by a panel of five academics from the University of Aveiro (Portugal), and three academics from abroad (Laurea University of Applied Sciences, Finland, University of Waterloo, Canada and University of Mauritius, Mauritius).

Figure 5.8 Questionnaire development and pre-testing process



The pre-test in Portugal was conducted in person, and the experts from abroad received an online pre-test version of the questionnaire, accompanied by a brief description of the research. The three academics were asked to provide feedback by email and were as well encouraged to complete the questionnaire if their time permitted. The method used by Ap & Crompton (1998) was adopted, primarily because the items had not been tested empirically before. Accordingly, both groups were asked to assess the content validity of the items by degree of representation and to judge and edit the item wording in order to enhance clarity, readability and content validity of the indicators. The latter refers to the extent to which a scale's items reflect the specific domain of content under investigation (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). According to Vieira (2008) based on Green, *et al.* (1988) and

Malhotra (2004), 'many researchers measure content validity on the basis of personal judgements of experts in the field' (p.141).

As a result, several minor and major adjustments were performed related to wording, phrasing and content validity of the items. First of all, multiple questions or expressions included in one question were separated or cut down to avoid biases caused by uncertainty about which part of the question was considered by the respondent when answering (For example, 'activities and profile' in LITD1 was cut down to: 'profile' because activities are part of an organisation's profile). Always the broader category was retained ('profile' in LITD1).

Possible overlapping of items was detected in two cases. LITD1 (profile) aims to measure the importance of tourism in the profile, and LITD5 (future) in the local development strategy prepared by the respondent's organisation. Since the local development strategy (or long-term vision in the case of organisations that do not prepare a strategy) forms part of the organisation's profile, it was decided that these two items be merged and the item 'The role of tourism in our local development strategy/long-term vision of regional development' retained as LITD1 labelled as 'profile', because the organisations' profile can be best described through their strategy.

During this stage, the researcher decided to rephrase some of the positively or negatively worded statements to neutral statements and employed Likert-type scales instead of the uniform agreement/disagreement scales.

In the next step, the questionnaire was tested on a group of four non-professionals (two Portuguese and two Hungarian), more specifically, on a group of friends of the researcher as suggested by Kent (2001). The aim was to assess the language used (whether, for example, jargon was avoided), the comprehensibility and clarity of the questions and the length of the questionnaire based on the opinion of non-experts. Since no further changes were suggested by this group and the length of the questionnaire was found to be convenient, this stage was followed by a pilot testing on the four sampling populations included in the research.

The questionnaire was well received and minor changes were suggested such as the removal of a technical term related to the explanation provided to one of the items and

inclusion of a new question to the end of the questionnaire asking the respondents to voluntarily offer feedback related to the themes of the questionnaire and their answers, given that multiple-choice questions do not allow detailed explanation. Hence, an open-ended question was inserted in the end of the questionnaire asking respondents to provide feedback on the topics of the questionnaire, which, during the analysis, proved to be very useful.

After the last revision and refinement of the questionnaire, the main survey was prepared in four versions, because four networks of organisations were sampled as it will be shown in the next sections. There were minor differences between the four versions (headings, name and type of the organisation mentioned in the questions such as: LAG, office, etc.). The area of intervention of the four networks is also slightly different. While the LEADER network is responsible for the development of the Local Action Group which consists of one to three micro-regions, the area of intervention of the three other networks is the micro-region. Lastly, two of the four networks do not prepare a local development strategy, but nevertheless they generally participate in the planning process of the other two. For the respondents pertaining to these organisations, the questions related to the development strategy were substituted by the 'long-term vision of regional development'.

The main survey, in particular the version prepared for the LEADER LAGs, is available online in English at the following website:

<https://docs.google.com/spreadsheet/viewform?formkey=dHBnVFdLcXFFb3VLc0tjZ21YNWpsWGc6MA#gid=0>, and in Hungarian at:

<https://docs.google.com/spreadsheet/viewform?formkey=dF9Rd09RUVdTYmxGUEpnS2Y0cVlacVE6MA#gid=0>, and both versions are also available in paper format in Appendix 2 and Appendix 3, respectively.

Following the presentation of the survey development process, in the next section the data collection strategy will be discussed. After defining the research population, the sampling frame will be established and the sampling process described. The chapter closes with the characteristics of the final sample obtained and a discussion on the representativeness of the sample.

5.5.4 Data collection procedure and strategies

5.5.4.1 Research population

The research population is the overall set of respondents that are at the focus of the researcher's attention, and to which the researcher would like to generalise to (Kent, 2001). Given that qualitative techniques are most suitable for the investigation of a small number of subjects only, the qualitative component of the research focused exclusively on the principal actors and key-informants of rural governance, the LEADER LAGs. On the other hand, the main advantage of a quantitative approach is, that 'it can measure the reactions of a great number of people to a limited set of questions, which facilitates comparison and statistical aggregation of the data' (Haley, Snaith & Miller, 2005, based on Bell, 1992; Preece, 1994; Robson, 1993 and Veal, 1993; p.652).

Hence, quantitative techniques allow for the investigation of the wider policy environment of rural governance in this research component. Accordingly, in addition to the LEADER LAGs, it includes all three national networks responsible for micro-regional development in Hungary as presented in Figure 5. 9. Thus, the study site of the quantitative component is also Hungary, just as it is of the qualitative component due to the researcher's in-depth knowledge of, and familiarity with, her country of origin. Furthermore, the organisational structure of territorial development comprising four networks of micro-regional development provided a well-accessible large sampling population.

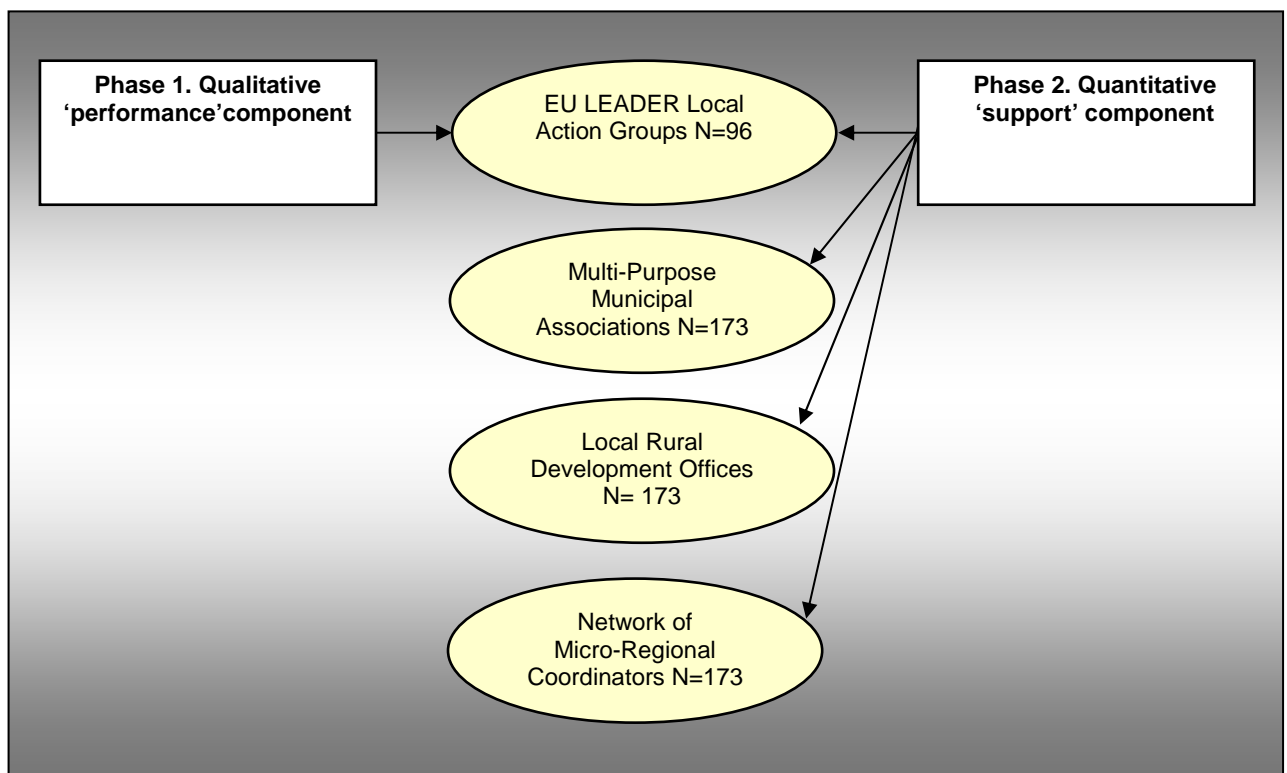
As it can be seen in Figure 5. 9, the first population, the LEADER network consists of 96 LAGs; the second, the Multi-Purpose Municipal Associations (Többcélú Kistérségi Társulások), the third, the Local Rural Development Offices (Új Magyarország Pontok) and the third, the Network of Micro-Regional Coordinators (Helyi Vidékfejlesztési Irodák), each comprises 173 local offices across the country.

5.5.4.2 Sampling units

Some of the confusions related to sampling arise from the lack of distinction made between the units of sampling and the entity they belong to or represent. Sampling units 'correspond with cases where individuals are being sampled in order to address

questionnaires to them' (Kent, 2001, p.139). The researcher may be interested in the individuals themselves, the entity they represent or belong to, or both. While the population consists ultimately of individual respondents, what the researcher actually samples may not be directly those individuals, but households, organisations, companies, geographical areas or some other kind of unit (Kent, 2001).

Figure 5.9: Research population of the qualitative and the quantitative component: Actors of micro-regional development in Hungary



The sampling population of this research comprises of local policymakers responsible for micro-regional development, but the local organisations they belong to and represent, are being sampled. These local units are coordinated centrally by governmental bodies. In order to present the sampling population, the profile and activities of these networks will be briefly discussed next, followed by a summary of their main characteristics in Table 5.17.

LEADER Local Action Groups (LEADER Helyi Akciócsoportok)

As it was discussed earlier, the LEADER LAGs are local partnerships comprising of actors from the public, private and non-profit spheres, with a restriction of 50% for public representation. The LAGs have formed throughout the rural territories of Europe to elaborate a local rural development plan in accordance with the financial cycles of the European Union, the objectives of the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD) and the principles of the LEADER Programme. The LAGs administer public funds to implement their local development plans. In Hungary, like in most of the Member States, the LAGs are responsible for the implementation of Axis 3 and Axis 4 of the EAFRD through the New Hungary Rural Development Plan, which is the Rural Development Plan of Hungary prepared for the 2007-2013 period pursuant to Art. 15 (1) of Council Regulation (EC) 1698/2005 on support for rural development by the EAFRD. (For more details on the LEADER approach, see: Chapter 2.4) In Hungary the LAGs assume three different types of legal entities: civic associations (which is the most common form), public benefit associations (both are NGOs) and private limited companies (Ltds).

Multi-Purpose Municipal Associations (Többcélú Kistérségi Társulások)

The Multi-Purpose Municipal Associations (MPMAs) integrate the adjacent municipalities pertaining to the statistical micro-regions in Hungary. The statistical micro-regions are equivalent to the LAU1 (Local Administrative Units, former NUTS4) level in the European Statistical System, which is the level above the last standard EU level (LAU2) of the municipalities or settlements. From September 2007 onwards there are 174 micro-regions in Hungary, which are purely statistical-territorial and not administrative divisions (See the territorial system of Hungary in Appendix 4). Each micro-region is covered by one association, but there are only 173 Multi-Purpose Municipal Associations functioning because Budapest, the capital is an autonomous micro-region (Schultz, 2009). The statistical micro-regions are fundamental territorial units for the bottom-up approach of regional development through the cooperation of the municipalities (NSDP, 2005). The main purpose of the MPMAs is to jointly provide civil service in areas of common interest of the pertaining communities, such as territorial and rural development, health care, social services, public education, culture and tourism.

Local Rural Development Offices (Helyi Vidékfejlesztési Irodák)

The network of Local Rural Development Offices (LRDO) consists of 173 local offices, which are also located in the micro-regions and cover the whole territory of the country (except for Budapest). The LRDOs are local information centres representing the rural development policy of the government at the local level. As such, they are responsible for the effective implementation of the New Hungary Rural Development Plan (NHRDP). As decentralised, service-oriented offices, they provide information and consultancy on Axis 3 and Axis 4 of the NHRDP, therefore they work in close cooperation with the LAGs and provide background support for their functioning. The LRDOs contributed to the formation and registration of the LAGs and participated in the preparation of their local development strategies. They also cooperate with the Network of Micro-Regional Coordinators, provide public services for the local communities, generate projects, organise trainings and foster local action².

Network of Micro-Regional Coordinators (Kistérségi Koordinációs Hálózat, Új Magyarország Pontok)

The Network of Micro-Regional Coordinators (NMRC) is responsible for the effective implementation of the New Hungary Development Plan (NHDP), in line with the formal and content requirements of the National Strategic Reference Framework for the use of the Structural and the Cohesion Fund between 2007 and 2013 (NHDP, 2006). The network provides information and consultancy on the Regional Operational Programmes of the NHDP as well as on various Cross-Border Cooperation programmes. The micro-regional coordinators participate in strategic micro-regional planning, generate projects and partnerships and promote social discussion on the implementation of the regional development programmes at the local level³. Similarly to the LRDOs, there are 173 public offices located in the micro-regions throughout the country. In sum, while the area of expertise of the LRDOs is rural development, the NMRCs are specialised in regional development.

² Information was retrieved October 2009 from the official website of the LRDOs, which have ceased operation from 30. 06. 2010

³ Information was retrieved May 2009 from: http://www.nfu.hu/kistersegi_koordinacios_halozat, the official website of the NMRC.

Table 5.17: Characteristics of the four constituting networks of the sampling population

Network	Number and type of local units	Composition		Territorial level of local unit	Coordinative body
		Per unit	Per network		
LEADER Helyi Akciócsoportok (HACS) LEADER Local Action Groups (LAGs)	96 Local Action Groups (civic association, public benefit association, or Ltd.)	The LAG comprises of a staff and a board of varying size. The staff generally includes a staff leader, project managers and administrative assistants (app. 2-5 people), and the board includes key actors from the local public, private and non-profit spheres (app. 5-15 people) with a restriction of 50% for public representation.	App. 455 staff and app. 1031 board members	A LAG generally covers one to three micro regions	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development/Department of Agriculture and Rural Development
Többcélú Kistérségi Társulások Multi-purpose Municipal Associations (MPMA)	173 associations	Diverse composition and size, which vary based on the size and characteristics of the micro-region. Basically, it comprises of a president, a board, various committees, external experts and a staff.	N/D	Micro region	Ministry of Local Government/Department of Municipal Affairs
Helyi Vidékfejlesztési Irodák (HVI) Local Rural Development Offices (LRDO)	173 public offices	Generally one staff member /office	173	Micro region	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development/Department of Agriculture and Rural Development
Kistérségi Koordinációs Hálózat /Új Magyarország Pontok (ÚMP) Network of Micro-Regional Coordinators (NMRC)	173 public offices	1 or 2 staff member(s) /office	273	Micro region	Ministry of National Development and Economy/National Development Agency

5.5.4.3 Sampling frame

Ideally, the research population is identical to the accessible population, that is, the sampling frame. However, most sampling approaches leave out at least a few people from the population that the researcher wants to study, due to accessibility issues (Fawler, 2002). For example, as described by Fawler (2002), household-based surveys omit people who live in group quarters such as dormitories or prisons, and surveys based upon published telephone directories exclude those without a telephone. By definition, the sampling frame is the listing of the accessible population from which the sample is drawn (Trochim, 2006). With other words, it consists a 'set of people that has the chance to be selected' (Fawler, 2002, p.11). The sampling frame for the survey population of the present study comprises the 96 LAGs, 173 MPMA, 173 LRDOs and 173 NMRCs, in sum 615 local units of the four networks.

The starting point towards constituting the sampling frame was to collect the listings of these units. In the case of the LRDOs and the NMCRs, the complete lists of the officers (including the addresses, telephone numbers and e-mail addresses) were available from the official websites of the networks, which were mentioned above and provided in footnotes. Accordingly, all 173 officers of the LRDOs and 244 out of 273 officers of the NMRC were included in the sampling frame. In the latter case, 33 coordinators should be excluded for three reasons. First, 14 coordinators were responsible for the social integration of the gipsy ethnic communities and not for regional development; second, 12 positions were under selection at the time of data collection, and third, 7 coordinators were located in Budapest, which is an urban and not a rural area.

The contact list of the 173 MPMA could be obtained from the website of the Ministry of Local Government⁴. However, the overall number and contacts of the board and staff members were not known, because the information was neither available on the individual websites of the associations, nor in the database of the Hungarian Central Statistical Office (Központi Statisztikai Hivatal). Furthermore, the boards of the MPMA comprise of the mayors of the pertaining settlements, who are usually also members of the boards of the LAGs. Taking into account the possible overlapping and the lack of contact

4

[http://www.bm.hu/web/civil.nsf/tamogatasok/F53FE3F7BAA0F0B6C1257496002C3526/\\$file/kistersegi_tarsulasok_20080603.xls?OpenElement](http://www.bm.hu/web/civil.nsf/tamogatasok/F53FE3F7BAA0F0B6C1257496002C3526/$file/kistersegi_tarsulasok_20080603.xls?OpenElement)

information, the sampling frame included the overall number of offices, i.e. 173 MPMAAs (one staff member/office to be contacted), but not the board members.

The contact list of the LEADER LAGs was also available online, at the website of the New Hungary Rural Development Plan⁵. In this case however, the complete e-mail data base of both the staff and board members could be obtained by Krisztina Bakti, Head of Department of the Agriculture and Rural Development of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, who contributed to distributing the research on behalf of the Managing Authority of the LEADER Programme. Since the overall number of people in the boards and the staffs of the LAGs was again not known, the researcher checked the individual websites of the 96 LAGs one-by-one and contacted those that had not stored the information on the website by telephone or e-mail to be able to constitute the sampling frame. The LAGs usually hire one or two administrative assistants as staff members, who were excluded from the sampling frame because of not being decision-makers. In addition, it is important to note, that the number and composition of the staff changes frequently, and one LAG refused to provide information. Subsequently, only close estimates regarding the number of staff and board members could be obtained (N= app. 450 and N= app.1030, respectively). The board members were excluded due to overlapping with the MPMA boards and lack of direct access, and only the staff members were included in the sampling frame.

In sum, the sampling frame comprised of approximately 1040 people from 615 local units of the four networks.

5.5.4.4 Sampling and the final sample

The sampling frame comprising altogether 1040 accessible respondents is still too large a population to do a complete enumeration (or census), so a portion of the population, that is, a sample is obtained to make inferences about the population (Kent, 2001; Vieira, 2008). However, it is sufficiently limited in number and easily accessible to draw a representative sample by random (probability) sampling. Probability samples 'produce a known and non-zero probability that any particular unit from the sampling frame will be included in the sample' (Kent, 2001, p.141), thus the sampling error can statistically be

⁵ <http://www.umvp.eu/?q=leader-helyi-akciocsoportok>

evaluated. Simple random sampling could be used because the online data collection method allowed that all units be contacted, providing a known zero probability of inclusion. Data collection started in the end of June 2009 and lasted till the end of October 2009, during four months. All people from the 615 local organisations included in the sampling frame were contacted by e-mail. In this e-mail the main objectives of the research were described and the researcher's name, affiliations, the supervisor's name and contacts were provided. Furthermore, the name and affiliations of a Hungarian reference person, the Head of Tourism Department of Kodolányi University College (Székesfehérvár, Hungary) were also added with her informed consent to give credit to the research by a Hungarian professor. The potential respondents were ensured about anonymity of the research and confidentiality of their responses. They were informed about the advantages of the online questionnaire format (i.e. that it is quick, practical and easy to complete) and the length of time needed to complete the form (about 20 minutes). It was also explained that the questionnaire could be reached by clicking on the link provided and that it could be returned by clicking on the 'submit' icon after finishing at the end of the questionnaire. It was also highlighted that the questionnaire does not include questions about ethical issues, sensible or private matters, and that the results would be made available for them through the e-mail addresses they had been contacted. Respondents were asked to provide another e-mail address at the end of the questionnaire if they wished to receive the results of the survey to an e-mail address of their choice.

In order to enhance the response rate, the researcher used various strategies. One of these was to create awareness of the survey research already during the qualitative interviews. Another strategy was to contact the responsible coordinative bodies and ask for their support for the research, specifically by forwarding the link of the questionnaire to the local organisations. The Managing Authority of the LEADER LAGs and the LRDOs was first contacted (Department of Agriculture and Rural Development from the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development), because the researcher had been previously provided the personal e-mail address of the Head of the Department by one of the interviewees during the qualitative research. Secondly, the National Development Agency was contacted, which is responsible for the NMRCs. The very high response rate achieved in the case of the LRDOs was a result of the help received from the Managing Authority, because the completion of the questionnaire was included in the monthly report of the LRDO' activities.

Reminders were sent to the respondents every second week in three rounds, which were followed by personal e-mails sent to those local units from which no response had been received as suggested by Fowler (2002). This was a difficult and time-consuming work, because non-respondents had to be filtered and hundreds of e-mails had to be written and forwarded in the last two months of data collection.

The results of data collection are summarised in Table 5.18. Overall, 684 questionnaires were returned, providing an overall 65.7% response rate. Concerning the four networks, the response rate ranging from 48.7% to 98.2% can be considered high, as the typical response rates for mail surveys reported in the literature range between 25-30% (Veal, 2006).

Similar to the LEADER network, the MPMAs are only represented by the staff and the boards had not been included in the sampling frame due to accessibility issues and overlapping, as explained earlier.

Table 5.18: The sampling frame and response rates from four networks of local development organisations

Network	Abb.	Nr. of local units	The sampling frame (Accessible population)	Number of questionnaires returned	Response rate	Relative frequency
LEADER Local Action Groups LEADER Helyi Akciócsoportok	LEADER LAGs	96	App. 450 (Staff)	219	App. 48.7%	32%
Multi-Purpose Municipal Associations Többcélú Kistérségi Társulások	MPMA	173	173 (Staff)	134	77.4%	19.6%
Local Rural Development Offices Helyi Vidékfejlesztési Irodák	LRDO	173	173	171	98.2%	25%
Network of Micro-Regional Coordinators Kistérségi Koordinációs Hálózat/ Új Magyarország Pontok	NMCR	173	244	160	65.5%	23.4%
All		615	App. 1040	684	65.7% (Avg. 72.5%)	684 (=100%)

5.5.4.6 Representativeness of the sample

After having both the sampling frame and the sample defined, issues related to the representativeness of the sample can be discussed. According to Fowler (2002), a sample can be statistically representative only of the population included in the sampling frame. As far as the relationship of the sampling frame and the research population is concerned, the scope of statistical theory in extrapolating from the former to the latter is limited. The representativeness of the sample can be evaluated by describing how well the sampling frame corresponds to the population and to the extent that it is known, how those omitted were distinctive (Fowler, 2002). Taking into account the structure and the composition of the population, frame and sample of the present study, representativeness should be discussed from the organisations' and the policymakers' point of view.

There are 615 local organisations of the four national networks responsible for micro-regional development in Hungary, which were all included in the sampling frame. Accordingly, the sample can be viewed as being representative and generalisable across the local organisations pertaining to the four networks in Hungary, taking into account also the response rates obtained. However, as far as the policymakers are concerned, generalisability is not equal for all groups. The officers from the LRDO and NMRC could be all included in the sampling frame, given that all personal contacts of the officers were available. The response rates obtained are high (98.2% and 65.5%, respectively). Moreover, the results of the LRDOs (98.2%) can be considered as a 'census' because only two responses were missing from the entire population. Hence, the results are generalisable not only to the organisations, but also to the individual populations of the networks.

However, the LAGs and the MPMA are more complex organisations comprising of a board and a staff, and the exact number of people included was not known. The boards of both networks were omitted from the research due to the lack of accessibility and overlapping. Accordingly, only the staff was sampled (one staff member/in the case of the MPMA and the overall staff in the case of the LAGs). However, even the lowest response rates obtained from the sample of the LEADER LAGs is relatively high (App. 48.7%).

Therefore, the overall sample can be considered as representative of the local development networks in Hungary, but not representative to rural policymakers since

board members were not included in the research. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the local development managers who constitute the final sample are key-informants, whose perspective reflects the vision of the organisation they represent, including that of the board members. Generalisability of the sample is revisited in light of the results of data analysis in Chapter 8.5.2.

5.6 Conclusions

This chapter provided an overall view of the research methodology. It has been presented that this thesis addresses a two-fold literature gap, which calls for a methodological division. The study is therefore a mixed-methods research comprising a qualitative and quantitative component, which are organised in a sequential exploratory design. Although the qualitative component informs the quantitative component, priority is not given to any of the components because both are equally important, and complete in themselves, as independent studies.

The methodology is divided into four main sections. The first considers the overall research design and presents general methodological aspects – including the research questions, objectives and hypotheses – and the research structure. The second focuses on the qualitative methodology, the third on the development of variables and the last one on the quantitative methodology. These sections guide through the research process from the definition and characterisation of the research population through sampling till the data collection process and the presentation of the final sample. The qualitative methodology includes the method of data analysis, whereas the quantitative data analysis will be explained during the discussion of results. This is a plausible solution for quantitative studies, as the analytical steps are taken during the analysis based on the emerging results. In line with the evolution of the research, the findings of the qualitative component will be first presented in the next chapter, which will be followed by the findings of the quantitative component in Chapter 7.

Chapter 6

Data Analysis I. Qualitative 'Performance' Component

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter the patterns of integration, participation and empowerment identified in the narratives of programme managers of the Hungarian LEADER Local Action Groups (LAGs) will be presented. In particular, a snapshot of views is provided on three milestones of the implementation of the LEADER Programme in Hungary: first, the planning process of the LAGs for the 2007-2013 financial period of the European Union (EU), second, the establishment of the LAGs and third, the tendering procedure of Axis 3 of the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD), dedicated to 'the quality of life in rural areas and diversification of the rural economy'. As indicated in the research objectives of the qualitative component, in addition to identifying patterns, this analysis further aims to determine factors influencing the organisational performance of the LAGs. The preliminary results of this research have been published in Panyik & Costa (2010).

6.2 Audit trail

Having the method and process of data analysis discussed in Chapter 5.3, the audit trail provides a detailed and transparent documentation of the evolution of the research in the context of actual data. Not only this process enhances the dependability of the research, but it also highlights the specific issues that emerged and the decisions taken throughout the analysis.

It was presented in Chapter 5.3.7 that Framework Analysis has been carried out by using CAQDAS (Atlas.ti 5.5), which allows a faster and more reliable documentation of codes, quotations and memos, particularly when there is a relatively large number of interviews to be analysed. After the first stage (familiarisation with the data), the thematic framework was designed based on *a priori* themes identified in the conceptual framework and the emerging themes of the data (See: Figure 5.5 in Chapter 5.3.1). This initial construct was

entered to the network editor of Atlas.ti, and it was constantly modified as the structure of the data unfolded during the subsequent stages of analysis.

The indexing (or coding) was a systematic process of within-case analysis, in which chunks of data were labelled by a code which reflected and represented the content of the data. In Atlas.ti, open-coding was used to identify new codes, in-vivo coding to name a code directly from the text and code-by-list coding to assign already existing codes to a new segment of the text or key word. The process was carried out in a case-by-case sequential order.

The charting process, in which the fragments of data produced by indexing are reorganised under the headings and subheadings of the framework, was undertaken by a systematic cross-case analysis. Atlas.ti organises the primary documents (PDs), codes, quotations and memos under a drop-down menu. A case chart can be produced by the drop-down menu of codes, in which the quotations pertaining to each code can be displayed (See print screen in Appendix 1). With other words, the drop-down menu of codes represented the headings of the case chart. Thus, each code could be analysed separately by displaying the pertaining quotations to identify recurrent themes. This allows for a more efficient and time-saving alternative to the manual preparation of a case chart. The quotations pertaining to each code were systematically analysed various times until all relevant information describing the pattern have been saturated and could be coherently organised in the final report.

After all PDs had been analysed and the coding process concluded, the list of codes was rechecked again both for wording and for the number of quotations assigned to each of the codes. At first, codes with less than 5, and codes with more than 30 quotations were examined. It was suspected that such rare codes with less than 5 quotations were too specific and not representative, while too frequent ones with more than 30 quotations were likely to be too general. Thus, the codes with less than 5 quotations were re-examined and as a result of this process they could be merged with other related codes without compromising the consistency of the codes. Three codes with more than 40 quotations were detected (“horizontal relationships”, “project appraisal procedure” and “formation of the LAGs”). By re-examining the texts it was decided that the former be eliminated and some of its quotations be reassigned under related codes (such as for example: “members’ relations” and “hostile brothers scenario”) whilst of the remaining

quotations four new codes were created: (“intermediaries: grant writing specialists”, “decision-making committee”, “lack of contact between LAG and applicant” and “central communication of the LEADER fund”) which were later analysed as part of a code family entitled “organisational relationships” focusing on horizontal relations. The only exception was the code “decision-making committee”, which provided information on the distinct role of the decision-making committees in the appraisal process, therefore it was included in the analysis of empowerment. In order for the new codes to be well-grounded, i.e. to avoid that some quotations be missed, various rounds of key-word search were performed in the PDs. For example, the code “decision-making committee” was checked also for the key words: ‘decision’ and ‘presidency’.

The dominant pattern structure of the data is presented in Table 6.1, which lists all codes that have been found representative in narratives of at least three quarters of the respondents – that is, comprising at least one quotation in 29 cases. These codes that are presented in Table 6.1, describe major processes and patterns in the data. For example, although the code ‘planning process’ further comprised of ‘sub-codes’ as it can be seen in the partial network view of participation in Figure 6.7 in Section 6.4.1, it was important to maintain the integrity of this code and provide a comprehensive view on the planning process. The final list of codes comprised of 77 items, which are presented in Appendix 5.

Next, code families were created, which conceptually clustered related codes in a hierarchical order. The first, second and third-ordered concepts of the theoretical framework, which provided the structural foundation for theory building, were used to group the code families. A multi-level structure of data ranging from the codes to the main concepts was constructed in the network editor of Atlas.ti. Thus, the fifth or mapping stage included the identification of key characteristics of the data and the mapping of relationships between the main themes.

Thus, it can be seen that in Atlas.ti, data is represented in a network structure. In particular, a network is defined according to the formal definition of graph theory as a set of nodes (or ‘vertices’) and links (SSDS, 2008). In network theory, nodes or actors label elements represented in the network, which can be individuals, organisations and events, and links are liaison(s) established among actors within a network (Costa, 1996; based on Knoke, 1990). Translating this to the context of data, nodes can be codes, memos, quotations, PDs, families and network views. A node in a network may be linked to an

arbitrary number of other nodes. The number of links for any one node is called its degree; e.g., a node with a degree of zero is not linked at all. Another simple formal property of a network is its order: the number of its nodes.

Table 6.1: The dominant pattern structure of data

Presentation of the dominant pattern structure of data by codes representative in narratives of three quarters of the respondents	
Codes describing a major process	Codes describing a major pattern
Formation of LAGs	Formation promoters
Planning process	Bureaucratic administration
Tendering process	Abuse of power
Project appraisal process	Disappointment
Stimulation of entrepreneurial activity	Unstable regulations and instructions
Diversification of the LAG's activities	Integrated projects
Directions of tourism development	Problems hindering integration
	Large-scale projects
	Vertical relationships
	Project's fit with the LDS
	Lack of advanced payments on running costs
	Inconsistency of selection criteria and local needs
	Inconsistency of LDS and the calls for tender
	Understanding of local realities

The construction of the network was a continuous process, shaped by the findings of coding. Thus, the subsets of the network were modified various times until reaching the most appropriate configuration, in which there were no unlinked codes and missed or misplaced links, and the codes were integrated into those higher-order constructs where they theoretically and empirically belonged to. The resulting network structure is displayed through partial network views of integration, participation and empowerment in the presentation of findings.

6.3 Integration

6.3.1 Patterns of stakeholder integration in the organisational structure of the LAGs

It could be seen earlier in Chapter 2.4.3 that the LEADER Programme has become a mainstream instrument of the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD) and as such, it is now integrated in the national rural development programmes of all Member States, including the 'New Hungary' Rural Development Programme (NHRDP) of Hungary.

The NHRDP, just like the rural development programmes of other Member States, replicate the four-fold structure of the EAFRD. In most Member States, including Hungary, the LEADER LAGs are responsible for the administration of funds allocated under the measures of Axis 3 and, evidently, Axis 4. These measures, as it was shown in Figure 2.6 presenting the structure of EAFRD, cover a wide variety of areas ranging from the diversification of the rural economy, the improvement of the quality of life, training and capacity building and inter-territorial and trans-national cooperation. The present research examines the tendering process of the first four measures announced in the current LEADER period: (1) micro-enterprise development, (2) encouragement of tourism activities, (3) village renewal and development and (4) conservation and upgrading of rural heritage of Axis 3.

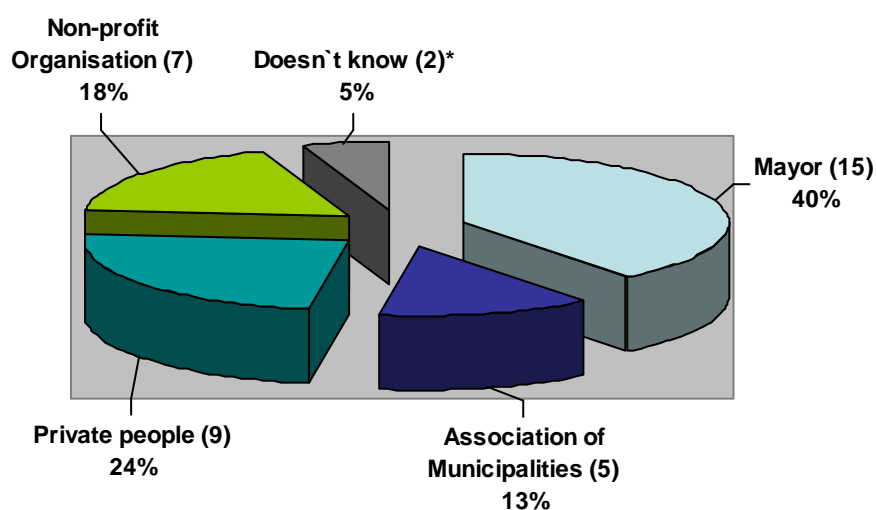
As now being a mainstream instrument, it is not surprising that the new financial period has brought along significant changes in the LEADER Programme, most importantly by the restructuring of the organisational system of the LAGs. The strategic objective of the 'New Hungary' Rural Development Plan was two-fold: first, that the LAGs shall be expanded both in terms of the areas of intervention and population in accordance with the European average, and second, that the LAGs shall cover at least half of the rural areas in the country. By the end of 2007, 96 local community groups had registered, which were all approved by the Managing Authority as 'Local Action Group' in September 2008 following a four-month-long planning period. These LAGs incorporate all Hungarian settlements that are eligible for the LEADER criteria (3020 towns and villages), and cover 100% of the Hungarian countryside. Comparatively, during LEADER+, 70 LAGs (incorporating 960 settlements) were eligible for EUR 26.8 million for a two-year-long

period, while in the current financial period, 96 LAGs will distribute almost EUR 500 million at the local levels (Bruder, 2009).

The code structure of the 'integration' component is presented in Figure. 6.2, including the second-order concepts stakeholder and sectoral integration as code families. The figure shows that in the domain of the former, the establishment of the LAGs was examined through the emerging organisational structure, relationships and dynamics, of which the organisational structure will be considered first.

The formation of the LAGs by initiators can be seen in Figure 6.2. These results were based on 38 interviews made in 33 LAGs, that is, 34% of the overall number of LAGs in Hungary. The majority of the LAGs had formed by the initiative of the local government (n=20), typically either by a local announcement made by the mayor of one aspirant settlements or by the cooperative action of mayors of adjacent settlements. Interestingly however, a considerable number of LAGs had been formed by the initiative of the voluntary sector (n=7), in particular local development and community associations characterised by a long past and widespread reputation in the area such as cultural heritage and nature park organisations. Interviewees emphasised the pivotal role of centrally embedded local private actors as promoters in the formation process (n=9), who mobilised their local network to recruit members from the local private, public and non-profit spheres. These cases resulted in the opposite scenario: it was the local actors who approached and eventually involved the mayors, who in turn provided them with local contacts of potential private and non-profit partners from their settlements.

Figure 6.1: Formation of the LAGs by promoters (N=33 LAGs)



* The respondent was not working for the LAG at the time of the formation of the LAGs

Source: Author

Nearly third part of programme managers included in the sample (n = 11) reported on the influence of political power relations on the formation process, which manifested in two ways. First, attempts were made by mayors from the actual governing party to reach majority in the decision-making body of the LAG or even to create a politically homogeneous formation by excluding other political segments or actors outside their interest groups. When asked about the strategies to tackle these attempts, respondents pointed out that certain mayors of pertaining settlements, independently from their political commitments, could not be sidestepped due to the territorial continuity within the LAG (Regulation 93/2007, MARD), nor could be the participants of the former LEADER phase neglected. Thus, these actors served, with varying success, as a buffer against political pressures. Second, the formation was also politically-driven in cases in which multiple overlapping formations had been established, initiated simultaneously by representatives of different political parties. These formations mirrored the national-level political relations, and comprised of associations, business people and municipality representatives from the interest groups of the two major opposite political forces. These situations could be resolved either by a wide-ranging consensual approach to include all relevant political actors and merge the formations, or by external intervention of the Managing Authority.

In addition to spatial coherence, relational advantages arising from geographical proximity have been identified as being a prime factor in the formation of the LAGs. These relationships in general are, as emphasised by the respondents, rather locally embedded than politically determined. In areas with previous pilot LEADER or LEADER+ experience, the LAGs were more routinely established based on already existing municipal relationships. These LAGs sought to maintain the continuity between the phases by transferring development priorities, complementing LEADER+ projects with new development modules, organising meetings with old and new LAG members and involving the LEADER+ staff in the formulation of local development strategies in order to preserve the integrity of development trajectories in the area.

Settlements with no such experiences joined the LAG with the aim to counterbalance their economic deficiencies by capitalising on the relational advantages of cooperation. For example, if there had been tourism cooperation between municipalities prior to the current LEADER Programme, the newcomer settlements joined the LAG to share the benefits of the grant generated by the major tourism destination of the group. In other cases, the

newcomers were linked through entrepreneurial relations to associations from settlements of the forming LAG.

The failure to form a LAG during the previous LEADER+ tendering process, however, in some cases contributed to the reinforcement of micro-regional cohesion and triggered integration. As mentioned earlier, the LAGs covered approximately 1/3 part of the country's territory during the LEADER+ period, whereas the new LAGs extend over the entire Hungarian countryside. Several managers reported that adjacent micro-regions that had applied separately in the last programming phase and were not granted the status of a LAG applied jointly in the present tendering period or joined another, formerly successful and experienced LAG and were this time successfully approved.

The size and structure of the new LAGs reflected the geographical disparities of the country's settlement structure. In the Western regions, the LAGs are relatively smaller in terms of territory, but typically comprise a larger number of settlements than the Eastern counterparts. This is because while the former regions are characterised by a geographically fragmented structure of small, nucleated settlements, the latter regions are loosely structured with big, dispersed settlements. Respondents reported on a direct relationship between the complexity of the administrative procedures of the LAGs and the number of settlements involved.

In Hungary, public representation in the LAGs is reduced from 50 to 40 percent in order to ensure wider participation of private and non-profit entities, which therefore must make up to at least 60 percent, and commensurability should be maintained in the decision-making body as well (Regulation 93/2007, MARD). The programme managers had to register a public, a private and a non-profit entity from each settlement pertaining to the LAG due to the requirement for multi-sectoral representation. The population base of the LAG was defined between 10000-100000 inhabitants, therefore LAGs from the Western regions had to register larger number of settlements to reach the minimum required population as compared to the Eastern countryside, where usually a few big settlements and proportionally lower number of members were sufficient to establish the LAG.

Respondents from Western Transdanubia pointed out that mobilising the private and non-profit sector in peripheral micro-settlements with only 50-100 inhabitants, where the number and variety of businesses and non-profit organisations are very low, had been

very demanding. In particular, difficulties were linked to there finding relevant non-profit associations and businesses that suited the LAG's profile and were willing to join the LAG, concerning that, as one respondent put it, these villages usually have only one non-profit association: the local sports club. Furthermore, the general assembly of the LAGs in these regions surpassed hundred members, which was also found by various managers to be difficult to convene more than once a year during the preparation of the local development strategy. Lastly, it was argued that the larger the number of settlements involved, the more complicated the distribution of financial support is. The smaller share of already minor funds more likely generate frictions among key actors, which may lead to precipitated decisions related to the allocation of those funds and inhibit strategic financial planning at a more general level.

Thus, the size of the organisations in terms of both population and membership resulting from disparities in geographical qualities impact upon organisational efficiency, suggesting that settlement structure should be considered in the establishment criteria.

Directly linked to this point, is the role of the cities in the settlement structure of the LAGs. Although there were voices emphasising the importance of maintaining the small-scale profile of the LAG, the majority of respondents brought up arguments for the advantages of the involvement of micro-regional centres in the LEADER planning and development process. According to the establishment criteria, settlements with a population of less than 10000 inhabitants and population density below 120 inhabitants / km² are allowed to join the LAG (Krolopp, *et al.*, 2005). However, as expressed by one respondent, the exclusion of the area's central settlement results in 'decapitated' LAGs. Being the administrative, infrastructural and community centres of micro-regions, these towns or cities are not only primary markets for the local products, but also assume functions and provide services of key importance to interlink the pertaining settlements. In order to provide better access opportunities for the local people and improve the efficiency of information provision, many LAGs (re)located their offices to the micro-regional capital. In sectoral terms, tourism was referred to as being a development area that requires territorial continuity, not least because the central settlements are often the major tourism destinations of their respective regions. Specifically, the establishment of a tourism information network was one typical example of such projects that incorporates towns or cities not pertaining to the LAG, yet meets the requirements of having an area-wide effect.

6.3.2 Patterns of stakeholder integration in the organisational relationships of the LAGs

There are three types of horizontal relationships that have been unfolded during the interviews: 'within-LAG' relationships, 'applicant-LAG' relationships and inter-network relationships, as presented in Figure 6.2. The vertical relationships are, on the other hand, interpreted as state-local power relationships that determine the level of power dependence, which will be discussed in the context of empowerment.

Although the LAG's office and staff were named as being the principal base of contacts and the primary intermediaries between stakeholders of the LEADER Programme at the local level, the majority of respondents reported on stronger working relationships between members of the LAGs as compared to the relationships between members and actors outside the LAGs. This cooperation manifested in two types of common activities practiced on a regular basis that extended beyond the immediate LEADER-related tasks and responsibilities. First, members of the LAGs adjusted their strategies through consulting about the development priorities and major development needs and second, they participated at each other's events.

However, in terms of LAG-applicant relationships, a failure of communication was identified by the respondents with a particular segment of applicants who did not contact the LAGs during the tendering procedure, leading to submissions of incomplete tender documentations and project proposals that lacked conformity with the local development strategy. Theoretically, the consultative role of the LAGs in this interactive process was restricted to two formal contracts between the applicant and the representative organisation of the LAG. In the first, the LAG is formally authorised by the project holder to receive, handle and appraise their tender documentation, and in the second a project manager is assigned who personally handles the documents. While in reality most applicants consulted the LAG's staff on a regular basis about the tendering criteria, the eligibility of their project proposal and the completion of the application form, there was a well-identifiable share of project holders unanimously referred to by the interviewees who contacted the LAG at the very last stage of the application process only to submit the tender dossier and sign the contracts.

Furthermore, since postal or electronic mailing was an alternative option to personal submission, some of these applicants had had no contact whatsoever with the LAG prior to the application deadline. The inconsistency with the local development strategies arose from the lack of thematic and financial positioning of these project proposals in the wider regional and economic context of both the available funds and other incoming applications, which is one specific task of the LAGs. To provide an example of thematic positioning, there is a case of a tourism project which was, following the advice of the LAG managers, redesigned into a micro-enterprise development project, because the number of proposals and the requested funding under the tourism measure had exceeded the available allocations already before the closing of the call for tenders.

Through financial positioning, on the other hand, the managers advised the applicants to rationalise the requested funding targeted in their applications, considering that the project sizes defined in the local development strategies were considerably smaller than the maximum eligible cost designated by the Managing Authority (through the EU) for the four areas of Axis 3. Hence, in most cases, those projects targeting the maximum eligible cost were recommended for disapproval by the LAGs, by all means possible within the limited confines of decision-making competences allocated to the LAGs, as it will be seen and discussed in more details later.

For this reason, there was particular criticism directed at the role of grant writing specialists as intermediaries between applicants and the LAGs, who were responsible for the delivery of the majority of applications that had been prepared without preliminary consultation with the LAGs, thus lacked the consideration of the local development priorities expressed in the development strategies. Since the goal of grant writing specialists was to guarantee the win of the project with the largest profit possible, insufficient consideration was given to the long-term interests of the applicants.

These projects were typically large-scale investments targeting the maximum eligible cost and often assuming irrational responsibilities that make up extra scores during evaluation of the proposal, but might not be sustainable for the project promoter in the long term, such as creation of a large number of new jobs. Often, as explained by a respondent, 'originally good ideas were degraded and transformed into a standard application format', which contradicts the concept of bottom-up approach.

Opinions coincided at the point that even though the vast majority of these projects proposals targeting the maximum eligible cost should have been recommended for disapproval by the LAGs, the tenders often remained above the threshold limit or even at the top of the list due to the limited licenses of the LAGs to intervene (as it will be discussed later), but also because of the high scores accumulated by experienced grant writing specialists.

Subsequently, the negative experiences associated with grant writing specialists were catalysts of 'defensive localism' among respondents, manifesting in frictions between cities and the countryside as discussed in Chapter 4.4, because the majority of these companies came from the capital, Budapest. As one manager complained: 'They have a good marketing and they are aggressive. Unfortunately, people here still believe that those coming from Budapest know the things better'.

The responses concerning the inter-network relationships of the LAGs revealed that out of the multiple national networks responsible directly or indirectly for rural development in Hungary (See in: Chapter 5.5.4.2), the LAGs were most frequently in contact with the network of Local Rural Development Offices (LRDO) (Helyi Vidékfejlesztési Irodák), which shares a common development profile with the LAGs and which is coordinated by the same Managing Authority of the MARD.

With the principal objective to assist the planning process of the LAGs and provide information on the financial sources of the EFRD, there were 173 LRDOs established in 2006 and located in each of the micro-regions of the country. Although cooperation between the LAGs and the LRDOs regarding various tasks was a mandatory element of the monthly working plan of both parties issued by the Managing Authority, results revealed that the nature of cooperation depended largely on the mutual sympathy of the local actors.

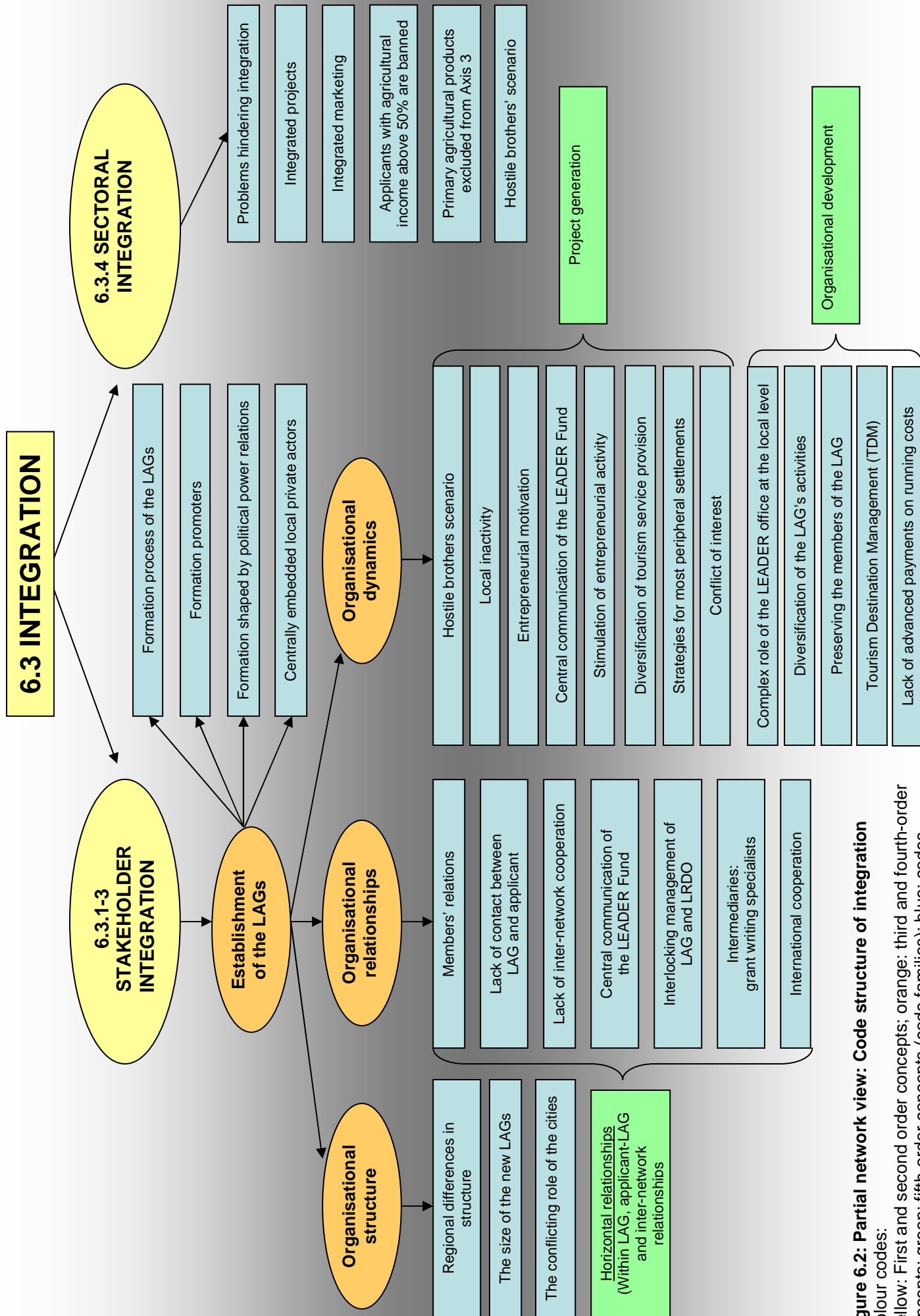


Figure 6.2: Partial network view: Code structure of integration
 Colour codes:
 Yellow: First and second order concepts; orange: third and fourth-order concepts; green: fifth-order concepts (code families); blue: codes

Thus, the level of cooperation varied from a monthly formal administrative visit to sign each other's working plans and tick 'cooperation' in the list of tasks, to integrated management of the LAG and the LRDO, suggesting that behind the signatures proving cooperation towards the coordinative governmental bodies, lay fundamentally different, contrasting realities. According to the majority of opinions, the LRDOs had played a significant role before the establishment of the LAGs, because after the LAGs had formed, most of the functions of the LRDOs were reallocated to the LAGs, which subsequently remained without relevant competences and sufficient tasks.

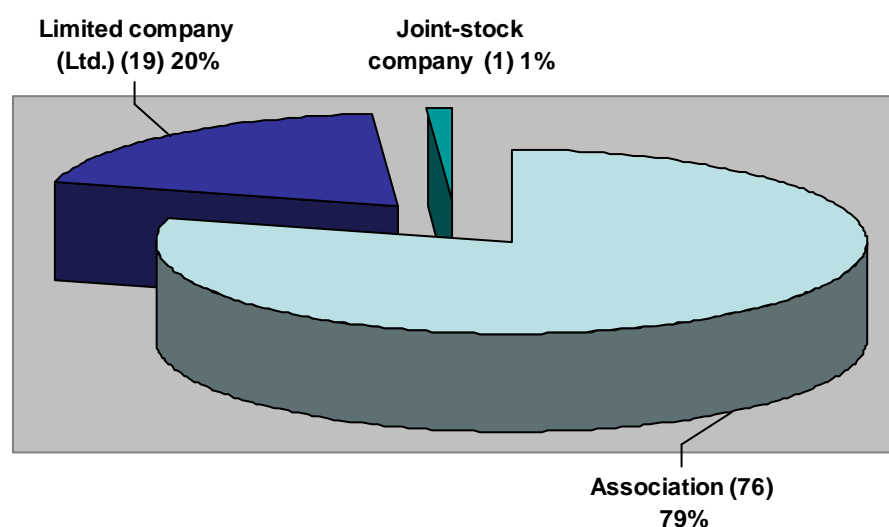
Since the cases of integrated management indicated effective cooperation based on shared responsibilities stemming ultimately from good personal relationships, as an alternative to the co-existing rural development networks with overlapping functions of information provision, the LRDOs could be merged with the LAGs in order to undertake distinct functions related to the marketing and communication of the LAGs.

6.3.3 Patterns of stakeholder integration in the organisational dynamics of the LAGs

Organisational dynamics is interpreted as the ability of the LAGs to change, adapt to change and induce changes for both internal and external development. The term 'internal' refers to the LAG organisation, whereas 'external' denotes the settlements and communities included in the LAGs. As indicated by the network view of the two-fold organisational dynamics subset in Figure 6.2, the patterns of stakeholder integration in organisational dynamics unfolded factors hindering or stimulating the capacity of the LAGs to initiate and implement integrated approaches to organisational development and project generation.

Contrary to the LEADER+ period, in the current LEADER Programme the establishment of a non-profit organisation with legal entity was a mandatory element of the formation of the LAGs. Accordingly, 96 organisations were created, almost 80% of which are associations, 20% are limited companies (Ltd.) and there is also one joint-stock company (Figure 6.3). Of the 76 associations, 17 are of public utility.

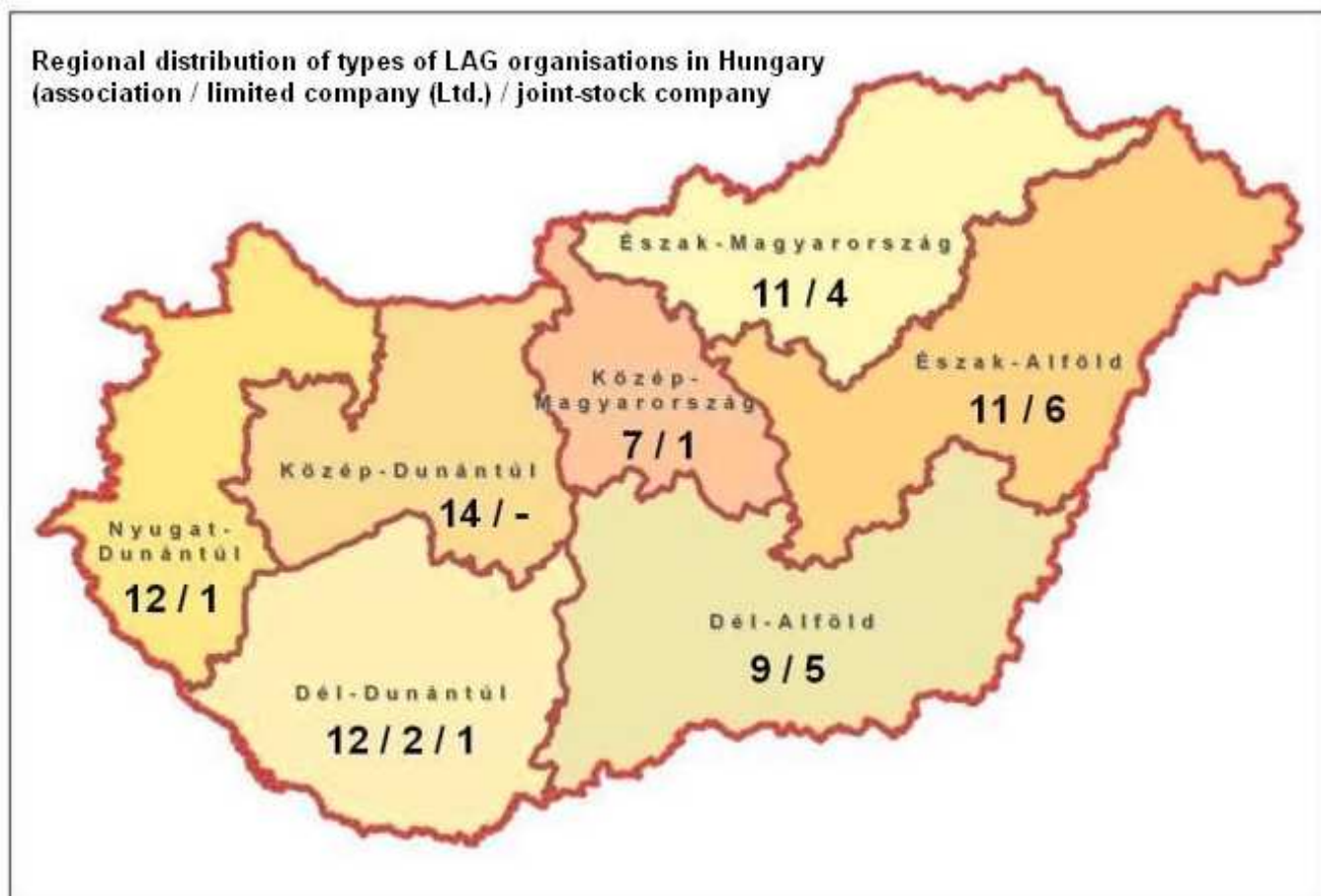
Figure 6.3: The LEADER LAGs in Hungary by type of organisation in the 2007-2013 financial period (N=96)



Source: Author, based on data collected in 2009

When respondents were asked why the majority of LAGs opted for association as organisational form, they pointed out the lack of tradition of, and familiarity with, limited companies in the country and the relative simplicity of the registration process. Basically, while a limited company is a business entity regulated by the Law of Business Associations, associations are voluntary formations defined by the Law of Association. In Hungary, associations can be established by only 10 persons and, contrary to limited companies, without initial capital. Limited companies incorporate shareholders whose liability is limited by shares, thus cancelling membership is also simpler in the case of associations. As it can be seen from Figure 6.4, there is a well-recognisable pattern of regional distribution of limited companies. While associations are evenly spread across regions, the majority of limited companies are clustered in the Eastern countryside, in particular in three adjacent regions (Dél-Alföld, Észak-Alföld and Észak-Magyarország). This suggests that neighbouring LAGs had influenced each others' choice on the type of organisational form. However, the prevalence of associations might suggest that the LAGs had concerns about the financial responsibilities associated with limited companies, which may narrow the variety of future business opportunities.

Figure 6.4: Regional distribution of types of LAG organisations in Hungary in the 2007-2013 financial period



Source: Author, based on data collected in 2009

In general terms, there are three main activities of the LAG organisations. First, the elaboration of local development strategy in conformity with the EAFRD, second, project generation and consultancy and third, stimulation of cooperation between rural actors. Interviews highlighted obstacles to, and managerial practices of, project generation, which are summarised in Figure 6.5.

Local apathy and reluctance, as well as jealousies and the tendency to pursue own self-interests rather than community interests were mentioned as being major obstacles at the community level, which are not unfamiliar phenomena in the literature as we could see both in Chapter 2.3.2 and 4.4 (Murdoch, 2000; Panyik, Costa, Rátz, 2011; Saxena & Ilbery, 2008; Yuksel, Bramwell, & Yuksel, 1999). For example, as a result of local apathy, the LEADER Programme had been suspended in a few cases and the LAGs could only form at the second attempt due to insufficient number of volunteers. In addition, local

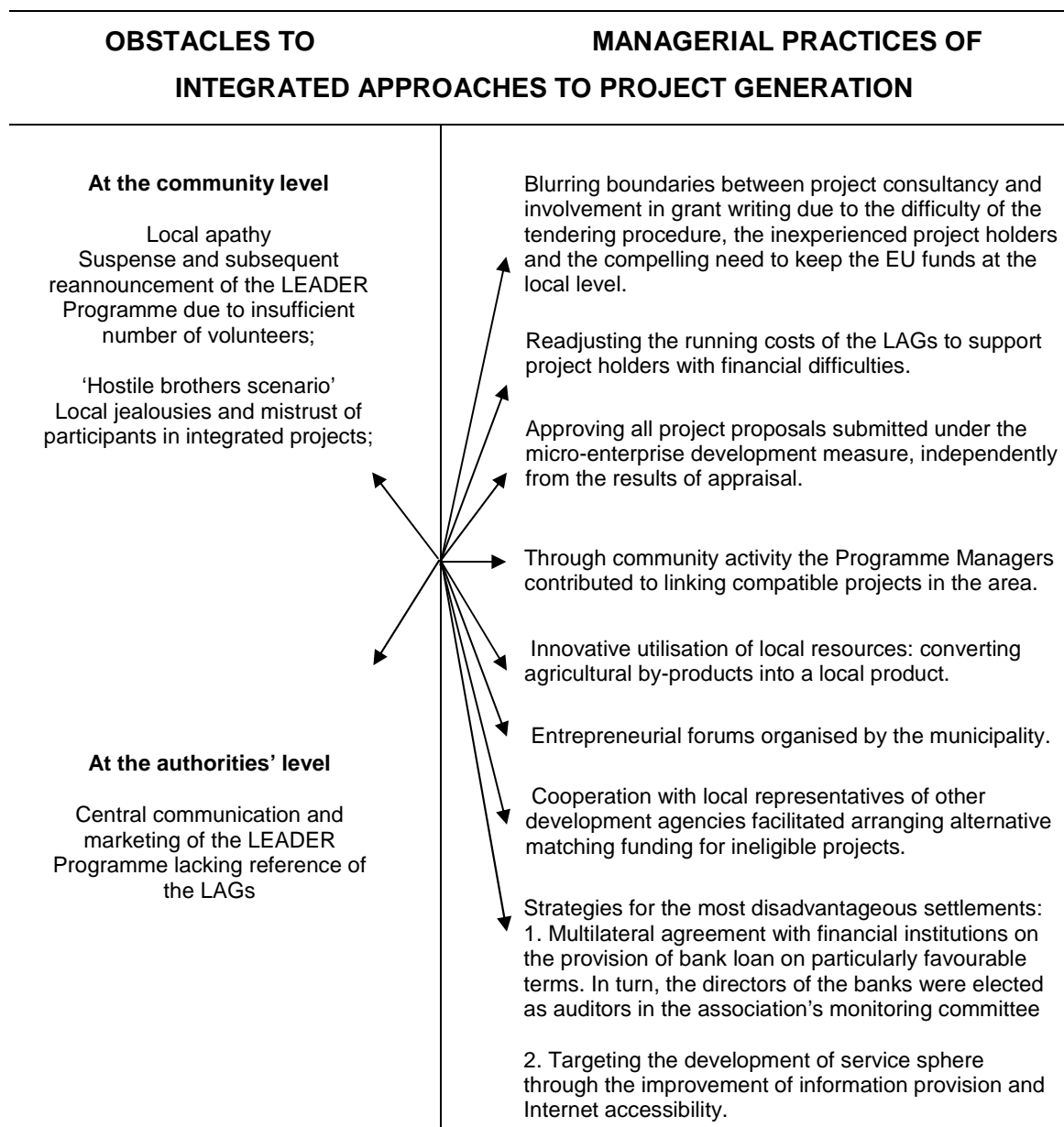
jealousies or the 'hostile brothers scenario' (Saxena & Ilbery, 2008) were also frequently mentioned. Local people were not opened to share their ideas because they were afraid that others might let them down. Thus, they would rather pursue their goals alone than together with someone else possibly easier and faster. For example, in the case of a family business which aimed at the reconstruction of a traditional peasant house to develop organic farming combined with the exhibition of traditional crafts, the latter part of the project could not be accomplished because the local craftsmen refused to join the collective project, despite better marketing and branding opportunities.

Indeed, mistrust often prevented local people from participating in supra-local initiatives, as illustrated by the following quote: 'I tried to involve my LAG in the major tourism-related programme of the region initiated by another LAG, which is a tourism route alongside our river, but they were so reluctant. They did not come with me to the meeting, and when I came back with detailed plans, they said that they could not join the programme because the river was located three kilometres far from their settlements'.

At the level of public institutions, central communication and marketing of the LEADER Programme was found to be a crucial factor for both stakeholder and sectoral integration, due to its impact on the LAGs' organisational relationships. 'Central communication of the LEADER Fund' is a three-degree code in the network structure, because it is included in three code families: first, organisational relationships, second, organisational dynamics through project generation and third, sectoral integration. This is because the principal role of the grant's central communication is to direct potential project holders to the LAGs, thus to help the LAG managers in generating projects, creating links between applicants and matching funding. Inadequate central communication makes the orientation of the applicants more difficult, thus narrows the range of opportunities for project generation.

A common complaint was that the marketing campaign had failed to include the LAGs in the commercial spots broadcasted on the major media channels. In particular, the LAGs were not mentioned, but instead the high eligible cost of co-financing provided by the Ministry was emphasised. Since there was no reference of the LAGs, the national-level media campaign appeared to be a political campaign popularising the government's development activity rather than the promotion of the LAGs.

Figure 6.5: Factors influencing the capacity of the LAGs to initiate and implement integrated approaches to project generation



The programme managers developed various managerial practices to stimulate entrepreneurial activity. Most importantly, the narratives revealed that there is a fine line between project consultancy and involvement in grant writing at the community level of LAGs. As explained by one respondent: 'The role of the LAG managers is rather controversial. On one hand we have to generate projects, on the other, we have to appraise them. We have to help the applicants, but we also have to disengage to be able to make a fair decision.' Although the LAGs' staff were not allowed to take part in the

elaboration of proposals, project consultancy involved explaining how the application form should be completed, the questions interpreted and the arguments presented, through which the managers unavoidably took part in the development of tenders. For example, some project holders consulted the LAG's staff on a daily basis, so these applications were closely monitored by the programme managers.

Considering that the goal of the managers was to keep most of the aid provided by the EU within the LAGs, and also that the tendering procedure was highly complicated from the completion of the application form to the acquisition of a large number appendices (as it will be shown later), the inexperienced local people needed substantial help to be able to generate potentially successful projects. This was particularly true during the previous LEADER phase, when the programme was still in its infancy. In some cases, this has led to the conflict of interest and blurring boundaries between the functions of project consultancy and grant writing.

However, various respondents felt that what was considered a conflict of interest by the regulation was actually not that in reality. One respondent argued that without the involvement of the staff and help provided either for the municipalities or private applicants, there could have been no projects undertaken in their area. For example, for the renovation of facades of old village houses under the village renewal measure, the programme managers hired local entrepreneurs to make the invoice and do the final accounts instead of the old private owners. In other cases during LEADER+, the running costs of the LAG were readjusted in order to advance some project holders who had applied with excellent proposals, but who could not raise the necessary capital required by the post-payment system due to financial difficulties. This advanced payment was reimbursed to the LAG through the grant after the approval of the project.

Another strategy to encourage local business activity used by one respondent's LAG was to approve all project proposals submitted under the micro-enterprise development measure, independently from the results of appraisal. That is to say, even projects with the lowest scores were recommended for support. Another respondent noted that if there had been more tenders submitted for micro-enterprise development than the available resources, they would have done everything possible to redirect funds from the other three measures. This highlights the importance the LAG managers ascribed to enterprise development among the measures of Axis 3.

The programme managers also assumed community development tasks, which contributed to the diversification of projects. The following case provides a good example of how a business plan can be extended by educational and cultural services through the LEADER fund to diversify the economic base of rural operators:

“I was talking with a local school teacher who is considering living out of his current part-time job - modern medal engraving -, after his retirement. He prepares plaquettes and bas-reliefs in particular, and is planning to convert a part of his home to a small handicrafts workshop that could function as his workplace. However, he had concerns about how he would be able to live out of it. Throughout the conversation it turned out that the bas-reliefs he prepares are suitable also for outside coverings of buildings and for ceramic tiles of masonry stoves. Hence I suggested him that in addition to the workshop, he could open an exhibition room in which his art pieces could be displayed, as well as an educational establishment in which modern medal engraving could be taught. Furthermore, I proposed that in order to gain orders not only for plaquettes and medals but also for large-scale projects such as coverings of buildings, he should compile a reference catalogue in which his unique skills and techniques are presented and spread it among municipalities and mayors together with a small show-piece, such as a paperweight, decorated with his own artwork.”

In another case, the tourism strategy of a LAG that lacked sufficient natural and cultural endowments was to develop active tourism through constructed tourist attractions. The rationale for tourism development was the strategically favourable geographical location of the LAG in Central Hungary on the crossroads of tourist flows between popular tourism destinations, one of them being Budapest, the capital. The main objective was to profit from the high level of transit tourism by extending the length of stay of visitors. There were three projects planned to be undertaken in the area of active tourism, two of which applied for support from the tourism development measure of Axis 3. The first was the construction of two large indoor riding arenas to host international competitions of which there had been none in the region. The second was the revitalisation of a lake by refilling the empty lakebed and developing a leisure park around and the third was the establishment of a motorcycle training park for children. The LAG manager introduced the latter project owner to the others in order to help cooperation and possibly even the integration of projects in the long run because they were located close enough to one another to be granted support as components of an integrated project.

Similarly, another respondent described how leverage had been generated for the local community by converting agricultural by-products into a new local product. The grape residue left after the fruit has been pressed during wine-making – which otherwise would be wasted – was collected from vineries and used in local villages to distil a specific type of brandy called marc.

Besides project diversification and innovative utilisation of local resources, entrepreneurial forums organised by municipalities and cooperation with local representatives of other development agencies were mentioned as being successful methods for stimulation of entrepreneurial activity. While the former provide wide publicity for the announcement of actual tendering opportunities, the latter, based on regular information exchange, allows that compatible tendering opportunities be adjusted, thus alternative tendering options be offered to those applicants whose project proposals are not eligible under the areas of the LAGs' responsibility. The realisation of projects may depend on regular communication between local tender consultants, as evidenced by the following excerpt:

“There was a complex project for the construction of a slaughterhouse and a small meat-processing plant. Part of the project proposal, which is not related to meat processing, could be submitted under the enterprise development measure of Axis 3, but processed agricultural products are excluded articles from support from Axis 3. By coincidence, a colleague from the Network of Micro-Regional Coordinators just happened to be there at the time I was discussing the project with the project holder, who could by chance recommend him a suitable tendering opportunity from one of the operational programmes of the New Hungary Development Programme. They put together the application in about three days, and in the end, the project was approved. If we had not been there together at the same time, perhaps it could have not been accomplished.”

In another case, cooperation between the Village Agriculturists' Network (Falugazdász Hálózat), and the LAG was triggered by local demand. Village agriculturists are entrusted with information provision and consultancy on the farm and forestry sector and environmental issues (Axis 1 and 2) by the MARD, so in this regard they assume similar tasks to the LRDOs and the LAGs, except that in different areas. One of the community forums of the LAG was attended mostly by farmers, despite the previous communication of the organisers emphasising that the forum was not intended to deal with agricultural issues. Since the participants expressed their disappointment for their questions had not

been adequately answered, the programme managers decided to hold community forums together with the village agriculturalists. This case suggests that non-agricultural diversification still requires the consideration of agricultural matters, because at the community level these issues are intertwined in the activities of rural residents.

In the most lagging areas, specific strategies were applied. Within the financial allocations defined for each LAG, separate allocations had been reserved for the most peripheral settlements of the LAGs (Regulation 147/2007, MARD). In various regions however, micro-settlements with a population of less than hundred people are not granted a bank loan because of their financial instability and low budget. In the absence of a bank loan, these villages can hardly raise sufficient capital to comply with the post-payment system of most national and EU tenders. For example, a mayor of one of these villages had complained to the LAG manager that her village could not apply for any tender because the municipality was not granted a bank loan. One practice to help these villages engage in tendering activities was the establishment of a multilateral collaboration agreement between local financial institutions and the LAG's association.

According to this agreement, the directors of the interested local savings banks had been elected as auditors in the association's monitoring committee, thereby delegated an important confidential position involving financial audit over the association's activities. The banks, in turn, offered loans on favourable terms such as reduced interest rates and remitted bank guarantees, affordable to all settlements in the LAG. Furthermore, the bank loans covered the total value of the project, including the own fund and the contribution made by EU Funds. The only condition of payment was the resolution on approval issued by the Ministry. The agreement was based upon the cooperation of three rival banks, and at the time the interviews were conducted, other banks, including the biggest commercial bank in Hungary, considered joining as well. The growing interest may trigger an evolving competition among banks, which entails the expansion of the variety of loan options for applicants.

The majors of most disadvantaged settlements were usually involved in the discussions on the allocation of funds and the assignment of priorities, particularly in LAGs with two or more such settlements, because the higher the number of settlements, more compromises should be made. However, peripheral settlements struggle with various constraints that limit their ability to act proactively. It has been argued that more

developed settlements, in which hundreds of businesses operate, generally more actively participate and are more creative in planning. At the same time, it is difficult to stimulate economic activity in villages where there are no workplaces and viable businesses except for the local pub and the grocery store. In these villages, development initiatives targeted the service sector through the improvement of information provision and Internet accessibility.

As presented earlier, the LAGs, being community offices and not authorities, undertake community development tasks which allow the formation of wide-ranging network relationships. These community development functions reach far beyond the mandatory tasks related to project generation and consultancy, and the LAGs much resemble, and in reality function as, a complex development agency at the local level. For instance, one LAG organised a community forum on an unprecedented, allegedly racist series of crimes committed against gypsies, because one of the murders occurred in one of the LAG's villages. The event was initiated by the LAG but organised jointly with the Association of Municipalities. The organisers invited the mayors of villages with large or fastly growing gipsy population, as well as local representatives of the gipsy minority's self-government and gipsy residents. The aim was to initiate conversation about this acute social problem and very sensitive issue by involving and listening to all sides. The success of this initiative lied in the unique ability of the organisations to create a neutral environment and serve as buffers against conflicting views.

Another obstacle unfolded to the expansion of the educational dimension of the LAGs' community development activity was the narrowing of tendering opportunities for training and skills-acquisition from the national to the local levels. Respondents noted that in the regional and rural development plans of national-level programmes there are usually general objectives assigned such as 'training and skill-acquisition'. However, the regulation issued by the respective Ministry on the invitation to tender is so specific that the tendering conditions suit only a few organisations at the higher levels. In particular, computer training courses could not be funded by the LEADER Programme because it was covered by the Social Renewal Operational Programme (Társadalmi Megújulás Operatív Program) of the New Hungary Development Plan.

Yet, it was argued that the majority of projects within this programme are undertaken by education and training companies entrusted by the Public Employment Service through a

public procurement procedure, which organise county or regional-level courses. Indeed, in the area of rural development, the 'education and training' module of the NHRDP was handled by the Rural Development, Training and Consultancy Institute (VKSZI) of the Ministry, which also awards contracts through public procurement procedure usually resulting in contracting companies from Budapest or the regional centres. Thus, while emphasis was placed on the exclusivity of the LEADER Programme in order to avoid overlapping of the funds, the calls for tenders could not reach down to the local level either within the Operational Programmes or the NHRDP, which has led to a dearth of projects for training and education undertaken by local enterprises and NGOs in the countryside.

This issue further raises the question of complementarity of the LAGs' community activity with entrepreneurial activity. Although the LEADER associations and limited companies are non-profit organisations, this does not mean that they cannot have income from their activity. However, if they do, all returns must be reinvested in the organisation. There are two main trends that have been unfolded from the narratives directing the LAGs towards the diversification of activities. The first is a generally observable struggle of programme managers to preserve the LAG's membership. At the time of the establishment of the LAG organisations, the managers were instructed to recruit as many members as possible. This was also in line with the interest of settlements, because the more members they delegated, the more key positions – such as president, vice president and member of presidency – they had expected to be granted.

As a result, many of the LAGs have a certain share of membership not committed to, or particularly interested in, the objectives of the LAGs. Furthermore, and most importantly, there were no particular advantages provided to the membership in return for the subscription fee based on which members could be distinguished from non-members, because project consultancy and information provision are public services available to all. In other words, while the main motivational factor for joining the organisation and paying membership fees was tendering, the tendering conditions applied to all project holders – members and non-members – equally. Subsequently, it was found to be very difficult to motivate and gather at least half of the members for majority decision-making, especially when the main purpose of the meeting was not explicitly related to tendering but, for example, to organisational issues.

The lack of membership benefits resulted in growing number of resignations particularly of private members, which put the observance of the commensurability rule on the ratio of public, private and non-profit members within the organisation into jeopardy. Thus, the LAGs have started to consider taking on complementary activities in the area of service provision, targeting primarily, but not exclusively, their membership. While some municipalities decided to help out the LAGs by taking over the membership fees of private members from their settlement, this has not been a common practice.

One viable solution applied was the participation in the formation of the new destination management organisations (DMOs), and the establishment of the local destination management office as part of the LEADER organisation. The rationale for the involvement of LEADER organisations is their unbiased, all-round consideration of the area, given their responsibility not only for the development of tourism destinations, but also for the less frequented or not tourism-oriented areas. However, since the transition from the former, marketing-centred national tourism structure to a complex, multi-level destination management system lacked inter-ministerial consultation considering the involvement of the LEADER LAGs, many groups missed the open, public tendering period for the establishment of local DMOs, because it roughly coincided with the establishment of the LAG organisations.

The very limited number of LAG organisations that gained rights and thus financial support for the establishment of a DMO could extend their activities to information provision in tourism, preparation of tourism development strategies, event organisation and a variety of other tourism-related activities. Entrepreneurs of the LAG were allowed to deposit their pamphlets and products in the office and consult the managers on tourism projects free of charge, as a way of providing benefits for the membership.

The second reason that prompts local LEADER organisations to undertake complementary business activity is the lack of advanced payment on the running costs of the LAGs, which arises from the post-finance system of EU tendering processes. Since this problem was not foreseen at the time of the establishment of the single legal framework for the EAFRD support for rural development (EC, 2005b, 2006), more recently, EC Regulation No. 482/2009 (EC, 2009) amended this law permitting expressively advances on running costs for LAGs 'from the competent paying agencies if such possibility is included in the rural development programme (Article 38/2)'.

Contrary to other EU members such as Portugal where advance payments are provided through the paying agency on the basis of national law (Panyik, 2010), there has been no state intervention in Hungary with regard to advances on running costs. Thus, the first four to six months of operation in each year are financed by bank loans acquired from a national holding, which offers reduced interest rates on this specific purpose. Nevertheless, the payment of interest charges and other related expenses of bank loans reaching up to 15-16 thousand EUR (on 2010 prices) are non-eligible expenditure by the LEADER Fund, therefore the LAGs are constrained to search for financial sources to cover this deficit.

There are three options for the LAGs, all of which are problematic. First, membership fees can only partly cover the interests; in addition, it was mentioned that these takings should rather be used to provide services for the members, such as events and study trips. Second, sponsorships are usually incidental and not regular, thus not reliable financial sources. Furthermore, entrepreneurial or municipal sponsorship may easily lead to biased decisions in favour of the sponsor or even unethical dominance of the sponsor over decision-making of LAGs. Lastly, entrepreneurial activity can not be undertaken using infrastructure financed by the LEADER Programme, including human capital and tangible assets, not even if the income was used to finance the interests of bank loans taken out to advance running costs. Under these circumstances, business activity would be unproductive leading to an absurd scenario in which the enterprise built up starting from zero and entirely from own resources would operate only to finance interest of bank loans of another organisation (Panyik, 2010). Furthermore, the enterprise could only be able to return profit to the LAG after reaching profitability. However, the time frame and rate of return are by no means certain.

While almost all LAGs took out a bank loan from the national development holding or other local partner banks, only those very few LAGs could avoid entering into depths that had been established on already existing companies or other organisations in conditions to afford granting credits without interests. Subsequently and paradoxically, in order to safeguard independency of the LAG organisations, state intervention is imperative because these organisations finance projects from public funds. The bank loans not only project an adverse scenario in which the LAGs are subject to lobby activity, but also restrain financial liquidity and capacity building of these organisations.

6.3.4 Patterns of sectoral integration in the strategies of cross-sectoral cooperation

Sectoral integration can be established through the development of area-based complex projects comprising multiple related businesses. Actors can be integrated in one single step or in more phases gradually extending integration by complementary activities. The cyclic structure of the LEADER Programme favours the latter method not only because projects carried out in one financial period can be further developed, extended or complemented in the next period, but also because currently, EAFRD is structured in way that the complex, area-based developments of Axis 4 (LEADER) can be built up from the single local projects carried out previously in Axis 3. The code structure of the sectoral integration subset is presented in Figure 6.2.

Virtually all initiatives or future project proposals of the LAGs targeting integration were actions in tourism, in particular in marketing and branding, event organisation, cross-border cooperation and tourism routes. For example, the largest integrated project with Hungarian contribution so far has been the so-called Oxenweg Programme, which was initiated in the previous tendering period (LEADER+). As part of this international project, a tourism route is currently being developed based on the medieval cattle guiding route originating from Hungary, crossing Austria and ending in Germany, with the aim of preserving and exchanging cultural and gastronomic heritage and values alongside the route. In 2007, six Hungarian LAGs located on the route signed a multilateral agreement with Austrian and German partner LAGs on cooperation.

Interviews highlighted that the design and carrying out of integrated projects is dependent upon the assignment of clearly defined, tendering criteria and co-finance ratios during, or preferably prior to the planning process. This is because, in order to be able to combine development objectives, the conditions of financial support should be first determined.

However, the LAGs were only provided general guidelines on the implementation of the LEADER Fund. In principle, LEADER could be used for any type of development except those supported by other EU resources, that is, by the first three axes of the NHRDP and the operational programmes of the NHDP. The major problem was, as the respondents pointed out, that the development objectives that could be financed by LEADER had not been identified yet at the time of the preparation of the LDS.

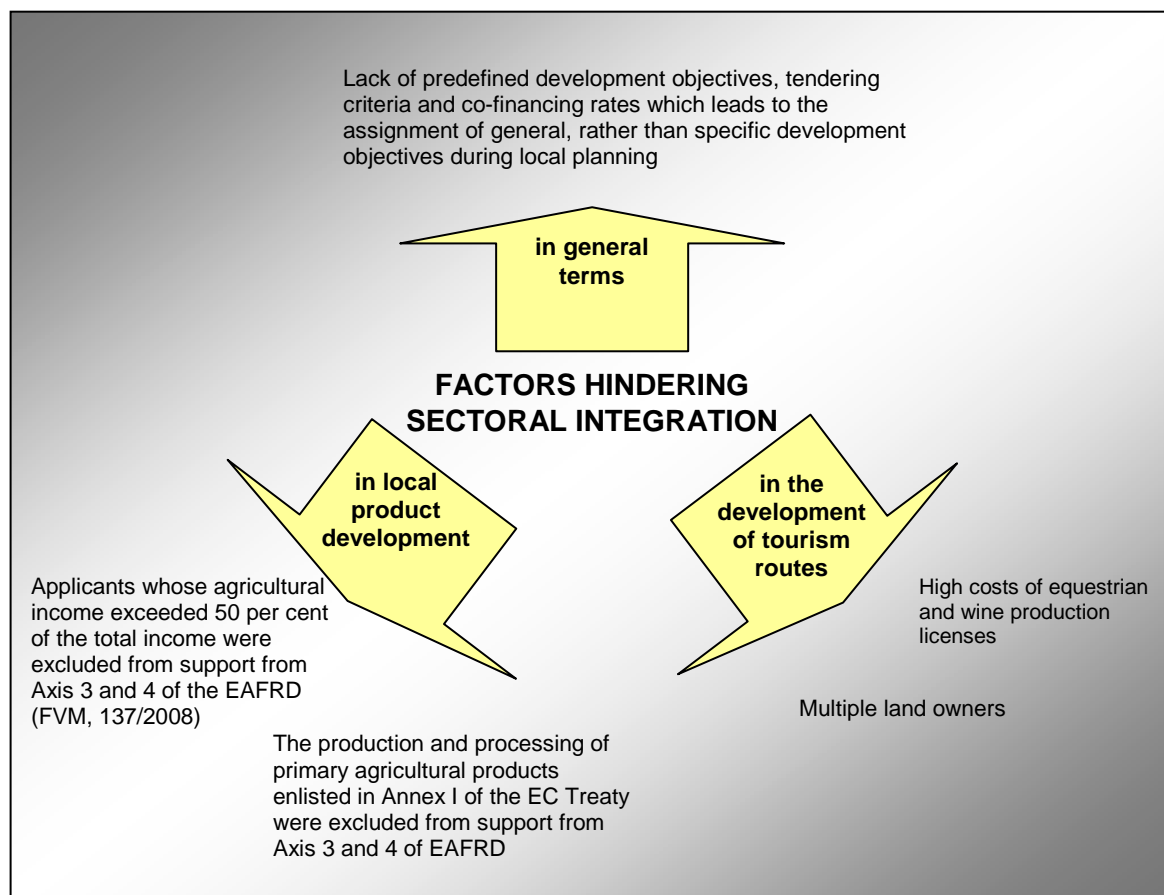
For example, in order to assign the development of hiking routes as one of the LEADER objectives in the strategy, the programme managers should have known whether tourism routes were included in the tourism measure of Axis 3 or not, because the same development objective could not be assigned by both Axes due the principle of exclusivity.

In the absence of clearly defined tendering criteria, the planning teams decided not to take risks and formulated general rather than specific goals in order to avoid future problems related to exclusivity. For example, one of the LEADER priorities of a respondent's LAG had been formulated as follows: 'Supporting technological and infrastructural investment and other innovative projects for the development of local products and services, except those local initiatives that can be supported by Axis 1-3 of the NHRDP and the Operational Programmes of the NHDP'. However, the risk of too general development objectives is that targets that may originally seem to be well-fitting in a general category may later be withdrawn by the Managing Authority, as it has happened during the tendering period. For instance, although 'decorative and utility equipments for public spaces' was originally included as a development option within the scope of village renewal, a few days before the project submission deadline the Ministry removed it from the list of development options. As a result of formulating general objectives in the strategies, the variety of development options had reduced, leading to fewer opportunities for the development of integrated projects.

There have been a number of other factors identified that hindered specifically the development of tourism routes (See: Figure 6.6). First, both equestrian and wine production licenses, which are indispensable for the establishment of equestrian and wine tourism routes, were too expensive for many equine practitioners and wine producers to worth purchasing. Since the wine production licence comprise of a variety of expenses including the excise tax on alcohol, the cost of label and tax stamp, many wine producers sell their wine illegally directly from their cellars. Indeed, the lack of equestrian permission often leads to illegal service provision, as illustrated by the following case: 'We ordered three carts for one of our events organised about environmental protection, because we wanted to bring children to the nearby garbage dump to show them how waste is collected selectively. However, of the three riders only one had permission, therefore he made out the bill on behalf of the three of them.'

Furthermore, the lands on which equestrian routes cross usually belong to multiple owners, which may inhibit the establishment of routes. First, because some owners, particularly foreigners who are away during longer periods of time, often enclose their lands with fences. Second, because if but one owner prohibits crossing on their property, the route is cut off.

Figure 6.6: Factors hindering sectoral integration



Perhaps the most common integrated activities coordinated by the LAGs, mentioned by all respondents, were joint marketing and branding. On one hand, the central position and scope of duties of the LAG as a local development organisation allows assuming tasks of tourism information provision, therefore various LAGs across the country ran the local tourism information office and published promotional material about their area. In part, these publications presented the pertaining villages and towns in general terms for tourism purposes, but there were also books or brochures focusing on a very specific

cultural, natural or historical element of the settlements such as for example the perspective of local woodcarvers of their land through their artwork, or the cartographic mapping of all natural springs in the area.

Recent research undertaken about the collaborative capacity building of the LAGs indicated that the event-based approach of the LAGs to rural tourism promotion is a way to establish integrated rural tourism (Chapter 4.4 and 5.2.5 about the reference: Panyik, Costa, Rátz, 2011). At the national level, the 'Hungarian Rural Tourism Days' event was initiated in 2007 with the aim to provide large-scale marketing to rural tourism and the service providers, and to boost domestic tourism in rural areas off-season based on the collaborative action of the LAGs on an annual basis. The success factors identified highlighted the importance of intermediary management in establishing trust relationships with the service providers, the programme packages in involving comparatively disadvantageous remote rural settlements and outer city districts in the event, and local marketing in capitalising on the territorial and relational advantages of geographical proximity. At the local level, individual initiatives of the LAGs brought together the municipalities, local craftsmen and service providers through three types of events: village festivals, revival of local traditions (such as for example area-specific wedding ceremonies or religious holidays) and local products fairs.

On the other hand, the position of LAGs above the local but below the regional level with a view on one or more micro-regions coupled with wide-ranging network relationships facilitates cooperative branding of distinctive local products. Branding included various strategies. Most commonly, local products such as cheese, jam, honey, wine and brandy were displayed on a separate shelf or division not only in the LAG offices, but at the busiest spots of the settlement such as groceries, supermarkets, education centres and town halls ('Bácska polc'), or even in a separate building or buildings in various villages funded by the LEADER Programme ('Szatmárikum házai').

The names of the brands are relatively fixed by the actual geographical name of the place just like in destination branding (Cai, 2002), because 'Bácska' and 'Szatmárikum' refers to the geographical origin of the products. The 'Bácska polc' initiative is a rare case of a brand with legal protection, as it was granted the status of a trademark, providing a solid base for sectoral cooperation. The strategic aim of cooperative branding was two-fold: first to strengthen local identity and second to stimulate the internal flow of local products

within the country through the exchange of products with different brands by the LAGs. In the case of the 'Szatmárikum házai' brand, the initiator LAG aimed to complement the marketing of local products with courses on local gastronomy and the development of a qualification system for the local catering sector. The objective was to emphasise the values and enhance the variety of local gastronomy in the menu of restaurants and to support the marketing of those establishments that reach high scores in the qualification ranking.

There were also branding strategies involving a local key actor with a name or brand of high reputation, prestige and drawing power, which was expected to be able to effectively bring together local entrepreneurs. For example, the branding of local products of Győr micro-region was planned to be coordinated by the Archabbey of Pannonhalma, one of the most famous attractions of Hungary and a UNESCO World Heritage site, which runs various businesses including a winery and a gift shop in which home-made products are sold such as chocolate, soap, wine vinegar, liqueur, herbal teas and lavender oil.

Lastly, branding was also planned to be linked to the development of local product networks and clusters through consortium projects involving multiple non-governmental organisations. The above mentioned Archabbey of Pannonhalma, for example, aimed to develop a complex herbal cluster involving cultivator, processor and trade elements. However, the technical background of consortium tenders was not yet elaborated within the LEADER Programme, therefore these projects could not be initiated. Considering that non-governmental organisations are usually not financially strong enough alone to develop a product chain, it is of strategic importance to include the option of consortium projects which allows the pooling of resources of various actors in LEADER tendering.

Nevertheless, there were two EU regulations that impeded such integrative activity under the coordination of the LEADER LAGs, considering that primary agricultural production was excluded from support from the 3rd and 4th Axis, as it was covered by Axis 1 targeting the farm and forestry sectors. First, the measures for micro-enterprise development and encouragement of tourism activities of Axis 3 excluded applicants whose agricultural income exceeded 50% of the total income except in the case of wine tourism and unless the project was developed as part of a different, other than agricultural, activity of the applicant (FVM, 137/2008). Second, the production or processing of agricultural products that are listed in Annex I of the EC Treaty (Treaty of Rome) referred to in Article 32 were

also excluded from support. In Annex I, those groups of primary agricultural products are listed whose manufacture, processing and marketing falls within the area of the Common Agricultural Policy such as, among others, living animals, meat, fish and dairy products. However, the majority of local products that had been targeted in most, if not all of the LAGs' LDS, are agricultural products, such as processed meat, natural honey, dairy products, fruits, vinegar, herbs, natural spirits, wine and fresh grapes and other fermented beverages such as cider.

For example, a small family business which aimed to establish a smokehouse for curing meat was not eligible for support for the above reason, although, as the programme manager noted, there had not been such a facility in the area and it could have contributed to the diversification of local products. Likewise, small-scale businesses such as goat cheese producers, beekeepers, distilleries, fruit dryer or cabbage curing houses were also rejected from applying, even if the applicant was not a primary producer but a processor of primary agricultural products. Hence, explaining to the local people the reasons why they could not be beneficiaries was particularly difficult for the managers. As one respondent aptly explained: 'They [the applicants] asked me: whose Ministry is MARD? The traders, accommodation providers, shopkeepers or the agriculture's? They understood that tractors and other agricultural equipments could not be purchased by support from Axis 3. What they could not understand, however, is why they could not get support for building a slaughter house or meat processing firm as part of agricultural diversification.'

Respondents pointed out that various applicants were not eligible for support in any axes of the EAFRD, because Axis 1 and 2 were more suitable for large-scale investments and many agricultural producers could not qualify in terms of the required size of land they owned either. In Axis 1, small-scale family businesses and micro-enterprises could hardly compete with large agricultural companies and industrial farms in terms of creation of jobs, volume of production, yearly income and other criteria of evaluation. Moreover, on the interface of agricultural and industrial production, there are agricultural products cultivated on industrial purposes, the end product of which is industrial. Energy crop is a typical example of such plants, which is grown to make biofuels and combusted for its energy content to generate electricity or heat. Although the cultivation of the plant is an essentially agricultural activity, the final product is biofuel, delivered as extruded and condensed bricks of dried crop. While extra points were granted for securing the utilisation

of renewable energy in Axis 3 projects, a micro-enterprise that produced energy crop and had applied for equipments for processing the plant was excluded from support, on the basis that more than 50% of the company's income had originated from agricultural activity. By the same token, the processing of straw as biofuel material was also considered as primarily agricultural activity, even though the project holder did not produce the plant but bought the chopped material from the cultivator.

Respondents shared the opinion that complex product development and diversification require the inclusion of processing of local agricultural products in the activities supported by Axis 3 and 4, which are measures designed precisely for the diversification of rural economy. While many eligible projects are 'invisible' in that they do not raise the profile of a region, local products are rare or unique products which alone represent a settlement or an entire area. As one respondent put it: 'While there are about hundred locksmiths and turneries in the region, there is only one producer of the spicy venison sausage of Bakonyszentlászló not only in Bakonyszentlászló village, but in the entire country. Yet, we can support turneries in buying a lathe, but not the butchery in buying equipments'. Another respondent used the wood processing industry as an analogue. Wood chip manufacturers were beneficiaries of Axis 3, although woodchipping is primary processing of wood. Following the logic of the regulation, wood chip manufacturers and other wood processing plants working with wood should have been excluded from support, because the forestry sector belongs to Axis 1.

It was argued that the regulation banning primary agricultural producers, the main entrepreneurs of rural territories from the diversification of their activities through support from the micro-enterprise and tourism development measure did not accommodate rural reality. Various guest house or riding centre owners have lands that provide the main source of income for the family, because, as being family-based micro-enterprises, neither agricultural activity, nor accommodation provision or equestrian services alone made sufficient profit. Nevertheless, various tourism-related projects of such applicants were turned down.

In terms of tourism development, hunting was another problematic area, because it was also considered as an agricultural activity. Accordingly, hunting companies, which are suppliers of hunting tourism, one of the most developed areas of tourism in Northern and Eastern Hungary were also excluded from the group of beneficiaries, unless they ran a

separate tourism company. The managers therefore suggested the applicants, as one viable solution, to split their agricultural and non-agricultural activity by establishing a new company exclusively for the management of the project with which they wished to apply for support. This solution was particularly suitable for family businesses in which the tasks could be divided between family members. However, concerns were raised in relation to the expenses and maintenance of a new business in addition to the already existing one in the area of economic recession for at least five years of monitoring after approval, which is by no means certain and difficult to guarantee. In addition, if a well-established, relatively successful business has already been developed by the applicant, it is not likely that the entrepreneur would risk the long-standing structural stability for the sake of a single project.

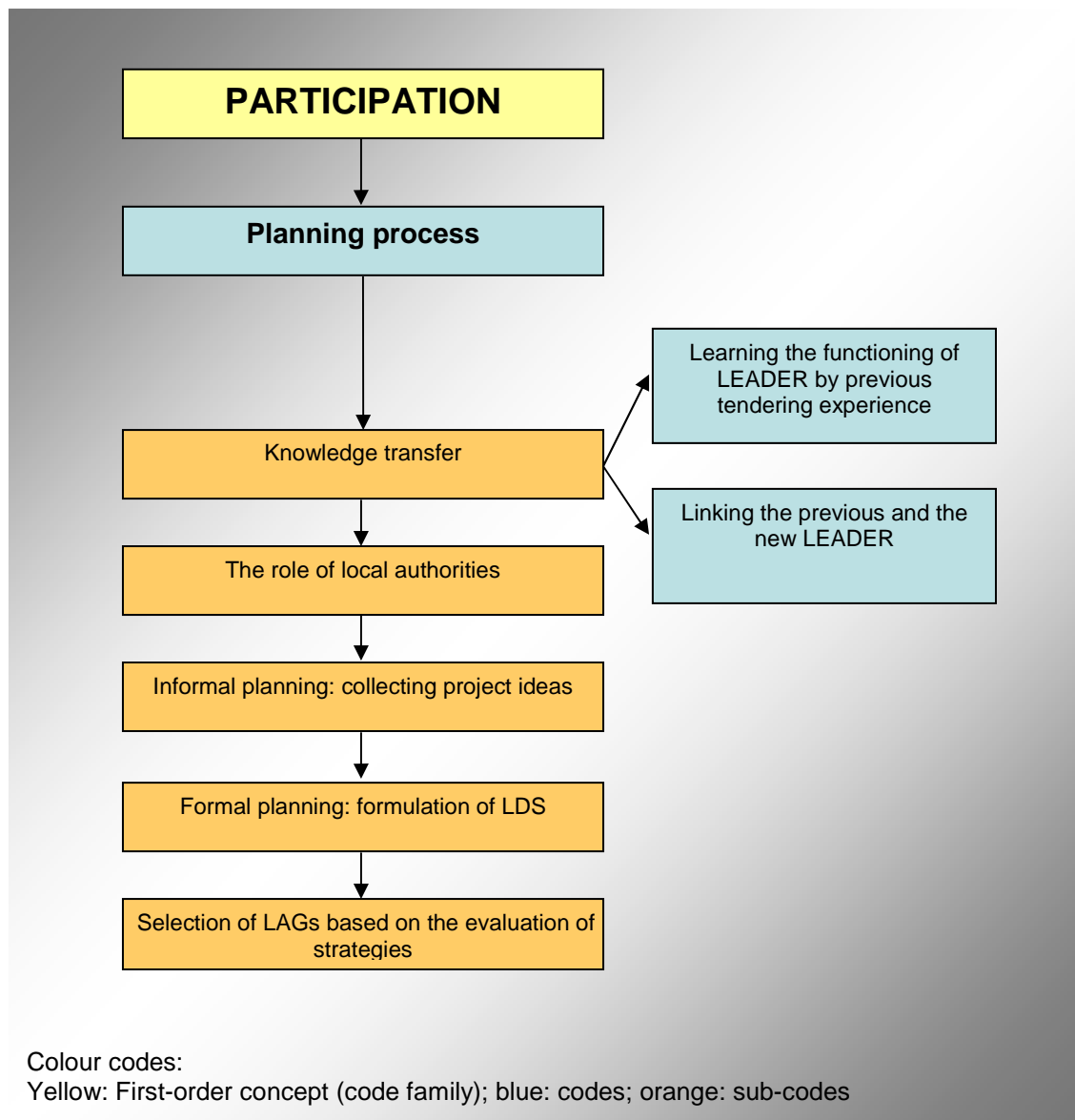
6.4 Participation

6.4.1 Patterns of participation in the formulation of local development strategies of the LAGs

The analysis on participation in the planning process identified key stages of the preparation of the LDS, which manifested through the code 'planning process'. As mentioned earlier in Section 6.2 in the audit trail, this code is one of the 'umbrella' codes consisting of various sub-codes. The code structure of participation presented in Figure 6.7 shows that knowledge transfer of planning practices from one financial cycle to the next, the role of local authorities, informal and formal planning and the selection of LAGs based on the evaluation of strategies are the key issues of LEADER local planning.

The planning process of LAGs preceded the establishment of the local LEADER organisations because the initial strategy of the Ministry was to induce competition between planning teams, evaluate the strategies according to a previously established standard criteria and select the groups that prepared the most appropriate strategies to be qualified for the status of the LAG. The LEADER planning groups formed of local volunteers mainly from the civil sphere who worked in their free-time to develop a local strategy and aspired to work for or participate in the future LAG.

Figure 6.7: Partial network view: Code structure of participation



The transition from one tendering cycle to another facilitated mutual learning of planners through the exchange of experiences. However, this positive effect of knowledge transfer depended on the accessibility of knowledge, the actors' absorptive capacity and the ability to successfully implement new knowledge developed and accumulated by the previous LAG management (Tsai, 2001). The accessibility of knowledge varied in accordance with the inclination of relevant actors – not only the previous LEADER management but as well the local authorities – to share their knowledge and provide input for the next round of the programme. Certainly this was easier in cases where the local LEADER management remained unchanged and therefore knowledge transfer was direct from one financial

period to the other. This is where the role of mayors arises, who generally possess more information on community development issues than any other local organisation and could advise the LAGs on development opportunities. In addition, the Managing Authority mandated the participation of the LRDOs from each micro-region in LEADER planning, but only those with substantial experience in rural development could provide relevant contribution.

Respondents reported on three major lessons to be drawn from the experiences of the previous round of the programme. First, the efficiency of large planning teams comprising of more than ten members was reduced due to the difficulties in synchronising the schedules and working methods of members. Yet, bringing in the outsider's viewpoint to planning by involving external experts such as members of the Hungarian Scientific Academy was proved to be beneficial for innovation generation. Lastly, assigning a large number of priorities for the allocation of a relatively small fund as LEADER leads to the fragmentation of development sources and may hinder strategic development.

The formulation of the local development strategies was coordinated by the Managing Authority, which provided a four-month-long period to complete planning from February to June 2008. However, prior to the official planning period, the teams had collected project ideas to evaluate the local needs during informal meetings, in order to later match them with the available financial resources allocated by the Ministry based on population and size of territory of the LAGs during the planning process. These community forums were particularly successful, resulting in hundreds of project ideas ranging from 150-600 project proposals depending on the size of the LAGs and the level of local activity, which broadly reflected the real local needs. This is because there was a notable, though not general, tendency reported of entrepreneurial inactivity in micro-enterprise development and municipal activity in areas of village renewal and preservation of local heritage, which are mostly municipal competencies. While applicants from the public sphere are familiar with, and routinely utilise, the public channels of development funds, have well-developed relations with development entities and the most recent information on tendering regulations at their immediate disposal, the entrepreneurial sector is considerably less proactive and difficult to reach. It was often mentioned that entrepreneurs had planned to apply not in the first but in a later round of tendering because of missing the deadline or finding the opportunity too late to be able to keep the deadline in the first turn.

In order to secure the conformity of the project ideas with the local needs, some LAGs turned to the mayors to filter these project proposals before submitting to the LAGs for inclusion in the strategy. Large LAGs comprise of about 40-60 settlements, with which the planning team was not equally familiar. As a respondent explained: 'We wanted to avoid that a helicopter tarmac be assigned as a priority in the strategy in an area where actually a shooting lodge was needed'.

The strategies were formulated through an Internet-based planning programme developed specifically for LEADER local planning by a consulting company which had been granted various state assignments through the National Development Agency in a restricted procedure (Jámbor, 2010; Pethő, 2008) including LEADER local planning for disproportionate costs according to the LAGs (Gelencsér, 2009). The programme broke down the planning process into three sequential modules: 'situational analysis', 'priority setting' and 'problem analysis and recommendations' defined by the Ministry. There was unanimity among programme managers in that the planning procedure was overly complicated and bureaucratized, because the Ministry regulated virtually all steps and details of the strategy up to, for example, the number of characters used for the elaboration of a given theme, or options for responses in scroll-down menus, leaving little freedom for the teams to express originality and innovativeness. The planners were obliged to comply with the administrative demands of the Managing Authority: since the programme was refined in parallel with the planning process, already finished modules were often sent back to the teams for correction according to new requirements formulated in the meantime.

The sequential modules disrupted the continuity and integrity of planning, because after the completion of each module, the entire LAG had to be assembled to collectively approve the action. Gathering at least half of the LAG for majority voting required a lot of organisational and administrative work such as the preparation of session reports and collection of signatures, which was particularly difficult and time-consuming in LAGs comprising of a relatively large number of settlements.

Most importantly, however, both the members of the LAG and the planning team had become more and more exhausted and disappointed of requirements which resembled those of a full-worker but which they tried to comply with as volunteers. Thus, the number of participants of sessions and meetings had gradually decreased by the completion of

planning. One manager recalled that his team had only had time for organising real bottom-up, informative forums for brainstorming together with the residents about future developments during the generation of project ideas, before the preparation of the strategy. In general, the number of people participated in planning reduced by one third to half by the establishment of the LAGs. Partly, those people left that could not find interest in LEADER or could not see the offset of membership fees, but also those that could not keep up with the bureaucratic requirements of the Ministry.

Respondents noted that the time available could have been more than enough to develop a strategy in their own way, based on general guidance focusing on input needs and output details rather than technical specifications, and on opportunities of, rather than restrictions on, planning.

Contrary to the initial strategy and communication of the Managing Authority, there was no evaluation of the strategies and selection of groups. In fact, all strategies were accepted, which triggered contradictory opinions from the respondents. On one hand, some managers felt that the Ministry misled the LAGs and lamented that competitive environment was created unnecessarily in which the LAGs hardly communicated with each other during the planning process. It was argued that as a result, some LAGs that prepared a strategy of lower quality using comparatively less time and effort than others were unfairly judged the same way as other LAGs. On the other hand, others noted that the selection of certain groups could have not been politically defensible by the Ministry in any way, leaving no other choice but the approval of all strategies. In addition, the weaker or less experienced groups could also be given an opportunity to be LEADER beneficiaries.

6.5 Empowerment

As presented earlier in Chapter 5.3.1 on the conceptual framework for the analysis of rural governance, empowerment is interpreted as a synonym for subsidiarity. For two decades, it has been a guiding principle for Community actions towards implementing multi-level governance by the allocation of powers between different levels of government. In Chapter 2.4.2, it was also discussed that subsidiarity refers to the redistribution of powers to those levels where action can be taken most effectively by a competent authority. In

turn, the central authority may take actions only in areas where tasks cannot be performed effectively or where action is insufficient, at a more immediate level.

The patterns of empowerment are explored through this transfer of power to the LAGs, manifesting in the formation of power relationships, the distribution of power, and the resulting level of power dependence in the context of state-local interactions. The code structure of empowerment is presented in two partial network views due to the complexity of the concept, which is reflected in the large number of codes pertaining to it. As it can be seen in Figure 6.8, power relationships were examined through the local impacts of the central regulatory procedure, whereas Figure 6.9 shows that the intertwined concepts of power distribution and power dependence were analysed through the major decision-making competence, the project appraisal process of the LAGs and its influence on the directions of local development.

As mentioned earlier (Section 6.3.1), the focus is on the tendering, appraisal and project selection process of the first four measures of Axis 3 that were promulgated in the present financial period. The four calls for tender were formally announced by the Ministry in four regulations in October 2008 [135-138/2008 (X.18.)]. Since the establishment of the 93 new LAGs was formally announced only a month earlier, the opening of the LAG offices coincided with the promotion of the call for tenders and consultation. Contrary to the European practice and the previous communication of the Ministry (Gelencsér, 2009), instead of a continuous tendering period, a narrow deadline for submission had been set for 30 November 2008, which was then postponed twice (first to 8 January and eventually to 12 January 2009), allowing only about two month for the applicants, including the Christmas holiday season, to prepare the applications.

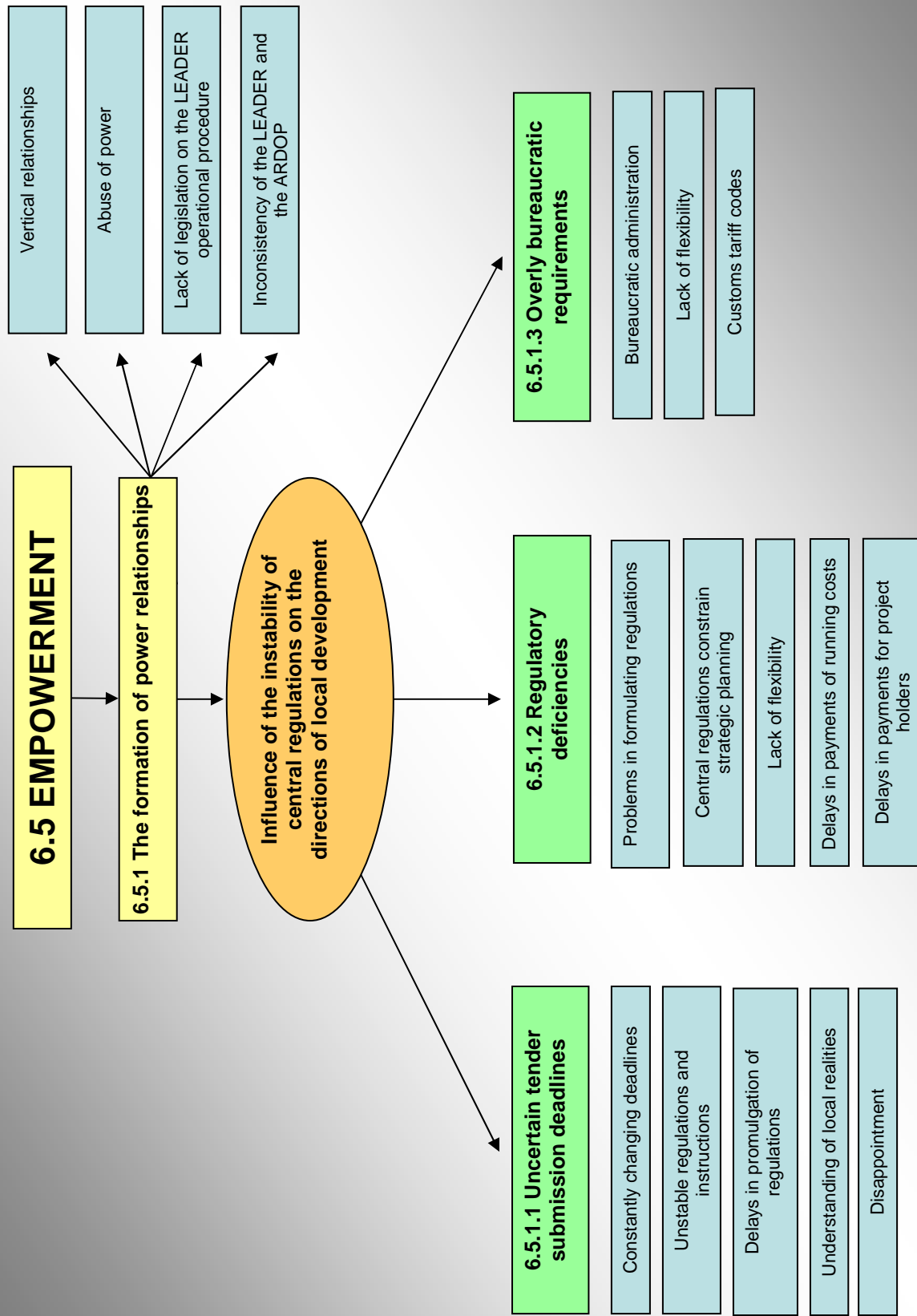


Figure 6.8: Partial network view: Code structure of empowerment I.: The formation of power relationships
 Colour codes:
 Yellow: First and second-order concepts; orange: third-order concept; green: fourth-order concepts (Code families); blue: codes

6.5.1 Patterns of power relationships: Influence of the instability of central regulations on the directions of local development

Concerning vertical relationships, there has been significant positive changes reported in terms of LAG-Paying Agency relations, as opposed to the LAG-Managing Authority relations, which generally remained unchanged in comparison with the previous LEADER term. The Paying Agency, which is the Agricultural and Rural Development Agency (ARDA) in Hungary, is responsible for the financial implementation of the European and also other national agricultural and rural development programmes. Both the payments of running costs of the LAGs and the co-finance payments of grant schemes are transferred through the regional offices of the ARDA to the LAGs, therefore the LAGs are in close contact with them. The Managing Authority, being an administrative body at the central governmental level (MARD) which is responsible for the overall coordination of the programme, has always been considered as a more distant entity from the local perspective.

The major problem of the previous term, according to the respondents was the lack of separate legislation on the operational procedure of the LEADER Programme, which also spanned the first two years of the current period until the enactment of the LEADER regulation in mid-2009. Instead of elaborating an operational procedure designed specifically for LEADER, it was incorporated in the Agricultural and Rural Development Operational Programme (ARDOP). Since LEADER is essentially non-agricultural, this has led to considerable administrative problems in the financial accounts and monitoring of projects. The resolution of these problems depended entirely on the approach and flexibility of the ARDAs, which varied from region to region. For example, the scoring form used in the ARDOP for evaluating agricultural projects, mostly the purchase of agricultural equipments such as tractors, was adopted for LEADER by making small changes to the evaluation criteria. This scoring form was not suitable for the evaluation of projects that aimed at the organisation of events, festivals and training courses, because it required irrelevant information and, conversely, it failed to require relevant information from the point of view of LEADER-type projects. Furthermore, since the ARDOP targeted primary agricultural producers and entrepreneurs, the tender documentation did not include specifications for non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and municipalities, which were beneficiaries of the LEADER Programme. Thus, the submission form included questions such as the net sales of NGOs.

Within the ARDOP, the regulation specifying the operational procedure of the LAGs comprised only of a simplified operational procedure regarding the authorities. The respondents pointed out that the insufficient legislative control over the authorities led to the abuse of power, which was illustrated by various cases. Taking monitoring as an example, the operational manual loosely described the method of monitoring, but failed to specify the areas of inspection. Hence the inspectors often acted beyond their competence such as for example when requiring information from the managers about why profit was indicated in a project and what it was spent for, or when retroactively modifying contracts to correct an error committed by the ARDA.

Due to the dependence of the LAGs on the ARDA in terms of the transfer of payments, the LAGs did not risk reprisal by issuing a complaint against the ARDA for inappropriate conduct. As one respondent explained: 'Whenever I suggested that we could collectively make a complaint, the mayors told me that they were afraid of not receiving their money. As a matter of fact, we are also afraid because we also have our money at the ARDA. I have two bills on project consultancy and participation at an exposition of a value of almost 3000 EUR declined by the ARDA on the grounds that these activities are not included in the staff's tasks. However, I previously consulted the officers about these expenses and I have had their approval. The problem is that it was only verbal and not a written approval. Therefore none of us is in a position to complain, unless we risk that our documents lend at the bottom of the pile of papers.'

By the current tendering phase, there has been considerable effort from the ARDA's side throughout the country to establish a mutually supportive relationship with the LAGs though partly because of the change of the personnel. Respondents noted that communication on a daily basis could not be maintained in a formal relationship. At the time of the promulgation of the Axis 3 measures, some ARDAs set up a group at the county offices comprising of officers responsible for each measure and introduced them personally to the LAGs' staff. Nevertheless, such initiatives towards the improvement of communication have not been experienced by the programme managers from the side of the Managing Authority, with which the LAGs continued to maintain a rather impersonal relationship through a 'nameless' e-mail contact (localplanning@fvm.hu [helyitervezes@fvm.hu]), or through the Ministry's website.

Irrespective of the fact that the managers knew who were behind this e-mail address, it was described as a one-way communication not an interaction. Some respondents complained that they had never received a reply to their e-mails and that it was impossible to reach the responsible officials through telephone. As a respondent noted: 'If I am angry, I address the Ministry officials as 'Dear localdevelopment@fvm.hu'; if I am not, I address the person to whom I wish to write'.

The instability of regulations was originated from the rapidly changing regulatory and institutional background of LEADER local planning, which manifested in three mutually reinforcing trends: uncertain tender submission deadlines, regulatory deficiencies and overly bureaucratic requirements, as discussed below.

6.5.1.1 Uncertain tender submission deadlines

Respondents pointed out that contrary to the LAGs, the failure of the authorities to meet the deadlines stipulated by the law of operational procedures in public administration has not entailed sanctions. According to previous communications of the Managing Authority, the Axis 3 regulations had been expected to be published on the Ministry's homepage in the beginning of October. Yet, the regulations were announced in the end of October, dated back to 19th October. As mentioned earlier, the tender submission deadline had been put off twice.

The managers had to accommodate to constant changes in their monthly work plan, yet errors they committed because of the uncertain environment were not overlooked by the Ministry. Due to the postponements, the final submission deadline eventually coincided with the deadline for the electronic upload of tenders which was also the responsibility of the managers. Respondents noted that the vast majority of the applications had been submitted on the last day, multiplying the administrative burdens on the LAGs. Therefore several weeks before the deadline the LAG offices had been working on extended opening hours on weekdays and opened in the weekends as well. On the final day of submission, all offices were opened till late-night hours to be able to register as many submissions as possible. The concurrence of two deadlines compelled the managers to choose whether they receive the last applications on that day or they register electronically those received earlier and decline the very last submissions. In other words,

the LAGs were obliged to either comply with the bureaucratic demands of the Managing Authority or fulfil their civil responsibility to help the applicants. Though the LAGs chose the latter, many tenders could not be electronically registered by the deadline, thus they faced sanctions for not accomplishing the tasks assigned in the monthly work plan.

The double standard the respondents felt was used when evaluating the actions of the authorities and the LAGs can be best illustrated by the project appraisal deadlines. While the LAGs had completed the evaluation of projects within 20 days available, the ARDAs could not process and evaluate the tenders in 60 days defined by the operational procedure, and failed to inform the applicants about the cause of the delay. Results were not delivered even after 120 days (Bruder & Boros, 2009).

6.5.1.2 Regulatory deficiencies

In addition to the submission deadline, the expected opening of the next round of Axis 3 tendering was also modified. While initially two rounds were indicated by the Ministry (May and October 2009) for micro-enterprise development in the amendment of the regulation promulgating the tender (FVM, 2008), soon after closing the first tendering period, the round scheduled for May was cancelled. Hence, those applicants who missed the deadline and planned to apply in the next turn had to suspend the preparation of tendering documents and postpone their project-related plans for almost a year, though support from the LAGs was, unlike in the first round, by no means certain.

This was due to a major shortcoming of the regulation specifying the financial allocations for each LAG (FVM, 2007b), namely, that it failed to provide guidelines on the temporal distribution of the grant available for each LAG for the entire financial period, except for the running costs. In the lack of programming guidelines, it was not clear whether the grant could be allocated at once during a single tendering period or it was supposed to be divided by year and if so, according to what principles. Thus, the programming of the grant varied by LAG, and those groups that had not prepared a multi-annual financial plan had no choice but to approve all legitimate financial requests up till the totality of the fund, because neither the regulation nor the local development strategy determined the maximum amount to be allocated in a single tendering phase. Those LAGs that had not retained part of the grant for further rounds of tendering could not support those applicants that planned to submit their proposals in the next year.

During the tendering period, various amendments for the four regulations establishing the legal and procedural framework for the four Axis 3 measures were issued, which overwrote the previous versions and thereby created uncertainty in the tendering conditions. Specifically, amendments issued close to the submission deadline caused financial trouble for various project-holders. For instance, the regulation excluding municipal properties from the scope of the measure for the conservation and upgrading of rural heritage was issued a few days after the submission deadline, thereby invalidating such tenders of municipalities. Indeed, a few days before the deadline most applications had already been prepared and some even submitted. The regulation excluding distilleries was promulgated five days before the deadline on the 7th January. Hence, one applicant who had his tender prepared by a grant writing specialist and applied for the modernisation of his property was excluded from the group of beneficiaries. According to the programme manager: 'He left the office almost crying, scolding the Managing Authority, the Paying Agency and the government; and I think he was right'.

This example demonstrates that beyond the immediate circumstances of tendering failures, negative experiences are projected to the actual government. Local people's judgement on EU financial sources is chiefly determined by the actions and approach of the national governments to the administration of those funds. Furthermore, an uncertain environment can undermine local people's trust not only in the authorities and in the tendering systems but also in the LAGs, because it is by the LAGs the communications of the Ministry are conveyed to the local communities. If these communications, based on the guidelines of the Managing Authority, turn out to be repeatedly misleading, the LAGs will be discredited in the area. Furthermore, the local network of community relationships is nourished by the cohesion of its members. Considering its benefits and drawbacks, it is of primary importance in rural areas. As one respondent recalled: 'The collective memory of these communities preserves what their members had to say or do even back to 20-30 years. During a conversation with residents of a small village about security issues, they mentioned that there had been no incident of burglary in the village for over 10 years, even though it hosted various large-scale events in the summer season. The community keeps count of all issues related to its members'

6.5.1.3 Overly bureaucratic requirements

The overly bureaucratic approach of the authorities to the coordination of the LEADER Programme was a universal pattern which prevailed over the previous and current financial period, affecting both the LAG's staff and the project holders.

Table 6.2 provides a summary of the types of problems stemming from the overly bureaucratic administration at the expense of field work, by actors and by phase of activity, illustrated by examples of excerpts. In this table each problem is numbered, and cited by its number in the following discussion.

Issues related to the overly bureaucratic mechanisms occurred during operation, tendering, project appraisal and cost accounting phases of activity. First, the operational procedure of the LAGs was disproportionately overloaded by administrative work at the expense of field work, in particular community building and project generation (1), which was a pattern also found in the organisational dynamics of LAGs. The lack of flexibility was felt by the respondents during the preparation of the monthly work report, in that swapping tasks between two consecutive months in the monthly work plan resulted in a penalty subtracted from the running costs, irrespective of the completion of the task (3).

For example, in one case a task assigned for December was completed on the first workday of January, and the LAG was imposed by the same reduction of 550EUR as indicated in Table 6.2 (3). Flexibility could have been particularly important in light of the accumulated organisational difficulties in the beginning of the new term, because the tendering procedure coincided with the opening of the LAG offices. Thus, the administrative tasks such as the enrollment of staff members, the purchase of furniture, computers and telephones and the preparation of operational manual for the organisations collided with the tasks of project generation and consultancy.

Second, there were a number of factors identified that contributed to the discouragement of project holders from tendering: the excessive tendering documentation (2), which required an average of 30 appendices; the difficulty of the application form (4) which often required professional contribution from a grant writing specialist or an architect for the elaboration of the construction plans; and lastly, the substantial incremental costs (5) as compared to the relatively small requested funds, arising from the accumulation of small administrative expenses to which the instability of regulations as evidenced by the

excerpts, and the hiring of a grant writing specialist or an architect further contributed. Third, another administrative burden frequently mentioned was the requirement of omissible tasks, such as the mandatory completion of missing documents and site monitoring in the case of those applicants that were not recommended for support by the LAGs (6). The project holders were also requested to submit omissible documents (8).

Table 6.2: Clustered summary table: Impacts of the overly bureaucratic requirements at the expense of field work

Phase of activity	Impacts on the LAG's staff	Example	Phase of activity	Impacts on project holders	Example
Operation	Excessive administrative work (1)	<p>“The client registration form should be copied three times; twice for the ARDA, once for the Ministry.”</p> <p>“The document certifying the opening hours of the office should be attached to the work report every second month, even though we have not changed it since the beginning”</p>	Tendering	Excessive tendering documentation (2)	<p>“In the beginning, a lot of people were interested, but many of them have been deterred from applying by the massive tendering documentation.”</p> <p>“Some applicants were yelling at us because of the large number of documents they had to submit”</p>
	Preparation of the monthly work report/ Lack of flexibility (3)	<p>“We completed the task of ‘the promotion of Axis 3’ in October instead of November for which the task was originally assigned. Although I complemented the documents that were missing from the November report, our performance evaluation was downgraded by 7 per cent, which is equal to a reduction of 550EUR from our running costs”</p>			
Tendering	Overcomplicated application form (4)	<p>“We had been told that the application form would be simplified as compared to LEADER+. However, it was just as complicated as in the previous term, from the technical details to the interpretation of requirements”</p>		Substantial incremental expenses (5)	<p>“One project holder was requested to take out a personal property declaration from the tax office six times. Each time it cost 15 EUR, altogether 90 EUR, which was quarter part of the requested fund he applied for, 370 EUR”</p> <p>“Since the regulations have been revised</p>

					every second week, some certifications expired in the meantime” “It was more work than it was worth for that little money”
Project appraisal	Redundant tasks (6)	“During LEADER+, a proposal that had not received 50 per cent of the maximum points available was rejected by the decision-making committee. Now the project holder is formally invited to complete the missing tender documents and the field monitoring is compulsory too, even though the proposal was not approved by the LAG. It takes time, work and money”	–	–	–
Cost accounting	Incremental expenses generated by regulatory deficiencies (7)	“We can buy a table lamp, but not a bulb; we can buy a laptop but not a laptop bag due to the limited range of appropriate items with customs tariff codes ”	Cost accounting	Requiring omissible documents (8)	“Although the invoice contained the date of delivery, the ARDA requested a delivery bill, thereby indirectly constraining the project holders to forge a bill dated back to the time of the delivery” “The ARDA requested the cover of the construction report during the completion of documents”
	Overcomplicated bookkeeping (9)	“During LEADER+, we did not include telephone and car usage costs in our eligible expenses because of the overly bureaucratic procedure of bookkeeping. I did not call the mayor of the neighbouring village for 20 cents, let alone a foreign colleague for 20 EUR, because I would have lost a lot of my valuable work time to explain why and how long I was talking with him, only to be able to account 40 EUR in a month”		Lack of flexibility (10)	“In the tender documentation a table with one drawer was indicated, whereas on the invoice a table with two drawers was written. An infringement procedure was initiated against the project holder, to investigate whether this modification endangered the main objective of the tender or not. Although the case has been dismissed, it lasted two month.” “One of our projects was the replacement of floor-tiles in the local community centre. The mayor bought slightly

					<p>bigger tiles than the parameters indicated in the application. Although the price and the work cost remained the same, the ERDA refused to pay the expenses, 15000EUR, the interests of which are now growing on the bank account of the municipality”</p>
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Fourth, the problems of cost accounting generated incremental costs both for the LAGs and for the project holders. In the case of the LAGs, these were stemming from regulatory deficiencies related to the bookkeeping of the LAG's running costs (7). Since 2008, due to a recent change in the regulation on cost accounting, service providers were not obliged to indicate the customs tariff codes on the invoice. However, the cost accounting of the LAGs was based on a list of customs tariff codes and the pertaining items. Hence, if the codes were not indicated on the invoice, the costs would not be eligible as running costs. Furthermore, if the ineligible costs exceeded 3% of the overall expenditure, the LAGs were charged twice the amount as a penalty. Inevitably, however, up to around 5 per cent of the LAGs' overall purchases were ineligible costs, because many service providers make out electronic bills which do not include tariff codes and can not be manually manipulated; and because in small rural settlements the variety of service providers to choose from is usually low. According to the respondents, the problem could only be solved by the revision of the regulation, but the Ministry seemed just to sidestep it.

In the case of project holders, the incremental costs resulted from the rigid approach of the ARDA to minor deviations from the tender documentation in insignificant details in financial terms during implementation of the project (10). As it can be seen by the examples, purchasing floor tiles or tables slightly different from what was originally indicated in the tender for the exact same price entailed financial sanctions.

In sum, the major factors constraining organisational efficiency of the LAGs were overly bureaucratic administration, substantial incremental expenses and lack of flexibility in the approach of the authorities towards the coordination of the LEADER Programme.

6.5.2 Patterns of power distribution and power dependence: the influence of the project appraisal process on the directions of local development

Power relationships have been presented through the interactions between the authorities and the LAGs, in particular the communication channels and regulatory procedures, which exposed the local impacts of the instability of central regulations. The distribution of power and the resulting level of power dependence are explored through the principal decision-making competence of the LAGs: the project appraisal process. The interviews revealed that the method of project appraisal and selection, in particular the configuration of the scoring criteria against which the proposals are evaluated, influences the directions of local development.

According to the guidelines of the European Commission (EC, 2007), if the administrative and financial procedures of the LAGs are not adequately defined, the potential benefits of the bottom-up approach, including speed, flexibility and reliability, could be wiped out. These guidelines state that, in the context of decentralised governance, the 'centre of gravity' in decision-making should be local. There are three models suggested on the method of decision-making. The first is shared eligibility check, in which the LAGs are responsible for the assessment of the quality and relevance of the projects for the Local Development Strategy, whereas the authorities (the Paying Agency and the Managing Authority) carry out a legality check on the eligibility of operations. However, it is emphasised that, this check 'should *only* be a legality check on the eligibility of operations and not a quality assessment or opportunity assessment (relevance of the project for the local strategy)' (Chapter V).

In the second model, the LAGs are responsible for certifying the ultimate beneficiary, but the payment is executed by the Paying Agency. Lastly, in the third model, the LAGs are responsible for both certifying and paying the final beneficiary.

In Hungary, the project appraisal followed a centralised, hierarchical model based on shared eligibility check. The difference between the above guidelines and the Hungarian implementation was that the Managing Authority and the Paying Agency both intervened in the quality assessment of projects and the centre of gravity in decision-making was positioned at the authorities' side.

The project appraisal process comprised of four phases, involving the LAG's staff and the decision-making committee in the provisional approval at the local level, and the Paying Agency and the Managing Authority in the final approval at the central level. There were some crucial differences in the process between the previous and the current programme, which are summarised in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Checklist matrix: Differences in the decision-making process of LAGs between LEADER+ (2004-2006) and LEADER 2007-2013

	LEADER+ (2004-2006)	LEADER (2007-2013)
Call for completion of documents before decision-making	+	-
Project evaluation criteria	Elaborated by the Managing Authority based on the Operational Programme of Agriculture and Rural Development	Four different evaluation forms elaborated by the Managing Authority for the four measures of Axis 3
Evaluation of the project's fit with the LDS	20/100 points in five criteria	20/170 points in a single dichotomous question
Involvement of the decision-making committee	Passive, without reviewing the complete tender documentation	More active, without reviewing the complete tender documentation
Allowance for the members of the decision-making committee	- (except reimbursement of travel expenses)	+

As the first step, the staff evaluated the projects against a predefined set of criteria which was compiled by the Managing Authority. The main difference between the previous and the current LEADER was the sequence of the phases of project evaluation and the completion of missing documents. During LEADER+, the latter preceded the former phase: before the appraisal of the projects the managers formally requested the applicants whose tender documentation was incomplete to replace the missing appendices. Thus the LAGs evaluated complete applications. However, in the current period the completion of documents was requested by the Paying Agency (ARDA) *after* the local appraisal process had been completed and the documents were transferred to the ARDA. The LAGs therefore evaluated incomplete documents and their decision was repealed by the evaluation results of the ARDA.

The completion of the documents was mentioned as a crucial step in the appraisal, because the appendices, such as for example the financial or business plan could be granted a decisive number of points considering the final result. However, while a complete tender dossier usually comprised of more than hundred pages, the LAGs were obliged to evaluate incomplete tenders too, containing only a three-page application form. This is because all missing documents could be later submitted during a limited period of time. Although the extra points received after the completion of documents could be generally predicted by the staff, many respondents were concerned about the unequal conditions of appraisal and the significant differences that might have occurred as a result between the final scores of the LAGs and those of the Paying Agency in the second round of evaluation. Furthermore, this difference might have arisen not only from missing documents, but also from missing information or unclear explanation in the application form, which could be also corrected upon request of the ARDA.

Criticism was also directed towards the unearned benefits this method allotted to these applicants contrary to those who submitted the complete tender documentation within the deadline. Basically, they had twice as much time to prepare their proposal, and many of them submitted only a cover page or an application form on purpose, being aware that the documents can be replaced later. As commented by one manager: "Since the applicant submitted only a cover page, there was nothing to be evaluated and we gave the tender 0 point. In three months he completed all the documents and now it is likely to be a winner project, although the applicant did not even bother to fill out the submission form".

The evaluation criteria allowed little opportunity to evaluate the project's relevancy in the LAG's area because only fifth part of the maximum score (20 out of 100 points) in LEADER+, and eighth part (20 out of 170 points) in the current LEADER were granted based on the judgement of the LAG's decision-making committee on the project's fit with the LDS. As mentioned earlier, during LEADER+, the operational procedure of the ARDOP was converted to the LEADER evaluation criteria, which was therefore not fully compatible with education, training and event projects, among others, that were submitted in LEADER. In the current period, four evaluation forms were elaborated by the Ministry for the four measures separately (See: Section 6.31, p.233). The final score was reached through common decision and the projects were ranked in accordance with the scores granted. However, the scoring was relevant only when the overall value of requested grant aid by the proposals exceeded the fund available for the measures, because it

meant that there were projects to be rejected. This mainly occurred during the current period. A line was pulled between the approved and the rejected projects and the final list of projects was, together with the evaluation forms, forwarded to the decision-making committee.

During LEADER+, the decision-making competence of the committee was limited to a range of +/- 10 points to be changed on the final score given previously by the staff. The respondents recalled that in most cases the decision-making committee accepted the decision of the staff without any closer examination of the projects. However, contrary to the staff, the committee members neither had sufficient time to go into further details of the projects which usually comprised of more than hundred, sometimes two hundred pages, nor were they in regular contact with the applicants. This shows that in the decision-making model of LEADER+, the decisions were, in fact, made by the programme managers during the first, preparatory phase, while the second phase served rather as a formal and symbolic approval of the results.

In the current period, the two phases of decision-making remained the same but the decision makers were more actively involved in the evaluation of tenders. Their increased motivation was most likely attributable to the change in the status of the LAGs, because the legally constituted organisations required more liability of the members. In addition, some LAGs provided an allowance for their decision makers in addition to the reimbursement of travel expenses. Lastly, the relatively smaller funds created larger competition, stimulating them to make the most thorough decision possible.

After the final decision had been reached, the documentation was forwarded to the Paying Agency, which evaluated and ranked the projects. Lastly, the two rankings prepared separately by the LAGs and the Paying Agency were sent to the Managing Authority, which compared the rankings. The projects with matching scores were approved and the proposals with different scores were sent back for revision. Although at the time the interviews were undertaken, decision-making haven't reached the authorities yet, the difference derived from the completion of documents was expected to be automatically accepted by the Ministry.

The respondents felt that the major reason for the cancellation of the next round of tendering was the lack of sufficient capacity of the ARDA to evaluate approximately 5900

projects (an average of 60 projects per LAG) which were submitted throughout the country. Instead of allocating the major decision-making competences at the local level, 500 more officers were employed by the ARDA to be able to handle the multiplied administrative burden, thereby further increasing the bureaucratic apparatus in the system to maintain a double administration. It was argued that being a collaborative organisation and paying agency the ARDA should not be licensed to evaluate tenders. Likewise, the Ministry as a managing authority should not intervene in the execution of the Programme, but rather coordinate and monitor the implementation. Hence, the regulatory practice should be substituted by the local promulgation of tenders.

There are four major impacts of the project appraisal process on the directions of local development identified, which are shown in Figure 6. 9. These impacts will be discussed below (6.5.2.1-4), complemented by a section dedicated to the future prospects in light of these impacts (6.5.2.5).

6.5.2.1 Inconsistency between the standard tender regulations and the local development strategies

The structural differences between the LDS and the tender regulations generated inconsistency between the locally assigned development objectives and the centrally defined development options. The LDS comprised of proposals for solution on various locally identified problems and the amount of funding required for each proposal. The number of proposals and the amount assigned varied by LAG in accordance with the local needs and characteristics.

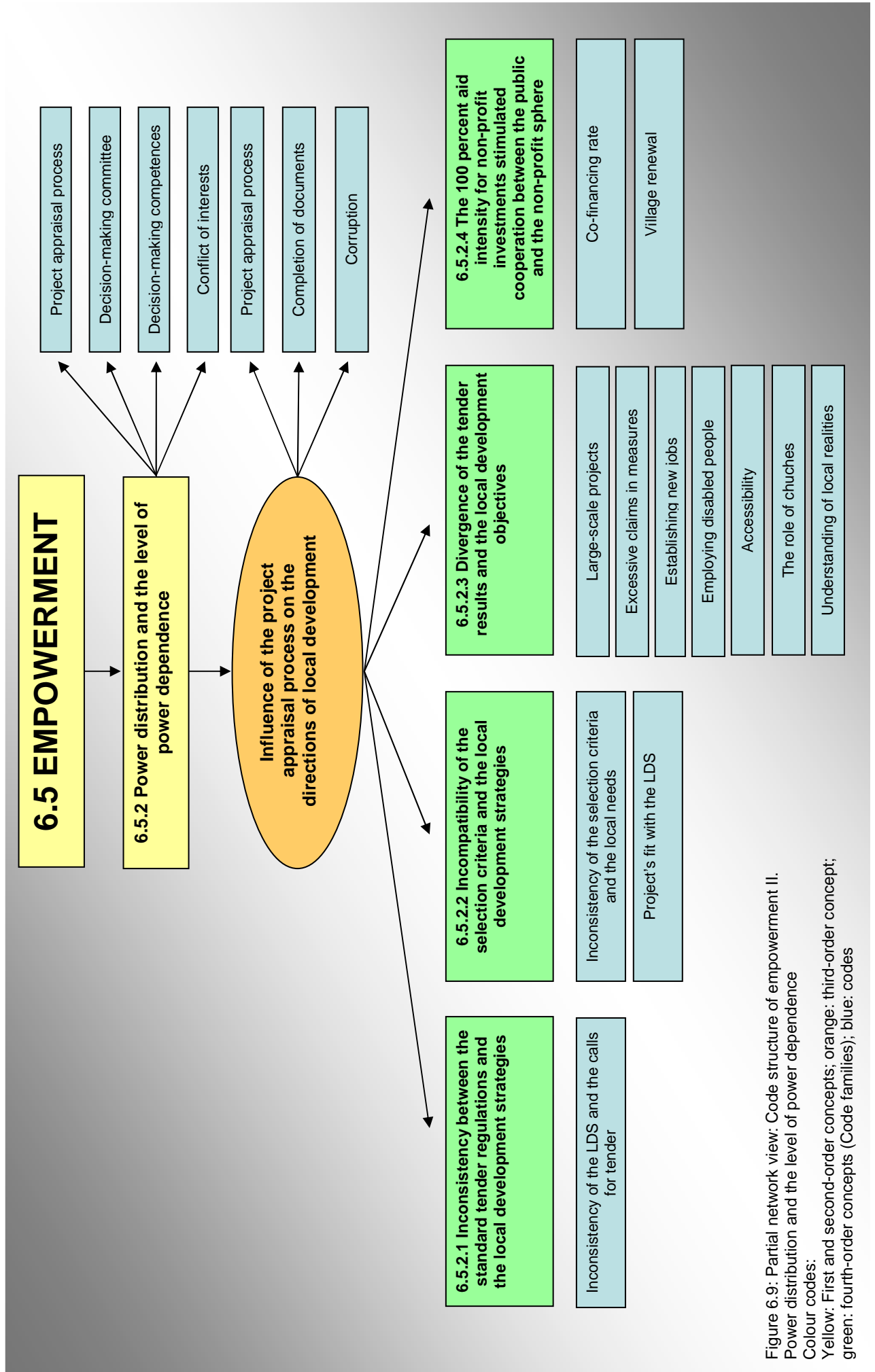


Figure 6.9: Partial network view: Code structure of empowerment II. Power distribution and the level of power dependence
 Colour codes:
 Yellow: First and second-order concepts; orange: third-order concept; green: fourth-order concepts (Code families); blue: codes

The original concept was that local diversity would be taken into consideration during legislation by building the regulations on, and adopting the key elements of, the LDS. In contrast, however, the four regulations covered four development areas to which a number, but not all, of the proposals could be allocated. For example, while an LDS included 16 tourism-related proposals, the regulation on the measure for the encouragement of tourism activities covered only 10, and given the standard format of the regulation, not necessarily in order of importance. Furthermore, there were proposals included in the regulation that the LDS did not contain, and the discrepancies have been overwritten by the regulation. Thus, as explained by one respondent, despite the lack of reference of youth tourism or the renovation of mortuaries in their LDS, they had to register such project proposals because the tender regulation included these objectives.

The regulation also defined the overall amount of funding to be allocated for each measure, which was the sum of the number of proposals defined by the Ministry. Subsequently, the LAGs could not maintain the original amount assigned in the LDS to each proposal. Certainly, the objectives on the overlap of the regulations and the strategies were in conformity with the local needs. Nevertheless, the strategies were more diversified and more specific than the regulations. Thus, the needs originally formulated could not be adequately addressed, and the respondents expressed their disappointment on the lack of consideration of their strategies. For example, one manager mentioned that many of the tenders that had been submitted under the micro-development measure (such as the extension of a fuel and building supply company's office and the purchase of equipment for the local tombstone maker) did not fit their vision of the type of projects to be carried out under Axis 3.

In addition to the structural differences, the changes made in the eligibility criteria during the call for tenders also contributed to the inconsistency of the LDS and the tender regulations. Notably, it has been discussed in Section 6.3.4 that Annex I of the EC Treaty lists the primary agricultural products that were excluded from support from the micro-enterprise development measure of Axis 3. However, this list was not divulged during planning, only later during the call for tender it was first mentioned among the excluding conditions of the measure. Since local product development was a principal objective of the LAGs, virtually all LDS contained the development of primary products that were later banished, such as for example processed meat, dairy products and natural spirits. Furthermore, the LAGs involved agricultural producers in planning who were later

excluded from the scope of beneficiaries eligible for grant. Due to the disappointment caused by the misleading information, various agricultural producers have left the LAGs, which further contributed to the decrease in the membership of the LEADER organisations mentioned earlier in the integration patterns of organisational dynamics (Section 6.3.3) and in the participation patterns of planning (Section 6.4.1).

6.5.2.2 Incompatibility of the selection criteria and local the local development strategies

The composition of the scoring criteria against which the project proposals are evaluated, especially the ratio of criteria focusing on the relevancy of the project in the local context to the centrally defined standard criteria, highlighted the power distribution in the decision-making process. It has been mentioned that during LEADER+, fifth part of the overall score (20 out of 120) was available for evaluating the compatibility of the project with the LDS. Five criteria were defined, each of which could be awarded up to four points: the project's contribution to (1) the development of professional and community relationships; (2) the development of traditional or area-specific products; (3) the enhancement of the area's attractiveness; (4) the cultivation and preservation of local traditions and culture and lastly, (5) marketing of the area.

The evaluation form further included a three-fold criteria for the evaluation of the project's integrity with the LEADER principals (additionality, innovativeness and cooperativeness), which could be awarded up to 20 points. The latter criteria were missing from the evaluation forms of the Axis 3 measures, because these were considered as *LEADER-type* measures, and not purely LEADER measures. However, the LDS was prepared by the LAGs not only for the allocation of Axis 4, but with equal importance for Axis 3.

In the current phase, the evaluation criteria comprised of four major components: (1) project criteria, (2) horizontal criteria, (3) financial criteria and (4) operational and sustainability plan or business plan. Most of the weight in the evaluation criteria was given to the horizontal aspects, which could be awarded up to almost half of the maximum score, and considered the establishment of new jobs, the employment of disadvantaged people, accessibility planning, the settlement's size and level of development, complexity and the project's fit with the LDS.

According to the respondents, the latter was the only criterion available for the managers to evaluate the relevancy of the project in the local context, and it was also the only criterion that was modified in the scoring form. Originally, it was asked whether the project had been referred to in the LDS or not. However, considering that the LAGs formulated general, rather than specific development objectives in the strategies due to the uncertain regulatory environment (As discussed earlier in Section 6. 3. 4), there had been no specific projects named in the LDS. Thus, this question was substituted by another which asked whether the project is compatible or not with the LDS. There were two major issues associated with this criterion that indicated a democratic deficit in project evaluation and impacted on the outcomes of project selection. These are presented in a flowchart in Figure 6. 10 below.

First, the degree of fit could not be expressed by the number of points granted, because there were only two options allowed for the managers to evaluate the compatibility of the project with the LDS: either 'yes', which was awarded 20 points, or 'no' (0 point). The respondents commented that in general, the response options were overly restricted and the comment box allowed for one or two sentences only. Indeed, of the 13 questions of the first two main sections (project and horizontal criteria), 8 were dichotomous asking for a yes/no response, and due to the format of the scoring form (pdf), the comment box was not extensible.

Second, the Ministry intervened in the evaluation of the compatibility with the LDS. In particular, the Managing Authority formulated five criteria based on which the points could be awarded by the staff, if the proposal has met at least one of them. However, all applicants satisfied at least one of these requirements, namely, the application for the minimum amount of aid available (1200 EUR). Subsequently, the staff was obliged to approve the compatibility of *all* projects with the LDS, regardless of their own judgement and the quality of the proposal. At the same time, applicants were not required to argue for the importance of their project in the area by referring to the strategic development aims of the LDS.

Although the managers lacked the competence to reject those projects that the LAGs did not want to support, the withdrawal of points awarded for the project's fit with the LDS became a standard practice of the decision-making committees. This is because the rules of evaluation above applied only to the staff, but not to the board. Accordingly, while the

staff could not reject the compatibility of projects with the LDS, the board could and often did, mainly in the case of the largest projects as it will be seen later. The rationale of withdrawal was the lower maximum eligible cost defined in the LDS. Still, many respondents noted that 20 points were insufficient to effectively influence or modify the final scores.

6.5.2.3 Divergence of the tender results and the local development objectives

The inconsistency between the tender regulation and the scoring criteria eventually led to the divergence of the tender results and the local development objectives. The main trigger factor of incompatibility of the LDS with the scoring criteria was in fact the maximum eligible cost, which was defined by the European Commission at EUR 200 000. In Hungary, however, considerably lower maximum funding values were defined in the LDS in accordance with the local characteristics and the LEADER principals, in anticipation of smaller-scale projects.

As a result, there has been a shift towards large-scale projects across the four measures, because all applicants who could afford requested the maximum eligible fund. Furthermore, this trend was reinforced by a number of interventional practices of the authorities in the selection criteria which are summarised in Table 6.4.

As it can be seen, distinction was made between large-scale and small-scale projects in terms of the method of evaluation. The Managing Authority requested the submission only of a business plan in the case of projects with a value up to EUR 20 000, while required both operational and sustainability plan and business plan in the case of projects with a value of EUR 20 000 and above. Not only the operational and sustainability plan were more detailed and thus could be granted more points, but if the project only included a business plan the scoring followed a proportioning method, which eventually resulted in fewer points than what could have been obtained by the submission of both documents. Thus, the proportioning method used for the evaluation of small-scale projects favoured the large-scale projects.

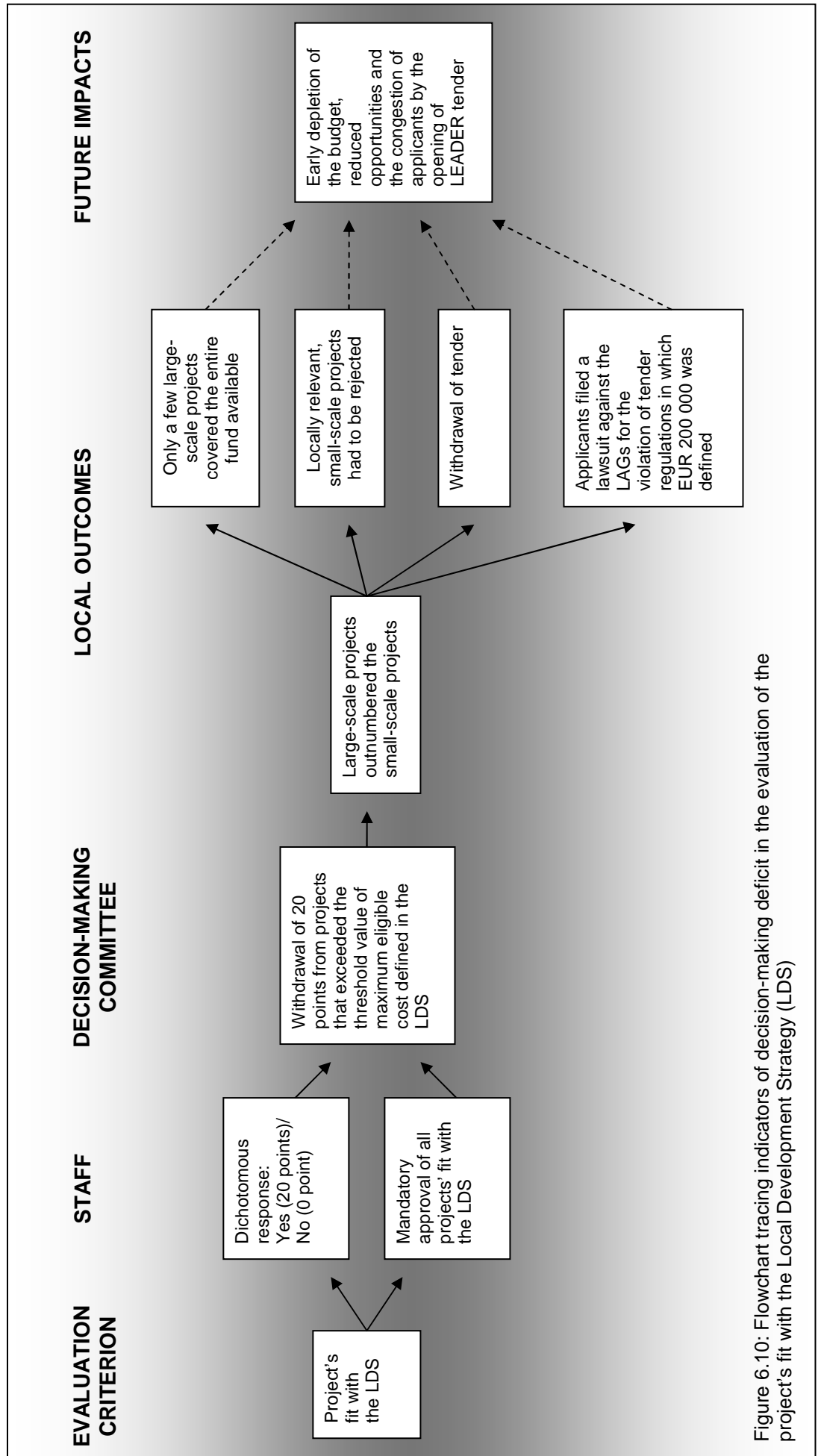


Figure 6.10: Flowchart tracing indicators of decision-making deficit in the evaluation of the project's fit with the Local Development Strategy (LDS)

Table 6.4: Interventional practices of the authorities in evaluation criteria triggering a shift towards large-scale projects

Practices	Example
Defining a high maximum eligible cost	<p>“There were two proposals that requested EUR200 000 for micro-enterprise development, each. However, we had only EUR464 000 available for the entire measure.”</p> <p>“In our LAG, the overall budget for Axis 3 amounts to EUR 2 600 000 till 2013. Comparatively, EUR200 000 is such a high maximum eligible cost, that our budget will be emptied in no time”</p>
Using mostly dichotomous questions	“The majority of the scoring criteria were black or white. Concerning a number of key questions, this is not a problem; for example, an area is either disadvantageous or not. However, it favours large-scale projects and investments”
Distinguishing small-scale and large-scale projects by using different evaluation methods	“The small-scale projects have had no chance because of the proportioning method, and the completion of the missing plan was not accepted”
Establishment of new jobs	<p>“There is a photographer couple in our LAG, who run a small company. This job does not require more employees, and given the size and profile of their business, they could not afford it either. However, a laboratory, which employs eight people and applies for the purchase of new equipments and the extension of the facility will employ new workers, including disabled people. Although the difference between the final scores of these two projects was 80 points, it does not mean that the one with lower score was actually lower in quality or less important in the area than the one with a higher score. Nevertheless, we had no choice but to reject it”</p>
Employing disadvantaged people	
Addressing accessibility	“One could only be granted the maximum scores if accessibility was considered for all types disabilities, including physical impairment, blindness, deafness and so on. How could this be accomplished in a paint shop?”

Concerning the horizontal criteria, in sum, those projects could accumulate the most points that established many new jobs, employed people with disabilities and disadvantages, addressed accessibility issues for all types of disabilities, used renewable and/or environmental-friendly energy sources and contributed to the preservation of the local natural and cultural values and the quality of life of the community in a small, disadvantageous settlement. The majority of respondents were concerned about the feasibility and relevancy of the first three criteria in rural regions. In an era of financial crisis, it was argued, many micro-enterprises struggle to preserve their employees, therefore the establishment of new jobs was particularly difficult to guarantee, let alone hiring disabled people who represent comparatively less work force. Yet, the preservation of jobs was not included in the scoring criteria. As one manager noted: ‘It is unrealistic to expect from a micro-enterprise in the rural countryside to establish 10-15 new jobs’.

As far as accessibility is concerned, the respondents, while underlying its importance, agreed in that accessibility issues are relevant mainly in larger, urban settlements. One commented that ‘we have three elevators in our little village, because an elevator that can bring us up to the loft worth extra points in all tenders. Considering that only a very few disabled people live in small villages, unnecessary things are being built for a lot of money’.

Many respondents expressed their concern about the underrepresentation of local considerations in the selection criteria. Often, only a few, – two, three or four – proposals covered the entire fund available for a single measure and reached the highest scores, while small-scale, locally important projects could not be granted enough scores to be approved. The impotency of decision-makers to offset the overrepresentation of large-scale projects by the withdrawal of the 20 points was evident in the narratives, and led to a number of distinct local scenarios which are presented in Figure 6.10 and illustrated by local cases below. The narratives also unfolded applicant practices to generate more points.

In the first case, several members of a family submitted multiple large-scale proposals in order to mutually support each others’ tenders. In particular, five applicants submitted four proposals for micro-enterprise development and the total value of requested fund covered the LAG’s overall budget allocated for the measure. Eventually, in this specific case, *the entire measure had to be withdrawn and re-announced in the next round of tender* in the next year because, as mentioned earlier, the Ministry cancelled the application period for the same year in May. As the programme manager explained: “The applicants contracted each others’ firms to obtain six points for the cooperation criterion. In their proposals they further indicated that they would loan money to each other to enhance the feasibility of the projects. Although I called the Managing Authority for instructions concerning this case, we could simply not reduce their points in any way because the tenders were so well written. Since their projects had the highest scores, the only option we had was *to raise the threshold score so high that none of the projects could reach*. This has happened in various LAGs, whether they told you or not. Clearly, we could not allow that the entire fund be granted to a single family which creates altogether only eight new jobs in the area because we could have easily become a target of ethical, political and personal attacks.”

In the second case, project proposals were submitted in little villages by entrepreneurs from adjacent towns or cities who took advantage of the 100% aid intensity of the total eligible expenditure provided for non-profit organisations and requested the maximum eligible fund. Due to the profile and size of these projects they were more suitable for support from the Operational Programmes under the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), in which the project sizes are considerably larger. In addition, the sustainability of the project was unconvincing, therefore the decision-makers withheld the 20 points available for the project's fit with the LDS.

In the third case, one of the villages of 2000 inhabitants, an entrepreneur of a public utility company from a nearby town submitted two applications, one for tourism development and the other for the conservation and upgrading of rural heritage. Although the latter was disapproved, the tourism project, which amounted to the quarter part of the LAG's budget for tourism, could not be rejected. While on paper this project was described as a youth hostel development, in reality it was castle reconstruction. Just like in the previous case, as a large-scale construction project it could have been eligible for support from the regional development operational programme. It was emphasised by the respondent that the allocation of the quarter part of the budget to a village of only 2000 residents would have been unacceptable, especially considering that the aid requested by the project-holder for this project (EUR 200.000) amounted to almost the overall aid requested by the village alone (EUR 280.000).

In the fourth case, the maximum eligible fund was requested by a potentially favourable project in tourism. It aimed at the establishment of an all-round interactive, summer camp for disabled children in collaboration with a leading Hungarian University in this area. The project owner was a German citizen who was an expert of special education, and the project was planned to be carried out in a beautiful environment in a little village close to the forest. However, the applicant failed to prove the sustainability of the large establishment in a remote area. For instance, the application lacked case studies of similar types of initiatives in Hungary or abroad underpinning the feasibility and long-term viability of the project. Nevertheless, just as in the previous case, even by the withdrawal of 20 points the application remained still above the approval threshold.

While in tourism and micro-enterprise development large-scale projects prevailed, in the measures of conservation and upgrading of rural heritage and village renewal the high

requested funds were often coupled with the lack of multiplicative or developmental effect. In particular, most of the tenders in the first measure targeted the renovation of churches whereas in the second, the construction and development of playgrounds, often at exaggerated costs. As described by one respondent, 'luxury projects' had been submitted, such as playground building for EUR120 000 and the main square reconstruction of villages for EUR200 000. However, projects such as the reconstruction of the local community centre at a significantly lower price for EUR8000 could not be approved, because the project could not satisfy as many evaluation criteria.

Previous experiences in rural development and local knowledge served as a base of reference in estimating the actual value of projects. For example, one respondent noted that the Youth Club in his village had built a little playground for EUR6000 during LEADER+, which was twenty times less than the expenses of the playground project that had been submitted for village renewal in Axis 3. The decision makers therefore decided that above EUR12 000, playground projects would not be recommended for support. However, the Managing Authority disapproved this decision, on the grounds that the regulation that indicated EUR200 000 can not be overruled by the LAG's decision.

In another case, the Catholic Church submitted two proposals and requested the maximum eligible fund for each in a village of 800 residents. In the project EUR 48.000 was requested for the scaffolding of the local church. Since the LAG manager's son was actually a priest, he told the applicant that the scaffolding of the church had cost EUR10.000 in his son's church. Eventually, the priest corrected the price and resubmitted the tender.

The central communication of the measures reinforced this tendency, because, as it was discussed earlier, it emphasised the maximum eligible fund rather than the role of the LAGs. In the lack of sufficient decision-making competences to generate tender results in conformity with the LDS, the managers tried to convince the applicants to reduce the requested aid. However, making the local people and the majors understand that it was in their common interest, especially against the central communication, was particularly challenging. One respondent commented that the central marketing hinted/implied that the churches in the countryside should be renovated by these funds, and, since the churches were beneficiaries of up to 100% aid intensity, as he put it: 'they would have been fool not to apply'.

Regarding the lobbying activity of the municipalities and the churches, the decision-makers sought to maintain a territorial balance in the allocation of funds. Imbalances arose from applications of numerous churches in a single settlement in the measure of conservation and upgrading of rural heritage. The base of consensus building was priority setting: if the priority of a municipality was monument renovation, then it should focus on the measure for the conservation and upgrading of rural heritage and not on village renewal.

The large number of standard playground building tenders was generated by a single grant writing company, which offered its services for the municipalities at the time of the preparation of the LDS. Half year before the regulation on village renewal was promulgated, this company had already been in possession of information about the tendering conditions. It offered to prepare a tender on playground building to hundreds of municipalities across the country, for a standard EUR 120.000. According to one manager who looked after the company's background on the Internet, the playground equipments were supplied by a Danish manufacturer, which were about five to ten times more expensive than the Hungarian equipments. According to the respondents, many mayors contracted the company because in return for the mayor's signature it basically offered a playground for the municipality free of charge. Concerns were raised not only about the legality of this company's activity, but also about frittering the EU funds away for way too expensive 'passive' projects from the viewpoint of rural development.

The maintenance of the settlements' community spaces is primarily the competence of the municipalities, which should be shared with local community groups, non-governmental organisations and ideally, voluntary formations. It was felt that there were unexploited civil capacity in the villages, which could be used for such activities. Community spaces such as playgrounds, parks and main squares are usually not built at once, but exist for decades; therefore the equipments should be replaced on a regular basis – one at a time – in order to maintain the level of community service. However, a situation in which playgrounds should be completely rebuilt sharply highlights the lack of maintenance and the inadequate municipal service provision, and lends weight to the argument for enhanced civil participation.

While the majority of respondents recognised the considerable share of large-scale applications of the churches, one respondent further claimed that the churches had

submitted tenders beyond their weight and importance. One intriguing question related to the role of churches was the fact that they applied, though less frequently, not only for the conservation and upgrading of rural heritage, but also for tourism development as non-profit organisations. The entrepreneurial activity of the churches can be considered as an economic activity without delivering measurable tourism returns and producing tax revenue for the community due to their non-profit status. Religious youth tourism is a specific segment of tourism for which there is, though limited, demand. From the strategic point of view of rural development, the role of the Church as a non-profit organisation in tourism is arguable, because it has no interest in generating, let alone increasing profit from the operation of the establishment, especially considering that it has its own, 'invisible' and tax-free revenues such as subsidies and donations which can substantially influence the budget of an organisation.

According to one respondent, the financial statements of the Church in the financial and in the operational and sustainability plans were rather generalised and the data were difficult to interpret and compare because the revenues from the previous year were not clearly indicated. Thus, the balance sheet was difficult to evaluate. Since the occupancy rate of religious youth hostels is modest, it is likely that the investment would remain of limited profile, usage and services. But, at the same time, it is in the interest of a profit-oriented company to increase its revenues, advertise its services – which is also marketing for the area –, potentially expand its business by complementary services and improve service quality. It has therefore a multiplicative effect on the region.

Essentially, as opposed to micro-enterprise and tourism development, these two measures were not supposed to aim at economic development. Nevertheless, the managers expected projects with more developmental potential or at least a wider range of community impact. It was argued that church renovation and playground building would not raise the standard of living of the local community in the given areas at the given time. If the standard of living of the residents is not high enough to be able to spend money on recreation and community activity, then the funds are spent on things that lost their function because the residents can not afford to use them. Hence, it was argued that those investments should be primarily encouraged which contribute to the enhancement of community resources.

6.5.2.4 The 100 per cent aid intensity for non-profit investments stimulated cooperation between the public and the non-profit sphere

Across the measures of both Axis 3 and 4, the aid intensity was particularly favourable: 60 per cent of eligible costs under micro-enterprise development. In the case of municipalities the amount of the granted co-financing could not exceed 80 per cent of the net eligible costs, which did not include the Value Added Tax (VAT). However, as mentioned earlier, in the case of NGOs the financial aid reached up to 100 per cent of the total eligible costs.

In order to bypass the regulation and reduce the value of own funding, various municipalities submitted their applications through a local NGO. In the application it was emphasised that the project would be carried out in cooperation with the municipality, which would provide financial support. This was considered as a positive approach towards the redistribution of municipal competences to local organisations, which could strengthen the non-profit sphere of rural communities. For example, in order to gain more points, the NGOs undertook to establish a new job. Most likely, they could not have afforded to do so, had not been the opportunity for joint tendering. Nonetheless, some concerns were shared in relation to the sustainability of tenders that were not required to provide own funding.

According to the respondents, the standard business plan and the operational and sustainability plan that were used to evaluate the projects of all types of applicants in four different measures were inadequate in addressing sustainability, particularly of projects that were granted total financing of eligible expenditures. In the post-finance system the financial contribution of the municipality help the NGOs in completing the payments whereas financial problems might threaten those NGOs that are in lack of a solid financial background. While the applicant holds the responsibility for the contents of the financial plan and is as well accountable for it, it was argued that without this alleviation the NGOs would have not been able to apply.

6.5.2.5 Future impacts: Early depletion of the LAGs' budget and the congestion of applicants by the opening of the LEADER tender

Considering the four measures, the claims generally exceeded the available resources in all of the four measures, often multiple times. This had been anticipated at the time of the generation of project ideas in the beginning of the planning process, suggesting that considerable developmental potential exists in the rural countryside, which could be exploited by the Ministry by further tendering rounds. For example, one manager highlighted that the total amount of co-financing of project proposals they had collected exceeded 1.6 times the LAG's overall budget for the present financial period. That is, if they had had the necessary budget available, the local municipalities, entrepreneurs and NGOs would have added almost as much own funding to the projects as the LAG's overall budget.

In the first round of tendering analysed, approximately 70-80 per cent of the overall budget was reported to be allocated, and the rest was predicted to be fully disbursed in the next round of tender in the same year. Hence, the factors triggering the shift towards large-scale projects precipitated the early depletion of the LAGs' budget, as it can be seen in Figure 6.10. Also, perhaps the most serious consequence of the withdrawal of 20 points available for the evaluation for the projects' fit with the LDS was the occurrence of cases in which the project owner sued the LAG for the violation of tender regulations (Bruder & Boros, 2009), which may jeopardise the operation of the entire programme. Clearly, there is inconsistency between the tender regulation that defined EUR 200.000 as the maximum eligible cost and the LDS across the country that defined a considerably lower upper limit in conformity with the local characteristics. This again highlights the consequences of imposing standard measures for the regulation of locally defined development processes.

Furthermore, while about 70 per cent of the budget was allocated for Axis 3, the LEADER fund amounted only about 30 per cent of the budget for the current financial period. In addition, the settlements not eligible for support from Axis 3 expected to gain priority in the allocation of the LEADER fund. Consequently, the significant shrinkage of funds was anticipated to be accompanied by the congestion of applicants by the opening of the LEADER tender.

6.6 Conclusions

This chapter offered a detailed account of the data analysis results of the qualitative component. In particular, following the discussion on the methodology in Chapter 5.3, this chapter begun with an audit trail to present the evolution of the research in the context of actual data. The chapter then guided through a systematic data analysis process of the implementation of rural governance principles in the case of the Hungarian LEADER LAGs. The preparation of the LDS for the 2007-2013 financial period allowed for the examination of the patterns of participation. The establishment of the LAGs highlighted the patterns of integration and lastly, the first tender procedure of the period for Axis 3 of the EAFRD revealed the patterns of empowerment. The relationships in the data were illustratively presented by combining the network structure of codes with the initial conceptual framework.

Based on the patterns of integration, participation and empowerment of the LEADER LAGs in Hungary, factors influencing the organisational performance of rural governance organisations could be identified. The patterns of stakeholder integration have been explored through the establishment of the LAGs and the resulting organisational structure, relationships and dynamics. Sectoral integration has been examined through factors enabling and restraining cross-sectoral cooperation.

Considering the patterns of participation, the analysis focused on emerging themes in the preparation of the LDS from the transition from the previous tendering cycle through informal and formal planning till the selection of the groups by the Managing Authority based on the evaluation of the strategies.

The patterns of empowerment have been explored through the transfer of power to the LAGs, manifesting in the formation of power relationships, the distribution of power, and the resulting level of power dependence in the context of state-local interactions. The analysis of power relationships unfolded the local impacts of an unstable regulatory environment. It has been presented how constantly changing deadlines, regulatory deficiencies and overly bureaucratic requirements from the authorities' side constrained organisational efficiency and strategic planning. The examination of power distribution and the resulting level of power dependence unfolded the influence of the project appraisal

process on the directions of local development. The impacts on the selection results as well as the future consequences have been addressed.

In the next chapter, the concepts of integration, participation and empowerment will be analysed in the tourism context. In particular, the analysis will focus on how the view of rural governance policymakers on local integration, participation and empowerment in tourism influence their support for tourism development.

Chapter 7

Data Analysis II. Quantitative 'Support' Component

7.1 Introduction

Following the examination of governance principals in the context of organisational performance of the LEADER LAGs in the previous chapter, attention is directed in this chapter to the wider context of local development organisations – including the LEADER LAGs and three other networks responsible for local, area-based development – , in order to explore the relationship between participation, integration, empowerment and the contribution of tourism to overall community development, as well as the support of rural policymakers of these organisations for tourism.

It has been explained during the presentation of the hypothetical model of rural governance in Chapter 5.4.2.5, that in the rural context, community empowerment is interpreted as one dimension of integrated rural tourism. Thus, two constructs have been formed drawing on the literature: participation and integration, which are being employed as independent variables in multivariate statistical analysis. The dependent variables are the above mentioned contribution of, and support for, tourism of local development organisations. In this chapter the methodology and sequential stages of data analysis process are presented, including a critical discussion on the decisions made based on inter-term results and the unfolding characteristics of the data. In order to establish a strong methodological basis for this component, four pieces of the literature can be considered as cornerstones of the quantitative data analysis process: Field (2009); Hair, *et al.* (1998); Kent (2001) and Vieira (2008).

7.2 Exploratory data analysis

In order to identify and overcome pitfalls resulting from the research design and data collection, the steps of data screening suggested by Hair, *et al.* (1998), Field (2009) and Leech, Barrett, & Morgan (2005) were followed, including checking for errors, evaluating

missing data, testing the assumptions of multivariate analysis (in particular normality and homogeneity of variance) and identifying and handling outliers.

Some of the issues related to data screening have already been discussed in Chapter 5.2.7 dedicated to Internet-based data collection. Missing data could largely be tackled by designing an online spreadsheet and data collection process. The option in Google Docs' spreadsheet designer: 'Make this a required question' was used to warn respondents if a question had been omitted during completion of the questionnaire. This way the survey could only be submitted if all questions (except for the optional ones) had been answered. In the case of multiple-choice questions, checkboxes or scales, missing data could completely be evaded by this technique. However, open-ended questions could be skipped or scored out if the respondent typed any single character as an answer. Thus, missing data were found only in the socio-demographic data, specifically the age, length of residence and the region of respondents. In the latter case, the question could be voluntarily responded due to the anonymity of the respondents (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1: Data screening results

Missing data \ Network	LEADER Local Action Groups	Multi-Purpose Municipal Associations	Local Rural Development Offices	Network of Micro-Regional Coordinators	All
Age	-	2	1	2	5
Length of residency	-	1	-	1	2
Region	2	2	1	46	51
Doubles	4	4	1	2	11
Outliers	3	5	-	3	11
All	7	9	1	5	22

Considering that the issue of missing values did not affect the scale variables and that the missing values of age and length of residency are very low (0.7% and 0.3% respectively), these cases were excluded by the listwise approach. Consequently, only cases with valid values for all the variables used in the analysis were included. Although the missing values for the variable 'region' are considerably higher (7.7%), these cases were also excluded following the listwise approach, bearing in mind that the majority of missing values stemmed from the NMRC population, which affects the analysis on the regional distribution of the sample.

As mentioned in Chapter 5.2.7, various methods were used to identify recurrent patterns across cases and variables. First, Johnson, (2001)'s method was used to detect repeat respondents. Eleven cases of double responses were found which were received from respondents that had already completed the questionnaire once before. These double responses were not included in the presentation of the sample because these responses are, unlike incomplete data, not valid in any sense and should be excluded from the presentation of the results. Submissions were also screened for markers of non-responsiveness, in particular long strings of identical responses, but no such cases were found due to the variety of the themes and the convenient size of the questionnaire (Generally, several questions focusing on the same issue and long questionnaires are sources of such issues).

In order to test whether the data meet the assumptions of parametric tests, normality was checked through descriptive statistics. In case of the ordinal and scale variables, frequency distributions, mean, median and mode values, standard deviation and the skewness and kurtosis values were analysed. For testing normality, the skewness and kurtosis values were first analysed and in the case of high values, the z-scores were calculated and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was undertaken. Since most parametric statistics assume that the variables are approximately normally distributed, skewness values are important indicators of asymmetrical distribution. Field (2009) suggests that further these values are from zero, the more likely it is that the data are not normally distributed. Another standard method is to convert these values to z-scores by dividing them by their standard error. However, the standard error depends on the sample size, so when the sample size is big, significant values arise from even small deviations from normality (Field, 2009; Leech, *et al.*, 2005), which occurred in the present case. Considering the large sample size, the simple guideline of skewness $< +/- 1.0$ was used (Leech, *et al.*, 2005), combined with the visual inspection of histograms.

Similar to other analyses (e.g. Benson & Bandalos, 1992; cited in Vieira, 2008; and Vieira, 2008), the present case also revealed problems related to the departure from normality. Considering that only a few variables reached the commonly accepted limit ($+/- 1$) and that these cases remained close to the limit, they were retained for further analysis.

Skewed distribution arises from situations in which respondents' scores tend to concentrate around one or two values. In the present case, significant departure from zero

was observable in the case of education (an ordinal variable), which revealed very high skewness and kurtosis values, due to the overwhelming majority of highly educated people in the sample (See: Figure 7.4) However, this variable was not used as independent variables in the analysis.

Also, respondents in general highly supported tourism development and evaluated positively the contribution of tourism to overall community development (as it will be seen in Section 7.4.3). Subsequently, those few cases in which respondents had not supported tourism development, were recognised in the boxplot displays as outliers. According to Hair *et al.*, (1998) 'outliers are observations with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as distinctly different from the other observations' (p.64).

Although outliers are not inherently positive or negative phenomena, data must be scanned to identify and evaluate extreme cases because problematic outliers can seriously damage the integrity of the data. Nevertheless, a certain number of cases may occur normally in the outer regions of distributions and only truly distinctive and extreme cases should be designated as outliers and deleted from the analysis (Hair, *et al.*, 1998; Field, 2009). Through a careful examination of these cases, it could be concluded that these scores were not outliers but, considering the subject of measurement of the items, cases reflecting the variance in opinions of respondents and/or geographical differences. At the same time, the skewed distribution highlights the abovementioned major patterns in opinions.

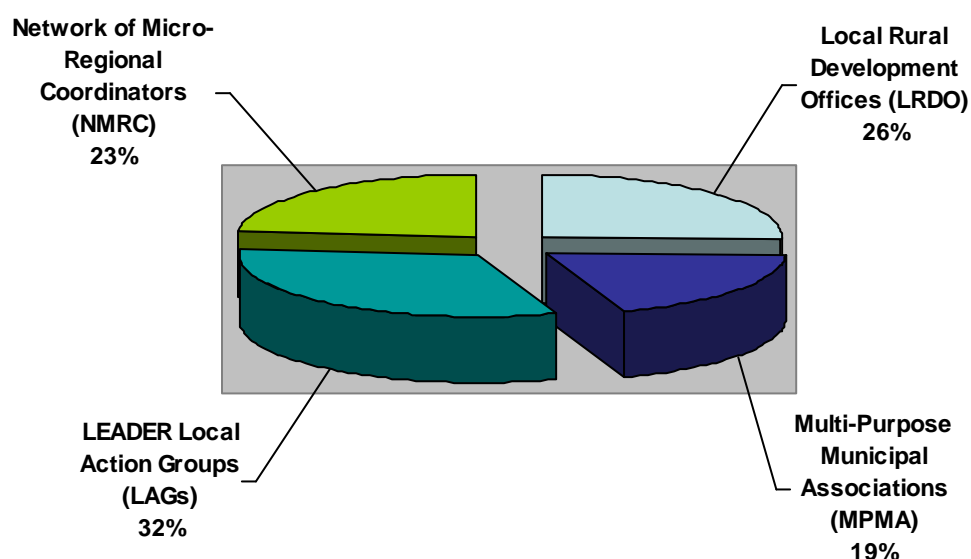
Although from the statistical point of view, non-normality suggests the violation of the normality assumption of parametric tests, Barnes, *et al.* (2001) argue that perhaps 'this issue is a non-issue from the beginning' because 'virtually no variable follows the normal distribution (cited in Vieira, 2008 p.158)'. In addition, according to Hair, *et al.* (1998), large sample sizes tend to mitigate violations of the normality assumption by reducing parameter estimates.

7.3 Socio-demographic characteristics of the sample

This section will provide information on the characteristics of the sample as well as a summary of the view of the respondents on the items measuring the variables based on frequency distributions, mean, median and mode values (when applicable).

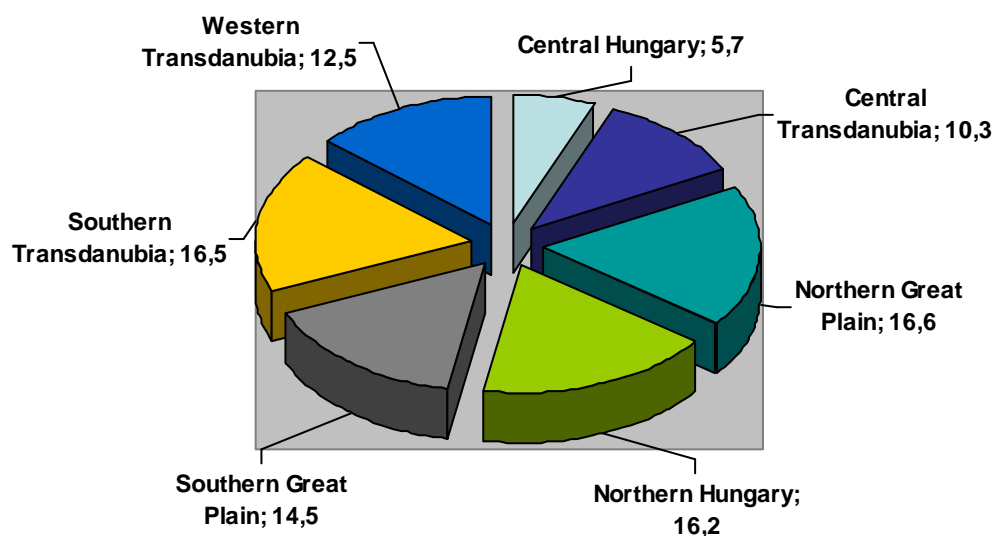
The group composition of the sample shows a fairly equilibrated distribution of the four networks (Figure 7.1). The smallest sub-sample is that of the MPMAs (N=125; 19%) and the largest is the LEADER LAGs (N= 212; 32%). The share of the NMRC is 23% (N=155), and of the LRDOs is 26% (N=170).

Figure 7.1: Group composition of the sample (N = 662 = 100%)



The regional distribution of respondents is presented in Figure 7.2. While approximately equal number of respondents participated in the research from most of the regions (12.5%-16.6%), the least number of respondents were from Central Transdanubia (10.3%) and Central Hungary (5.7%).

Figure 7.2: Regional distribution of the sample (%) (N = 611 = 92.3%)



The sample is composed of almost equal number of males (50.8 %) and females (49.2%). The age of respondents was measured by the actual age of the respondent, therefore six age ranges were later created for data presentation. As it can be seen in Figure 7.3, the majority of respondents were young (Mean=36.4), between 21-30 years (43.1%) and 31-40 years (26%) of age. All remaining respondents above 40 years summed up only to 30.3%, indicating that local and micro-regional rural development in Hungary is implemented by young, and as mentioned earlier, highly educated people.

This can clearly be seen in the frequency distribution of the education level of the respondents (See: Figure 7.4). 93.5% (N=619) of the respondents had either a College or a University degree, of which 3.9% (N=26) had had also Masters degree; 1.5% (N=10) had been taking a PhD course at the time of data collection and interestingly, 1.8% (N=12) had a PhD. Only 6.5% (N=43) indicated that the highest level of their education was secondary school.

Figure 7.3: Frequency distribution of the age of the respondents (%) (N = 657 = 99.2%)

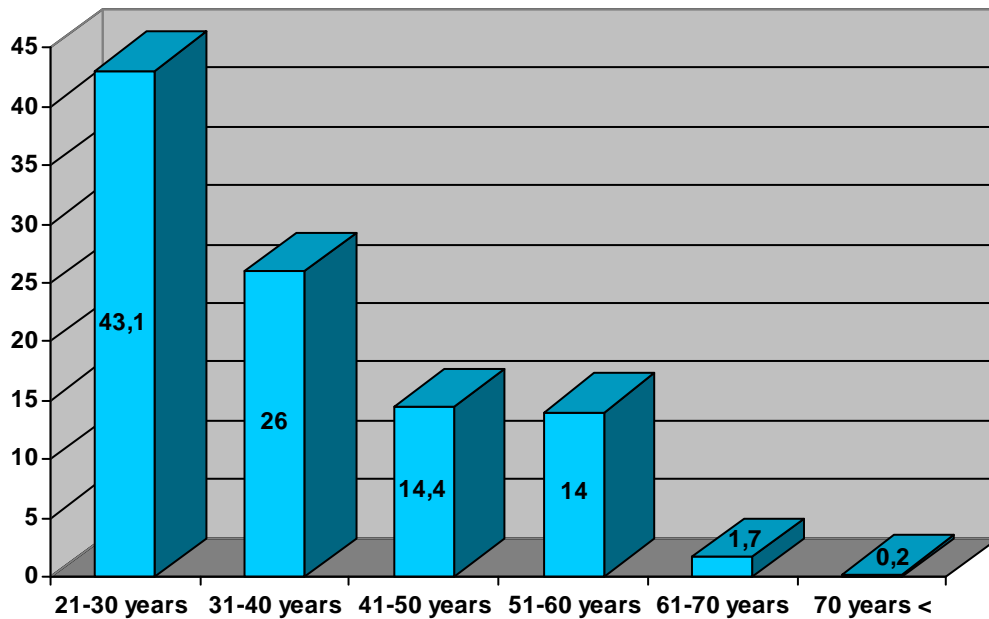
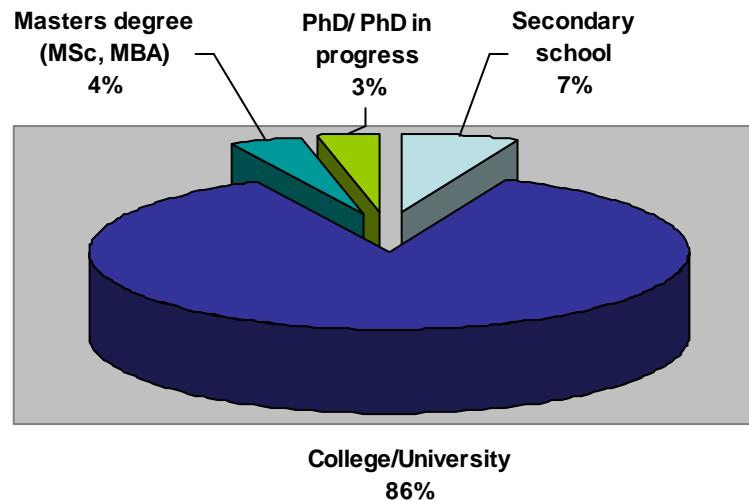
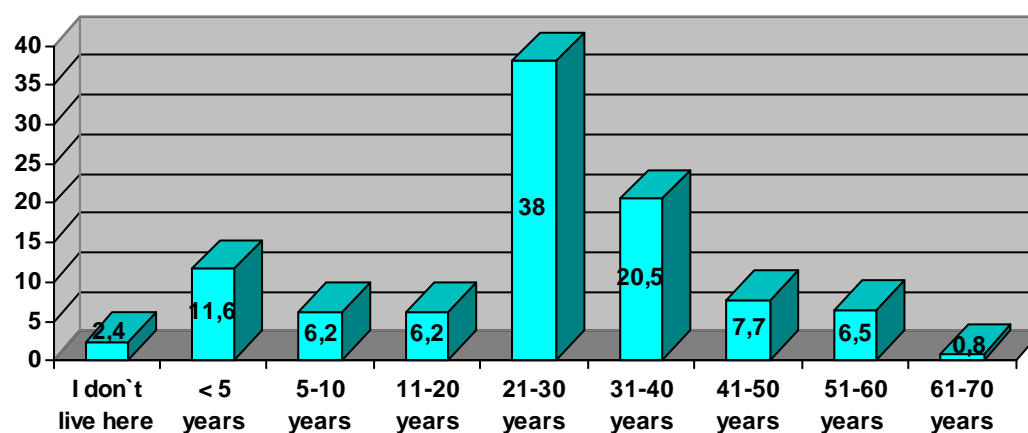


Figure 7.4: Frequency distribution of the level of education of the respondents (N = 662 = 100%)



The majority of the respondents had been born in the region (59.1%). The respondents' length of residency is presented in Figure 7.5. As it can be seen, only a small share of the respondents – 2.4% – had not been living in the area. The length of residency of the majority of respondents was 21-30 years (37.9%) and 31-40 years (20.4%).

Figure 7.5: Frequency distribution of the length of residency of respondents (N = 660 = 99.6%)



The descriptive statistics of the two ordinal and one scale variables of socio-demographics are summarised in Table 7.2. The education variable is presented in accordance with Figure 7.4, in which the categories 'PhD' and 'PhD in progress' have been merged for reasons of simplicity.

Table 7.2: Descriptive statistics of scale and ordinal variables

Variable	Mean	Median	Mode	Range	SD	Skewness	Std. error	Kurtosis	Std. error
Age (N=657)	36.4	33.0	30.0	56.0	11.23	0.86	0.09	-0.36	0.19
Education (N=662)	2.04	2.00	2.00	3.00	0.48	1.85	0.09	7.87	0.19
Length of residency (N=660)	4.95	5.00	5.00	7.00	1.72	-0.34	0.09	-0.15	0.19

Lastly, the membership in local non-governmental organisations also revealed a balanced distribution. Roughly half of the respondents were members of local NGOs (51.9%) while 47.1% were not.

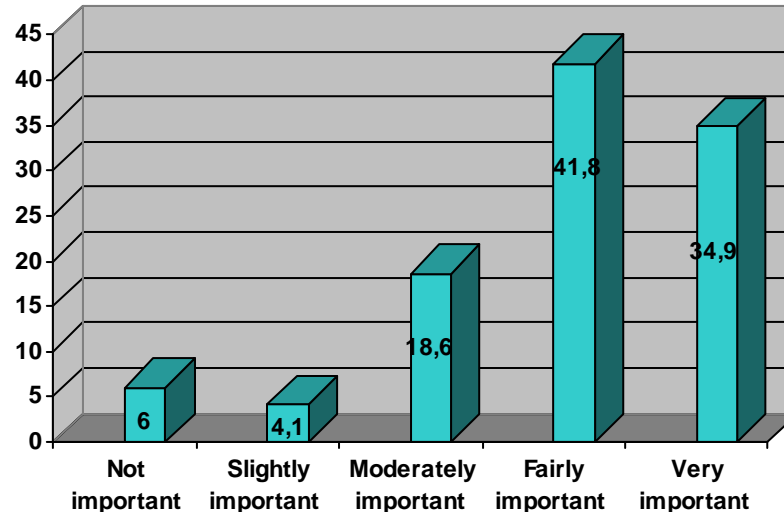
7.4 Descriptive statistics of the views of the respondents

7.4.1 Participation

7.4.1.1 Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)

The frequency distribution of scores of the LTDA items indicated that among the four variables, there is most agreement in the importance of tourism in the LDS/long-term vision of development (LTDA1). As presented in Figure 7.6, more than three quarter of the respondents (76.7%) indicated that tourism is fairly important (41.8%) or very important (34.9%). Opinions were very similar about the awareness of local problems and needs of tourism (LTDA3): 73.1% of respondents indicated fairly much (52.4%) or very much (20.4%) awareness.

Figure 7.6: Frequency distribution of scores on the importance of tourism in the LDS/long-term vision of regional development (N = 662 = 100%)



However, considering the influence (LTDA2) and the contribution (LTDA4) of their organisations, opinions were more moderate. Still, around half of the respondents indicated fairly much (43.5%) or very much (10.6%) influence on, and fairly much (36.7%) or very much (11.5%) contribution to, tourism development in their area.

The crosstabulation of these variables with group composition reveals that it was the LEADER group that gave the highest importance, influence and contribution scores as compared to the other groups. This is most evident in the comparison of the highest scores (rather than frequencies, considering that the LEADER group is the biggest), as it can be seen in Figure 7.7, 7.8 and 7.9. These figures show that the number of '5'scores is approximately double in the case of these three variables. This suggests that the LEADER network can be considered as the most influential on tourism among the networks.

Figure 7.7: Distribution of scores by group on the importance of tourism in the LDS/long-term vision of regional development (N = 662)

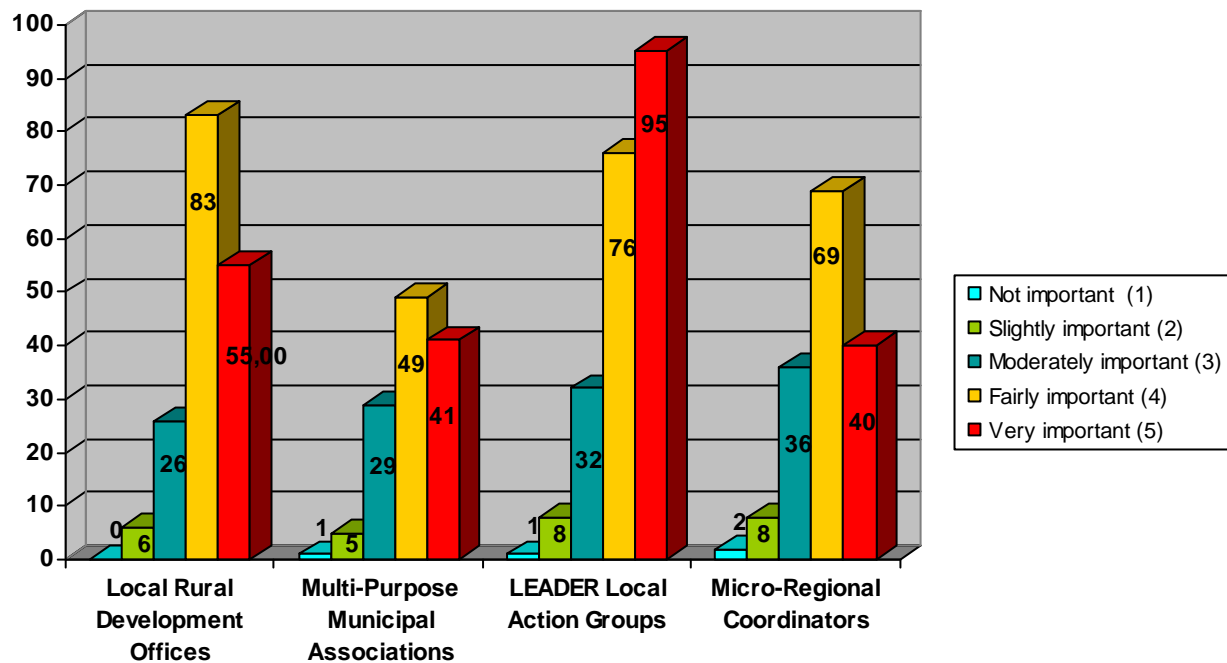


Figure 7.8: Distribution of scores by group on the influence of the respondents' organisation on the directions of tourism development in the area (N = 662)

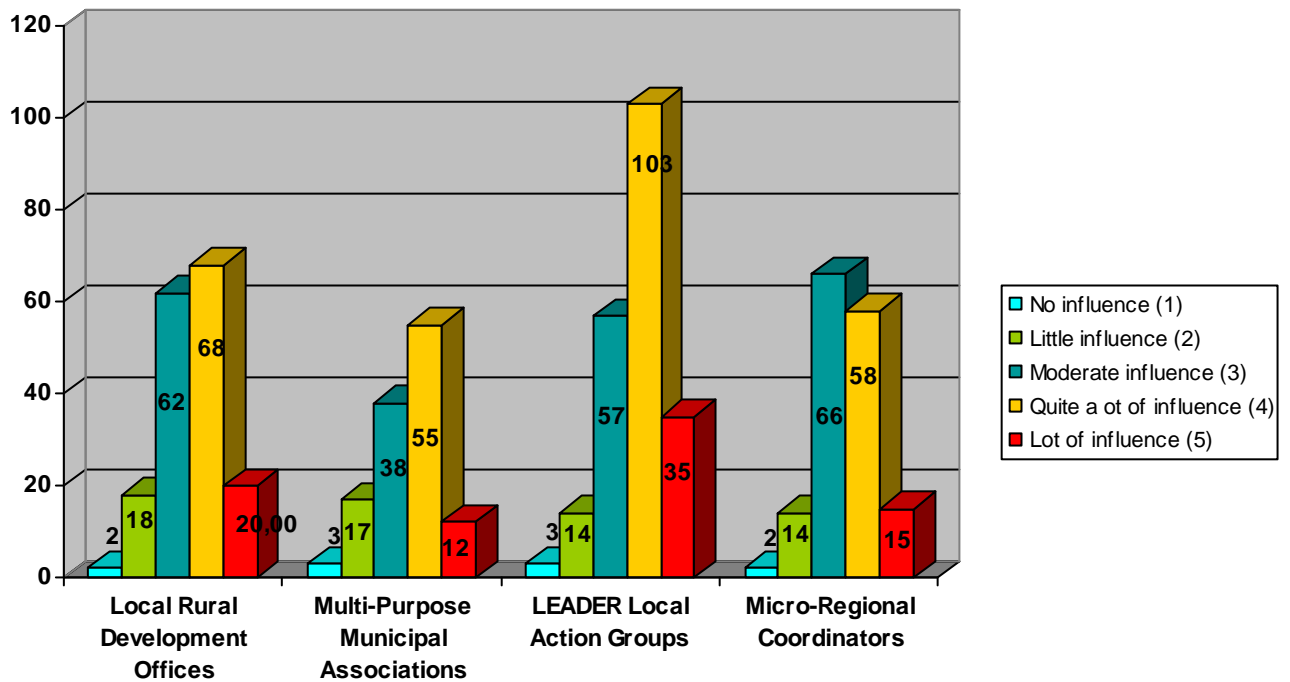
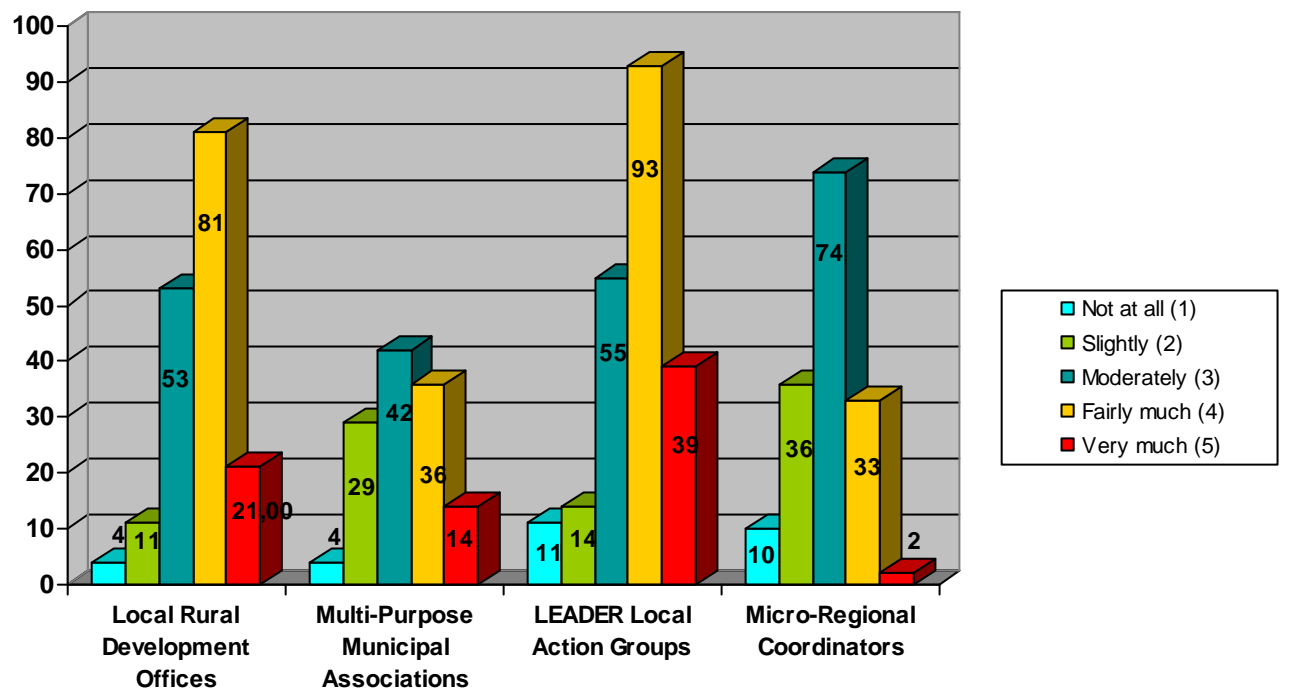


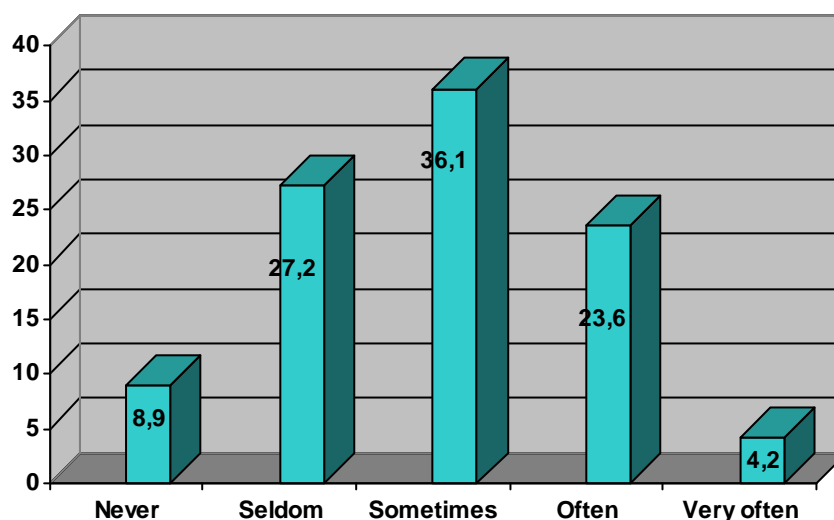
Figure 7.9: Distribution of scores by group on the contribution of the respondents' organisation to tourism development in the area (N = 662)



7.4.1.2 Level of involvement in tourism planning (LITP) and level of cooperation with tourism authorities (LCTA)

The involvement in tourism planning and management has been moderate, which could be seen by the majority of medium scores in the range of 2-4 given in general for the seven LITP and the three LCTA variables. For example, as it can be seen in Figure 7.10, respondents indicated that they were, in general, seldom (27%), sometimes (36%) or often (24%) asked by the local or regional tourism authorities to identify local needs and problems of tourism. This is reflected in the frequency of information exchange between the respondents and the tourism authorities, as presented in Figure 7.11. Participation in meetings and workshops (LITP2) was a bit more frequent: the majority of respondents indicated sometimes (35%) or often (31%) and only 12% answered with 'seldom'.

Figure 7.10 Frequency distribution of scores on the item LITP1: 'Local and/or regional tourism authorities ask us to identify local needs and problems of tourism' (N = 662 = 100%)



However, this type of distribution in the case of LITP4 (consensus) and LITP7 (conflict) highlighted that there is no clear consensus about the tourism development priorities between the regional tourism development strategy and the local plan/long-term vision of the local development agencies. The majority of respondents indicated that there is moderate (34%) or fairly much consensus (32%) as it can be seen from Figure 7.12. Furthermore, 20% indicated that the development objectives of the regional tourism development plan only slightly reflected the tourism development objectives of the local

strategy/development views, and the percentage share of the two extreme values is almost equal. Nevertheless, LITP7 (conflict) is a more skewed variable towards responses indicating little (44%) or no conflict (25%) (See: Figure: 7.13).

Figure 7.11: Frequency distribution of the frequency of information exchange with the local/regional tourism authorities (LCTA1) (N = 662 = 100%)

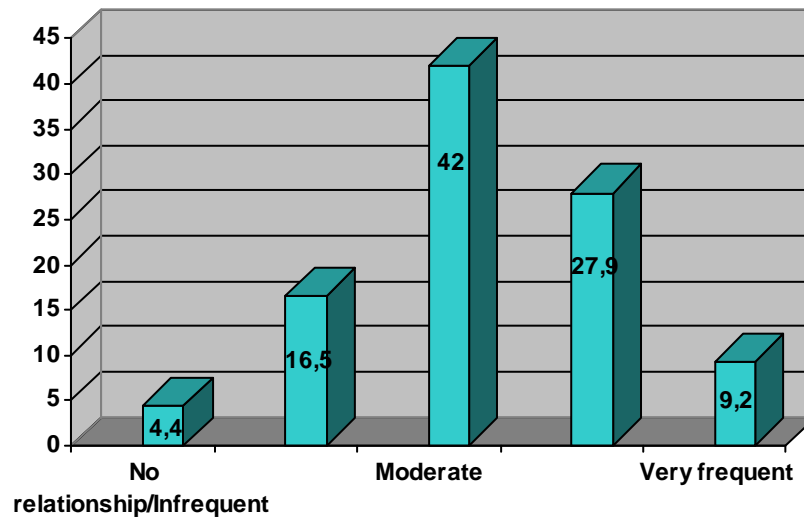


Figure 7.12: Frequency distribution of scores on the item LITP4 (consensus): 'Does the regional tourism development strategy reflect the organisation's LDS/long-term vision concerning tourism development in the region?' (N = 662 = 100%)

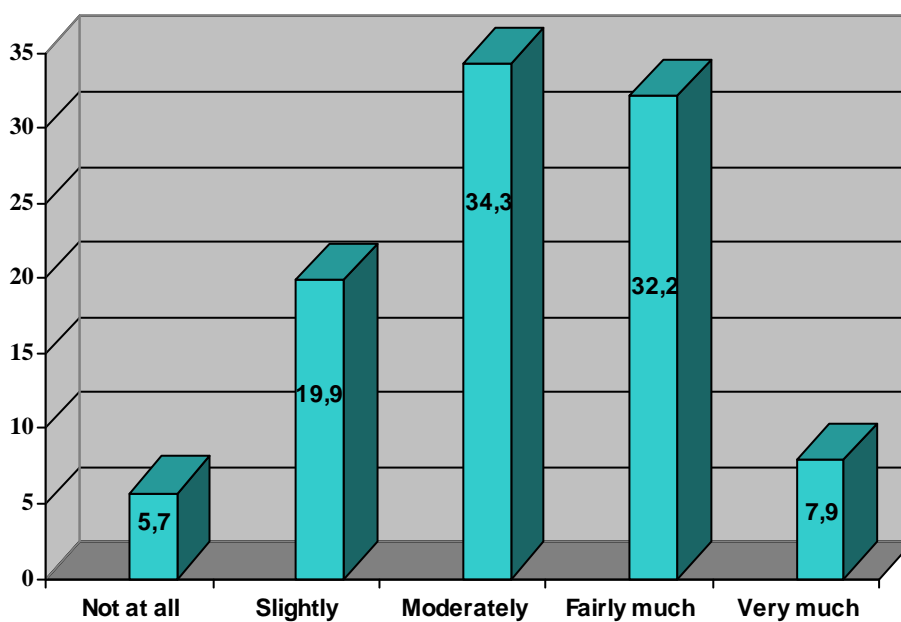
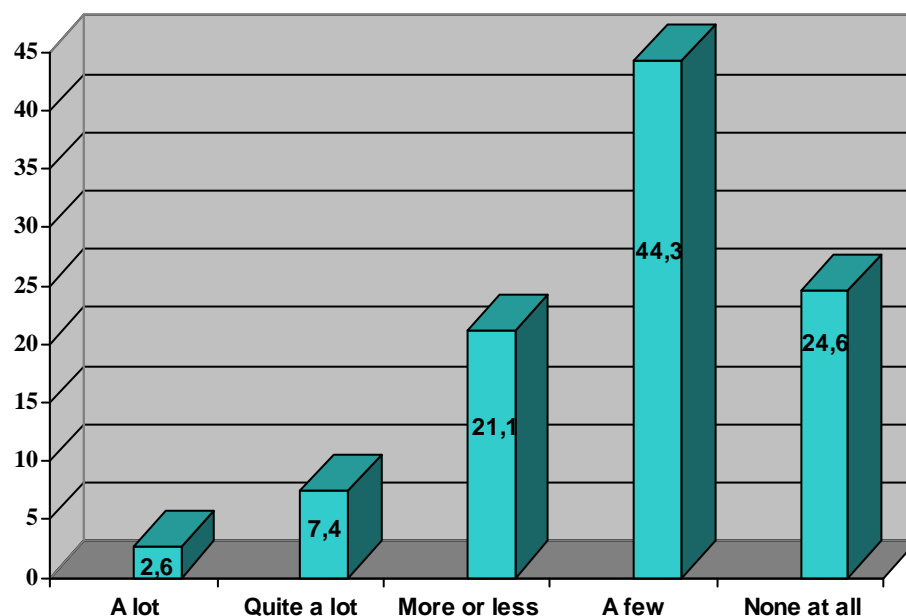


Figure 7.13: Frequency distribution of scores on the item LITP7 (conflict): ‘Are there any development objectives in the regional tourism development strategy that are in conflict with your organisation’s LDS/long-term vision concerning tourism development in the region?’ (N = 662 = 100%)



7.4.2 Integration

7.4.2.1 Level of Integrated Rural Tourism (IRT)

The frequency distributions of the seven LIRT items suggest that the level of IRT is moderate in rural territories of Hungary, which reflects the early stage of tourism development of these areas. This is further confirmed by the results of LIRT5 (growth) and LIRT6 (sustainability), with more than half of the respondents indicating that tourism has grown only slightly or moderately in the area and agreeing in that tourism does not damage, but possibly even enhances the environmental and ecological resources of the area.

The majority of respondents indicated that tourism is slightly (20%), moderately (33%) or fairly much (33%) embedded (LIRT1), thus opinions are quite dispersed. In terms of embeddedness (LIRT2), there is slightly more agreement in that tourism is fairly much embedded (38%). However, the share of respondents indicating ‘moderately’ is the same as in the case of embeddedness (33%), suggesting that there are natural, social and

cultural resources and human capacity potentially available for linking tourism more to the locality.

There is much agreement about the importance of sectoral (LIRT8) and stakeholder integration (LIRT9) in rural areas. About three-quarter of respondents expressed that the integration of supply elements and the establishment of public-private partnerships is fairly important or very important for the development of tourism in the area. The importance the LEADER LAGs but also the LRDOs attributed to integration is noticeable through the crosstabulation of the data in Figure 7.14 and 7.15.

Figure 7.14: Distribution of scores by group on the importance of the integration of supply elements through integrated projects or projects chains for tourism development in the area (LIRT8) (N = 662)

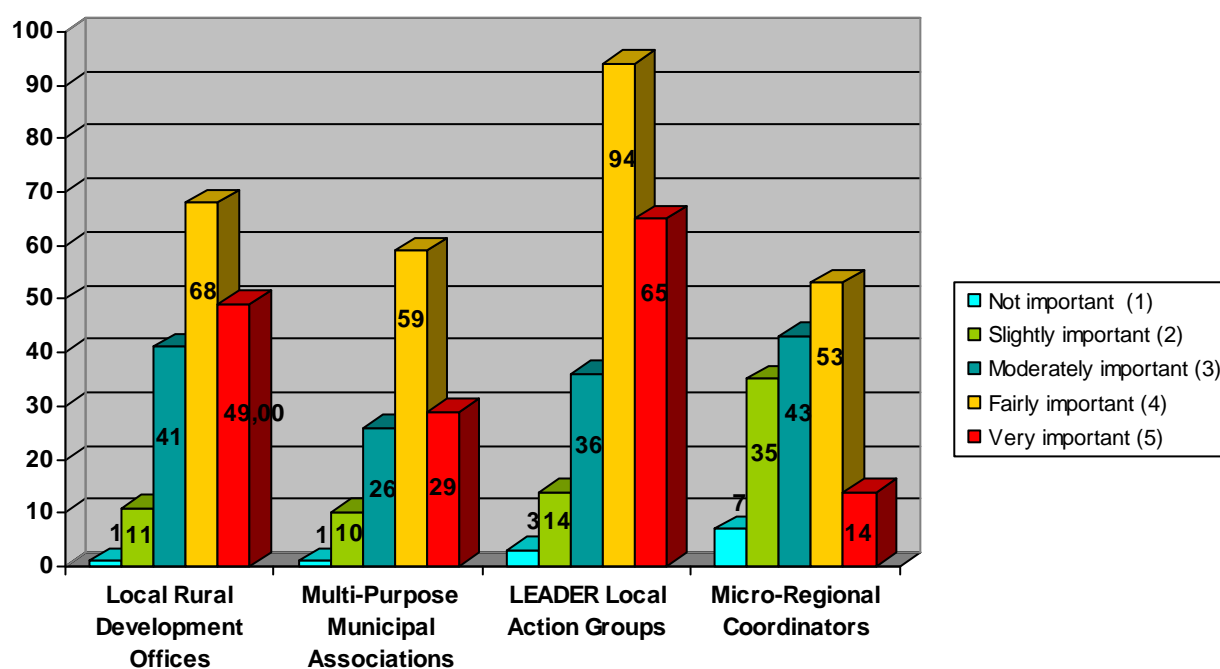
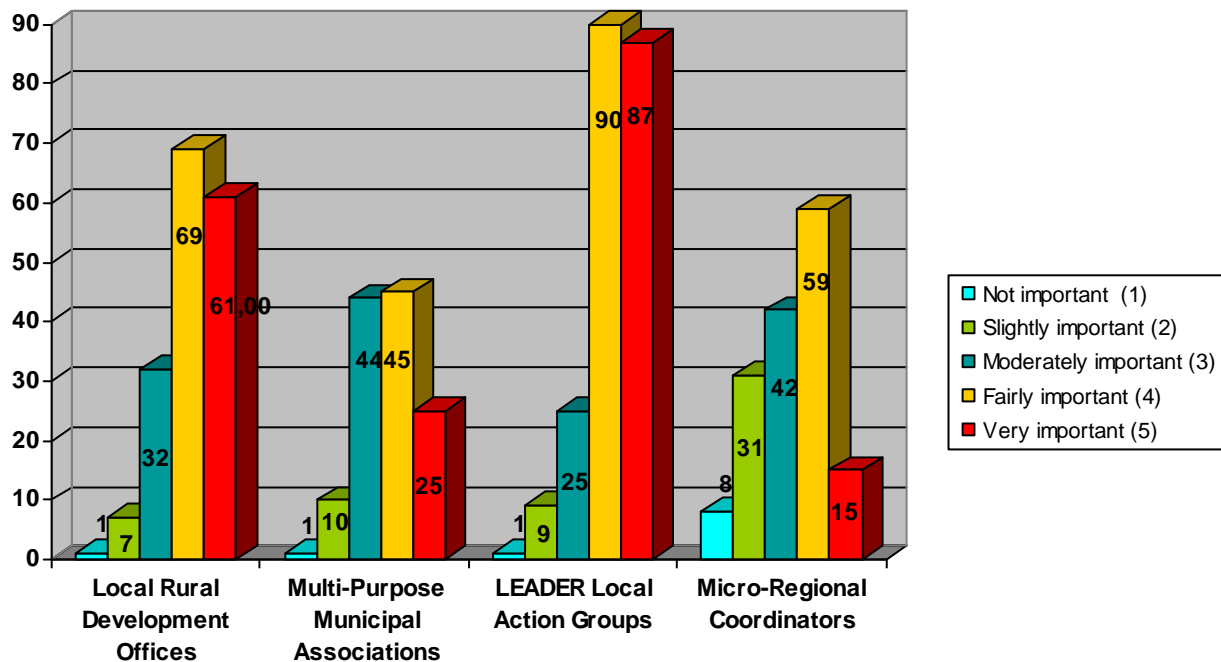


Figure 7.15: Distribution of scores by group on the importance of the establishment of public-private partnerships for tourism development in the area (LIRT9) (N = 662)



7.4.3 Contribution of tourism to overall community development and support for tourism development

As suggested by the visual inspection of the histograms, both the CONTR and SUP items are negatively skewed due to the generally favourable opinion and support of respondents for tourism. More than three-quarter of the respondents found the contribution of tourism to overall community development positive (Figure 7.16). Similarly, there was a wide agreement among respondents that tourism contributes with more benefits than costs to overall community development. Half of the respondents agreed, and 26% of the respondents strongly agreed with this statement (Figure 7.17).

The scores of the four SUP items showed a very similar distribution to the CONTR items. The overwhelming majority, three-quarter of respondents supported tourism 'fairly much' or 'very much' and expressed that it holds great promise for their communities' future, as presented in Figure 7. 18.

Figure 7.16: Frequency distribution of the scores on the contribution of tourism to overall community development (CONTR1) (N = 662 = 100%)

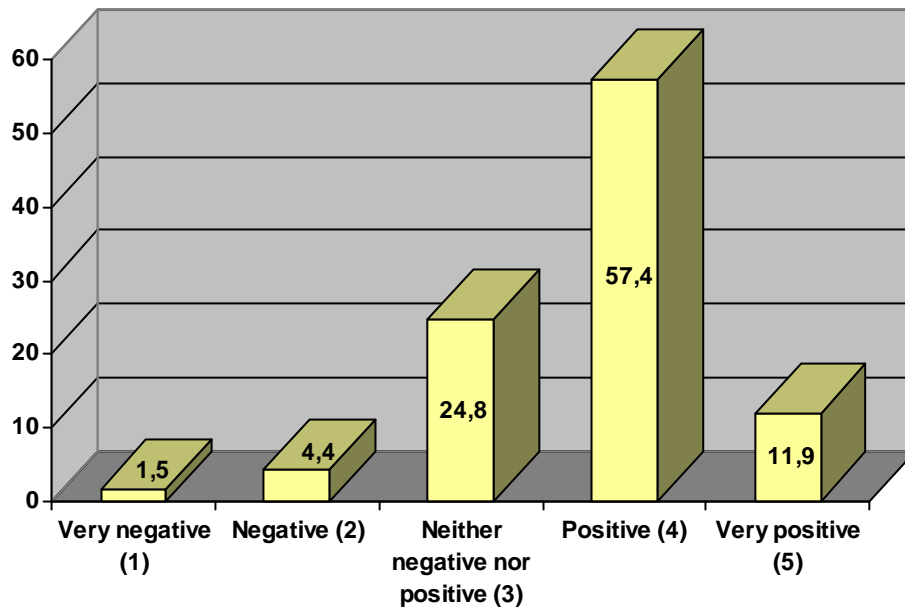


Figure 7.17: Frequency distribution of the scores on the item: Do you agree or disagree that tourism contributes with more benefits than costs to overall community development? (CONTR2) (N = 662 = 100%)

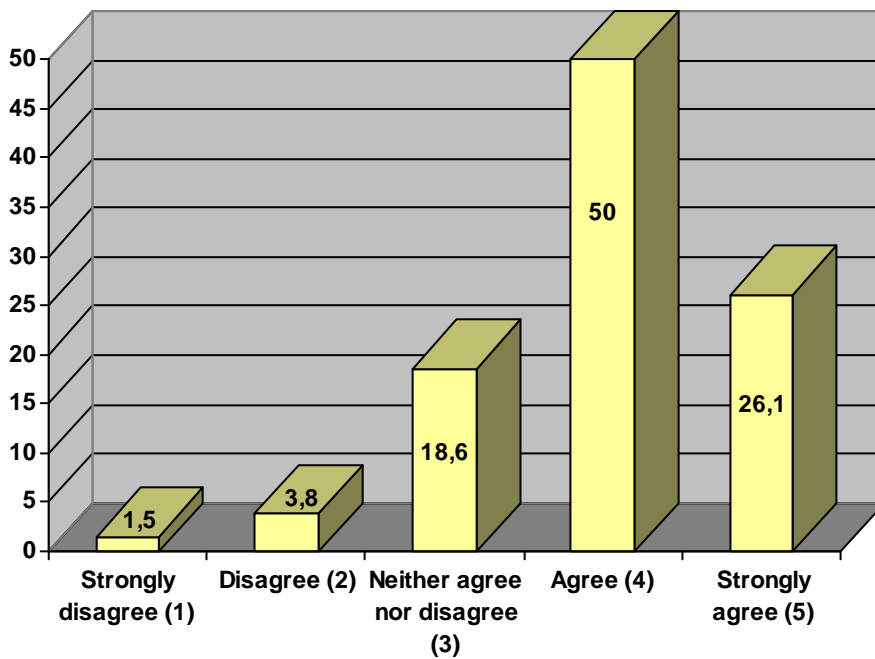
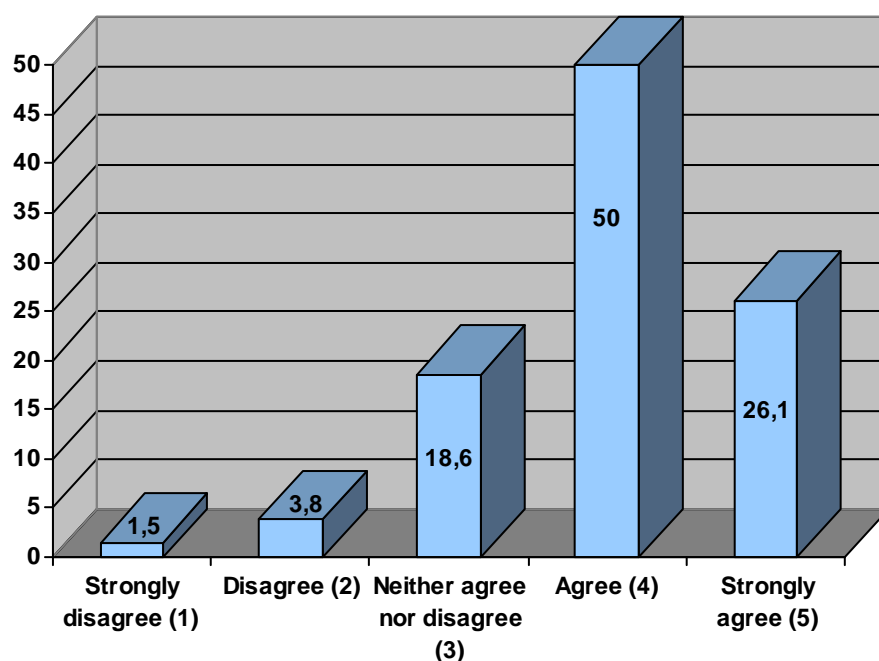


Figure 7.18: Frequency distribution of the scores on the item: 'Tourism holds great promise for my community's future' (SUP4) (N = 662 = 100%)



7.5 Assessment of the measurement model: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

The first phase of the evaluation of the measurement model was carried out using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). EFA was used first as a procedure for the identification of the structure of sets of variables and for measure purification. In accordance with Vieira (2008) and others (Bradford & Florin, 2003; Lankford & Howard, 1994) the extraction method used was principal components analysis (PCA), which is 'a data reduction technique for the identification of linear combinations of the items that account for the maximum variation possible (Iacobucci, 2001; Stewart & Iacobucci, 2001 cited in Vieira, 2008). Conceptually, the main difference between the two main types of EFA: common factor analysis and PCA, is that in the former, a smaller set of unobserved (latent) variables or constructs that underlie the observed variables is postulated; PCA, on the other hand, simply allows for the reduction of a relatively large set of variables into a smaller set of variables that still captures the same information (Leech, *et al.*, 2005).

Although the variables were a-priori clustered based on the proposed conceptual framework derived from the literature, PCA is a useful tool to identify the underlying dimensional structure without giving a 'heavy hint' to the computer as to how things should

turn out (DeVellis, 2003; cited in Vieira, 2008). Although theoretically sound, common factor analysis suffers from factor indeterminacy, which means that several different factors scores can be calculated from the factor model results for any individual respondents; thus, there is no single unique solution as found in component analysis, but the differences are mostly not substantial (Hair, *et al.*, 1998). The better interpretability has led to the widespread use of component analysis, and, despite the lack of consensus over which model is more appropriate, empirical results has demonstrated similar results particularly when the number of variables are high or the communalities exceeds .60 for most variables (Hair, *et al.*, 1998). In addition, the process of reducing a set of measures in order to define summated scales which are subsequently submitted to further relational analysis is a generally accepted procedure (Hair, *et al.*, 1998; see for example: Bradford & Florin, 2003; Gross & Brown, 2008; Teye, Sirakaya, & Sönmez, 2002; Vieira, 2008; Wang & Pfister, 2008).

The method of rotation selected was Promax, an oblique rotation, because it was believed that the dimensions were somewhat distinct, but not completely independent of one another (Bearden, Netemeyer and Teel, 1989; Parasuraman, *et al.*, 1988; Ruekert & Churchill, 1984, cited in Lankford & Howard, 1994). The basic difference between orthogonal and oblique rotation is that orthogonal rotation assumes that the factors are not correlated; on the contrary, oblique rotation allows for correlations between factors.

Hair *et al.* (1998) notes that realistically, only very few factors are uncorrelated, as in an orthogonal rotation. Allowing for correlations between the factors often simplifies the factor solution since many attitudinal dimensions in social sciences are, in fact, likely to be correlated. Unlike orthogonal rotation, the pattern matrix and the structure matrix are not equal after oblique rotation. However, only the pattern matrix need be examined since it allows for the easiest interpretation of factors (Rummel, 1970). The pattern matrices using oblique rotation are more interpretable than the orthogonal rotation solutions, with fewer variables loading significantly on more than one factor. While there are no specific rules regarding the particular orthogonal or oblique rotational technique, the choice should be made based on the particular needs or research problem (Hair, *et al.*, 1998). Orthogonal rotation should be used if the aim is to reduce a larger number of variables to a smaller set of uncorrelated variables, oblique rotation is preferable for deriving several theoretically meaningful factors.

Concerning the sample size, there are various suggestions in the literature. The present sample size meets all of these criteria for the analysis of the whole sample, as well as for the analysis of the four networks, also because PCA will be also used on each construct separately.

According to Hair *et al.* (1998), the sample size should be 100 observations or greater (p.98). This is in line with Guadagnoli & Velicer (1988), who suggest a minimum sample size of 100 to 200 observations. As a general rule, the minimum is to have five times as many observations as there are variables to be analysed. It is more acceptable to have a ten-to-one ratio, or, others suggest even 20 cases for each variable (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Tabachnick & Fidell (2001) cite Comrey and Lee's (1992) advise regarding the sample size: 50 cases is very poor, 100 is poor, 200 is fair, 300 is good, 500 is very good, and 1000 or more is excellent (p.588). They suggest a more conservative bare minimum of 10 observations per variable to avoid computational difficulties.

7.5.1 Participation

On the 14 items of the participation component, various iterations of PCA were performed in order to find the best factor solution. Hair *et al.*, (1998) suggest that several trial rotations may be undertaken, and by comparing the factor interpretations for several different trial rotations, the researcher can select the number of factors to extract, based on various considerations which are presented below.

On the first instance, the visual inspection of the correlation matrix indicated sufficient correlations greater than .30, which justifies the application of factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 1998). As an exception, LITP7 (conflict) revealed correlations values <.30 across the items. The Bartlett's test for sphericity ($p = 0.000$) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) (KMO = 0.918) were high and significant, indicating that factor analysis is adequate for this data. The measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) across variables were also found to be appropriate, considering that values below .50 are unacceptable (Hair, *et al.*, 1998). Kaiser (1974) characterises MSA in the 0.90's as 'marvellous', values in the 0.80's as 'meritorious'. The present values were all in the 0.80's and 0.90's and the KMO surpassed 0.9. The anti-image correlations (the negative values of partial correlations) had also been checked and the values were found to be low,

suggesting that the data matrix is suited to factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The determinant of the correlation matrix should be greater than 0.0001, because close-to-zero values indicate that collinearity is too high (Leech, *et al.*, 2005). In the present case this value is .003. The examination of the communalities indicated two low values: LITP6 (consensus) (.479) and LITP7 (conflict) (.340). Communalities below .50 indicate that the item does not have sufficient explanation regarding the underlying dimensions (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

The PCA with promax rotation identified a three-factor solution, with eigenvalues of the factors above 1 explaining 60.2% of variance. The visual inspection of the scree test confirmed this solution. For reasons of clarity, a conservative .40 factor loading was considered as a threshold value for inclusion (instead of the minimum suggested .30) and smaller values were omitted. This is because the larger the factor loading, the more important it is in interpreting the factor matrix (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

All items loaded significantly at least on one of the factors. Factor 1 comprised items of the construct measuring the level of involvement in tourism planning (LITP), accounting for 42% of variance (eigenvalue = 5.89). LITP5 loaded significantly on both Factor 1 and 2, but LITP7 loaded only on Factor 2. Factor 2 included the three items of the construct: 'Level of cooperation with tourism authorities' (LCTA), accounting for 10.8% of the total variance (eigenvalue = 1.51), and LITP7. Lastly, Factor 3 accounted for 7.3% of variance, and included the four items of the construct 'Level of tourism development activity' (eigenvalue = 1.02). The component correlation between factors was $r = .558$ between Factor 1 and 2, $r = .346$ between Factor 1 and 3, and $r = .361$ between Factor 2 and 3.

LITP7 is considerably different from the other variables as it measures the level of conflict. The low level of communality value raised the suspicion that this item was merged with Factor 2 not because of its qualities as a contributor to the underlying dimension of a theoretically different construct but rather it is an outlier in the factorial structure. Thus, the inter-item and item-to-total correlations were checked for Factor 2 items (LITP7, LCTA1, LCTA2, LCTA3¹) for internal consistency. Both measures revealed low values for LITP7, underlying this assumption. In addition, deleting LITP7 raised Cronbach's alpha from .786 to .859. For the above reasons, LITP7 was deleted from further analysis.

¹ LITP5 although was loaded on .415 level on this factor, it was also loaded on a higher level on factor 2 (.529), therefore it was not included.

Despite LITP6 having also low communality value and LITP5 loading significantly on two factors, they were not removed yet because the configuration of factors was expected to change after the elimination of the substantial impact of LITP7. Thus, the removal of variables was a step-by-step process.

As expected, after excluding LITP7, a two-factorial structure emerged, and LITP5 was loading highly and significantly only on Factor 1 (KMO = 0.915; $p = 0.000$; Total variance explained: 55.8%). However, the communality value of LITP6 remained below 0.50, and this time that of LITP3 became also lower than the threshold, suggesting their removal. The component matrix indicated lower and preferable correlation between the two components: $r = .454$. Thus, in the third iteration LITP6, and in the last, fourth iteration LITP3 was removed.

The final results of PCA with improved properties revealed a factorial structure formed by two factors with eigenvalues of the factors above 1 explaining 59.5% of variance. The visual inspection of the scree-test confirmed this solution. The KMO test (.898) and the Bartlett's test for sphericity ($p = 0.000$) was high and significant. The determinant value was again appropriate: .008. Factor 1 accounted for 46% of variance (eigenvalue = 5.05) and Factor 2 for 13.5% (eigenvalue = 1.48). The commonality values were all above .50 and no multiple factor loadings were present. The final factorial structure is presented in Table 7.3 and discussed in the context of scale validity.

Hair *et al.*, (1998) indicates that four commonly accepted forms of validity should be addressed: face or content validity, nomological, convergent and discriminant validity. Validity in general, is 'the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest' (Hair, *et al.*, p.118). With regard to nomological validity, that is, the degree to which a construct behaves as it should within a system of related constructs, the present study relies on theoretical underpinnings of the constructs as discussed in Chapter 5.4. Content validity was addressed in Chapter 5.5.3 in relation to the pre-test of the research.

Convergent validity refers to the degree to which two measures of the same concept are correlated. Thus, convergent validity of the variables was evaluated by examining if the questions loaded on the theorised factors. In the case of the 'Participation' construct, all items loaded highly ($>.50$) and significantly at least on one of the factors. The lowest loading value was .650 (Table 7.3). In order to establish statistical significance, the sample

size should be considered. Hair, *et al.*, (1998) suggest that a minimum .30 factor loading is necessary in samples comprising 350 observations.

Discriminant validity refers to the 'degree to which two conceptually similar concepts are distinct' (Hair, *et al.*, p.118). It should be examined at the variables', as well as at the factors' level. The rule is that variables should relate more strongly to their own factor than to another factor. Thus, while in the case of convergent validity the correlations should be high, here they should be low. By examining the pattern matrix, no significant multiple loadings occurred in the analysis of the sample. At the factors' level, the component correlation matrix indicated $r = .441$ between factors, which does not indicate multicollinearity.

Factor 1 was labelled 'Level of involvement in tourism planning and management' (LITPM) since it comprises 7 items from the two, formerly separated groups measuring involvement in tourism planning and cooperation with tourism authorities. Similarly, Factor 2, comprising 4 items, was named after the group 'Level of tourism development activity'. The results indicate that involvement in projects, programmes or other initiatives was the most relevant aspect of involvement in tourism planning and management. In terms of the level of tourism development activity, awareness of the problems and needs of tourism was found to be the most important aspect (as presented by the factor loadings in Table 7.3).

After assessing unidimensionality through EFA (i. e. that the items of the summated scale are strongly associated with each other and represent a single concept), the analysis proceeded to reliability tests of the scales. Internal consistency of each factor revealed appropriate levels of corrected item-to-total correlations ($>.50$) and inter-item correlations ($>.30$). The Cronbach's alpha values for reliability are above generally accepted guidelines ($>.70$) (Nunnally, 1978): in the case of Factor 1, Cronbach's $\alpha = .877$ and in the case of Factor 2, $\alpha = .783$.

Table 7.3: Principal Components Analysis for the 'Participation' construct

Variable	Factor 1 ¹ Level of involvement in tourism planning and management (LITPM)	Factor 2 ¹ Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)
LITP5 Our organisation takes part of, or assists projects, programmes or other initiatives together with the local and regional tourism authorities	.849	
LITP1 The regional and local tourism authorities ask us about the local needs and problems of tourism	.788	
LITP2 We participate in meetings and workshops together with the local and regional tourism authorities	.761	
LITP4 - The regional tourism development strategy reflect the core points of tourism development in the local development strategy of your organisation/your organisation's long-term vision of tourism development in the region	.748	
LCTA1 The frequency of information exchange between your organisation and the local and regional tourism authorities	.738	
LCTA3 The effectiveness of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities	.708	
LCTA2 The efficiency of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities in terms of the process of cooperation	.650	
LTDA3 We are aware of the problems and needs of tourism in the development scenarios unfolding in the region at this very moment		.865
LTDA4 - Our organisation and its activities has contributed to the development of tourism in the region		.826
LTDA1 The importance of tourism in our local development strategy/long-term vision of regional development		.808
LTDA2 Our organisation influences the directions of tourism development in its area.		.701
Removed items:		
LITP3 Ideas stemming from our organisation are incorporated in the tourism development strategy of the region		
LITP6 Local and regional tourism authorities share and discuss results of tourism development with us and ask for our feedback		
LITP7 - Are there any development objectives in the regional tourism development strategy that are in conflict with the local development strategy of your organisation/your organisation's long-term vision of tourism development in the region		
¹ – All values significant at p<.05; values <.40 have been omitted		
Explained variance	46%	13.5%
Cronbach's alpha	.877	.783

7.5.2 Integration

Following the methodology described in details above, the final structure of the 'Integration' construct resulting from two rounds of iteration will be presented next. Using the nine integration items for PCA, a factorial structure formed by two factors emerged (KMO=0.898; Bartlett's test for sphericity $p = 0.000$; Determinant = 0.18). The anti-image correlations were low and the MSA values were all above .50. As presented in Table 7.4, the total variance explained is 61.1%. Factor 1 explained 46.3% (eigenvalue 4.5), Factor 2 14.8% (eigenvalue 1.4). All factors loaded highly and significantly on one of the factors and all communalities indicated sufficient explanatory power of the items ($>.50$). One item, LIRT5 was removed for low communality (.484). The lowest factor loading is .588, which, according to Hair, *et al.* (1998) is considered significant.

Conceptually, the grouping of the variables provided by PCA is appropriate and explainable, in that Factor 1 incorporates items that measure the scale or extent of IRT (endogeneity, embeddedness, empowerment and networking), while Factor 2 comprise of items that measure the sustainable dimension of IRT (sustainability, complementarity, sectoral and stakeholder integration). The removal of LIRT5 may suggest that growth does not form part of the measurement of IRT. Accordingly, Factor 1 was named as 'The scale of IRT' and Factor 2 as 'The sustainable dimension of IRT'. The sustainability dimension is mainly explained by endogeneity, embeddedness and empowerment. The components are correlated at $r=.460$ level. The most important variables explaining the scale of IRT are sectoral and stakeholder integration.

7.5.3 Contribution

The two items constituting 'Contribution' were adapted from the Yoon, Gursoy, & Chen (2001) study, as mentioned in Chapter 5.4. Nomological validity of this scale arises from the above theoretical support. Convergent validity is provided by significant and high inter-item correlation values (.640, $p = .000$) which suggests unidimensionality, and discriminant validity will be evaluated in relation to the correlations with other factors. Reliability of the scale is as well acceptable ($\alpha=.684$). Furthermore, using a single measurement item as a dependent variable, as well as two items in a composite scale is a commonly used method (Bradford & Florin, 2003; Yoon, *et al.*, 2001).

Table 7.4: Principal Components Analysis for the 'Integration' construct

Variable	Factor 1 ¹ Scale of IRT (LIRT_SCALE)	Factor 2 ¹ Sustainable dimension of IRT (LIRT_SUSTAIN)
LIRT1 - Tourism of the area originates from, and is directly linked to, the locality through ownership and employment base, and forms part of the community's politics, culture and life	.835	
LIRT2 - Tourism of the area draws on the distinct geographical, socio-cultural, economic and environmental resources of the area, thus uses and adds value to its resources and to the community	.754	
LIRT4 - People in the area are able to work together in the locality to develop and manage tourism	.713	
LIRT3 - The communities of the area exert influence over the planning, management and utilisation of their own tourism resources through participation in decision-making	.664	
LIRT9 - Establishing public-private-non-profit partnerships for the tourism development of the area is:		.762
LIRT8 - The integration of supply elements through integrated projects (product chains such as wine or equestrian routes) for the tourism development of the area is:		.726
LIRT6 - Bearing in mind the negative environmental impacts of tourism, on the whole, tourism does not damage, but possibly even enhances the environmental and ecological resources of the area		.606
LIRT7 - Tourism provides benefits (through the utilisation of resources and facilities) also to those local people that are not directly involved in the tourism industry		.588
Removed items:		
LIRT5 - Demand and supply-side tourism activity of the area has grown in terms of its distribution over the past few years		
¹ – All values significant at p<.05; values <.40 have been omitted		
Explained variance	46.3%	14.8%
Cronbach's alpha	.829	.785

7.5.4 Support

PCA analysis on the four 'Support' items resulted in a one-factor solution (KMO =.808; Bartlett's test for sphericity $p = 0.000$; Determinant = 0.177), with appropriate correlation and anti-image correlation values. No low communalities or cross-loadings were found. Correlations between items are high and significant, and the MSA values are also appropriate. The total variance explained is: 62.4%, and the Cronbach's alpha of the factor is $\alpha = .850$.

Table 7.5: Principal Components Analysis for the 'Support' construct (SUP)

Variable	Factor 1 ¹ Support for tourism development (SUP)
SUP1 - I support tourism as having a vital role in our LAG	.874
SUP2 - I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in the communities of the LAG	.835
SUP4 - Tourism holds great promise for my community's future	.723
SUP3 - I'm proud to see tourists coming to see what my community has to offer	.670
¹ – All values significant at $p < .05$; values $< .40$ have been omitted	
Explained variance	62.4%
Cronbach's alpha	.850

7.5.5 Validation of the factor matrix

According to Hair, *et al* (1998), 'the most direct method of validating the results of factor analysis is to move to a confirmatory perspective and assess the replicability of the results, either with a split sample in the original data set or with a separate sample' (p.114). Other relevant and objective method is to use confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) through SEM. It has been presented earlier in Chapter 3.5.3.1 that in the literature, various studies use SEM, path analysis or regression analysis to test hypotheses based upon SET. However, there are studies that did not report on using either validation method in tourism (Kumar, Kumar, & de Grosbois, 2008; Teye, *et al.*, 2002) and in other areas as well (Bradford & Florin, 2003; Horppu, *et al.*, 2008).

In the present thesis, the samples of four sub-groups are readily available for validation and exploration of group differences in terms of underlying dimensions. Thus, a split-sample PCA analysis was undertaken on the four groups (LRDO, MPMAs, LEADER LAGs and NMRC). The final results of these analyses, obtained by following the detailed methodology described earlier in the analysis of the complete sample, are available in Appendix 6.

The emerging factorial structure in the four samples have generally appeared to confirm the initial conceptualisation and provided sufficient evidence on the validity of the scales across the four populations. The emerging factors reflect the initial theoretical assumptions and the factors identified in the overall sample.

In particular, across the four samples, the two factors of the 'Integration' construct (LIRT_SUSTAIN and LIRT_SCALE) and the single-factor structure of the 'Support' construct could be identified. In the 'Participation' construct, the two factors that emerged from the overall sample (LITPM and LTDA) replicated in the LRDO and in the NMCR samples. However, the 'Participation' construct appeared to reproduce a more differentiated structure and formed three underlying dimensions (LTDA, LITP and LCTA) in accordance with the initial conceptualisation in the MPMA and in the LEADER samples. In other words, the view of the latter two groups appeared to be more diversified regarding participation than that of the two former groups. This intriguing result may suggest that group differences indeed exist within the overall sample in terms of the underlying dimensions of the concepts, and that this difference lies between the networks directly linked to tourism with a planning competence (MPMAs and LEADER) and the advisory groups that lack planning competence (LRDO and NMCR). In order to explore the possibility of group differences across variables, summated scales were computed based on the PCA results of the overall sample and ANOVA analysis was used.

7.6 Summated scales

Summated scales are 'formed by combining several individual variables into a composite measure' (Hair, *et al.*, 1998; p.116.). They are used to represent a concept, and instead of using only one variable, the aim is 'to use several variables as indicators, all representing differing facets of the concept to obtain a more "well-rounded" perspective' (Hair, *et al.*,

1998; p.10.). Furthermore, 'the guiding premise is that multiple responses reflect the "true" response more accurately than does a single variable' (Hair, *et al.*, 1998; p.10.). This reflects the view of others: 'If the items satisfy the empirical procedures of construct validation, then the composite is potentially a more reliable and valid estimate of the latent variable of interest than any of the component single item responses' (Hunter & Gerbing, 1982; cited in Vieira, 2008). Summated scales are created by combining all variables loading highly on a factor, and the total – or more commonly the average – score of the variables is used as a replacement variable. There are two major advantages of using summated scales. First, is the reduction of measurement error by using multiple indicators to reduce the reliance on a single dimension. Second, is parsimony, which is achieved by representing multiple aspects of a concept in a single measure (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Vieira, 2008).

In the present study, scores of items pertaining to each underlying dimension that resulted from PCA were averaged to form composites to be used in the assessment of relationships between independent and dependent variables, considering that unidimensionality and reliability of the scales had been previously assessed and were proven adequate (Hair, *et al.*, 1998).

7.7 One-way ANOVA analysis

In order to examine whether group differences exist, one-way ANOVA was used. Levene's test of homogeneity of variances was significant for all variables except the SUP scale and the LITPM scale indicating that the assumption that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups has been violated, that is, the group variances are not equal. However, it is important to notice that large sample sizes influence the results of Levene's test, and small differences in group variances may trigger a significant test due to the improved statistical power (Field, 2009).

For the SUP scale and for the LITPM scores variances were found to be equal for the four groups $F(3, 658) = 0.13, p = .94$; and $F(3, 658) = 2.2, p = .08$ respectively. However, for the LTDA scores $F(3, 658) = 3.5; p < .05$; the LIRT_SCALE scores $F(3, 658) = 4.3; p < .01$; the LIRT_SUSTAIN scores $F(3, 658) = 3.9; p < .01$; and the CONTR scores $F(3, 658) = 7.8; p < .01$, the variances were significantly different in the four groups.

Thus, as suggested by Field (2009), the Brown and Forsythe F-ratio and Welch's F have been calculated, and as a post-hoc test, the Games-Howell test was used, which do not require that the assumption of equal variances be met. For the 'SUP' and 'LITPM' scales, the post-hoc test used were Bonferroni, Tukey's-b, in addition to Hochberg's GT2 because the four sample sizes are considerably different.

Results indicate significant between-group differences confirmed by multiple tests that have been used. The standard F-values of ANOVA are highly significant across the variables at the $p < .01$ level, except for the SUP scale, which is on the limit of significance ($p = .052$). The two robust tests provided the same results in terms of significance. The multiple comparisons highlighted the between-group differences per variable by group. The Games-Howell produced statistics in conformity with the Bonferroni statistics. Thus, only the former statistics are presented below in Table 7.6. In the case of the LITPM and SUP scales, the Bonferroni and Hochberg's statistics were also in conformity, thus for reasons of simplicity, only the latter are presented.

Table 7.6: Multiple comparisons statistics of one-way ANOVA between-group analysis

Dependent variable	Group composition (I)	Group composition (J)	Mean difference (I-J)	Standard error	p
LTDA (Games-Howell)	LRDO	MPMAs	,37029*	,08401	,000
		LEADER	-,03640	,06936	,953
		NMRC	,21836*	,06864	,009
	MPMA	LRDO	-,37029*	,08401	,000
		LEADER	-,40670*	,08511	,000
		NMRC	-,15194	,08452	,277
	LEADER LAGs	LRDO	,03640	,06936	,953
		MPMA	,40670*	,08511	,000
		NMRC	,25476*	,06998	,002
	NMRC	LRDO	-,21836*	,06864	,009
		MPMA	,15194	,08452	,277
		LEADER	-,25476*	,06998	,002
LIRT_SCALE (Games-Howell)	LRDO	MPMAs	-,24231*	,08815	,032
		LEADER	-,43074*	,08236	,000
		NMRC	,40626*	,08043	,000
	MPMA	LRDO	,24231*	,08815	,032
		LEADER LAGs	-,18844	,09669	,210
		NMRC	,64857*	,09505	,000
	LEADER LAGs	LRDO	,43074*	,08236	,000
		MPMA	,18844	,09669	,210
		NMRC	,83701*	,08971	,000
	NMRC	LRDO	-,40626*	,08043	,000
		MPMA	-,64857*	,09505	,000

		LEADER	-,83701*	,08971	,000
LIRT_SUSTAIN (Games- Howell)	LRDO	MPMAs	-,09553	,09190	,726
		LEADER	-,08509	,07582	,676
		NMRC	,64260*	,09035	,000
	MPMA	LRDO	,09553	,09190	,726
		LEADER	,01044	,08746	,999
		NMRC	,73813*	,10032	,000
	LEADER LAGs	LRDO	,08509	,07582	,676
		MPMA	-,01044	,08746	,999
		NMRC	,72769*	,08584	,000
	NMRC	LRDO	-,64260*	,09035	,000
		MPMA	-,73813*	,10032	,000
		LEADER	-,72769*	,08584	,000
CONTR (Games- Howell)	LRDO	MPMAs	,29929*	,07738	,001
		LEADER	,28765*	,07234	,000
		NMRC	,17078	,07747	,124
	MPMA	LRDO	-,29929*	,07738	,001
		LEADER	-,01164	,08381	,999
		NMRC	-,12852	,08827	,466
	LEADER LAGs	LRDO	-,28765*	,07234	,000
		MPMA	,01164	,08381	,999
		NMRC	-,11687	,08389	,504
	NMRC	LRDO	-,17078	,07747	,124
		MPMA	,12852	,08827	,466
		LEADER	,11687	,08389	,504
LITPM (Hochberg's GT2)	LRDO	MPMAs	-,42370*	,08880	,000
		LEADER	-,37402*	,07760	,000
		NMRC	-,17227	,08371	,217
	MPMA	LRDO	,42370*	,08880	,000
		LEADER	,04968	,08500	,993
		NMRC	,25143*	,09061	,034
	LEADER LAGs	LRDO	,37402*	,07760	,000
		MPMA	-,04968	,08500	,993
		NMRC	,20175	,07965	,067
	NMRC	LRDO	,17227	,08371	,217
		MPMA	-,25143*	,09061	,034
		LEADER	-,20175	,07965	,067
SUP (Hochberg's GT2)	LRDO	MPMAs	,17488	,09009	,277
		LEADER	,17782	,07872	,137
		NMRC	,20991	,08492	,079
	MPMA	LRDO	-,17488	,09009	,277
		LEADER	,00293	,08623	1,000
		NMRC	,03503	,09192	,999
	LEADER LAGs	LRDO	-,17782	,07872	,137
		MPMA	-,00293	,08623	1,000
		NMRC	,03210	,08081	,999
	NMRC	LRDO	-,20991	,08492	,079
		MPMA	-,03503	,09192	,999
		LEADER	-,03210	,08081	,999

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

What emerges from the examination of this table is that significant group differences can be found across the variables, in particular in NMRC and the LRDO samples regarding the independent variables. This is most notable across the two constructs of the 'Level integrated rural tourism' (LIRT_SCALE and LIRT_SUSTAIN), which is confirmed by the highest F value among the four variables (LIRT_SCALE $F = 33.9$, $p < 0.01$ and LIRT_SUSTAIN $F = 32.4$, $p < 0.01$), and LTDA, and most characteristic in the NMRC sample. Considering the CONTR and LITPM scales, some significant differences also occur. Finally, the Hochberg's statistics revealed that in terms of 'Support', no group differences could be detected. This is because, as presented earlier in the descriptive statistics, respondents were mostly in favour of tourism development.

In light of these findings the analysis will proceed to the relational analysis between independent and dependent variables. Taking into consideration the comparatively smaller sample sizes of the four groups, multiple regression analysis has been chosen.

7.8 Hierarchical regression analysis

In order to predict the contribution of tourism to overall community development and the support for tourism development from the combination of integration and participation variables, the hierarchical version of multiple regression analysis was used.

This method allows for the inclusion of predictors based on theoretical considerations (past research), the researcher's methodological considerations and the preliminary correlation results. It is important to note at this point that the causal associations are based on theory because correlation in itself does not imply causation. By combining correlational data with theory backing hypothesised relationships, regression analysis can provide evidence whether participation and integration determine local developers' support for tourism. As Jurowski (1994) explained: 'The assumption of causation is explained by Cohen and Cohen (1983) who assert that while correlation does not imply causation, causation manifests itself in correlation. Consequently, one can use correlational data to provide evidence of theoretically derived relationships' (p.19).

As opposed to hierarchical regression, the stepwise methods rely on the computer in selecting variables based on mathematical criteria. These methods have been criticised

for taking out important methodological considerations from the researcher's hands, and for taking advantage on random sampling variation which may result in over-fitting or under-fitting the model (Field, 2009). Furthermore, Leech, *et al.* (2005) note that stepwise regression capitalises on chance more than many researchers find acceptable.

Hierarchical regression, on the other hand, appropriately corrects for this problem. The most important considerations to be taken into account, according to Field (2009), are to (1) include any meaningful variables in the model in their order of importance; after the initial analysis, repeat the regression but exclude any variables that were statistically redundant the first time. (2) It is important not to include too many predictors; as a general rule, the fewer predictors the better. Thus, hierarchical regression combines the advantages of the stepwise methods and simultaneous methods and allows for a sophisticated analysis of results.

In the case of the 'Participation' construct, PCA analysis on the four sub-samples identified a factorial structure that slightly differs from the aggregated sample. Thus, summated scales were computed accordingly for the four samples, and regression analysis was performed separately on each sample. This method allows for further exploring and identifying the group differences that have been indicated by ANOVA.

The two dependent variables are analysed separately, and, in the case of the LRDO and NMRC samples, the mediating effect of 'Contribution' is evaluated by examining the extent to which the relationship between support, the level of tourism development activity (LTDA), the level of involvement in tourism planning and management (LITPM), the scale of IRT (LIRT_SCALE) and the sustainable dimension of IRT (LIRT_SUSTAIN) were reduced after statistically controlling for contribution. In the case of the MPMA and the LEADER samples, the same method will be used, but in the 'Participation' construct three variables: LTDA, the level of involvement in tourism planning (LITP) and level of cooperation with tourism authorities (LCTA) will be considered.

The technique suggested by Baron & Kenny (1986) as applied by for example: Lok (2001) will be used. This method suggest that four conditions should be hold to provide evidence for the mediating effect of the variable X1 between dependent variable X2 and independent variable Y. First, in a regression of X1 on a set of independent variables, Y has a statistically significant influence on X1. Second, in a regression of X2 on the set of

independent variables not including X1, Y has a statistically significant influence on X2. Third, in a regression of the independent variables including X1 on X2, X1 has a statistically significant influence on X2. Finally, the regression coefficient of Y for the predication of X2 is smaller in a regression model including X1 (case 3) than in the regression model not including X1 (case 2). If the inclusion of X1 in the model reduces the β coefficient of Y to a close-to zero value, X1 is said to totally mediate the relationship between Y and X2. If however, its value is reduced but a statistically significant influence remains, than the effect is partial mediation.

In all models, socio-demographic data were included based on indications from the literature, particularly Wang & Pfister (2008). However, only continuous or dichotomous/dummy variables can be used, therefore five variables: the age of respondents, the length of residency, born in the area, gender and membership in local civic organisations were employed as potential predictors suggested by the literature. Except education, these variables were all used in the Wang & Pfister (2008) study. However, the ordinal variable measuring education was not converted to a dummy variable and included here because of being heavily skewed as it could be seen from Table 7.2.

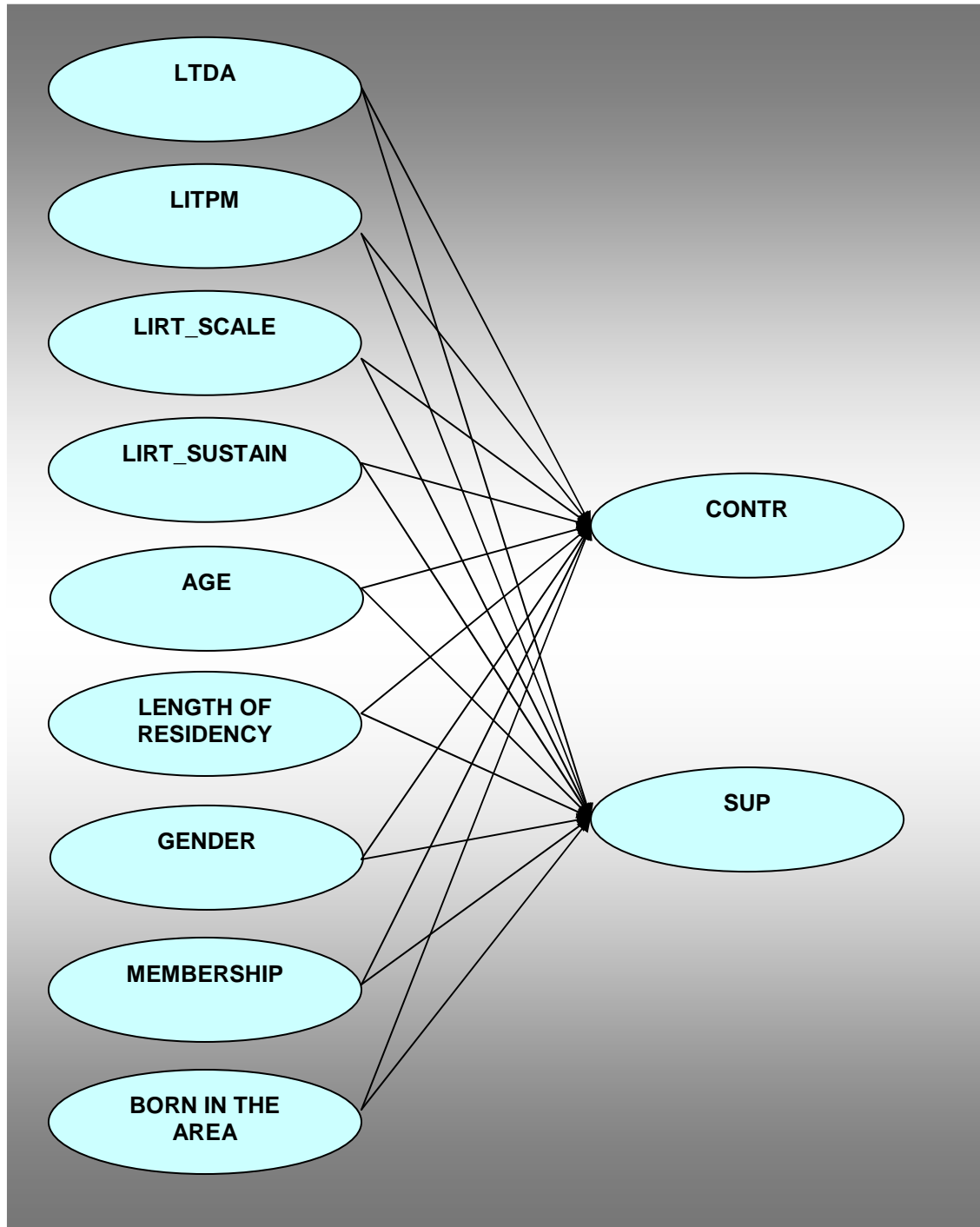
According to Bartlett, Kotrlik & Higgins (2001), to use multiple regression analysis, the ratio of observations to independent variables should not fall below five. Considering that summated scales are used, the bare minimum observations needed here are 50 for the maximum of 10 variables used in the LRDO and the NMRC samples. Others, including Cohen, *et al.* (2003), claim a more conservative ratio of ten to one. Nevertheless, 100 observations is still below the number of observations in the smallest sample (MPMA; N = 125).

7.8.1 The LRDO sample

Based on the results of factor analysis run separately on the LRDO sample, two underlying dimensions have emerged from the 'Participation' construct and two from the 'Integration' construct, thereby confirming the analysis of the aggregated sample (See the results of factor analysis on the LRDO sample in Appendix 6). The variables and the relationships of the model are presented in Figure 7.19. Since the same structure emerged

in the case of the NMRC sample, this model has been used for the analysis of both the LRDO and the NMRC samples.

Figure 7.19: Hypothetical model of relationships between variables measuring participation, integration, contribution and support in the LRDO and NMRC samples



The means and standard deviations of the continuous variables are presented in Table 7.7. The highest means pertain to SUP, CONTR and LTDA, while the lowest to LITPM. In order to test the direction and strength of the linear relationship between variables, Pearson's correlation was used (Table 7.8). The interpretation of the results follows the criteria established by Cohen (1988).

Table 7.7: Means and standard deviations of the continuous variables in the LRDO sample

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
LTDA	3,8103	,62703	170
LITPM	2,9368	,78059	170
LIRT_SCALE	3,1868	,67776	170
LIRT_SUST	3,8265	,74582	170
CONTR	4,0353	,59727	170
SUP	4,2309	,72263	170
Age	35,8107	11,13444	169
Length of residency	3,1124	1,42023	169

Table 7.8: Correlations between variables in the LRDO sample

	LTDA	LITPM	LIRT_SCALE	LIRT_SUSTAIN	AGE	LENGTH OF RESIDENCY	CONTR	SUP
LTDA	1	,484**	,250**	,274**	,093	-,037	,310**	,328**
		,000	,001	,000	,227	,635	,000	,000
LITPM	,484**	1	,296**	,295**	,121	,034	,321**	,250**
	,000		,000	,000	,117	,662	,000	,001
LIRT_SCALE	,250**	,296**	1	,432**	-,222**	-,098	,313*	,250*
	,001	,000		,001	,004	,205	,005	,005
LIRT_SUSTAIN	,274**	,295**	,432**	1	-,027	-,032	,399**	,429**
	,000	,000	,001		,724	,681	,000	,000
AGE¹	,093	,121	-,222**	-,027	1	,496*	-,121	,112
	,227	,117	,004	,724		,005	,118	,149
LENGTH OF RESIDENCY¹	-,037	,034	-,098	-,032	,496*	1	-,005	,054
	,635	,662	,205	,681	,005		,951	,487
CONTR	,310**	,321**	,313*	,399**	-,121	-,005	1	,548**
	,000	,000	,005	,000	,118	,951		,000
SUP	,328**	,250**	,250*	,429**	,112	,054	,548**	1
	,000	,001	,005	,000	,149	,487	,000	

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

a. Listwise N=170 except: ¹ 169; Sig. (2-tailed)

Concerning the dependent variables, CONTR and SUP are highly correlated ($r = .548$, $p < 0.001$). However, neither this value, nor the correlations between predictors approach the threshold value for multicollinearity ($r = .80$) (Hair, *et al.*, 1998). High correlations between dependent and independent variables are first indicators of causal relationships in the overall construct. While no high correlations can be found, LIRT_SUST is correlated with CONTR and SUP at a moderate level ($r = .399$ and $r = .429$, respectively; $p < .001$). Further, low and moderate correlations can be found between LTDA, LITM, LIRT_SCALE and the dependent variables. However, there are no significant correlations between the socio-demographic data and contribution and support.

Since the correlation results indicate differences between the contribution of the variables to the prediction of the dependent variables, hierarchical regression was used to control for LIRT_SUST in the two regression models of CONTR and SUP to see if the other variables significantly add anything to the prediction over and above what the level of sustainability in IRT contributes. Thus, in the first step LIRT_SUST, in the second step the block of LTDA, LITM and LIRT_SCALE, and as the last step, the five socio-demographic variables entered the regression.

The Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) and the tolerance values were checked for multicollinearity, and in general the values were found to be appropriate in accordance with the indications of Field (2009) and Leech, *et al.* (2005), except for length of residency and born in the area which had low tolerance values. In particular, Field (2009) suggests that a value of 10 and above for VIF, and value below 0.1 for tolerance should be considered as thresholds. Furthermore, if the average VIF is greater than 1, multicollinearity may be biasing the regression model. According to Leech, *et al.* (2005), the tolerance values should remain below $1 - R^2$.

Independent errors were checked by the Durbin-Watson test, which tests for serial correlations between errors (Field, 2009). The value of 2 means that residuals are uncorrelated; values less than 1 and greater than 3 are considered as thresholds. In the present case this value is 1.86, which is within the above acceptable range.

The model statistics of the three steps are summarised in Table 7.9. It can be seen that by entering alone in the first step, LIRT_SUST alone explained 15.4% of variance in contribution ($\text{Adj. } R^2 = .154$), and the ANOVA statistics indicate that LIRT_SUST is a

significant predictor of contribution $F(1, 166) = 31.76, p < 0.01$. Indeed, this is confirmed by its high and significant beta value ($\beta = .399, p < 0.01$). However, F_{change} after entering the remaining variables in the second step ($F(3, 163) = 2.53, p = 0.01$) and in the third step ($F(2, 161) = 0.56, p = 124$) is very low, and the latter value is not significant, indicating that the second and third models are worse than the first. Thus, the contribution of the other variables to the prediction, especially in the third model, is practically indifferent.

Table 7.9: Summary of model statistics of the first round of hierarchical regression analysis involving three steps on contribution in the LRDO sample

Model	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R ² change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change	
1	,399 ^a	,159	,154	,52091	,159	31,762	1	166	,000	
2	,443 ^b	,196	,176	,50127	,037	2,531	3	163	,001	
3	,459 ^c	,210	,165	,49789	,014	0,564	2	161	,124	1,861

a. Predictors: (Constant), LIRT_SUST

b. Predictors: (Constant), LIRT_SUST, LIRT_SCALE, LTDA, LITPM

c. Predictors: (Constant), LIRT_SUST, LIRT_SCALE, LTDA, LITPM, Length of residency, Gender, Membership, Age, Born in the area

d. Dependent Variable: CONTR

Based on these results, length of residency and born in the area were removed from the third step of hierarchical regression due to possible biases caused by multicollinearity and lack of significance, and LTDA as well due to lack of significance. Other variables exhibiting close to significant values were retained, because the removal of variables with potential biasing effect and/or lack of significance may improve the results of other variables. In the following rounds, LITPM, gender, age and LIRT_SCALE have been removed, also due to lack of significance, until only the variables with significant t-values remained.

The final model, explaining 19.4% of variance in presented in Table 7. 10. The R² value is .204, which is equivalent to an effect size of $f^2 = 0.25$. This value, according to Cohen (1988) is a medium effect. There are two variable contributing to explaining contribution of tourism to overall community development is the sustainable dimension of IRT ($\beta = .331$,

$p < .001$). Small but significant contribution is given by membership in civic organisations ($\beta = .225$, $p = .001$).

Table 7.10: Regression analysis of independent variables on contribution in the LRDO sample

Contribution of tourism to overall community development Model statistics: $R = .452$; $R^2 = .204$; Adj. $R^2 = .194$ (Wherry's); $.180$ (Stein's) $F(2, 166) = 21.39$, $p < 0.01$	Beta	t-statistic	ρ	Collinearity statistics	
				Tolerance	VIF
The sustainable dimension of IRT (LIRT_SUST)	.331	6.587	.000	.931	1.074
Membership in local civic organisations (Membership)	.225	3.522	.001	.975	1.026

The adjusted R^2 value is very close to the unadjusted R^2 value, the difference is $.204 - .194 = 0.01$, about 1%. This shrinkage means that if the model were derived from the population rather than a sample, it would account for approximately 1% less variance in the outcome (Field, 2009). This is because, the R^2 value informs about how much variance in a dependent variable is accounted for by the regression model *from our sample*, and the adjusted value indicates how much variance would be accounted for *if the model had been derived from the population from which the sample was taken* (Field, 2009).

The adjusted R^2 gives information about how well the model generalises using Wherry's equation (Eq. 1.1). This equation has been criticised for failing to inform about how well the regression model would predict an entirely different set of data. Thus, in addition to Wherry's formula, the adjusted R^2 was also calculated by using Stein's formula as suggested by Field (2009) (Eq. 1.2), to cross-validate the model. The resulting value (.180) is close to the observed value (.204), (the difference is: 0.024), indicating that the cross validity of this model is good.

$$\text{Adjusted } R^2 = 1 - \frac{(1 - R^2)(n - 1)}{n - k - 1} \quad (\text{Eq. 1. 1})$$

$$\text{Adjusted } R^2 = 1 - \left[\left(\frac{n - 1}{n - k - 1} \right) \left(\frac{n - 2}{n - k - 2} \right) \left(\frac{n + 1}{n} \right) \right] (1 - R^2) \quad (\text{Eq. 1. 2})$$

(n = sample size; k = number of predictors)

In the next step, 'Support' has been used as the dependent variable. Following the same methodology as described above, variables entered hierarchical regression in three steps

in the same order as in the case of 'Contribution'. LIRT_SUST alone explained 18% of variance in 'Support' ($R = 429$; $R^2 = 0.184$; adj. $R^2 = 0.179$; $F = 37.89$, $p < .001$). However, the contribution of the other variables was small in this model too; this was predictable considering the high correlation between 'Contribution' and 'Support'. After removing all variables lacking significant beta coefficients, the final model included LIRT_SUST, LTDA and Membership, explaining 21.8% of variance in support for tourism development (See: Table 7.11). The difference between Wherry's and Stein's adj. R^2 is: 0.019, thus the cross-validity of the model is acceptable. The R^2 value is .232, which is equivalent to $f^2 = .302$. This is, according to Cohen (1988) a medium effect.

Table 7.11: Regression analysis of independent variables on support in the LRDO sample

Support for tourism development Model statistics: $R=.482$; $R^2=.232$; Adj. $R^2=.218$ (Wherry's); .199 (Stein's); $F(3, 166)=16.71$, $p<0.01$	Beta	t-statistic	p	Collinearity statistics	
				Tolerance	VIF
The sustainable dimension of IRT (LIRT_SUST)	,356	7,707	,000	,925	1,081
Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)	,162	2,478	,014	,897	1,114
Membership in local civic organisations	,167	2,655	,009	,967	1,034

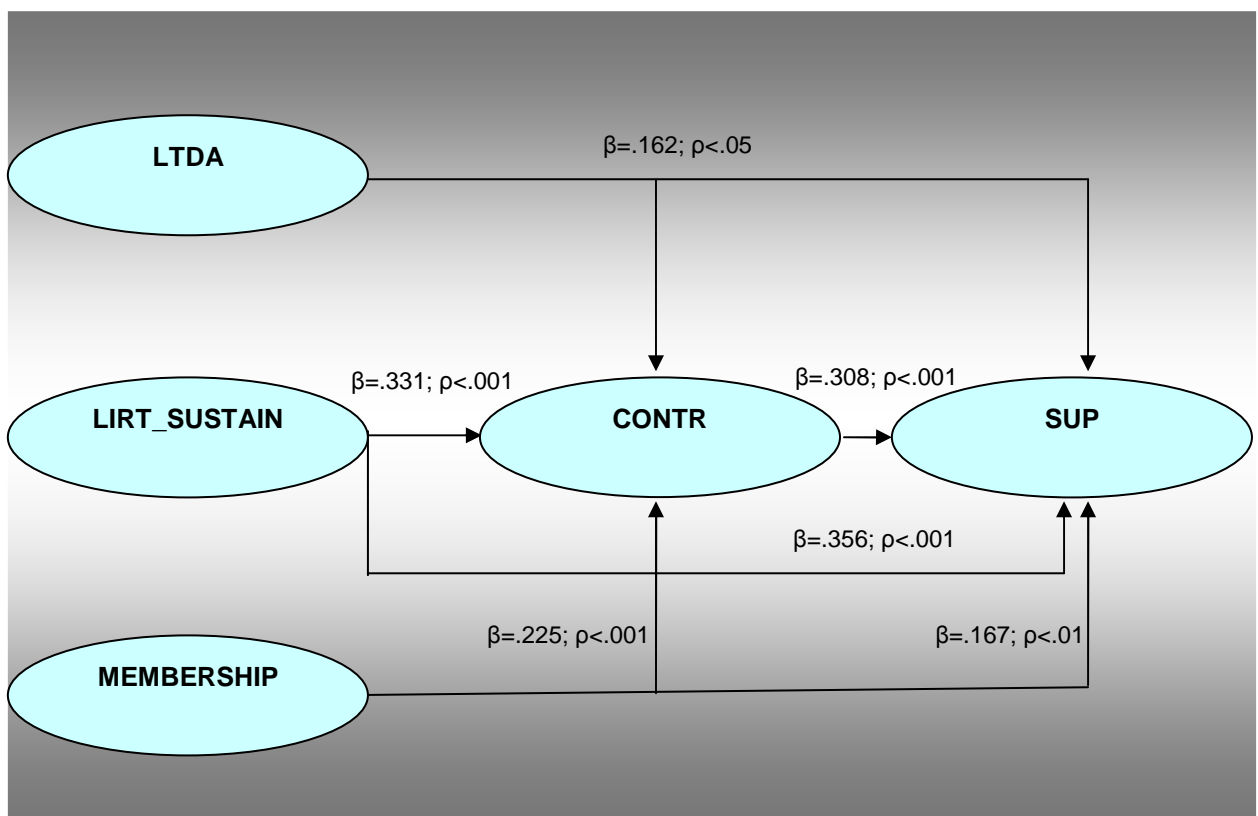
As the results indicate, the only significant variable, with high β value is LIRT_SUST, ($\beta=.356$, $p < .001$) just like in the case of contribution. While LTDA and Membership are also significant, their contribution is little ($\beta = .162$; $p < .05$; and $.167$; $p < .01$ respectively).

In order to test the nature of relationship between 'Contribution' and 'Support', this model was used to include 'Contribution' as an independent variable. 'Contribution' had a significant β value in the model ($.308$, $p < 0.001$), and the regression coefficient of LIRT_SUST has reduced considerably, though a significant regression coefficient remained (from $\beta=.356$ to $\beta=.218$; $p<0.001$). This suggests that the mediation is partial and a direct relationship also exists between LIRT_SUST and 'Support'. In the case of LTDA and Membership however, the statistically significant influence has reduced below acceptable level considering the relatively small sample size ($p < 0.1$) (from $\beta = .162$, $p = .014$ to $\beta = .114$, $p = .074$; and from $\beta = .167$, $p = .009$ to $\beta = .116$, $p = .058$; respectively), thus the mediating effect can be considered as total.

To summarise the results, a path diagram including the statistically significant relationships for both dependent variables is presented in Figure 7.20.

The regression coefficients suggest that the variable contributing most to predicting the contribution of tourism to community development and the support of LRDOs for tourism is the sustainable dimension of IRT. It comprises items measuring sustainability, complementarity and supply-side integration. The influence of this variable on support for tourism development is partially mediated via its influence on contribution of tourism to overall community development; thus both a direct and an indirect path exist that link this variable to the dependent variables. Membership in local civic organisations and the level of tourism development activity also has a small but significant contribution to this prediction, mediated by contribution. However, the significance of these variables' β values is considerably lower than LIRT_SUSTAIN. In addition, it is important to note that the overall effect size of the both LRDO models is medium.

Figure 7.20: Path diagram of the final results of hierarchical regression analysis on the LRDO sample



7.8.2 The NMRC sample

The model analysed in the case of the NMRC sample is the same as the one used for the LRDO sample, which was presented in Figure 7.19. This is because, as discussed earlier, for both samples the same factorial structure emerged from the factor analysis.

The means and standard deviations of the variables are presented in Table 7.12. Again the highest means are that of 'Support', 'Contribution' and LTDA.

Table 7.12: Means and standard deviations of the continuous variables in the NMRC sample

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
LTDA	3,5919	,60973	155
LITPM	3,1143	,75758	155
LIRT_SCALE	2,7290	,77417	155
LIRT_SUST	3,1839	,87074	155
CONTR	3,8645	,77775	155
SUP	4,0210	,77761	155
Age	35,7582	10,42456	153
Length of residency	2,9861	1,43866	144

The correlations presented in Table 7.13 indicate low correlations between dependent and independent variables. There are no signs of multicollinearity, since the highest correlation found is $r = .470$ between 'Contribution' and 'Support', indicating that there is a relationship between the two dependent variables, thus testing the existence of a mediating effect is relevant. In the regression analysis of 'Contribution', variables have been entered in three steps, based on the correlation values. First LTDA, second LITPM, and third, the rest of the variables.

The ANOVA statistics indicate that the combination of variables in Model 1 and 2 predicts Contribution at the $p < .05$ level ($F(1,141) = 5.23$, $p < .05$ and $F(2,140) = 3.19$, $p < .05$; respectively), while Model 3 is not significant ($F(9,133) = 1.30$, $p = .24$). The model statistics are presented in Table 7.14. Similarly to the F values, the F_{change} , R and R^2_{change} values are also very small.

Table 7.13: Correlations between variables in the NMRC sample

	LTDA	LITPM	LIRT_SCALE	LIRT_SUSTAIN	AGE	LENGTH OF RESIDENCY	CONTR	SUP
LTDA	1	,400**	,063	,084	,138	,132	,215**	,260**
		,000	,433	,298	,089	,116	,007	,001
LITPM	,400**	1	,355**	,329**	-,002	-,032	,191*	,295**
	,000		,000	,000	,977	,704	,017	,000
LIRT_SCALE	,063	,355**	1	,451**	-,073	-,081	,069	,137
	,433	,000		,000	,367	,334	,393	,090
LIRT_SUSTAIN	,084	,329**	,451**	1	,150	-,012	,145	,240**
	,298	,000	,000		,065	,889	,072	,003
AGE¹	,138	-,002	-,073	,150	1	,454**	-,007	,103
	,089	,977	,367	,065		,000	,933	,204
LENGTH OF RESIDENCY²	,132	-,032	-,081	-,012	,454**	1	-,074	-,059
	,116	,704	,334	,889	,000		,380	,481
CONTR	,215**	,191*	,069	,145	-,007	-,074	1	,470**
	,007	,017	,393	,072	,933	,380		,000
SUP	,260**	,295**	,137	,240**	,103	-,059	,470**	1
	,001	,000	,090	,003	,204	,481	,000	

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

a. Listwise N=155 except: ¹ 153; ²: 144; Sig. (2-tailed)

Table 7.14: Summary of model statistics of the first round of hierarchical regression analysis involving three steps on contribution in the NMCR sample

Model	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R ² change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change	
1	,189 ^a	,036	,029	,76513	,036	5,232	1	141	,024	
2	,209 ^b	,044	,030	,76472	,008	1,151	1	140	,285	
3	,285 ^c	,081	,019	,76900	,038	,778	7	133	,607	2,179

The regression coefficients indicate that the only variable that significantly predict 'Contribution' at the $p < .05$ level, is LTDA ($\beta = .189$, $t = 2.28$, $p = .024$). The first model including only LTDA (simple correlation model) predicts 2.9% of variance in contribution. Although significant, its importance is very low, particularly in light of the other values of, and variance explained by, the model. The R^2 value is .036, which is equal to a power of $f^2 = .037$. According to Cohen (1988), this is a (very) small effect. Thus, it can be concluded

that none of the variables contributed to this model substantially to predicting variance in 'Contribution'.

For the analysis of 'Support', the variables entered in two steps. At first, LTDA, LITPM and LIRT_SUSTAIN were included, followed by the rest of the variables in the second step. Model 1 explained 8.8% of variance in Support ($R = .328$; $\text{Adj. } R^2 = .088$; $F(3, 139) = 5.57$, $p = .001$), while Model 2 explained 11.2% ($R = .410$; $\text{Adj. } R^2 = .112$; $F(9, 133) = 2.98$, $p < .005$). There was only one significant beta value in Model 1: LIRT_SUST ($\beta = .171$; $p < .05$), and two close to significant values: LTDA and 'Born in the area'. Thus, in the next round, these three variables entered the multiple regression analysis simultaneously. In this model, all variables exhibited significant regression coefficients, though the properties of the model did not improve considerably ($R = .376$; $\text{Adj. } R^2 = .124$; $F(3, 151) = 8.29$, $p < .001$). The beta values and significance level are presented in Table 7.15. The $R^2 = .141$, which is equal to $f^2 = 0.164$ (medium effect; however, very close to .15 which is the threshold value to a small effect). Considering the little variance explained by these variables, their importance in explaining support for tourism in the NMRC sample is low.

Table 7.15 Regression analysis of independent variables on support in the NMRC sample

Support for tourism development Model statistics: $R = .376$; $R^2 = .141$; $\text{Adj. } R^2 = .124$; $F(3, 151) = 8.29$, $p < .001$; Durbin-Watson = 1.894	Beta	t-statistic	ρ	Collinearity statistics	
				Tolerance	VIF
Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)	,240	3,174	,002	,993	1,007
The sustainable dimension of IRT (LIRT_SUST)	,213	2,813	,006	,991	1,009
Born in the area	-,160	-2,126	,035	,998	1,002

Lastly, 'Contribution' entered the regression as an independent variable. The R , R^2 and adjusted R^2 values improved considerably ($R = .540$; $R^2 = .292$ and $\text{Adj. } R^2 = .273$), and the beta value of 'Contribution' was high and significant ($\beta = .402$; $p < .001$). The regression coefficients of the other variables in the equation reduced considerably, suggesting that a mediating effect of 'Contribution' exists. However, significant value remained in the case of LTDA ($\beta = .159$; $p < .05$) and LIRT_SUST ($\beta = .163$; $p < .05$), thus the mediating effect is partial. In the case of 'Born in the area', the coefficient has lost its significance ($\beta = -.131$; $p = .06$) thus the mediation is total.

In sum, it can be concluded that a few variables had a significant but low contribution in both models of contribution of tourism to overall community development and support for tourism. Considering however the very low variance explained by these models (2.9% and 12.4%, respectively), coupled with the small beta values, none of the variables in the NMRC sample were found to be predictors of the dependent variables. The analysis of the relationship between 'Contribution' and 'Support' confirmed the mediating effect of 'Contribution' in the final model including both dependent variables.

7.8.3 The LEADER sample

In the case of LEADER LAGs and MPMA, slightly different factorial structure has emerged as compared to the LRDO and NMCR samples. The 'Participation' construct involves three factors (LTDA, LITP and LCTA), instead of two (LTDA and LITPM, as found in the LRDO and NMRC samples) as initially conceptualised. This structure, including the hypothetical relationships, two dependent variables, five independent variables and five socio-demographic variables (employed also as independent variables) can be seen in Figure 7.21.

The means and standard deviation of the continuous variables are presented in Table 7.16. It can be seen that the highest mean value of five-point scale variables pertains to the 'Support' construct, just like in the case of the other networks, indicating that there is a general agreement across samples in support for tourism. The correlations between variables are presented in Table 7.17. The highest correlation between predictors is $p=.525$, indicating that multicollinearity is not a problem.

Figure 7.21: Hypothetical model of relationships between variables measuring participation, integration, contribution and support in the LEADER and MPMA samples

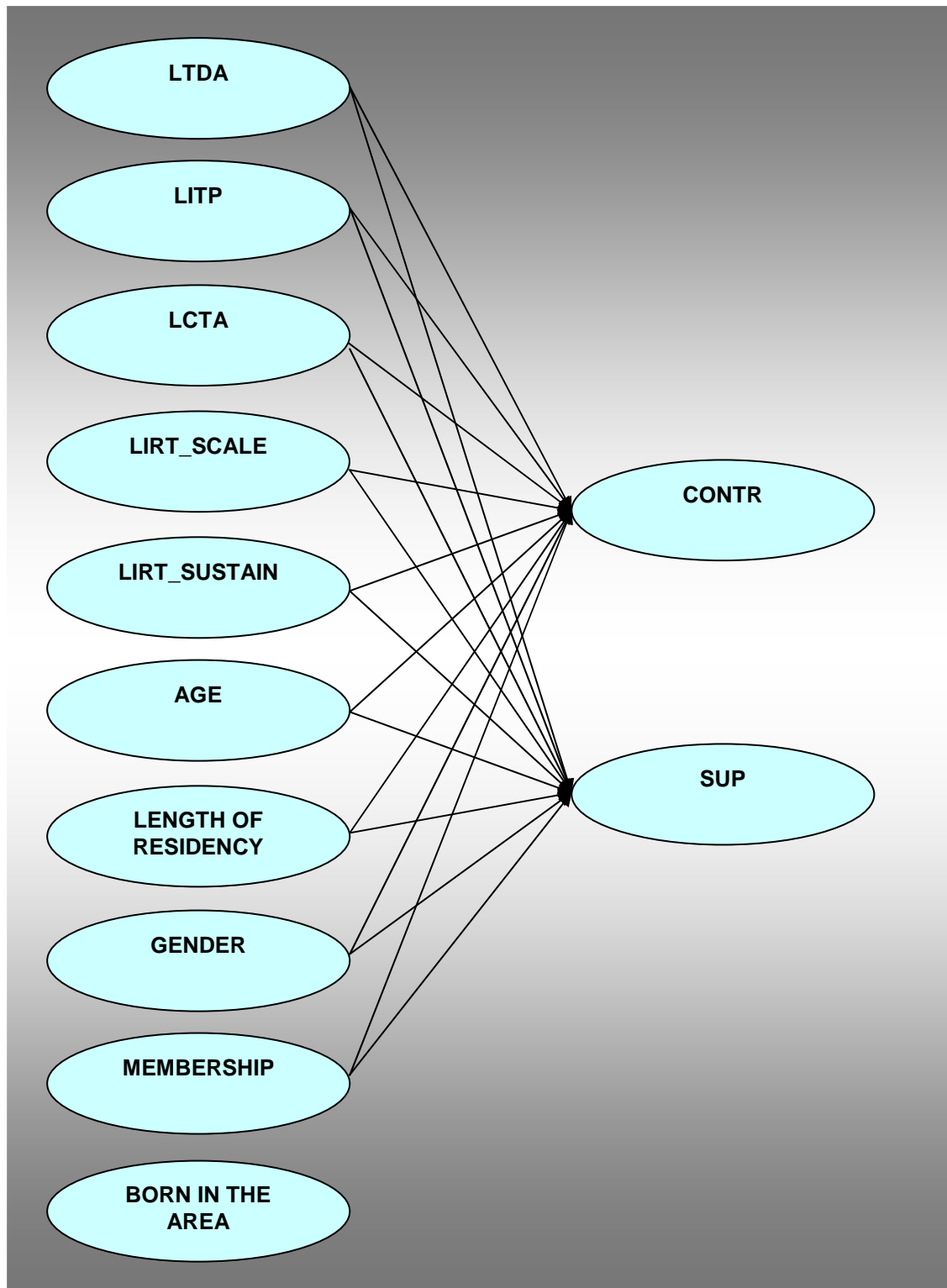


Table 7.16: Means and standard deviations of the continuous variables in the LEADER sample

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
LTDA	3,8467	,72781	212
LITP	3,1594	,74098	212
LCTA	3,7358	,68339	212
LIRT_SCALE	3,6816	,78079	212
LIRT_SUST	3,8608	,64954	212
Age	37,8774	12,17347	212
Length of residency	3,4667	1,40448	210
CONTR	3,7476	,81528	212
SUP	4,0531	,76611	212

Table 7.17: Correlations between variables in the LEADER sample

	LTDA	LITP	LCTA	LIRT_SCALE	LIRT_SUSTAIN	AGE	LENGTH OF RESIDENCY	CONTR	SUP
LTDA	1	,517**	,364**	,525**	,425**	,031	,047	,567**	,518*
		,000	,000	,000	,000	,650	,500	,000	,000
LITP	,517**	1	,395**	,365**	,466**	-,028	,057	,505**	,553*
	,000		,000	,000	,000	,684	,409	,000	,000
LCTA	,364**	,395**	1	,278**	,359**	,021	-,114	,392**	,388*
	,000	,000		,000	,000	,766	,100	,000	,000
LIRT_SCALE	,525**	,365**	,278**	1	,511**	,040	,129	,480**	,506*
	,000	,000	,000		,000	,567	,063	,000	,000
LIRT_SUSTAIN	,425**	,466**	,359**	,511**	1	,014	,086	,580**	,613*
	,000	,000	,000	,000		,844	,215	,000	,000
AGE	,031	-,028	,021	,040	,014	1	,471*	-,073*	,075
	,650	,684	,766	,567	,844		,000	,291	,274
LENGTH OF RESIDENCY¹	,047	,057	-,114	,129	,086	,471*	1	,036	,067
	,500	,409	,100	,063	,215	,000		,601	,337
CONTR	,410**	,505**	,392**	,480**	,580**	-,073*	,036	1	,489*
	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,291	,601		,000
SUP	,418**	,553**	,388**	,506**	,613**	,075	,067	,489**	1
	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,274	,337	,000	

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

a. Listwise N=212 except: ¹ 210; Sig. (2-tailed)

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

a. Listwise N=170 except: ¹ 169; Sig. (2-tailed)

Since high and significant correlations between predictors and the dependent variable are first indicators of causal relationships in the model, variables were entered in regression

analysis in two steps. First, the five constructs measuring participation and integration, and second, the rest of the variables measuring socio-demographics of respondents. The model statistics are presented in Table 7.18. The Durbin-Watson value is close to 2 (1.866), the Tolerance and VIF values and variance proportions are within acceptable range.

Table 7.18: Summary of model statistics of the first round of hierarchical regression analysis involving two steps on contribution in the LEADER sample

Model	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R ² change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change	
1	,572 ^a	,327	,310	,52325	,327	20,029	5	204	,000	
2	,582 ^b	,338	,304	,51968	,011	0,678	5	199	,172	1,866

a. Predictors: (Constant), LIRT_SUST, LCTA, LIRT_SCALE, LITP, LTDA

b. Predictors: (Constant), LIRT_SUST, LCTA, LIRT_SCALE, LITP, LTDA, Age, Born in the area, Gender, Membership, Length of residency

c. Dependent Variable: CONTR

Both models predicted significantly variance in 'Contribution' (Model 1: $F(5, 204) = 20.029$, $p < .001$; and Model 2: $F(10, 199) = 10.160$, $p < .001$). However, the F value of Model 2 is approximately half of the F value of Model 1. Furthermore, as it can be seen in Table 7.18, both R^2_{change} and F_{change} are very small and the latter is not significant ($p = 0.172$), indicating that model 2 is not well fitting for the data.

The model parameters further confirm these results, because variables only from Model 1 had significant beta values (LTDA, LCTA and LIRT_SUST) in addition to Age, which had a small negative but significant contribution in the equation. In the second round, these four variables have been included. Age still remained significant, but its value has become even smaller therefore it was decided to be eliminated from the final model ($\beta = -.095$, $p < 0.05$), which therefore comprised of three variables that had significant beta values. The parameters of the final model are presented in Table 7.19. There are two variables with high and significant beta regression coefficient in this model: LIRT_SUST ($\beta = .411$, $p = 0.01$) and LTDA ($\beta = .247$, $p < 0.01$). However, LCTA also contributes with a small but significant beta value to this prediction: ($\beta = .114$, $p < 0.05$). The model explains 31.8% of variance in contribution of tourism to overall community development. This is equal to $f^2 = .488$, which, according to Cohen (1988), is a large effect.

Table 7.19 Parameters of the regression model on 'Contribution' in the LEADER sample

Contribution of tourism to overall community development Model statistics: $R=.573$; $R^2=.328$; Adj. $R^2=.318$ (Wherry's); .305 (Stein's); $F(3, 208)=33.84$, $p<.001$; Durbin-Watson= 1.905	Standardised coefficients Beta	t-statistic	ρ	Collinearity statistics	
				Tolerance	VIF
Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)	,247	3,454	,000	,859	1,163
Level of cooperation with tourism authorities (LCTA)	,114	2,377	,018	,848	1,179
The sustainable dimension of IRT (LIRT_SUST)	,411	6,885	,001	,905	1,104

Continuing with the analysis, 'Support' was included next as the dependent variable. Considering the correlation results, the same strategy was used as in the case of 'Contribution': the variables entered regression in the same order in two sequential steps. Following the same method of analysis, the results revealed a very similar model, which comprised the same three variables with significant beta values, and excluded all of the variables measuring socio-demographic characteristics due to the absence of significant beta values. The statistics of the final model are presented in Table 7.20.

Table 7.20 Parameters of the regression model on 'Support' in the LEADER sample

Contribution of tourism to overall community development Model statistics: $R=.622$; $R^2=.386$; Adj. $R^2=.377$ (Wherry's); .365 (Stein's); $F(3, 208)=43.58$, $p<.001$; Durbin-Watson= 2.132	Standardised coefficients Beta	t-statistic	ρ	Collinearity statistics	
				Tolerance	VIF
Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)	,310	7,454	,000	,859	1,163
Level of cooperation with tourism authorities (LCTA)	,128	2,377	,018	,848	1,179
The sustainable dimension of IRT (LIRT_SUST)	,504	6,885	,001	,905	1,104

The combination of variables significantly predicts 'Support' ($F(3, 208) = 43.58$, $p < .001$), and explains 37.7% of variance in the dependent variable ($R = .622$; $R^2 = .386$; Adj. $R^2 = .377$). The R^2 value is equivalent to $f^2 = .628$, which, according to Cohen (1988), is a large effect. The comparison of Wherry's formula and Stein's equation indicates that the adjusted R^2 values are very similar, thus the cross-validity of the model is very good. While the VIF values are above 1, they remain within suggested thresholds and the tolerance

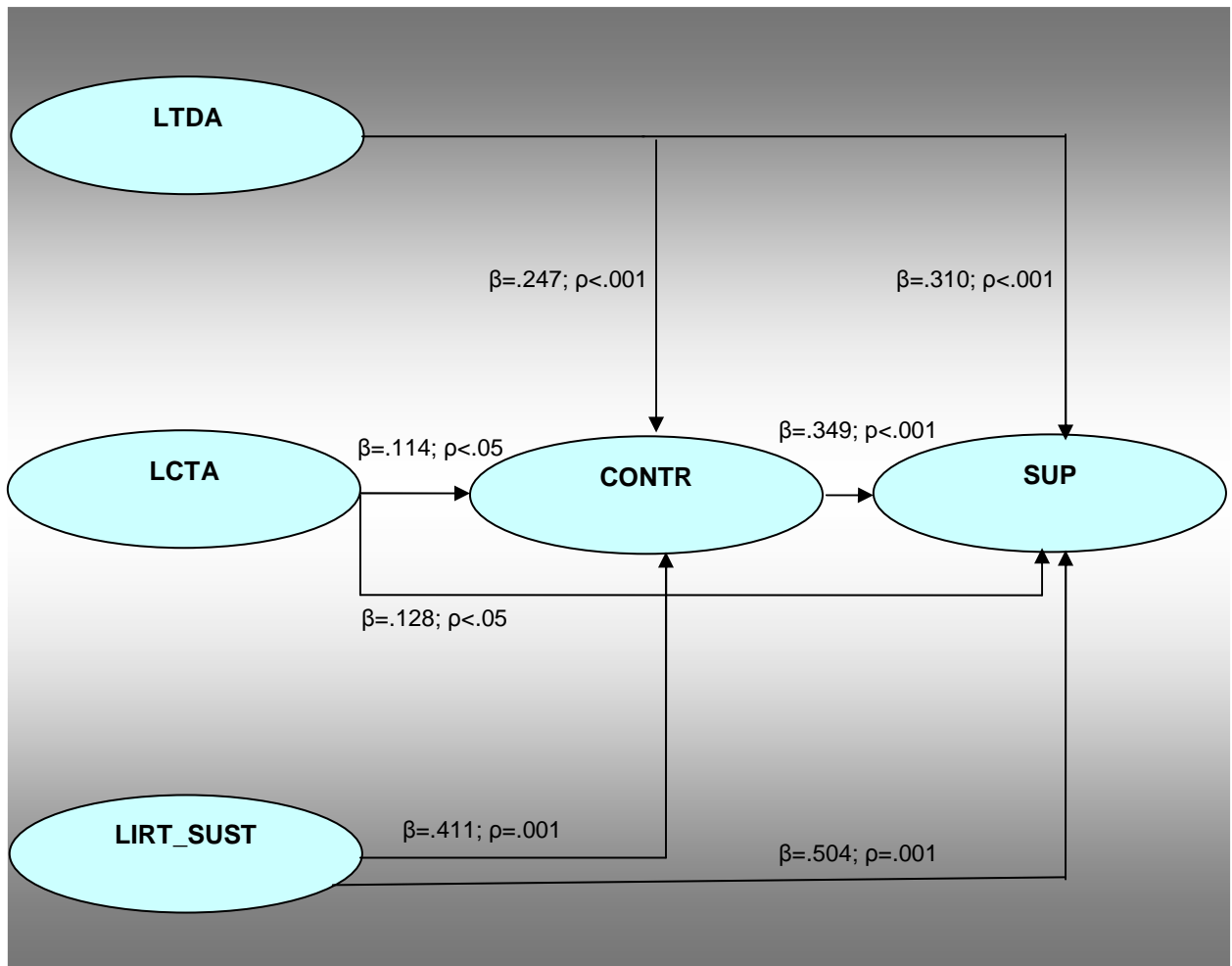
values are well above .614 ($1 - R^2$). Furthermore, the Durbin-Watson value of the model (2.132) is as well acceptable, indicating that multicollinearity was not a problem. The variable with the highest significant beta value is LIRT_SUST ($\beta = .504$, $p = .001$). In addition, LTDA and LCTA contribute to this equation, the latter with the smallest value among predictors ($\beta = .310$; $p < .001$; and $\beta = .128$; $p < .05$, respectively).

In order to assess the effect of 'Contribution' in the model, it was included in the linear multiple regression model as a predictor in the last step of the analysis. The R value has increased ($R = .662$; $R^2 = .438$; $\text{Adj. } R^2 = .427$), and 'Contribution' significantly predicted 'Support' ($\beta = .349$; $p < .001$). The beta values of LTDA and LCTA has decreased and lost significance (from $\beta = .310$; $p < .001$ to $\beta = .224$; $p = .097$ and from $\beta = .128$; $p < .005$ to $\beta = .088$; $p = .156$), suggesting that the mediating effect is total. However, in the case of LIRT_SUST, the mediating effect is only partial (it has reduced from $\beta = .504$, $p = .001$ to $\beta = .420$; $p = .001$). The final results are illustratively summarised in Figure 7.22.

The findings indicate that the sustainable dimension of IRT is the most important predictor of both contribution of tourism to overall community development and support for tourism in the opinion of the LEADER LAG managers. The level of involvement in tourism development and the level of cooperation with tourism authorities are two other variables that were found to be important when considering the contribution of tourism and the respondents' support for additional tourism development. In the case of these two variables, the effect is not only mediated by 'Contribution', but direct links are tying them with 'Support'.

This suggests that according to the LAG managers, the cooperation with tourism authorities and the level of tourism development activity of the LEADER LAGs is influential on the contribution of tourism to overall community development. However, this effect is little in the case of cooperation and medium in the case of the level of tourism activity. Most likely these results would be higher at a latter stage of the financial period because the data collected reflects the initial phase of tendering.

Figure 7.22: Path diagram of the final results of hierarchical regression analysis on the LEADER sample



7.8.4 The MPMA sample

The means and standard deviations of the variables in the MPMA sample are presented in Table 7.21. As in the previous samples, the highest mean value of the five-point scale variables pertains to 'Support', in addition to 'LIRT_SUST', indicating the highest levels of agreement among respondents. Following the correlation analysis (the results of which can be seen in Table 7.22), the variables entered hierarchical regression in three sequential steps in the model of 'Contribution'.

Table 7.21: Means and standard deviations of the continuous variables in the MPMA sample

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
LTDA	3,4400	,77016	125
LITP	3,3504	,82917	125
LCTA	3,3760	,87167	125
LIRT_SCALE	3,3776	,80371	125
LIRT_SUST	3,8260	,76083	125
Age	35,7805	10,56870	123
Length of residency	2,9504	1,36535	121
CONTR	3,7360	,69728	125
SUP	4,0560	,80062	125

Table 7.22: Correlations between variables in the MPMA sample

	LTDA	LITP	LCTA	LIRT_SCALE	LIRT_SUSTAIN	AGE	LENGTH OF RESIDENCY	CONTR	SUP
LTDA	1	,481**	,393**	,400**	,427**	-,084	,034	,500**	,510**
		,000	,000	,000	,000	,356	,714	,000	,000
LITP	,481**	1	,421**	,471**	,487**	-,170	-,099	,584**	,505**
	,000		,000	,000	,000	,059	,279	,000	,000
LCTA	,393**	,421**	1	,383**	,360**	-,144	,087	,235**	,494**
	,000	,000		,000	,000	,113	,341	,008	,000
LIRT_SCALE	,400**	,471**	,383**	1	,473**	-,129	-,051	,533*	,573**
	,000	,000	,000		,000	,154	,582	,000	,000
LIRT_SUSTAIN	,427**	,487**	,360**	,473**	1	-,132	-,127	,554**	,560**
	,000	,000	,000	,000		,144	,166	,000	,000
AGE¹	-,084	-,170	-,144	-,129	-,132	1	,345**	,005	-,108*
	,356	,059	,113	,154	,144		,000	,953	,233
LENGTH OF RESIDENCY²	,034	-,099	,087	-,051	-,127	,345**	1	-,005	-,073
	,714	,279	,341	,582	,166	,000		,954	,423
CONTR	,500**	,484**	,235**	,533*	,554**	,005	-,005	1	,639**
	,000	,000	,008	,000	,000	,953	,954		,000
SUP	,510**	,405**	,294**	,573**	,560**	-,108*	-,073	,639**	1
	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,233	,423	,000	

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

a. Listwise N=125 except: ¹ 123; ² 121; Sig. (2-tailed)

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

a. Listwise N=170 except: 1 169; Sig. (2-tailed)

First, LITP, LIRT_SUST, LTDA and LIRT_SCALE, second, LCTA and lastly, the five variables measuring socio-demographics of respondents. The model statistics are presented in Table 7.23. All models significantly predicted variance in the dependent variable: Model 1: $F(4, 115) = 15.180$, $p < .001$; Model 2: $F(5, 114) = 13.099$, $p < .001$; and Model 3: $F(10, 109) = 6.6$, $p < .001$. The models explain 31.4%, 32.8% and 31.8% of variance in contribution, respectively. The contribution of LCTA that entered the regression in the second step is small but significant ($F_{\text{change}} = 3.505$, $p < .01$). However, F_{change} of the third model is very small and it is not significant. The Durbin-Watson value, tolerance and VIF values and the variance proportions are within acceptable values. While the tolerance values are not close to zero, they are well above $1-R^2$ (.512) as suggested by Leech, *et al.*, (2005). The standardised beta coefficients suggest that LIRT_SUST, LTDA and LCTA significantly contribute to the equation in order of importance.

Table 7.23: Summary of model statistics of the first round of hierarchical regression analysis involving three steps on contribution in the MPMA sample

Model	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R ² change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change	
1	,579 ^a	,336	,314	,44674	,336	15,180	4	115	,000	
2	,595 ^b	,355	,328	,43466	,019	3,505	1	114	,007	
3	,612 ^c	,375	,318	,42702	,020	0,704	5	109	,114	1,832

a. Predictors: (Constant), LIRT_SUST, LIRT_SCALE, LITP, LTDA

b. Predictors: (Constant), LIRT_SUST, LIRT_SCALE, LITP, LTDA, LCTA

c. Predictors: (Constant), LIRT_SUST, LIRT_SCALE, LITP, LTDA, LCTA, Age, Born in the area, Gender, Membership, Length of residency

d. Dependent Variable: CONTR

Subsequently, the rest of the variables have been removed from further analysis, and the results of the final model, including all significant predictors that entered linear regression simultaneously are presented in Table 7.24. Clearly, the main predictor of variance in 'Contribution' is LIRT_SUST. However, LTDA and LCTA also have a small but significant contribution to the model. Thus, in the view of the multi-purpose municipal associations, the main importance attributed to the contribution of tourism to overall community development is the sustainable dimension of integrated rural tourism, but the level of tourism development activity and the level of cooperation with tourism authorities also contribute to this prediction, just as in the case of the LEADER sample.

Table 7.24: Regression analysis of independent variables on contribution in the MPMA sample

Contribution of tourism to overall community development Model statistics: R=.604; R ² =.364; Adj. R ² =.349 (Wherry); .327 (Stein's); F(3, 121)=23.16, p<.001; Durbin-Watson= 1.899	Standardised coefficients Beta	t-statistic	ρ	Collinearity statistics	
				Tolerance	VIF
The sustainable dimension of IRT (LIRT_SUST)	,416	6,334	,000	,700	1,429
Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)	,162	2,461	,015	,691	1,447
Level of cooperation with tourism authorities (LCTA)	,180	2,857	,005	,759	1,317

Next, the model including 'Support' as the dependent variable was tested. The variables entered the regression in two steps: first, the five variables measuring participation and integration, and second, the five variables measuring socio-demographics of respondents. The statistics of the two models are presented in Table 7.25.

Table 7.25: Summary of model statistics of the first round of hierarchical regression analysis involving two steps on support in the MPMA sample

Model	R	R²	Adj. R²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R² change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change	
1	,713 ^a	,508	,487	,47667	,508	24,574	5	114	,000	
2	,714 ^b	,509	,466	,48558	,001	0,046	5	109	,973	2,043

The model statistics indicate that the first five variables that entered the regression significantly predict ($F(5, 114) = 24,574$; $p < 001$) 48.7% of variance in 'Support'. However, the R^2_{change} (.001) and F_{change} (0.046) in the second model is very little and the latter is not significant. The regression coefficients confirm that Model 2 is not well fitting for the data. As in the case of 'Contribution', none of the beta values of socio-demographic variables were found to be significant. Thus, in the next step, all were excluded. The remaining three variables entered multiple regression simultaneously. The results of the final model are presented in Table 7.26.

Table 7.26: Regression analysis of independent variables on support in the MPMA sample

Support for tourism development Model statistics: R=.709; R ² =.502; Adj. R ² =.49(Wherry's); .472 (Stein's). F(3, 121)=40.657, p<.001; Durbin-Watson= 2.012	Standardised coefficients Beta	t-statistic	p	Collinearity statistics	
				Tolerance	VIF
Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)	,166	2,690	,008	,752	1,330
Level of cooperation with tourism authorities (LCTA)	,208	3,483	,001	,800	1,250
The sustainable dimension of IRT (LIRT_SUST)	,514	10,114	,000	,774	1,292

The model significantly predicts variance in 'Support' ($F(3, 121) = 40.657, p < .001$). Of the three variables, LIRT_SUST is the main predictor ($\beta = .514; p < .001$), but LTDA and LCTA also contribute to this prediction with a considerably smaller but significant beta value ($\beta = .166; p < .01$ and $\beta = .208, p = .001$, respectively).

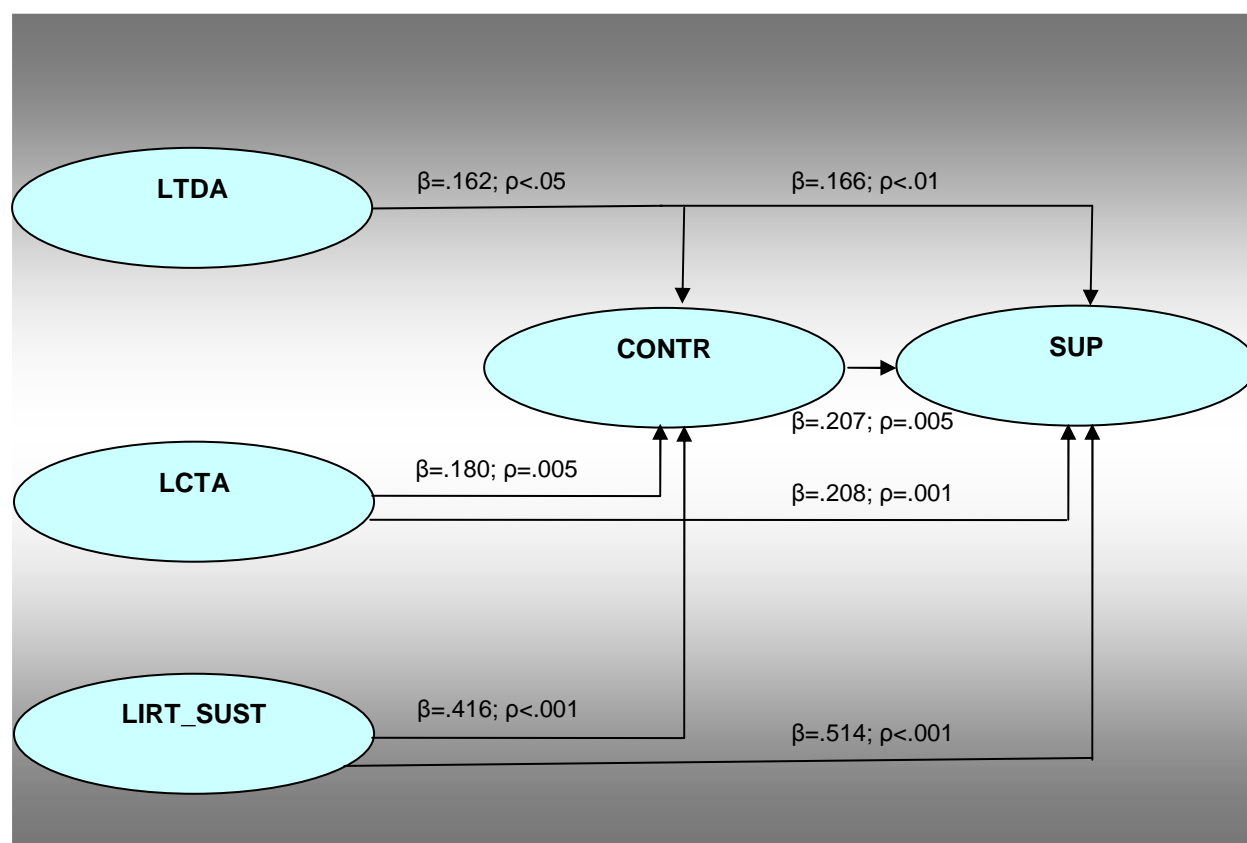
In order to test the relationship between the two dependent variables, 'Contribution' entered the above model as an independent variable, since all variables are predictors of both 'Contribution' and 'Support'. When entering 'Contribution', R has increased considerably, from $R=.709$ to $.722$ ($R^2 = .521; \text{Adj. } R^2 = .505$); the beta value of 'Contribution' was significant ($\beta = .207; p = .005$), and the beta values of all the other variables have reduced. This confirms the mediating effect of 'Contribution'. However, the significance disappeared only in the case of LTDA ($\beta = .105; p = .101$), and significant relationships maintained in the case of LCTA ($.155, p < .001$) and LIRT_SUST ($.499, p < .001$), suggesting that the mediation is total for the former, and partial for the latter two variables.

The final results of the MPMA sample are presented in a path diagram in Figure 7.23, including all variables having a significant relationship with one or both of the dependent variables.

The findings highlighted that according to the respondents from the municipal associations, the sustainable dimension of IRT is the main predictor of both 'Contribution' and 'Support'. The level of tourism development activity and the level of cooperation with tourism authorities also contribute to both predictions. These results reflect those of the LEADER LAGs, suggesting that for the two networks with planning competence, the latter

two variables influence their opinion on the contribution of tourism and thereby their support for further development.

Figure 7.23: Path diagram of the final results of hierarchical regression analysis on the MPMA sample



7.9 Conclusions

In order to assess whether there is a relationship between variables measuring rural governance principals, socio-demographic characteristics, the contribution of tourism to overall community development and the support of local development organisations for tourism, a series of multivariate data analysis methods have been used. Exploratory Factor Analysis, in particular Principal Components Analysis (PCA) has been applied for measure purification and identification of underlying dimensions in theoretically conceptualised constructs. The overall sample comprised of 662 observations drawn from a population of four networks of micro-regional development in Hungary, thus the factorial

structure emerging from the total sample was subject to a test on the four sub-samples in order to validate the results.

While in two networks the results confirmed the factorial structure identified by PCA, in the case of the other two networks slightly different factorial structure emerged. Specifically, the 'Integration' and 'Support' constructs were identical across the samples. However, in the 'Participation' construct, three dimensions emerged (LTDA, LITP and LCTA) instead of the two dimensions identified in the total sample (LTDA and LITPM), which confirmed the initial structure. This result implied that group differences exists within the overall sample in terms of the underlying dimensions of the concepts, and that this difference lies between the networks directly linked to tourism with a planning competence (MPMAs and LEADER) and the advisory groups that lack planning competence (LRDO and NMCR).

In particular, the MPMAs and LEADER interpreted 'Participation' in three dimensions, highlighting more diversified views in which participation in planning and management were interpreted separately. However, the LRDO and NMCR's views were found to be less diversified, most likely because participation in tourism planning is less relevant in the activities of these groups than in the activities of the first two. Thus, both the original conceptualisation and the PCA results have been validated through the same sample, which therefore calls for replication by different samples in future research.

In order to explore the possibility of group differences across variables, one-way ANOVA analysis was used on the overall sample. The ANOVA analysis and post-hoc tests revealed significant values indicating group differences in terms of perspectives and highlighted that the views of the four networks were not homogenous. Thus, a split-sample analysis followed as the next step via hierarchical regression analysis, which has not only confirmed but further elaborated these findings.

Notably, those two networks in which the 'Participation' construct revealed three instead of two underlying dimensions, exhibited different overall regression results than the other two networks with two underlying dimensions. The regression models of the LEADER LAGs and the MPMAs in both contribution to, and support for, tourism are very similar. The effect size of the models is high, and three variables were found to contribute significantly to the prediction in explaining the variance in the dependent variables: LIRT_SUST, LTDA, LCTA. While in both cases the main predictor was the sustainable dimension of integrated

rural tourism, the latter two variables also contributed to the prediction, indicating that the level of tourism development activity and the level of cooperation with tourism authorities influence the evaluation of the contribution of tourism to the development of rural areas and support for further tourism development.

The effect size of the regression models of LRDO and NMRC was considerably smaller: medium in the case of the LRDOs, and small in the NMRC. In the former case, the main contributor to the prediction was also LIRT_SUST, while 'Membership in local civic organisations' and LTDA also had a small but significant contribution to the prediction. In the latter case, the model of 'Contribution' was not found to be significant, and the model of 'Support', although exhibiting a close to small, but still medium effect, the regression coefficients were all small. LIRT_SUST, LTDA and 'Born in the area' contributed to this prediction.

The mediating effect of 'Contribution' has been evident across the models. However, direct links have been also found between predictors and 'Support', suggesting that in these cases the views of the respondents are not only mediated by 'Contribution' but these predictors directly influence their support for tourism. The results on socio-demographic variables appear to be inconclusive: only membership in local civil organisations was found to be significant at a low level with a small regression coefficient in the case of the LRDO sample.

It can therefore be concluded that the strongest models in terms of statistical significance, regression coefficients and effect size are those of development organisations concerned specifically with rural development (LEADER LAGs, MPMAs and LRDOs). Overall, the main contributor to explaining 'Contribution' and 'Support' is the sustainable dimension of integrated rural tourism, which involves the complementarity of tourism services, the sustainability of development and the integration of actors and sectors.

In the next chapter, the results of the qualitative and quantitative components will be discussed in the wider theoretical and practical context of the research. Accordingly, the contributions will be presented in terms of both theoretical and managerial implications. Lastly, the shortcomings of empirical data collection and the methods of primary data analysis will be discussed in light of the new paths of research arising from the limitations.

Chapter 8

Conclusions

8.1 Introduction

This thesis has been centred around three fundamental principals of rural governance: participation, integration and empowerment. These principals have been employed as critical factors influencing the directions of rural development through (1) organisational performance and (2) tourism support of rural governance organisations in order to validate a governance approach to integrated tourism. Considering the nature of these two general research goals in light of the literature, the first has been addressed by a qualitative method and aimed at in particular (1.1) exploring the patterns (recurrent issues) of the implementation of governance principals and (1.2) identifying factors that influence the organisational performance of the EU LEADER rural governance network. The second has been addressed by quantitative methods and in addition to the LEADER LAGs, included three other networks of local development organisations to examine the influence of these governance principles on (2.1) the contribution of tourism to overall community development and support for tourism (2.2) and, to explore whether differences in views exist between networks of organisations under scrutiny.

This chapter aims at systematising the results of the investigation in light of the above recalled research objectives, against the background of the literature. The following sections are concerned with answering the research questions, grouped into the two main sections of qualitative and quantitative results. Next, the contributions for academics and practitioners will be discussed, and the chapter finalises with the limitations and suggestions for future research.

8.2 Factors of rural governance influencing organisational performance

As reiterated above in the introduction of this chapter, the principal aim of the qualitative research has been two-fold, each of which addressed one of the research questions. More specifically, to accomplish the proposed research goals, the following questions have been

successfully addressed: (i) What are the patterns of the implementation of rural governance principles – integration, participation and empowerment – in the case of the European Union LEADER Local Action Groups? (ii) How do these principles, as critical factors of rural governance, influence the organisational performance of the LEADER LAGs and thus the directions of local development?

The organisational performance of the LAGs is examined through the implementation of governance principles and interpreted as the ability to execute the LDS through the LEADER Programme, a process which most readily manifests in state-local relationships. It is precisely this aspect of central-local interactions which has not been explored by previous research through the influence of governance factors. Evaluation studies focus on the overall economic performance of the LEADER Programme, hence a missing link between these factors and organisational performance is evident.

The focus of the qualitative research questions on complex issues related to central-local relationships, and the aim to identify, but not to test, influential factors, call for an in-depth method of analysis. Thus, two series of key-informant interviews have been conducted focusing on the empirical manifestation of the implementation of these principals. Under the guidance of a previously developed conceptual framework, a systematic analysis has been carried out in search of patterns of recurrent issues, which in turn allowed for the identification of enabling and restricting factors.

The patterns of **stakeholder integration** have been explored through the establishment of the LAGs and the resulting organisational structure, relationships and dynamics. The **organisational structure** of the LAGs formed throughout the establishment process of the organisations. Underpinning the scholarly argument on the importance of the public sector in enabling bottom-up initiatives and stimulating collaboration (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004; Murdoch & Abram, 1998; Panyik, Costa, & Rätz, 2011; Vernon, *et al.*, 2005; Wilson, *et al.*, 2001), the majority of LAGs had formed by the initiative of public sector representatives: the mayors or the municipal associations. Almost equally important had been, however, the role of local civil activity, in particular private people and non-profit organisations, in the establishment of the LAGs. Thus, local civil activity could be successfully stimulated by the allocation of EU funds on condition of the establishment of local governance organisations. While political influence had been a considerable driving force in this regard, the formation of politically homogenous LAGs could mostly be tackled

by the fact that the former LEADER+ crew could not be sidestepped in the establishment process of the new groups, and that territorial continuity in the LAGs could not be disregarded by the exclusion of politically different or less favourable settlements. If wide-ranging compromises could not be established, such rare cases entailed the intervention of the Managing Authority, that is, the MARD. In addition to spatial cohesion, locally embedded, rather than politically determined relational linkages arising from geographical proximity have been identified as a prime factor in the formation of the LAGs.

The geographical disparities in the population of settlements in the country determined the size and the composition of the LAGs. Considering that the standard lower limit of the LAGs' population base is ten thousand inhabitants, this has led to considerable differences in the administrative procedure and in the financial allocation of funds, which in turn impacted on organisational efficiency. LAGs in areas with fragmented settlement structure comprising small, nucleated towns and villages faced, in general, considerably more difficulties in reaching the population threshold, in recruiting non-profit organisations from peripheral micro-settlements, in convening the general assembly of the LAG and had more difficulties in allocating funds between more settlements than those LAGs comprising a few, large settlements.

The drawbacks of standardised measures in defining target areas for financial support is an issue that has gained currency in general terms at the level of EAFRD, and the above results of the present study highlighted the upshots of the standardised approach at the level of the LEADER Programme. Illés (2002) compared the spatial development criteria used to define target areas in the EU and in Hungary. Considering support for rural development in the EU, he pointed out that two criteria, namely, the population density of 120 people/km², as well as the level of personal income tax are inappropriate for measuring the level of development of rural and agricultural areas in Hungary. This is because while in Western Europe lagging agricultural areas are characterised by low population density, in many agricultural areas in Central, Eastern and Southern Europe, high population density is not a sign of urbanisation, but, on the contrary, of excessive agricultural population and as such, poverty. Considering the second criterion, the agricultural activity of a great share of the agricultural population in Hungary is not levied by the individual income tax.

The main factors facilitating stakeholder integration had been previous LEADER experience, which provided an existing relational base of municipalities to build on; the opportunity to counterbalance economic disparities drawing on relational advantages of geographical proximity; and lastly, the failure to establish LEADER+ LAGs in the previous financial period stimulated micro-regional cohesion and the determination of local stakeholders to reach a consensual strategy by the next financial cycle. The latter indicated that rather than being merely a financial instrument, LEADER is a learning process which evolves throughout the sequential financial phases.

In terms of **organisational relationships**, internal ('within-LAG') and external ('applicant-LAG' and 'inter-network') horizontal relations have been identified and examined. Considering within-LAG relationships, signs of the Programme's synergistic effect have been unfolded: respondents reported on stronger relations between settlements that were members of the LAG, which manifested in mutual adjustment of development strategies and participation in each others' events.

In terms of external relations, factors hindering the efficiency of cooperation between applicants and the LAG have been identified. First, the central marketing campaign of the Programme is considered the principal way to inform and direct potential project holders to the LAGs. However, respondents highlighted that the Managing Authority considered it as an opportunity for political promotion rather than a means of public information provision about the LAGs. The Hungarian countryside is typically characterised by low level of entrepreneurial activity, due to the relatively small number and low capital endowment of SMEs, which are the principal targets of Axis 3 and 4. For this reason, the enabler's role of the Managing Authority in linking potential project holders with the LAGs through central promotion should be advanced. The inadequate central communication of the LEADER fund was a missed opportunity to link project holders and the LAGs, which indirectly limited the project generation opportunities. Considering the inter-organisational relationships, the overlapping of the LAGs' functions and the LRDOs' tasks could be discerned. The suspension of the LRDOs as of July 2010 indicates that purely marketing and advisory tasks were not expedient to sustain another national-level rural network besides the LAGs.

Second, the role of grant writing specialists as intermediaries in the application process have been criticised for hampering the thematic and financial positioning of the projects in

the wider, area-based development strategy. The major problem was that the project holders had not been in contact with the LAGs beyond the formal contract signing, which was not sufficient to prevent them from submitting incomplete applications or proposals lacking conformity with the LDS.

Organisational dynamics was defined as the ability of the LAGs to change, adapt to change and induce change for both internal and external development. Within this context, the patterns of stakeholder integration unfolded factors influencing the ability of the LEADER organisations to design and implement integrated approaches to project generation and organisational development. The results confirm findings from the literature in that local apathy and reluctance (Murdoch, 2000; Panyik, Costa, Rátz, 2011; Saxena & Ilbery, 2008; Yuksel, Bramwell, & Yuksel, 1999), and the 'hostile brothers' scenario' (Saxena & Ilbery, 2008) were found to be the main obstacles to integrated approaches to project generation at the community level.

On the LAGs' side, a range of managerial practices have been identified, which highlighted that the activities of the programme managers reach well beyond the scope of the LEADER Programme and suggest that these complementary activities may serve as a remedy for local inactivity. For this reason the LAGs much resemble, and in reality function as, a complex development agency at the local level.

Through their community activity and networking, the managers aimed at diversifying service provision and matching compatible projects in the area in order to expand the economic base of rural micro-enterprises. Examples of such innovative approaches include the development of a new local product by recycling agricultural by-products, and the extension of a small handicraft business with workshops and art exhibition.

During LEADER+, when the Programme was still in its infancy, the task of project consultancy often blended with grant writing despite the conflict of interests. Respondents argued that relevant but not well prepared project plans of inexperienced, old local people who could not afford to hire a grant writing specialist needed substantial help from their side in order to retain most of per capita funding in the area. Also, another practice was to readjust the running costs of the LAG to provide advanced payment for local applicants with financial difficulties.

In the most disadvantageous settlements, two specific strategies were used. First, the LAGs signed a multilateral agreement with local financial institutions on a bank loan provided on favourable terms for settlements with severe financial difficulties, while in turn representatives of those institutions were incorporated in the decision-making committee of the LAG. Second, in villages lacking considerable entrepreneurial activity, development targeted the service sphere through the improvement of information provision and Internet accessibility.

The narratives highlighted that there is indeed room for the LAGs' social activity in the countryside despite their rural development profile. Notably, through community forums they can provide a neutral platform for discussing sensitive community issues and to serve as a buffer against conflicting views. In fact, respondents agreed that contrary to the overly bureaucratic approach of the Managing Authority, the strengthening of the LAGs' civil profile would be essential to safeguard consistency with the LEADER principals. While disproportionate amount of time of the LAG managers was used to accomplish predefined goals specified in the monthly work plan elaborated by the Ministry, insufficient attention could be paid to the bottom-up, individual civil initiatives, which were therefore often discouraged.

Another obstacle constraining the LAGs' community development activity was the narrowing of tendering opportunities for training and skills-aquisition from the national to the local levels. While the national development plans assign general goals, the tendering conditions defined in the regulations addressing these goals were so specific that suited only a few county or regional-level organisations. Thus the calls for tenders could not reach the local level, which hindered the expansion of the LAGs' educational dimension.

The complementary activities the LAGs engage in raise the question whether entrepreneurial activity could be a path for their organisational development. The findings revealed that there are two main trends directing them towards the diversification of their activities. The first is the growing pressure on the LAGs to offer membership benefits in order to preserve their membership, which is gradually shrinking. The major problem has been that no distinction should be made between members and non-members of the LAGs because the tendering conditions equally apply to all applicants. For this reason, the members do not gain any advantage whatsoever in return for the membership fees. Furthermore, at the time of the establishment of the LAGs a large number of people had

been enrolled by the municipalities with the aim to gain key positions in the decision-making committee. After the positions have been allocated, resignations started to become more frequent, which renders the decision-making of the general assembly more difficult. Thus many LAGs aimed to diversify their activities by service provision, such as for example tendering for the establishment of the local DMO, taking into consideration their members' business profile.

The second trend is the increasing operation of the LAGs in deficit, due to the lack of advanced payments on the running costs in a post-payment system. Basically, every first half year of operation is financed by bank loans acquired from a national holding, and the interest rates are non-eligible expenditure by the LEADER Fund. Hence there is a growing pressure on the LAGs to find financial sources and cover this deficit.

These issues suggest that, paradoxically, the successful operation of the LAGs require state intervention. In particular, the state's role in this regard is to formulate appropriate operational conditions and ensure, by regulatory means, the financial independency of the LAGs in order to avoid that they become subject to lobby activity or financially dependent on the municipalities. The possible future implications of these trends further suggest that the LAGs' organisational planning should extend beyond the financial period of territorial planning to become less reliant on the NHRDP funds and self-supporting in the long run. To this end, the LAGs should establish an economic potential through strategic investments that allow for the development of the infrastructural background of self-sustaining operation. The wide range of current activities, managerial practices and network relationships highlight their potential to transform from local development organisations to local innovation centres that emphasise the innovational profile of rural development. However, this requires that the civil properties and functions of the LAGs be strengthened rather than discouraged by state intervention.

Sectoral integration was defined as the development of area-based complex projects comprising multiple related businesses. The overwhelming majority of project proposals targeting integration were actions in tourism, in particular in marketing and branding, event organisation, cross-border cooperation and tourism routes. This indicates that the concept and principles of integrated projects in the LEADER Programme are most readily applicable in the area of tourism. The results in Chapter 6. 3. 4 unfolded factors hindering and enabling sectoral cooperation illustrated by examples of tourism projects, which are

summarised in Figure 6. 6. The general conclusion to be drawn is that the planning of sectoral integration requires predefined development objectives, tendering criteria and co-finance rates in order to be able to combine different projects due to the financial exclusivity of the LEADER Fund with other EU-based rural and regional programmes. In the absence of clearly defined tendering criteria, the planning teams formulated general, rather than specific goals, which limited the variety of development options for integrated projects.

The patterns of **participation** in the formulation of the LDS highlighted the importance of knowledge transfer between tendering cycles, differences in the efficiency of informal and formal planning and the difficulties in the selection of the groups that have been granted the status of the LAG based on the evaluation of the LDS. The differences in the central and local logic of planning showed that local apathy can be a result of the frustration of local people over their struggle to comply with standard bureaucratic requirements in the development of a strategy which emphasises distinct local characteristics.

Based on the patterns of power relationships, power distribution and power dependence, factors of **empowerment** influencing the directions of rural development through organisational performance could be identified. Used as a synonym for subsidiarity, empowerment is interpreted as the redistribution of powers to policy levels where action can be taken most effectively by a competent authority. The patterns of empowerment have been explored in the transfer of powers to the LAGs, in particular in the formation of power relationships, the distribution of power among stakeholders and the resulting configuration of power dependence in the context of state-local interactions.

The formation of **power relationships** revealed local impacts of the instability of central regulations, which manifested in uncertain tender submission deadlines, regulatory deficiencies and overly bureaucratic requirements. The roots of this rapidly changing regulatory and institutional background can be traced back to the EU accession in 2004, when LEADER, as a new instrument was implemented in the Agricultural and Rural Development Operational Programme (ARDOP). The logic of implementation of LEADER differs significantly from that of the large-scale, top-down implemented mainstream policies, and the inconsistencies become evident when the operational procedure of the ARDOP, which is an agricultural programme, was adapted to the essentially non-agricultural LEADER. The formation of power relationships therefore reflects back to the

issues arising from the positioning of the LEADER in relation to the ARDOP in the system of the mainstream policies.

The operational procedure adapted from the ARDOP was not suitable for the evaluation of LEADER projects and it failed to specify relevant LEADER-specific procedures. Furthermore, the checks and balances were not adequately distributed between local and central actors, which has led to the authorities' insufficient accountability. Notably, contrary to the LAGs, the failure of the authorities to meet the deadlines stipulated by the Law of Operational Procedures in Public Administration has not entailed sanctions. The results highlighted how constantly changing deadlines and overly bureaucratic requirements as excessive administration, incremental expenses and lack of flexibility in the approach of the authorities constrained organisational efficiency and strategic planning of the LAGs. The outcomes equally affected the LAG organisations and the project holders: the uncertainty in the tendering conditions and in the eligibility criteria caused damages in local people's trust. However, in multi-level governance the actions of higher-level authorities are conveyed and represented by the lower-level executive bodies. Thus, local people's trust will be primarily shaken not in the EU Funds but in the national government and ultimately in the LAGs. This shows that although the strength of the LAGs lies in the ability to establish trust relationships with the local people, trust built bottom-up can easily be destroyed from the top by ambiguous regulatory conduct.

Central regulations formulated by the Managing Authority form the basis of interaction between the central and local actors, because the regulations are implemented by the local actors. While the formulation of central regulations revealed patterns of power relationships, the examination of **power distribution** and the resulting level of **power dependence** revealed the decisive role of the project appraisal process, in particular the evaluation criteria, in determining the directions of local development.

The analysis undertaken appears to support the critical voices from the academic milieu that cast doubt on the willingness of the state to radically enhance the access of local groups to power (Maurel, 2008; Panyik & Costa, 2010; Storey, 1999; Wilkinson, 1992). The project appraisal followed a centralised, hierarchical model based on shared eligibility check. Contrary to the EU guidelines, however, both the Managing Authority and the Paying Agency intervened in the quality assessment of projects and the centre of gravity of decision-making remained at the central level. Thus, the results further provided

evidence on power restraining practices of the authorities behind the scenes of the semblance of empowerment.

Three major practices have been identified in the appraisal process that back this conclusion. First, the LAGs evaluated incomplete applications *prior* to the completion of missing tender documents. Second, the evaluation criteria were centrally defined with insufficient consideration of the local characteristics, resulting in the selection of projects incompatible with the LDS. Lastly, the Managing Authority intervened in the evaluation of the project's fit with the LDS.

The importance of evaluating the tenders *after* the completion of documents arises from the fact that the appendices, such as the financial or the business plan are essential parts of the application, which are also evaluated and granted by points during the appraisal. For example, a missing business plan, if replaced, was awarded 40 points, which could be decisive considering the maximum score of 170 points. Hence, the evaluation undertaken by the LAGs before the completion of documents was merely a *pre-evaluation*, because the final decision was taken by the ARDA and the MARD after the missing documents have been replaced.

The four tender regulations of Axis 3 under scrutiny (micro-enterprise development, tourism development, village renewal and conservation and upgrading of rural heritage) defined standard development parameters which repealed the development objectives assigned in the LDS. As a result, locally important objectives were withdrawn and locally unimportant objectives were promulgated. Only the bottleneck of development objectives on the overlap of the regulations and the LDS targeted the actual local needs. As one manager noted, almost all tenders that had been submitted in tourism in his LAG targeted accommodation provision, although what they actually needed was the diversification of tourism services in order to extend overnight tourist stays.

In addition to the standard development parameters, changes in the eligibility criteria during the tendering period also contributed to the divergence of development objectives addressed in the LDS and in reality. The Annex I of the Treaty of Rome excludes primary agricultural products – which are the target of Axis 1 – from support from the essentially non-agricultural Axis 3 and 4. This directly concerns the LAGs, because the development of local products – the majority of which are primary agricultural products –, forms the

basis of the strategies across the country. On one hand, the discussion in Section 6.3.4 on the exclusion of primary agricultural products and applicants whose agricultural income exceeds 50% of the total income highlighted that in effect, non-agricultural diversification into the rural economy requires agricultural considerations. Not only is the income base of rural businesses typically agricultural-reliant but non-agricultural diversification implies the non-agricultural utilisation of agricultural resources or products. On the other hand, announcing Annex I during tendering and not before led to the exclusion of numerous agricultural producers from the scope of beneficiaries who participated in the planning of the LAGs with the aim to tender.

The composition of the selection criteria against which the project proposals were evaluated, highlighted the power distribution in the decision-making process. In particular, the main importance within this context is the ability of the local actors to generate tender results in conformity with the LDS. In the centrally defined criteria, 20 points of the maximum 170 were available for the local decision-making committees to evaluate the project's compatibility with the LDS. While in LEADER+, five criteria were used to distribute the 20 points of the maximum 120, in the present LEADER a simple dichotomous question was used ('Is the project compatible with the LDS?'). 'Yes' was granted 20 points and 'no' 0 point which did not allow for the expression of the degree of the project's fit with the LDS. Thus, the comparison between the previous and the present LEADER indicates a relapse in the redistribution of power, observable in the sequence of the completion of documents and in the evaluation of the project's fit with the LDS. Furthermore, the Managing Authority formulated a *pseudo-criteria* for granting these 20 points, which was met uniformly by all projects (See: Chapter 6.5.2.2, p.288). This way the LAGs were indirectly constrained by the Ministry to approve all applications' fit with the LDS, independently from the qualities of the project. The flowchart in Chapter 6.5.2.2 (Figure 6.10) presented the far-reaching consequences, including the local outcomes and the future impacts of the failure of the evaluation criteria to recognise local relevancy due to decision-making deficit.

Notably, the main indicator of the divergence of tender results and local development objectives was, in fact, the ratio of small-scale to large-scale projects. The maximum eligible cost defined by the Commission (EUR 200.000) was considerably higher than the values defined in the local strategies, which, reinforced by the authorities' approach, generated a shift towards large-scale projects across the four measures and the LAGs.

The interventional practices of the authorities in the scoring criteria summarised in Table 6.4 in Chapter 6.5.2.3 highlighted this trend. In addition to methodological considerations (using mostly dichotomous questions and distinguishing small- and large-scale projects by different evaluation methods) the standard criteria used to evaluate the economic contribution of projects (establishment of jobs, employing disadvantaged people and addressing accessibility) appeared to favour large-scale projects.

The translation of a project's qualities into numbers and indicators is an adequate method of evaluation rather in urban areas and of large-scale projects but it may not be adequate to genuinely represent the qualities of small-scale projects in rural areas. According to the respondents, the creation of several jobs and hiring disabled people are unrealistic requirements from small family businesses and micro-enterprises which struggle to preserve their existing employees. In fact, the concept of micro-enterprise development is contradictory with these criteria, because the comparative advantage of micro-enterprises lies in cost efficiency achieved by low maintenance expenditures.

Consequently, the ranking of projects scarcely reflected the order of local importance, because the projects that received the highest scores were not necessarily better than those with the lowest scores. Due to the high maximum eligible cost, the requested funds were not commensurable with the budget of the LAGs. Extreme situations occurred in which only two or three proposals that requested EUR200 000 covered virtually the entire fund available for a single measure. In these cases, the decision-makers eventually withdrew the call for tender of the entire measure or raise the threshold score so high that none of the projects could reach. The disapproval of such projects' fit with the LDS, justified by the lower upper limit defined in the LDS, even led to lawsuits against LAGs for the violation of the tender regulations.

The reluctance of the state to redistribute powers could be captured not only in the actions taken to reduce the decision-making competences of, but also in the attempts to enhance control over, the LAGs. The majority of respondents felt that the strategy of the Ministry to maintain double administration in LEADER was contrary to the most plausible solution to devolve the entire appraisal process to the LAGs. Clearly, the increased administrative apparatus was a response of the authorities to the absence of political legitimacy and accountability of unelected entities. Since the LAGs are neither clients nor administrative bodies, the Law on Public Administration (LPA) excludes them from administrative

procedures and thus from the exercise of power. The problem is that, as MacKinnon (2002) succinctly puts it: “the local communities lack effective sanctions that would allow them to hold these agencies to account” (p.309).

However, the main conflict in state-local views on the allocation of decision-making competences arises from the different legal interpretation of the act of project selection. In the view of the central authorities, the certification of final beneficiaries is an administrative resolution, which, due to the Law on Public Administration (LPA), can only be issued by administrative bodies with decision-making competence on the allocation of public funds but not by NGOs. However, if the decisions were taken by the LAGs, it would not be an administrative resolution, because the LAGs are not accredited agencies.

According to the local views, the *delegation of competences* could be undertaken by the accreditation of the LAGs through a parliamentary decision. Since the application of the LPA is not stipulated by the Community Law, the operational procedure of the NHRDP was defined in a separate law enacted in 2007 (MOGY, 2007), which allowed for the distribution of competences through a bilateral agreement between the Paying Agency and the LAGs defined by the Managing Authority (Finta, 2009). Thus, the tender regulations could be limited to define the general operational procedure and the method of local tendering. The general procedures could be complemented locally by the LDS (which had already been adopted in the end of the planning period) and sent back to the Ministry for approval.

In addition to the delegation of competences, the legitimacy of the LAGs could be established by *elaborating a separate operational procedure*, which would allow the individual operation of the Programme. This is a practice used in various older member states; In Ireland, for example, even the duties of payment have been devolved upon the LAGs. The most pertinent example of such operation in Hungary is the Operational Programmes of the NHDP, which are based on financial contribution from the ERDF. The implementation of the Operational Programmes is defined not by the Law on Public Administration, but by individual regulations (Finta, 2009). Previous experiences of the LAG managers on the incompatibility of the LEADER Programme and the ARDOP in LEADER+, may lend support for this scenario. However, the adoption of institutional and procedural elements of a new public management requires the adaptation of bureaucratic public administrations to new realities that have emerged during the past decades by the

worldwide spreading of governance formations. This would impose considerable challenges on the present administrative structure, which is perhaps why a bilateral agreement has not been bounded yet on the delegation of competences despite the existing legislative licence of the Managing Authority.

8.3 Factors of rural governance influencing the contribution of tourism to overall community development and the support for tourism

As it could be seen, the qualitative component examined rural governance principles in the context of organisational performance. The quantitative component, at the same time, analysed these principles in the tourism context. The main objective, just as in the case of the qualitative component, has been two-fold. First to explore whether relationships exist between rural governance factors, the contribution of tourism to overall community development and support for tourism; and second, to identify differences in views between networks of local development organisations.

The nature of the research question, which aimed to identify relationships between factors and group differences between networks, suggested the implication of quantitative methods. For this reason, the population base used in the qualitative component (the LEADER LAGs) was expanded by three national-level local development networks (MPMA, LRDO, NMRC), bearing in mind that statistical aggregation of the data requires larger samples. Furthermore, this way the wider policy environment of rural governance could be analysed.

Data collection yielded 684 responses for a 65.7% response rate. As the first stage of data analysis, the steps of data screening suggested by Hair, *et al.* (1998); Field (2009) and Leech, Barrett, & Morgan (2005) were followed. After the removal of 22 doubles and outliers, 662 usable questionnaires remained representing a 63.6% response rate. Next, the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample was analysed and presented by descriptive statistics. The sample was composed of almost equal number of males (50.8 %) and females (49.2%). It also showed a fairly balanced distribution of the four networks, the smallest sub-sample being the MPMAs (N=125; 19%) and the largest the LEADER LAGs (N= 212; 32%). The majority of respondents were young (Mean=36.4) and highly educated; 93.5% (N=619) of the respondents had either a College or a University degree.

The majority of respondents had lived in the area for 21-40 years (58.5%), and 59% had been born there.

The descriptive statistics of the views on the variables highlighted that in terms of the level of tourism development activity of local development organisations, respondents attributed most importance to the role of tourism in their organisation's development strategy/vision of development and to their awareness of local problems and needs of tourism. This shows that besides tourism authorities and destination management organisations, there is considerable tourism planning and development activity in the rural countryside. In addition, the high level of awareness underlies Shortt (1994) and Madrigal (1995)'s argument that local planners are at the centre of impact assessment because the impacts of development are felt most acutely at this level. However, the involvement in tourism planning and management has been moderate, which calls for enhanced policy coordination by integrating the perspectives of these organisations in order to avoid isolated action. This was also confirmed by the moderate level of consensus in the objectives of tourism development in the development strategies and the existence, though in general of a few, conflicting objectives.

The results indicated moderate level of IRT in rural territories of Hungary, which reflects the early stage of tourism development of these areas. However, much agreement could be discerned in the importance of sectoral and stakeholder integration. The high level of contribution of tourism to overall community development and support for tourism is in line with host community reactions on tourism at the early (exploratory or involvement) stages of tourism development identified by Butler (1980)'s destination life-cycle model (as discussed in: 3.5.3.1). It may also be explainable by the positive relationship reported in community impacts research between the level of knowledge about tourism and the local economy and attitudes towards tourism (Andereck, *et al.*, 2005; Davis, *et al.*, 1988; Lankford & Howard, 1994a).

Exploratory factor analysis was used at two levels of the data: first on the overall sample and then on each of the networks separately. The aim was to identify the underlying factorial structure that accounts for the highest variance possible. The variance explained, the factor loadings and the reliability of the factors were all in conformity with the generally accepted guidelines. The results of PCA analysis with Promax rotation revealed a two-dimensional factorial structure in 'Participation', after the removal of three items. Drawing

on the initial conceptualisation the factors were named as: 'Level of involvement in tourism planning and management' (LITPM) and 'Level of tourism development activity' (LTDA). In the 'Integration' construct, also two factors emerged, which were labelled as: 'The scale of IRT' and the 'The sustainable dimension of IRT'. The removal of the item measuring 'Growth' may suggest that tourism growth is not an adequate indicator for the measurement of the level of IRT. The two items of 'Contribution' displayed significant and high inter-item correlation values and proper reliability and finally, a one-factor solution emerged in the case of the 'Support' construct.

The sub-samples of the four networks were readily available for the validation of the factor matrix and could also be used to identify differences in terms of the underlying factorial structure. The split-sample PCA analysis in general confirmed the results on the total sample, because the grouping of items reflected the factorial structure and the initial conceptualisation as well. However, in the 'Participation' construct, the 'Level of involvement in tourism planning and management' split into two factors in accordance with the original two constructs ('Level of involvement in tourism planning' and 'Level of cooperation with tourism authorities'). This, on one hand indicates discordance between the total sample and the sub-samples. However, the general structure remained the same and no substantially different and theoretically unexplainable grouping was detected. Thus the results can be considered as a confirmation for the factorial matrix.

On the other hand, the differences occurred between groups with a planning competence (MPMA and LEADER) and purely advisory groups that lack decision-making competences (LRDO and NMCR). As seen earlier in Chapter 5.5.4.1 presenting the research population, the LEADER LAGs and the MPMA are planning and development organisations eligible for per capita public funding that undertake development activity through area-based planning. The NMRC and the LRDOs are, on the other hand, advisory groups, responsible for project consultancy in the area of the Structural Funds and the EAFRD, respectively. This is an intriguing result which suggests that the planning groups expressed more diversified views than the advisory groups for which involvement in tourism planning and management is less relevant.

In order to explore the possibility of group differences across variables, one-way ANOVA analysis was used on the overall sample. The ANOVA analysis and post-hoc tests revealed significant group differences in terms of perspectives and highlighted that the

views of the four networks were not homogenous, as initially expected. Thus, a split-sample analysis followed as the next step via hierarchical regression analysis, which has not only confirmed but further elaborated these findings.

Based on Field (2009) and Leech, *et al.* (2005), and considering also the sample sizes in relation to statistical power, hierarchical regression was selected due to its abilities to combine the advantages of the stepwise and the simultaneous methods. In order to measure the mediating effect between 'Contribution' and 'Support', the method suggested by Baron & Kenny (1986) as applied by for example: Lok (2001) will be used. In all models, socio-demographic data (age, length of residency, born in the area, gender and membership in local civic organisations) were included based on indications from the literature, particularly Wang & Pfister (2008).

The regression models of the four networks aimed to assess whether the contribution of, and support for, tourism can be predicted by the linear combination of governance factors and socio-demographic variables. The results seemed to confirm the division between networks indicated by EFA and ANOVA, and revealed differences in the regression models between MPMA and LEADER on one hand, and LRDO and NMCR on the other.

In the case of the planning and development organisations, the effect size of the models was high, and three variables contributed significantly to the prediction in explaining the variance in the dependent variables: the sustainable dimension of IRT, the level of tourism development activity and the level of cooperation with tourism authorities. Clearly, the main predictor was the first, but the latter two variables also contributed to explaining the variance in the models. This indicated that the higher the level of sustainability and complementarity of tourism and the integration of tourism activities (both sectoral and stakeholder), the more contribution the managers attribute to tourism in overall community development and the higher is their support for tourism. The relationship between sustainability and support for tourism is mediated by the contribution of tourism, but direct links also exist to contribution and to support separately in every model, which further emphasises the importance of this variable.

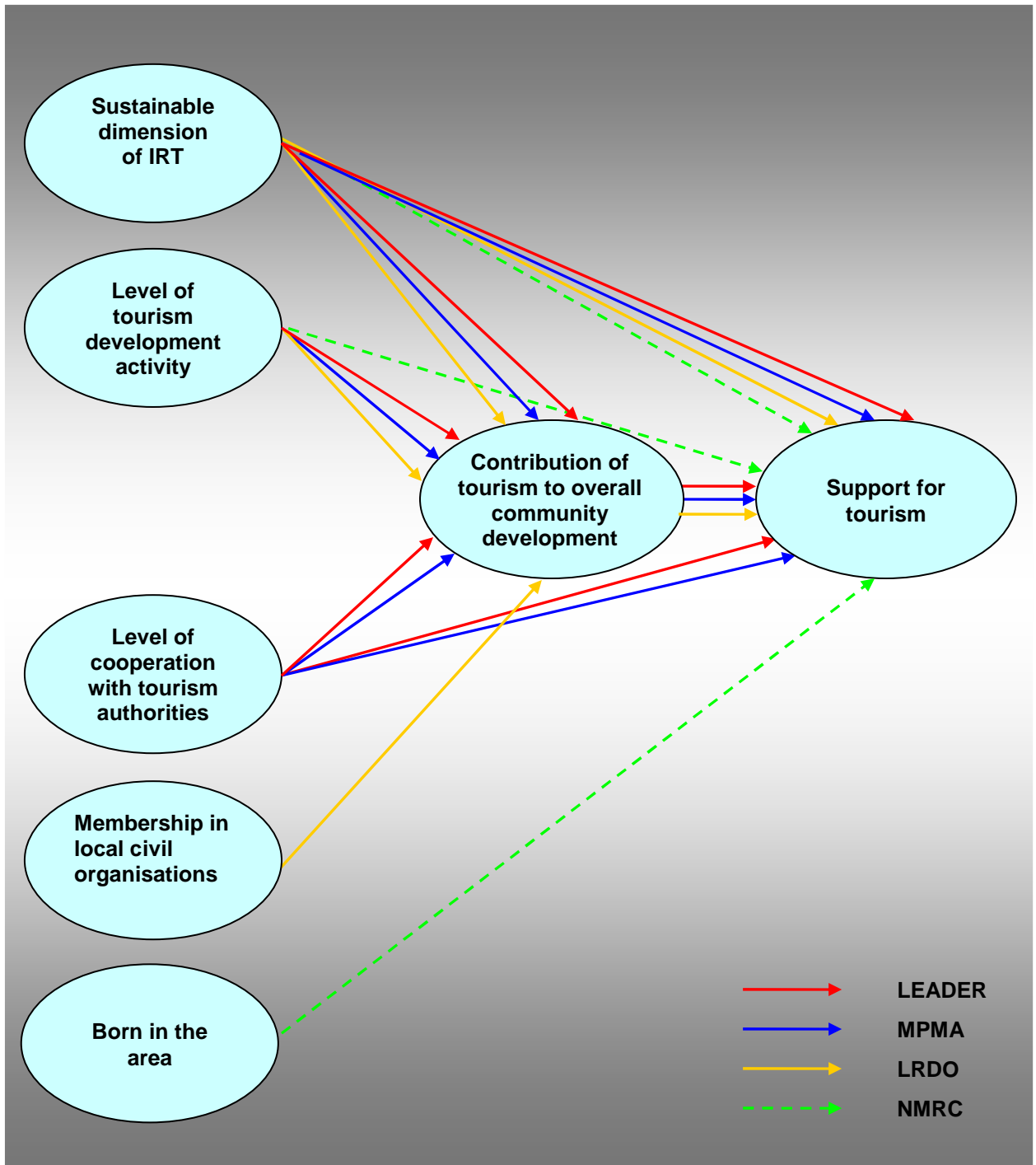
In addition, the level of tourism development activity of these organisations and the level of cooperation with tourism authorities also influence their evaluation of the contribution of tourism to the development of rural areas and their support for further tourism

development. However the contribution of these variables is little, except for the level of tourism development activity of the LEADER LAGs, which is moderate. This reflects the crosstabulation results in the descriptive statistics in that the LEADER group gave the highest importance, influence and contribution scores as compared to the other groups in the evaluation of their tourism development activity. Also, the level of cooperation is a significant predictor only in the case of these two groups, which again indicate that they attribute more importance to cooperation with the tourism authorities than the advisory groups.

The effect size of the LRDO and NMRC models was considerably smaller: medium in the case of the LRDOs, and small in the NMRC. In the LRDOs, the main contributor to the prediction was also the sustainable dimension of IRT but membership in local civic organisations and LTDA also had a small but significant contribution to the prediction. The NMRC was the weakest model among all examined, indeed, it was the network least involved in tourism matters in the sample. The model of 'Contribution' was not found to be significant, and the model of 'Support', although exhibiting a close to small, but still medium effect, demonstrated small regression coefficients. The sustainable dimension of IRT and the level of tourism development activity contributed also to this prediction in addition to 'Born in the area'. However, due to the low effect size in relation to the sample size, the NMRC models can be considered as inconclusive.

Considering the overall results of the four networks, it could be seen that two variables have proven to be predictors across the four models: the sustainable dimension of IRT and the level of tourism development activity (See: Figure 8.1). This was recognisable even in the inconclusive LRDO model (See the arrows in green in Figure 8.1). Thus, common to the micro-regional development organisations is that a positive relationship exists between the level of these two variables, the level of perceived contribution of tourism to overall community development and the level of their support for tourism. It is important to note that the level of cooperation with tourism authorities is also a predictor in the case of the two planning groups. The support of tourism is uniformly mediated by the contribution of tourism to overall community development, which confirms the theoretical assumption put forward in the development of variables (Chapter 5.4.1), namely, that policymakers of area-based development evaluate tourism in an existing or potential destination by taking into consideration the level of development of the surrounding area.

Figure 8.1: Path diagram summarising the relationships identified between governance principles, the contribution of tourism to overall community development and support for tourism by groups



The results on the connection between demographic variables and attitudes towards tourism have not yielded conclusive results. Only in the two advisory groups could be relationships detected, but taking into account the small contribution of these variables in

models with moderate and small effect sizes, these relationships could not be considered significant. However, the fact that possible relationships with demographic variables only emerged in the case of the advisory groups might suggest that the support of organisations not directly involved in, and/or not frequently dealing with, tourism issues, could more easily be segmented by the level of community attachment (membership or born in the area) than the support of organisations more involved in tourism. With other words, the type and the level of participation are not relevant enough for them to influence their attitude towards tourism and therefore the influence of other variables, such as community attachment may be more apparent. However, as mentioned earlier, the weak statistical properties do not allow to reach valid conclusions in this regard.

This is consistent with previous research on the relationship between community support and socio-demographics which has so far been inconclusive (Johnson, Snepenger, & Akis, 1994; Lankford, 1994; Liu & Var, 1986; McCool & Martin, 1994; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990; Sirakaya, Teye, & Sonmez, 2002; Tosun, 2002). Indeed, the influence of community attachment, measured as the length of residency or born/grown up in the area, appear also to be inconsistent in the literature, because results revealed negative (Lankford & Howard, 1994a) and positive or no relationship (Andereck, *et al.*, 2005; Davis, Allen, & Cosenza, 1988; Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002; McCool & Martin, 1994; McGehee & Andereck, 2004).

Clearly, the main contributor across the models was the sustainable dimension of IRT. The main conclusion that can be drawn from this result is that in evaluating the level of IRT for future development, local developers prioritise the sustainable dimension rather than the extent of IRT in their region. The split structure of the seven dimensions of IRT proposed by Clark & Chabrel (2007) that emerged from this analysis indicate that local planners do not consider these indicators as equally important but favour those qualities of IRT that enhance sustainability, complementarity and integration of tourism activities. The fact that their views are not homogenous in relation to their support for tourism, offers considerable managerial implications which will be discussed in the next section.

In addition to sustainability, local developers also consider their own tourism activity when evaluating tourism, which could be seen also in the context of community attitudes. As discussed in Chapter 5.4.2.1, Brougham & Butler (1981) and Lankford & Howard (1994) found that residents who are more engaged with this business and tourists are more

positively inclined toward it and express more positive attitudes. Thus the results on community participation have been confirmed from the perspective of policymakers in terms of the level of their own development activity rather than direct involvement in tourism planning.

While the results do not imply that the latter is not desirable, the favourable attitude of local development organisations seem to be linked to the quality of inter-organisational communication in the case of planning organisations (the municipal associations and the LEADER groups). Thus these results show that organisational profile influence the type of participation associated with the support of policymakers.

It is important to note that despite its moderate effect size, the level of cooperation with tourism authorities is further reinforced by direct links to contribution and support separately, just as in the case of the sustainable dimension of tourism. A memorable quote cited in Chapter 6.5.1 discussing the patterns of power relationships highlighted that poor communication and the lack of personal tone in the interactions with the Ministry characterised the relationships between the LAGs and the Managing Authority ('If I am angry, I address the Ministry officials as 'Dear localdevelopment@fvm.hu'; if I am not, I address the person to whom I wish to write' p. 273). It could also be seen how much the relations improved with the regional Paying Agencies merely by stimulating personal interactions. The results demonstrated that this is applicable to inter-organisational relationships as well.

The local development organisations under scrutiny in this thesis are not only involved in rural governance but also represent considerable potential for tourism development, primarily by the harmonisation of funds. As Wanhill (1997) notes, the most important financial support of the EU arises not from specific tourism-related policies, but rather from mainstream instruments such as the ERDF of the Structural Funds and the EAFRD of the Common Agricultural Policy. Perhaps the main issue of the present European tourism policy is inadequate policy coordination manifesting in discordant regulatory frameworks across tourism-related areas such as accommodation policy, conservation policy and cross-border cooperation, which often hinders tourism initiatives (Costa, Panyik & Buhalis, 2012). Thus, tourism could profit the most by making further adjustments to the development priorities of these funds not only at the national but at the regional and local level as well. Within this context, the potential hold by these organisations rests in their

pivotal role in policy coordination at the most immediate level of development and in their ability to produce critical information in the design of regional tourism policies related to funding and tendering opportunities.

8.4 Theoretical contributions and managerial implications

This thesis presented how governance principles can be considered and operationalised as factors of change of rural development through their impact on organisational performance and tourism support. By deriving empirical evidence from theoretical conceptualisation through practitioners' perspectives, the study entails implications for both theory and practice. The theoretical underpinning of the qualitative 'performance' component arises from the conceptual framework developed to guide the research process (Chapter 5.3.1). In the quantitative 'support' component, the development of the variables provided the conceptual basis (Chapter 5.4). Thus, the theoretical contributions of this thesis directly reflect back to the argumentation offered for the justification of the research.

In order to establish the conceptual foundation, the wider theoretical background has been reviewed through the state of the art, which allowed for the positioning of the research in the related areas of literature. As mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, the focus of this thesis has been on rural governance principles. Within this context, considering both components the main contribution it offers is a new perspective on governance principles. As it could be seen across the chapters, it views integration, participation and empowerment as factors of rural governance, which allowed for their operationalisation by addressing two literature gaps that have been identified (See: Chapter 5.2.1).

8.4.1 The qualitative 'performance' component

In the 'performance' component, the literature gap was identified in the area of rural governance, which has been reviewed in Chapter 2. Specifically, it stemmed from the dearth of empirical investigations on local variations of stakeholders' relative power in central-local relationships of rural governance, which highlighted a gap on the impacts of the implementation of governance principles on local organisational performance (See:

Figure 5.1). As mentioned in the presentation of the qualitative results in Section 8.2, in order to address this gap, the organisational performance of the LAGs is examined through the implementation of governance principles which most readily manifests in state-local relationships. Thus, the main contribution of the qualitative component arises from addressing this missing link between factors of rural governance and organisational performance through a systematic analysis.

The literature review presented in Chapter 2 highlighted that the main contemporary issue of the endogenous approach is that a basic contradiction exists between the exercise of top-down power and the essentially bottom-up nature of governance. By addressing the above literature gap the thesis aimed at contributing to a deeper understanding and thus, potentially, to the reconciliation of the inherent state-local antagonism of rural governance.

In practical terms, the 'performance' component draws on interviews undertaken with managers of rural governance organisations. As such it constructs theory through their narratives on the 'real-life' practice of implementing governance principles. By collecting data one-by-one from individual respondents and transforming these single datasets into a collective set of patterns, the results are responsive to the practitioners both at the local and the central level. In particular, the findings inform the LAG managers about the recurrent issues of integration, participation and empowerment through a neutral, neither local-, nor state-related 'third-party' analysis. The systematic analysis of the implementation provides them with an overall view of the process which allows for a comparison between their individual experiences and the general views.

Furthermore, the identification of factors that influence the organisational performance of the LAGs through common patterns informs both the local and the central coordinative bodies. The enabling factors can be practically considered as success factors which provide valuable contribution to the collection of best practices nationally and internationally, considering that the spreading and exchanging of successful experiences is a general method of the LEADER and also other EU programmes across the member states. The restraining factors, on the other hand highlighted the dysfunctional mechanisms of rural governance. In particular, obstacles to collective capacity building and organisational performance of the LAGs have been identified, which helps to draw conclusions for future action.

8.4.2 The quantitative 'support' component

In the 'support' component, the literature gap was identified in the area of community tourism planning, in particular integrated rural tourism, which have been reviewed in Chapter 3 and 4, respectively. The recognition that the overwhelming majority of research employ impact factors and explore local community perceptions and attitudes of tourism, highlighted the dearth of governance factors and stakeholder diversification into community tourism planning (See: Figure 5.1 in Chapter 5.2.1). Hence the literature gap emerged on factors of rural governance influencing the contribution of tourism to overall community development and the support of local development organisations for tourism.

The main contribution of this component arises from addressing this literature gap and it is therefore two-fold. First, the novelty can be traced in employing factors of governance principles as determinants of tourism support. Second, it focuses entirely on the perspectives of local development organisations. For this reason the study results discussed earlier in this chapter inform the research stream of community tourism planning that investigates sustainable approaches (Chapter 3.5) through performance indicators of community tourism (Chapter 3.5.3). It further informs IRT about the operationalisation of the seven dimensions of IRT put forward by Clark & Chabrel (2007).

A model of rural tourism governance has been developed drawing on SET which provided theoretical support for the operationalisation of the variables. The rationale for using SET in the context of supply-side development organisations emanated from the fact that in the creation of tourism, exchanges occur between different stakeholder groups and that the involvement of community members from the public, private and non-profit spheres is ultimately driven by overall community development, as it has been argued in Chapter 5.4.1 (Andereck, *et al.*, 2005; Ap, 1992). Thus, in addition to the two-fold contribution which showed the novelty of the research in view of the literature gaps that were transformed to research objectives, this component further informs SET on the relationships between governance factors and tourism support of local development organisations discussed in Section 8.3.

It has been argued that these organisations have significant potential in policy coordination due to their position at the intersection of rural and regional financial channels. Thus, the main managerial implication arises from integrating the perspectives that have been

unfolded into the regional tourism strategies. This may help avoid isolated or conflicting action and thereby attain improved policy coordination. Furthermore, the harmonisation of stakeholder views yields 'outcomes that obtain the best balance of benefits and costs for all stakeholder groups' (Ap, 1992; p.669).

To this end, the study informs the regional tourism authorities about which governance factors contribute most to overall community development and to the favourable attitude of the LEADER LAGs, the municipal associations, and local advisory offices of European regional and rural funding. This allows for adjustments to be made in the strategies. In particular, regarding participation, the results unveiled considerable tourism development activity and awareness of tourism problems and needs of these organisations, particularly of the LEADER LAGs. The authorities could capitalise on this local knowledge by enhanced cooperation with the LEADER groups and the municipal associations, especially because their views on the contribution of tourism and their support for further tourism development were found to be influenced by the level of cooperation.

In terms of integration, the findings highlighted that the managers do not consider the nine indicators as equally important, but rather they weigh them in relation to the contribution of, and their support for, tourism. This result has implications not only for the tourism authorities but also for the local project holders, because it shows which aspects of integration are likely contribute to the positive evaluation of tourism in the allocation of funds by the municipal associations and the LEADER LAGs. The assumption here is that the relationships found in this research apply to their evaluation of tourism not only in general terms but also when assigning development priorities and appraising project proposals. The results indicated that the higher the level of environmental sustainability, complementarity and sectoral and stakeholder integration induced by tourism, the higher contribution the managers ascribe to it in overall community development, and therefore the more they support further tourism development. Accordingly, it is reasonable to conclude that tourism tenders that emphasise these qualities and express sustainability concerns would be favoured by the local planners because these projects are in conformity with the most welcomed characteristics of tourism in the rural countryside.

8.5 Limitations and suggestions for future research

Although the present thesis has attained its goals, the findings of both research components must be viewed with some limitations in mind. Research constrains inevitably occur in every study and their importance in scientific research should not be underestimated. Most notably, the limitations allow for 'placing research findings in context, interpreting the validity of the scientific work, and ascribing a credibility level to the conclusions' (Ioannidis, 2007; p.1). Furthermore, it opens the door to important opportunities for future investigations (Vieira, 2008).

In this thesis precautionary measures have been taken to demonstrate scientific rigour in both components. In Chapter 5.3.9, the qualitative methodology was evaluated in accordance with the set of criteria established by Lincoln (1985), complemented by Baxter & Eyles (1997); Decrop (1999); Tobin & Begley (2004) and regarding the specific data analysis method used, Lacey & Luff (2007). In Chapter 5.5.4.6, the representativeness of the quantitative sample was discussed. In these sections, some references to the limitations have been already made.

In general terms, and in line with Vieira (2008), it can be underlined with reference to both components that despite favourable research settings which allowed for theoretical enhancement in a single study in a particular place and time, further validations in different settings and on alternative data sets are required for future investigations.

8.5.1 The qualitative 'performance' component

In qualitative research, the findings are only transferable to similar cases (Eisenhardt, 1989). Thus, in the present case the standard regulatory system of the LEADER programme that applies to all member states allows for extending the transferability of the results across the EU. However, it is important to note that the qualitative component focuses on the case of the Hungarian LEADER LAGs. This calls for comparative studies, bearing in mind that inevitably apparent case-specific conditions, such as social, political, economic, cultural and historical characteristics may influence the way rural governance is implemented in any given country.

In addition, the level of experience in the bottom-up approach, and the familiarity with the LEADER principles was relatively low at the time of data collection. This is notable in comparison with those Western-European countries in which LEADER was implemented in 1992 when the programme was initiated (Spain, Portugal, Ireland). At the same time, however, the study may show considerable similarities with countries of the former Communist bloc due to historical communality, and with EU members that also joined the community in 2004 (Poland, Slovakia, Czech Republic, Slovenia, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania).

Considering the delegation of powers outside the jurisdiction of the sovereign state and the redefinition of decision-making competences as public rights inevitably generate antagonism between the local and the national-level actors involved. The extent to which the public sphere intervenes in the establishment and the operations of the LAGs through the Management Authority and the Paying Agency and restrains empowerment varies by the public administration system and the development of the democratic culture.

The literature on rural governance appears to be consistent in that knowledge on the dynamics of rural governance is constructed through case-by-case analysis. Therefore between the groups of countries mentioned above, comparative studies could provide valuable information regarding the assumptions on similarities and differences and could highlight the extent of the enabling and restraining effect of governance factors.

The study aimed to provide a snapshot of rural governance in order to document the 'subjective realities' of the programme managers. This recalls the impartiality criterion of key-respondent eligibility proposed by Marshall (1996) which, considering that the managers evidently represent local views the study fail to meet (See: Chapter 5.3.3). Thus, one of the main limitations of this investigation arises from its major strength, namely, that it focuses entirely on the perspectives of the local LEADER management. Undoubtedly, the LAGs' staff has most insights into governance processes and therefore they are indispensable in such research. Yet it is important to bear in mind that governance is a complex process involving a diverse group of actors. Hence, future research could explore different stakeholder perspectives from the private, public and non-profit spheres (municipalities, entrepreneurs, civil members) using Grounded Theory and theoretical sampling.

8.5.2 The quantitative 'support' component

It has been presented in Chapter 5.5.4 that the overall sample is representative of the local development networks and also of rural governance policymakers in Hungary, except the board members of the LEADER LAGs and MPMAs who were not included in the sampling frame due to accessibility issues. However, it was also mentioned that while the overall sample comprising 662 observations is a convenient sample for analysis, the split-sample approach applied during EFA was based on considerably smaller sub-samples. Although these still met the generally accepted guidelines on the samples sizes for conducting EFA (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988) as well as the minimum five-to-one ratio, the smallest sub-sample of the municipal associations (N = 125) did not meet the more conservative ten-to-one ratio and according to Comrey & Lee (1992; cited in: Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; p.588), a sample size of 100 cases is poor and 200 is fair.

Considering regression analysis, the sample sizes of the four networks were appropriate to produce reliable regression models, though the statistical power varied across models. In the NMRC sample, results are inconclusive due to low statistical power and small regression coefficients. The cross-validity (generalisability) of the results was tested by the adjusted R^2 values of the regression models based on both Wherry's equation and Stein's formula and were found to be acceptable. Thus, there is sufficient evidence to suggest that the accuracy of the models is satisfactory across different samples. However, in order to test the validity and reliability of the scales in a cross-cultural setting, future research could apply the model in different countries and/or on different populations. As suggested by Teye, Sirakaya, & Sönmez, (2002), studying attitudes in various communities around the world using similar scales is likely to further increase the explanatory power of behavioural models.

A further issue of EFA is related to the validation of the factor matrix. As it has been mentioned during data analysis (7.5.5) and the conclusions of the quantitative component (8.3), the emerging factorial structure of the four sub-samples generally confirmed and thereby validated the underlying constructs of the overall sample. However, the only difference that occurred also validated the original three-fold structure of the 'Participation' construct in two sub-samples as opposed to the two-fold structure produced by EFA in the overall sample and in two sub-samples. The difference occurred between the planning

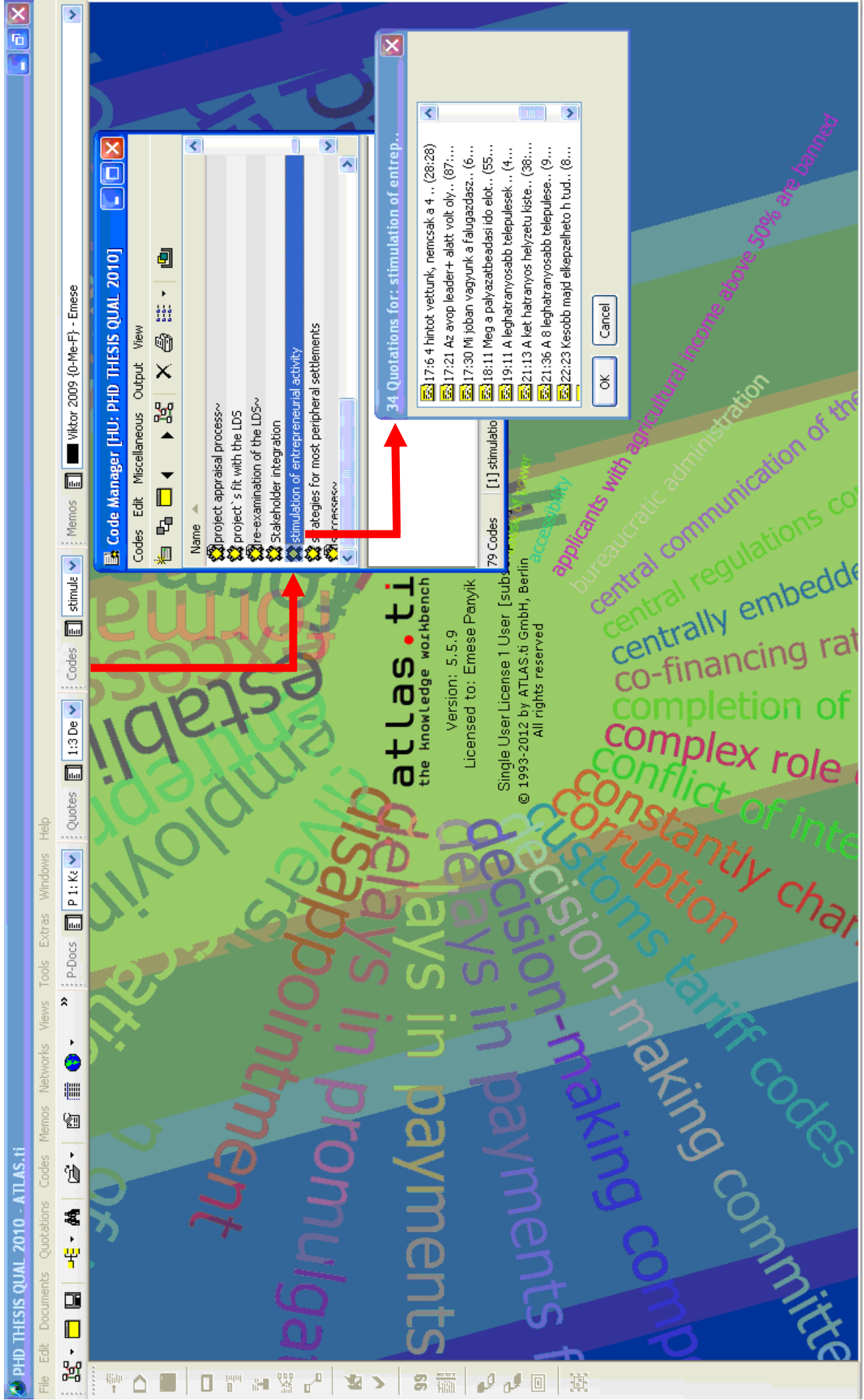
organisations and the advisory offices (See the discussions in the above cited chapters). This result calls for further validation regarding not only the question whether 'Participation' comprises two or three underlying dimensions but also regarding the speculation that the reason behind may be related to the organisational profile.

Considering the regression results, the analysis on the potential relationships between demographic variables and attitudes towards tourism has remained inconclusive. In order to confirm the contemplation in Section 8.3 about the lack of relationships found in the case of the planning groups and the weak relationships detected in the case of the advisory groups between community attachment indicators and support for tourism, future research could further explore the role of socio-demographics in samples of local and regional development organisations.

Finally, and in line with Jurowski (1994), the number of factors included in the model is limited to those that are important for rural governance policymakers. While many other factors may influence an individual's support for tourism development, the study is limited to those specific factors that were indicated in the research objectives.

Bearing in mind the above presented contributions and limitations, it is believed that this research provided ample evidence on the influence of governance factors on organisational performance and tourism support owing to thorough theoretical and methodological considerations. Indeed, this investigation responds to an increasing need of research resulting from the worldwide proliferation of governance formations in public administration systems on both the researchers and the practitioners' side. It is therefore hoped that this investigation paved the way for future adoption of governance principles with the aim to enhance our understanding of the exercise of power through collective decision-making in governance organisations.

Appendix 1 – Audit trail: Screenshot of Atlas.ti presenting the organisation of quotations and codes



The LEADER LAGs' role in tourism development of rural territories

This survey was prepared for the staff of the LEADER LAGs. It consists of three parts: 1. The role of the LAG in tourism development; 2. The level of tourism integration in the area; 3. Future development of tourism in the area.

There are no right or wrong answers, only your answer. Please assess the statements below by ticking where applicable between 1 and 5 as if you were marking a school test, with "1" corresponding to the most negative, and "5" to the most positive value.

The programme marks the question(s) you may have missed with red colour so that you can easily notice.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP AND CONTRIBUTION!

* Required

SECTION I. The role of the LAG in tourism development

1. 1 The role of tourism in our local development strategy (LDS): *

1. Not important at all 2. Slightly important 3. Moderately important 4. Fairly important 5. Very important

1 2 3 4 5
Not important at all Very important

1. 2 Our LAG influences the directions of tourism development in its area. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5
Not at all Very much

1. 3 We are aware of the problems and needs of tourism in the development scenarios unfolding in the region at this very moment. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

1. 4 Our LAG and its activities have contributed to the development of tourism in the region. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

1. 5 The local and/or regional tourism authorities ask us to identify local needs and problems of tourism. *

1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Very often

1 2 3 4 5

Never Very often

1. 6 We participate in meetings and workshops related to tourism together with the local and/or regional tourism authorities. *

1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Very often

1 2 3 4 5

Never Very often

1. 7 Ideas stemming from our LAG are incorporated in the tourism development strategy of the region. *

1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Very often

1 2 3 4 5

Never Very often

1. 8 To your knowledge, does the regional tourism development strategy reflect the LAG's LDS concerning tourism development in the region? *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

1. 9 Our LAG takes part of, or assists projects, programmes or other initiatives together with the local and/or regional tourism authorities. *

1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Very often

1 2 3 4 5
Never Very often

1. 10 Local and/or regional tourism authorities share and discuss results of tourism development with us and ask for our feedback. *

1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Very often

1 2 3 4 5
Not at all Very often

1. 11 To your knowledge, are there any development objectives in the regional tourism development strategy that are in conflict with your LAG's LDS concerning tourism development in the region? *

1. Yes, there are a lot 2. Quite a lot 3. More or less 4. A few 5. None at all

1 2 3 4 5
Yes, there are a lot None at all

1. 12 Please indicate the frequency of information exchange between your organisation and the local/regional tourism authorities. *

1. No relationship/Infrequent 2. Rare 3. Moderate 4. Frequent 5. Very frequent

1 2 3 4 5
No relationship/Infrequent Very frequent

1. 13 Please indicate the efficiency of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities in terms of the process of cooperation (such as mutual understanding, willingness to help, etc.). *

1. No relationship/ Inefficient 2. Little efficient 3. Moderately efficient 4. Efficient 5. Very efficient

1 2 3 4 5
No relationship/ Inefficient Very efficient

1. 14 Please indicate the effectiveness of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities in terms of the results of cooperation (success or failure). *

1. No relationship/ Ineffective 2. Little effective 3. Moderately effective 4. Effective 5. Very effective

1 2 3 4 5

No relationship/ Ineffective Very effective

SECTION II. The level of tourism integration in the area

2. 1 Tourism in the area originates from, and is directly linked to, the locality through ownership and employment base, and forms part of the community's politics, culture and life. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

2. 2 Tourism in the area draws on the distinct geographical, socio-cultural, economic and environmental resources of the region, thus uses and adds value to its resources and to the community. * (Simplified example: The local attraction is not an amusement park that can be built anywhere, but the local distillery or lacemaker; or, an equestrian centre is not built in an area where horse breeding is not a typical activity)

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

2. 3 The communities of the area exert influence over the planning, management and utilisation of their own tourism resources through participation in decision-making. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

2. 4 People in the area are able to work together in the locality and beyond, to develop and manage tourism. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

2. 5 Demand and supply-side tourism activity of the area has grown in terms of its distribution over the past few years. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

2. 6 Bearing in mind the negative environmental impacts of tourism, on the whole, tourism does not damage, but possibly even enhances the environmental and ecological resources of the area. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

2. 7 Tourism provides benefits (through the utilisation of resources and facilities) also to those local people that are not directly involved in the tourism industry. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

2. 8 The integration of supply elements through integrated projects or projects chains (such as wine or equestrian routes) for tourism development of the area is: *

1. Not important at all 2. Slightly important 3. Moderately important 4. Fairly important 5. Very important

1 2 3 4 5

Not important at all Very important

2. 9 Establishing public-private-non-profit partnerships for tourism development of the area is: *

1. Not important at all 2. Slightly important 3. Moderately important 4. Fairly important 5. Very important

1 2 3 4 5

Not important at all Very important

SECTION III. Future development of tourism in the area

3. 1 How do you perceive the contribution of tourism to overall community development? *

1. Very negative 2. Negative 3. Neither negative nor positive 4. Positive 5. Very positive

1 2 3 4 5

Very negative Very positive

3. 2 Do you agree or disagree that tourism contributes with more benefits than costs to overall community development? *

1. Strongly disagree 2. Disagree 3. Neither agree nor disagree 4. Agree 5. Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

3. 3 I support tourism as having a vital role in our LAG. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

3. 4. I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in the communities of the LAG. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

3. 5 I'm proud to see tourists coming over to see what my community has to offer. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

3. 6 Tourism holds great promise for our LAG's future. *

1. Not at all 2. Slightly 3. Moderately 4. Fairly much 5. Very much

1 2 3 4 5

Not at all Very much

Further comments or local experience related to the themes of the survey you wish to share:

Your sex: *

- male
- female

Your age: *

Your education: *

- Secondary school
- College/University degree
- Masters degree (MSc/MBA, etc.)
- PhD in progress
- PhD

Were you born in the LAG's area? *

- Yes
- No

How long have you been living in the area of the LAG? *

- I don't live here
- Less than 5 years
- 5 -10 years
- 11-20 years
- 21-30 years
- 31-40 years
- 41-50 years
- 51-60 years
- 61-70 years
- More than 70 years

Your region:

- Central Hungary
- Central Transdanubia
- Northern Great Plain
- Northern Hungary
- Southern Great Plain
- Southern Transdanubia
- Western Transdanubia

Are you a member of a local non-governmental organisation? *

- Yes
- No

Your LAG:

If you wish to receive the results of this research directly, please add your e-mail address:

Submit

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A LEADER HACS-ok szerepe a rurális térségek turizmusfejlesztésében

A kérdőív a LEADER HACS munkaszervezetei számára készült. Három részből áll: 1. A HACS-ok szerepe a turizmusfejlesztésben, 2. A térségi turisztikai integráció szintje 3. A turizmus jövőbeni szerepe a térségben

Nincsenek jó vagy rossz válaszok, csak az Ön válasza. Kérem értékelje az állításokat 1 és 5 között úgy, mintha iskolai osztályzatokat adna.

A program segíti a válaszadást azzal, hogy ha véletlenül kimaradna egy válasz, azt piros színnel bekeretezi, így könnyen észrevehető.

SEGÍTSÉGÉT NAGYON KÖSZÖNJÜK!

* Required

I. RÉSZ. A HACS-ok szerepe a turizmusfejlesztésben

1. 1. A turizmus szerepe az akciócsoporthoz helyi vidékfejlesztési stratégiájában: *

1. Egyáltalán nem fontos, 2. Kicsit fontos, 3. Mérsékelten fontos, 4. Meglehetősen fontos 5. Nagyon fontos

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem fontos Nagyon fontos

1. 2. Az akciócsoporthoz befolyást gyakorol területén a turizmusfejlesztésre. * (Beleértve: LEADER+, ÚMVP 3-as tengely és minden eddigi és tervezett turisztikához kapcsolódó tevékenységet)

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Mérsékelten, 4. Meglehetősen, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

1. 3. A régióink fejlődési folyamatainak tükrében világosan látjuk a turizmus jelenlegi helyi problémáit és szükségleteit. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kissé, 3. Mérsékelt, 4. Meglehetősen, 5. Nagyon világosan

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagyon világosan

1. 4. A LEADER program, a HACS-unk és a hozzá kapcsolódó tevékenységek hozzájárultak a turizmus fejlődéséhez a térségben. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Mérsékelt, 4. Meglehetősen, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

1. 5. A helyi és regionális turisztikai szervezetek kikérik a véleményünket a turizmus helyi szükségleteiről és problémáiról. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Ritkán, 3. Alkalmanként, 4. Gyakran, 5. Nagyon gyakran

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagyon gyakran

1. 6. Részt veszünk a helyi/regionális turisztikai szervezetekkel közös, turisztikai tervezéssel kapcsolatos megbeszéléseken, workshop-okon. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Ritkán, 3. Alkalmanként, 4. Gyakran, 5. Nagyon gyakran

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagyon gyakran

1. 7. Az akció csoportunktól származó, turizmusfejlesztéssel kapcsolatos ötletek, javaslatok bekerülnek a regionális turizmusfejlesztési stratégiába. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Ritkán, 3. Alkalmanként, 4. Gyakran, 5. Nagyon gyakran

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagyon gyakran

1. 8. Az Ön tudomása szerint a regionális turisztikai fejlesztési stratégia főbb pontjai tükrözik az akció csoport HVS-ének turisztikai fejlesztésre vonatkozó pontjait? *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Meglehetősen, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

1. 9. Az akciócsoport részt vesz a helyi/regionális turisztikai szervezetekkel közös projekteken vagy programok szervezésében. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Ritkán, 3. Alkalmanként, 4. Gyakran, 5. Nagyon gyakran

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagyon gyakran

1. 10. A helyi/regionális turisztikai szervezetek megbeszélik velünk a régió turisztikai fejlesztéseinek helyi eredményeit, következményeit. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Ritkán, 3. Alkalmanként, 4. Gyakran, 5. Nagyon gyakran

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagyon gyakran

1. 11. Az Ön tudomása szerint, vannak olyan fejlesztési célok a regionális turisztikai fejlesztési stratégiában, amelyek ütköznek a HVS turisztikai fejlesztési céljaival? * 1.

Igen, nagyon sok, 2. Sok, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Kevés, 5. Egyáltalán nincs

1 2 3 4 5

1. Igen, nagyon sok 5. Egyáltalán nincs

1. 12. Az információcsere gyakorisága az akciócsoport döntéshozói és a helyi/regionális turisztikai szervezetek között: *

1. Egyáltalán nincs kapcsolat, 2. Ritka, 3. Alkalmankénti, 4. Gyakori, 5. Nagyon gyakori

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nincs kapcsolat Nagyon gyakori

1. 13. A kapcsolattartás hatékonysága az akciócsoport döntéshozói és a helyi/regionális turisztikai szervezetek között: * (pl. könnyen szót értenek egymással, kölcsönös segítő szándék stb.)

1. Nincs kapcsolat/Egyáltalán nem hatékony, 2. Kissé hatékony, 3. Többé-kevésbé hatékony, 4. Hatékony, 5. Nagyon hatékony

1 2 3 4 5
Nincs kapcsolat/Egyáltalán nem hatékony Nagyon hatékony

1. 14. A kapcsolattartás eredményének hatékonysága (sikere, sikertelensége) az akciócsoporthoz tartozó döntéshozói és a helyi/regionális turisztikai szervezetek között: *

1. Nincs kapcsolat/Egyáltalán nem hatékony, 2. Kissé hatékony, 3. Többé-kevésbé hatékony, 4. Hatékony, 5. Nagyon hatékony

1 2 3 4 5
Nincs kapcsolat/Egyáltalán nem hatékony Nagyon hatékony

II. RÉSZ. A térségi turisztikai integráció szintje

2. 1. Az akciócsoporthoz tartozó területén a turizmus szolgáltatói oldala kötődik a térséghez a tulajdonosi kör és a munkaerő szempontjából, tehát kiaknázza a rendelkezésre álló helyi humán erőforrásokat és így része a helyi közösség politikai és kulturális életének.

*

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5
Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

2. 2. Az akciócsoporthoz tartozó területén a turizmus szolgáltatói oldala kiaknázza a rendelkezésre álló térségi (földrajzi, társadalmi-kulturális és környezeti) adottságokat és ezáltal gazdagítja azokat és a helyi közösséget. * (Sarkított példa: nem egy vidámpark a helyi látványosság amit bárhol meg lehet építeni, hanem a helyi pálinkafőzde vagy csipkeverő; vagy nem építettek lovascentrumot oda, ahol nem jellemző a lótenyésztés).

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5
Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

2. 3. Az akciócsoporthoz tartozó települések közösségei befolyással bírnak a saját turisztikai bázisuk (természeti, kulturális adottságok) felhasználásának céljai, módszere és tervezése tekintetében. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

2. 4. Az akciócsoporthoz tartozó települések lakosai képesek együttműködni a térségben a turizmusfejlesztés érdekében. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

2. 5. A turizmus volumene (a szolgáltatói és a keresleti oldal együttesen) nőtt az elmúlt években a térségben. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

2. 6. Figyelembe véve a turizmus negatív környezeti hatásait a térségben, összeségében a turizmus nem rombolja, sőt, potenciálisan még fejleszti is a térség turizmusának környezeti és ökológiai bázisát. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

2. 7. A turizmus azon lakosok számára is nyújt előnyöket a térségben (létesítmények használata, szolgáltatások formájában), akik nem dolgoznak a turisztikai szektorban. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

2. 8 Az integrált turisztikai projektek (pl. borutak vagy egyéb több szolgáltatási elemet összefűző projektek) szerepe a térség turizmusának fejlesztése érdekében: * 1.

Egyáltalán nem fontos, 2. Kicsit fontos, 3. Többé-kevésbé fontos, 4. Fontos 5. Nagyon fontos

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem fontos Nagyon fontos

2. 9 Az állami, magán, non-profit szektorok összefogása a turizmus területén a térségben: *

1. Egyáltalán nem fontos, 2. Kicsit fontos, 3. Többé-kevésbé fontos, 4. Fontos 5. Nagyon fontos

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem fontos Nagyon fontos

III. RÉSZ. A turizmus jövőbeni szerepe a térségben

3. 1 Összességében hogyan értékeli a turizmus hozzájárulását a települések és közösségeinek fejlődéséhez a HACS területén? *

1. Nagyon negatív, 2. Negatív, 3. Semleges, 4. Pozitív, 5. Nagyon pozitív

1 2 3 4 5

Nagyon negatív Nagyon pozitív

3. 2. Egyetért azzal, hogy összességében a turizmus több hasznot hoz, mint amennyi kárt okoz a HACS közösségei számára? *

1. Egyáltalán nem értek egyet, 2. Nem értek egyet, 3. Semleges, 4. Egyetértek, 5. Teljes mértékben egyetértek

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem értek egyet Teljes mértékben egyetértek

3. 3 Támogatom, hogy a turizmus kiemelkedő szerepet játsszon a HACS-unk életében. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

3. 4 Úgy gondolom, hogy a turizmust aktívan támogatni kell a HACs-unkban. * 1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

3. 5 Büszke vagyok arra, hogy turisták látogatnak hozzánk azért, hogy felfedezzék a településeinket. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

3. 6 A turizmus nagyszerű lehetőségeket hordoz a HACs-unk jövője számára. *

1. Egyáltalán nem, 2. Kis mértékben, 3. Többé-kevésbé, 4. Viszonylag nagy mértékben, 5. Nagy mértékben

1 2 3 4 5

Egyáltalán nem Nagy mértékben

Bármilyen, a kérdőív témájához kapcsolódó, esetleges hozzáfűzni való, vagy helyi tapasztalat:

Az Ön neme: *

- Férfi
- Nő

Az Ön életkora: *

Az Ön végzettsége: *

- Középiskola
- Egyetem /Főiskola
- Mesterszak (MSc, MBA, etc.)
- Doktorképzés (folyamatban levő)
- Doktor (PhD)

A HACS területén született? *

- igen
- nem

Hány éve él a HACS területén? *

- Nem itt élek
- Kevesebb, mint 5 éve
- 5 -10 éve
- 11-20 éve
- 21-30 éve
- 31-40 éve
- 41-50 éve
- 51-60 éve
- 61-70 éve
- Több, mint 70 éve

Az Ön régiója:

- Közép-Magyarország
- Közép-Dunántúl
- Észak-Alföld
- Észak-Magyarország
- Dél-Alföld

- Dél-Dunántúl
- Nyugat-Dunántúl

Tagja Ön helyi civil szervezetnek? *

- igen
- nem

Az Ön akciócsoportja:

Ha szeretné megkapni ennek a kutatásnak az eredményét, kérem adja meg az e-mail címét:

A kérdőív elküldése: alul a SUBMIT szóra klikkelve.

Köszönjük a segítségét!

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Appendix 5 – The final list of codes in alphabetical order

1. 3rd and 4th axes are not adjusted
2. abuse of power
3. accessibility
4. applicants with agricultural income above 50% are banned
5. bureaucratic administration
6. central communication of the LEADER fund
7. central regulations constrain strategic planning
8. centrally embedded local private actors
9. co-financing rates
10. completion of documents
11. complex role of the LEADER office at the local level
12. conflict of interest
13. constantly changing deadlines
14. corruption
15. customs tariff codes
16. decision-making committee
17. decision-making competences
18. delays in payments for project holders
19. delays in payments of running costs
20. delays in promulgation of regulations
21. disappointment
22. diversification of the LAG's activities
23. diversification of tourism service provision
24. employing disabled people
25. entrepreneurial motivation
26. establishing new jobs
27. excessive claims in measures
28. formation process of the LAGs
29. formation promoters (factors stimulating formation)
30. formation shaped by political power relations
31. hostile brothers scenario
32. inconsistency of LDS and the calls for tender
33. inconsistency of LEADER and the ARDOP

34. inconsistency of selection criteria and local needs
35. integrated marketing
36. integrated projects
37. interlocking management of LAG and LRDO
38. intermediaries: grant writing specialists
39. international cooperation
40. lack of advanced payment on running costs
41. lack of contact between LAG and applicant
42. lack of flexibility
43. lack of inter-network cooperation
44. lack of legislation on the leader operational procedure
45. large-scale projects
46. LEADER Centre
47. LEADER Expo
48. learning the functioning of LEADER tendering by experience
49. linking the previous and the new leader
50. local inactivity
51. members' relations
52. MNVH
53. planning process
54. political influence
55. preserving members of the LAG
56. primary agricultural products excluded from Axis 3
57. problems hindering integration
58. problems in formulating regulations
59. project appraisal process
60. project's fit with the LDS
61. ratio of tourism projects
62. re-examination of the LDS
63. stimulation of entrepreneurial activity
64. strategies for most peripheral settlements
65. success stories
66. tendering process
67. the advantages of the pilot LEADER
68. the conflicting role of the cities
69. the directions of tourism development

- 70. the new LEADER regulation
- 71. the role of churches
- 72. the size of the new LAGs
- 73. tourism destination management (TDM)
- 74. understanding of local realities
- 75. unstable regulations and instructions
- 76. vertical relationships
- 77. village renewal

Appendix 6 – Final results of Principal Components Analysis in the sub-samples of the four networks

Appendix 6/a: The LRDO sample

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Participation' construct of the LRDO sample (N=170; KMO=.893; $p < .001$; Total variance explained: 59.8%; Correlation between components: $r = .484$; $p < .001$)

Variable	Factor 1 ¹ Level of involvement in tourism planning and management (LITPM)	Factor 2 ¹ Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)
LTDA3 We are aware of the problems and needs of tourism in the development scenarios unfolding in the region at this very moment		.851
LTDA4 - Our organisation and its activities has contributed to the development of tourism in the region		.826
LTDA1 The importance of tourism in our local development strategy/long-term vision of regional development		.724
LTDA2 Our organisation influences the directions of tourism development in its area.		.648
LCTA1 The frequency of information exchange between your organisation and the local and regional tourism authorities	.878	
LCTA2 The efficiency of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities in terms of the process of cooperation	.844	
LCTA3 The effectiveness of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities	.842	
LITP5 Our organisation takes part of, or assists projects, programmes or other initiatives together with the local and regional tourism authorities	.817	
LITP1 The regional and local tourism authorities ask us about the local needs and problems of tourism	.765	
LITP4 - The regional tourism development strategy reflect the core points of tourism development in the local development strategy of your organisation/your organisation's long-term vision of tourism development in the region	.739	
LITP2 We participate in meetings and workshops together with the local and regional tourism authorities	.659	
LITP3 Ideas stemming from our organisation are incorporated in the tourism development strategy of the region	.603	
Removed items:		
LITP6 Local and regional tourism authorities share and discuss results of tourism development with us and ask for our feedback		
LITP7 - Are there any development objectives in the regional tourism development strategy that are in conflict with the local development strategy of your organisation/your organisation's long-term vision of tourism development in the region		
¹ – All values significant at $p < .05$; values $< .40$ have been omitted		
Explained variance	49%	13.9%
Cronbach's alpha	.835	.759

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Integration' construct of the LRDO sample (KMO=.793; p<.001; Total variance explained: 60.3%; Correlation between components: r=.432; p<.001)

Variable	Factor 1 ¹ Scale of IRT	Factor 2 ¹ Sustainable dimension of IRT
LIRT1 - Tourism of the area originates from, and is directly linked to, the locality through ownership and employment base, and forms part of the community's politics, culture and life	.843	
LIRT2 - Tourism of the area draws on the distinct geographical, socio-cultural, economic and environmental resources of the area, thus uses and adds value to its resources and to the community	.804	
LIRT4 - People in the area are able to work together in the locality to develop and manage tourism	.713	
LIRT3 - The communities of the area exert influence over the planning, management and utilisation of their own tourism resources through participation in decision-making	.619	
LIRT8 - The integration of supply elements through integrated projects (product chains such as wine or equestrian routes) for the tourism development of the area is:		.753
LIRT9 - Establishing public-private-non-profit partnerships for the tourism development of the area is:		.746
LIRT6 - Bearing in mind the negative environmental impacts of tourism, on the whole, tourism does not damage, but possibly even enhances the environmental and ecological resources of the area		.689
LIRT7 - Tourism provides benefits (through the utilisation of resources and facilities) also to those local people that are not directly involved in the tourism industry		.562
Removed items:		
LIRT5 - Demand and supply-side tourism activity of the area has grown in terms of its distribution over the past few years		
¹ – All values significant at p<.05; values <.40 have been omitted		
Explained variance	39.5%	21.2%
Cronbach's alpha	.819	.770

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Support' construct of the LRDO sample (KMO=.804; p<.001; Total variance explained: 62.2%)

Variable	Factor 1 ¹ Support for tourism development
SUP1 - I support tourism as having a vital role in our LAG	.851
SUP2 - I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in the communities of the LAG	.845
SUP4 - Tourism holds great promise for my community's future	.792
SUP3 - I'm proud to see tourists coming to see what my community has to offer	.710
¹ – All values significant at p<.05; values <.40 have been omitted	
Explained variance	62.2%
Cronbach's alpha	.872

Appendix 6/b: The MPMA sample

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Participation' construct of the MPMA sample (N=125; KMO=.867; p<.001; Total variance explained: 60.2%; Correlation between components: r=.481; 393; 421; p<.001)

Variable	Factor 1 ¹ Level of involvement in tourism planning (LITP)	Factor 2 ¹ Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)	Factor 3 ¹ Level of cooperation with tourism authorities (LCTA)
LTDA3 We are aware of the problems and needs of tourism in the development scenarios unfolding in the region at this very moment		.810	
LTDA2 Our organisation influences the directions of tourism development in its area.		.802	
LTDA1 The importance of tourism in our local development strategy/long-term vision of regional development		.720	
LTDA4 - Our organisation and its activities has contributed to the development of tourism in the region		.682	
LITP1 The regional and local tourism authorities ask us about the local needs and problems of tourism	.831		
LITP5 Our organisation takes part of, or assists projects, programmes or other initiatives together with the local and regional tourism authorities	.725		
LITP4 - The regional tourism development strategy reflect the core points of tourism development in the local development strategy of your organisation/your organisation's long-term vision of tourism development in the region	.700		
LITP6 Local and regional tourism authorities share and discuss results of tourism development with us and ask for our feedback	.630		
LITP2 We participate in meetings and workshops together with the local and regional tourism authorities	.571		
LCTA3 The effectiveness of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities			.726
LCTA1 The frequency of information exchange between your organisation and the local and regional tourism authorities			.711
LCTA2 The efficiency of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities in terms of the process of cooperation			.641
Removed items:			
LITP3 Ideas stemming from our organisation are incorporated in the tourism development strategy of the region			
LITP7 - Are there any development objectives in the regional tourism development strategy that are in conflict with the local development strategy of your organisation/your organisation's long-term vision of tourism development in the region			

¹ – All values significant at p<.05; values <.40 have been omitted

Explained variance	39.8%	12.4%	8.0%
Cronbach's alpha	.887	.837	.769

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Integration' construct of the MPMA sample (KMO=.870; p<.001; Total variance explained: 62.3%; Correlation between components: r=.473; p<.001)

Variable	Factor 1¹ Scale of IRT	Factor 2¹ Sustainable dimension of IRT
LIRT2 - Tourism of the area draws on the distinct geographical, socio-cultural, economic and environmental resources of the area, thus uses and adds value to its resources and to the community	.848	
LIRT1 - Tourism of the area originates from, and is directly linked to, the locality through ownership and employment base, and forms part of the community's politics, culture and life	.792	
LIRT4 - People in the area are able to work together in the locality to develop and manage tourism	.778	
LIRT3 - The communities of the area exert influence over the planning, management and utilisation of their own tourism resources through participation in decision-making	.667	
LIRT5 - Demand and supply-side tourism activity of the area has grown in terms of its distribution over the past few years	.650	
LIRT9 - Establishing public-private-non-profit partnerships for the tourism development of the area is:		.829
LIRT6 - Bearing in mind the negative environmental impacts of tourism, on the whole, tourism does not damage, but possibly even enhances the environmental and ecological resources of the area		.781
LIRT8 - The integration of supply elements through integrated projects (product chains such as wine or equestrian routes) for the tourism development of the area is:		.776
LIRT7 - Tourism provides benefits (through the utilisation of resources and facilities) also to those local people that are not directly involved in the tourism industry		.601
¹ – All values significant at p<.05; values <.40 have been omitted		
Explained variance	50.1%	12.2%
Cronbach's alpha	.805	.740

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Support' construct of the MPMA sample (KMO=.818; p<.001; Total variance explained: 63.5%)

Variable	Factor 1¹ Support for tourism development
SUP1 - I support tourism as having a vital role in our LAG	.864
SUP3 - I'm proud to see tourists coming to see what my community has to offer	.845
SUP2 - I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in the communities of the LAG	.743
SUP4 - Tourism holds great promise for my community's future	.720

¹ – All values significant at $p < .05$; values $< .40$ have been omitted

Explained variance	63.5%
Cronbach's alpha	.825

Appendix 6/c: The LEADER sample

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Participation' construct of the LEADER sample (N=212; KMO=.872; $p < .001$; Total variance explained: 59.5%; Correlation between components: $r = .517$; 364; 395; $p < .001$)

Variable	Factor 1¹ Level of involvement in tourism planning and management (LITPM)	Factor 2¹ Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)	Factor 3¹ Level of tourism development activity (LCTA)
LTDA1 The importance of tourism in our local development strategy/long-term vision of regional development		.740	
LTDA3 We are aware of the problems and needs of tourism in the development scenarios unfolding in the region at this very moment		.727	
LTDA4 - Our organisation and its activities has contributed to the development of tourism in the region		.660	
LTDA2 Our organisation influences the directions of tourism development in its area.		.632	
LITP2 We participate in meetings and workshops together with the local and regional tourism authorities	.794		
LITP1 The regional and local tourism authorities ask us about the local needs and problems of tourism	.779		
LITP5 Our organisation takes part of, or assists projects, programmes or other initiatives together with the local and regional tourism authorities	.720		
LITP4 - The regional tourism development strategy reflect the core points of tourism development in the local development strategy of your organisation/your organisation's long-term vision of tourism development in the region	.645		
LITP3 Ideas stemming from our organisation are incorporated in the tourism development strategy of the region	.567		
LCTA3 The effectiveness of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities			.744
LCTA1 The frequency of information exchange between your organisation and the local and regional tourism authorities			.637
LCTA2 The efficiency of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities in terms of the process of cooperation			.583
Removed items:			
LITP6 Local and regional tourism authorities share and discuss results of tourism development with us and ask for our feedback			

LITP7 - Are there any development objectives in the regional tourism development strategy that are in conflict with the local development strategy of your organisation/your organisation's long-term vision of tourism development in the region

¹ – All values significant at $p < .05$; values $< .40$ have been omitted

Explained variance	37.6%	13.1%	8.8%
Cronbach's alpha	.740	.721	.716

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Integration' construct of the LEADER sample (KMO=.857; $p < .001$; Total variance explained: 61%; Correlation between components: $r = .511$; $p < .001$)

Variable	Factor 1¹ Scale of IRT	Factor 1¹ Sustainable dimension of IRT
LIRT4 - People in the area are able to work together in the locality to develop and manage tourism	.815	
LIRT2 - Tourism of the area draws on the distinct geographical, socio-cultural, economic and environmental resources of the area, thus uses and adds value to its resources and to the community	.780	
LIRT1 - Tourism of the area originates from, and is directly linked to, the locality through ownership and employment base, and forms part of the community's politics, culture and life	.619	
LIRT3 - The communities of the area exert influence over the planning, management and utilisation of their own tourism resources through participation in decision-making	.591	
LIRT7 - Tourism provides benefits (through the utilisation of resources and facilities) also to those local people that are not directly involved in the tourism industry		.833
LIRT8 - The integration of supply elements through integrated projects (product chains such as wine or equestrian routes) for the tourism development of the area is:		.755
LIRT9 - Establishing public-private-non-profit partnerships for the tourism development of the area is:		.732
LIRT6 - Bearing in mind the negative environmental impacts of tourism, on the whole, tourism does not damage, but possibly even enhances the environmental and ecological resources of the area		.631
Removed items:		
LIRT5 - Demand and supply-side tourism activity of the area has grown in terms of its distribution over the past few years		
¹ – All values significant at $p < .05$; values $< .40$ have been omitted		
Explained variance	46.3%	14.7%
Cronbach's alpha	.803	.754

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Support' construct of the LEADER sample (KMO=.821; $p < .001$; Total variance explained: 61.3%)

Variable	Factor 1 ¹
	Support for tourism development
SUP1 - I support tourism as having a vital role in our LAG	.851
SUP2 - I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in the communities of the LAG	.841
SUP4 - Tourism holds great promise for my community's future	.730
SUP3 - I'm proud to see tourists coming to see what my community has to offer	.613
¹ – All values significant at $p < .05$; values $< .40$ have been omitted	
Explained variance	61.3%
Cronbach's alpha	.790

Appendix 6/d: The NMCR sample

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Participation' construct of the NMCR sample (N=155; KMO=.885; $p < .001$; Total variance explained: 59.4%; Correlation between components: $r = .400$; $p < .001$)

Variable	Factor 1 ¹	Factor 2 ¹
	Level of involvement in tourism planning and management (LITPM)	Level of tourism development activity (LTDA)
LTDA3 We are aware of the problems and needs of tourism in the development scenarios unfolding in the region at this very moment		.768
LTDA1 The importance of tourism in our local development strategy/long-term vision of regional development		.753
LTDA4 - Our organisation and its activities has contributed to the development of tourism in the region		.686
LTDA2 Our organisation influences the directions of tourism development in its area.		.578
LITP5 Our organisation takes part of, or assists projects, programmes or other initiatives together with the local and regional tourism authorities	.831	
LCTA1 The frequency of information exchange between your organisation and the local and regional tourism authorities	.830	
LCTA2 The efficiency of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities in terms of the process of cooperation	.811	
LCTA3 The effectiveness of cooperation with the local and regional tourism authorities	.790	
LITP2 We participate in meetings and workshops together with the local and regional tourism authorities	.782	
LITP4 - The regional tourism development strategy reflect the core points of tourism development in the local development strategy of your organisation/your organisation's long-term vision of tourism development in the region	.631	

LITP1 The regional and local tourism authorities ask us about the local needs and problems of tourism	.540	
Removed items:		
LITP3 Ideas stemming from our organisation are incorporated in the tourism development strategy of the region		
LITP6 Local and regional tourism authorities share and discuss results of tourism development with us and ask for our feedback		
LITP7 - Are there any development objectives in the regional tourism development strategy that are in conflict with the local development strategy of your organisation/your organisation's long-term vision of tourism development in the region		
¹ – All values significant at $p < .05$; values $< .40$ have been omitted		
Explained variance	45%	14.4%
Cronbach's alpha	.730	.682

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Integration' construct of the NMCR sample (KMO=.869; $p < .001$; Total variance explained: 59.8%; Correlation between components: $r = .451$; $p < .001$)

Variable	Factor 1¹ Scale of IRT	Factor 2¹ Sustainable dimension of IRT
LIRT1 - Tourism of the area originates from, and is directly linked to, the locality through ownership and employment base, and forms part of the community's politics, culture and life	.805	
LIRT3 - The communities of the area exert influence over the planning, management and utilisation of their own tourism resources through participation in decision-making	.740	
LIRT2 - Tourism of the area draws on the distinct geographical, socio-cultural, economic and environmental resources of the area, thus uses and adds value to its resources and to the community	.722	
LIRT4 - People in the area are able to work together in the locality to develop and manage tourism	.685	
LIRT5 - Demand and supply-side tourism activity of the area has grown in terms of its distribution over the past few years	.544	
LIRT9 - Establishing public-private-non-profit partnerships for the tourism development of the area is:		.811
LIRT6 - Bearing in mind the negative environmental impacts of tourism, on the whole, tourism does not damage, but possibly even enhances the environmental and ecological resources of the area		.745
LIRT8 - The integration of supply elements through integrated projects (product chains such as wine or equestrian routes) for the tourism development of the area is:		.677
LIRT7 - Tourism provides benefits (through the utilisation of resources and facilities) also to those		.620

local people that are not directly involved in the tourism industry		
¹ – All values significant at $p < .05$; values $< .40$ have been omitted		
Explained variance	44.6%	15.2%
Cronbach's alpha	.822	.785

Principal Components Analysis for the 'Support' construct of the NMCR sample (KMO=.775; $p < .001$; Total variance explained: 61%)

Variable	Factor 1¹ Support for tourism development
SUP1 - I support tourism as having a vital role in our LAG	.828
SUP2 - I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in the communities of the LAG	.796
SUP4 - Tourism holds great promise for my community's future	.781
SUP3 - I'm proud to see tourists coming to see what my community has to offer	.661
¹ – All values significant at $p < .05$; values $< .40$ have been omitted	
Explained variance	62.1%
Cronbach's alpha	.775

Appendix 6/e: Summary of reliability analysis of the four sub-groups' 'Contribution' constructs

	Cronbach's alpha
LRDO	.708
MPMAs	.717
LEADER LAGs	.660
NMCR	.647

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