



**SUSANA MARIA
PEIXOTO GODINHO
LIMA**

**Cooperação Internacional para o Desenvolvimento
de Destinos Turísticos**

**International Cooperation for Development in
Tourism Destinations**



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Tourism Destinations**

Dissertação apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro para cumprimento dos requisitos necessários à obtenção do grau de Doutoramento em Turismo, realizada sob a orientação científica da Doutora Maria do Rosário Partidário, Professora Associada Agregada do Instituto Superior Técnico da Universidade Técnica de Lisboa e sob a co-orientação científica da Doutora Maria Celeste Eusébio, Professora Auxiliar do Departamento de Economia, Gestão e Engenharia Industrial da Universidade de Aveiro

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Dedico esta tese aos meus pais,
de quem aprendi tudo o que sou.

o júri
presidente

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palavras-chave

cooperação internacional para o desenvolvimento, transferência de conhecimento, turismo e desenvolvimento, UNWTO.Volunteers

resumo

O objectivo principal desta tese é desenvolver um modelo conceptual sobre os factores críticos de sucesso dos programas de turismo e cooperação internacional para o desenvolvimento que se baseiam na transferência de conhecimento. O modelo teórico proposto procura preencher uma lacuna na literatura científica relativamente ao turismo e à cooperação internacional para o desenvolvimento e o papel da transferência de conhecimento como um meio para induzir alterações positivas em termos de desenvolvimento humano. Foi desenvolvida uma abordagem de investigação qualitativa através de um estudo de caso do programa UNWTO.Volunteers. O principal contributo teórico desta tese é estabelecer uma ponte entre vários campos de investigação que não estão suficientemente estudados na literatura científica de forma integrada - transferência de conhecimento, turismo e a cooperação internacional para o desenvolvimento. Com o modelo teórico proposto pretende-se contribuir para a investigação futura, tendo este sido aplicado e testado parcialmente no contexto real da implementação de um programa de cooperação internacional para o desenvolvimento. Este estudo sugere que não é possível obter resultados satisfatórios nestes programas se, em vez de potenciar a transferência de conhecimento e a criação de um ambiente propício à partilha de conhecimento, forem adotadas abordagens estáticas e lineares Norte-Sul. O estudo sugere que as características destes projectos de desenvolvimento devem ser revistas no sentido em que se torna difícil garantir que as alterações induzidas inicialmente pelos programas perdurem no tempo depois daqueles terminarem. O estudo tornou evidente que existe um grande potencial para uma efetiva transferência de conhecimento que contribua para a melhoria das condições de vida e do desenvolvimento dos destinos intervencionados, mas que os mesmos estão demasiadamente dependentes dos sistemas políticos locais e das relações de poder existentes, assim como do seu nível do desenvolvimento turístico. É necessário desenvolver mais investigação para analisar outros programas em diferentes contextos de aplicação para que se possam generalizar os resultados para outros programas de cooperação de destinos de países em desenvolvimento.

keywords

international development cooperation, knowledge transfer, tourism development, UNWTO.Volunteers programme

abstract

The main goal of this thesis is to propose a conceptual theoretical model of critical success factors of International Development Cooperation programmes that are based in knowledge transfer approaches in the context of tourism development. The research was structured around three main theoretical pillars: international development cooperation (IDC), tourism as a tool for development, and knowledge transfer (KT). By exploring these pillars' main interrelations, it was possible to gather the necessary background to develop the theoretical model and apply it to a real context. It was adopted a qualitative research approach using as a case study an IDC programme in tourism - the UNWTO.Volunteers programme. The key contribution of this thesis in the theoretical realm is the bridging of fields of study that are insufficiently covered in the scientific literature. The resulting model proposal applied to a real context of an IDC programme implementation permitted to test it partially providing useful insights for future research. It is postulated that IDC programmes in these contexts constitute a process rather than an end in itself. Therefore, they should be seen as a way of changing the state of the art of the tourism system in a sustainable manner so that it potentially generates positive development changes. This study suggested that it is not possible to achieve positive results if, instead of encouraging a KT and learning environment, it is simply disseminated knowledge in a linear, static, north-south approach. The characteristics of these interventions should be reviewed in that it was found that it is very difficult to guarantee the maintenance of the development changes induced by them if it is not safeguarded the necessary conditions and accountability to implement the recommended actions. While it was perceived a great potential for development changes to be induced by some IDC programmes in tourism destinations, it was concluded that these processes are too much dependent on the local political systems and existing power relations, as well as on the level of tourism development of the destination. However, more research is needed to examine the ability to generalise the findings to other IDC programmes and different destinations of developing countries.

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List of Acronyms

GNI	Gross National Income
HD	Human Development
HDI	Human Development Index
HDR	Human Development Report
HHD	High Human Development
HPI	Human Poverty Index
ID	International Development
IDC	International Development Cooperation
IDCT	International Development Cooperation in Tourism
IFI	International Financial Institutions
KT	knowledge Transfer
LDC	Least Developed Countries
LHD	Low Human Development
LLDC	Landlocked Developing Countries
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MfDR	Managing for Development Results
MHD	Medium Human Development
MPI	Multidimensional Poverty Index
NGO	Nongovernmental Organizations
ODA	Official Development Assistance
PPP	Policies, Plans and Programs
PPT	Pro-Poor Tourism
PRS	Poverty Reduction Strategies
RBM	Results-Based Management
SIDS	Small Island Developing States
SL	Sustainable Livelihoods
IMF	International Monetary Fund
UNV	United Nations Volunteers
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
VHHD	Very High Human Development
WB	World Bank

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Relevance and scope of the thesis

In recent decades, tourism has gained a renewed interest from diverse development and aid agencies around the globe in the fulfilment of the Millennium Development Goals. Nonetheless, despite several aid projects, development plans, grants, loans, and structural adjustments, limited progress has been made towards achieving the established development goals (Lima, Eusébio & Partidário, 2014). Tourism is too often viewed as a panacea in terms of economic, social and environmental development, but there is still a lack of convincing empirical evidence about the real effects of tourism growth on poverty alleviation which demands more discussion (Blake, 2008; Chok, Macbeth & Warren, 2007; Roe, Ashley, Page, & Meyer, 2004; Scheyvens, 2007, 2011).

In the debate about development, there has been a shift from top-down economic models, corresponding to the economic neoliberalism paradigm, to more broad-based approaches that are bottom-up and centred on fulfilling basic needs in a sustainable manner, leading to an alternative development paradigm (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). This shift has been determined by several changes in the political and socioeconomic world order in the decades that followed the end of the World War Two (Sofield, 2003) as well as by the evolution of the meaning of development.

In this context, development agencies and multilateral banks have primarily encouraged large-scale projects, which did not contemplate strategies for community participation (Lindberg, Molstad, Hawkins, & Jamieson, 1999) or knowledge transfer and learning towards empowerment. But things are changing and a few communities are evolving, to varying degrees, into small and medium sized businesses while special emphasis is being put on policy development for the indigenous communities (Lindberg et al., 1999).

Throughout this process, the use of information and knowledge has been increasingly recognized as an important source of wealth, informed decisions, and policymaking in a post-industrial society (Beijerse, 1999; Drucker, 1993; Xiao & Smith, 2007). Additionally, the re-emergence of the debate on sustainable development has placed capacity building at the top of priorities for International Development Cooperation (IDC) as a condition for enabling the achievement of effective and sound development in all regions of the world (Partidário & Wilson, 2011).

Knowledge Transfer (KT) and learning approaches represent a huge potential for enhancing the effectiveness of IDC programmes in general, and specifically when tourism is assumed as the main tool for development. While several approaches to IDC have emerged in which tourism is considered an important tool for achieving development, with many development agencies arguing for the crucial role of KT as a way of reinforcing capacity building in developing countries, a gap was identified in the scientific literature in connecting these fields of study. This found gap has motivated the development of this thesis research, driven by the

need to respond to the objectives and research questions outlined in the next section. In the following chapters a demonstration will be attempted on why these found gaps probably exist, and what may be ways to overcome them.

1.2 Objectives and research question

The main goal of this thesis is to **propose a conceptual theoretical model of critical success factors of IDC programmes that are based in KT approaches in the context of tourism development**. This goal is structured around the following specific objectives of the research:

1. To discuss the main **challenges of tourism as a development tool**, analyzing how the general characteristics of developing countries determine the likelihood of success of development initiatives.
2. To add knowledge to the theoretical discussion about whether **the different approaches and paradigms of IDC adopted overtime have been applied to the tourism field and analyse the sort of reasons that may explain the limited success that it seems to have had**.
3. To develop a **theoretical model** that systematizes the main **critical success factors** to be addressed in a development intervention in the tourism field, establishing some major theoretical pillars that can support the future development of practical guidelines in this area.

The type of analysis involved in this study adopts three basic assumptions. The first is related with the KT dimension in the context of tourism and IDC which assumes the existence of a **transferor** - development actors from the designated “developed world” - and a **transferee** that is supposed to benefit from that knowledge - local actors of a tourism destination in the “developing world”. The second is related with the concept of **success** for which there is no agreement as regards IDC programmes (Font, Goodwin, & Walton, 2012). Like outlined by Diallo and Thuillier (2005: 238), “there is no «absolute» success or consistency in success appreciation over time: there is only «perceived success»”, which differs among the stakeholders involved. The third assumption is related with the **variables** that can be targeted in the process of perceived success, such as whether the goals and objectives are achieved in the planned timeframe or/and whether cost and quality fit within the context of the project’s Terms of Reference (Font et al., 2012). Considering the outlined objectives and assumptions, the main research question of this thesis can be formulated as follows:

- How can IDC in tourism be successful and contribute to the achievement of positive development changes?

To examine the research objectives and answer the main research question, a qualitative research process was developed using a case study of an IDC programme launched by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) - the UNWTO.Volunteers programme. The research design options were guided by a set of philosophical and conceptual underpinnings that comprise the research paradigm adopted for this study. This will be explained in the next section in order to contextualize the whole research project of this thesis, while the research design and respective case study will be described in Chapter 6, along with the methodology of the empirical study.

1.3 Research paradigm: philosophical and conceptual underpinnings

Any social research is underpinned by an inquiry paradigm which is determined by a set of key philosophical issues that determine how research is undertaken and interpreted and how this leads to the generation of knowledge (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Goodson & Phillimore, 2004). Denzin and Lincoln (1998) argue that the researcher can be compared to a *bricoleur* - an individual who pieces together sets of practices to find out the solution to a puzzle. This messy process is highly subjective involving the researcher's ethics, values, and beliefs, using a set of methods to maximise understanding of the research problem (Goodson & Phillimore, 2004).

Therefore, it can be considered that a researcher's worldview is formed by that set of key philosophical issues. In this context, it is determinant to identify the research paradigm, not only establishing the **relationship between theory and data** (Bryman, 2008, Creswell, 2007), but also answering to the following interconnected questions (Guba & Lincoln, 1998):

- The **epistemological** question - what is the nature of the relationship between the researcher and what can be known?
- The **ontological** question - what is the form and nature of reality, and what can be known about reality?
- The **methodological** question - how can the researchers find out what they believe it can be known?

The next four subsections address these questions, clarifying the research paradigm of this thesis as well as the worldview of the researcher.

1.3.1 The nature of the relationship between theory and research

One first concern with the process of doing social research is the nature of the relationship between theory and research, specifically whether theory guides research, which is associated to a **deductive approach**, or if theory is the outcome of research, associated to an **inductive approach** (Bryman, 2008).

The deductive theory represents the commonest approach in natural sciences but has also dominated social and tourism studies (Melkert & Vos, 2010). This means that based on what is known about a particular domain, hypothesis are deduced and then subjected to empirical analysis, being usually associated with quantitative research (Bryman, 2008).

In an inductive data analysis process, qualitative researchers prefer an approach in which theory is the outcome of research, aiming at achieving generalizable inferences out of observations (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Finn, Elliott-White, & Walton, 2000). This is usually associated to a qualitative research, through which the researchers build their patterns or dimensions, categories, and themes from the "bottom-up", extracting from it more abstract units of information (Creswell, 2007: 38). This process may imply that the researcher works back and forth between the categories and the database until they develop a complete set of categories (Creswell, 2007).

This is also the reason why the inductive process may entail an element of deduction as, once the phase of theoretical reflection on a set of data has been established, the researcher may want to collect further data before generating a theory. For these reasons it is useful to think about these issues not as straightforward as they are sometimes presented, but considering them mainly as tendencies within deductive and inductive strategies (Bryman, 2008). The present research involved also a weaving back and forth between data and theory with a clear interrelation between inductive and deductive approaches.

Figure 1.1 schematizes the main phases followed throughout that interrelation essentially determined by the sequence of facts related with the case study that will be described with greater detail in Chapter 6. Indeed, having this been focused on a programme about tourism and IDC in which the researcher participated as a volunteer, an inductive approach was initially applied. The observations and findings that came out from the field were essential to orientate the literature review that followed. Then, the subsequent approach was predominantly deductive in orientation.

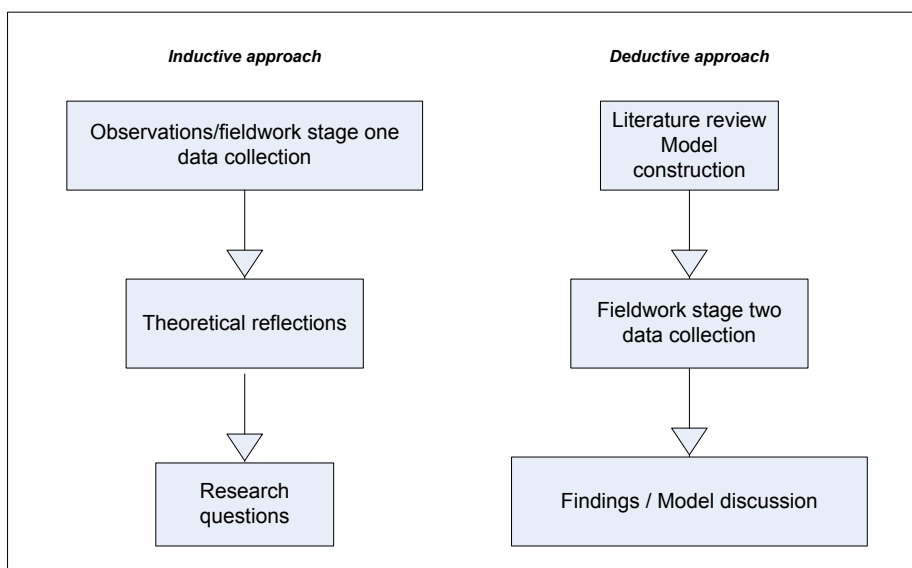


Figure 1.1 - Inductive and deductive approaches underlying the research strategy

Source: Own construction adapted from Bryman (2008)

It was, therefore, the combination of both stages that permitted the development of a theoretical model about the critical success factors that could explain the results of tourism IDC. It became clear then that going back to the field after the literature review was imperative if a solid discussion was to be conducted in order to validate the proposed model. As pointed out by Bryman (2008: 10), “a researcher’s view of the theory or literature may have changed as a result of the analysis of the collected data”. As a result, while there is a tendency to clearly classify each research either according to a deductive or inductive strategy, this is not often such a straightforward issue, as was the case in this thesis.

1.3.2 Epistemology

Epistemology refers to the question of what is, or should be, regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline (Bryman, 2008), and specifically the relationship between the researcher and that being researched (Creswell, 2007; Thomas, 2004). This is therefore concerned with the origins and nature of knowing and how knowledge is constructed (Goodson & Phillimore, 2004). Inherent to this discussion lie varying understandings of the role of the researcher (Ryan, 2005).

Two contrasting paradigms can be distinguished in this context: **positivism (or post-positivism) and phenomenology (or interpretivism)**. The first tries to explain human behaviour through the facts of the situation and the inherent cause and effect relations which are independent of the researcher (Decrop, 2004; Finn et al., 2000). The researcher is therefore concerned with the nature of the tools used to discover those facts, and the reliability of data in such a way that it can be generalized. It is aimed therefore to demonstrate that samples are representative and the results derived are replicable by others (Ryan, 2005). The second paradigm is focused on the understanding and interpreting those facts through the individual's own reality (Finn et al., 2000). In this case, the researcher looks for more complex tools in order to draw out research findings from such constructions of experience.

These different approaches are therefore generally associated to distinct methods of data collection: the quantitative and the qualitative, respectively. In contrast to the former, the focus of the latter "is not on the quantity of information gathered but rather on its quality and richness". Therefore the interpretive researcher "watches, listens, feels, asks, records and examines. In-depth interview, participant observation or document analysis are favoured tools in this approach" (Decrop, 2004: 157).

Contrasting with much of the existing work within tourism research, the project developed in this thesis was conceived within an interpretive paradigm, corresponding to a phenomenological/interpretive research approach. Underlying this option was, on one hand, the notion that the world is socially constructed and, on the other, the subjectivity of the inherent relationships that the researcher would need to establish with the study object, aiming to understand the critical success factors of a development programme according to the personal views of its main participants.

1.3.3 Ontology

Ontology is concerned with the nature of social entities (Bryman, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Therefore, the central question of orientation is whether social entities are considered objective entities in which reality is external to social actors, or whether they are considered social constructions built up from the perceptions and actions of those actors. These positions are commonly referred to as **objectivism** and **constructivism**, respectively (Bryman, 2008).

While objectivism is associated with realism and follows more standardized procedures through controlled conditions by an unbiased observer, constructivism is associated with relativism being knowledge socially constructed, local and specific (Riley & Love, 2000).

Furthermore, this “implies that social phenomena and categories are not only produced through social interaction but that they are in constant state of revision”, by a “researcher’s own accounts of the social reality, rather than one that can be regarded as definitive” (Bryman, 2008: 19). These assumptions lead to rely as much as possible on the participants’ view of the situation being analysed (Creswell, 2007).

Following the interpretive epistemological paradigm, this thesis has adopted the ontological perspective of constructivism. This approach led the researcher to conduct the study in the natural setting of the participants in two different research stages aiming at developing their diverse interpretations of the phenomena being studied (Jennings, 2001).

1.3.4 Methodology

Methodology is concerned with the study of how knowledge about the world is collected (Goodson & Phillimore, 2004), particularly defining how a phenomenon will be studied. In general, in social research this refers to **qualitative** or **quantitative methodologies** (Silverman, 2000). As pointed out by Veal (2006: 95), there has been much debate in recent years concerning appropriate methods for leisure and tourism research, mainly with reference to the “relative merits of qualitative as opposed to quantitative methods”. However, this distinction should not be done considering only the use or absence of quantification, but rather that quantitative and qualitative research differ mainly concerning the relation between theory and research, as well as the epistemological and ontological foundations (Bryman, 2008), as discussed in the previous subsections.

Therefore, methods can not be seen as exclusively part of one research paradigm, being more appropriate to refer to “two distinctive clusters of research strategy” (Bryman, 2008: 22). In Table 1.1, it is schematized the fundamental differences between quantitative and qualitative research strategies even if the interconnections between both strategies can not always be seen in such a straightforward form, reflecting only general tendencies (Bryman, 2008).

Table 1.1 - Fundamental differences between quantitative and qualitative research strategies

Philosophical orientations	Quantitative	Qualitative
Orientation about theory in relation to research	Deductive	Inductive
Epistemological orientation	Testing of theory	Generation of theory
Ontological orientation	Positivism	Interpretivism
	Objectivism	Constructivism

Source: Bryman (2008)

Within the field of tourism research, quantitative methods, “which bear the imprints of logical positivism, statistical investigation, and the scientific method continue to dominate” (Walle, 1997: 525). Nevertheless, it is increasingly being recognized that, due to the

complexity inherent to the phenomena of tourism and hospitality and the importance of understanding the “why” and “how” of such phenomena, qualitative or mixed research approaches play a crucial role (Riley & Love, 2000; Walle, 1997). Indeed, as pointed out by Jennings (2001), qualitative approaches are allowing researchers to investigate the deeper meanings of tourism experiences, programmes and phenomena in the perspective of different actors in the sector. To engage in this kind of research however “requires a strong commitment to study a problem demanding time and resources” (Creswell, 2007: 41).

It was precisely by assuming this commitment, aiming at generating theory through the deeper meanings attributed by the diverse participants to a specific development cooperation programme in tourism, that a qualitative approach, using a case study, was considered the most appropriate research strategy in this thesis. This option was based around some major arguments that will be explained in more detail in Chapter 6. The main reason was the opportunity for the researcher to participate directly in the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme undertaken in the Mexican state of Chiapas, in 2008. As the UNWTO plays a decisive and central role in international tourism policy issues, being particularly influential in developing countries (Hall, 2008), this was considered a unique opportunity for the researcher to analyse, as an insider, an IDC programme in all its phases. Furthermore, the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme constitutes an approach that aims to support developing countries to achieve a sustainable and more competitive tourism sector based on a KT and learning process involving local stakeholders, specialized international volunteers and consultants. This was considered a distinguishable approach when compared to similar programmes.

1.4 Thesis structure

The thesis is structured in eight chapters, reflecting the research paradigm outlined above, and specifically the research design described in Chapter 6. This **first chapter**, which corresponds to the main **introduction to the thesis**, offers an overview of the relevance and scope of the study after which the objectives and research questions are outlined as well as the research paradigm that justifies the research design options.

Chapter 2 introduces the philosophy and concepts underpinning **IDC**. Starting from this point will provide a background on the major issues to consider when discussing, in the subsequent chapters, the context in which tourism should be interpreted within the complex world of IDC programmes and, ultimately, to establish why it is important to do so following a **KT** and learning approach.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of **tourism as a tool for development** in the context of IDC. It discusses the main challenges it faces considering the overall context of the tourism system in developing countries that determine the conditions under which development initiatives and programmes should take place in order to achieve positive results. Then the diverse tourism development perspectives assumed overtime by development key actors are outlined according to the dominating paradigms analysed in Chapter 2. With this background the chapter ends drawing a set of determinants considered fundamental for tourism to work effectively as a tool for development.

Chapter 4 provides the theoretical background on **knowledge transfer and learning environment (KT&LE) within tourism development cooperation** through the discussion of the most relevant concepts, theories and models associated to this field of study. This is done in order to gain a general overview of the major issues and identifiable gaps that should be taken into account when discussing the potential of KT&LE so as to enhance the effectiveness of development programmes in general, and specifically, when tourism is assumed as the main tool to accomplish it.

Chapter 5 proposes a **theoretical model** that attempts to fill the gap identified in the literature review about tourism and IDC. This is focused on the role played by KT&LE as a way of inducing positive development changes in tourism destinations of developing countries. After explaining the rationale for a new model in this area, the insights provided by the models previously reviewed in Chapters Two and Four, as well as their limitations, are discussed. Finally, the designated International Development Cooperation Model in Tourism (IDCT Model) is described.

Chapter 6 outlines the **methodology of the empirical study** in light of the adopted research paradigm discussed above and the outlined research question. It presents, at first, the set of arguments that justified the adoption of the case study as the most appropriate research strategy for this study and the criteria that sustained the selection of the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme as a case study. This programme is characterized and a full description of its application in Mexico, within the designated “Proyecto Chiapas 2015”, is presented. This is done in order to provide further depth to the research design presented subsequently. Firstly, data collection methods are detailed in its two-stage qualitative approach followed by the data analysis methods, ending with the presentation of the strategies adopted for validating the findings.

Chapter 7 addresses the **results of the study** based on the perceptions of the fifty semi-structured interviews conducted with UNWTO consultants, volunteers and local actors of the five municipalities of Chiapas involved in the programme. The discussion of the results is undertaken through the interviews’ content analysis and complemented with the researcher’s fieldwork observations and secondary data collected. The discussion of the results is then conducted according to the different levels of analysis of each section of the theoretical model by dissecting the excerpts of the interviews that better represent the ideas being discussed.

Finally, **Chapter 8** provides a **concluding overview of the study and its implications**. It does so by addressing the main research question of the thesis, attempting to find out the most comprehensive answers to the three specific objectives initially outlined. This discussion is conducted relating the main conclusions derived from the theoretical chapters with the empirical evidences of the study. Through the insights provided by the IDCT model as applied to the real context of the UNWTO.Volunteers in Chiapas, it is demonstrated the significance of the research and its theoretical and empirical contributions to the body of knowledge. The chapter finalises with a discussion of the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION: CONCEPTS, THEORIES AND MODELS

2.1 Introduction

This first chapter of the literature review provides a general overview on the topic of International Development Cooperation (IDC) in order to establish a contextual framework for understanding its extensive, complex and multi-faceted issues. It will present a background on the major issues to be considered when discussing, in the subsequent chapters, the context in which tourism should be interpreted within the world of IDC programmes and, ultimately, to ground why it is important to do so following a KT approach.

The chapter is divided in two main sections. Section 2.2 is focused on the review of the literature and conceptualisations about development and related key terms including poverty, the ways and approaches through which it has been measured over time, and the diverse existing categorizations of countries according to its characteristics and indicators. Doing this permitted to clarify the accurate terms to use throughout this thesis avoiding subjectivity in its use as often occurs within this area. The section ends with the presentation of the Millennium Development Goals as a global multidimensional approach within which the development community moves forward, even if not without controversy.

Section 2.3 introduces the main topic herein under discussion - IDC. This begins with the review of the multiple perspectives about IDC and its paradigms and approaches throughout the second half of the twentieth century as to better understand where we stand now. It proceeds by distinguishing different typologies of aid and key players, as well as the main events and current guidelines supporting international commitment for aid effectiveness as assumed by those same players at the highest level. Finally, a review of critical success factors concerning development effectiveness with an emphasis on results is conducted. This is done discussing different approaches and ending with the presentation of four selected models that will provide some useful insights for the development of the model to propose within the current thesis.

2.2 Development

2.2.1 Poverty and development concepts

The concept of development has been subject to constant interpretations mainly in the aftermath of the World War II and remains an ongoing controversial issue to this date

(Amaro, 2004). The actual definition of developing world is in itself an ambiguous one. This and other associated terms will be subject of further discussion in this section.

Human Development (HD) has been discussed as a concept by several authors and some prominent economists such as Dudley Seers (1969), Peter Bauer (1972), Amartya Sen (1999), among others, for whom increased incomes should be regarded as a means to increase human welfare and not as an end itself. Before examining HD, it is important to distinguish two general approaches to development (Szirmai, 2005): (i) the approach centred on the short-term **fight against poverty**; and (ii) the approach centred on the long-term **economic and social development**.

The **fight against poverty** approaches (i) are characterized by a strong involvement with the problems of prevalent poverty, hunger and misery in developing countries questioning essentially the ways and means to improve the situation in the short-term. It embraces questions related to the meaning and dimensions of what is referred to as “poverty” (e.g. Anand & Sen, 1997; Blake, Arbache, Sinclair, & Teles 2008; Chambers, 1995; Commission for Africa, 2005; Sharpley & Naidoo, 2010). Questions related to this complex concept are usually put through, being considered determinant to guide actions against poverty: What does it mean to be poor? Which people are poor, and where are they? Why are they poor? The Commission for Africa (2005: 101) responds with the voices of the poor as follows:

Ask poor people themselves what poverty means to them and these are the answers they give. Poverty means hunger, thirst, and living without decent shelter. It means not being able to read. It means chronic sickness. Poverty means not finding any opportunities for you or your children. It is about being pushed around by those who are more powerful. It is about having little control over your own life. And it can mean living with the constant threat of personal violence.

In the scientific literature this discussion leads to questions related to how to measure poverty. Sharpley and Naidoo (2010) synthesize these basic ideas, considering two aspects upon which poverty may be defined and measured. Firstly, and most frequently, poverty is defined according to quantitative measures, usually levels of income pointed out by economists who argue that people are poor because of a low level of savings. Their argument is deeply rooted in the concept of vicious cycle of poverty. This concept holds that low productivity leads to low income, low income leads to low savings, and low savings leads to low investment and low investment to low productivity (Samuelson & Nardhaus, 1999). In this context, poverty is frequently defined in terms of absolute levels of per capita income. An income of \$1 per day has long been adopted as a measure of extreme poverty, although lately the World Bank has adopted the measure of \$1.25 as the new global extreme poverty line, and keeping the US\$2 of income per day as the measure for poverty (Sharpley & Naidoo, 2010).

Secondly, it has long been recognised that income-poverty, while important, is only one aspect of deprivation and that these arbitrary poverty lines do not reflect the overall human needs. Chambers (1995) adds that the realities of poor people are local, complex, diverse and dynamic being too limiting to apply just that poverty measure. Indeed, the dimensions of poverty should embrace the whole concept of sustainable livelihoods, integrating not only income-poverty but social inferiority, isolation, a poor environment, physical weakness, little or no education, vulnerability, seasonal deprivation, powerlessness and humiliation (Blake et al., 2008; Chambers, 1995; Sharpley & Naidoo, 2010).

The second and broader approach presented by Szirmai (2005) refers to the long-term **dynamics of socio-economic development** (ii). Poverty-alleviation forms an intrinsic part of this approach despite the presence of other equally determinant factors. This is focused “on comparing developments in different countries, regions and historical periods in order to gain a better understanding of the factors that have long-term effects on the dynamics of socio-economic development” (Szirmai, 2005: 2). The focus of this thesis is more orientated towards this perspective and therefore it will be more emphasised throughout this chapter.

How “development” is defined may vary according to the different scales in the debate. Approaches to development may be, likewise, scale dependent. As Willis (2011: 8) puts it, these scales may “go from the individual, to the local community, the regional, the national and the global (among others)”. In this thesis we refer generally to the global scale. Development can refer overall to a “process through which a society moves from one condition to another” (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002: 23). It entails complex social, cultural and environmental changes rather than merely economic growth and diversification of a country’s economy (Donnellan, 2005). Nowadays it is widely recognized that development is not just about increased wealth as it involves broader concerns related to the standard of living and quality of life (Amaro, 2004; OECD, 2012; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Tosun, 2001). However, the path to reach the comprehension of the overall complex dimensions that are today considered the pillars of development, even if not without controversy, was one that underwent several stages, according to dominating paradigms and different approaches in recent decades. As the focus of this chapter is to examine development in the perspective of international cooperation, we will leave the discussion of those stages to section 2.3, where it will be analysed in parallel, i.e. relating the different perspectives and paradigms of development with the corresponding approaches to cooperation. In doing this, the concepts of poverty and development, briefly analysed in the current section, will be better consolidated by then. The discussion that follows presents another crucial issue of development that is concerned with how to measure it.

2.2.2 Measuring development

Why is there a need to measure development? The answer depends on the actors involved in development processes. For policy-makers, for instance, this may be essential to formulate adequate policies according to certain indicators of the population; governmental or international agencies may need to assess the impact of a development initiative or programme which requires having measurements from both before and after an intervention takes place; among other examples (Willis, 2011).

Several indicators have been used overtime attempting to categorize all the countries according to its development level. This has been typically measured against indicators conceived in economically developed nations like the Gross National Income (GNI) (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). In fact, for operational and analytical purposes, the World Bank’s “World Development Report” is still dominating the world categorization that uses as the main criteria for classifying economies the GNI per capita (Klugman, Rodríguez, & Choi, 2011), according to four main categories of countries (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Countries categorization according to GNI (2011)

World Bank countries' classification	Corresponding GNI per capita levels
High Income	\$12,476 or more
Upper Middle Income	\$4,036 - \$12,475
Lower Middle Income	\$1,026 - \$4,035
Low Income	\$1,025 or less

Source: Own construction adapted from World Bank (2012a)

Nevertheless, these and other type of indicators have become more contested overtime, depending on the complex nature of the ongoing paradigms that, during the second half of the twentieth century, underlay the various stages of the development process. Regarding the use of mere economic indicators the main criticisms were concerned with the recognition that economic growth alone does not solve the problems of the poor or the main social and political problems of developing countries (e.g. Bauer, 1972; Seers, 1969). These and other criticisms associated to the different stages and paradigms will be further detailed in section 2.3.3.

The long and complex debate around these issues led to the improvement of some indicators of human well-being that culminated with the United Nations Development Programme's "Human Development Report" (HDR) in 1990 (UNDP, 1990). Development was then defined as the improvement of people's choices, the most critical being to lead a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge and to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living (UNDP, 1990).

The HDRs have been published every year since 1990, being in general concerned with the eradication of disadvantages and the creation of opportunities for the most vulnerable. A special focus on poverty and deprivation had been given right from the beginning, providing a wide range of information on relevant features of those worst off, leading to the specific index of progress in a conglomerate perspective - the Human Development Index (HDI) (Anand & Sen, 1997). The HDI measures the average achievements in a country or geographical area through a composite indicator of HD based on the arithmetic mean of three basic dimensions: i) wellbeing (life expectancy), ii) knowledge (literacy and gross enrolment rate), iii) standard of living (income) (UNDP, 2011). These three core dimensions are put on a common (0, 1) scale.

The measurement of development or poverty as a multidimensional phenomenon is still very difficult because there are many theoretical, methodological and empirical problems. There have been attempts in improving the existing indicators bringing together as much as possible in composite indexes different features of deprivations in the quality of life of poor communities. This was the case of the Human Poverty Index (HPI), introduced in 1997 that rather than using average achievements was intended to measure the most basic dimensions of deprivations (Ravallion, 2011).

In 2009, it was introduced a new international measure of poverty - the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) - which directly measures the combination of deprivations that each household

experiences (UNDP, 2009a). There were also some alterations in the HDI formula (e.g. GDP was replaced by GNI). Furthermore, a complete substitutability is assumed across the dimensions of HD: a deficit in one dimension can be compensated by a surplus in another (e.g. a good standard of living can always substitute any knowledge deficit) (Ravallion, 2011). Furthermore, the 2009 HDR made an important move away from the idea that the ultimate measure of HD must cover only the three initial core dimensions, and presented new indicators that take into account different aspects of HD in the areas of poverty, inequality, gender, sustainability, empowerment and human security (Klugman et al., 2011).

Since their launch, the UNDP HDRs have established new ways to examine HD and poverty, not only aiming at monitoring HD, but also encouraging actions to promote it. As noted by Ravallion (2011: 2), “each year’s HDI scores are keenly watched in both rich and poor countries. Politicians and the media take note. The countries that do well on the index are congratulated by the HDRs, and those doing poorly are flagged”. This has contributed to move the evaluative attention from the gross measures of economic progress, such as the GNP or GNI per capita, to lines of analysis more related to the quality of life as well as the expansion of opportunities in general (Anand & Sen, 1997).

Furthermore, it has contributed to a significant change in the nature of the debate on the successes and failures in the process of development (Anand & Sen, 1997). Its influence is noted, not only in guiding development policy debates and designs, but also in allocating donor aid and other applications (Ravallion, 2011). By introducing this new approach to poverty measurement in the 20th anniversary report, more focused on the quality of life, UNDP HDR was aimed to encourage its use in the field by governments, development agencies, and other institutions dedicated to the eradication of poverty (Alkire et al., 2011).

It should be noted that the 187 countries ranking presented by UNDP is still based on its HDI, following a classification of four clusters by achievement in HD, according to the following subgroups: Very High HD (VHHD), High HD (HHD), Medium HD (MHD), Low HD (LHD) (first column of Table 2.2). This provides an overview of the global distribution of the world population within the four HDI categories and the corresponding per capita and total GNI, according to the HDR of UNDP (2011). Data presented in Table 2.2 put in evidence the unequal distribution of HD worldwide as only about 16% of the population lives in countries with a VHHD being responsible for 54% of the GNI. In contrast, 18% of the population lives under LHD countries with only about 3% of the total GNI.

Table 2.2 Population and GNI by groups of countries (2011)

UNDP Countries´ classification	Population		Total GNI		Per capita GNI (PPP\$)
	millions	%	Total (PPP\$)	%	
VHHD (HDI of 0.800 or above)	1129,5	16.4%	37671422,85	54%	33352,3
HHD (HDI of 0.698–0.799)	972,9	14.1%	11265500,97	16%	11579,3
MHD (HDI of 0.500–0.698)	3545,5	51.3%	18706058,00	27%	5276,0
LHD (HDI of less than 0.500)	1259,7	18.2%	1996120,62	3%	1584,6
World	6974,7	100%	70315438,05	100%	10081,5

Source: Own construction adapted from UNDP (2011)

In order to evaluate income and consumption inequality, the most accurate measure currently used is the Gini Coefficient. It measures the extent to which the distribution of income or consumption expenditure among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution (Willis, 2011). A Gini Coefficient of 0 represents perfect equality, while 1 means perfect inequality. Thus the nearer the coefficient is from 0 the more equal the income distribution (World Bank, 2012b). Typically, countries with a Gini Coefficient of between 0.50 and 0.70 present highly unequal income distributions (e.g. Mexico - 0.52; Brazil - 0.54; Angola - 0.59; South Africa - 0.58) while those between 0.20 and 0.35 have relatively equitable distributions (Sweden - 0.25; Norway - 0.26; Canada - 0.33) (Willis, 2011; UNDP, 2011).

A brief analysis to some of the mentioned development indexes put in evidence the complexity of measuring development and comparing countries. For instance, as may be observed in the table presented in Appendix 2.1, there are major discrepancies between the countries' levels of HDI and GNI and the respective Gini Coefficient. There are some typical situations that are worth to mention in this regard:

- 1) countries with VHHD and a low Gini coefficient are the best positioned (e.g. Norway, Germany, Sweden);
- 2) countries with VHHD and a high Gini coefficient reveal great levels of income inequality in very high developed countries (e.g. USA, Chile, Argentina);
- 3) countries with HHD and a high Gini coefficient mean that they are progressively increasing its HDI but increasing at the same time the levels of income inequality (e.g. Mexico, Brazil, Colombia);
- 4) countries with a MHD and a high Gini coefficient, typically some emerging economies keep high levels of income inequality (e.g. China, Bolivia, South Africa, Cape Verde);
- 5) countries with LHD and high or very high Gini coefficient, the majority situated in the African continent face several constraints that impede them to increase levels of development in very unequal societies with income concentrated in few elites of the population (e.g. São Tomé e Príncipe, Angola, Mozambique, Kenya).

From the above examples it is clear that measuring development and comparing countries is in fact a very complex exercise considering the different situations found all over the world. Each of these groups of countries faces different development challenges that should be carefully analysed whenever devising development strategies. The section that follows complements this analysis by discussing the different terminologies applied to development, underdevelopment and inherent countries group's categorizations.

2.2.3 Terminology

The terminology attached to countries under the previously discussed development indicators has been subject to intense dispute. This is due to the constant need, for diverse purposes, of grouping a large number of countries into one category, which obviously is not an easy task. Should those countries be described as “developed countries”, “developing countries”, “poor countries”, “lower income”, “underdeveloped”, “the South”, “Third

World”, or “less developed countries”? There is an ongoing debate on meaning and usefulness of these terms which are mostly used interchangeably and subject to wide interpretation (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Tosun, 2000), all of them “owning their advocates and detractors and no one term suiting all audiences” (Mowforth & Munt, 2003: 6). Basically, they all include the same countries with a few deviations depending on who is conducting the categorization (Oppermann & Chon, 1997).

Following the GNI per capita categorization of the World Bank (see Table 2.1), almost all the OECD members, corresponding to high income countries, are considered the set of developed economies. Low-income and middle-income economies are usually referred to as developing economies. As mentioned in the World Bank’s webpage, the use of the term is convenient, although it is recognized that the classification based on income does not necessarily reflect a development status (World Bank, 2011).

Even though the term “developing” is the most widely used to refer to low-income and middle-income economies, there are some authors that avoid its use. This is the case of Mowforth and Munt (2003: 6) for whom the word “developing” entails “an end state to the process of development and that all countries will eventually reach a «developed» state” which actually causes underdevelopment elsewhere”. Thus, these authors prefer to keep using the term “Third World” (referring to nation states of Latin America, the Caribbean, Africa and parts of Asia), considering that it “helps to emphasize the ways in which power, resources and development are unequally and unevenly shared globally” (Mowforth & Munt, 2003: 6).

The term “Third World” corresponds, however, to an outdated model of the geopolitical world from the time of the cold war. Indeed, the phrase “Third World” contrasted with the “First World” power vested in the nation states of the capitalist industrialized bloc of countries aligned with the United States after World War II (North America, Europe, Australasia, and Japan). The “Second World” was then used to refer to the former communist-socialist, industrial states (formerly the Eastern bloc), corresponding to the territory and sphere of influence of the ex-soviet socialist republics. All the remaining countries were integrated in the so called “Third World”, often interpreted as being in third place (Willis, 2011: 16), including capitalist (e.g. Mexico) and communist countries (e.g. North Korea), as well as very rich (e.g. Saudi Arabia) and very poor (e.g. Mozambique) countries. The collapse of the communist-socialist bloc in the late 1980s/early 1990s dictated the disappearance of the “Second World” which, as a result, should imply the disappearance of the “Third World” too (Tosun, 2000; Willis, 2011: 17).

Therefore, as pointed out by Tomlinson (2003), in his entitled “What was the Third World?” paper, the academic usage of the term “Third World” has declined strikingly in recent years, having never been clear throughout the second half of the twentieth century whether it was a clear class of analysis, or just a suitable and somewhat vague label for an inaccurate collection of states and some of the common problems that they faced. As other terms like the “South” and “underdeveloped” or the “less-developed world” used to refer to group “descriptions of Africa, Asia, the Middle East, the Pacific islands and Latin America, the designation «Third World» was more about what such places were not than what they were” (Tomlinson, 2003: 307). Similarly, the widely used North/South distinction may be also problematic mainly because not all “Northern” countries are north of the equator as well as not all the “Southern” ones are south of the equator (Willis, 2011).

While there are still no real fixed definitions for any of the presented categories’ terms, the dichotomy along with “developed countries” and “developing countries” is still the most

widely accepted nowadays, even if this oversimplifies a complex global political economy. Hence, according to OECD (2012), it is common to consider almost all high-income developed countries as developed and all others as developing. Furthermore, it is worth to note that the developing nations vary enormously in terms of economic and social development, some of them assuming substantial economic and social progress leading to an ever-increasingly important position in the global economy. Among many designated “emerging economies” it is highlighted the importance of Brazil, Russia, India, and China (known as BRICs) which have come to symbolise the shift in global economic power (O’Neill, 2001). They formed a political organization among themselves, which later expanded to include South Africa, becoming the (BRICS).

Within the group of “developing countries” it is also widely used the term “least developed countries” (LDCs) to distinguish the world’s poorest countries. The UN defines the LDCs as the world’s “poorest and weakest” countries (OECD, 2012: 28). There are 48 countries in this category (33 in Africa, 14 in Asia and the Pacific and 1 in Latin America), comprising about 12 per cent of world population, but accounting for less than 2 percent of world GDP. Additionally, the UN discriminates 31 “landlocked developing countries” (LLDCs) that are generally among the poorest of the developing countries, and 52 “small island developing states” (SIDS) that tend to share specific social, economic and environmental vulnerabilities (UN-OHRLS, 2012).

In the context of this thesis, generally reference will be made to “developing countries”, rather than to the “South” or “Third World”, which is no longer deemed suitable as discussed above. Hence, and taking into account the previously given arguments about the meaning of HD and the HDRs, it is considered appropriate to use the same terminology and categorization used within the United Nations system. According to this view, developed countries correspond to Japan, Canada, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, and Europe, and developing countries all the remaining countries (UNDP, 2013).

2.2.4 Characteristics of developing countries

Although the problems that developing countries face are broadly recognized, the specific characteristics of underdevelopment are less clear (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008: 6). Nonetheless, as argued by the Commission for Africa (2005: 105), “any proposals for action must be based on an understanding not only of where we are but also the causes that brought us here”. Setting them out gives us an idea of the scale of the challenge as these characteristics are complex and interlocking. Indeed, like pointed out by Tomlinson (2003: 308), developing countries are so heterogeneous in terms of their economy, culture and history backgrounds, society, politics, environment, and in so many other ways that it make it harder to define common features for all of them.

Moreover, such differences exist not simply between developing countries, but within them as well and it should be noted that many developed nations also face similar problems (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Tomlinson, 2003). Yet, this does not mean that an attempt cannot be made to identify some common features related to a number of structural deficiencies generally verified in developing countries, even if some of them are closer to development than others (Tomlinson, 2003; Tosun, 2005). In reviewing some publications about this topic there is consensus about categorising the main characteristics of developing countries under four traditional headings, which can be summarised fairly succinctly in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 - Characteristics of developing countries

Headings	Common features of developing countries	References
Socio-economic features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic dependence on a vast, traditional agricultural sector and the export of primary goods with limited competence in global markets. • Economic fragility with low level of capital accumulation as limited natural resources and industrial production imply high levels of imports and low levels of exports - severe balance of payments deficits and high levels of international debt (debt trap). • Low standards of living (in all the dimensions considered in HDI), in relation to rich nations but often also to small elite groups within their own societies. • High rates of population growth and dependency burdens. • High and increasing unemployment and underemployment. • Lack of services of welfare state. • Low per capita national income. • Low economic growth rates. • Increasing income inequality. • Inadequate human resources. 	Nafziger, 1990; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Todaro, 1994; Tosun, 2005; UNDP, 2011.
Cultural features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural features of people shaped by socio-economic and political factors. • Exclusion of the vast majority of the people from socio-political life as they are absorbed by the daily challenge of survival. • Exclusion of local people from their affair due to the inherent lack of education, high incidence of health problems and widespread poverty. • Lack of effective community organizations that can be instrumental in defining and advancing the collective interests of the poor. • Many governments focus on serving organized groups in the modern sectors of the economy and people in rural areas are not given enough opportunities to use basic welfare services such as hospitals and schools. • Inertia among the poor making it difficult to gain confidence enough in their own power to control things for themselves. • Apathy among the poor stops them effectively demanding that the institutions which serve them accommodate their needs. • Religion, language, ethnicity and other social-cultural forces divide the poor and undermine their chances of making a united challenge to the position of powerful elite groups. • Increased cultural struggles over material conditions and practices and meanings of “everyday life”. 	Mathur, 1995; Tomlinson, 2003; Tosun, 2005; UN, 1981.
Environmental and technological features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High vulnerability to climate change and intensity of climacteric phenomena. • Water and sanitation shortages. • Desertification and deforestation. • Overexploitation of natural resources. • Increased levels of pollution • Technological deficiencies. • Other problems 	Commission for Africa, 2005.

Headings	Common features of developing countries	References
Socio- Political features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited socio-political structures lead to unequal distribution of power tending to favour a small, powerful elite - the Tomlinson's designated "national bourgeoisie". • Lack of governance. • Use of alliances with international capital by the local elites to dominate the state and suppress challenges to its positions. • High level of centralization in public administration system. • Widespread "patron-client" relationships. • High level of favouritism and nepotism. • Inadequate or no democratic experience. • High level of political instability. • High level of conflicts among supporters of different ideologies or tribes. 	Escobar, 1994; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Tomlinson, 2003; Tosun, 2000; 2005.

Apart from some common features in developing countries like the outlined above, there are major differences to consider either between developing countries, as well as within them. As pointed out by Tomlinson (2003: 308), "there are rich and poor people, empowered and disempowered citizens, to be found inside all states and societies in the world". In any case, for the majority of the population in the developing world, and mainly in the LDC, often the biggest challenge appears to be the daily survival that occupies all their time and consumes their energy, making it difficult for many of them to become actively involved in issues of public concern (Tosun, 2005; UN, 1981).

Additionally, as much of the world struggles to recuperate from the worst economic crisis in 50 years, the global attention is now even more centred in short-term measures to surpass immediate challenges of economic development which may lead to ignore other crucial dimensions of development. As such, in OECD (2012: 4) it is claimed that "the time has come for a new approach and a renewed impetus for development, based on a real partnership between developed and developing countries". The need for a global and efficient partnership brings renewed challenges towards the IDC agenda, which will be discussed in the next sections.

2.2.5 The Millennium Development Goals

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are presented as a global multidimensional approach within which the development community attempts to move forward. It derived from the UN *Millennium Declaration*, adopted by 189 nations in 2000, and emerged as a result of the debate related to the main objectives of the development agenda throughout the 1990s (Lima, Eusébio, & Partidário, 2011a), as summarized in the previous section. The MDGs are a set of eight goals that are almost universally supported. Related to each of the 8 MDGs a set of targets was defined (measured by 60 different indicators) to be met by 2015 (Table 2.4).

Table 2.4. The Millennium Development Goals

Goal 1 - Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger;
Goal 2 - Achieve universal primary education;
Goal 3 - Promote gender equality;
Goal 4 - Reduce child mortality;
Goal 5 - Improve maternal health;
Goal 6 - Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases;
Goal 7 - Ensure environmental sustainability;
Goal 8 - Develop a global partnership for development

Source: UN (2006)

The UN, the multilateral and bilateral development assistance agencies, financial institutions, private corporations, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and other interest parties have worked in order to achieve the MDGs, through diverse activities and programmes. While being recognized as a multidimensional approach to development by many, the UN Millennium project is subject of controversy. In fact, the MDGs become popular constituting a baseline for action and motivating, for instance, the “Make Poverty History” movement, in 2005, the Live8 consciousness-raising rock concerts and the Johannesburg-based Global Call to Action Against Poverty (Bond, 2006), among others. However, as argued by Bond (2006: 339), these examples of the work done under the MDGs frame “distract us from solidarity with the real agents of progressive social and environmental history, in progressive civil society”.

Moreover, the assessment of progress to achieve these targets has been difficult due to a lack of adequate data to compile required indicators in several regions of the developing world (UN, 2006). Furthermore, the MDGs have been criticised, first, because “they were generated non-transparently by the United Nations, itself moving since the early 2000s to embrace the Washington Consensus and co-operate with the World Bank” (Bond, 2006: 339) and, second, because it tends to overlook important environmental, social and political issues (Mowforth & Munt, 2009; Scheyvens, 2011). Bond (2006) adds that the MDGs have been laid in a top-down approach by countries and organisations whose policies directly undermine the well-being of the poor in much of the world, favouring interests other than the ones experienced by the disadvantaged peoples.

Of course, as Bond (2006) puts it, no one would object to the essence of the MDGs as they are unquestionably well intentioned, providing a common framework settled by almost all nations. Furthermore, there was an effort to make those targets measurable with indicators of progress, around which governments, donor agencies, international financial institutions and civil society activists can assume a baseline for development planning, allowing at least national accountability. Nevertheless, it is nowadays consensual that the implementation processes associated to the MDGs have serious weaknesses and some contradictions (Scheyvens, 2007).

For instance, Onis and Senses (2005) argue that the International Monetary Fund (IMF) demands budget surpluses even if this undermines potential for social spending. It can also be pointed out the policies undertaken by the World Trade Organization regarding agriculture which undermined the agricultural sector by permitting dumping of food surpluses from protected markets of developed countries into developing countries’ markets (Torres & Momsen, 2004). The support of the removal of trade barriers lead to the dominance of agricultural production in some areas by large international agribusiness

companies preventing developing countries' governments from supporting local farmers (Bond, 2006).

These and other examples reinforce the general criticisms around the MDGs with the generalized idea that the emphasis on poverty reduction is a means of window dressing which may draw away criticisms of earlier neoliberal policies (Scheyvens, 2007), facilitating the Bretton Woods institutions usage of the "poverty issue as a pretext for broadening and deepening the neoliberal agenda" (Onis & Senses, 2005: 280). It is also worth to note that despite all the criticisms around the MDGs within the aid debate, they still shape how IDC is thought of and implemented, forming the foundations of much of today's IDC approaches.

2.3 International Development Cooperation

2.3.1 Development paradigms and cooperation approaches - a brief history

If the world of IDC is vast, complex and multi-faceted (OECD-DAC, 2012), so too is the existing scientific literature about it, making it difficult to present the main issues in a simple and clear way. Thus, this section starts by presenting and discussing briefly the different development paradigms that dominated the development discourse since the Second World War, to proceed with a summary of the implications of each of these stages on the approaches to IDC.

In the debate about development, there has been a shift from top-down economic models, corresponding to the economic neoliberalism paradigm, to more broad-based approaches that are bottom-up and centred on fulfilling basic needs in a sustainable manner, leading to an alternative development paradigm (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). This shift has been determined by several changes in the political and socioeconomic world order in the six decades after the World War II. In this period, colonial empires have been dismantled and more than 90 former dependent territories have gained their independence (Sofield, 2003).

In the late 1940s and throughout the 1950s and 1960s, the established view concerning the differences between underdeveloped countries, then designated the "Third World", and the developed ones, or the "First World", was determined by economic disparities and standards of living. This has led to an increasing concern with the needs of emergent states, having "development" since then been placed at the centre of the international relations as the main objective to attain (Sofield, 2003).

Nevertheless, at this stage the concept of development was equated to economic growth, becoming defined solely according to economic measures, such as GNP or per capita GNP, or following economic structural criteria (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002; Sofield, 2003). As a result, the principle under this capitalist approach was that modernization was the necessary transformation from rurally-based subsistence economies to industrialized Western models. The focus on people was not emphasized then (Sofield, 2003). This corresponded to the designated Modernization Development Paradigm.

By the late 1960s and during the 1970s, the modernization theory was criticized by several authors (e.g. Bauer, 1972; Seers, 1969) who argued that economic growth alone was not satisfying the basic needs of the poor, nor solving the main social and political problems in these countries, and were even causing or intensifying some of them. Thus, during the 1970s

this approach moved on to consider development not only as equivalent to economic growth but as a wider phenomenon comprising dimensions related to the reduction of widespread poverty, unemployment, inequality, cultural independence and self-reliance (Seers, 1969). This was not supposed to mean that economic growth was not important, but that it was only one part of the process (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Additionally, the oil crisis had exposed the cost of dependence of many countries leading to the expansion of the concept of development as to integrate the notion of self-determination as well (OECD, 2012; Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

A paradigm shift in the development debate occurred in the **1980s** with the advent of the global sustainable development concept that has since then been dominating the international debate. It was in 1987 that the **Brundtland Report** was launched, consolidating the concept of sustainable development which reflected the broader discussions of the 1970s and 1980s. The set of principles that supported this concept included the notion of economic development as long as respecting inter-generational equity in parallel with the conservation of biological diversity and ecological integrity as well as socially and culturally compatible (WCED, 1987).

In this context, policy decisions and development started being guided by environmental and social impact assessments. The paradigm of sustainable development challenged the conventional paradigms of development as it questioned positions of countries in the developmental hierarchy dominated by the modernization, dependency, and economic neoliberalism theories (Sofield, 2003). It is worth to note as well the impact of the end of the Cold War on the redirection of the international attention to the global environment and development which as a result became one of the main focuses in political action and in the rhetoric and thinking of development studies (Mowforth & Munt, 2009).

Having this background in mind it is observed that, after decades of development planning aid projects and programmes, grants, loans and structural adjustment, the search for efficient strategies, programmes and initiatives keeps going on (Scheyvens, 2007). This is done within and outside the developing world to help improve the situation in developing countries and overcome some of the problems they face in order to move up the development ladder. In fact there is still no consensus on what works and what does not in terms of IDC with limited progress being made since the end of the World War II. This is evident, for instance, observing the number of countries with LDC status which grown from 25 in 1971 to 48 in 2011 (UN-OHRLLS, 2012).

While the meaning of development has changed overtime, so too have the dominant approaches and paradigms on how to bring about development and how to organize IDC (Cowen & Shelton, 1996; Meier & Seers, 1984). The endless succession of ideas and slogans that dominated post-war discussions of IDC are fairly summarized by Szirmai (2005: 2): large-scale injections of capital are the key to development (“big push”); the “small is beautiful” movement; human capital as the missing link in development; market orientation and deregulation; promotion of the informal sector; structural adjustment policies; sustainable development, among others.

A common characteristic of these guidelines for development is their short-term, target driven projects (Birdsall, 2004; Szirmai, 2005). Nevertheless, results are slow in materialising, whereas effective aid usually requires core funding over a longer period as to facilitate local empowerment (Birdsall, 2004). Therefore, often disenchantment takes place which in turn creates new and more attractive solutions and catchphrases. These fashions dominate time

and again the world of politics, policy and development sciences leading to erroneous advice from development advisers and experts (Szirmai, 2005).

In order to fully understand the actual paradigm and the fundamentals under which the theoretical model of this thesis will be constructed, it is important to have an idea of the main stages of the IDC thinking. We will refer to it briefly through a summary of the main approaches to IDC over the last 50 years linking it to the previously mentioned development paradigms (Table 2.5). A deep analysis of the history of IDC is fully and well discussed elsewhere (e.g. OECD-DAC, 2012; Willis 2011; Wilson, 2007; Younas; 2008; Bourguignon & Sundberg, 2007; Sagasti & Alcalde, 1999).

The analysis of Table 2.5 gives us a notion of the way IDC has evolved overtime, through endless changing cooperation approaches and the paradox of the multidimensional challenges it faces. It also demonstrates the increasing emphasis on adopting KT approaches involving a wider range of development partners as to improve development effectiveness. At the same time, it gives an idea of the demanding challenge of the purpose of this thesis aiming at adding knowledge to this complex ongoing debate. This demands, first of all, the consideration of the different typologies of IDC and donors, as well as the associated critical success factors and proposed models in order to fulfil the aim of narrowing the scope of analysis. These issues constitute the focus of the subsequent sections of this chapter.

Table 2.5 - Summary of development paradigms and IDC approaches, 1950s onwards

Time frame	Developm. paradigm	Perspectives and concepts of development	Approaches to IDC
<i>Late 1940s - 1960s</i>	Modernization	<p>Progress dependent on economic growth.</p> <p>Path from traditional to modern/Western model, rural to urban, agriculture to industry.</p> <p>Structuralist theories: southern countries should limit interaction with the global economy to allow for domestic economic growth.</p>	<p>1948's Universal Declaration of Human Rights.</p> <p>Truman's 1949 speech highlights the importance of embarking on an ambitious programme for taking advantage of the benefits of the technological/scientific knowledge and industrial progress for the improvement of "underdeveloped" areas - new impetus to the formal IDC movement.</p> <p>Creation of multilateral institutions (e.g. UN, World Bank, International Monetary Fund).</p> <p>US Marshall Plan for post-war Europe's reconstruction (1st large-scale assistance programme).</p> <p>OECD developing countries grouping to support needs of developing countries (Development Assistance Committee - DAC - and OECD Development Centre).</p> <p>Strategy of economic growth: introduction of an industry or economic sector as a "growth pole" (e.g. Tourism).</p>
<i>1960s - 1970s</i>	Modernization / Dependency / underdevelopment	<p>Underdevelopment caused by exploitation by developed countries (neo-colonialism) due to the nature of its political, economic and institutional structures (dependency).</p> <p>Unequal international capitalistic system (e.g. tourism is seen as a manifestation of this paradigm).</p>	<p>Political interests dominating international assistance to former colonies under the rival Cold War blocs.</p> <p>First agreements on donor countries wealth percentage for aid. (0.7% of GNI, only few reaching it).</p> <p>Aid targeted mainly at infrastructure.</p> <p>Described as the "glory years" of development assistance.</p>
<i>Mid 1970s - 1980s</i>	Economic neoliberalism	<p>Promotion of market liberalization against excessive state intervention adopting more export-oriented regimes.</p> <p>Privatization of state enterprises.</p> <p>Economic growth alone could not pledge basic needs.</p> <p>Debt crisis: Mexico admit in 1982 it would default on its debt, sparking a crisis through the continent, followed by African countries too.</p>	<p>Previous enthusiasm begun to fade with lack and worsen results in developing countries</p> <p>1973's oil shock - economic turbulence and contraction to shift development approaches throughout 70s and 80s.</p> <p>Aid targeted at satisfying "basic human needs" and self-reliance encouragement.</p> <p>Development aid shift shaped by debt crisis ("conditionalities" and policy advice):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Requirements for developing countries economies stabilisation (e.g. reducing fiscal imbalances) - Structural adjustment (e.g. trade liberalisation) as to access international loan programmes like the administered by the World Bank and IMF

Table 2.5 - Summary of development paradigms and IDC approaches, 1950s onwards (cont.)

Time frame	Developm. paradigm	Perspectives and concepts of development	Approaches to IDC
1980s-1990s	Sustainable development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Development as an endogenous process and not something that other societies should implement or impose: importance of considering local context and indigenous knowledge. - Consolidation of the overall concept of sustainable development in all its dimensions. - Persistence of neo-liberalism. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Influx of fresh funds and ideas with NGOs attaining an ever-higher profile in development and media events like the 1985 Live Aid concert to raise funds. - Prescriptions of stabilisation and structural adjustment from Western countries begin to be criticised as imposing an entire economic philosophy on developing countries. - Development processes affect differently diverse social and cultural groups. - Resource-based, bottom-up approaches focused on human/environmental factors.
1990s, 2000	Post-development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Post-development: “development” considered as reinforcing inequalities, representing a form of colonialism and Eurocentrism that should be challenged from the grassroots - State-led approaches to face problems associated with free market liberalization (increased by globalization). - Transnational social movements like environmentalists, indigenous peoples, feminists, peace activists, etc. - Rights-based development focused on people’s living standards and life prospects. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Collapse of the Soviet bloc changes geopolitical motivations for IDC as the desire to keep developing countries on each side was swept away (real net aid fell by 1/3 across the 90s). New focus on providing assistance for struggled countries in Central and Eastern Europe. - Fresh focus on the need to put people at the centre of development: creation of UNDP’s influential <i>HDR</i> and Index; the World Bank’s <i>World Development Report focus “Poverty”</i> (both in 1990); reinforcement of the role of the civil society and social capital by development agencies and NGOs. - A shift since the mid 90s emerged by a “donor fatigue” claiming that “aid doesn’t work”.

Time frame	Developm. paradigm	Perspectives and concepts of development	Approaches to IDC
<i>2000-2010 and beyond</i>	Beyond the impasse: the search for a new paradigm?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Security as a global determinant for development, strengthened after 9/11. - Success of the high-profile Jubilee Campaign (developing countries debt cancellation of the 2000s) threatened by spread effects of debt crisis in Eurozone. - Rise of new partners for development - Development “epistemological challenges” associated with KT (UNDP, World Bank reports) - Countries’ ownership, capacity-building, governance shape the new development paradigm. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Set out of the MDGs as an attempt to respond with fixed firm targets for the development community. - Increasing recognition of self-interest as a major motivation for donors to support developing countries, and not “mere charity”. - The latter and the “Great Recession” led to growing focus on aid effectiveness and on improving understanding of the conditions that enable aid to work - <i>Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness</i> (OECD, 2005) - aid allocation increasingly done on the basis of country performance. - Increasing significance of private funding sources and philanthropic bodies (e.g. Gates Foundation) and declining of the role of traditional aid donors. - More equal partnership between donors and receivers, the latter in the “driving seat”. - Projects portfolio changed to embrace a growing portion of “soft” projects in education, health, HD, capacity building, KT, among others.

Source: Own construction adapted from Amaro (2004); Bourguignon & Sundberg (2007); Diallo & Thuillier (2005); OECD (2012); Younas (2008); Sachs (1999); Sagasti & Alcalde (1999); Szirmai (2005); Telfer & Sharpley (2008); Willis (2011); Wilson (2007).

2.3.2 Typologies and actors of International Development Cooperation

The scope of activities and actors comprising IDC is broad and complex. Perhaps the most renowned aid activity is emergency relief, following disasters that demand immediate rescue efforts, like the 2004 Asian tsunami or the 2010 Haiti earthquake. However, as important as these aid missions may be, “they represent but one small piece in a much bigger jigsaw” (OECD, 2012: 11).

IDC programmes constitute the most widely used designation to refer to medium and large public sector development projects or programmes particularly formulated in order to improve economic and social conditions of a developing country (Ahsan & Gunawan, 2010; Diallo & Thuillier, 2005; Younas, 2008). IDC programmes may deliver goods or services (Diallo & Thuillier, 2005), being mostly concerned with poverty alleviation and improvement of living standards, environment and basic human rights protection, development of basic physical and social infrastructures, assistance for victims of natural or people caused disasters, and capacity building (Ahsan & Gunawan, 2010).

IDC programmes have evolved overtime assuming different typologies according to the different approaches to IDC, as discussed in the previous section. Indeed, at first, most projects were essentially “hard” projects comprising works on infrastructures, like civil works, railroads, power plants, etc., but the portfolio has changed to embrace a growing portion of “soft” projects in education, health, HD, capacity building, KT, among others (Diallo & Thuillier, 2005). Also the vocabulary for these activities changed over the years. Having “technical assistance” been formally invented at the end of World War II, along with the UN, is nowadays more commonly referred to as “technical cooperation”, or “development cooperation”, corresponding better to the changing approaches to development practice (Fukuda-Parr, Lopes, & Malik, 2002; Wilson, 2007). This means, perhaps, a more equal, interactive relationship between giver and receiver which, since the 1990s, is increasingly associated with the approaches of “capacity-building” (UNDP, 1990; Wilson, 2007) and in the 21st century eliding with “knowledge management” (Fukuda-Parr et al., 2002; Wilson; 2007).

While there are different typologies of IDC, Official Development Assistance (ODA), often referred to as foreign aid, constitutes the bulk of it. Basically, ODA is concerned with aid from governments in developed countries, or from their official agencies, to developing countries and may comprise loans and grants, and technical assistance on concessional financial terms; debt forgiveness; emergency aid; bilateral or multilateral aid; technical cooperation through expertise, experience and training; to name just the main characteristics and types of support of ODA (Younas 2008: 661; OECD, 2012). Although this is the biggest single category, this is not the only form of IDC and some other forms of assistance are assuming an ever growing importance, such as the type of development cooperation provided by private philanthropy, charities or non-governmental organisations (NGOs). Each of these typologies of IDC embraces different characteristics which are briefly described in Appendix 2.2.

IDC programmes are typically supported by a donor which can range from multilateral development agencies, like the World Bank or the United Nations specialized agencies (e.g. UNWTO), bilateral agencies, NGOs, government departments in developing countries, and private philanthropy individuals, businesses or foundations (Youker, 1999; OECD, 2012). The diverse categories of donors are presented in Appendix 2.3.

The IDC programmes implementation and management are undertaken by the developing government, either through national project management units or teams of nationals embedded into ministries, national departments, or institutions. This can also be delegated to executing agencies such as private companies (e.g. consulting or engineering firms), NGOs or international cooperation departments integrated in various institutions (e.g. universities and colleges for projects in education, or hospitals for health and nutrition projects) (Ahsan & Gunawan, 2009; Diallo & Thuillier, 2005).

Apart from the resources and actors involved, and excluding the emergency aid projects that may be provided at very short notice, in general, IDC requires core funding over a longer period as to achieve long-term goals, such as facilitating local empowerment and reinforcing capacity-building (Birdsall, 2004; OECD, 2012). Nevertheless, as argued by Birdsall (2004), often donors prefer to support short-term, target driven projects looking for immediate and measurable results. This leads to ignore the importance of supporting strong institutional structures catalysing institutional change which demand not only effective technical

cooperation and KT but mainly “changes in country-specific incentive structures and governance mechanisms” (Stern, 2008: 338).

In general, long-term foundations for development are assumed through different approaches, including providing grants and loans to developing countries; transferring funds to the developing partner; technical cooperation by means of transferring technology, transferring knowledge, supplying experts and training in order to improve capacity-building; and so forth (OECD, 2012). The latter approach focused on KT, within the broader category of technical or development cooperation, constitutes the focus of the present thesis and multilateral organizations the type of donor to be considered. Indeed, by reasons to be explained further ahead, this thesis will be focused on the role played by a multilateral UN special agency - the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) within the particular context of its IDC approach through KT.

2.3.3 International commitment for aid effectiveness

The way ID assistance is provided is shifting. This is mainly due to the recognition of the need for making aid more effective in supporting progress towards the MDGs (OECD, 2006). This engages a change towards strategic interventions, provided through support at the level of *Policies, Plans and Programmes* (PPPs), in particular, by comprehensive development frameworks like *Poverty Reduction Strategies* (PRS) which are formulated and led by the developing partner country and implemented through national and local systems and institutions (OECD, 2006; OECD, 2012). In this matter it is important to recognize that strategic-level interventions, particularly at the policy-level, are much more influenced by political factors than by technical criteria (OECD, 2006).

The discussion around aid effectiveness is not new and in order to commit donors to reform the way in which aid is delivered and improve results, several international round tables have taken place, mainly after the adoption of the *Millennium Declaration*. In Appendix 2.4 (Table 1) some major events in this respect are duly summarized. Despite the recent attempts for creating a new roadmap for a more global partnership for development diversifying the players (not just the traditional donors but also NGOs, civil society foundations, among others) (OECD, 2012), the debate remains heated and some wonder when, or if, an agreement will ever be reached (e.g. Bond, 2006).

Within this context of shared responsibility with a focus on results, development agencies are more than ever committed to give their backing to the five central principles for management by results. Many of these ideas can be examined through the lens of the *Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness* albeit this has been described as essentially technocratic (OECD-DAC, 2012: 105). The Declaration’s five principles – ownership, alignment, harmonisation, results and mutual accountability – provide an entry point for understanding the main challenges in making aid more effective (see Appendix 2.4, Table 2), even though it is claimed that these principles and the follow-up measures under the diverse international agreements have been very rarely applied. Moreover, as argued by Petit (2011), it should be taken into account other views that do not reflect conventional thinking on aid and the response to the complexity of challenges within development effectiveness should be first and foremost inclusive, since no-one is the sole possessor of the truth regarding development.

2.3.4 Review of critical success factors: approaches and models

The efficiency of IDC aiming at finding out when and under what circumstances it succeeds constitutes a critical question as discussed in the previous section. The multidimensional and complex nature of development objectives makes it difficult to identify objectively the factors that influence the success or failure of IDC programmes. As Abdullah, Rahman, Harun, Alashwal and Keskin (2010) put it, there are no common denominators for project success as evidenced by the extended list of project success factors identified in the scientific literature as well as the lack of agreement on the definition of success.

As complex as it may be, and as pointed out by Font et al. (2012: 16), identifying critical success factors is crucial to understand the “necessary and sufficient conditions for the success of the original intervention, and an understanding of the situation where replication is planned” without which the donor will hardly be able to ascertain if a development intervention can be successfully implemented in the same conditions or if it should be subject to some adaptations.

Therefore, it is important to define success even if there is no agreement on its meaning. In a broad sense, a successful development intervention may be defined as one in which the goals and objectives are achieved in the planned timeframe, cost and quality within the context of the project’s terms of reference (Abdullah et al., 2010). In turn, according to Font et al. (2012: 2), the success factors comprehend the variables that influence the “likelihood of success, although all too often they are expected to explain success without taking into consideration the complex and dynamic relationships between the objectives, the interventions and the social and economic context in which the intervention occurs”. It is worth to note that in any case “there is no «absolute» success or consistency in success appreciation over time: there is only «perceived success»” (Diallo & Thuillier, 2005: 238) which will differ among the stakeholders involved. We will attempt to present a general overview of some major success factors pointed out by different authors.

Kwak and Dewan (2001) identified several critical success factors of IDC programmes ranging from political, legal, cultural, technical, managerial, economical, environmental, social, to corruption issues within the context of developing countries. They pointed out that project planning and implementation may be negatively influenced by an environment with constraints such as shortage of the needed technical skills or managerial expertise to deal with complex projects, low human capital productivity, high illiteracy shortage of the required material or equipment, poor infrastructure, corruption, lack of political stability leading to frequent change of policies. The assumption of those constraints by the donors often leads them to showing no respect for the knowledge of others (Chambers, 1995; Kwak & Dewan, 2001), and then wondering “why the intermediaries and implementers do not do as they are told” (Font et al., 2012: 5).

Diallo and Thuillier (2005) add that some of those characteristics intrinsic to developing countries are not taken into account when managing IDC programmes which may affect its success. This is due to the fact that some assumptions about what governs human behaviour are not valid in some cultures which are often ignored by donors. Diallo and Thuillier (2005) explored this by examining the influence of interpersonal relationships, trust and communication on the project’s success. They found out that for the coordinators of IDC programmes, the project impact - understood as performance against objectives in a logical framework - was not an important criteria. Instead, those coordinators perceive success

based on management performance indicators such as time, cost and quality, as well as project's profile (visibility, reputation, and image).

Furthermore, more important than quantitative project evaluations would suggest, were factors like interpersonal relationships between all parties (including the implementing team and between the coordinator of the development agency responsible for the project) and trust within the team, as well as communication (Diallo & Thuillier, 2005). Thus, aid managers judge the implementers by criteria which focus mainly on the process of outputs and outcomes more than on accountability for impacts (Font et al., 2012).

A primary challenge to development effectiveness evaluation is the failure to carefully design evaluations using its findings once they are produced thus undermining and reducing this effort to mere paperwork procedures done to meet accountability mandates rather than to seriously support learning and decision-making (Patton, 2008). Reliable evaluation is, therefore, important to determine whether the outputs and outcomes of a development intervention have been achieved, fully or in part, and learning on which impacts it has generated (OECD, 2006).

The challenge is to define clearly how to measure these achievements in an objective and reliable way. This process does not need to be "too complicated - there may be elements that can be measured more objectively than others, especially where cause effect relations are difficult to determine with any level of certainty" (OECD, 2006: 124). It is worth to note that, as pointed out by OECD (2006: 124), the important aspect "of evaluation is not to seek absolute scientific proof but to engage in reflective processes to evaluate and improve on previous decisions".

With a growing demand for development effectiveness, multilateral and bilateral development agencies are therefore increasing its focus on results in order to see how they can make a better contribution (UNDP, 2002). In order to support this strategic shift toward results or impacts it is now recognized that producing good "deliverables" and outputs will lose their relevance if they don't guarantee clear improvements in development conditions and ultimately in peoples' lives (UNDP, 2002). As noted by OECD (2006: 124), perhaps the most important outcome of a good quality ID project "is that it has significantly influenced the achievement of positive development results and has helped to enhance the effectiveness of development". However, development engages complex processes and it is difficult to isolate those outcomes that derived exclusively from the development intervention (attribution gap) (OECD, 2006).

Major efforts are being done through results-based management approaches (to be presented in more detail below) in order to systematically measure and improve performance at the level of development goals and outcomes (UNDP, 2009b). There is a general assumption that the quality of development plans, programmes and projects as well as how resources are used, and the long-term development results they produce, can also be considered critical factors for success. In order to improve the chances of success, attention needs to be placed on some of the common areas of weakness in IDC programmes. Four main focus areas can be identified consistently (UNDP, 2009b: 7):

1. Planning and programme and project definition - greater chance of success when the objectives and scope of the programmes or projects are properly defined and clarified which reduces the likelihood of experiencing major challenges in implementation.

2. Stakeholder involvement - high levels of engagement of users, clients and other stakeholders in programmes and projects are critical to success.
3. Communication - good communication results in strong stakeholder commitment and mobilization, and improves clarity on expectations, roles and responsibilities, as well as information on progress and performance.
4. Monitoring and evaluation - programmes and projects with strong monitoring and evaluation components tend to be better consolidated, helping in detecting problems earlier which reduces the likelihood of having major cost overruns or time delays later.

Hence, according to UNDP (2009b), good planning, combined with effective monitoring and evaluation is crucial to enhance the effectiveness of development programmes and projects. For this purpose, as pointed out by Wilson (2007), there is a need for the learning process to take place in a collaborative environment founded on trust and mutual respect, while doing so in a gradual way. This would require the creation of “communities of practice” - groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly (Wenger, 1998), for joint and long-term collaborative learning. Nevertheless, this is rarely taken into consideration in the process of IDC effectiveness analysis (Johnson, 2007). As it will be discussed in chapters 4 and 5, this constitutes a fundamental issue for IDC success.

There are diverse models that try to explain the results of development interventions and its critical success factors by proposing frameworks with several dimensions. However, there were not found in the literature review any models that systematized in a comprehensive manner the main principles subjacent to the latest development paradigm, in particular the dimension of KT, and that could be applied to different typologies of IDC programmes, including in the context of tourism development. Above all, none of them clearly conceptualized how KT and learning approaches could contribute to achieve successful results in IDC.

The main aim of this thesis is to identify and conceptualize the critical success factors of IDC programmes that are grounded in KT approaches in the context of tourism development. As such, from the reviewed models, there were four that were selected for being considered as those providing the most relevant insights to attain that goal. In particular, they were selected mainly for being considered that each of them could contribute to understand better the realms of IDC with the very different perspectives they provided about it. This background will be then determinant to understand how the main dimensions of KT that will be reviewed in Chapter 4 with the presentation of three other models should be integrated in the theoretical model proposed in Chapter 5. It aims to relate these two scientific fields as applied to the tourism development context.

The four models about IDC that will be presented in the subsections below are the following:

- The SL framework proposed by DFID (1999) analyses SL as a way of thinking about the objectives, scope and priorities for development through poverty reduction.
- The causality chain model proposed by Bourguignon and Sundberg (2007) focuses on the understanding of the complex links between aid and development outcomes through a “black box”.

- The ID project network model of Ahsan and Gunawan (2010) examines the long-term impact on the prosperity and development of the local population proposing an ID project life cycle analysis.
- The Results-Based Management (RBM), adopted by UNDP (2009b) and other IDC organizations, analyses development effectiveness through a life-cycle approach focusing in an ongoing process of doing, learning and improving results.

2.3.4.1 The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework of DFID

In 1999, the United Kingdoms' Department for International Development (DFID) operationalized the Sustainable Livelihoods (SL) concept and approach, building a framework for analysing SL as a way of thinking about the objectives, scope and priorities for development through poverty reduction. This was developed to assist with implementation having been considered that the full diversity and richness of livelihoods can be understood only by qualitative and participatory analysis at a local level (DFID, 1999). This constitutes a holistic, asset-based framework for understanding poverty and the work of poverty reduction.

In its simplest form, the SL framework considers people as operating in a context of vulnerability within which they have access to certain assets or poverty reducing factors (Figure 2.1). This increases their meaning and value through the prevailing social, institutional and organisational environment. It is postulated that livelihood strategies are the means of combining and using assets that are in turn influenced by that environment, being open to people in pursuit of beneficial livelihood outcomes that meet their own livelihood objectives. It depicts the critical mass of assets needed to cope with stresses and shocks, and to maintain and enhance capabilities now and in the future.

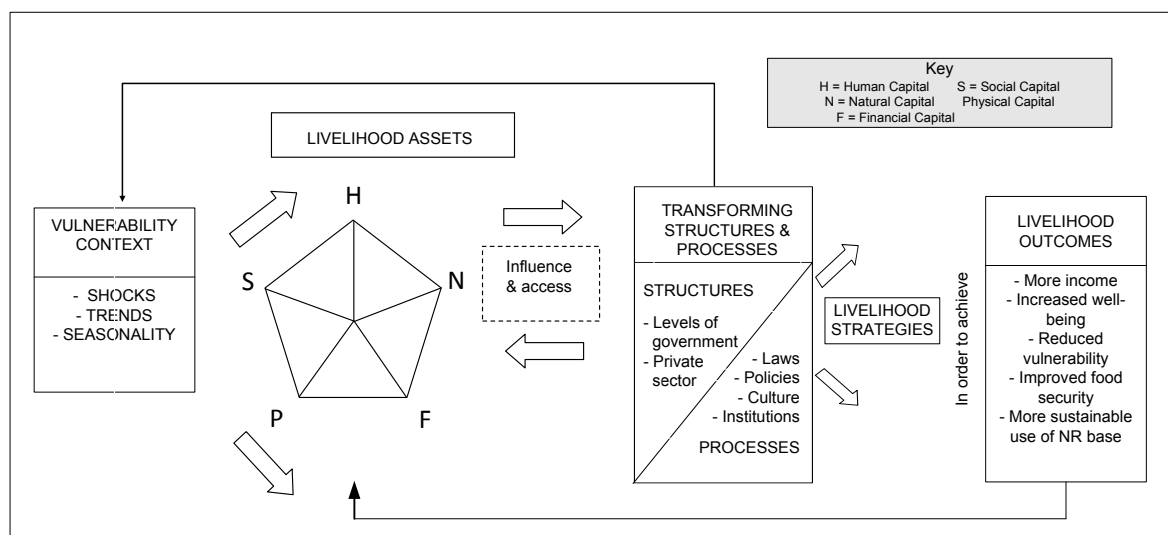


Figure 2.1 - Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

Source: DFID (1999)

The framework does not work in a linear manner and its aim is claimed to be helping stakeholders with different perspectives to engage in structured and coherent debate about the many factors that affect livelihoods, their relative importance and the way in which they interact. The arrows within the framework indicate diverse types of relationships, all of which are considered very dynamic. None of the arrows imply direct causality, while all imply a certain level of influence. There are three key dimensions considered:

1. ***Sustainable Livelihood Assets*** - Assets, individuals and households can improve their ability to cope with the challenges they experience on a day to day basis so as to meet their needs on a sustained basis. There is a variety of assets turning it more interdependent.
2. ***Vulnerability Context*** - Two elements create and perpetuate vulnerability and poverty: i) the individuals and their circumstances, and ii) the broader context. It is highlighted the need to look for changes at the organizational, community and policy levels as well as creating the assets of individuals and households.
3. ***Techniques and Interventions*** - Two fundamental types of interventions can be adopted by the communities in their struggle towards poverty reduction: i) “Practical interventions” such as counselling programmes, education, employment training, economic literacy and savings programmes, and support for small business development; and ii) “Strategic interventions” encompassing the vulnerability context toward the goal of social and economic change at the systemic level through methods based on community building and organization alliance building, policy work and advocacy.

The SL framework may be applied at various scales – from individual, to household, to household cluster, to a village, region or even a nation, but it is used most commonly at the household level. It can be used in both planning new development activities and assessing the contribution to livelihood sustainability made by existing activities. This has inspired a number of development agencies to apply it to poverty reduction strategies. Although the nature of this type of approaches is slightly different from that aimed to analyse in this research, some relevant dimensions were identified as being potentially applicable to our model proposal.

The most interesting insights that this framework can provide in the context of this research is focused on its central block related to the designated *Transforming Structures & Processes* which can be applied to a broader context of IDC programmes. It considers that from these structures and processes will result the development strategies adopted that will determine the achievement of the outcomes. The structures include the levels of government and the private sector (failing in considering the important role of the civil society), and the processes are related with the influence that the destination culture, policies, laws and institutions have on it. In turn it is postulated that all of this is strictly related to the level of access to the set of combined *Livelihood Assets* (capitals) – human, natural, financial, social, and physical. The dynamic assumed in this framework and the interrelations of all these aspects with the vulnerability context of the destination determine the achievement of results. Considering the dynamic nature of KT and learning approaches when applied to the tourism context within IDC, this framework presents some useful insights for our study.

2.3.4.2 The causality chain model of Bourguignon and Sundberg

Bourguignon and Sundberg (2007) developed a causality chain model assuming that links between aid and development outcomes are very difficult to establish for two main reasons. First, because aid has often been for non-developmental objectives like disaster emergencies or military and political purposes; and, second, because aid is wasted on poorly conceived and executed projects and programmes, often tied by controversial conditions. They noted that it is not surprising that the empirical literature on aid effectiveness evidence unclear and ambiguous results given the heterogeneity of aid motives, the limitations of the tools of analysis, and the complex causality chain linking external aid to final outcomes which has been largely ignored being handled as a kind of “black box” (Bourguignon & Sundberg, 2007: 316). Therefore, they state that opening that “black box” requires understanding the complexity and “noise” along with links in the causality chain as well as the problem of the “attribution gap”. They examine this proposing a “causality chain” model (Figure 2.2).

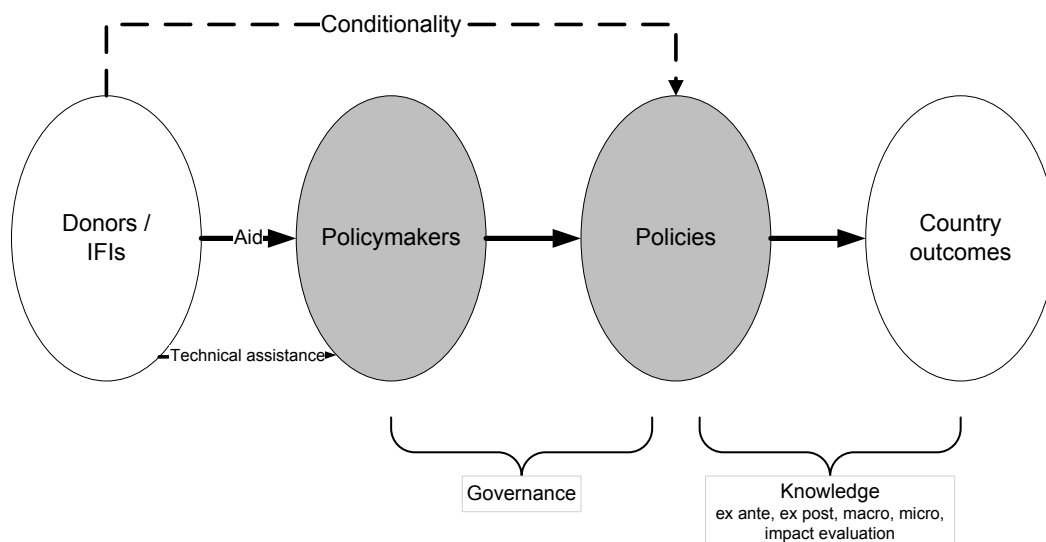


Figure 2.2 - The causality chain - Inside the Black Box

Source: Bourguignon & Sundberg (2007)

Bourguignon and Sundberg (2007) sustain that trying to make a simple direct assumption by linking donor inputs with development outcomes, as if it was some kind of static box, will most likely have no results whatsoever. By opening this box and turning it interactive they postulate three useful linkages that can be summarised as follows:

1 - External donors/IFIs to policymakers - The local policy makers are often influenced by aid agencies, foreign NGOs, and International Financial Institutions (IFIs) by providing financial and technical resources, which have been previously conditioned by a set of “agreed” policies. However these institutions often operate with an inadequate and unadjusted knowledge of the local environment and, have an, inefficient control of the implementation of those same policies. Technical assistance and loan conditionality are considered two items that have a clear influence on policy making.

2 - Policymakers to policies - How can local policy through basic governance such as bureaucratic capability and institutional capacity turn into “good” policy. Nevertheless,

since governance is a mirror image of institutions, it is likely to have a direct reaction and therefore be influenced by the presence of aid itself.

3 - Policies to outcomes (knowledge) - Policies are critical when it comes to the final development outcomes. The question should be asked as to how the macroeconomic stability can affect investment, production, growth, or poverty.

The process along the chain that determines the final outcome can be controlled in a systematic way in order to clarify the usefulness of that aid. This includes measuring the quantity and quality of aid, the quality of donor's coordination, governance characteristics of aid recipients, the quality of local policies, aimed at particular outcomes, and benchmarking. The remodelling of the prevailing aid system can be achieved by improving the existing knowledge about its process and to learn how it can contribute to strengthen the development outcomes. This should be based on two assumptions: i) national ownership of the development strategy, around which donors need necessarily to align, and ii) aid allocation based almost exclusively on monitorable results (governance as well as outcome indicators). These aspects are of crucial importance to consider in a development intervention framework.

Although this model raises important questions related to some causal linkages that should be considered in a development intervention, it does not explain the factors that should be analysed in each phase of the process within those linkages. Furthermore, it does not clarify how knowledge is exchanged throughout the process. Nevertheless, it provides some useful insights considering the aim of this research with the following aspects:

- The necessity of analysing the programmes in an interactive way.
- The influence of the characteristics of the development agencies and “agreed” programmes and conditions with the receptor countries.
- The influence of the local specific environment and characteristics of the receptor, as well as the macroeconomic environment.
- The importance of considering governance in reinforcing bureaucratic capability and institutional capacity in order to implement “good” policies.
- The necessity of control the outcomes in a systematic way along the chain.

At last, it is emphasized the importance of improving the existing knowledge about the process of IDC programmes and learn how it can contribute to strengthen the development outcomes. This is also our aim with the proposal of a new model.

2.3.4.3 The ID project network model of Ahsan and Gunawan

Ahsan and Gunawan (2010) consider that the success of an ID project is reflected by its long-term impact on the prosperity and development of the local population on which it depends, on how well it is prepared, and the policies behind its design. With this background, they studied unexplored issues in IDC programmes' time and cost performance through an empirical research based on published post-project reports of the Asian Development Bank in four Asian countries. By analyzing the post-project reports they investigated project size in terms of budget and duration, project performance in terms of time and cost, and original

causes of poor performance. Ahsan and Gunawan (2010) took into consideration not only the several stakeholders involved but also the project development and implementation processes in order to construct an ID project network model (Figure 2.3).

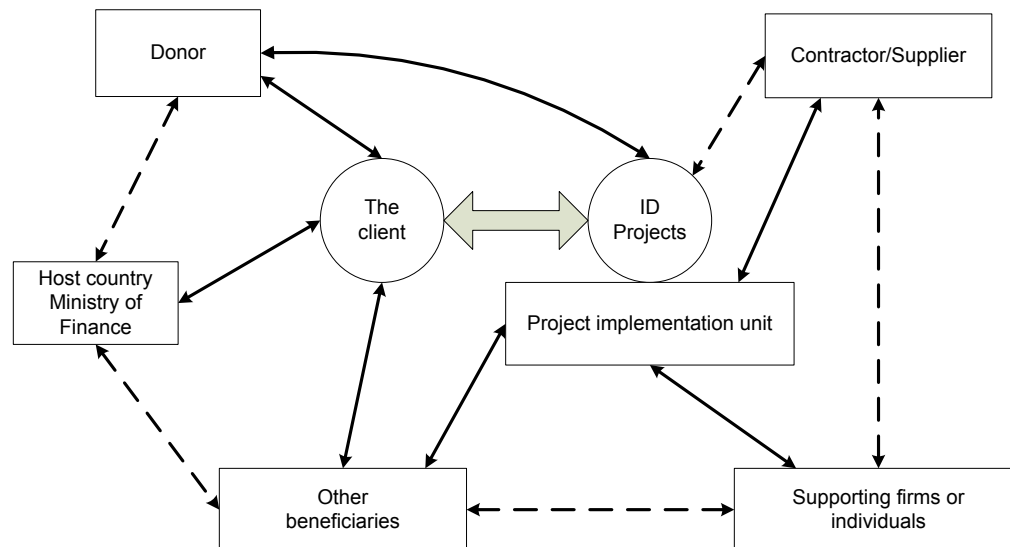


Figure 2.3 - ID project network model

Source: Ahsan & Gunawan (2010)

The model considers the various stakeholders that are typically included in this process such as the *Donor*, the *Ministry of Finance of the host country*, the *Client*, a *Project implementation unit*, and an array of *Contractors* who are responsible for the physical implementation of the project. It is considered that the final outcome of an IDC project depends mainly on the complex relationships between those parties which are most commonly from different cultural backgrounds and have different objectives within the project.

The *Client* is a sectorial ministry or institution of the host country. It is the official representative of all parties and has the mission to participate in the project assessment phase, as well as to closely monitor the project implementation process. The solid arrows represent usual communication between involved parties and the dotted arrows represent likely communication between parties. The *Donor* is often involved in the process of project identification and development, which invariably has the negative effect of creating the sensation among local stakeholders of being left out (Ahsan & Gunawan, 2010).

Considering that most IDC programmes have five common stages in its life cycle - project identification, preparation, appraisal and approval, implementation and evaluation - Ahsan and Gunawan (2010) suggest a *Project Life Cycle* that fit both the *Donor* and the *Host Country* (Figure 2.4). This scheme is presented by the authors as a complement of the model illustrated in Figure 2.3.

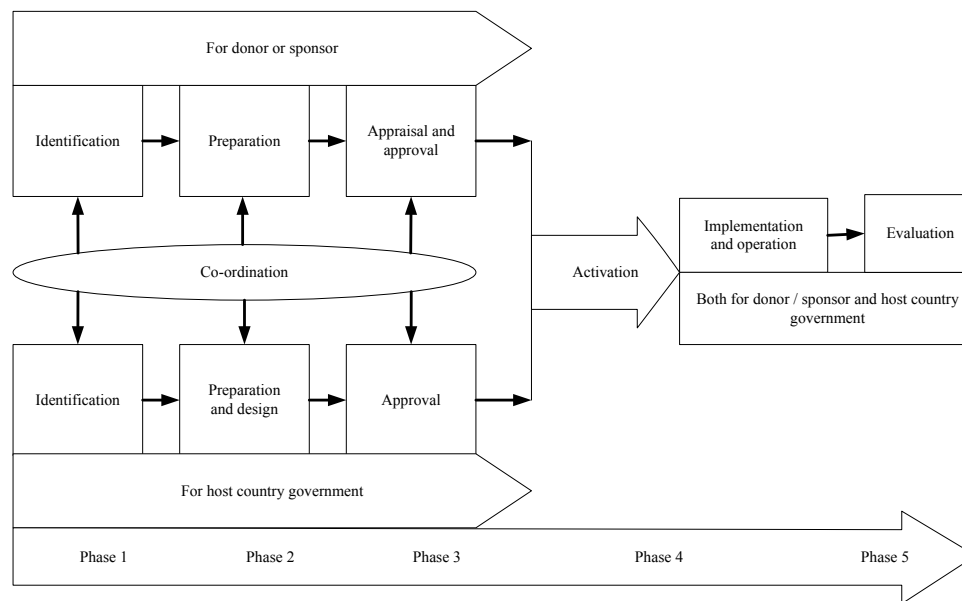


Figure 2.4 Proposed ID project life cycle

Source: Ahsan & Gunawan (2010)

Five basic phases are postulated in the referred cycle. The first three phases are quite similar semantically for both the donor and the host country. During these initial stages it is often necessary to coordinate activities between donor and host. The project's profile and initial design are both prepared with the collaboration of donors, the relevant sector's ministry and lastly the planning unit and/or Ministry of Finance. In the approval phase, the host country usually seeks approval from donors, and donors assess the project plan and provide feedback about possible funding or support. These three phases are basically the ID project planning stage and take about half of total project duration. Many projects disappear at this level.

After approval, the project work begins in the activation phase. At this stage, a project manager is usually appointed and work starts through a project implementation unit. The last phase of the cycle is evaluation which is a never-ending process; however there are standard post-project evaluations that are generally conducted by donors. For successful completion of a project it is important to focus on all the five phases.

Analyzing the project life cycle steps, Ahsan and Gunawan (2010) stressed the importance of developing this ID project cycle and further emphasised that both donor and host country must work together to plan and implement the project for success. Through a countrywide comparison of cost and schedule performance, the authors concluded that, most projects experience schedule delay and cost overrun, having identified an unusual nature of cost and schedule variation relation in IDC programmes.

In general, projects taking more time cost more money, being the main causes for that delay the long duration of contracts, procurement, civil works and land acquisition, as well as consultant recruitment. Other critical causes of project delay can be attributed to natural calamities and host country bureaucracy. It is considered by the authors that the knowledge of the identified factors constitutes a critical success factor to assist planners and professionals to better plan future projects.

While the model of Ahsan and Gunawan (2010) is focused on the typology of funded “hard” IDC programmes, contrasting with the “soft” ID programmes that constitute the focus of this study, some important aspects were identified as valuable for the development of a theoretical model proposal according to the aim of our research. Considering that the nature of these different typologies implies the consideration of different approaches, only some aspects that may be applied to both of them were taken into account, such as:

- The final outcome of an ID project depends principally on the relationships between the parties involved, which are very complex, given their different cultural backgrounds and objectives within the project.
- Those relationships are greatly influenced by the level of communication and trust among the diverse parties involved.
- IDC programmes should be analysed considering five common stages in its life cycle - project identification, preparation, appraisal and approval, implementation and evaluation. For successful completion of a project it is important to focus on all stages.
- A project manager is usually appointed and work starts through a project implementation unit.
- It is emphasised that both donor and host country must work together to plan and implement the project for success. Evaluation in all the process is crucial.

2.3.4.4 Results-Based Management frameworks

Results-Based Management (RBM) is a management strategy or approach aiming at achieving enhanced performance and demonstrable stated results through planning, monitoring and evaluation (UNDP, 2009b). RBM provides a framework for strategic planning and management by improving learning and accountability, having been adopted by several multilateral (e.g. the United Nations Development Programme, UNDP), and bilateral development agencies (e.g. the Swedish IDC Agency, SIDA; the Canadian International Development Agency, CIDA), as well as public administrations worldwide. This is in line with the international commitment on development effectiveness assumed mainly within the *Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness*.

UNDP introduced RBM in 1999 as to analyse development effectiveness of its programmes (UNDP, 2002). With a renewed emphasis on making real improvements in people’s lives and in the choices and opportunities open to them as demanded by most governments and development partners, agencies now use more often the term *Managing for Development Results (MfDR)* instead of *Results-Based Management (RBM)*. This is due to the fact that “traditionally, RBM approaches have focused more on internal results and performance of agencies than on changes in the development conditions of people” (UNDP, 2009b: 6).

Therefore, MfDR focus on development assistance demonstrating real and meaningful results although following the same basic concepts of RBM which are good planning, monitoring, evaluation, learning and feeding back into planning (UNDP, 2009b). The emphasis on learning is due to its role in improving results from existing programmes and

projects, as well as enhancing the capacity of the organization and individuals to make better decisions through future programmes and projects (UNDP, 2009b).

As the term RBM is still the most used even with this different focus on results, we will keep referring here to RBM. The RBM approaches are structured through a life cycle, as acausality, assuming that certain inputs and activities logically lead to certain results (Binnendijk, 2001). The significance of these results follows an increasing order: the most basic results (the “products” or outputs) contribute to the success of the most complex results (“effects” or outcomes) and finally lead to getting “impact”, which is the most far-reaching result.

There has been, in recent approaches, a shift from considering the outputs as part of the results (as illustrated in the upper level of Figure 2.5) to one that considers the outcomes and impacts as the only results to be considered as such (lower level of Figure 2.5) (CIDA, 2008; UNDP, 2009b). This is in accordance with the increasing emphasis on effective development rather than on immediate results or outputs (e.g. a training programme completed output does not mean directly a developmental result).

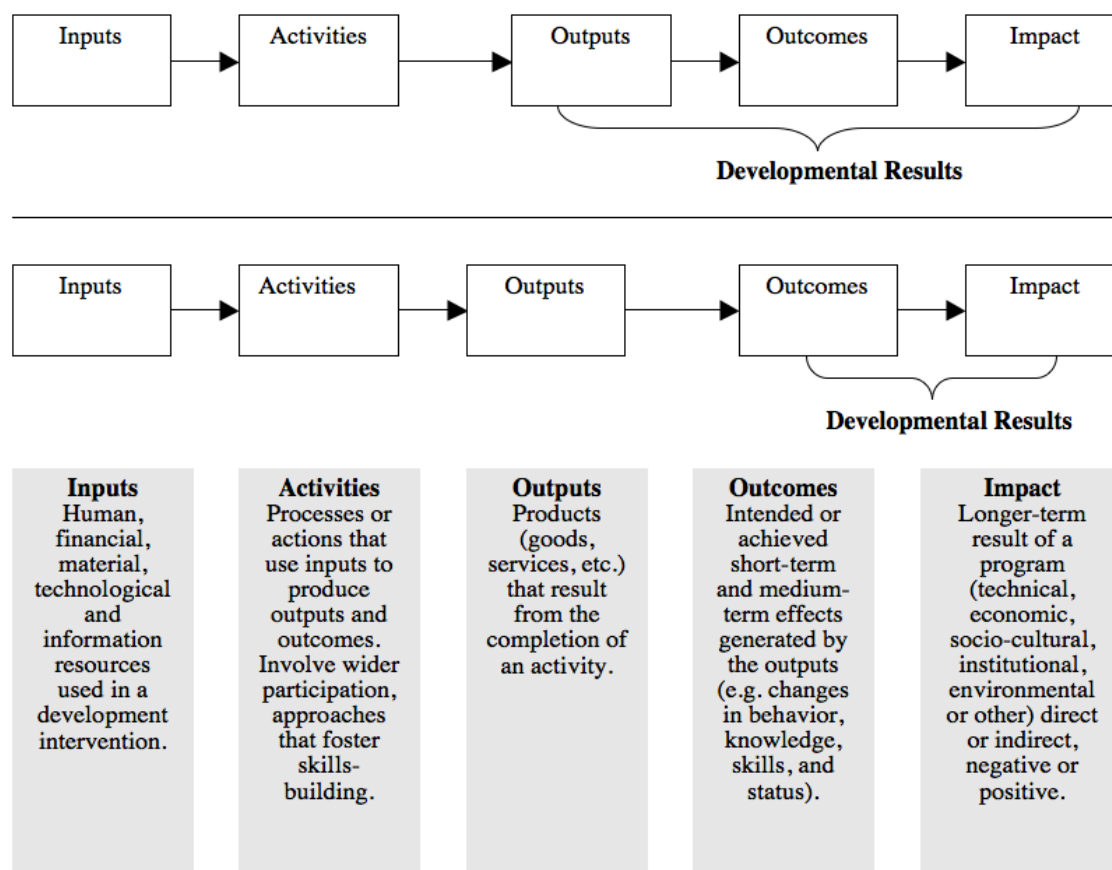


Figure 2.5 – RBM approaches

Source: adapted from CIDA (2008); UNDP (2009b)

The components of the RBM model are linked following a causal hierarchy that can be affected by some risks and assumptions that should be considered (e.g. political changes, natural disasters; socio-economic downturns, etc.). Consequently, it is assumed that:

CHAPTER 2 - INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION: CONCEPTS, THEORIES AND MODELS

- If programmes' coordinators can mobilise the resources identified in the programme design, and certain assumptions hold true, then they will be able to implement the activities;
- If the required inputs are used efficiently, involving suitable actors in appropriate processes and as long as certain assumptions hold true then the activity will provide the expected products or services;
- If the resulting activities' outputs are attained as expected, and certain assumptions hold true, they will generate expected short or medium-term results, the outcomes.
- If the outcomes are achieved, and certain assumptions hold true, subsequently certain changes in populations' well being, institutions or systems might be expected to take place.

The actual RBM framework proposed by UNDP places emphasis on several elements such as a “coherent and long-range planning around results; partnering for development change; capacity building for and ownership of monitoring and evaluation; and promoting knowledge, learning and the use of evaluative evidence” (UNDP, 2002: i). UNDP and most development agencies recognise currently that IDC effectiveness depends on the reinforcement of institutions, improvement of policy frameworks and forging strategic partnerships, being expected that this is demonstrable by tangible results (UNDP, 2002).

This position has resulted from the awareness that previous approaches were largely focused on outputs rather than outcomes and that the linkages between outputs and intended outcomes were not clearly articulated (UNDP, 2007). In UNDP (2009b), other funds and programmes of the United Nations are encouraged to use the same strategies oriented towards evidences for effective IDC results, even if each agency should adapt it to their own programmes' characteristics (e.g. United Nations Volunteers - UNV; UNWTO).

Taking into account the main goal of this thesis focused on the analysis of critical success factors of IDC projects grounded on KT approaches in the context of tourism development, there are many aspects contemplated in RBM approaches that provide very interesting contributes for our study, namely:

- The project life-cycle structure - inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes, impact - clearly differentiating the levels of development results from short-term and medium-term results (outputs and outcomes) to longer-term results (impact).
- The preference for qualitative analysis when analysing each phase of the project in order to better interpret what the respective indicators say about progress towards results.
- The emphasis of the framework on such elements as partnering for development change, capacity building, ownership, promoting knowledge and learning.

Nevertheless, it was considered that it presents also some weaknesses. The most evident is the rational and linear causal hierarchical structure of its life-cycle phases. Indeed, these stages should be analysed considering a more dynamic and interactive perspective requiring more attention to the achievement of results at every stage of the process, since its beginning, and not only in the phases of outcomes and impact. This is due to the fact that from the phase of inputs to the subsequent phases it can be considered that there are already potential

for changes taking place. In turn, this can determine additional changes in the subsequent phases throughout a process of KT and learning. Additionally, although the RBM frameworks emphasize the importance of assuming a knowledge and learning approach, this refers more to the process of monitoring and evaluation for continuously improving results than to the whole process of the development intervention itself.

The four reviewed models presented in this chapter provided important contributes to understand different perspectives and approaches that have been adopted to analyse IDC projects. Although they may be more or less applicable to different types of projects, they all suggest important dimensions of analysis that should be taken into account when trying to explain the effectiveness of development interventions within its different contexts. With this background it will be easier to understand the particularities that should be considered when dealing with tourism development projects and get the right directions to conduct the remaining theoretical and empirical research.

2.4 Conclusion

A key issue of this chapter was the understanding of how different definitions of, and approaches to, development have been leading to diverse perspectives and paradigms on how development effectiveness may be achieved and, ultimately, generate the desired effects on the aid recipient. Nonetheless, the IDC schemes devised and put in practice to help developing countries have had, in general, a rather limited impact. So, what sort of reasons may help to explain this? If this question seems to be simple, the answer is not. Indeed, after decades of heated debate on what works, what doesn't and why, there are still few evidences of success in this field. The reasons are often technical, political, organizational, or economic depending on diverse contexts of development interventions. Therefore, having in mind the complexity comprising this field of study it is the purpose of this thesis to add knowledge to fill this gap in what refers solely to the tourism IDC programmes based on KT approaches.

Having "development" been broadly defined as a process through which a society moves from one condition to another entailing concerns related not only to economic dimensions but to the overall concept of the standard of living and quality of life, the perspectives on how to achieve these wide goals and how to measure them became necessarily more complex overtime. Thus, the search still goes on for a new IDC paradigm with the central idea of promoting a more equal partnership for development as to achieve results. The MDGs were set attempting to provide a baseline with fixed firm targets for the development community to move forward.

This chapter was also important to distinguish among diverse typologies of players that form part of the wide world of development cooperation as to better contextualize our case study. This will be focused on a programme which can be considered a "soft" ID project - the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme - conducted by a multilateral donor - the UNWTO - to which the most adequate approach is one that places great emphasis on a KT strategy in order to reinforce the capacity-building of tourism destinations in developing countries.

Finally, the critical success factors for development effectiveness were discussed, i.e., the variables that affect the likelihood of success. While identifying these variables is crucial to

understand the conditions for the success or failure of any development intervention, this revealed to be challenging due to the multidimensional and complex nature of development objectives. Even if there are no common denominators for project success, it is possible to outline some of the most cited in the literature review. In general, critical success factors of IDC programmes are associated with political, legal, cultural, technical, managerial, economical, environmental, social, or corruption issues within the context of developing countries. It was recognized that donors tend to ignore some of these features as well as local knowledge when managing IDC programmes. The extent to which this occurs can explain the successes or failures of an ID project. Moreover, the influence of interpersonal relationships, trust and communication on project success was also highlighted.

When it comes to evaluate development effectiveness, aid managers have been traditionally accused of relying on criteria mainly focused on outputs and outcomes, more than on impacts. This leads to the need for engaging in reflective and learning processes on how to improve results, being widely recognized that producing good “deliverables” and outputs is useless if it does not influence significantly the achievement of positive development results. This would require the creation of communities of practice to develop a joint and long-term collaborative learning process. As it constitutes a fundamental issue for IDC success, the role of communities of practice in the context of KT within IDC will be emphasised in Chapter 4.

Having been presented four different models that try to explain development interventions results, and thus inherent critical success factors, some of the limitations identified here suggested direction for the empirical research in this thesis. The main limitation identified is precisely related to the lack of a global framework that fully integrates the dimension of knowledge and learning, recognizing the dynamics of how knowledge is generated, adopted and used to improve development effectiveness when a tourism IDC programme is to be conducted. Building a new model of IDC that integrates these dimensions is needed. This is not to say that the models presented are not useful and adequate to realities different from tourism. They were chosen precisely because they include some relevant dimensions that should be considered in the development of a model proposal in the specific context of tourism and IDC.

Those insights and their discussion will be explained in more detail in Chapter 5, along with the model construction, after having previously introduced the underlying research fields of tourism as a tool for development in Chapter 3 and the KT and learning in IDC in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 3

TOURISM AS A TOOL FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION

3.1 Introduction

While tourism constitutes one of the world's largest industries and a significant growing economic sector in most developing countries, it is widely recognised that it can also generate several constraints, exacerbate inequalities and aggravate the general living conditions of a great proportion of the local population. For this reason it is crucial to have caution when assuming tourism as a tool for development by comprehending the overall characteristics of developing countries in which tourism takes place. This exercise implies the consideration of the inherent complexities of the respective tourism system.

Mainly since the 1990s the various approaches to tourism as a tool for development have taken increasing importance as assumed by diverse development agencies and programmes. The scope of initiatives that can be considered in this debate is diversified and have varied throughout the last decades depending mainly on the dominating development paradigms. Therefore, there is a need to understand the different nature of those initiatives alongside with the evolution of development paradigms, typologies, and key players. These are the main aims of this chapter which structure is described in the next paragraph.

In the next section (3.2), a general overview of tourism in developing countries is provided following two major topics: the first provides a general overview of international tourism trends, including the growing economic importance of tourism in developing countries while crossing this data with the human development index; and the second reviews the costs and benefits of tourism in developing countries. With this background in mind, section 3.3 identifies the main factors that may be considered critical for influencing IDC in tourism programmes in developing countries. At last, in section 3.4 it is discussed how the tourism development debate has evolved according to the different development paradigms, so as to proceed to identify few initiatives and programmes for tourism development, namely the pro-poor strategies and volunteer tourism. Finally, the section ends with the identification of some major key players in the tourism and IDC scene.

3.2 Tourism in developing countries

3.2.1 Overview of international tourism trends

Tourism constitutes one of the world's largest industries and it is a significant growing economic sector in most developing countries. Worldwide, as an export category, tourism ranks fourth after fuels, chemicals and food (UNWTO, 2013a). While often underestimated, the tourism industry has the potential to promote peace and stability in

developing countries through the creation of jobs, expanding economic opportunities and generating income, protecting the environment, as well as increasing cross-cultural consciousness (Honey & Gilpin, 2009).

Since 1950, tourism has become one of the largest and fastest-growing economic sectors in the world, experiencing continued expansion and diversification, from 25 million in 1950 to 1.035 million in 2012 (UNWTO, 2013a). Many new destinations have emerged, mainly in developing countries, challenging the traditional ones of Europe and North America. In fact, emerging economies' destinations have grown faster than advanced ones and, in consequence, their market share has increased from 30% in 1980 to 47% in 2012 and is expected to reach 57% by 2030 (UNWTO, 2013a).

Moreover, despite the economic uncertainty, political turmoil and natural disasters that may influence the growth of this industry, the UNWTO forecasts reveal that, by 2030, 1.8 billion international tourists will cross borders representing an increase of 3.3% a year, on average from 2010 to 2030 (UNWTO, 2013a). Globally, in 2012 travel and tourism contributed to 9.3% of total GDP, 5.4% of the world exports, about 30% of the world's exports of commercial services, 8.7% of total employment, and 4.7% of total investment (WTTC, 2013).

As a result, the economic importance of the tourism sector has increased significantly both in developed and in developing countries. In order to analyse more specifically the overall relevance of tourism in these countries, it is presented in Figures 3.1 and 3.2 a cross-analysis of development (HDI) and economic indicators (total contribution of tourism and travel to GDP), in 2000 and 2011. This analysis is supported by data collected for every countries (see Appendix 3.1) provided by UNDP (2012) and WTTC (2012).

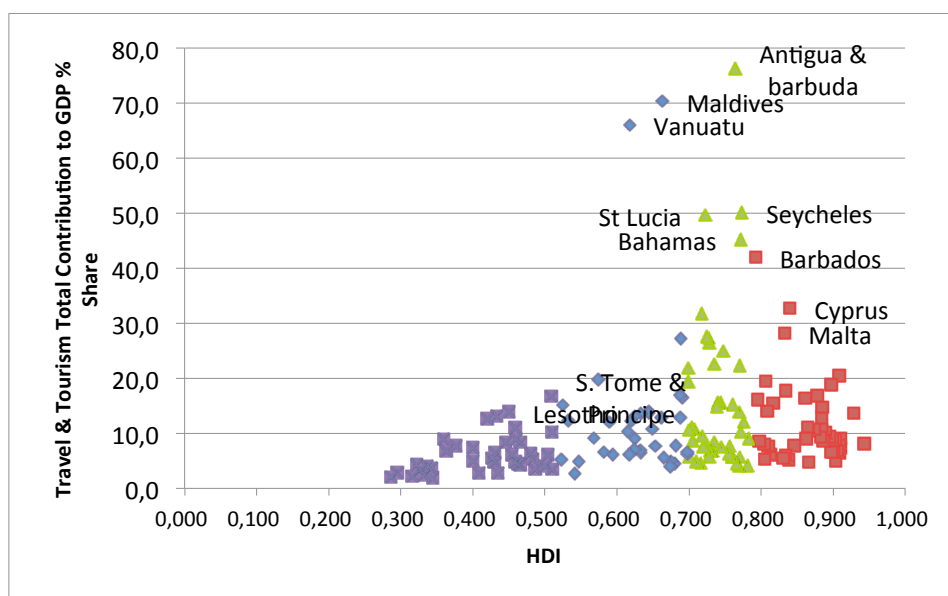


Figure 3.1 - Cross analysis: HDI and total contribution of tourism and travel to GDP (2000)

Source: Own construction based on UNDP (2012) and WTTC (2012)

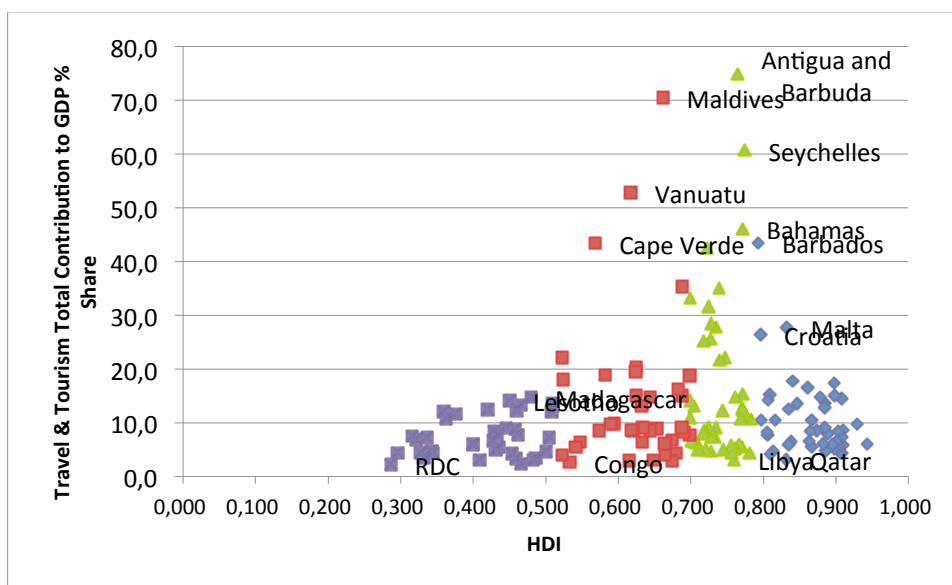


Figure 3.2 - Cross analysis: HDI and total contribution of tourism and travel to GDP (2011)

Source: Own construction based on UNDP (2012) and WTTC (2012)

A general overview on the list of the four subgroups of countries according to its 2011's HDI (VHHD, HHD, MHD, and LHD), as reviewed in Chapter 2 (see Table 2.2), and the corresponding share of total contribution to GDP reveals a strong heterogeneity (Lima et al., 2014). It was observed significant increases of the contribution of tourism to GDP and employment in the majority of developing countries and significant decreases in developed countries, with this trend being reinforced in the last decade.

In the majority of the 45 countries belonging to the subgroup of **VHHD** (37 countries), the total contribution of tourism to GDP is lower than 15%. There are only 3 countries in which this share surpasses 25% in GDP (Croatia - 26.4%; Malta - 27.7%; Barbados - 43.5%) and five countries in between 15% and 25% (e.g. Portugal - 15.2%; Cyprus - 17.7%). By observing the period from 2000 to 2011 (Figures 1 and 2) it is clear to detect a decreasing trend of this indicator in some developed countries.

In the group of **HHD** countries, despite the contribution of tourism to GDP being lower than 15% in 30 countries (e.g. GDP: Mexico, 12.4%; Malaysia, 14.8%), in 11 countries this share actually surpasses 25% (Antigua and Barbuda - 74.8%; Seychelles - 60.7%; Bahamas - 46.1%; St Lucia - 42.5%; Lebanon - 35.1%, Belize - 33.2%; Dominica - 31.7%; Mauritius - 28.55; St Kitts - 27.9%; Jamaica - 26.7%, St. Vincent and the Grenadines - 25.2%). In the group of 44 HHD countries analysed it is visible, in about 50% of them, an increase in GDP's tourism share, from 2000 to 2011. In countries like Brazil, Mexico, Costa Rica and Tunisia this indicator decreased while in countries such as Montenegro, Armenia, Lebanon and Panama this indicator registered a considerable increase. Although the travel and tourism total contribution to GDP has registered a decrease in 22 HHD countries, this does not mean that tourism lost its importance as an economic driver, but that these countries have diversified their economies. This economic diversification explains in many cases why these countries are reaching higher positions in the HD ranking.

Concerning the **MHD** countries subgroup (38 countries), the total contribution of tourism to GDP is lower than 15% in 25 countries (e.g. Congo - 2.7%; China - 9.1%). There are only 4 countries in which this share exceeds 25% (Maldives - 70.5%; Vanuatu - 53.0%; Cape Verde - 43.4%; Fiji - 35.3%), and 9 countries in the range of 15% to 25% (e.g. Cambodia - 22%; Morocco - 19%; Honduras - 15%). In this group of countries, from 2000 to 2011, a growing trend of the tourism total contribution to GDP was observed.

Finally, in the **LHD** countries the total contribution of tourism to GDP is still relatively modest with none of them registering more than 15%. However, it is significant that within those 38 countries, 27 registered very high increases in tourism share of GDP in the last decade. In 20 countries this increase was higher than 20% (e.g. Kenya, Mozambique, Burundi).

A general conclusion that comes out from the previous observations is that despite diverse scenarios in developing countries, their global evolution in terms of the total contribution of tourism to GDP and employment in the last decade has been increasing significantly and at a greater extent in **MHD** and **HHD** countries. These trends are expected to be reinforced in the long-term, according to the forecasts provided by UNWTO (2013), with arrivals to developing countries being expected to increase at double the pace of those of developed countries. In this context, and despite the general positive expectations that these figures concerning tourism potential in developing countries may originate, some key challenges must be addressed. This is discussed in the next sections.

3.2.2 Costs and benefits of tourism in developing countries

The debate about how tourism can contribute for the development of developing countries is not new (e.g. Brohman, 1996; Brown 1998; Chok et al., 2007; de Kadt, 1979; Fayos-Solà, Fuentes, & Muñoz, 2012; Harrison, 2008; Lima et al., 2014; Mowforth & Munt, 2009; Sadler & Archer, 1975). Sadler and Archer (1975) and de Kadt (1979) were pioneers in the scientific discourse about this subject. Nevertheless, after four decades, de Kadt's publication about the pros and cons of tourism as a development tool remains surprisingly up to date.

In fact, while it is recognised that tourism in developing countries can generate several economic, cultural and social benefits, the costs at these various levels may also be significant, especially when tourism development is not properly planned. In this case, the risks of exacerbating inequalities from the international to the local levels are considerable (de Kadt, 1979). Therefore, the debate about the costs and benefits of tourism for developing countries remains at the centre of discussion among the scientific community.

The most cited type of benefits and costs of tourism in developing countries are synthesized in Table 3.1. Overall, it is considered that in the process of tourism development, the net benefits generated for the local communities should always outweigh the costs. However, due to the characteristics of most developing countries, described in Chapter 2 (section 2.2.4), there are several constraints that impede those communities from benefiting effectively from the tourism development process. Therefore, it is essential to understand the nature of this balance between the costs and benefits, as discussed below.

Table 3.1 - Benefits and costs of tourism in developing countries: examples of the most cited in the literature

	Economic	Socio-cultural	Environmental
Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Generation of employment and income - Generation of tax revenues - Increase of exports (balance of payments equilibrium) - Increase of production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increased self-esteem - Valorisation of cultural assets - Skills development - Enhancement of infrastructure and public health 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Establishment of land and resources use limits - Valorisation of natural assets - Awareness of conservation needs
Costs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Inflation - Dependency on foreign capital, skills, management, personnel and imports - Abandonment of traditional economic activities (e.g. agriculture and fishing) - High leakages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Social disruption (e.g. sex abuse of women and children) - Socioeconomic inequality - Displacement of local population - Criminality increase - Loss of cultural identity - Loss of access to local resources - Marginalization of residents from tourism development process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pollution - Depletion of community natural resources - Increases conservation costs - Wildlife traffic

Source: Brohman (1996); Brown (1998); Clancy (1999); Chok et al. (2007); Eusébio, Castro, & Costa (2013); Mastny (2001); Meyer (2007); Mowforth & Munt (2009)

In the economic domain, although tourism has a high potential to generate employment, income and tax revenues, the usually high dependency on foreign inputs and interventions implies great levels of leakages and less potential for linkages, due to a lack of articulation with other domestic economic sectors (Brown, 1998; Chok et al., 2007; Eusébio et al., 2013; Mastny, 2001). All of these factors lead to low multiplier effects. Consequently, a large proportion of the tourism revenue that enters developing countries does not remain in the local or national economy.

Mastny (2001) highlights that about 50% of tourism earnings manage to “leak” out of the developing world, either in profits earned by foreign-owned businesses, promotional spending overseas, or payments for imported goods and labour. This high dependence on foreign inputs and interventions reinforce economic inequalities between developed and developing countries, contributing to the perpetuation of long-standing economic imperialism (Brohman, 1996; Chok et al., 2007; Hall and Brown, 2006; Mbaiwa, 2005; Mowforth & Munt, 2009). Moreover, frequently, in these countries the tourism contributes to increase the price of goods and services (inflation) (Brohman, 1996).

In terms of socio-cultural impacts, one of the main constraints to tourism development in developing countries is the lack of skilled people to work in the industry (DFID, 1999). Although tourism provides relatively labour-intensive opportunities compared to other

sectors (Roe *et al.*, 2004), job losses can be dramatic and are most deeply felt by the lower-skilled and socially weaker staff members (Brohman, 1996; Chok *et al.*, 2007; Tosun, 2001). Workers face difficult conditions, particularly in the hotel industry, characterised by “low wages, overdependency on tips, long working hours, stress, lack of secure contracts, poor training and almost no promotion opportunity” (Beddoe, 2004 in Chok *et al.*, 2007: 157). Many workers are subcontracted making them particularly vulnerable to exploitation and abuse which “does not allow for the accumulation of assets, nor does it provide safety nets or any real escape from the poverty cycle” (Chok *et al.*, 2007: 158).

Moreover, indigenous minorities and rural communities are being resettled or displaced to make way for tourist infrastructure in developing countries (Brito, 2010; Chok *et al.*, 2007; Mbaiwa, 2005; Mowforth & Munt, 2009). Crime and tourism are strongly interlinked in developing countries. Rates of exploitation of women and children continue to increase as well as human and wildlife trafficking and other illegal activities (Smith, 2001). On the other hand, tourism may increase the scope for a broad participation, compared with other non-agricultural sectors, and employs a high proportion of women (Brito, 2010; Chok *et al.*, 2007). Nevertheless, the extent to which the poor can benefit from tourism depends on how they are involved in it (Blake, 2008). Some pro-poor tourism (PPT) initiatives in developing countries may contribute to a manipulation of opportunities to serve the self interests of powerful stakeholders (Brohman, 1996; Chok *et al.*, 2007).

Concerning environmental negative impacts, these are often associated with the reduction of natural resources due to wildlife trafficking and pollution, among others. The depletion of community natural resources disproportionately affects the rural poor as their livelihood is critically dependent on these resources (e.g. water shortages) (Brohman, 1996). Even though tourism may have a positive effect, for instance, in terms of a valorisation of natural assets and awareness of conservation needs, the high costs involved in conservation are often hard to sustain for the most impoverished areas (Brito, 2010; Lima, 2008).

In general, the poorest have less capital and skills to exploit the economic opportunities, are more fragile and vulnerable, and are more likely to suffer the overall negative impacts of tourism. There are other constraints that should be addressed in this debate as they are mutually reinforced, like low levels of education, literacy and qualifications that impede the adoption of new technologies and lead to a rapid growth of the population, which in turn generate barriers to the enhancement of production (Perry, López, & Maloney, 2006). In this context, how can tourism become a blessing instead of a blight (Smith, 2001), breaking away the vicious poverty cycle? What kind of factors may influence the effects of tourism development process and which of them should therefore be weighed by initiatives or programmes aimed at enhancing development through tourism in developing countries? Although it is a complex exercise to answer these questions, the discussion conducted in the next section aims to provide some useful insights to the ongoing scientific debate about these matters.

3.3 Factors influencing the role of IDC in tourism in developing countries

The analysis of tourism and IDC implies to look at the tourism sector examining it “not as an industry *per se* but as a collection of interrelated industries and markets located in both industrialised and developing countries” (Sinclair, 1998: 14). Therefore, the launching of

appropriate initiatives demands to look well beyond the front line sector in view of the multiplicity of potential opportunities (Sofield & Mactaggart, 2005) for development. This is due to the inherent complexities of the respective tourism system.

Several authors (e.g. Baggio, 2008; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2002; Gunn & Var, 2002; Hall, 2008; Inskip, 1991; Leiper, 1979; Mill & Morrison, 1992; Wall & Mathieson, 2006) have described and modelled the tourism system considering different perspectives, generally including elements of demand and supply. It is this level of analysis that should determine under what conditions tourism may work effectively as a tool for development in such a way that guarantees that at least its benefits are higher than the potential associated costs.

Considering the vast range of initiatives implemented in developing countries by different type of actors and organizations that aim to enhance the role of tourism as a development tool, it is essential to address some critical factors that may influence the achievement of net benefits for the local communities within the context of the tourism system. Based on the review of contemporary development studies and practices, in the following subsections it is outlined some of the most cited critical factors for tourism to work as a tool for development. This review was adapted from Lima et al. (2014).

3.3.1 Community participation and networks

Networking, clustering and agglomeration theories are increasingly being adopted to explain the role of tourism in influencing local growth and stimulating regional development, as reviewed by Novelli, Schmitz and Spencer (2006). Where stakeholder's engagement needs to be focused, it is crucial to generate strategic competitive advantage through **networks** (Cooper, 2006; Romeiro & Costa, 2010). Nonetheless, many organizations and stakeholders need to be persuaded that cooperation will enhance their own competitiveness, and thus there is a need for demonstrating the benefits of cooperation across the destination (Cooper, 2006; Dredge, 2006; Shaw & Williams, 2009).

As a service industry, tourism is highly dependent on the goodwill and cooperation of host communities. Therefore, community participation with the support of local networks should be stimulated within IDC programmes. The involvement of the local community in all the development process is essential once that it is the one more likely to know what will work and what will not in local conditions contributing for more suitable decisions (Cole, 2006; Tosun & Timothy, 2003).

White (1996) points out two main issues that should be considered concerning the politics of participation in development planning. The first has to do with the question of who participates. As people are not homogeneous, special mechanisms are needed to bring in the diverse sectors of society, as disadvantaged groups are often left aside in these processes. The second issue is related to the level of participation. While the simple involvement of local people in some implementation actions is often considered enough, for a fully participatory project, they should also take part in management and decision-making (White, 1996).

Therefore, operational, structural and cultural aspects may limit community participation in the tourism development process in many developing countries (Tosun, 2001). Tosun (2000) states that those limitations may be an extension of the existing social, political and economic structure in developing countries. Therefore, one should not expect that

participatory tourism development processes will change the prevailing structure of a local tourism industry in a developing country without changing first its dominant socio-economic and political structure. On the other hand, Tosun (2000: 626) argues that community participation in developing countries tends to be very complex as “it involves different ideological beliefs, political forces, administrative arrangements, re-distribution of wealth and power, and varying perceptions of what is possible, which seem to be unacceptable for the prevailing ruling class”.

One of the main challenges of IDC programmes is to overcome that kind of problems facilitating dialogue and communication among all the stakeholders. Nevertheless, processes of community participation in the context of IDC are often very demanding, namely due to a general “participation fatigue”, derived from inconsequential participative processes that take time and do not bring visible benefits to those publics involved (Sheate & Partidário, 2010: 3). This can be facilitated by development agents if they manage to persuade the stakeholders about the benefits of community participation. These arguments should be built around the “inter-change of knowledge, towards creative solutions to identified problems, rather than simple information transfer mechanisms through consultative processes” (Sheate & Partidário, 2010: 3).

3.3.2 Empowerment, ownership, knowledge, and communication

Development interventions should always enable individuals to take charge of identifying and meeting their own needs whether as households, communities, organisations, institutions, or societies (Rowlands, 1995). This is related to the concept of empowerment which presupposes that the acknowledgement, creation and utilization of resources and tools carried out by those entities should result in an increased power base as to improve the exercise of their citizenship (Amaro, 2009). Therefore, empowerment has been central for development work although frequently not applied in its broader sense. Indeed, as stated by Eade (1997: 4) “when development programs are not firmly based on people’s own efforts to work for change, their impact may be disempowering”. Cole (2006: 631) adds that empowerment “represents the top end of the participation ladder where members of a community are active agents of change and they have the ability to find solutions to their problems, make decisions, implement actions and evaluate their solutions”.

Nevertheless, recent research about the impact of community-based-tourism projects on poverty reduction in developing countries, as reviewed by Spenceley and Meyer (2012), has shown that several development approaches that are focused on participation, gender, empowerment, and capacity building have failed to generate net benefits for the local communities. The problem seems to be related on the assumption that, as long as there are equal opportunities to participate in tourism planning processes, as induced by empowerment and capacity building development approaches, all the community will benefit. However, power imbalances limit the concretization of this ideal as well as the fact that, often, communities lack sufficient understanding of how the tourism industry works. For empowerment to be reinforced it is often necessary for states to intervene to provide appropriate legislation and support (Scheyvens, 2007). Furthermore, it is unlikely that development approaches generate net benefits for the local communities if they do not

embrace product development, business plans, or marketing strategies (Hausler, 2008, cited in Spenceley & Meyer, 2012).

Eade (1997: 4) notes that “women and men become empowered by their own efforts, not by what others do for them” and, therefore, the role of the development agent should be one of helper and facilitator in this process. Anything more directive is seen as interfering with the empowerment of the people concerned (Rowlands, 1995) and, to a broader extent, with the principle of national ownership as agreed under the *Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness* (OECD, 2005). The central idea behind ownership is that “it should be up to each developing country to set its own development goals, map out the route to reaching them, and co-ordinate its own and donors’ activities” (OECD, 2012: 106). However, this idea may lead development agencies to intervene only as mere consultants neglecting the responsibility for the achievement of tangible results. This would clearly demand a greater level of intervention regarding implementation plans. In turn, they tend to act more at a strategic level while neglecting the role of supporters for tourism management tools that are often needed. Therefore, a balance should be attained between the principles of ownership and empowerment and the need to provide, in the long-term, the tools and means to put into practice the needed plans of action on the ground.

In this debate, information and knowledge management play, therefore, a crucial role. As stated by Cole (2006: 632), “meaningful participation cannot take place before a community understands what they are to make decisions about”. In fact, as pointed out by Ashley, Roe, and Goodwin (2001), the poor have a weak understanding about tourists as well as the way the tourism industry works, and changing this state of affairs would be very important to make informed and suitable decisions about their own tourism development. Nadkarni (2008: 459) adds that it should be implemented a dedicated mechanism in “knowledge creation, retention, exchange, devolution, interpretation and treatment” (termed as **K-CREDIT**) in tourism at the grassroots level that would span economically disadvantaged destinations, on the premise that knowledge deficit perpetuates a vicious cycle of economic deprivation and poverty. Schilcher (2007: 184) reinforces this idea arguing that

rather than promoting tourism (in whichever form) as a cure for poverty, policy-makers, donors and researchers should (re-)discover local knowledge instead of merely using the rhetoric under the umbrella of alternative or sustainable development.

The importance of knowledge sharing and transfer as a way of breaking down barriers that impede interaction, healthy communication and collaboration is being considered a strong driver in recent sustainability discourses. This is further consolidated by the concept of knowledge brokerage (Sheate & Partidário, 2010), which is wider than just **KT** as it embraces also issues of communication, interaction, contribution to common understandings, as well as to effective and efficient action.

Communication is then a central dimension for capacity building as it is a condition for knowledge sharing that in turn leads to empowerment. As suggested by Beyer and Trice (1982), **KT** is often associated with communicating a coherent body of knowledge. In fact, communication lies at the basis of all human development, in any context (Romanow & Bruce, 2006). Current theories of communication for development consider the lack of political, economic and cultural power of lower-status sectors as the major problem to be tackled in development (White, 2004). The majority do not have access to the education, technical assistance, good health and housing needed to make a contribution to development. Therefore, capacity building has to take place in the context of

communication practices and processes. Like noted by Romanow and Bruce (2006), the most important thing communities can do to build capacity is therefore to engage in multidirectional dialogue with all community stakeholders.

3.3.3 The role of the State and good governance

There is a general agreement that “better and more effective states are needed if development is to succeed in the world’s poorest countries” (Fritz & Menocal, 2007: 532). Without genuine government intervention, including industry regulation, the poorest are bound to carry a heavier burden in terms of costs of environmental degradation, cultural commodification and social displacement (Schilcher, 2007). However, in the current economic environment, many governments need tourism growth, which tends to discriminate against the needs and interests of the local community in favour of the goals of the industry *per se* (Brohman, 1996; Schilcher, 2007). In this context, government intervention is also needed as to grant safety and security of the most vulnerable to various risks such as ill health, economic shocks and natural disasters. A social security system, specifically for the poor (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007), and safety nets would be required as key capabilities for good governance (DFID, 1999).

Tourism development entails also closer attention from the states on equity and redistribution (Brohman, 1996; Clancy, 1999; Harrison, 2008), as well as on the wider world system “so that developing countries are granted greater decision-making power in institutions such as the World Trade Organization” (Schilcher, 2007: 182). In this context, promoting tourism *per se* as a tool for poverty alleviation constitutes a neo-liberal pro-poor approach that neglects the dimension of equity, which may lead to an aggravation of poverty (Schilcher, 2007: 167). To be sustainable, the processes of change induced by any development intervention must promote equity between, and for, all women and men (Eade, 2007).

Therefore, in moving development towards sustainability, governance constitutes a critical issue. The IDC community often invokes capacity building and governance problems to explain why IDC programmes fail to deliver results being claimed that without good governance the quest for development is a fruitless goal (Hope, 2009). The processes of decision-making and the inherent existing power relations within the state and the public sector, the private sector and the civil society play a determinant role within development goals. Governance is conceptualized “as a system to define and implement strategies” in which decisions result from the interactions among multiple stakeholders and how they relate with one another in that system (Bruyn & Fernández, 2012: 221). It involves such processes as the setting of (perhaps) mutually agreed objectives, exerting influence (power) and obtaining cohesive support for goal-oriented policies (Scott, Baggio, & Cooper, 2011).

In the development context, governance analysis should be focused on the combined effects of history, markets, culture, legislation, and politics (Trousdale, 1999). In this process, broad systematic appraisal should be coupled with improved governance to move from knowledge to implementation. Therefore, “better governance should clearly delineate local, regional and national roles and incorporate community input to mitigate against the adverse effects of tourism development while maximizing benefits” (Trousdale, 1999: 840).

In order to establish the parameters to examine local tourism governance networks, Beaumont and Dredge (2010) did an extensive literature review and identified six main dimensions of governance to be considered: (i) positive cultures, constructive communication and engaged communities; (ii) transparency and accountability; (iii) vision and leadership; (iv) acceptance of diversity and the pursuit of equity and inclusiveness; (v) developing knowledge, learning and sharing expertise; and (vi) clear roles and responsibilities of participants and network operational structures and processes.

Therefore, it can be concluded that there are diverse critical factors that may influence the achievement of net benefits of tourism development for all the stakeholders. They encompass globally most of the dimensions of governance identified in the literature review that are closely interrelated. One of the challenges of IDC programmes is to work on these dimensions as to reinforce governance considering the idiosyncrasies of the tourist destination and the type of development intervention to be conducted. As stated by Grindle (2007: 553), “the feasibility of particular interventions can be assessed by analysing the context for change and the implications of the content of the intervention being considered”. However, when analysing the IDC approaches that have been adopted in the tourism context throughout the dominating development paradigms, it is verified that most of them have been neglecting some of the most important factors discussed above. In the next section, tourism and IDC is, firstly, discussed in light of those paradigms. Secondly, an identification of some recent programmes and initiatives is presented aiming at understanding to what extent they have been considering those critical factors to use tourism as an effective tool for development.

3.4 Tourism and International Development Cooperation

3.4.1 Evolution of the debate about tourism within development paradigms

While there are several studies about the effectiveness of development aid provided by development agencies and multilateral banks, there is a gap between development theory and the use of tourism as a development strategy, having been little the work done connecting the two fields of study (Telfer, 2002; Font et al., 2012).

Likewise, although several project and programme evaluations have been conducted they are usually confidential and remain unpublished, except some excerpts that are used to inform review articles on reporting experiences of using tourism for poverty reduction (Font et al., 2012). The most comprehensive studies linking the two fields of study that were identified in this research were the ones developed by Hawkins and Mann (2007), Lindberg et al. (1999), and Mitchell and Ashley (2007).

Lindberg et al. (1999) state that historically development agencies and multilateral banks have primarily encouraged large-scale projects, which did not contemplate strategies of local participation. Nonetheless, they evolved, to varying degrees, to small and medium-sized businesses, community development and policy development with a special emphasis placed on indigenous communities. To address the gap in the literature on the role development agencies have been playing in the process of developing tourism, Hawkins and Mann (2007)

examined the role of the World Bank historically over the past 40 years. They confirmed that in the 70s, after a decade of supporting the economic value of tourism through financing development loans and projects, the World Bank funded together with UNESCO the first international seminar on tourism and development.

During the 90s, there was an attempt to widen the planning, policymaking, and ownership of the tourism development process, after the adoption of the sustainable development concept into the development lexicon through the Brundtland Report, in 1987. This was reinforced at the Rio Earth Summit in 1992, with the adoption of the Agenda 21. Therefore, “sustainable development provided donors and NGOs with a legitimate and responsible entry point for tourism programmes” (Hawkins & Mann, 2007: 352). Nevertheless, even these sustainable approaches became subject of criticisms due to the lack of visible results and the generation of the same problems as neoliberal approaches (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008).

Therefore, new approaches to development cooperation in tourism are required in order to fulfil the identified gaps in tourism development throughout the diverse paradigms. While in Chapter 2 (Table 2.5), development paradigms and development cooperation approaches were summarized from 1950s onwards, in Table 3.2 it is provided an overview of the main tourism related issues for each paradigm and the respective IDC approaches.

Table 3.2 - Summary of development paradigms and tourism development cooperation approaches, 1950s onwards

Time frame	Develop. paradigm	Theoretical perspectives on tourism development
<i>Late 1940s-1960s</i>	Modernization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourism promoted as a development strategy to transfer technology, to generate foreign exchange, to attract development capital, and thus to increase the balance of payments equilibrium, GDP, employment, and to promote a modern way of life with western values, resulting in the demonstration effect. - The UN Conference on International Travel and Tourism noted that governments should give more attention to tourism regarding economic development plans and trade agreements. The governments have to act as entrepreneurs to attract foreign investment for tourism development because of a weak private sector. - International funding for tourism projects starts within the modernization framework.
<i>1960s-1970s</i>	Modernization / Dependency / underdevelopment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - State-led tourism industry with many developing countries having to borrow money from international leading agencies for large-scale tourism projects (creation of many domestic hotel chains). - Predominance of foreign ownership (multinational corporations) in the industry imposing structural dependency on developing countries (Britton, 1989) in a core-periphery relationship which prevents destinations from fully benefiting from tourism (Nash & Smith, 1991). - Migration of workers from the rural areas to the tourist destinations, the majority facing limited organizational structures, a lack of planning and direction and little information (regional inequalities). Cultural dependency.

CHAPTER 3 - TOURISM AS A TOOL FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION

Time frame	Develop. paradigm	Theoretical perspectives on tourism development
<i>Mid 1970s-1980s</i>	Economic neoliberalism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourism serves as a centre piece for the neoliberal strategy in many developing countries along with new growth sectors. This trend was inspired by the World Bank (WB) and IMF through the Strategic Adjustment Programmes (SAPs). - Tourism seen as an export industry and international aid agencies have provided funding to develop tourism plans and tourism infrastructure (e.g. EU provided funding to Africa, Caribbean and Pacific countries under the Lome Convention; and the LEADER programme funded several local tourism development projects; the WB funded several tourism policy plans and resorts through two agencies of the WBG - the IFC and the MIGA; most projects supported infrastructure, environmental programmes often related with ecotourism, cultural heritage protection, and small and medium-sized enterprises programmes). - Reduction of the influence of the state system (except for investment incentives and tax holidays for the stimulation of private companies participation) privileging the importance of the private sector in tourism development (which would be later subject to several criticisms).
<i>1980s-1990s</i>	Sustainable development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Disillusionment with “mass tourism” favoring “alternative tourism” forms and promoting: indigenous development tourism, local entrepreneurial responses, empowerment of local communities in the decision-making process, the role of women in tourism and sustainable tourism development; small scale, locally-owned developments, community participation, and cultural and environmental sustainability. - Tourism planning guided by principles of sustainable development. - Promotion of alternative types of tourism, the fastest growing being ecotourism. Increased number of sustainable tourism projects supported by NGOs (e.g. Tourism Concern, UK; SNV, Netherlands). - Increased adoption of environmentally friendly management practices, promoting environmental audits, codes of conduct and initiatives; and the search for public recognition through eco-labels, ISO certifications, environmental awards, among others.
<i>1990s-2000</i>	Post-development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - As practical implementation of sustainable tourism development has proved to be problematic, it has increasingly lost acceptance by many developing countries that tended to view the concept as evidence of continuing Western imperialism. - As many problems arise associated with free market liberalization (increased by globalization) state-led approaches to rule tourism activity are required.
<i>2000 - 2010 and beyond</i>	Beyond the impasse: the search for a new paradigm?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The challenge for developing countries is to seek ways of resolving the tourism development dilemmas associated to the previous development paradigm. - New challenges for tourism development are posed derived from security measures mainly after 9/11, but also related with SARS, and other global security risks; debt crisis in Eurozone also generate spread effects in the international tourism order. - New approaches are demanded to reinforce good governance, seeking effective, long-term partnerships between the public and the private sector, and the civil society.

Source: Own construction adapted from Amaro (2004); Bourguignon & Sundberg (2007); OECD (2012); Younas (2008); Sachs (1999); Sagasti & Alcalde (1999); Sharpley & Telfer (2002); Szirmai (2005); Willis (2011); Wilson (2007).

The search for a new development paradigm demands new approaches concerning tourism development cooperation that reinforce governance, ownership and capacity-building for tourism development. This is increasingly associated with KT approaches by the international cooperation community. The growing demand to use tourism as a development tool is reflected in the wide range of development institutions supporting projects and programmes in this field, as well as providing technical advice in developing countries.

In addition to the key international institutions, bilateral development agencies are increasingly financing tourism-based development projects. There is also a range of NGOs that have specific tourism development objectives. Analysing the vast range of initiatives and programmes by organizations directly or indirectly related to tourism that presently use tourism as a development tool would imply a very exhaustive examination that does not fit in this study. In the next sections a brief overview of some initiatives and approaches to tourism and IDC is presented.

3.4.2 Initiatives and programmes for tourism as a tool for development

Tourism has been increasingly considered a strategic sector towards development leading the governments of developing countries, development agencies and non-governmental organisations to invest in initiatives that aim to reduce poverty through tourism development (Spenceley & Meyer, 2012). Nevertheless, “an examination of these projects reveals the lack of a theoretical-practical framework and the disparity of approaches, implementation realities, and outcomes”, mainly due to the lack of an adequate design of tourism policies and projects among politicians and decision-makers (Fayos-Solà et al., 2012: 5). Some of them are integrated in the designated alternative tourism projects supporting projects of IDC, namely: volunteer tourism, community-based-tourism, solidarity tourism, fair tourism, among others (Lima et al., 2011a). Also the strategies inherent to PPT approaches can be considered in this frame of initiatives.

Volunteer Tourism may constitute an important base for the human resources needed for the implementation of some of those projects. Often, volunteer tourism means a cooperation between the tourists and the local communities in order for the local population to take an active part in projects that can definitely contribute for the improvement of their quality of life (Wearing, 2001).

Solidarity Tourism or Community-Based-Tourism are also related to this concept of alternative tourism as its main aim is to involve local communities in tourism and visitors in the development of those communities (Brito, 2010), encompassing such issues as: “regional development, the involvement of local populations in each phase of a tourism project; respect for the individual, for cultural differences and for the natural environment; and a fair distribution of the resources generated” (UNAT, 2005, cited in UNWTO, 2007: 12).

According to the organization Tourism Concern, Fair Tourism also meets the purposes of alternative tourism approaches, as it is pointed out that fair trade in tourism is fundamental as it aims to maximize the benefits for local participants through mutually beneficial and fair partnerships between national and international parties. It is also intended “to support the rights of indigenous communities – whether directly or indirectly concerned with tourism –

to participate as partners and beneficiaries in the tourism development process” (UNWTO, 2007: 24).

There was an increased emphasis on PPT following the launching of United Nations’ *Millennium Declaration*. Development agencies have since then encouraging sustainable development approaches in response to the MDGs, and tourism has been adopted by a number of governmental and non-governmental bodies as part of this process. The main focus of PPT in order to get net benefits for the poor is the successful development of the entire tourism destination (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010).

Thus, there is a semantic difference between all these approaches and, in fact, they all reflect different tangible nuances regarding points of view and activities. Nevertheless, the main issue raised here is that most of them take place without any planned development strategy or articulation with other initiatives and related sectors. Due to its growing importance in recent years and the relation that they may have with IDC, PPT and volunteer tourism are subject to further detail below.

3.4.2.1 Pro-poor tourism

PPT was defined by Ashley et al. (2001: 2) in the following terms:

Tourism that generates net benefits for the poor. Benefits may be economic, but they may also be social, environmental or cultural. The definition says nothing about relative distribution of the benefits of the tourism. Therefore, as long as poor people reap net benefits, tourism can be classified as “pro-poor” (even if rich people benefit more than poor people). [...] we focus on strategies that enhance benefits to the poor [...] however pro-poor tourism cannot succeed without the successful development of the entire tourism destination in question.

PPT concept has also been adopted, in some cases, to reflect strategies of tourism as a tool for poverty alleviation in key policy documents. As such, Chok et al. (1999: 145), in their critical analysis of PPT, consider this term in a wider perspective meaning “all forms of tourism that look to alleviate poverty and that are part of the strategies adopted by the myriad of stakeholders involved in it - corporate bodies, international bureaucracies, aid agencies, research institutes and global financial institutions”. Ashley et al. (2001) add that the range of stakeholders involved in PPT may comprise the government, the private sector and civil society, as well as the poor themselves who act as both producers and decision-makers that operate at different levels, from micro to macro.

According to Mitchell and Ashley (2010), PPT interventions may vary enormously in terms of focus and scale as it can include either a private enterprise seeking to expand economic opportunities for the poor or a national programme enhancing participation by the poor at all levels. The impacts of the PPT initiatives may affect a few hundreds directly and thousands indirectly. These may be reflected on benefits not only on incomes but on livelihood or on improved access to information and infrastructure, pride and cultural reinforcement.

PPT approaches and related case studies are very well documented and have been discussed in many *fora* partly on behalf of the *Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership (PPT-P)*, with many efforts done on searching progress. Nevertheless, much of the discussion on it is based on theory and preliminary research (Chok et al. 1999: 148), is fragmented, limited in scope and

lacks a consistent methodological approach (Zhao & Ritchie 2007). Therefore, there is a kind of disappointment with the work undertaken by practitioners of PPT as it is considered by several authors that the few identified impacts are still at the very micro local level and support neo-liberal ideologies (Chok et al., 2007; Hall & Brown, 2006; Harrison, 2008; Mowforth & Munt, 2009; Scheyvens, 2011; Schilcher, 2007; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007).

In this regard, Hall and Brown (2006) state that, because initiatives are small-scale, site-specific or at early stages of implementation, they do not make a visible impact at the national level of the poorest countries. Furthermore, being promoted by Western development NGOs and government departments, it is often questioned to what extent PPT does not simply provide another route for the perpetuation of long-standing economic imperialism and dependency through tourism (Chok et al., 2007; Hall & Brown, 2006; Schilcher, 2007). To change this state of affairs it would be required a shift policy focus across the sector that should integrate the main dimensions of governance as reviewed in the last section. Nevertheless, as argued by Schilcher (2007), this is unlikely to be pursued in practice given policy-makers' neoliberal bias and systemic constraints, as well as due to the fact that the values of powerful stakeholders greatly shape outcomes in developing countries.

3.4.2.2 Volunteer tourism

Several projects within IDC are inspired and partially carried out by volunteer initiatives combined or not with expertise work. This can be done within the sphere of volunteer tourism programmes (also referred to as “voluntourism”) or within volunteering as integrated in the logic of tourism development cooperation approaches. Whilst the former is well documented and one of the major growth areas in contemporary tourism scientific literature (e.g. Barbieri, Santos, & Katsube, 2012; Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Conran, 2011; Guttentag, 2009; Lyons, Hanley, Wearing, & Neil, 2012; Palacios, 2010; Zahra & McGehee, 2013; Wearing & McGhee, 2013), the latter is not. This will be clarified in the next paragraphs.

Wearing (2001: 1) defined volunteer tourists as those “who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organised way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment”. Therefore, as volunteer tourists utilize “discretionary time and income to travel out of the sphere of regular activity to assist others in need” (McGehee & Santos, 2005: 760), this tends to be considered one of the noblest ways to travel and a catalyst for world peace (Lyons et al., 2012; Mustonen, 2005; Palacios, 2010; Wearing & McGhee, 2013; Zahra & McGehee, 2013).

Volunteering has seen a proliferation of organisations moving into the tourism sector market place. Indeed, although several volunteering opportunities are linked to charitable organisations, it is also evident that some of the increase in this sector is generated by profit-making companies (Araújo & Bramwell, 1999). The projects on offer are wide, ranging from community welfare to environmental conservation, and education, to name the most frequent areas (Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Araújo & Bramwell, 1999; Wearing & McGhee, 2013). In addition, projects vary in terms of their duration, although volunteers seem to often participate in programmes for less than one month (Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Guttentag, 2009; Lyons et al., 2012; Wearing & McGhee, 2013; Zahra & McGehee, 2013). Such

projects make somehow the practice of IDC attainable, knowable and available to young travellers (Simpson, 2004).

Volunteer tourism has become a “mass niche” market due to a number of factors, such as: the growth in volunteer projects, the variety of destinations promoted, the range of target markets and the type of players involved, like charities, tour operators, private agencies (Callanan & Thomas, 2005: 183), as well as development agencies. One particular target of the volunteer sector is the “gap year” market related to which travels assisted to a dramatic rise in the last decades (Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Lyons et al., 2012). Given the exponential increase of for-profit organizations engaged in volunteer tourism, several authors (e.g. Lyons et al., 2012; Wearing & McGehee, 2013) question to what extent is it being subject to greenwashing marketing and other irresponsible and unsustainable marketing methods by the tourism industry as to capture a larger proportion of the travel market.

In this discussion, it is also worth of note the two dimensions outlined by Callanan and Thomas (2005) regarding the tourist volunteers’ experiences: the first is related to the time tourists dedicate to work on projects aiming at enhancing the living conditions of a given community; and the second is related to the development of oneself through the intrinsic rewards of contributing to those projects. Nevertheless, as noted by Wearing (2001), there may be a conflict of interests between the free market economy of the tourism industry and volunteer tourism in some developing countries. Indeed, profit is the focus of the former and the well-being of the communities and the environment are generally the priority of the latter, which can lead to a mutually exclusive operating environment.

It is also postulated that volunteer tourism provides just another source of consumption that will only endanger those communities and environments that the volunteer tourist seeks to protect. The volunteers become complicit in this consumption and are, then, just another target by the industry (Wearing & McGehee, 2013). This discussion was raised before by Araújo and Bramwell (1999) to whom, in the first place, the fact that the opportunities available for volunteering in the tourism domain usually include the notion of payment, contrasting with volunteering in other sectors, make it difficult to clarify the influence of the concept of volunteering from both the demand and supply side.

In this context, some researchers (e.g. Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Guttentag, 2009; Simpson, 2004) question the benefits that can be provided by volunteer tourism as the majority of the projects require minimal or non-existent requirements concerning the skills volunteers need to participate. Additionally, most of the times, volunteer tourists are not familiar with the local sociocultural context, and only stay for a very short period of time. Therefore, it is often considered that volunteer tourism does not legitimize the rights of host communities and the principles inherited to the concept.

It was found that, despite volunteer tourism constitutes one of the major growth areas in contemporary tourism scientific literature, it has been excluding the perspective of specialized volunteers with particular skills that engage in demanding technical development cooperation projects and who do not have to pay to participate in it, nor are paid for it. In order to fill this gap in the scientific literature and to improve the existing definitions about volunteer tourism, the approach to volunteerism in tourism should integrate two main categories: 1) the “volunteer tourists”, as considered in the literature review, discussed above; and 2) the volunteers for IDC in tourism, which in an abbreviated form could be designated as “volunteer tourism cooperants”. This is the case, for instance, of UNWTO volunteers as

well as other vocational and skilled volunteers working with other development agencies in tourism strategic development projects.

Further research would be required to fully understand the specificities of this relevant segment that should be considered when discussing volunteer tourism and in particular highlighting the important role they can play as vehicles of KT and learning within tourism IDC programmes.

3.4.3 Multilateral institutions working on tourism development

As a development strategy, tourism is increasingly being supported by multilateral development agencies and financial institutions, in particular focusing on poverty reduction and the achievement of the MDGs (Ferguson, 2007). Multilateral institutions, including the World Bank, the African, Asian, and Inter-American Development Banks, the European Union and United Nations agencies, such as the United Nations World Tourism Organization, the United Nations Development Programme, United Nations Education Programme, United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization and the United Nations Conference of Trade and Development, are all involved in related tourism development activities from a variety of perspectives driven by their individual institutional development goals (Hawkins & Mann, 2007).

New commitments from multilateral donor agencies such as the World Bank were impelled when, in 2004, UNWTO organised a *Tourism Policy Forum* that led to new approaches in which tourism would be considered as the “entry point to development in areas like infrastructure and rural renewal” (Ferguson, 2007: 5). In addition to the key multilateral institutions, bilateral development agencies are increasingly financing tourism-based development projects. Some examples of these are the German, Dutch and Spanish agencies, all with the explicit aim of promoting tourism as a tool for development and poverty reduction. One of the most significant sources of funding for tourism development comes from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the DFID, in the United Kingdom (Ferguson, 2007; Hawkins & Mann, 2007). There is also a range of nongovernmental organizations that have specific tourism development objectives, particularly in community based development and conservation projects.

As it is beyond the scope of the present research to analyse the vast range of different organizations involved in related tourism IDC projects, it was decided only to refer briefly to two different kinds of IDC organizations - the World Bank and to the UNWTO. The World Bank because it claims to be a fundamental source of financial and technical assistance to developing countries worldwide having in the last decades demonstrated a renewed interest in the role of tourism towards the fulfilment of the MDGs (Hawkins & Mann, 2007). The UNWTO is briefly presented, then, as to introduce the organization responsible for the IDC program that will constitute the case study of this thesis. While the UNWTO.Volunteers programme will be described in detail in section 6.2.3, it was considered appropriate to make here a presentation of the UNWTO as a leading international organization that is particularly influential in national and IDC policies for developing countries.

3.4.3.1 The World Bank

The stated mission of the World Bank is to “fight poverty and to help people help themselves and their environment by providing resources, sharing knowledge, building capacity and forging partnerships in the public and private sectors” (World Bank, 2011). The WB is increasingly positioning itself as the “Knowledge Bank”, mainly since the publication of the World Development Report 1998-99 entitled “Knowledge for Development”. According to Mehta (1999), this reflects an intended shift by the WB from simply focusing on the transfer of capital to become a leader in development expertise through KT approaches in IDC. Nevertheless, the WB is the subject of several criticisms concerning its politics of development, more often associated to a neoliberal and rationalist perspective than to a knowledge agenda (e.g. McFarlane, 2006: 298; Mehta, 1999; Scheyvens, 2011).

Concerning tourism, officially the WB does not have specific programmes to finance tourism directly. Yet, in the last decades there is a renewed interest within the bank in the role of tourism and the fulfilment of the MDGs (Hawkins & Mann, 2007). According to Ferguson (2007), the WB recognises that tourism features as a focal sector in 90 per cent of Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs - the key framework documents for donor support). Ferguson (2007: 5) states that “tourism projects compose 3 per cent of the Bank’s total portfolio, and the concept of tourism as an «entry point» means the WB will be embracing «a new paradigm» in which tourism will be integrated into PRSPs and national strategies”.

As outlined by DFID (1999), it is difficult to research about tourism projects supported by the WB as there is no code attributed to tourism in its *Management Information Systems*. Indeed, tourism-related activities vary throughout the Bank’s several regional departments and in each of the institutions of the WB Group (DFID, 1999). In terms of the WB Group agencies, the International Finance Corporation (IFC) is the only one to have financed tourism projects continuously and to have maintained an in-house small team of tourism experts for the past decades. According to DFID (1999: 76),

as the private sector-financing arm of the WBG, IFC has provided loan and equity finance for tourism projects, mainly hotels, for several decades. IFC supports private sector investors, both local and foreign, by providing up to 25% of project costs for its own account and often syndicating additional amounts through commercial banks. Promoting economic growth while ensuring protection of the environment and positive social contributions are key objectives in IFC’s pursuit of tourism development. In addition to investing, IFC often makes important contributions to the regulatory and legal environment for tourism investments, particularly where privatisation is involved. IFC has invested in over 160 tourism projects in 65 countries, comprising both resort (leisure) and commercial (business).

Another member of the WB Group is the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA). Its mission is to encourage the flow of foreign direct investment to its developing member countries to support economic growth, reduce poverty and improve people’s lives. MIGA provides products and services to support involvement of private sector investors in the tourism sector. To this end it provides guarantees against non-commercial risks for private investment into its developing member countries, together with appropriate technical assistance. MIGA guarantees are well-suited to mitigate non-commercial tourism and hospitality investment risks, thereby lowering the cost of capital. They reassure lenders that their investments are protected particularly for costly investments in countries where there is

a perception of high risk (WBG-MIGA, 2008). This kind of support has been important in catalysing investments for a range of projects from small to large in many countries of the developing world (DFID, 1999).

In 2007, Hawkins and Mann (2007: 348) synthesized internal WB commissioned research using evidence from over 300 reviewed projects and project-related documents in eighty six countries to demonstrate the role the bank has played in using tourism as a development tool since the mid-60s. This research showed the evolution of tourism-related lending from the bank over the past 40 years charting some correlation between the categories of projects it has financed, like economic growth or cultural and environmental preservation, and the prevailing development theme of that period.

The same authors argued that the Bank is better placed than other development agencies to play the role of “honest broker in galvanizing governments and development partners towards a more systematic and inclusive approach in the design, implementation, and evaluation of the impacts of tourism development interventions geared toward sustainable development” (Hawkins & Mann, 2007: 349). Furthermore, they point out that opportunities are being missed to exploit the economic growth potential of global tourism for realizing desired poverty reduction outcomes and that increasing demand from developing countries for related development loans and technical advice and assistance is not being met in a systematic and coordinated way (Hawkins & Mann, 2007).

Another research that links tourism and poverty reduction by the WB is the one conducted in 2007 by the Overseas Development Institute (Mitchell & Ashley, 2007). They have concluded that the overall picture is one of tourism having many positive impacts on the poor, but that the existing research is ad-hoc, the use of definitions is poor, and there is a lack of rigorous or comparative approaches that fragment the body of knowledge and researchers about the role played by tourism projects in poverty reduction.

3.4.3.2 The United Nations World Tourism Organization

The UNWTO has a decisive and central role in world tourism. It serves as a global forum for tourism policy issues and a practical source of tourism know-how (Hall, 2008). As a result, it has the ability to influence national and ID policies, although its outputs may be considered as soft international law (e.g. the “Manila Declaration on World Tourism”, 1980; the “Global Code of Ethics for Tourism”, 1999; several other initiatives integrating the UNWTO commitment with the MDGs).

Originally named “International Union of Official Travel Publicity Organizations” when created in 1925, “International Union of Official Travel Organizations”, after the Second World War, and “World Tourism Organization”, in 1975, it was only in 2003 that it got the actual designation as UNWTO due to its status of United Nations specialized agency. This new status represented a shift in the acknowledgement of UNWTO as a development agency to promote tourism as a tool for development (Scheyvens, 2007). In order to understand its position towards IDC, this analysis will be conducted within two items: i) development agenda: priorities of action; and ii) main criticisms.

i) Development agenda: priorities of action

As claimed by UNWTO (2013b), its priorities of action are centred around six main key areas: (1) advocating the value of tourism as a driver of socio-economic growth and development; (2) improving tourism competitiveness in UNWTO members through knowledge creation and exchange, human resources development and excellence in tourism development; (3) promoting sustainable tourism development; (4) maximizing the contribution of tourism to poverty reduction and achieving the MDGs by making tourism work as a tool for development and promoting the inclusion of tourism in the development agenda; (5) fostering knowledge, education and capacity building, supporting countries to assess and address their needs in education and training, as well as providing networks for knowledge creation and exchange; (6) building partnerships through the engagement with the private sector, regional and local tourism organizations, academia and research institutions, civil society and the UN system.

As far as the specific aims related with the IDC agenda are concerned, two main working areas/departments can be distinguished in UNWTO: (1) the department of technical cooperation, integrated in the UNWTO Madrid's headquarters, and (2) the UNWTO.Themis Foundation, based in Andorra. The former aims to support its member states with technical expertise and knowledge in diverse development cooperation initiatives (e.g. formulation of tourism policies; training in tourism management; countries' strategic positioning; collection and analysis of tourism related statistics). The latter is focused on enhancing quality and efficiency in tourism education and training worldwide, promoting KT and learning initiatives mainly in developing countries (UNWTO.Themis, 2012).

Therefore, concerning development cooperation activities, both departments of UNWTO have launched tourism development programmes focused on volunteer approaches: 1) the ST-EP programme ("Sustainable Tourism - Eliminating Poverty") set by UNWTO headquarters; and 2) the UNWTO.Volunteers programme by UNWTO.Themis Foundation.

The ST-EP Programme was launched by the UNWTO at the *World Summit for Sustainable Development* in Johannesburg, in 2002, to develop sustainable tourism as a force for poverty alleviation. This initiative focuses on longstanding work to encourage sustainable tourism "which specifically alleviates poverty, bringing development and jobs to people living on less than a dollar a day" linking it to the MDGs (UNWTO, 2007). It has adopted the principles of PPT strategies applying seven designated mechanisms to address poverty through tourism (UNWTO, 2012): (1) Employment of the poor in tourism enterprises; (2) Supply of goods and services to tourism enterprises by the poor or by enterprises employing the poor; (3) Direct sales of goods and services to visitors by the poor (informal economy); (4) Establishment and running of tourism enterprises by the poor or community based enterprises (formal economy); (5) Tax or levy on tourism income or profits with proceeds benefiting the poor; (6) Voluntary giving/support by tourism enterprises and tourists; (7) Investment in infrastructure stimulated by tourism also benefiting the poor in the locality, directly or through support to other sectors.

Several projects have been launched in diverse developing countries and in a greater proportion in Africa with the support of volunteers that could be considered as "volunteer tourism cooperants", following the designation proposed in section 3.4.2.2. Nevertheless, like verified in pro-poor strategies, the main motivation of ST-EP is claimed to be the

promotion of economic growth through tourism, which has been widely criticized. This and other criticisms will be discussed in the next section.

Conversely, the UNWTO.Volunteers programme proposes an approach more focused on a KT and learning perspective. It was launched in 2007 and was designed to support developing countries to achieve a sustainable and more competitive tourism sector mainly through volunteer work (UNWTO, 2009). The participating volunteers are selected after the completion of a university course as to integrate working teams with UNWTO experts in tourism projects in developing countries. As this programme constitutes the selected case study for the empirical research of the thesis, a more detailed characterization of it will be presented in Chapter 6.

ii) Main criticisms

Several criticisms have arisen regarding the position of UNWTO towards its green and pro-poor agenda. This is mainly due to the probable conflict of interests between two potential antagonist stands that are found within the myriad of action of UNWTO (Ferguson, 2007; Scheyvens, 2007): on one hand, tourism as a tool for poverty reduction and development, and on the other hand, the further liberalisation of the tourism industry. Whilst the ST-EP and UNWTO.Volunteers programmes constitute examples of the former, the latter is reflected on the influence it exerts on issues of international trade in services policy which allow increased access from large tourism industry enterprises to developing country markets. Thus, Ferguson (2007: 5) argues that:

while the aims and objectives of UNWTO may appear complementary in the context of the contemporary development paradigm - the achievement of the MDGs through greater trade liberalisation - in many ways the nature of the tourism industry may make such a tension more problematic than may have been anticipated within the organisation.

Thus, this relationship between poverty reduction and trade liberalisation reflects the economic neoliberalism development paradigm (Table 3.2). Besides, the ways that are suggested by the UNWTO to address poverty through tourism “focus mainly on the local level, without addressing changes at national and global levels which could be of far greater significance” (Scheyvens, 2007: 245). Programmes like the ST-EP have a very limited local impact as they are more focused on community-based tourism being very difficult to demonstrate a global impact within poverty reduction strategies (Scheyvens, 2007).

As the UNWTO.Volunteers programme proposes an approach more focused on a KT and learning perspective at a broader level of tourism development planning, it can be considered that it has the potential to challenge some of the pointed out criticisms. This might be more suitable within the search for a new development paradigm which, as discussed in section 3.4.1 (Table 3.2), is more focused on the reinforcement of countries’ and regions’ ownership, capacity-building, governance and other dimensions that are central for this new paradigm.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter provided a general overview about the main challenges faced by tourism when considered as a development tool, including the understanding of the overall characteristics

of developing countries that determine the conditions under which development initiatives based on tourism should take place in order to achieve positive results. Confronting it with the diverse development perspectives assumed overtime by development key actors and according to the dominating paradigms, some recent multilateral approaches have provided useful insights for the analysis of tourism in the context of IDC.

The growing importance of tourism as an economic sector in developing countries, and its comparison with developed countries, was put in evidence with a cross analysis of the most relevant international tourism indicators and the HDI countries' ranking. While the evolution of the total contribution of tourism to GDP and employment has been increasing significantly in the last decade in developing countries, care should be taken as far as is concerned the costs and benefits that tourism development may generate. Indeed, tourism is increasingly viewed as a powerful development strategy by multilateral agencies and the governments of developing countries. Nevertheless, the general characteristics observed in developing countries raise diverse key challenges concerning the costs and benefits of tourism development. The main challenge for the development key players and local governments is to guarantee net benefits from tourism development processes mainly for the most vulnerable populations.

In this context, diverse critical factors that may influence the achievement of net benefits of tourism development processes were identified. These factors are all interrelated and associated to the broad concept of good governance. Therefore, one of the challenges of IDC programmes is to work on these factors as to reinforce governance considering the idiosyncrasies of the tourist destination and the type of development intervention to be conducted.

Overall, community participation and networks within the tourism sector facilitating dialogue and communication among stakeholders from the private and public sectors as well as from the civil society is crucial as a way to encourage more transparent and participated processes of decision-making. In these contexts, IDC programmes should facilitate KT and learning processes, enabling ownership and empowering individuals to take charge of identifying and meeting their own needs as leaders of all that process. Nevertheless, it has been verified that IDC approaches in tourism have been neglecting these important factors within the context of development interventions due to the obstacles that often emerge in developing countries. Therefore, one of the main challenges of IDC programmes is to overcome those obstacles and to manage to have a positive influence on all, or at least in some of those factors.

The last section of the chapter provided an overview on the approaches, initiatives and programmes that have been followed within tourism and IDC. Analysing the evolution of these approaches leads to the conclusion that, historically, development agencies and multilateral banks evolved from encouraging large-scale projects to support small and medium-sized businesses, community-based tourism and policy development with some of them fostering gradually the inclusion of those critical factors in the devised programmes. This is the case of PPT programmes or related approaches like the UNWTO's ST-EP programme, some of them based on "voluntourism". Nevertheless, there are still several criticisms pointed out to these approaches mainly for being again considered neo-liberal in its essence and for its local and community-based nature with a limited impact at the regional or national levels. Therefore, it is still claimed the necessity for a new development paradigm which demands the search for new approaches to tourism development cooperation.

In this context, the traditional concept of volunteer tourism was also discussed having been identified the main limitations raised in the scientific literature about it. Most of them are related with its claimed limited impact in the respective projects and destinations as well as its growing commercial approach. Whilst several development agencies combine expertise development work with volunteers' collaboration, it was found out that in the scientific literature this approach to "voluntourism" has not been addressed. Therefore, it was proposed to widen the traditional theoretical concept of volunteer tourism or "voluntourism" to embrace other approaches that integrate volunteers that have specialized knowledge and technical skills in tourism and related areas. This can potentially provide greater insights to volunteer work within IDC programmes. Further research was suggested as to deepen the analysis of the newly designated "volunteer tourism cooperants" as to their role of "knowledge brokers" within IDC programmes in tourism.

Finally, it can be concluded that there is a lack of rigorous and comparative approaches regarding the role played by different development agencies in tourism IDC projects and mainly about its results in enhancing development. Few references were found mainly regarding the WB and the UNWTO approaches to tourism and IDC but the body of knowledge in this regard is superficial and fragmented. Anyhow, most of it criticizes the lack of consistent results towards development and some of them are also accused of being neoliberal and with a limited local impact. The search for a new development paradigm in tourism is still a top priority and it is high in its agenda. The study conducted in this thesis aims to contribute to fill this gap providing useful insights for increasing knowledge in this scientific field.

CHAPTER 4

KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION: CONCEPTS, THEORIES AND MODELS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter explores one of the main pillars of this thesis providing the theoretical background on KT and learning, first discussing its main general concepts and theories in order then to proceed towards a better understanding of how is it applied in the fields of tourism and IDC. The comprehensive literature review undertaken was determinant in order to gain a general overview of the major issues and identifiable gaps that should be taken into account when proposing a KT and learning model that could be applied to tourism and IDC. After having contextualized these two latter areas of study in the previous chapters, it became clear that knowledge presents a huge potential for enhancing the effectiveness of development programmes in general and specifically when tourism is assumed as the main tool to accomplish it.

The first section (4.2) of the chapter provides a general overview of the main issues raised in the literature review concerning the concepts and theories of knowledge and learning and its application to the tourism context. This, in turn, is structured in three subsections attempting to present, in a logic sequence, the diversity of concepts and theories in discussion. Subsection 4.2.1 systematizes the overall terminology inherent to knowledge and learning (data, information and knowledge, explicit and tacit knowledge, knowledge management and KT). Subsection 4.2.2 presents some major issues concerned with tourism and, in particular, related to knowledge and learning in tourism destinations and the role of networks, clustering and communities of practice as well as the enablers and barriers to KT within the destination context. Subsection 4.2.3 outlines the major issues concerning KT and learning in IDC. Finally, section 4.3 reviews existing KT models that encompass relevant contributions in the field of KT and that can possibly be related to KT in tourism IDC programmes. In section 4.4 the main conclusions of the chapter are drawn.

4.2 Concepts and theories of Knowledge transfer and learning in tourism and International Development Cooperation

4.2.1 Concepts and theories of knowledge and learning

Knowledge has been playing a crucial role having acquired increased relevance since the dawn of the 21st century. The hastening of scientific and technological advances and their immediate diffusion prompted a shift in the way economies and societies work (Kuramoto & Sagasti, 2002). As argued by Peter Drucker (1993), the use of information and knowledge is

essential as the most important source of wealth, informed decisions and policymaking in a post-industrial society (Beijerse, 1999; Xiao & Smith, 2007). Indeed, knowledge contributes to human development providing the capacities to solve specific problems people face, satisfy their needs and further enlarge their capabilities and thus improve their quality of life (Kuramoto & Sagasti, 2002).

It is important to note, however, that this process relies on the assumption that there is a country's capacity to take advantage of effective solutions supported by an institutional setting that encourages the creation, absorption, adoption and diffusion of knowledge. Furthermore, this implies matching such knowledge with the needs and preferences of the targeted population (Kuramoto & Sagasti, 2002). As knowledge management theory embraces specific terms and concepts that are widely used in its discussion (Lima, Eusébio, Partidário, & Garcia, 2012), it is important to subdivide this section following some of the mostly used terminologies within the literature review, namely: i) data, information and knowledge; ii) explicit and tacit knowledge; iii) knowledge management and KT; and iv) knowledge utilization.

i) Data, Information and knowledge

Knowledge management theory distinguishes information from knowledge. The latter is something more than information and, in turn, information is more than data. Data corresponds to the most "rudimentary" unit of analysis, like raw facts, measurements and statistics, and information goes beyond it, resulting from organizing data into meaningful forms which provides some added value to the user (Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi, & Mohammed, 2007; Rich, 1997). McFarlane (2006: 294) adds that "information refers to data or facts that can be readily communicated" and that can be interpreted in numerous ways with manifold effects.

At an individual level, knowledge may be considered "the awareness of what one knows through study, reasoning, experience or association, or through various other types of learning" (McInerney, 2002: 1009). This leads to the notion of knowledge as a capability, as information interpreted and added to something, and that has been subjected to some validation, with which a certain function can be fulfilled (Al-Alawi et al., 2007; Beijerse, 1999; Rich, 1997). Beijerse (1999: 101) adds that knowledge is:

the capability to interpret data and information through a process of giving meaning to these data and information. New information and knowledge are thus being created, and tasks can be executed. This capability is the result of available sources of information, experience, skills, culture, character, personality, feelings, etc.

Gammelgaard & Ritter (2000 in Al-Alawi et al., 2007) highlight also the important role played by the experts' insights for the knowledge process of evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. In sum, as Cooper (2006: 52) puts it, knowledge "can be thought of as the use of skills and experience, to add intelligence to information in order to make decisions or provide reliable grounds for action". This may be influenced by the personality of the knowledge's holder since it is based on judgment and intuition, incorporating beliefs, attitude and behaviour (Al-Alawi et al., 2007). For this reason, these authors state that knowledge not only exists in documents and repositories, but it becomes embedded in people's minds. As pointed out by Goh (2002), although creating knowledge is an important activity, this has to be harnessed and leveraged to be useful.

ii) Explicit and tacit knowledge

In knowledge management taxonomy it is common to differentiate types of knowledge according to some specificities, the most classic being the explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge dichotomy (Polanyi, 1962; 1966). According to Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), explicit knowledge is the dominant form of human knowledge as it is formal, systematic, and objective, being expressed in numbers and words and shared in the form of data, scientific formulae, specifications, electronic databases, manuals, and others. It represents the knowledge capital of an organisation and is independent of its workers (Cooper, 2006).

On the contrary, tacit knowledge is highly personal and hard to formalize, making it difficult to communicate or share with others. Subjective insights, intuitions and hunches fall into this category. Tacit knowledge is deeply rooted in an individual's actions and experience, as well as in the ideals, values, and emotions one embraces. It is passed between individuals through various forms of learning experiences that necessarily involve knowledge translations (Cooper, 2006; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; McFarlane, 2006).

There are two dimensions of tacit knowledge (Nonaka, Toyama, & Konno, 2000): the first is the technical dimension which includes the kind of informal personal skills or crafts often referred to as "know-how". The second is the cognitive dimension, that consists of beliefs, ideals, values, schemata and mental models which are profoundly embedded in us and which one often takes for granted.

According to Nonaka et al. (2000: 8), "knowledge is created through interactions between tacit and explicit knowledge, rather than from tacit or explicit knowledge alone". In fact, tacit knowledge (know-how) and explicit knowledge (know-that) are complementary and, to some extent, mutually transformable and can, therefore, be considered in four different directions (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995), as follows:

- (1) *Tacit to tacit* transfers, through socialisation, whereby personal knowledge may be generated in the form of mental models through the discussion and exchange of ideas and experiences, through meetings and team discussions.
- (2) *Tacit to explicit*, or externalisation, for example, through brainstorming sessions from which new ideas are registered and adopted, constituting a priority in the tourism field.
- (3) *Explicit to explicit*, or combination, transferring knowledge from one explicit form, such as a paper document or a meeting, to another form such as a data base or a computer network. Notions are synthesized into a knowledge system. New knowledge can also be produced through the reorganization of existing information by arranging, adding, combining and categorizing explicit knowledge. According to Cooper (2006), this is the most relevant for the tourism destinations.
- (4) *Explicit to tacit*, or internalisation, by creating new ideas from written documents or learning by doing, for example, applying procedures in a manual.

In these four ways, transfer occurs through the interaction of individuals and groups (Cooper, 2006). Xiao and Smith (2007) argue that an effective utilization requires the combination of the different types of knowledge. The elements and categories perceived as valuable for solving a specific problem are frequently located in manifold sources and available through diverse services and people, in different ways and places, and at varying times (Coulson-Thomas, 1997).

As far as tourism is concerned, Donovan-Neale & Mannell (1983, cited in Xiao & Smith, 2007) advocate that traditionally recreation practitioners rely more frequently on intuition and personal experience (tacit knowledge) for management and policy decisions than on research (explicit knowledge). Therefore, there is a paradox in which practitioners recognize value to explicit knowledge but fail to use it. Their most important source is word-of-mouth among colleagues, whereas printed media, like journal articles and research reports, are not so used (Xiao & Smith, 2007). Research in this field applied to tourism is very important but has been limited and the few existing studies tend to concentrate mainly on the hospitality industry (Shaw & Williams, 2009).

iii) Knowledge management and KT

Knowledge management (KM) is related to any planned applications, utilizations and their subsequent transfer in order to achieve the mission or goals of organizations and businesses (Wiig, 1997). KM is associated with the process and practices of transfer while its use is the ultimate goal of information dissemination (Xiao & Smith, 2007). In this process it is worth to note that, whereas transfer is frequently associated with communicating a coherent body of knowledge, its application may refer to the use of individual pieces of it (Beyer & Trice, 1982).

The process of KM involves several activities of which the most commonly discussed currently is “knowledge transfer” that is often used as synonym of “knowledge sharing”, “knowledge diffusion” (Al-Alawi et al., 2007; Cooper, 2006; Duan, Nie & Coakes, 2010). This distinction is not always very clear but all the concepts involve similar processes of utilizing knowledge assets (Beijerse, 1999; Wiig, 1997). For instance, as stated by Cooper (2006), transfer is based on the notion of diffusion, which should not be confounded with a mere act of transmission and reception, but as a process of reconstruction (Szulanski, 2000).

The concept of diffusion was defined by Rogers (1995) as the communication process of an innovation or new idea through certain channels over time within the members of a social system. In this respect, Cooper (2006) highlights the body of research developed until now concerning the various elements of the diffusion process, which includes the sources, adopter characteristics, innovation characteristics, and organizational structure and hierarchy. Analysing the process of diffusion, or KT, implies the identification of factors associated to the characteristics and effectiveness of knowledge flows, reception, and resistance to adoption which are crucial to transfer (Cooper, 2006).

For the KT process to occur, knowledge sources must be identified, and relevant tacit and explicit knowledge is captured, codified, processed and evaluated before being transferred (Cooper, 2006; Weidenfeld, Williams, & Butler, 2010). Furthermore, to use it as a competitive tool it is essential to guarantee that organizations are engineered to optimize flows and to manage them effectively, which requires an open decentralized environment (Davenport & Prusak, 1998). This means that individuals are encouraged to view knowledge as a resource to be shared and not stored (Cooper, 2006).

Furthermore, it should be noted that KT does not occur only at the individual level, but also at the organisational or group level within a community or partnership; and among organisations in different nations when sponsored by third parties such as international or national charities or governing bodies (Duan et al., 2010). The more complex is the organizational structure involved, the more challenging tends to be KT mainly when

transnational flows are implicit. The concept of “transnational KT” has been defined by Duan et al. (2010) as KT across different countries, or across-borders, either through multinational corporations, transnational organisations, international joint ventures, and IDC programmes supported by governments and development agencies.

Weidenfeld et al. (2010: 607) identified in the literature four types of interconnected channels/mechanisms of KT. Two operate at the organization level and two at the individual scale:

- (1) “learning by observation/imitation/and demonstration” consists in flows of information and KT (planned, unplanned and/or uncoordinated knowledge spillovers between firms) via observation, ‘espionage’, and/or through interchanges within communities of association.
- (2) “learning by inter-firm exchanges” constitutes planned knowledge spillovers or exchanges, as firms work together in the tourism chain. This collaboration may be either vertical or horizontal.
- (3) “labour mobility” is related to mobile individuals. Knowledge is transferred by the physical movement of workers who have been working in organisations with superior and different tacit knowledge bases.
- (4) “**knowledge brokers**” are influential individuals who operate within and across distinctive knowledge communities (Tushman & Scanlan, 1981), and play a key role in KT in tourism. It may include development agents, consultants and representatives of multinational chains working with different countries, transferring distinctive knowledge as a result.

In the context of IDC, knowledge brokers assume a crucial importance. Beijerse (1999) also highlighted the role played by experts as sources of learning in a knowledge infrastructure. These experts can be associated to the “knowledge brokers” previously mentioned by Weidenfeld et al. (2010), in parallel with other sources within an organizational environment, such as competitors, customers, organizations, past archives, and research.

When discussing learning in development, McFarlane (2006: 288) argues that “knowledge transfer is often conceived as a linear process whereby untransformed knowledge acts as a technical solution to a given development problem”. For that reason, the knowledge channels and systems are somewhat idealised, because in reality KT is often unclear, variable and multi-scalar, and thus intricate (Weidenfeld et al., 2010). This is even more evident when analysing KT in the tourism context which, compared to other fields, has been slow to develop (Cooper, 2006; Pyo, 2005; Ruhanen, 2008). This will be further discussed in section 4.2.2.

iv) Knowledge utilization

There are several key issues that need to be addressed when evaluating knowledge utilization processes, such as the ones that resulted from Rich’s (1997) literature review, namely: what is to be considered as a successful utilization; what measures should be taken to evaluate the outcomes; and the major issues faced by scholars, practitioners, decision-makers, and users in evaluating utilization. Some of those major issues raised by Rich, complemented with some ideas from other authors, are systematized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 - Key issues to be addressed when evaluating knowledge utilization processes

Aspects to address	Key issues of knowledge utilization processes
Types of utilization and non-utilization	Utilization: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Complete implementation of information as presented; • Adaptation of information; • Partial use of information; • Some steps taken towards implementation, although full implementation has not occurred.
	Non-utilization: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information has been considered by a potential user but then rejected; • Nothing is done with the information; or • Implementation of the information has not occurred, but is under consideration.
Purposes for utilization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulating new policies or programmes; • Evaluating alternatives; • Improving existing programmes; • Mobilizing support; • Changing ways of thinking (...)
Distinction between “influence” and “impact” from “use” and “utility” of utilization	Use: information received and read.
	Utility: some user’s judgement that information could be relevant for some purpose. Influence: user believes information has contributed to a decision or action or to a way of thinking about a problem. Impact: information has led to some concrete decision or action.
Multidimensional nature of knowledge uses	Instrumental , behavioural, and action-oriented uses: immediate and directly observable use for solving problems or finding solutions; it can be documented.
	Conceptual and cognitive uses: less readily observable, i.e. that has potentially a delayed and diffused impact.
	Political , strategic, symbolic, and affective uses: for the justification of actions, policies, or decisions.
	Intended process use observable from: “individual changes in thinking and behaving that occur among those involved in evaluation as a result of the learning that occurs during the evaluation process”.
Events of knowledge utilization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information pick-up – process by which information is retrieved or received by a given user; it may be disseminated or stored; it may be transmitted electronically, through a consultant or any other ways. • Information processing – encompasses several distinct sub-processes; involves understanding and testing it for validity and reliability, testing it against one’s own intuition and assumptions, and transforming the information into a form that is usable. • Information application – involves the decision of whether to use the available information which has been received and processed.

Source: adapted from Rich (1997); and Xiao & Smith (2007); Caplan (1979); Dunn (1980); Weiss (1979); Patton (1997)

Considering the set of questions raised in the literature review, it is worth to note that it may be very difficult to attribute some outcomes of, for instance, an IDC programme to the use of specific information and knowledge, in a cause/effect sense. For that reason, it would be more adjusted to think about the “extent to which information, research, and knowledge is contributing to or influencing some particular objective or outcome” (Rich, 1997: 13). It is possible that the user’s thinking about an issue or problem is influenced by that KT process but he could not draw the influence in cause/effect terms. It is in this view that such an “influence” should turn operational if one needs to measure utilization as an output that may influence an outcome (Rich, 1997).

Xiao and Smith (2007) propose a conceptual framework based on issues and perspectives related to how field practitioners apply knowledge to make decisions and solve problems in the tourism context. They adopted a field-specific perspective on the use of knowledge by practitioners for development, policy, and management practices. According to Xiao and Smith’s framework (Figure 4.1), *effectiveness* of knowledge utilization focuses on the outcome of application relative to the recipient’s goals or expectations. The relationships among the main concepts considered are illustrated in Figure 4.1 with the arrows indicating the causality of use dynamics.

Usability is referred to the potential or probability of employing a particular body of knowledge. *Usefulness* is related to the potential of a body of knowledge for producing an outcome that in turn could be evaluated as effective or ineffective in terms of the recipient’s goals or expectations. *Credibility* refers to the perceived quality of the research information. Concerning usefulness, there is a temporal and spatial dimension to be considered as knowledge or research information is likely to lose its usefulness over time or when moved out of a particular context. Moreover, the authors point out that the extent of knowledge use is determined not only by its perceived credibility but also by its potential to generate the desired results.

Xiao and Smith (2007) add that it is useful to examine the credibility, usefulness, and usability of tourism knowledge in the context of tacit versus explicit divisions, academic versus non-academic sources, dissemination formats, and industry-specific contents.

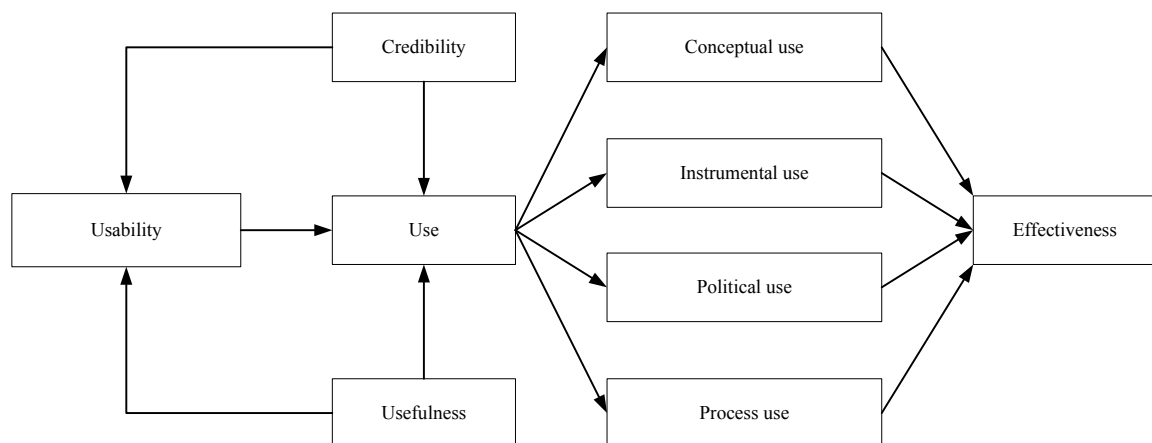


Figure 4.1 - The Conceptualization of Knowledge Use

Source: Xiao & Smith (2007)

In an attempt to simplify the multidimensional nature of knowledge use, researchers seem to have had an input/output model in mind to document the use of information or its impact.

Nevertheless, the assumptions behind this kind of models are not warranted, according to the empirical literature (Rich, 1997), mainly due to the following facts:

- 1) it is difficult to recognize a particular decision without analysing the series of events which led up to it;
- 2) it is almost impossible to forecast whether a particular knowledge input is likely to have an effect on a particular policy or decision.

In undertaking such a complex exercise, Weggeman (1997, cited in Ruhanen & Cooper, 2003) contends that it is essential to conceptualise knowledge management in terms of a “knowledge value chain” in order to locate the key stages of knowledge management from knowledge generation to diffusion and utilization.

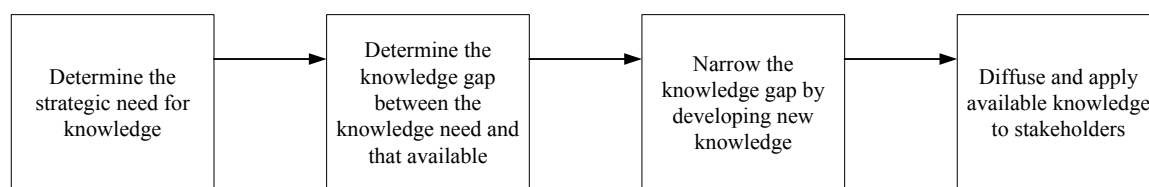


Figure 4.2 - The knowledge value chain

Source: adapted from Weggeman (1997, cited in Ruhanen & Cooper, 2003)

Weggeman distinguishes four succeeding constituent processes in knowledge management (Figure 4.2). Firstly, it is required to determine the strategic need for knowledge. Secondly, there is a need to determine the knowledge gap (this is the quantitative and qualitative difference between the knowledge needed and that available). Thirdly, this knowledge gap needs to be narrowed through the development of new knowledge, either by buying knowledge, by improving existing knowledge or by eliminating knowledge that is out of date or has become irrelevant. Fourthly, the available knowledge should be disseminated utilizing it to serve the interest of related stakeholders (Beijerse, 1999).

Considering the complexity of analysing objectively knowledge utilization processes, when it comes to evaluate it, in the context of tourism and IDC, this is even more challenging. It is important, therefore, to address some key issues within these fields of study. That is done in the next section.

4.2.2 Knowledge and learning in tourism destinations

Knowledge sharing is crucial in tourism industry and particularly at the destination level in order to be competitive as it involves partnerships and simultaneous competition between its members' organizations and diverse stakeholders (Scott & Laws, 2006). This is due to the actual conditions with which tourism operates such as a growing uncertainty, quickly developing technologies, shorter product life cycles, and more intrusive regulatory constraints (Scott & Laws, 2006). Therefore, as pointed out by prior authors (e.g. Cooper,

2006; Jafari, 1990), tourism destinations have been encouraged to develop knowledge infrastructures.

Knowledge management at the destination level is often the most appropriate analytical scale when considering tourism (Novelli et al., 2006; Shaw & Williams, 2009). This discussion spins around ownership and use of knowledge at the group level, considering industry clusters, learning regions, and inter-organizational knowledge networks (Michael, 2003; Novelli et al. 2006; Pechlaner, Abfalter, & Raich, 2002; Shaw & Williams, 2009). In order to understand the main issues associated to those dimensions, this analysis will be conducted within the following two items: i) networks, clustering and communities of practice in tourism; and ii) enablers and barriers to KT in tourism destinations.

i) Networks, clustering and communities of practice in tourism

In the tourism sector, networks and value chains have been characterised by vertical, horizontal and diagonal relationships which are based on information flows in which all stakeholders work to co-produce value (Nadkarni, 2008). In this perspective, this process should be maximized in order to create competitive advantage for the destination stakeholders, as it contributes to better plan for the future while reducing the risk of bad decision-making (Lemelin, 2006). Additionally, the formal and informal networks between actors contribute to mutual learning, information exchange and the innovation process, resulting often from long-term interactions within the local social capital (Saxena, 2005).

At the destination level, knowledge management can be focused on the micro-level or on the macro-level, as noted by Hislop, Newell, Scarborough, and Swan (1997). These authors state that knowledge articulation occurs in two types of networks of organizations attempting to innovate. The micro-level networks refer to organizations where knowledge is created and is fundamentally tacit and internal. This knowledge needs to be expanded to embrace knowledge stocks and flows within networks of organizations at the destination (Cooper, 2006). The macro-level is associated with the inter-organizational network, in which knowledge is transferred around the network and therefore tends to be explicit. According to Cooper (2006), this concept of articulation engages the gradual conversion of tacit, organizational matter into explicit information, which is transmitted through the network of organizations.

Shaw and Williams (2009) consider the following three distinctive articulations of networks when discussing the vehicles of KT that have particular relevance for tourism: 1) clusters/learning regions, 2) communities of practice; and 3) foreign direct investment. We will refer below only to the two former vehicles of KT, as the latter encompass a specific field of study that is beyond the scope of the present research.

1) Clusters/learning regions

Clusters/learning regions are constituted by territorial spaces where there is a strong, positive environment that encourages learning collecting and KT (Shaw & Williams, 2009). Porter (2000: 254) defines a cluster as “a geographically proximate group of inter-connected companies and associated institutions in a particular field, linked by commonalities and complementarities” that can act within a geographic scope of “a single city or state to a country or even a group of neighbouring countries”.

The concept of clusters/learning regions is based on two main ideas: that tacit knowledge is the key competitive advantage, and that proximity is crucial to develop strong levels of trust and common values which are decisive for effective knowledge sharing (Shaw & Williams, 2009; Bathelt, Malmberg, & Maskell, 2004). According to Shaw and Williams (2009), this proximity is most effective at the local and regional levels due to the modes wherein institutions are constituted. Learning engages, then, the reinforcement of practices of communities and the abilities of individuals to participate in those practices (Wenger, 1998).

An interesting extension to some of these arguments is given by Beesley (2005) about the importance of individual relationships concerning the collaboration between industry, government and research bodies in the tourism industry. Specifically, Beesley argues that KT is influenced by the cognitive and emotional difficulties that individuals experience when trying to engage with new knowledge or one that does not fit totally with their existing knowledge. Shaw and Williams (2009) add that there are significant associations to take into account here with the notion of trust and how this is articulated in learning regions and communities of practice.

Bathelt et al. (2004: 45) propose a knowledge and learning centred theory in which “information flows, gossip and news create a complex multilayered information and communication ecology” which they refer to as “local buzz”. This is based on shared values and attitudes which facilitate the local actors, located inside or outside the region, to engage in interactive learning and problem-solving. Bathelt et al. (2004: 45) point out that this does not mean that all regional actors and firms are part of the cluster and share its particular values and interpretative schemes.

2) Communities of practice

Other vehicle for KT in tourism outlined by Shaw and Williams (2009) is related with communities of practice. Wenger (2006) has highlighted the role of communities of practice (COPs) in creating new knowledge, having defined it as follows:

groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly [...] Communities of practice are formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour: a tribe learning to survive, a band of artists seeking new forms of expression, a group of engineers working on similar problems, a clique of pupils defining their identity in the school, a network of surgeons exploring novel techniques, a gathering of first-time managers helping each other cope.

COPs is not a new phenomenon as it has been present for centuries in diverse socio-economic contexts, but the term itself is recent. In fact it is still known under various names, such as learning networks, thematic groups, or others (Wenger & Snyder, 2000). While COPs play a key role in KT, it is worth to note that KT tends to be limited within it by the shared world view of its members, and therefore are rarely sources of radically new knowledge (Brown & Duguid, 1991; Shaw & Williams, 2009). Hence, it is essential that this locally embedded tacit knowledge is combined in novel ways with explicit and accessible external knowledge in order to create new value (Bathelt et al., 2004).

The concepts of networks, learning regions and COPs, terms often used interchangeably, are therefore intrinsically related to innovation, knowledge creation and learning. This process should result from interactive and exchange practices “where actors possessing different types of knowledge and competencies come together and exchange information with the aim

to solve some – technical, organizational, commercial or intellectual – problems” (Bathelt et al., 2004: 32). This exchange can be organized in different ways depending on the specific context.

Typically, if the knowledge involved is diffuse and tacit, as often occurs in the tourism context, the effectiveness of such interaction will depend to a great extent on the spatial proximity between the actors involved, implying for instance meeting repeatedly in person (Bathelt et al., 2004). Communication plays here a crucial role as this interactive process should always consider the different possible modes of operating it, whether through regular meetings, brainstorming, in-depth discussions, problem analysis, chatting, among others (Bathelt et al., 2004; Wenger & Snyder, 2000).

As noted by Wenger and Snyder (2000: 140), this process does not imply the existence of an explicit agenda on a given date, nor is it compulsory to follow the agenda strictly, as long as it is verified that it improves the sharing of people’s experiences and “knowledge in free-flowing, creative ways that foster new approaches to problems”. This perspective is of utmost importance when discussing KT processes among the diverse key players within a tourism destination.

ii) Enablers and barriers to KT in tourism destinations

The results of KT may be disappointing for the user if it is not recognized that this process involves the management of change, which means it needs time (Cooper, 2006). This factor may be seen as a barrier mainly if associated with some other barriers to KT like the cost of using that knowledge to some purposes (Cooper, 2006). Ahmed, Lim, and Loh (2002) add other relevant barriers associated with knowledge management implementation gaps, such as:

- The gap caused by organizations failing to link actions and decisions to what they know, somewhat through structures that militate against the creation of true learning environments, and that are more focused on tacit knowledge.
- Failure to transfer research and best practice to the end user, which can be related to a poor absorptive capability on the part of the user.

According to Cooper (2006), barriers to KT in tourism are related to its very nature, comprising small enterprises, fragmented across a variety of activities, with poor human resource practices resistant to the adoption of new knowledge. Consequently, “there is a lack of trust between the knowledge creators and those who might use it, due to the different cultures and vocabularies of differing communities of practice” (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Hjalager, 2002).

Differing communities of practice are related to the utilization theories known as the “two-community metaphor” formerly developed in the late 70s and early 80s (Caplan, 1979; Caplan, Morrison, & Stambaugh, 1975; Dunn, 1980; Weiss, 1979), but that is still influential today (Xiao & Smith, 2007). This theory suggests that knowledge producers (e.g. academics) and users (e.g. practitioners or policymakers) “reside in two culturally different worlds, each with different mandates, priorities, and norms, following different rules, and facing different restrictions or challenges” (Xiao & Smith, 2007: 317).

The lack of trust in the KT process may also result from the already mentioned lack of geographic proximity between the members or organizations in a tourism destination (Shaw

& Williams, 2009; Bathelt et al., 2004). Cooper (2006) identified other main barriers such as the real difficulties of transferring knowledge to operational adopters; and the current challenge of developing an industry that has the ability to apply available knowledge to respond to future shocks and an increasingly unstable operating environment.

On the other hand, some enablers are pointed out by Cooper (2006). The ability of organizations to respond to some inputs will depend in part on their existing knowledge (the greater the stocks, the more effective will be the assimilation of new knowledge). It will also depend upon the size, internal structure, division of labour, leadership, and competency profile of the receiving organization. This is determinant in the tourism sector where many of the users of knowledge lack experience in the field. Furthermore, Cooper (2006) adds the criteria that should be considered if knowledge is to be transferred successfully, namely accuracy, adaptability, adequacy, appeal, availability, ease of use, performance, and reliability.

4.2.3 Knowledge transfer and learning in International Development Cooperation

Many development and aid agencies are increasingly arguing for the crucial role of knowledge and learning for developing countries as a priority objective of development (McFarlane, 2006; Cracknell, 2001). Increasingly, as noted by Johnson (2007: 1), “the dynamics of learning and knowledge production are also seen as fundamental dimensions of partnerships, donor-client relations, and how consultants, advisers and other «experts» are used in development”. One example of this is the World Bank mission claimed for helping “people help themselves by providing resources, sharing knowledge, [and] building capacity [...]” (World Bank, 2011). This was acknowledged, for instance, with the Bank’s World Development Report of 1998/9 devoted to “knowledge and development” (World Bank, 1999) which placed knowledge as the main tool to alleviate poverty and contribute to economic growth. Other examples of development organizations following this trend may be cited (Cracknell, 2001): the DFID in UK has established its own “Knowledge Unit”, and the USAID, the American aid agency established in 1983 its “Centre for Development Information and Evaluation”.

Despite de recognition that knowledge is central to development, it is visible a growing disillusionment concerning the lack of evidence about the improvements achieved with those efforts (Cracknell, 2001). Indeed, even if development agencies like the World Bank claim to have moved towards a knowledge approach with the goal to become the “knowledge bank” (Mehta, 1999; Wenger & Snyder, 2000), it is still being criticized for applying a standard paternalistic methodology of knowledge dissemination or transmission instead of knowledge-based capacity building approaches (Ellerman, 2002).

The main problem is that many of those approaches rely on a rationalist (positivist) assumption (McFarlane, 2006) that a KT development intervention focused in decision-making processes will inherently improve decisions (Sheate & Partidário 2010; Cracknell, 2001). Nevertheless, this may be more complex than that. Several authors (e.g. Fukuda-Parr & Hill, 2002; McFarlane 2006; Sagasti & Alcalde, 1999) criticize the traditional rationalist paradigm of knowledge that has been often adopted in development contexts and that are based in two inter-related assumptions: 1) information and KT occur in a linear way, without

distortion; and 2) knowledge can be delivered unchanged as a development solution, as if it was a static entity.

Therefore, the traditional rationalist paradigm of knowledge corresponds to a “vision that perpetuates a North-South divide: poor countries are to draw on the knowledge of rich countries” (McFarlane, 2006: 289) that can “transplant” it to the South so they can start the developing process (Fukuda-Parr & Hill, 2002: 194). In this view it is assumed that knowledge must be originated in the “North” and is something that can be sent, received, circulated, transferred, accumulated, converted and stored (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; McFarlane, 2006; Sagasti & Alcalde, 1999). McFarlane (2006) refers to the World Bank as one example of applying this knowledge rationalist perspective in which the Bank and the North are the “senders” and the South the “receivers”, being knowledge conceived as having similar effects wherever applied, separated from context and politics.

Therefore, a more realistic paradigm of knowledge and capacity-building is demanded which should be based on three main assumptions (Fukuda-Parr & Hill, 2002: 194):

- (1) much of the knowledge on development resides in the South and not in the North (Denning, 2001);
- (2) knowledge resides not exclusively in individuals but also in institutional experiences and databases; and
- (3) capacity development is forwarded through “learning by doing”.

In this context, McFarlane (2006) argues that knowledge and learning should be conceived through a **process of translation** which, in a development context, refers to the creation of knowledge establishing links that didn't exist or were previously different resulting from **interactions through some form of participation in COPs** (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; Szulanski, 2000). Hence, “information is converted in knowledge through translation, as is knowledge to learning” (McFarlane, 2006: 298).

Translation of knowledge appears then in opposition with the concept of knowledge diffusion and transmission associated to the rationalist approach. McFarlane (2006) builds on a **post-rationalist approach to knowledge** that emphasises the crucial role of practices in knowledge creation and learning, the importance of conceiving **learning as a social process**, its dependence on particular times and spaces - **situatedness of knowledge**, that in turn makes it often highly political in the development contexts. Inherent to this view, knowledge and learning are always **dynamic and provisional** (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000). Moreover, in this approach knowledge and learning have also to consider the **tacit and explicit** dimensions (Polanyi, 1962, 1966; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995).

The post-rationalist approach of knowledge and learning focuses on the Wenger (1998) theory of COPs. This has turned out to provide a valuable perspective on knowing and learning, implying that learning is not a linear addition of information or knowledge but a “**transformation of knowing**” (Wenger 1998: 139). The concept of COPs has found diverse practical applications whether in business, organizational, design, government, education, professional associations, civic life, and development projects (Wenger, 2009).

Wenger (2009) points out the increasing overall recognition that a COP approach can provide a new paradigm for development work. Indeed, “some development agencies now see their role as conveners of such communities, rather than as providers of knowledge”

(Wenger, 2009: 4). In this context, it is being increasingly recognised that knowledge networks and COPs enable knowledge sharing and capacity-building (Kuramoto & Sagasti, 2002) and it is more critical than ever reshaping the agenda for the future of IDC (Fukuda-Parr & Hill, 2002).

A new model of development cooperation that addresses these issues is needed as to respond to the challenges of the “network age” and avoiding the limited impact that previous technical assistance schemes have had. This is defended by Kuramoto and Sagasti (2002: 196) for whom these KT limited results were mainly due to the fact that donors “have relied on the transference of generic information, without addressing the organizational, economic, financial and political constraints that shape and condition the use of cooperation and assistance in the recipient countries”.

Moreover, as argued by Fukuda-Parr et al. (2002), it is essential that the whole process inherent to a development intervention is initiated by the recipient. Accordingly, this should start from a deep understanding of the strategic need of knowledge, assessing the existing capabilities and potential of not only the individuals but also of the institutions and the society as a whole. If KT and learning is to be successful, it should be then undertaken considering a post-rationalist approach, appreciating the different local political interests involved and anticipating how conflicts might be solved in a way that permit the fully acquisition and application of knowledge where mostly needed.

In order to perpetuate this process granting positive results overtime and after a development intervention finishes, accountability plays a determinant role. This can be established, for instance, through a forum for all the involved stakeholders - including government and public sector, civil society, the private sector, and at least some of the development agencies’ players themselves - as long as it is managed in an open, participatory and demand-driven way (Fukuda-Parr et al., 2002: 17). In doing this it is encouraged the set of priorities and monitoring of progress in a transparent way, mainly in countries where governance structures are weak, making the necessary adjustments and reforms while helping to bridge a leadership gap.

4.3 Models of Knowledge Transfer

The noteworthy number of papers proposing KT models and frameworks reflect the increasing interest about it in recent years, attempting namely to show the transfer process, the key actors, the transfer channels, and influential factors (Duan et al., 2010). Nevertheless, as noted by Shaw and Williams (2009: 332), “many of the key concepts within the wider literature on knowledge management have not yet filtered into tourism research”. Furthermore, there is also a gap in the existing scientific literature on the application of KT frameworks onto the IDC studies. The comprehensive literature review conducted by Duan et al. (2010) led to a categorization of existing KT models into four main groups:

- 1) KT at the individual level - knowledge considered as embodied in people, being produced and developed with the involvement of individuals without which it is not possible to transfer knowledge and learning (e.g. model of Ipe, 2003).
- 2) KT at the intra-organisational level - KT considered as a process within the specific intra-organisational context (e.g. models of Szulanski, 2000; Goh, 2002).

- 3) **KT** at the inter-organisational level - developed in order to understand influential factors of **KT** between organisations mainly focused on the interfacing problem (e.g. model of Abou-Zeid, 2005).
- 4) **KT** at the transnational level - represent **KT** across different countries, or across-borders, which take place mainly through multi-national corporations, transnational organisations, international joint-ventures, and international projects aiming at helping developing countries through the support of governments, and development agencies (e.g. Duan et al., 2010; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008).

While none of the identified models about **KT** are concerned with the context of tourism and IDC, three of them were considered to be the most relevant for analysis in this section as they present interesting insights that can be valuable to conceptualize **KT** in tourism IDC context, as follows:

- The **intra-organisational KT model of Goh (2002)** proposes a comprehensive model that integrates key factors that have significant influence on effective **KT** and that can be applied to other contexts even in areas not directly related to the intra-organizational context.
- The **international KT model of Duan et al. (2010)** about the key factors affecting transnational **KT** success in the public funded sector, identifying the relationships among them and the main challenges faced in that context.
- The **international technology transfer (TT) model of Waroonkun and Stewart (2008)** accommodates significant factors believed to impact **TT** process' effectiveness and derived outcomes in developing countries.

It is aimed to get an integrated perspective of these three models in association with those reviewed in Chapter 2 getting a background for the development of a theoretical model proposal in Chapter 5. This will contribute to attain the main aim of this thesis in getting a critical perspective about the main factors that may influence the achievement of positive results in tourism and IDC programmes.

4.3.1 Intra-organisational Knowledge Transfer model of Goh

The intra-organisational **KT** model of Goh (2002) integrates key factors that facilitate **KT** in an organization and is based on the conclusions drawn from evidence of a programme of empirical research on a learning organization developed by Goh and Richards (1997). As illustrated in Figure 4.3, Goh proposes an integrated perspective about the key factors for an effective **KT** process within an organization.

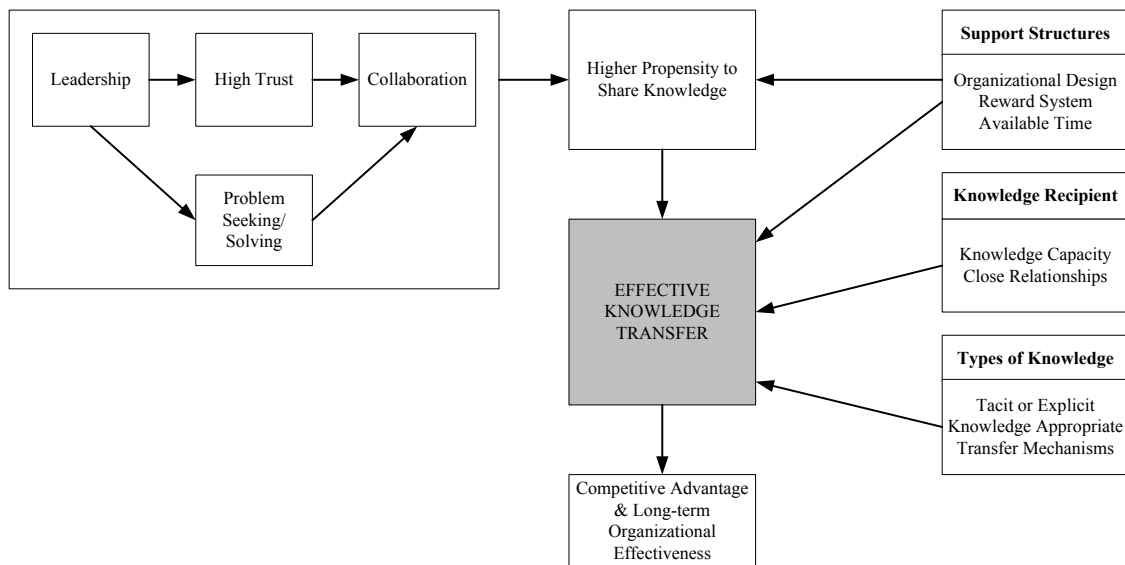


Figure 4.3 - An integrative framework: factors influencing effective KT

Source: Goh (2002)

Goh concludes that many organizations have focused more on the “hard” factors, like information technology and structured organizational processes, excluding important “soft” factors that are harder to develop and require a longer-term focus and effort. Therefore, in this model the “soft” factors of KT are emphasized. For instance, KT requires the *willingness* of a group or individual to work with others and share knowledge to their mutual benefit which demands a high level of *cooperative and collaborative culture*. It is considered that a fundamental variable in cooperation and a condition for a willingness to cooperate between groups or individuals is the *level of trust*. Additionally, it is placed a strong emphasis on solving the problems in a *group environment*, encouraging teams to share ideas and solutions to *solve identified problems*. *Leadership* constitutes a key factor for this knowledge sharing process to take place. This group of factors is represented in the left hand of the framework.

The other basic factors outlined in this model are the ones concerned with the *characteristics of the knowledge recipient*, the *characteristics of the knowledge source*, and the context in which the transfer occurs within the existing *support structures* (technology, training, and skill development, rewards and organizational design) (Goh, 2002). It is emphasized here the nature of the relationship between knowledge recipients and the source of knowledge. If this is distant, there are difficulties of *communication*, for instance due to a lack of *motivation* or *absorptive capacity* of the recipient, then KT may not be successful (Goh, 2002). Finally and as widely discussed in the scientific literature, it is placed a great importance on the *types of knowledge* to be transferred, i.e. whether the content of the knowledge is tacit or explicit.

Whilst the model of Goh (2002) integrates interesting key factors that may have significant influence on the effectiveness of any KT process, its intra-organizational level presents some limitations when the aim is to apply it to the IDC context. The main drawback here is the lack of specific references to the influence that the characteristics of the knowledge source

may have on the effectiveness of that process. Instead reference is made to the *support structures* within the organizational context which is not applicable to the context of IDC.

Nevertheless, when analysing other models of the same kind in the scientific literature, it can be considered that this one systematizes objectively key factors of effective KT that are not only applicable to the intra-organizational context but to broader contexts like that of IDC. Therefore, bearing in mind the aim of identifying specific critical success factors in the context of IDC in tourism projects, it was considered that the main insights provided by Goh's model are about the following key factors: *willingness of sharing knowledge, trust, communication, and leadership* as determinants for solving problems in a shared environment, on one hand; and on the other hand, *specific characteristics of the knowledge recipient and the types of knowledge* to be transferred, as well as the context in which the *KT process* occurs.

4.3.2 International Knowledge Transfer model of Duan, Nie and Coakes

The international KT model of Duan et al. (2010) analyses key factors affecting transnational KT success in the public funded sector, identifying the relationships among them and the main challenges faced in that context. Their research reached the conclusion that transnational KT models appear to have been limited to the context of multi-national corporations, transnational organisations, and international joint-ventures. Attempting to fill this gap, Duan et al. (2010) developed a conceptual model about the key factors affecting transnational KT success in the public funded sector, recognizing as major challenges the following aspects: its participants are often separated by space, time, culture and language, factors that may constrain their ability to access, share, and absorb knowledge successfully.

With this perspective, the model of Duan et al. (2010) was explored and verified empirically, presenting a comprehensive coverage of key elements based on an extensive literature review, according to the authors. It was applied a Delphi method to analyse and map out the identified factors using a four-component framework previously developed by Albino and Schiuma (1998). The data was collected from a panel of twenty experts who had extensive knowledge and experience in transnational KT through the European Commission's "Europe Aid Asia Programme". This is a programme that promotes and funds cross-country and cross-continent KT projects. The main research question was the following: "What are the most salient factors that affect transnational KT success in the context of publically funded projects?" (Duan et al., 2010: 356).

All factors identified were structured into four main components (Figure 4.4), namely: *Actors, Context, Content, and Media*. The following ten factors were highly rated in the research Delphi rounds being highlighted in bold in each box: *relationship, culture awareness, language, motivation, knowledge distance, objectives and focus, transfer channel, selection of appropriate partners, trust, and openness*.

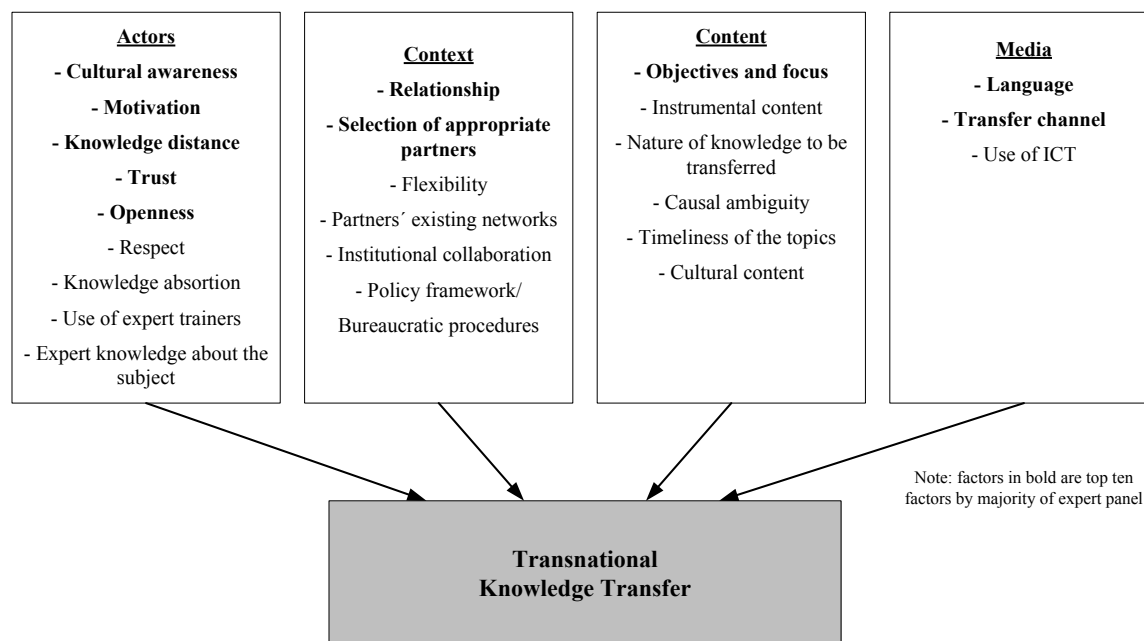


Figure 4.4 - Framework for analysing factors affecting transnational KT

Source: Duan et al. (2010)

Duan et al. (2010) research expert's panel also identified a number of factors they considered not formally recognised in prior research, such as: objectives and focus; selection of appropriate partners; respect; use of expert trainers; project flexibility; institutional collaboration; expert subject knowledge; policy framework/bureaucratic procedures; and topic timeliness.

Although the findings from Duan et al. (2010) can assist practitioners in developing a focused approach based on a set of factors that may affect successful KT in a transnational context, this model presents some limitations. Firstly, it does not explain the importance and relationships between the factors, nor its role in the different phases of an ID funded project. Secondly, it does not distinguish among factors related to the sources and recipients of knowledge in transnational contexts, nor it is made any references to the process of KT itself.

Despite the identified limitations, the model of Duan et al. (2010) provides some contributes to be potentially considered in the new model proposal in the context of IDC within tourism development projects. Although the Delphi panel highlighted ten key factors among all the factors proposed, the ones considered most relevant to incorporate in our model proposal are the following: *culture awareness, motivation, transfer channel, trust, knowledge absorption, nature of knowledge to be transferred, and timeliness.*

4.3.3. International technology transfer model of Waroonkun and Stewart

In an attempt to improve rates of technology transfer (TT) in developing countries Waroonkun and Stewart (2008) developed a conceptual model for international TT that

accommodates the significant factors they believed to impact on the processes' effectiveness and derived outcomes. This model includes the analysis of the degree of *value added* resulting from the impact of those identified factors, as well as the significance of direct and indirect interrelationships between them. This was determined through structural equation modelling and formulated through an extensive previous research in the field of international TT. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis were conducted, utilizing the results from a questionnaire survey of 162 construction industry professionals from Thailand.

Aiming at capturing all of the relevant factors that influence the effectiveness of the TT process and the resulting value added, the conceptual TT model includes four *process enablers* - *transfer environment*, *transferor characteristics*, *transferee characteristics*, and *learning environment* - and one outcome factor named *TT value added* (Figure 4.5).

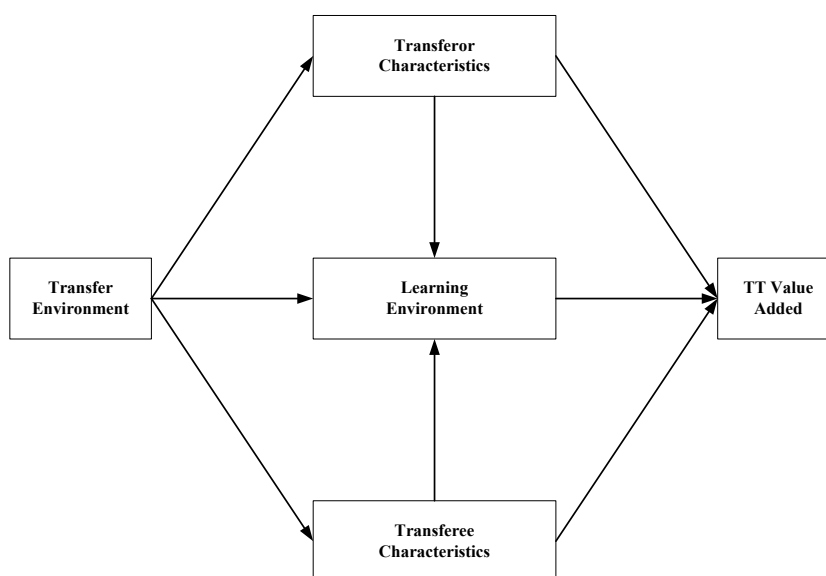


Figure 4.5 - Conceptual model for international TT in construction projects

Source: Waroonkun & Stewart (2008)

The key factors identified were categorized into variables taken from previous studies, having been their relationship conceptualized in the construction context. The hypothesized causal path between each enabling and outcome factors represented by the arrows are depicted in Figure 4.5. A summary of these factors and their associated variables is presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 - TT process enabling and value creation factors and variables

Factors	Description of variables
ENABLERS	
Transfer environment	Complexity of construction technology Mode of transfer Government policy Government enforcement
Learning environment	Culture Trust

Factors	Description of variables
ENABLERS	
	Understanding Communication Commitment Teamwork Training Local sub-contractors Supervision
Transferor characteristics	Willingness to implement Degree of experience Transferor management Knowledge base
Transferee characteristics	Willingness to learn Degree of experience Transferee management Knowledge base
VALUE CREATION	
Economic advancement	Competitiveness Performance
Knowledge advancement	Improved knowledge Improved working practices Long-term adoption of transferred skills
Project performance	Financial performance Schedule performance Quality performance

Source: Waroonkun & Stewart (2008)

Due to their relevance for our study, the factors that make up this model and that are more relevant for the current research can be briefly described as follows (Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008):

- **Transfer environment:** macro level mostly concerned with the impact of country and construction related factors on the TT process. It is highlighted the impact on the effectiveness of TT initiatives generated by the *host government's policies, regulations and enforcement practices*, especially their international and domestic political system.

- **Learning environment:** focused on the relationship between the transferor and the transferee, it is highlighted the *cultural characteristics* and the distance between the technology provider and receiver as well as the necessity of building a culture of mutual *trust* through effective *communication* and *commitment* between them.

- **Transferor and transferee characteristics:** degree to which the *characteristics of the transferor and the transferee* encourage the TT process. For a successful TT, the transferor *willingness* to transfer the appropriate technology and the transferee *intention to adopt* is fundamental as well as the level of international *experience* of both of them. The capacity to transfer and adopt new technology will also depend on each individual's *knowledge base*. It is also highlighted the transferor and transferee *cultural traits*, namely leadership, style, ego, among others.

TT induced value creation: the outcome factor of the model is centred on the degree of value added transferred to the host construction sector induced by the performance of, and interrelationship between, the above-mentioned TT enablers. This is structured according to three main factors: *economic advancement* (better living

standards and economic prospects in the long-term); *knowledge advancement* (the transfer of explicit and tacit knowledge to the host workers is the initial outcome that, if accepted, should lead to improve working practices in the immediate and long-term); *project performance* (improvements in the performance of financial, schedule and quality indicators considered major objectives in effective TT in construction projects).

Waroonkun and Stewart (2008) noted that it is not enough to just expect that TT will naturally occur as the processes that support it should be continuously evaluated to ensure that knowledge and skills are effectively absorbed by the transferee. They consider that the international TT model could be utilized to assist government officers in developing countries to better evaluate TT performance as well as multilateral development agencies with tools to better monitor the performance of the TT process.

It can be concluded that whilst this model was developed considering the specific context of the Thai construction sector, it presents a comprehensive and structured approach that can be applied to IDC projects. Nevertheless, as the methods applied were quantitative, it can be considered that some of the relevant key factors identified could be refined if subject to qualitative analysis interpretation. Indeed, as reviewed in the models presented in Chapter 2, it has been increasingly recognised the importance of adopting qualitative and participatory analysis (DFID, 1999) as a way of providing a full understanding of some complex factors affecting the success of IDC programmes. Additionally, the TT model presents a rational and linear causal hierarchical structure which should be avoided favouring dynamic and interactive key factors.

Whilst having into consideration the above limitations, the TT model provides essential contributes to the development of a new model in KT IDC projects. The different phases of TT and the specific context key factors of developing countries considered are particularly pertinent for our context of analysis. The key factors identified in the TT model which are considered the more relevant to support a KT model in tourism and IDC are the following: the *transfer environment* (*government enforcement and policy*); the *learning environment* (*trust, culture, communication, commitment, teamwork*); the *transferor characteristics* (*willingness to implement, degree of experience, and knowledge base*); and the *transferee characteristics* (*willingness to learn, degree of experience, and knowledge base*).

4.4 Summary of critical success factors for effective knowledge transfer

Considering the above arguments and the main conceptual ideas that came out of the literature review conducted in this chapter, the development of a new model should therefore consider the following rationale and critical success factors:

- KT and utilization should be maximized in order to create competitive advantage for the tourism destinations, as it contributes to better plan for the future improving decision-making processes (Lemelin, 2006).
- Tourism destinations have been encouraged to develop knowledge infrastructures and use knowledge at the group level, considering industry clusters, learning regions, and inter-organizational knowledge networks (Novelli et al., 2006; Pechlaner et al., 2002; Shaw & Williams, 2009).

- Knowledge and learning in a development context should be conceived through a process of translation (“transformation of knowing”) which refers to the creation of knowledge establishing links that didn’t exist or were different before resulting from *interactions* through some form of participation in *communities of practice* (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; McFarlane, 2006; Szulanski, 2000; Wenger 1998), providing a new paradigm for development work.
- Much of the knowledge on development resides in the recipient developing countries and not in the donor organizations (Denning, 2001), not exclusively in individuals but also in institutional experiences and databases (Fukuda-Parr & Hill, 2002).
- Development agencies should act as “conveners” or “knowledge brokers” rather than as “providers of knowledge” (Weidenfeld et al., 2010: 607; Wenger, 2009).
- Capacity development is forwarded through “learning by doing” which in turn is a social process (Fukuda-Parr & Hill, 2002: 194), varying with particular times and spaces (*situatedness of knowledge*), being often dependent on local political contexts (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; McFarlane, 2006).
- Learning and knowledge are encouraged by **clusters or learning regions** with a potential to create a positive environment throughout the territorial spaces involved (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; McFarlane, 2006).
- Knowledge utilization and learning integrate the tacit and explicit dimensions (*types of knowledge*) (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Polanyi, 1962, 1966).
- Analysing the process of KT implies the identification of factors associated to the *sources/adopter characteristics* (knowledge base and absorptive capacity), innovation, and organizational structure, characteristics and effectiveness of knowledge flows, among others (Cooper, 2006; Duan et al., 2010).
- Accountability concerning development impacts plays a determinant role.

With this background, along with the insights provided by the comprehensive literature review conducted in Chapters 2 and 3, we consider now that it is gathered the necessary knowledge and awareness to proceed for the development of a new model about KT in tourism and development cooperation.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the most influential concepts and theories about KT&LE, systematizing the main issues that should be addressed when examining issues of tourism and IDC. Knowledge is increasingly being required for more effective and efficient decision-making and as a necessary and sustainable source of competitive advantage. This is even more evident in emergent tourism destinations in developing countries. In parallel, the recognition that knowledge plays a crucial role in development has led to an increasing multiplicity of initiatives for IDC and KT into developing countries (Sagasti & Alcalde, 1999).

Nevertheless, as noted by Duan et al. (2010), while all KT processes face various obstacles, cross-border KT is even more demanding due to cross-cultural, geographical, economic, and

political gaps. As a result, understanding how knowledge can be transferred within these challenging contexts is extremely important. Furthermore, the achievement of positive development cooperation results is increasingly demanding evidences of impacts more than outputs and outcomes, as has also been discussed in Chapter 2. This implies further attention to development interventions in tourism destinations focused on processes that lead to long-term results and thus more centred on joint and long-standing collaborative knowledge and learning processes.

There is a need then to call for a more integrative approach concerning the way IDC is conceived and implemented. To accomplish this, in this chapter it was explored and highlighted the key factors affecting KT and learning. Specifically, it was intended to further understand the complexities of KT and learning in the tourism and IDC contexts. We reached the general conclusion that considerable attention is being devoted to harnessing KT following post-rationalist approaches as opposed to the linear rationalist approaches to IDC that traditionally have dominated development paradigms.

Understanding the importance that this perspective assumes when discussing critical success factors for tourism and IDC led to raise awareness for the need to develop a new model. Indeed, while post-rationalist KT has been widely favoured over rationalist approaches within the scientific community in the last decade, this seems to have been neglected by the development community. This becomes evident when reviewing IDC conceptual models, as presented in Chapter 2, none of which seem to clearly incorporate the overall dynamic dimensions associated to KT as a “translation” process. Conversely, in the KT models reviewed it was not found any that illustrates all the key factors in an integrative manner although we should mention that the most relevant were indeed found in a somewhat disperse manner throughout the three presented models.

The above arguments justify the relevance of this study in attempting to contribute towards enhancing the scientific discussion about these matters and in particular to develop a new model that integrates the identified critical success factors that can be applied to broader contexts of IDC projects for tourism development. This is the rationale for the forthcoming Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK OF INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION IN TOURISM: THE IDCT MODEL

5.1 Introduction

After having reviewed in the previous chapters the literature about IDC, tourism development and KT and learning theories applied to those contexts, it became clear that KT and learning approaches represent a huge potential for enhancing the effectiveness of IDC programmes in general, and specifically, when tourism is assumed as the main tool for development. Nevertheless, it was identified a gap concerning an integrated approach linking these fields of study with none of the reviewed models reflecting the main dimensions and key factors that could support the analysis of success in IDC programmes within the tourism system.

It was therefore considered very relevant to deepen the analysis of these areas of study proposing a theoretical model about IDC programmes in Tourism that emphasizes KT&LE as a central dimension for the effectiveness of these programmes. This will be termed as the **IDCT Model** and its main aim is to provide grounds for responding to the main research question of this thesis:

- **How can IDC in tourism be successful and contribute to the achievement of positive development changes?**

In order to find out those grounds, a set of **critical success factors** for IDC in tourism programmes were identified and systematized through the literature review conducted in Chapters 2, 3, and 4. This will constitute the base from which the rationale for the IDCT model will be explained and will then be complemented with the other important insights, such as those provided by the reviewed models and data collected in the field in preliminary stages of study.

The first section of the chapter (Section 5.2) is, therefore, concerned with the structured presentation of the set of arguments that support the IDCT model. In section 5.3, the model is described, being subdivided in its respective main dimensions (subsections 5.3.1 to 5.3.6). The conclusions of the chapter are presented in section 5.4.

5.2 Rationale for the model proposal

The recognition that knowledge plays a crucial role in development has led to an increasing multiplicity of initiatives for development cooperation and the exchange of knowledge

between developed and developing countries (Sagasti & Alcalde, 1999). Nevertheless, whilst few KT models were developed either for the intra and inter-organisational levels as well as for the transnational KT activities, so far we found no work that examined the main dimensions of KT and learning at the IDC level in the tourism development context. The next sections synthesize the main grounds that led to the development of the IDCT model.

5.2.1 Review of critical success factors for International Development Cooperation programmes in tourism

Considering the main conceptual ideas that came out of the literature review conducted in chapters 2, 3, and 4, it is the right timing to systematize the theoretical insights that can sustain the comprehension of the main dimensions and critical success factors for IDC programmes in tourism. With this overview, it will be then easier to understand the premises in which the construction of the IDCT model was settled. These critical success factors will be presented in two subsections: i) Principles sustaining IDC programmes in tourism; ii) Key factors for IDC programmes in tourism.

i) Principles sustaining IDC programmes in tourism

As reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3, a new development paradigm is demanded and there is still the search for new approaches to tourism IDC. These approaches should avoid neoliberal models and tourism projects with only local and limited impacts, seeking effective, long-term partnerships among all the stakeholders. It is believed that the following principles constitute major pillars in this process:

- IDC programmes should be focused on ownership and empowerment of individuals to take charge of identifying and meeting their own needs as leaders of all development processes (Cole, 2006; Eade, 2007; Rowlands, 1995).
- Tourism should be considered as a system including elements of demand and supply (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2002; Gunn & Var, 2002; Hall, 2008; Inskip, 1991; Leiper, 1979; Mill & Morrison, 1992; Wall & Mathieson, 2006). It is this level of analysis that should determine under what conditions tourism may work effectively as a tool for development in such a way that guarantees that at least its benefits are higher than the potential associated costs (Lima et al., 2014).
- More than structuring IDC programmes orientated for immediate and short-term results, it is important to consider the implications of the programmes as a natural lifecycle putting the focus of analysis on different levels of results. This means that the achievement of success should not be limited to the accomplishment of the programmes' terms of reference (Font et al., 2012) but go further ahead in considering the influence it may have on development changes in the medium and long-term.

ii) Key factors for IDC programmes in tourism

Following the outlined principles and considering that the effectiveness of IDC programmes is directly related with its influence on the achievement of development changes throughout

different phases of results with a focus on the long-term, it is considered as a determinant dimension the KT&LE processes throughout all the stages of a programme. This transversal dimension will be central for the construction of the IDCT model being associated to all the identified critical success factors for IDC programmes in tourism. These factors were outlined in Chapter 4 and are resumed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 - Summary of principles for KT in IDC programmes

Principles for KT effectiveness	Aspects to be addressed by IDC programmes
Good governance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transparent and participated processes of decision-making. - Role played by the State on equity and redistribution. - Community participation and networks: trust, dialogue and communication among stakeholders from the private, public sectors and the civil society.
Knowledge infrastructures and KT at the group level	- Competitive advantages for the tourism destinations through better planning for the future, triggering industry clusters, learning regions, and inter-organizational knowledge networks.
Valorisation of local knowledge and “learning by doing”	- Capacity development through the recognition of the value of local existing knowledge in its diverse sources (e.g. individuals, institutions, databases) and “learning by doing”.
Knowledge brokerage	- IDC agents should act as “convener” rather than as “providers of knowledge”.
<i>Situatedness of knowledge</i>	- Knowledge varies with particular times and spaces.
Interactions of <i>types of knowledge</i>	- Knowledge utilization and learning integrate interactions between tacit and explicit knowledge.
<i>Interactions of actors</i>	- Translation of knowledge and learning through <i>interactions</i> of actors through some form of participation in <i>communities of practice</i> .
<i>Characteristics of the sources/ adopter of knowledge</i>	- Analysing the process of KT implies the identification of factors associated to the <i>sources/adopter characteristics</i> (knowledge base and absorptive capacity), innovation, and organizational structure, characteristics and effectiveness of knowledge flows.

5.2.2 Insights from the reviewed models

Combining the models discussed in Chapter 2, related to IDC, and those concerning KT in Chapter 4, it was concluded that while there are many factors that affect the effectiveness of IDC interventions, on one hand, and KT at different levels, on the other, there is a need to carry out further research that explores new and context-specific factors within the tourism development context. The reviewed models provided useful contributions regarding this goal and thus their main insights for the construction of the IDCT model will then be systematized below in the following order: i) Insights of IDC models; ii) Insights of KT models.

i) Insights of IDC models

From the four reviewed models about IDC - SL framework of DFID (1999), Causality Chain model of Bourguignon and Sundberg (2007), Project Network model of Ahsan and Gunawan (2010), Results-Based-Management of UNDP (2009b) - one common feature that

is highlighted is the necessity of considering a development project as a whole in all the stages of its lifecycle as to guarantee its successful completion. However, the models explore different forms of analysis, focusing on different goals and approaches, being difficult to find a common pattern that can be applied to a diversified range of IDC projects. Table 5.2 systematizes the main insights of each model that were considered more relevant for the construction of a new model.

Table 5.2 - Synthesis of the main insights of IDC models

Model	Aims	Main Insights
SL framework of DFID (1999)	Focused on poverty reduction projects: different perspectives about key factors that affect livelihoods, their relative importance and the way in which they interact.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Central block of “Transforming Structures & Processes”: ○ “Structures” influence including different levels of government and private sector. ○ “Processes” influence including destination culture, policies, laws and institutions that characterize the <i>transferee</i>. ○ Consideration of the changes verified at the organizational, community and policy levels. - Qualitative approaches recommended to analyse results.
Causality chain model of Bourguignon & Sundberg (2007)	Projects focused on technical assistance and loans: analyses links between donor inputs and development outcomes through a causality chain.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Relevance attributed to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ the influence of the characteristics of development agencies (transferor), of the destination country (transferee) and of IDC programmes. ○ The important role of governance for the application of the needed policies. ○ The necessity of control the outcomes in a systematic way along with the “chain” (project life-cycle). - Necessity of analysing projects in an interactive way and applying qualitative approaches.
Project network model of Ahsan & Gunawan (2010)	Focused on funded “hard” IDC programmes (e.g. contracts, civil works and land acquisition, consultant recruitment): analysis of project’s life cycle and the most influencing key factors and actors in each stage.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Systematization of the main stages of a project lifecycle fitting both donor and host country (project identification, preparation, appraisal and approval, implementation and evaluation). - Relevance attributed to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ the complex relationships between the various stakeholders involved in the five project’s stages. ○ the analysis of key factors such as communication and trust among the stakeholders involved.
Results-Based-Management approaches (UNDP, 2009b)	Focused on technical assistance (e.g. UNDP IDC programmes): structured through a causality analysis where certain <i>inputs</i> and <i>activities</i> lead to certain results (<i>outputs-outcomes-impacts</i>).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Structured through a lifecycle, following a causality where certain inputs and activities lead to certain results, if certain conditions are verified. - Emphasis on the analysis of that causality between interventions and results at different stages: the most basic results (outputs) contribute to the success of the most complex results (outcomes) and finally lead to the most far-reaching results - effective development (impacts). - Emphasis on such elements as partnering for development change, capacity building, ownership, promoting knowledge and learning regarding monitoring and evaluation. - Preference for qualitative analysis when analysing each stage of the project and progress towards results.

The review of these models highlighted some common features related with the attempts to develop tools that support the complex assignment of measuring performance and demonstrable results through planning, monitoring and evaluation throughout the diverse phases of the projects.

The problem here seems to be the difficulty of developing methodologies and accurate indicators to fulfil that purpose. Due to the specificities of each project and its complex nature, most of the models and approaches are increasingly giving preference for qualitative participatory analysis focused at a local level so as to understand its critical success factors. This is even more relevant when working in the tourism context which embraces the complexity inherent to the tourism system and the diverse views of all its stakeholders.

On the other hand, and as discussed in Chapter 2, one of the main limitations of the reviewed models is the lack of integration in all the phases of the project's lifecycle of key factors of the **KT** post-rationalist approaches reviewed in Chapter 4. Indeed, although some of these factors are taken into account, they concern essentially the processes of monitoring and evaluation procedures within the **IDC** community. This is one of the main reasons that justifies the necessity of developing a new model that incorporates **KT** post-rationalist principles associating it to some of the most important key factors provided by the reviewed **IDC** models.

ii) Insights of **KT** models

The three reviewed models of **KT** - Intra-organisational **KT** model of Goh (2002), International **KT** model of Duan et al. (2010), International **TT** model of Waroonkun and Stewart (2008) - provided useful insights about the most relevant key factors that are important to consider when explaining the critical success factors of **IDC** projects focused on **KT&LE** approaches. Table 5.3 systematizes the main insights of each model that were considered more relevant for the construction of the **IDCT** model.

Table 5.3 - Synthesis of the main insights of **KT models**

Model	Aims	Main Insights
Intra-organisational KT model of Goh (2002)	Integrated perspective about the key factors that influence effective KT processes within a learning organization.	Emphasis on: - The “soft” factors of KT (e.g. willingness to share knowledge, group environment, level of trust, leadership, absorptive capacity). - The characteristics of the knowledge recipient. - The characteristics of the knowledge source. - The nature of the relationship between the knowledge recipients and the sources of knowledge. - Types of knowledge to be transferred.
International KT model of Duan et al. (2010)	Focused on the key factors affecting transnational KT success in the publically funded sector projects.	Major challenges identified in transnational projects : - Participants separated by space, time, culture and language (may constrain ability to access, share, and absorb knowledge successfully). - Relevant key factors like culture awareness, motivation, transfer channel, trust, knowledge absorption, nature of knowledge to be transferred, and timeliness.
International TT model of Waroonkun & Stewart (2008)	Focused on the key factors with impact on the processes of technology transfer in developing countries.	Analysis of four process enablers that will be key for the new model: - Transfer environment (e.g. host government's policies, regulations and enforcement practices, political system). - Transferor and transferee characteristics (e.g. willingness, experience, knowledge base, cultural traits). - Learning environment - relationship between the transferor and the transferee (e.g. cultural characteristics, trust, communication, commitment).

From the three reviewed models, the International TT model of Waroonkun and Stewart (2008) was considered the one that systematizes better the key factors associated to any process of KT within IDC projects. In fact, even though this was developed by taking into consideration the context of technology transfer in construction IDC projects, that model conceptualizes a set of key factors in such a way that makes it very relevant to be applied to broader development contexts. It is intended to refine some of them following a qualitative analysis interpretation in an integrated perspective with RBM approaches and KT post-rationalist principles.

5.2.3 Insights provided by the fieldwork

When the epistemological question of this thesis was discussed in the introductory chapter (Section 1.3.1), it became clear that this would involve a weaving back and forth between data collection and theory, thus interrelating inductive and deductive approaches. The construction of the IDCT model resulted precisely from this interchangeable research process. Therefore, as will be explained in Chapter 6, it was fundamental for the construction of the model the ongoing contrast between the literature review together with the ensuing models and the actual reality observed in the field, thus reaffirming our commitment as regards the search for a useful and comprehensive tool for analysing the critical success factors among IDC programmes.

The analysis of that reality was possible by the realisation of an exploratory study conducted by the researcher in a preliminary phase of the study which involved her direct participation *in situ* throughout the various stages of the IDC case study programme, both as a UNWTO.Volunteers student and as a volunteer in the field. The resultant analysis of the collected data has shaped the researcher's view of the theory and vice-versa (Bryman, 2008) making it possible to build the most relevant dimensions and key factors from the "bottom-up", extracting from it more abstract units of information (Creswell, 2007: 38). This process led to the development of a complete set of categories (Creswell, 2007) finally leading to the IDCT model proposal described below.

5.3 Description of the IDCT model

It was based on the above remarks that the IDCT model was developed as illustrated in Figure 5.1. After presenting the main pillars of its structure, each dimension and key factors will be detailed in the respective subsections.

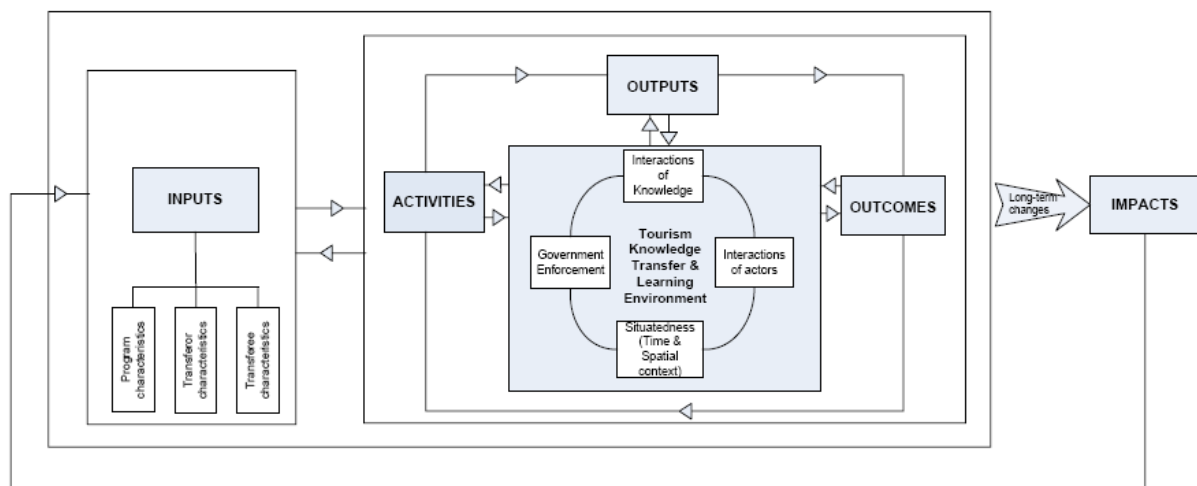


Figure 5.1 - IDCT Conceptual Model

Through a process of classification of five core **dimensions** (*Inputs, Activities, Outputs, Outcomes, Impacts*) which are coincident with the main phases of the RBM frameworks, together with a KT&LE transversal as a central dimension, it was identified a set of relevant **key factors** (represented in the white boxes).

The central section of the model corresponds to the whole process of KT&LE which is illustrated as a transversal dimension to be considered in each phase of the programme. This is to point out the dynamic nature associated to this particular transforming process of knowledge translations from which the results of each core dimension will depend. The key factors considered in this central frame follow post-rationalist approaches as opposed to the linear rationalist ones. This presupposes *interactions among actors* who exchange *tacit and explicit knowledge* throughout communities of practice and in turn that process varies within particular times and spaces (*situatedness of knowledge*), being often dependent on local political contexts and *government enforcement*.

On the left hand of the model, the *Inputs* dimension is separate from the central frame so as to pinpoint its foundational character almost as if we were dealing with bare “raw materials” from which the subsequent IDC programme will evolve. The composition of these “raw materials” is made up from 3 essential characteristics (*Programme, Transferor* and *Transferee*) detailed further ahead in Table 5.4.

We therefore arrive at the central frame of the model where three dimensions are represented (*Activities, Outputs* and *Outcomes*). At its core we find the KT&LE transversal dimension which feeds and interacts with those dimensions. Hence, it is considered the heart that keeps the rest of the body alive and makes it thrive. The intervention of this central cycle already begins with the *Activities* dimension which encompasses all the necessary actions to put into practice in any IDC programme. This ranges from preliminary actions such as training courses and preparatory logistic procedures to fieldwork activities and subsequent reporting. These activities will give rise to a given *Output* such as a diagnosis of the actual state of affairs or a strategic tourist development plan. It is expected that an *Outcome* would ensue by implementing the recommendations previously stated. Additionally, these intermediate results may reciprocally imply a reboot of the activities

dimension in order to improve future actions. In an ideal world these cycles would tend to take place in a reasonably limited span of time (short-medium term) being able to improve the programme's performance still before its completion through the implementation of the necessary corrective measures. This time frame is the reason why the central block stands apart from the ensuing *Impacts* dimension.

Hence, it is ultimately desirable that this set of interrelated dimensions will give birth to the *Impacts* which refer to long-term meaningful and sustainable development changes. Due to the longer time span involved, this *Impacts* dimension falls outside the core of the model. Indeed, the *Impacts* dimension will naturally tend to take place over a considerably longer period and its effects will irremediably be linked to long lasting development changes which in turn should re-shape the whole outlook of intervention planning. The *Impacts* dimension at the same time is intrinsically linked, through the representation of the respective arrow, to the initial *Inputs* dimension over which it will hopefully exert its influence and, therefore, lead to the improvement of future IDC programmes.

In the next sections, each dimension of the IDCT model will be presented with more detail in the following order: *Inputs* (5.3.1), *KT&LE* (5.3.2), *Activities* (5.3.3), *Outputs* (5.3.4), *Outcomes* (5.3.5), and *Impacts* (5.3.6). A table with a summary of key factors is presented regarding the *Inputs*, *KT&LE*, and *Impacts*. The reason why the same is not done for the three dimensions that compose the central block of the model - *Activities*, *Outputs*, *Outcomes* - is because the respective key factors will be considered through a suggested cross-analysis with the *KT&LE* transversal dimension.

5.3.1 Inputs

The *Inputs* dimension contains key factors that rely on the particular *characteristics of the programme* (i), and the *characteristics of the transferor and the transferee* (ii). Each of these key factors will be explained below and then synthesized in Table 5.4.

i) Characteristics of the programme

The key factor *characteristics of the programme* relates mainly to the general characteristics and the specifications of the agreement arrangements established about the conditions on which the development intervention shall take place. This will depend generally on a Technical Agreement Programme signed between the parties. Thus, this key factor can be analysed considering the following descriptive specifications (de Lange & Feddes, 2008):

- Type of strategy - it can be *planned*, based on planning, control and intentionality, leading to planned change; *incremental*, by means of adjustments and small interventions, looking for opportunities, trying different strategies, adjusting to different conditions; *emergence*, adapting to complex and uncertain conditions; *capacity development*, stimulated by performance results.
- Type of approach by external interveners - it can be *direct*, taking responsibility for the realisation of a development intervention; or *indirect*, assuming a facilitating or supportive role, influencing contextual factors, providing legitimacy, joint learning,

co-production, partnership through networking, experimental interventions, supporting local processes and relationships, connecting to international networks.

- Type of instruments and resources – the programme may be developed in the *long-term*, *short-term*, or be *ad-hoc*; it may involve *financial support* or just *technical assistance*, moral support, protection, lobby; *technology* and *information* or just *human resources* (e.g. volunteers, experts and local stakeholders).

The *characteristics of the programme* should be adapted to the specific context of the development intervention, considering the characteristics of the destinations, the kind of stakeholders to involve, the expected outcomes by the local counterpart and other aspects that should be previously established in an exploratory mission at the beginning of the programme. Some other aspects to consider are: the logistical conditions to develop the programme; political support; geographical and administrative areas to be intervened; number and profile of actors involved (e.g. experts, local stakeholders, volunteers), among other specificities. Such aspects will be determinant for the KT process and inherent development results.

ii) Characteristics of the Transferor and the Transferee

The key factors *characteristics of the transferor and characteristics of the transferee* are considered by several authors determinant to the extent to which they encourage the KT process (e.g. Goh, 2002; Szulanski, 1996; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008). In this context, it is important to distinguish among different types of knowledge sources (the transferor) and recipients (the transferee) (Goh, 2002). In the context of IDC, and following the specifications of de Lange and Feddes (2008), the former can be analysed according to the type or level of organization (e.g. institutional, organisational, individual, or a network of organisations) while the latter may consider such aspects as type of country context (e.g. level of income, small-island state, land-locked, fragile state); historical pathway and evolution, governance and politics; context-actor relationships (e.g. supportive, hostile), among others (de Lange & Feddes, 2008).

These characteristics may determine KT processes at different levels. One key determinant for that to be successful is that the transferor is **willing to transfer** the appropriate knowledge and the transferee has the **intention to absorb** it (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008). This factor may be determined by the expectations of the transferee towards the KT process. As noted by Szulanski (1996: 29), the transfer process is often tailored “to suit the anticipated needs of the recipient, to pre-empt problems experienced in a previous transfer of the same practice or to help make the introduction of new knowledge less threatening to the recipient”. Thus, the motivations of the transferee will be crucial to accept and implement knowledge from the outside (Szulanski, 1996). In turn, the transferor willing to transfer knowledge is determined by the motivation to devote time and resources to support all that process.

Another important factor to consider is the influence on the behaviour of the transferee of his perception about the **reliability, trustworthiness, and knowledgeability** attributed to the transferor. If this is negative, the advice and example of the latter is more likely to be challenged and resisted (Szulanski, 1996). On the other hand, the more **level of experience** in other projects of the same kind the transferor has, the more probable is the project’s credibility (Lin & Berg, 2001; Waroonkun, 2007).

The **knowledge base** and **absorptive capacity** is also pointed out by several authors as a determinant factor in the transfer process (e.g. Goh, 2002; Szulanski, 1996; Duan et al., 2010; Kayes, Kayes, & Yamazaki, 2005). This includes both the transferor and the transferee in that the former needs a high knowledge base to be useful in adding the necessary knowledge to the transferee and the latter to understand and take advantage of that transferred knowledge (Waroonkun, 2007). This refers essentially to the transferee's ability to exploit outside sources of knowledge (Szulanski, 1996), i.e. to produce, gather, organize and apply new knowledge (Kayes et al., 2005). This capacity results from an individual's ability to develop relationships and translate ideas across diverse national and ethnic cultures which in turn is associated with the pre-existing knowledge stock (Kayes et al., 2005; Szulanski, 1996).

The knowledge base enabler considered by Waroonkun (2007) in his proposed model of technology transfer is also related to the above statement in that he suggests that, for organizations expanding into overseas, the knowledge base of both the provider and receiver is determinant for achieving the outcomes from the KT process, as well as bridge the gap between this process and the level required to utilise the transferred knowledge successfully. In the tourism context, Cooper (2006) points out that a poor absorptive capability on the part of the user constitutes a major barrier to transfer for tourism. The literature about absorptive capacity and the knowledge base structures usually refers to the limited context of a firm or organization's individuals. In the IDCT model this component should be analysed in the perspective of a destination and the stakeholders involved in its tourism planning and development process.

The **cultural behaviour** of the transferor and the transferee can be determinant for the communication process, on which the effectiveness of the KT and learning process depends (Waroonkun, 2007). This is more relevant depending on the existing cultural differences between the countries of origin of the actors involved (Waroonkun, 2007). The cultural gap between the transferor and the transferee was identified as extremely important in influencing the success of, for instance, technology transfer projects by some researchers (e.g. Lin & Berg, 2001; Waroonkun, 2007). In this regard, Makilouko (2004) adds that whenever no attention is paid to cultural differences between the transferor and the transferee as well as the consideration of the traditional ways and methods of the latter, severe problems may arise like the desegregation of the involved teamwork. Table 5.4 synthesizes all these aspects considered essential in the analysis of the Inputs of any IDC programme.

Table 5.4 Inputs key factors

Key factors	Description	References
Characteristics of the programme	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Type of strategy: planned, incremental, emergence. - Type of approach: direct or indirect; long-term, short-term, or ad-hoc. - Type of development intervention: financial support, advising, training, coaching, providing information, others. - Type of resources involved: human resources (e.g. volunteers, consultants, local stakeholders); financial; material; technological and information. 	de Lange & Feddes, 2008; UNDP, 2002.
Transferor Characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Willingness to implement or motivation to devote time, 	Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; Goh,

Key factors	Description	References
	money, and resources to support the process of KT. - Level of experience in previous projects of the same nature. - Knowledge base: ability to produce, gather, organize and apply new knowledge. -Cultural behaviour: style, leadership, among other personnel and professional characteristics of the development actors.	2002; Szulanski, 1996; Duan et al., 2010; Kayes et al., 2005; Davenport & Prusak, 1998.
Transferee Characteristics	- Willingness to learn and motivation to devote time and resources to support the process of KT. - Trust in the programme: reliability, trustworthiness, and knowledge attributed to the transferor. - Knowledge base and absorptive capacity: ability to exploit outside sources of knowledge in order to produce, gather, organize and apply new knowledge -Cultural behaviour: style, leadership, among others, and the gap between the transferee and the transferor.	Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; Szulanski, 1996; Diallo & Thuillier, 2005; Cooper, 2006; Kayes et al., 2005; Bathelt, et al. 2004; Xiao & Smith, 2007.

5.3.2 Knowledge Transfer & Learning Environment

The KT&LE transversal section of the model was positioned as a central block interconnected with all the remaining dimensions, but more directly with the *Activities*, *Outputs* and *Outcomes*, as explained in section 5.3. It follows post-rationalist approaches (McFarlane, 2006; Wenger, 1998) which, as discussed in Chapter 4, integrates the key factors of *Interactions of types of knowledge* (i), *Interactions of actors* (ii), and *Situatedness* (iii), in the perspective of knowledge and learning as produced through translation (McFarlane, 2006). Additionally in the context of the proposed model, it was considered also the key factor *Government enforcement* (iv) proposed in the model of TT of Waroonkun and Stewart (2008). Each of these four key factors is explained below and, in the end of the section, synthesized in Table 5.5.

i) Interactions of types of knowledge

The types of knowledge to be transferred will depend on how each knowledge type can be codified and transferred (Goh, 2002) which can be either explicit or tacit (Polanyi, 1962, 1966). **Tacit knowledge** may be better transferred through more interpersonal means and using processes that are less structured (Goh, 2002), aiming at maximizing the local stakeholders know-how and cognitive knowledge (Nonaka et al., 2000) in order to benefit the whole destination. **Teamwork, brainstorming sessions, opportunities for face-to-face** conversations (e.g. group dialogue or personal reflections on experiences and lessons learned) constitute some examples of opportunities for tacit knowledge exchanges (Goh, 2002). This process can be facilitated by the transferor teams who are in a position of assuming the role of “knowledge brokers” (Sheate & Partidário, 2010; Weidenfeld et al., 2010).

In turn, **explicit knowledge** being formal, systematic, and objective can be more easily shared in the form of **data, manuals, reports** and others (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Nevertheless, in the context of a tourism destination this knowledge is often disperse and not

systematized what could otherwise easily support strategic planning decision-making. For this reason, once again the role played by the development agency, as an independent external supporter, can be crucial to put on the needed added value to that knowledge and to cross examine it with the existing tacit knowledge.

ii) Interactions of actors

Considering the post-rationalist approach of KT&LE in the IDCT model, this key factor is conceived as a process that facilitates the transformation of the existing knowledge through interactive and exchange practices where actors with different types of knowledge and competencies are able to solve some problems (Bathelt et al., 2004; McFarlane, 2006). This means that **knowledge is socially produced** entailing a regular interaction through some form of **community participation** (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; Szulanski, 2000). If there is not an effective **communication and leadership**, stakeholders will not trust each other, which may adversely reduce the effectiveness of the KT process (Waroonkun, 2007). In turn, the level of **trust** determines the existence of a strong co-operative and collaborative culture that will be decisive for the commitment and teamwork effectiveness among individuals and organizations (Goh, 2002).

Forms of socialization in a development intervention context may comprise face to face interaction (e.g. formal meetings or chats, workshops or interviews) and other interrelated modes of communication (e.g. mail, social networks, phone, faxes, internet) (Wenger, 1998). This is determinant as the nature of the relationship between the knowledge recipients and the source of knowledge is often a barrier to effective KT (Goh, 2002).

iii) Situatedness

The key factor of *situatedness*, as designated by McFarlane (2006), is considered determinant as it relates to the ways and means the information and knowledge circulate in terms of time and space. **Time** refers here to the timescale of the development project and its adequacy to the existing social, political and economic environment. Usually, this acts as an impediment for achieving results as there is a pressure on strategies to complete it in a hurried cycle of two or three years (Mawdsley, Townsend, Porter, & Oakley, 2002). This is contrary to the principle subjacent to the formation of COPs as it should be created over whichever necessary time it may take (Wenger, 1998).

Conversely, **space** is concerned with the fact that knowledge is territorialized as it can be included or excluded within the context of a cluster or learning region, meaning that it can be in or out of the proper spaces (Shaw & Williams, 2009). In the case of a tourism destination, KT&LE within a development intervention has to consider the territories (e.g. municipalities) that will be included or excluded of the process (proximity is important to develop strong levels of trust and common values). In this context, the agents responsible for the circulation and appropriateness of knowledge (McFarlane, 2006) - consultants, volunteers, local officials and other stakeholders - will be decisive for the whole process of KT. This will be based on the local circumstances and priorities, and tend to be politicized (Nonaka et al., 2000).

iv) Government enforcement

The key factor *government enforcement* has to do with the extent to which the local government encourages, and acts accordingly, **KT** to occur in appropriate conditions (Waroonkun, 2007). The host government's **policies, regulations, enforcement practices and commitment** with the programme through logistical support and efforts of communication during its preparation, implementation and follow-up can impact to a great extent the effectiveness of **KT** initiatives (Waroonkun, 2007; Goh, 2002). The local political system, the type of actors and resources involved are particularly important in this regard.

Table 5.5 KT&LE key factors

Key factors	Description	References
Interactions of types of knowledge	Interactions between tacit and explicit knowledge which can be considered in four different directions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tacit to tacit, through socialisation. - Tacit to explicit, or externalisation . - Explicit to explicit, or combination (transferring knowledge from one explicit form to another). - Explicit to tacit, or internalisation. 	Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; McFarlane, 2006; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; Weidenfeld et al., 2010; Goh, 2002.
Interactions of actors	Process of regular interactions through the reinforcement of communities of practice: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - knowledge socially produced. - Trust, co-operative and collaborative culture. - Commitment and identification with the transferor's expertise. - Communication, teamwork, leadership. 	Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; McFarlane, 2006; Bathelt, et al. 2004; Goh, 2002; Al-Alawi et al., 2007; Duan et al., 2010.
Situatedness	Spaces and times in which knowledge exchange takes place: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Time - adequateness of the timescale of the IDC programme (e.g. existing social, political and economic environment timing). - Space - territorialization of knowledge that can be in or out of the proper spaces (e.g. territories like municipalities can be included or excluded of the KT process). 	McFarlane, 2006; Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; Nonaka et al. 2000.
Government enforcement	Level of involvement and encouragement of the local governments in KT processes through: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Host government's policies, regulations, enforcement practices and commitment with the programme. 	Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; Goh, 2002; UNDP, 2002.

The IDCT model proposal considers that it is the cross-analysis of these key factors of **KT&LE** throughout the *Activities*, *Outputs*, and *Outcomes* that will better work as a platform for the understanding of the critical success factors of any IDC programme under analysis. For this reason, these three dimensions described below will not integrate other specific key factors.

5.3.3 Activities

The *Activities* constitutes the first section of the central block of the IDCT model and refers to the overall processes or actions that use *Inputs* to produce *Outputs*. As defined by CIDA

(2008: 9), in this context, *Activities* mean “actions taken or work performed, through which inputs are mobilized to produce outputs”. Therefore, in the IDCT model it is considered that all the actions and processes that lead to the final IDC programme’s intervention are object of analysis within this dimension.

The Activities includes, therefore, such early actions as **training and preparatory logistic procedures** to select individuals to integrate IDC programme’s teams. It includes **exploratory missions**, field visits and meetings that precede the agreements established between the parties (e.g. secondary data collection and analysis, contacts with local stakeholders, preparation of meetings and interviews). It includes **fieldwork activities** (e.g. collection and analysis of primary data applying different qualitative and quantitative techniques; collection and analysis of complementary secondary data; benchmarking and SWOT analysis; training and stakeholders meetings; exchange of knowledge with governments, tourism organizations and industry, and civil society) and **reporting** (e.g. systematic registration of all the relevant data to support a comprehensive study of the destination; reports about the performance in capacitating actions), among other actions associated to the programme and in which the transferor is involved.

It is considered that all those actions which take place throughout different stages of the programmes play a determinant role for its effectiveness at different levels. This role should, therefore, be carefully analysed under the premises of the KT&LE dimension considering all of its key factors. It is crucial that this type of analysis crosses the performance of these factors according, not only with objective facts, but also considering the perceptions of different actors about it. If the required *Inputs* are used efficiently, which will depend on the previously mentioned suitability of the characteristics of the programme, of the transferor and the transferee, and the activities are adequately performed in a KT&LE, it is more likely that it would successfully lead to the expected *Outputs* and *Outcomes*.

5.3.4 Outputs

The *Outputs* dimension of the model constitutes the subsequent section within the central block of the IDCT model and refers directly to the specific products and services that emerge from the completion of the *Activities* (CIDA, 2008; Pearson, 2011; UNDP, 2002). It includes changes resulting from the development intervention that are relevant to the achievement of the *Outcomes* (Pearson, 2011), being mostly under the control of the programme and corresponding to a potential operational change (UNDP, 2002).

Examples of *Outputs* in a general development intervention, like suggested by CIDA (2008), can range from, for instance, a research completed, a pamphlet produced, training sessions provided, food aid delivered, partnership, funding provided, schools built, bug nets distributed, among others. In the context of the IDCT model, some *Outputs* most likely to result from an IDC programme would be products or services such as **studies produced** (e.g. delivery of a research, strategic plan, **inventories or technical reports** that are necessary to support strategic decision-making or problem solving); and **people capacitated** (e.g. people capacitated in the relevant areas needed to improve tourism development) (Pearson, 2011; UNDP, 2002; Rich, 1997).

This level of the development intervention is determinant for the accomplishment of the expected *Outcomes*. The type of study, report or training and its perceived utility by the local stakeholders, the areas covered in terms of the diagnostic of the local tourism system, the deepness, coherence and level of intelligibility of the information and knowledge created, and the resulting proposals for institutional and development changes will be crucial for the achievement of positive development results.

Concerning the studies produced as a main *Output*, it should be noted that it is not enough to just deliver to the local authorities a report that determine the end of a development intervention, even though this is the most frequent situation in IDC. In order to attain the intermediate development changes that the *Outputs* dimension may provide, it is crucial that the **KT&LE** dimension would still make part of the process, involving not only the local authorities, but all the range of local stakeholders considered since the beginning of the project as key development actors.

5.3.5 Outcomes

The *Outcomes* dimension of the model represents the level that puts in evidence if the short and medium-term effects induced by the previous phases of the development intervention are accomplished (UNDP, 2002). In this context, for the *Outcomes* to be put forward, it would have to be verified an effective process of knowledge translation within the local stakeholders.

If this knowledge is accepted and adequately utilized - **knowledge utilization** (e.g. conceptual, political, instrumental, process), and additionally it encourages a regular process of knowledge sharing by established communities of practice, then it should lead to the improvement of **decision-making** conducting to **problem-solving** (e.g technical, organizational, commercial or intellectual specific problems faced by the local communities) in the short and medium term (Cooper, 2006; Rich, 1997; Xiao & Smith, 2007; Bathelt et al., 2004; Kuramoto & Sagasti, 2002), and hopefully generate human development changes in the long-term - the *Impacts*.

This process of achievement of outcomes may imply an **institutional change**. As discussed in Chapter 4, this should further enlarge the capabilities of the transferee to take advantage of effective solutions supported by an institutional setting that encourages a continuous process of creation, absorption, adoption and regular exchange of knowledge to solve problems (Kuramoto & Sagasti, 2002).

Overall, one of the most important outcomes of **KT** and learning processes is that it has notably influenced the accomplishment of positive development results. However, development involves complex processes and it is difficult to isolate those outcomes that are solely attributable to the development intervention (attribution gap) (OECD, 2006). In other words, when evaluating the achievement of *Outcomes*, one question should always be put: what would have happened if there was no development intervention at all? This is designated by “counterfactual” by the development community (Ravaillon, 2009).

Like suggested by UNDP (2002), the timeframe that may be considered at this level may vary from two to five years, after the completion of the outputs. In this phase it is very important to assess how and why outcomes are or are not being achieved in the tourism

destination. It should be then developed a monitoring and evaluation plan and act accordingly (UNDP, 2002). Although this process is not, anymore, under the control of the IDC programme, it would be important to keep the involvement of the development agency at this stage for the purpose of follow-up.

5.3.6 Impacts

The *Impacts* dimension of the model represents the level that puts in evidence the influence that a development intervention may have in accomplishing successful development changes in the long-term. It corresponds to the ultimate result attributable, directly or indirectly, to a development intervention, contrasting with the outputs and outcomes that reflect more immediate or short-term results (UNDP, 2002). According to Pearson (2011), this can be positive and negative, primary and secondary long-term effects produced by a development intervention, directly or indirectly, intended or unintended.

Nevertheless, the term “impact” itself is controversial in the debate of development in the sense that it may be wrongly interpreted as a direct consequence or result of a programme or initiative. This raises questions concerning the complexity of attributing direct impacts as consequences of programmes and the means of measuring and evaluating them. For that reason, development agencies like CIDA (2008) contend that it is more correct to name it just as “ultimate outcome” instead of “final outcome” or “impact”, referring then to the highest-level change that can be reasonably attributed to a programme or initiative in a causal manner, and as the consequence of one or more intermediate outcomes. Even agreeing with this position, to simplify the terminology used in the model, we will name this dimension as *Impacts* although considering it in the perspective of another level of outcomes or a highest-level change, like CIDA proposes.

In the context of KT within a tourism destination, and according to the literature review of the previous chapters, it can be considered that a main development goal would be the reinforcement of capacity-building that can contribute to poverty alleviation through tourism development. Therefore, it can be considered as desirable long-term effects a set of key factors, corresponding to some major challenges faced by specific contexts of tourism development, as discussed in Chapter 3.

It should be noted that the short and medium term effects of the Outcomes should not be confused with the long-term effects of the impacts. The major difference between them, apart from the timeframe, is that the latter makes profound internal and durable changes that will significantly alter the whole communities’ outlook on tourism for generations to come while making structural changes in the functioning of the society in the process.

In Table 5.6 some examples are presented concerning the important long-term impacts that would be desirable to achieve through an IDC programme in the context of tourism development. However, depending on the specific context in which the IDC programme takes place and the characteristics of the tourism destination, other diverse key factors could be considered. As this serves only as an exemplification, they were not illustrated in the model.

Table 5.6 Impacts key factors

Key factors	Description	References
Empowerment	Increased strength, confidence and vision to work for positive changes in women, man, and children's lives, individually and together with others. Improvement of the participation process in local decision making, reinforcing communities of practice and the capacity of the local stakeholders to influence the state and social institutions.	Amaro, 2009; Cole, 2006; Eade 2007; Scheyvens, 1999, 2011; Sofield, 2003; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007.
Socio-economic benefits	Tourism is developed in such a way that the net benefits for the poor are higher than the costs. It generates linkages and multiplier effects in terms of employment and income. There are more skilled people to work in the industry, increasing the scope for a broad participation. There is a valorisation of natural assets and awareness of conservation needs.	Brohman, 1996; Clancy, 1999; DFID, 1999.
Leadership & Ownership	Reinforcement of <i>ownership</i> and control over the tourism industry by the local community leading to linkages and minimizing leakages and the dependence on foreign inputs. <i>Ownership</i> is also related with the perspective of the agreements under the <i>Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness</i> where partner countries commit to exercise leadership in developing and implementing their national development strategies, and donors respect partner country <i>leadership</i> and help strengthen their capacity to exercise it.	Mastny, 2001; Mowforth & Munt, 2009; OECD, 2005.
Equity	The processes of change induced by the development intervention promote intergenerational and gender equity.	Eade, 2007; Harrison, 2008; Schilcher, 2007.
Safety & Security	Reduction of the vulnerability of the poor to various risks. Reinforcement of social security systems and safety nets.	DFID, 1999; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007.

Even though the eventual attribution of some human development changes to a specific programme or initiative may be also attributed to other causes than just a development intervention, it is firmly believed that this process may induce at least some of those long-term positive results. This should constitute the *raison d'être* of an IDC programme, considering it as a vehicle to promote positive human development changes in developing countries through KT&LE in tourism development. It should be noted that it is definitely not within the scope of this thesis to propose evaluation tools for measuring the impacts of IDC programmes due to the long-term effects and complex scope involved. It is hoped that this thesis will inspire the grounds for such an important step in future research.

5.4 Conclusion

The IDCT model proposed in this thesis attempts to fill a gap in the scientific literature about tourism and IDC and the role played by KT and learning as a way of inducing positive human development changes in tourism destinations of developing countries. Having been reviewed diverse theoretical models about KT and IDC, it was considered that none of them responded entirely to the challenges posed to the context of KT and learning in tourism and IDC programmes. Consequently, the model attempts to overcome some of the identified

limitations and to theorize about the set of relevant key factors that may enable or impede the achievement of successful results in tourism IDC programmes in the future.

The main structure of the model follows the RBM approaches, proposing as main dimensions its core phases - inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes, and impacts - while rejecting the linear perspective that is usually applied in these approaches. Instead, it was added a KT&LE transversal dimension that is related to all the others following a post-rationalist approach of KT. This central block of the model was built purposely so that in order to produce positive results in a programme or initiative it would be crucial to observe a dynamic exchange of tacit and explicit knowledge, involving diverse development actors and stakeholders since the very beginning and throughout the remaining phases, even after the programme is finished.

An IDC programme should then be seen as a process and not as an end in itself; as a way of changing the state of affairs within the tourism system in a sustainable manner so that it potentially generates positive development changes. These changes may take place even when the development intervention starts to be prepared with local stakeholders as well as the processes of knowledge translation/transformation that they may induce. This is not possible if, instead of encouraging KT&LE, knowledge is simply disseminated in a linear, static, north-south approach. It was with this background that the IDCT model was proposed thus inter-relating all the dimensions in an illustration of the required transversal transformation process of knowledge.

The literature review of the previous chapters and the revised models provided the necessary insights for the identification of each dimension's key factors. They will subsequently be analysed as enablers or impediments for the effectiveness of a tourism IDC programme. Some of these, also designated as critical success factors, will be validated through the empirical study that follows in the subsequent chapters attempting to respond to the research question of this thesis.

CHAPTER 6

METHODOLOGY OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

6.1 Introduction

Any social research is underpinned by an inquiry paradigm which is determined by a set of key philosophical issues that determine how research is undertaken and interpreted and how this leads to the generation of knowledge (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Goodson & Phillimore, 2004). Denzin and Lincoln (1998) argue that the researcher can be compared to a *bricoleur* - an individual who pieces together sets of practices to find out the solution to a puzzle. This messy process is highly subjective involving the researcher's ethics, values, and beliefs, using a set of methods to maximise understanding of the research problem (Goodson & Phillimore, 2004). All this constitutes the researcher's worldview. As pointed out by Finn et al. (2000: 20), "the researcher should be clear about what should pass as knowledge about the world of leisure and tourism - philosophical assumptions must be considered".

While the research paradigm that underlies this study was described in Chapter 1 (section 1.4), in this chapter it is presented the research design and the case study is described. Therefore, section 6.2 presents the case study as the strategy adopted in this thesis, starting by justifying it as an adequate research option (subsection 6.2.1), the criteria considered to select the specific case (subsection 6.2.2), and finally its description (subsection 6.2.3), characterizing primarily the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme case and then the description of its application to the Mexican state of Chiapas in 2008. Subsequently, section 6.3 presents the overall research design, integrating first the set of data collection methods (subsection 6.3.1) which is in turn divided in stage one and two of the research and, second, the data analyses methods (subsection 6.3.2), also subdivided according to its organization, content analysis procedures, and computer software used to support it. Finally, section 6.4 presents the strategies for validating the findings, referring to methodological triangulation. The chapter ends outlining some main conclusions (section 6.5).

6.2 Case study strategy

6.2.1 Justification of the case study as a research strategy option

Diverse approaches can be adopted within qualitative research strategies, namely: narrative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study (Creswell, 2007). The latter is the only approach that is focused on an in-depth description and analysis of a case such as a programme.

The justifications for using a case study as a research strategy in social sciences are well documented (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2003). This is also the case in the tourism

field where it has been gaining increased recognition as a valid research strategy (e.g. Beeton, 2005; Finn et al., 2000; Veal, 2006). The main aim is to conduct an analysis of the context and processes within a programme, an organization or whatever is being researched (Finn et al., 2000).

Case study research may be considered as a research strategy (e.g. Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Yin, 2003), as a methodology (e.g. Creswell, 2007), or just a design feature of what is to be studied, being refused as a methodology (e.g. Stake, 2000). In the present study it is adopted the view of Yin (2003: 13) for whom a case study is a comprehensive research strategy comprising “an all encompassing method – with the logic of design incorporating specific approaches to data collection and to data analysis”.

Case studies are appropriate when it is intended to research the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real social phenomena (Yin, 2003). This approach allows the researcher to investigate a bounded system (a case such as a programme, corresponding to a within-site study) or multiple bounded systems (cases such as several programmes, a multi-site study) over time (Creswell, 2007). It can be either applied to the individual life cycles level or organizational and managerial processes, international relations, among others (Yin, 2003).

Within the tourism research field, for instance Hall et al. (1997) claimed that case study approaches were appropriate in studying tourism planning specifically when determining what happened during the decision making, planning and policy-making processes. Overall, case studies present a distinct advantage when a “how” and “why” research question “is being asked about a contemporary set of events over which the investigator has little or no control” (Yin, 2003: 9).

Case study has been disdained as a research strategy by some investigators who claim that it constitutes a less reliable form of research inquiry than experiments and surveys (Yin, 2003). Several arguments are pointed out for these assumptions. As it is important to demystify them, Table 6.1 resumes the main prejudices against the case study strategy and how those arguments may be refuted.

Table 6.1 - Main arguments against case study strategy

Main concerns about case studies	Arguments in favour
Lack of rigor due to biased views.	The researcher has to avoid equivocal evidence or biased views that influence the direction of the findings reporting it fairly. Bias also can enter other research strategies.
Provide little basis for scientific generalization.	Case studies, like experiments, are generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes. It does not represent a sample, and the investigator’s role is to expand and generalize theories (analytic generalization, not statistical generalization).
Take to long, and result in massive, unreadable documents.	Case studies do not have necessarily to take a long time. This only happens when they are dependent solely on ethnographic or participant-observer data.

Source: adapted from Yin (2003: 10)

Data collection in case study research is typically extensive, detailed, in-depth data involving multiple sources of information such as direct observations, participant observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and documents and reports (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2003). Nevertheless, this does not mean that case studies can not include quantitative evidence (Yin, 2003). **Data analysis** within a case study can encompass a holistic analysis of the entire case or an embedded analysis of some particular issue of the case (Yin, 2003). As pointed out by Creswell (2007), the researcher does this aiming at understanding the complexity of the case and not for generalising beyond the case. In the final interpretative phase, the researcher **reports** the case description and case-based themes, as well as the meaning of the case and the lessons learned from it (Creswell, 2007).

Taking into consideration the above reflections, a case study approach was considered the most appropriate research strategy for this study. The reasons for this option are summarized in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 - Main reasons for opting for the case study strategy in this study

Research question of the study - focused on “how” type
- How can IDC in tourism be successful and contribute to the achievement of positive development changes?
Level of analysis - context and processes
Analysis of the context and processes of KT within IDC programmes focused on tourism, looking for holistic and meaningful characteristics that influence these processes as viewed by its main participants.
Type of study object - single case
A single case study corresponding to a bounded system , a within-site study whereas an IDC programme is implemented in a tourism destination.
Investigator’s role - to generalize theory
To expand and generalize theory (analytical generalization) about KT and learning in IDC programmes in the tourism field.

Source: own construction adapted from Creswell (2007); Finn et al. (2003); and Yin (1994)

While the outlined arguments clarify the case study research strategy options relating it with the aims and characteristics of the present study, it is important yet to reinforce the justification for preferring a single-case to a multiple-case study (Yin, 1994). The focus of analysis of this thesis is centred on IDC programmes focused on tourism and the inherent context and processes of KT and learning. Being necessarily the “case”, or “cases”, in this context programmes undertaken at an international level, in geographical disperse areas, it would not be feasible within the scope of this thesis to conduct a qualitative-interpretive analysis of several programmes in its “real social world” (several countries) as would imply a multiple-case study. This is evident if we take into account the complexity of each of these programmes implemented in several different destinations’ contexts.

Furthermore, it is considered that some of the benefits that a multiple-case study could proportionate, namely related with comparison and replication (Yin, 1994), can be achieved even if only a single IDC programme is analysed. Indeed, as this is usually implemented in

tourism destinations that involve distinct territories within the same country (e.g. different municipalities), and the participation of different “transferor” and “transferee” actors, it is guaranteed a diversity of contexts and situations allowing for interesting comparisons and replication. Considering these assumptions, the following section presents the criteria to select the “case” for this study.

6.2.2 Case selection criteria

As pointed out by Stake (2000: 446), “the cases are opportunities to study the phenomena”. As such, the researcher decided to take the opportunity to use as a case for this study the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme undertaken by UNWTO in the Mexican state of Chiapas, in 2008. Three main reasons supported this decision.

First, the UNWTO plays a decisive and central role in international tourism as it is the leading international organization in tourism, representing the sector in the United Nations as a special agency. As discussed in Chapter 3 (section 3.4.3.2), UNWTO guides international tourism policy issues constituting a practical source of tourism know-how, being particularly influential in developing countries (Hall, 2008).

Second, the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme constitutes an approach that aims to support developing countries to achieve a sustainable and more competitive tourism sector based on a KT and learning process within the local stakeholders, specialized UNWTO international volunteers and consultants. This was considered a distinguishable approach concerning KT in tourism through IDC when compared to other IDC programmes.

Third, the researcher had the opportunity to have an active participation in the implementation of this programme in Chiapas in 2008. This was due to her integration in the selected team of volunteers and consultants to undertake this particular programme, after having been admitted in the corps of the volunteers’ team of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme. This would constitute a unique opportunity for the researcher to analyse, as an insider, an IDC programme in all its phases, facilitating the access to relevant sources of information.

6.2.3 Case description: the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme

6.2.3.1 Characterization of the Programme

KT in tourism is the main focus of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme. In 2007, the UNWTO.Themis Foundation, put into practice the UNWTO.TedQual Volunteers programme, which was later renamed the UNWTO.Volunteers programme. It was designed to support developing countries in accomplishing a sustainable and more competitive tourism industry based on a KT approach through education, training, and research (UNWTO, 2009). Furthermore, it was supported by volunteer participants from universities and other education institutions in the developed and developing worlds as well as governments and civil society in the countries which host the programme.

There are four main aims to accomplish by this programme (UNWTO, 2009). The first is to train, in both theory and practice, volunteer professionals with a suitable vocation and skills in the field of tourism and development. The second consists in supporting the UNWTO member States and IDC agencies in the formulation and implementation of plans, programmes, and projects through the technical contribution of UNWTO consultants and volunteers. The third aim is to disseminate, through education and training, the policies of the UNWTO in the field of tourism, especially tourism's role as a tool for development and its potential to contribute to poverty reduction. The fourth aim is to promote the spirit of service and solidarity rooted in the essence of volunteerism (UNWTO, 2009). To achieve these purposes, the UNWTO.Volunteers programme is structured as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

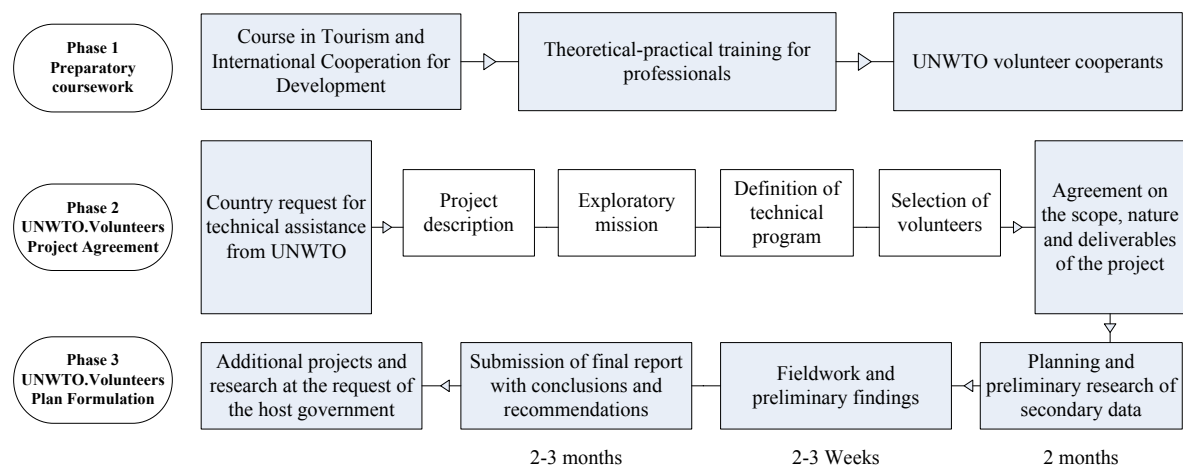


Figure 6.1 - UNWTO.Volunteers Programme Structure

Source: Lima et al. (2012)

The first phase of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme is concerned with the training of young professionals with a vocation and skills in tourism and development assistance. This is provided through the completion of a blended (online and classroom-based) intensive course in “Tourism and International Cooperation for Development”, organized by the UNWTO.Themis in collaboration with some universities. This consists of analysing concepts and practical cases in IDC and tourism. During the in-classroom sessions, the methodologies used by UNWTO in its projects in developing countries are applied, providing the students with a practical background for future field work (UNWTO.Themis, 2012).

In phase two, the programme undertakes a tourism development project in a developing country destination that asks for support from UNWTO to develop a project considered important for its sustainable tourism development efforts. This request should include a project description, which specifies the country and region, the counterparts involved, the local technical team, as well as the assigned areas which may include marketing strategies, product assessment and identification of product gaps and development, business plans, international tourism development, and community-based tourism plans (Ruhanen, Cooper and Fayos-Solá, 2008; UNWTO, 2009). After an exploratory mission by UNWTO consultants and staff to the host country, and the definition of a technical programme, the

organization and the host country government agree on the scope, nature, and deliverables of the project. The programme is then undertaken in collaboration with local stakeholders and the selected group of volunteers and consultants.

Phase three involves planning and research of secondary data collected before the fieldwork (two months), fieldwork and preliminary findings (two-three weeks), and submission of a final report with conclusions and recommendations for future action (two-three months). If the host country and other stakeholders need technical assistance to implement the proposed plan or additional projects and research, they may formulate a new request to UNWTO.Themis.

The volunteers are involved for about six months in the project. During this period, they work on extensive research on tourism in the selected country including an analysis of general tourism trends for both the destination and the broader region, “including visitor arrivals data and traveler profiles, competitive benchmark analysis, and assessments of current branding, image, and marketing strategies” (Ruhanen et al., 2008: 29). Between 2008 and 2011, projects took place in Mexico (2008), Uruguay (2008), Colombia (2009), Brazil (2010), and again Mexico (2011).

6.2.3.2 The UNWTO.Volunteers Programme in Chiapas, Mexico, 2008

Before presenting the main features of the implementation of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme in Chiapas in 2008 as to support the subsequent case study analysis, some major geographic, politic and tourism characteristics of the study area will be outlined. The section is then divided as follows: **i) Destination geographic, politic and tourism overview; ii) The UNWTO.Volunteers programme implementation in Chiapas.**

i) Geographic, politic and tourism overview of the destination

As part of Latin America, **Mexico** has been characterized by a lagging growth and persistent poverty and inequality in recent decades. Latin America’s inequality is undeniably partly due to the results of inherited economic structures and resource endowments (Perry, et al., 2006). It should be highlighted that traditionally “Latin American policy has not focused enough on the complementary roles of human capital, knowledge transmission, innovation, and improved economic environments” (Perry et al., 2006: xi). All of these dimensions consistently emerge as correlated with differences in regional income leading to the need of coordinated policies to reverse the vicious cycles of poverty and low asset accumulation in these regions (Perry et al., 2006).

Between 1965 and 1989, Mexico registered a low economic growth and high income inequality along with other Latin American countries, contrasting with the designated East Asian “miracle” nations with a high economic growth and low income inequality, which was then attributed to neoliberal policies (Willis, 2011). It is worth to mention that the “debt crisis” of Latin America in the eighties was triggered out by the announcement by the Mexican government, in August 1982, that it would not be able to meet the repayments on its debt. Following this period, neoliberal approaches were encouraged mainly due to the implementation of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) and as a return for continuing financial support from the IMF and the WB (Willis, 2011). Nevertheless, periodic economic

crisis in the 1990s in Latin American countries in general, and in Mexico, in particular during 1994/5 and a rise in poverty in the period 1998-2002, created disillusionment among electorates concerning the neoliberal model in the region. The failures attributed to it led to the rise of the left in many parts of Latin America in the 2000s (e.g. Brazil, Venezuela, Ecuador) (Willis, 2011).

Mexico is a country with a federal system where federal state governments have always had power to make significant decisions, having further decentralization been supported as a way of reducing state control within the neoliberal agenda. Nevertheless, that does not impeded significant differences of development among the Mexican states.

Despite the outlined backwards and forwards in terms of economic development, as discussed in Chapter 2, Mexico evolved in the last decade to the level of HHD country (it ranks 57 in HDI, with 0.770, 2011), but still registering a high Gini coefficient, meaning that its HDI increases in parallel with high levels of income inequalities.

Table 6.3 - Mexico: some development indicators 2011

Indicator	Value	
Total population	114,800 millions	
HDI	Rank 57	Value 0.77
Income Gini coefficient (2000-2011)	51.7	
Population in multidimensional poverty	4 %	4,313 thousands
Population vulnerable to poverty	5.8%	

Source: adapted from UNDP (2012)

Concerning regional cooperation, Mexico integrates the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), with USA and Canada, which constitutes one of the most influential regional groupings along with European Union (EU) and the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) Forum (Willis, 2011). The day that NAFTA came into force - 1 January 1994 - was the same of Zapatista National Liberation Army (EZLN) uprising demanding for the indigenous rights in Chiapas (Van den Berghe, 1995). Although this was directed at the Mexican government, the EZLN promoted their message throughout the world highlighting the plight of indigenous and marginalized rural populations of Chiapas (Willis, 2011).

Chiapas is situated in the south of Mexico sharing borders with Guatemala to the east, the Mexican states of Tabasco to the North, Oaxaca and Veracruz to the West, and the Pacific Ocean in the South (Appendix 6.1, Figure1). Chiapas encompasses numerous valuable archaeological, natural, and cultural resources concentrated in an area of 75,634 km², representing 3.8% of the Mexican territory (UNWTO.Themis, 2009). In this state there are 9 economic regions which comprise 19,386 localities distributed among 118 municipalities. It has 4,293 millions inhabitants of which about 22% are indigenous (UNWTO.Themis, 2009). Chiapas is one of the five Mexican states that form part of the designated *Maya World*. This refers to a project that resulted from an agreement signed in 1992 by the

governments of five Latin American countries - Belize, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Mexico - to join forces in the promotion of international tourism in the Maya zone.

The most relevant attractions in the region include archaeological ruins of Mayan ceremonial centers (Palenque, Bonampak, Yaxchilán, Toniná, Chinkultik), as well as a diversity of cultural traditional practices that subsist in different ethnic Maya groups (e.g. Chamula, Tzotzil and Tzeltal) that still live in culturally distinct village communities (Van den Berghe, 1995). Furthermore, this area contains spectacular forest and mountain scenery (e.g. *Cañon del Sumidero*; *Cascadas de Agua Azul*, *Río Usumacinta*, *Lago Miramar* - Lacandona jungle, *Lagos de Montebello*, *Cascada el Chiflón*, others), and Spanish colonial architecture (e.g. San Cristobal de las Casas, Chiapa de Corzo, Comitán) (see Appendix 6.2 - images of Chiapas cultural and natural heritage). The fieldwork area has become, therefore, a thriving center of ethnic tourism (Van den Berghe, 1995; Willis, 2011), cultural and archaeological tourism, as well as of ecotourism and adventure tourism (Coronado, 2008). This industry constitutes an economic opportunity for the region having been considered a priority in the governmental plans which fight against the marginalization of the Indians (Coronado, 2008). Tourism evolved from diverse initiatives and programmes, individual and collective, public and private.

ii) The UNWTO.Volunteers programme implementation in Chiapas

In 2008, the UNWTO.Volunteers programme was undertaken in Mexico with the main aim to develop a tourism competitiveness plan for five municipalities of the state of Chiapas. This initiative was organized by the government of Mexico, the government of the state of Chiapas and the UNWTO, involving five municipalities: Tuxtla Gutierrez (capital of the state), Chiapa de Corzo, Comitán de Domínguez, San Cristóbal de las Casas, and Palenque (Appendix 6.1, Figure 2).

In order to achieve the project objectives, in October 2007, an exploratory mission was undertaken, comprising fieldwork visits by the UNWTO officials to the five municipalities. In August of 2008, an agreement was signed for the formalization of the “Chiapas 2015” project, with the participation of the local authorities and the UNWTO officials. With the agreement on the scope, nature, and deliverables of the project, it was decided that the technical programme should include four phases, comprising different types of analysis as schematized in Figure 6.2. Some images of data collection moments throughout these phases are provided in Appendix 6.3.

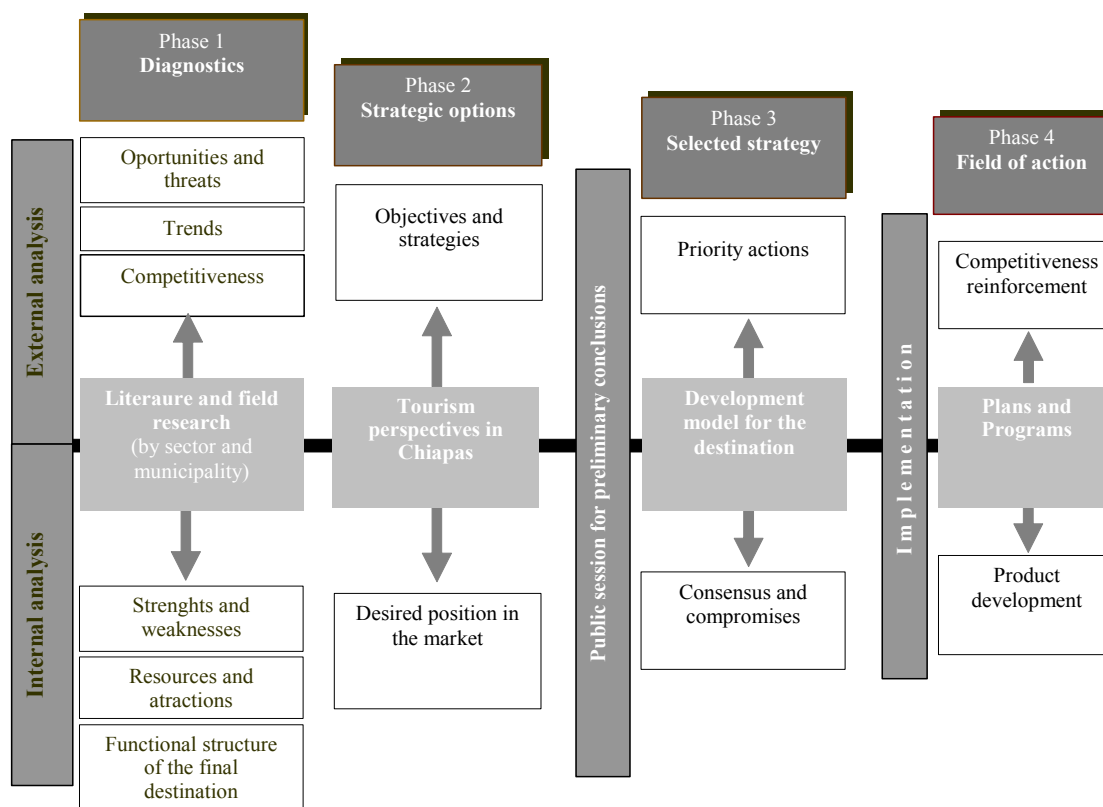


Figure 6.2 - Structure of the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme in Chiapas, 2008

Source: adapted from Chalé (2009), cited in UNWTO.Themis (2009)

To undertake this programme, an interdisciplinary team of 11 international volunteers from Spain, Portugal (the researcher herself), Brazil, Guatemala, and Mexico were selected, all of whom had previously completed UNWTO.Volunteers' training courses. The team was led by three UNWTO consultants and officials. To accomplish the technical programme, the established work plan (Figure 6.4) was put in practice following the proceedings described in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Proceedings to put in practice the Chiapas technical programme

Team composition
- Interdisciplinary team of 11 international volunteers; 3 local volunteers; 3 UNWTO consultants/officials; local authorities' coordinators.
Planning and preliminary research of secondary data (August and September 2008)
Team work online to collect secondary data about the destination prior to the Chiapas fieldwork.
Fieldwork and preliminary findings (21 st of September to 10 th of October of 2008)
- Interviews, surveys, and an inventory and analysis of the tourism resources.
- Consultation with and engagement of the local community.

- One workshop per municipality with representatives from municipal and state governments, the private sector, and civil society.

Submission of final report with conclusions and recommendations
(April 2009 / September 2009)

- “Chiapas 2015: Strategic Planning and Tourism Competitiveness” Report delivered to the authorities (April 2009).

- Revision and final report publicly presented in Chiapas (September 2009).

The diagnosis done and the evaluation of different development options, involving as much as possible the local stakeholders, were fundamental for the proposal of a model of development and the identification of the main areas of intervention. This was structured according to 5 detailed programmes of action as schematized in Figure 6.3.

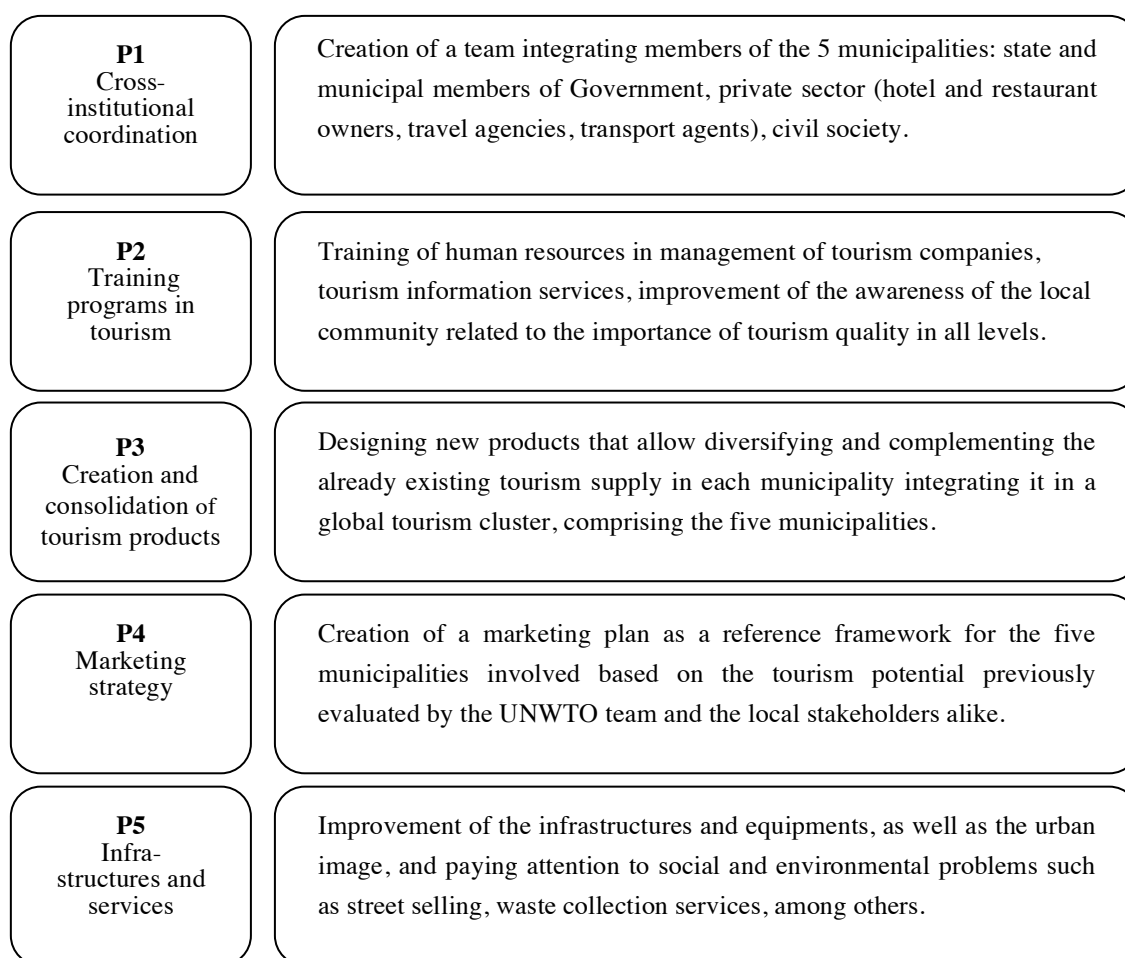


Figure 6.3 - Five detailed programmes of action proposed in the “Chiapas 2015” Report

Source: adapted from UNWTO.Themis (2009)

After having justified and described the UNWTO.Volunteers programme and its application to Chiapas as the case selected for this study, the next sections present the research design. This is done emphasizing, first, the set of data collection techniques options, and then the description of data analysis procedures, as well as strategies for its validation and reliability.

Naturally, this will take into consideration the philosophical and conceptual assumptions that underpin the research paradigm discussed in the introductory Chapter 1.

6.3 Research Design

6.3.1 Data collection methods

Data collection for this study was conducted following a **two-stage process** (Figure 6.4) The **first stage** of the research involved data collection from the UNWTO.Volunteers programme in its phases one and three, skipping phase two that is exclusively undertaken administratively by UNWTO staff (review Figure 6.1). Thus, access to data resources was facilitated by the participation of the researcher in the UNWTO.Volunteers course in 2007, and in the programme implementation in Chiapas in 2008.

The **second stage** was developed in 2011 and consisted in a qualitative research looking for holistic and meaningful characteristics that influenced the process of KT and learning through the implemented UNWTO.Volunteers programme in Chiapas, mainly according to the perceptions of some of those key actors that participated in it before and other actual relevant informants, as well as through the researcher non-participant observation.

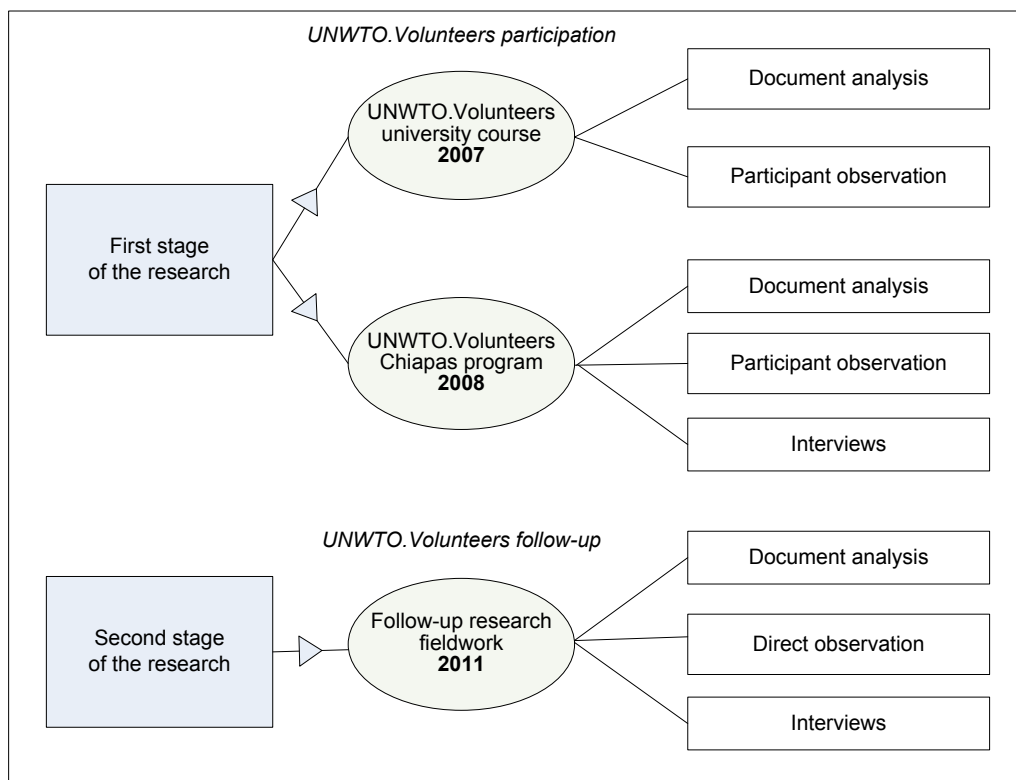


Figure 6.4 Data collection two-stage process

In a case study research strategy multiple **sources of data** may be used, namely direct observation, participant observation, interviews, focus groups, audiovisual material,

documents and reports, and physical artefacts (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2003; Veal, 2006). Table 6.5 summarizes the sources of evidence used in this case study, presenting a brief description, its strengths and weaknesses, and then indicating the level of use in each of the above mentioned research stages. A detailed explanation of how they were used in each research moment will be presented in the subsequent subsections, looking for telling a piece of the “history” subjacent to the research process and considering the philosophical assumptions and research objectives.

Table 6.5 - Data collection sources of evidence used in this study

Methods	Description	Strengths	Weaknesses	Level of use in the study
Document analysis	Multiple types such as textbooks, novels, promotional material, minutes of meetings, newspapers, letters, reports, etc. They are found in libraries, shops, documentation centers, and in personal, institutional or organizational archives. Next to written material, photographs, films, videos and music may be valuable documents.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stable - can be reviewed repeatedly Unobtrusive - not created as result of the case study Extract - contains exact names, references and details of an event Broad coverage-long span of time, many events and settings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Retrievability can be low Biased selectivity if collection incomplete Reporting bias - reflects bias of author Access - may be deliberately blocked 	<p>Stage one: UNWTO course material, documentation from Chiapas programme, newspapers, photographs.</p> <p>Stage two: UNWTO programme terms of reference, promotional material, notes of meetings, reports.</p>
Direct Observation	Mode of observation derived from field visits to the case study “site” registering some relevant behaviours or environmental conditions. It can range from formal to casual data collection activities, including occasions in which other evidence (e.g. interviews) is being collected. Whenever possible, more than a single observer may increase reliability of observational evidence.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reality-covers events in real time Contextual-covers context of event 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Time consuming Selectivity-unless broad coverage Reflexivity- event may proceed differently because it is being observed Cost-hours needed by human observers 	<p>Stage one: reporting in course classroom and field visits during the course and in Chiapas.</p> <p>Stage two: high level of use recording and reporting many of the observations mainly during and after the interviews as an outsider temporary observant.</p>

Table 6.5 - Data collection sources of evidence used

in this study (cont.)

Methods	Description	Strengths	Weaknesses	Level of use in the study
Participant Observation	The researcher becomes a participant in the social process being studied. In many cases some sort of participant observation is the only way of researching particular phenomena (which is the case in the present study).	(same as above) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Insightful into interpersonal behaviour and motives • Allows to collect data on a broader range of the participants activities than other methods 	(same as above) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bias due to investigator's manipulation of events 	Stage one: high level of immersion, recording and reporting many of the personal experiences and observations in the first person. Stage two: not used.
	Interviews carried out in a case study approach aim to explore and probe in-depth the particular circumstances and context of the case being studied. While two main types of interviews can be defined - semi-structured and in-depth interviews - it is not always clear this distinction. The former presupposes more specified questions though allowing clarification and elaboration, and the latter is unstructured, but often following a checklist of topics to be raised.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Targeted- focuses directly on case study topic • Insightful - provides perceived causal inferences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bias due to poorly constructed questions • Response bias • Reflexibility - interviewee gives what interviewer wants to hear • Time consuming interviewing and transcription 	Stage one: few in-depth exploratory interviews carried out in the end of fieldwork in Chiapas with volunteers and UNWTO staff. Stage two: Several semi-structured interviews carried out with UNWTO volunteers, consultants, and Chiapas local actors.

Source: adapted from Yin (2003) with contributions of Creswell (2007); DeCrop (1999); Finn et al. (2000); Veal (2006)

6.3.1.1 Stage one: data collection during the UNWTO.Volunteers programme

In this section, it will be explained how each of the methods identified in Table 6.3 as well as the related proceedings were applied to collect data in the two main moments of this research stage: 1) the participation in the UNWTO.Volunteers course in 2007; and 2) the participation in the implementation of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme in Chiapas, in 2008. It is important to make some considerations about the context in which those programme's phases took place as well as its relation with the research objectives before explaining the methods of data collection applied.

The participation in the UNWTO.Volunteers course in 2007 provided preliminary theoretical insights into the world of IDC in tourism. Additionally, the opportunity of dealing directly with UNWTO staff and consultants with long experience in international projects, as well as with many different colleagues bringing their own experiences, diverse origins and backgrounds to the same classroom reinforced the richness of this experience (52 volunteers from different countries participated). An informal process of data collection commenced in this phase with document analysis and participant observation, mainly concerning the *Inputs* dimension, specifically the *characteristics of the programme* and the *characteristics of the transferor*.

The participation in the designated phase three of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme starts with an invitation letter from the UNWTO.Themis for the researcher to integrate the volunteers' team of the project "Chiapas 2015" in Mexico. This was planned to begin in August 2008, being settled a technical programme following the steps previously described in subsection 6.3.3.2 related to the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme in Chiapas. Data collection in this phase consisted in document analysis (i), participant observation (ii), and a few exploratory interviews with volunteers and consultants (iii). It permitted to respond to the research aim of finding out critical success factors of KT in IDC programmes connected to the processes of KT that will be induced by the *Inputs* dimension, specifically the *characteristics of the programme*, the *characteristics of the transferor* and *the transferee*. It was also essential to understand the *Activities* and *Outputs* dimensions, as well as the overall environment of KT and learning processes with all its interrelated key-factors.

i) Document analysis

Document analysis at this first stage was focused on several data and reports from UNWTO, in two phases. Firstly, the **UNWTO.Volunteers course** was fundamental to develop basic insights into the relevant issues related to tourism and IDC, as well as to learn all about the aims and phases conceived for the specific programme object of this case study. This was done to a great extent through document analysis and its practical application, either through individual exercises and tests or group works, or through its application to different contexts related to field visits organized during the course. Furthermore, several case studies were presented by UNWTO staff and consultants, facilitating knowledge exchange.

Secondly, the research work for the **Chiapas programme** involved the planning and search of secondary data to be collected before the programme fieldwork. In this

preliminary phase, diverse documents were collected and analysed about the destination, including Mexico and the state of Chiapas. Table 6.6 summarizes the main documents consulted in this research stage and its corresponding aims.

Table 6.6 Documents consulted in research stage one and corresponding aims

Type of Document	Research Aims
UNWTO course material	Comprehension about the different types of development interventions and strategies; organizations and typology of actors involved; approaches and diversity of resources involved; expected outputs, outcomes, and impacts. Main aim: to understand the principles and characteristics of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme as the object of the research case study in light of the underpinnings of IDC.
UNWTO Terms of Reference for the “Chiapas 2015”	Agreed conditions to undertake the programme in Chiapas; the municipalities to be involved; number and profile of participating actors; logistical conditions; time and space context; political commitment; and expected outputs, outcomes, and impacts. Main aim: identification of the general objectives of the Chiapas programme case study analysing the terms of reference established in the exploratory mission.
Documentation related to the Chiapas programme	Two phases: First, related to the preliminary diagnostic based on secondary data previously collected to facilitate the fieldwork, getting a destination knowledge background, and saving time when getting there. Main aim: overall characterization of the destination (e.g. macro and micro environment, tourism supply and demand). Second, complementary data during the fieldwork and systematization to include in the final report.
Photographs	Photographs and videos were taken by the volunteers to complete the records in both phases. During the course as part of some assigned exercises (e.g. field visits). Once in Chiapas many photographs were taken to register diverse fieldwork activities, many of them included in the final report. The researcher photographs and videos constituted complementary data source of evidences related to the characterization of the programme in its different phases and contexts (e.g. classes, team works while discussing and presenting it, field trips, meetings with the volunteers and local actors, interviews, public presentations).
Newspapers	Local newspapers articles about the UNWTO programme in Chiapas were collected as an evidence of the importance given to it by the local community.

Although the majority of the documentation of both phases one and three of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme was primarily collected to fulfil the inherent aims of the respective programme phases, it would become very useful as a complement of the other sources of evidence, like interviews and participant observation. Document analysis in this first stage was also essential to prepare the overall research project conception, as well as the fieldwork that would be conducted by the researcher later in 2011.

ii) Participant observation

Participant observation was undertaken in the first stage of the empirical study, with intense and prolonged interactions gained both as a student and as a volunteer integrating a programme implementation. Firstly, the participation in the course permitted to understand what was expected from a UNWTO volunteer and the diverse characteristics

and skills of the group of volunteers. Furthermore, friendship relationships with volunteers of many different countries, the majority from Latin America, were very helpful for the researcher to get knowledge about tourism development in that continent as well as to receive feedback about other projects in which some of the volunteers would participate. These facts and the direct contact with UNWTO staff allowed the researcher to register the first impressions about the *characteristics of the transferor and the programme*. In the process some of these contacts would be very useful for collecting further data and to plan the research field work in 2011.

Secondly, the participation in the programme implementation in Chiapas allowed the researcher to spend a significant and intensive period involved in the programme – about six months of active participation in total, including the 3 weeks of field work in the case study area. During this time, reflective field notes were taken to document observations. This was mainly about the behaviour of the actors involved (volunteers, consultants, local actors), as well as their opinions through informal conversations about what was going on, conditions to develop the work on the field, the methodology employed, expressed feelings, among other aspects.

The participant observation was fundamental for this study, namely to get a critical view of the programme, identifying already in the field some major *critical success factors* that could explain future results of the programme implementation. This was even more important considering the fact that this critical analysis started to be constructed not only from the own opinion of the researcher but mainly from the diverse views of a broad range of participants.

At last, it is worth to highlight that without this active participation of the researcher in the programme fieldwork in Chiapas and the registration of all those observations, as well as the contacts of some transferee key actors in all the process, it would have been very difficult to organize the research empirical field work in Chiapas, three years later. This is patent in the next section that describes all the proceedings of stage two data collection in 2011.

iii) Semi-structured interviews with UNWTO actors

In order to get the perspective of the programme implementation in this exploratory phase, semi-structured interviews with UNWTO volunteers and consultants were conducted. This took place in the last days of the fieldwork and was intended to cover all the eleven international volunteers, and three UNWTO consultants. Nevertheless, mainly due to time constrains it was only possible to interview seven volunteers and one UNWTO consultant. The main aspects covered by the interviews included the transferor profile, expectations towards the impact of the programme on the region's development, the methodology used, as well as the role played by the programme in terms of its potential to improve the destination competitiveness. The interviews guides used in this phase are presented in Appendices 6.4 and 6.5, for the volunteers and consultants, respectively.

6.3.1.2 Stage two: data collection in the UNWTO.Volunteers programme's follow-up

In this section, a contextualization about the Chiapas programme follow-up research stage and its relation with the research objectives is presented before explaining how data collection was conducted. First of all, it is important to explain why there was a gap of three years between stage one and stage two of the research data collection. This was due to two main reasons.

Firstly, after the exploratory study conducted through the participation of the researcher in the UNWTO.Volunteers programme, there was the need to interpret that empirical experience in light of a consolidated literature review. It is considered that the richness of that experience was crucial for the conceptual discussion as it has provided invaluable insights to review the literature in a focused way and with a critical perspective. It is worth noting that knowing since the beginning the field and key actors about which the case study would be conducted constituted a value-added for the conception and planning of the empirical research in the second stage. Therefore, during this period, it was conducted an intensive literature review and the theoretical IDCT model was developed in parallel with the preparation of the fieldwork for the second stage follow-up research.

Secondly, the nature of the research question demanded a sufficient timeframe in order to let some development changes derived from the programme to take place. In fact, if one of the main aims of the study was to find out the critical success factors that explain the results of IDC programmes in tourism and how are these factors perceived by the different actors involved, then necessarily a sufficient interval had to be left between the development intervention and the empirical data collection.

Planning proceedings of the fieldwork in Chiapas

It was deemed important to investigate the perceptions of a wide range of key actors, not only those involved directly in the development intervention in 2008, but also some local stakeholders that assume actual functions in the tourism development process. Also addressed in this stage was the direct observation by the researcher of the situation in-site, visiting the five municipalities involved aiming to look for differences on the results of the programme dependent on their different nature and tourism vocation.

The three years interval would make more difficult to get the collaboration for the interviews of the same key actors that meanwhile assumed different roles in tourism development or other areas. Therefore, and considering other constraints associated to the characteristics of the case under study - physical distance between the researcher (Portugal) and the research site (Mexico), the inherent costs involved, geographic dispersion of the five municipalities within the territory, and the interval of three years between the implemented programme and the empirical study - the research fieldwork had to be carefully planned well in advance, having finally been conducted from June to August of 2011.

Before that period, the researcher established contacts with UNWTO volunteers, consultants and collaborators, and key actors from Chiapas that participated in the programme asking their collaboration. The contacts with UNWTO staff were facilitated by the participation of the researcher in a UNWTO international forum held in Algarve from the 1st to 3rd of June 2011 - *Tourism and Science: Bridging theory and practice* organized by the *UNWTO Knowledge Network Forum*. Additionally, this Forum

represented an excellent opportunity to discuss some of the results of the exploratory study and the literature review done until that moment, and just before the empirical fieldwork commence, with international consultants and UNWTO consultants.

Among them were one of the Mexican consultants of the programme in Chiapas 2008 and a Spanish UNWTO consultant that was associated to the conception and implementation of the programme in previous editions. The former assumed a relevant role in the establishment or reinforcement of some contacts with few *transferee* key actors from Chiapas and as an intermediate between the researcher and them. Nevertheless it was agreed that this collaboration would be done only for two of the five municipalities – Tuxtla Gutierrez and Palenque. Therefore, for these cases it was possible to get a schedule for some interviews in advance. To make viable that collaboration in-site, an agreement protocol was established between the working institutions of the researcher and the consultant in order to formalize it. This would comprise support not only related to the necessary contacts, but also in terms of accommodation, and transport.

An identical formal proceeding was proposed to facilitate the collaboration of another Mexican collaborator – a former UNWTO volunteer - for the fieldwork municipalities of San Cristóbal de las Casas and Comitán de Domínguez. An agreement protocol was also established between the working institutions of the researcher and that collaborator, covering the support for accommodation, transport, and the permission for that collaborator to accompany the researcher to the interviews in these two municipalities.

At last, for the case of the municipality of Chiapa de Corzo the email contacts previously established with the former and actual tourism coordinator were very fruitful as he demonstrated since the beginning a total availability and enthusiasm in collaborating with the research. This was also reinforced by another important contribute from the Mexican main coordinator of the programme who made several institutional contacts, not only with the municipality authorities of Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla, but also with the *Secretaria de Turismo* of the State of Chiapas (SECTUR – Mexican state authority of tourism).

The mentioned collaborations were of great help to facilitate the subsequent contacts once in the field, as well as the access to some requested documents. All these proceedings were previously discussed and approved by the thesis supervisors, having been decided that the main data collection sources of evidence would be in-depth, semi-structured interviews, complemented with direct observations, and associated relevant documentation. The proceedings inherent to each of these methods are explained below, as follows: i) Semi-structured interviews and key actors sampling procedures, ii) Document analysis, and iii) Direct Observation.

i) Semi-structured interviews and key actors sampling procedures

Interviews structure and proceedings

Interviews in this study were designed to cover the different perspectives of the transferor and the transferee actors direct or indirectly involved, and following a constructivist perspective. In particular, it was adopted in-depth, semi-structured interviews aiming at gathering detailed, reflective answers based on consideration of the respondents' evidence and experiences while following a number of predetermined open-ended questions for each subject in a systematic and consistent order (Bryman, 2008; Berg, 2001; Patton, 1990).

An interview guide was prepared in advance of the fieldwork based on the key theories and issues raised in the literature review, comprising a series of questions to ensure that the same type of issues was attained from all participants in the study (Patton, 1990). However, some adjustments were introduced depending on the group they belonged to (transferor or transferee, the former including two subgroups and the latter three subgroups, as will be explained in the sampling procedures below). As a result two main interview guides were prepared (see Appendix 6.6 for the transferor, and Appendix 6.7 for the transferee). Additionally, a small inquiry form with closed questions was developed in order to ask the interviewees to complement some information that could eventually be missed (or be contradictory) during the interview, namely related to their profile (Appendix 6.8). This form and the interview guides were all translated into Spanish as this was the working language throughout all the data collection phases.

The structure of the interview guides was consistent with the main critical success factors of KT&LE in tourism IDC programmes, based on the theoretical model proposal. Nevertheless, not all dimensions and categories were questioned directly, either because there were other sources of evidence where to find out adequate answers (e.g. direct observation and document analysis), or because the open answers to other questions would provide transversal insights to diverse dimensions and key factors. For this reason questions related to the dimension of *Activities* were not directly integrated in the interview guide. Therefore, this was divided in five main sections corresponding to the main dimensions of the model.

The main aim was to find out the answers from the voices of the different key actors involved directly or indirectly in the programme case study concerning their perceptions about it. A set of questions was formulated about specific key factors related to those previously discussed core dimensions. It is worth to note, however, that in spite of this semi-structured format there was space for the interviewee to make in-depth reflections about other critical success factors than those possible reflected in the questions of the guide. Appendix 6.9 presents the general structure of the questions followed for each dimension section, associated key factors, and main aims.

The average length of interviews was thirty minutes, ranging from ten minutes (typically those with not participating actors in the programme in 2008) to one hour (normally those with key relevant actors with an active participating role and willingness to discuss and explore the issues under investigation). Interviews were digitally audio-recorded with the permission of the respondent (Bryman, 2008; Patton, 1990), and transcribed whenever possible after the interview. As will be further detailed in the section of data analysis, the resulting transcribed text amounted to nearly three hundred and sixty pages. All of this process is highly time-consuming. Under the mentioned agreements established prior to the fieldwork with local universities, it was possible to ask for the collaboration of a former Mexican student to check all the audio-recorded interviews and the respective transcripts in order to avoid possible idiom differences misunderstandings.

The openness of the interviewees was stimulated by the proximity of the researcher with the majority of them, derived from her prior active participation in the programme being studied. This fact appears to have contributed to a certain degree of identification, and some admiration for the attributed efforts to the researcher concerning their actual situation and programme follow-up attempt, while preserving a position of an outsider, as well as guaranteeing the anonymity and confidentiality of responses. Nevertheless, even though the researcher had always clearly demarcated the aims of the research as being

merely academic and independent of the UNWTO, in many cases this fact was ignored and she was regarded and introduced among local actors as someone coming specifically from UNWTO to talk about the programme undertaken in 2008.

It is worth of note that it was very difficult to guarantee that once in-site all would flow in time and according to a pre-established formatted schedule, considering the necessity of covering five geographically dispersed municipalities in one month and a half. Fortunately, once in the field this would be soon dissipated due to the informal, friendly and easy-going Mexican way of being, typically favouring face-to-face contacts to long-distance and formal attempts of contacts done in advance.

Of course, this would imply in many cases having to face many contingencies, such as repeated visits and attempts to find out some aimed respondents, sometimes having to be very persistent and conduct the interviewees not in the most adequate physical settings and conditions. It is worth of mention some real situations, that became even object of field notes registration to support later the description of the natural setting under study, like reflected in the following examples: commercial noisy stores working places of the respondents with “marimba” traditional local musicians around and regular interruptions of the clients and friends passing by; state and municipal tourism offices with many people going in and out, and phone calls interruptions; difficult access to some technicians offices like one located in the police building implying the researcher to have to walk through the detainees of the day; to find out a former tourism director in his actual dentist clinic working place; hotel and restaurants lounges with the normal movement of clients; cultural ateliers, some in open air with the surrounding working noise, and extremely adverse climate conditions.

Sampling procedures and related fieldwork steps

A sampling strategy was designed to guide the selection of interviewees to participate in this qualitative study. Considering the structure of the programme case study developed in Chiapas and aiming at studying multiple key actors’ perceptions about that case, the selected sample would have to be as diverse as possible to provide the broadest range of information. This is the principle of theoretical sampling mostly used in qualitative research, rather than a statistical sampling more common in quantitative research (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007). Before explaining the specific sampling procedures associated with these principles, it is important to schematize the diversity of key actors that should be contemplated in this study (Figure 6.6).

Theoretical sampling implies the consciously adding of new cases to be studied according to the potential for developing new insights relevant for the study (Decrop, 2004). This is done until a saturation point in information is reached and no new information is being gained (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). It was under these principles that a total of 50 actors were interviewed, following a non-probabilistic sampling, combining a purposive and snowball sampling (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 1990), within the structure of groups and subgroups presented in Figure 6.5.

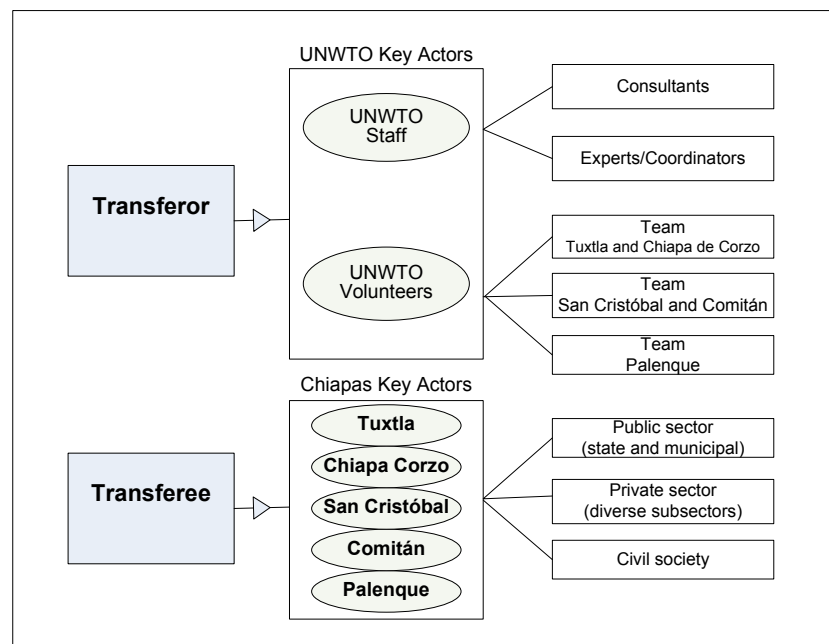


Figure 6.5 - Structure of key actors to integrate in the sample

In a **purposive** sampling the researcher selects respondents for study because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Silverman, 2000). This implies to decide on who should be sampled, even though this should be flexible in that it “can change during the study” (Creswell, 2007: 126). In this study, the researcher identified purposefully some relevant actors that should not be missed for interviewing.

Then, it was applied a **snowball** sampling to support the selection of respondents about which the researcher had no information or actual contacts. The snowball process consists in building up a sample by asking an initial set of informants to supply names and contacts of other potential sample members (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Finn et al., 2000). The snowball approach is considered a useful means of identifying relevant key actors at the local level based on the views of other key actors (Araújo & Bramwell, 1999). This process was useful in two main situations. One was verified in municipalities about which the researcher had not been directly involved in the fieldwork, namely Tuxtla, Chiapa and Palenque. The other was related with the interest in knowing the perspective of actual local key players that did not participate in 2008.

Concerning the **transferor key actors** sampling, within the first subgroup, there were three selected interviewees. One was a former consultant that did not participate in the Chiapas edition of the course but that had field experience and was involved in the conception and development of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme. The other two were the Mexican coordinators of the Chiapas programme. Two of them were interviewed in the UNWTO Forum in Algarve in the 3rd of June 2011, and the other in Mexico City, in 19th of August of 2011. Because the two Mexican coordinators dealt with a broad range of transferee actors of all its subgroups, and kept a regular contact with some of them, they were very helpful in the snowball sampling process, facilitating some of the first contacts.

Regarding the group of volunteers, it was purposively selected one respondent of each of the three geographic areas worked out in the fieldwork activities in 2008. Additionally, as the volunteers lived in different countries and distant regions by the time of the research fieldwork (Brasil, Guatemala, different regions of Spain and of Mexico) their selection had to be feasible with the researcher physical capacity to meet them. Considering these constraints and after locating them, it was decided to interview one Spanish volunteer in Pontevedra (Spain), another Spanish volunteer resident in Mexico City, and a Mexican volunteer in San Cristóbal. All of them were considered as having a relevant role in the field of study not only because they were very active in the Chiapas project, but also because they were still participating somehow in IDC or tourism consultancy activities. They all provided very important insights in the interviews with a very critical view.

Secondly, as far as it concerns the **transferee key actors**, it was initially planned that a minimum of six interviewees per municipality would be adequate in order to have at least two respondents of each subgroup in all municipalities. Nevertheless, once in the field things followed a more flexible structure depending on the different environments, and circumstances of access to local actors found in each municipality. In some cases it was concluded that there were no relevant key actors in some of the pre-defined subgroups. The researcher started with the few contacts with local actors that were possible to schedule in advance, namely those with the municipal authorities of Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla. These two municipalities were worked simultaneously for about two weeks as they distance only about fifteen kilometres.

In **Chiapa de Corzo**, the hospitality and enthusiasm with which the researcher was received, as someone yet from the UNWTO, facilitated in great measure the snowball process with the tourism director who made himself several contacts and mandated a collaborator to accompany the researcher to the place of the interviewees. Although this constituted a very good starting point, to avoid being too much dependent on the contacts proposed by the municipality staff, the researcher established also her own personnel contacts for other interviews. The richness and diversity of the data collected here led to the decision of surpassing the initially planned number of interviews per municipality, totalising thirteen: three of the private sector, four of the civil society and six of the public sector.

In the case of **Tuxtla** the access to key local players was far more demanding due too the fact of this being the capital of the state, with more bureaucratic and logistical constraints. For this reason it was very important the already mentioned support agreed with a former Mexican UNWTO coordinator, who has established in advance a week plan with scheduled interviews, having participated in most of them. A total of nine interviews were conducted. Some of them had to be re-scheduled and postponed for some weeks later, namely with the State Secretary of Tourism.

Equally in light of the collaboration agreement with that coordinator it was possible to get the invaluable support of the national Institute of Archaeology and History (INAH - *Instituto Nacional de Arqueología e História*), in its delegation located in Villahermosa (capital of the state of Tabasco) to conduct the fieldwork in **Palenque**. This support was given in the premise of encouraging research about the destination, having consisted in accommodation and transport facilities. It should be noted that Palenque distances about 280 kilometres from Tuxtla and has very difficult accesses due to its location in a jungle area as well as political conflicts. After a meeting with the INAH director in Villahermosa, for discussing all the necessary logistical arrangements, it was possible to interview one of

their archaeologists that participated in the programme in 2008. After that, once arriving in Palenque, the snowball effect was determinant with a first interview to a hotel director that immediately called to some local key actors to ask for interviews or indicating where to find other relevant actors. A rapid saturation effect (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) determined that the majority of the interviews here were shorter than the average, totalising seven. Due to incompatible agendas this was the only municipality in which it was not possible to interview the actual municipal tourism director.

In the subsequent fieldwork area - **San Cristóbal** and Comitán - the interviews were also conducted following a purposive snowball sampling. Only after arriving to San Cristóbal, where the researcher stayed for two weeks, under the support previously agreed with the Intercultural University of Chiapas, the fieldwork plan was delineated. While this could constitute a constraint, the identification of relevant respondents in these two municipalities was facilitated by the fact that this area was the one that the researcher integrated in the work team of 2008. This ease of contact with potential respondents was reinforced by the collaboration of the already mentioned resident volunteer, a lecturer of the supporting university. Eight interviews were conducted here.

In general, the local actors were very receptive, accepting to be interviewed and indicating where to find out other relevant respondents. In the case of **Comitán**, the sampling proceedings were similar having been asked in advance the collaboration of a former tourism director and a local volunteer. In this case, however, the saturation point of information was early felt, leading to the decision of shortening the duration of the fieldwork here. Seven interviews were conducted.

In Appendix 6.10 it is systematized all the sample information, namely the respondents' profile, with references to their affiliation, and whether they participated or not in the programme in 2008. This is further complemented with specifications about each interview, like its local and date, duration, number of transcribed pages, and the respective code attributed to each respondent in order to easily identify them throughout data analysis.

ii) Document analysis

Like discussed in stage one of the research, documentation constituted an important complimentary source of evidence of the study. This included diverse documents including audio and written materials (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2003). Table 6.7 summarizes the type of documents consulted in this stage according to the corresponding main aims.

Table 6.7 Documents consulted in stage two and corresponding aims

Type of Document	Research Aims
<i>Chiapas 2015</i> Final Report	To understand the specific characteristics of the Chiapas programme analysing the contents of the final report, namely the description of the aims of the programme and methodology applied in the fieldwork; the described profile of the transferor actors (consultants and volunteers); the characteristics of the territory and municipalities; the type of products and development strategies proposed based on the diagnostic of the destination. Another objective of this analysis was to compare it with the established aims approved in the terms of

Type of Document	Research Aims
	reference, as well as the ability of the transferor to produce, gather, organize and apply new knowledge in the destination specific context.
“ <i>Senda de Cores</i> ” Annual Report	“ <i>Senda de Cores</i> ” is the designation given to an inter-municipal tourism board created as an attempt to follow one of the main recommendations of the report Chiapas 2015. Although this was aimed at reinforcing the competitiveness of the cluster of the five municipalities involved, it worked mainly as a state and inter-municipal team for promotional purposes. The first annual report was analysed aiming at comparing the reported aims, activities, resources involved, and expected results with those initially recommended in the Chiapas 2015 Report. In addition, it was also aimed to compare it with the perception of the diverse UNWTO and local actors about its adequateness and utility.
Promotional brochures and websites	Some promotional material was collected from the five municipalities tourism offices, and associated websites most of it under the brand “ <i>Senda de Cores</i> ”. Its analysis was done aiming at finding out its significance in light of the recommendations done and the awareness and perceptions of the different local actors about it.
Electronic mail messages	Emails exchanged with some interviewees, although initially concerned with practical arrangements related with the interviews, provided in some cases interesting insights to complement the collected data.

Overall, the different documents consulted provided very important information that allowed responding to some research aims. This was crucial not only in the cases when this constituted the only possible source of evidence (e.g. description of the type and characteristics of the development intervention; visualization of promotional material), but also as a complement of data from interviews and direct observations.

iii) Direct Observation

The interactions established in the case study area permitted to take reflective field notes taking advantage of contacting directly with the real living contexts of the study object and interviewees within-site. These observations were documented mainly during the interviews having been facilitated by the fact that the majority of the interviewees knew the researcher before, or at least the case study programme. This facilitated contacts stimulating a relaxed atmosphere most of the times. In some cases the researcher had to remind the interviewees her role as an outsider observant and not as part of the UNWTO staff.

As explained in the fieldwork proceedings section, some interviews were conducted jointly by the researcher and other Mexican volunteer or consultant. About this type of proceedings, Yin (2003) defends that more than a single observer may increase reliability of observational evidence and it was certainly the case in this study. Indeed, relevant behaviours or global conditions witnessed were discussed between the interviewees and registered in that moment or soon after that (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 2001).

Therefore, observations gathered and registered in a report included diverse relevant events such as: aspects of tourism activity organization, tourism information, real living conditions and situations in the working places of the interviewees, interruptions by a knock on the door or a phone call and related commentaries, their previous and actual

functions compared, notes of meetings with local actors, and the attitudes towards the researcher as a former UNWTO volunteer. Additionally, key-ideas of the overall impression of the interviewer/s about the conversations established in the context of the questions posed and mainly of informal conversations before and after the interview were also worth of registration.

In sum, direct observations constituted an important source of evidence in this study. This played an important role as a form of triangulation in contrast with the other sources of evidence. It is worth to note, however, that these field observations were not used as a primary data set alone, like often happens in sociological and ethnographic studies, but essentially as an important complementary source of information based on relevant reflections. This perspective of use of “the richness of actual encounters and observations” is well described by Emerson et al. (2001: 365) as “at best serving as jumping-off points for subsequent analysis”.

6.3.2 Data analysis methods

The process of analysis needs to be seen as part of the research design (Yin, 1994). Therefore, after having presented the main options in terms of data collection methods, it is important to justify the main underpinnings regarding the analytical strategy just before the results discussion. In qualitative research, data analysis “consists essentially of preparing and organizing the data (...) for analysis, then reducing the data into themes through a process of coding and condensing the codes, and finally representing the data in figures, tables, or a discussion” (Creswell, 2007: 148). This is related with the notion of content analysis (Bardin, 2004) which though not easy to define, may be assumed as a “technique that allows making inferences by systematically and objectively identifying specific characteristics in the message” (Marshall & Rossman, 1989: 98).

It was decided in this study to conduct a deeper content analysis process only about the interviews done in the second research stage. Although the remaining sources were considered important, these were treated apart and as complementary sources of evidence in order to avoid confusion resultant from types of sources generated in different research moments. Those sources were very useful to describe some aspects of the case programme and its phases, and acted as a form of data triangulation when used in conjunction with the interviews at the second stage. In order to understand all the process of data analysis conducted in this study, this section was structured in three parts: data analysis process organization, the content analysis categories, and the computer software analysis support.

6.3.2.1 Data analysis process organization

Like in any other qualitative studies, large amounts of rich data resulted from the present case study. This included the transcripts of the fifty qualitative interviews above identified, as well as the complementary sources of evidence, namely the diverse documents collected and the field notes reports. While the complexity and richness of this data threatened to become unmanageable, it was imperative to organize, reduce and transform it into an accessible and understandable form (Beeton, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

This had to be undertaken in such a way that allowed drawing out various themes and patterns associated with the UNWTO programme's participants being studied (Berg, 2001; Dey, 1993), trying to avoid at the same time an extensive writing up of the case.

Therefore, the interviews' transcripts were analysed and organised utilising the principles of content analysis which implies the familiarisation and immersion within the data (Thomas, 2004). This is focused on three main steps: (1) coding the data (reducing the data into meaningful segments and assigning names for the segments); (2) combining the codes into broader categories or themes; and (3) displaying and making comparisons in the data graphs, tables, and charts (Creswell, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Only after the process of fracturing data through the coding and classifying of source material into theoretically defined categories, it is possible to gradually move from a descriptive to an interpretive phase of analysis in light of a theoretical model (Creswell, 2007; Thomas, 2004). These categories were devised both through the identification of meaningful themes (inductive approach) and the testing of previously devised categories (deductive approach) (Berg, 2001).

6.3.2.2 Content analysis: dimensions, categories, and subcategories

The most generalized type of content analysis is categorial analysis (Bardin, 2004). It is worth at this stage to clarify the meaning of category in this context. According to Bardin (2004), a category expresses a criterion, or a set of criteria, aiming at distinguishing some observations from others, whether similar or related in some particular respect. Data within each category can then be compared and interpreted. It should be noted that, in the context of content analysis, the term "category" corresponds to what have been designated as "key factors" throughout this study and in the IDCT model proposal. However, in order to follow the specific terminology used in content analysis we will here divide our "themes" in dimensions, categories, and subcategories, even if some of them are not explicit in the model.

In order to organize all the information gathered in the case study research in such a way that would allow the discussion of the IDCT model proposed in Chapter 5, a set of categories were thematically incorporated into the corresponding main dimensions of the model (inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes, KT&LE, and impacts). As some data identified in the transcripts was not previously conceptualized and therefore not associated to any of the devised categories, this would be only later categorized leading to the model refinement. In sum, for each dimension of the model, a series of themes were generated and coded into categories and subcategories. A further scrutiny of these categories would then reveal interrelationships and hierarchies among them and within the main dimensions (Berg, 2001; Jennings, 2001; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The first step to codify all the transcripts was the selection of relevant record units - portion(s) of text in the interviews which, in this case, ranged from a sentence or parts of it to a paragraph - and associate it with one or more categories or subcategories. This process was done in light of the proposed theoretical model and through a carefully reading of all the interviews in a constant effort to find out the more significant parts related to the research aims.

In order to facilitate all the process of codification, an objective conceptual definition was assigned to each category and corresponding subcategories, when it was necessary to subdivide the former (see Table 6.8). This was done mainly considering the literature review and through some new concepts that arose from the empirical study, namely from the interviews, document analysis and observation.

Table 6.8 Simple definition assigned to dimensions, categories and subcategories

Dimension: INPUTS	
“Raw material” used in a development intervention.	
Category: Transferor Characteristics	
Characteristics of the transferor that influence the results of the programme.	
Subcategories	
Willingness to implement	Motivation to devote time and resources to support the process of KT.
Level of experience	Participation in other projects of the same nature done before.
knowledge base	Ability to produce, gather, organize and apply new knowledge.
Cultural behaviour/traits	Behaviour - style, leadership, cultural differences, among others.
Category: Transferee Characteristics	
Characteristics of the transferee that influence the results of the programme.	
Subcategories	
Willingness to learn	Motivation to devote time and resources to support the process of KT.
Trust	Trust in the programme and perception about the reliability, trustworthy, and knowledge attributed to the transferor.
knowledge base	Absorptive capacity, and ability to exploit outside sources of knowledge to produce, gather, organize and apply new knowledge.
Cultural behaviour/traits	Behaviour considering the style, leadership, cultural differences, among others.
Category: Characteristics of the programme	
Characteristics/specifications of the agreement arrangements established between the parties.	
Subcategories	
Type of strategy	Planned, incremental or an emergence strategy.
Type of approach	Direct or indirect; long-term, short-term, or ad-hoc approach.
Type of intervention	Financial support, advising, training, coaching, providing technical information, linking to networks, others.
Type of resources	Resources involved including human (participating actors), financial, material, technological and information.
Dimension: ACTIVITIES	
Work performed through which inputs are mobilized to produce outputs	
Category: Planning	
Process of planning the necessary actions to fulfil the programme requirements.	
Category: Field Work Actions	
Fieldwork activities including collection and analysis of primary and secondary data.	
Category: Reporting	
Reporting the main preliminary conclusions of the activities undertaken in the field.	
Dimension: OUTPUTS	
Specific products and services that emerge from the completion of the activities.	
Category: Perceived utility and usability of the deliverable	

Perceived utility by the local stakeholders, the areas covered, the deepness, coherence and level of intelligibility of the information and knowledge created, and the resulting proposals.

Dimension: OUTCOMES

Short-term or medium-term effects triggered by the outputs.

Category: Level of knowledge utilization

Types of uses of knowledge (conceptual, political, instrumental, process).

Category: Decision making and problem-solving

Extent to which there is improved decision-making influenced by an appropriate level of knowledge utilization that lead to solve specific problems (e.g. technical, organizational, commercial or intellectual) faced by the local communities and the tourism destination.

Dimension: KT&LE

Characteristics of the environment process of KT&LE induced by the development intervention in all its phases.

Category: Interactions of types of knowledge

Interactions between tacit and explicit knowledge that support the processes of knowledge translation.

Subcategories

Tacit to tacit Transfer of knowledge through socialisation within the participating actors in each phase of the development intervention.

Tacit to explicit Transfer of knowledge through externalisation of it, for example, resulting from meetings, and brainstorming sessions.

Explicit to explicit Transfer or combination of knowledge, transferring it from one explicit form to another one.

Explicit to tacit Transfer of explicit to tacit knowledge, or internalisation, by creating new ideas.

Category: Interactions among actors

Process of knowledge socially produced through the establishment of links that did not exist or were different before

Subcategories

Type of interaction Reinforcement of networks and communities of practice.

Level of interaction Generation of trust, co-operative and collaborative culture, commitment and identification with the group's expertise, communication, teamwork.

Category: Situatedness

Spaces and times in which knowledge exchange takes place.

Subcategories

Time Mobility/circulation of knowledge over time, and adequateness of the timing of the development intervention.

Space Spatial context - territorial inclusion and exclusion (geographical areas involved), and agents that circulate and appropriate knowledge.

Category: Government enforcement

Extent to which the local government encourages the process of KT.

Subcategories

Commitment Encouragement of the local government for KT to occur in appropriate conditions.

Logistical support Kind of logistical support given to the development intervention.

Communication Means and efforts of communication with all the stakeholders.

Dimension: IMPACTS

Influence that the development intervention has in accomplishing successful development changes in the long-term.

6.3.2.3 Computer software analysis support

All the content analysis process above described was supported by the computer software WebQDA (Web Qualitative Data Analysis). Having been developed by the University of Aveiro, this is claimed to be the first software for analysis of non-numerical and unstructured data in a collaborative distributed environment based on the Internet (Neri de Souza, Costa, & Moreira, 2011). Like the more popular software programme NVivo, WebQDA helps to manage, shape, and analyse qualitative data. Additionally, it can display graphically the codes and categories (Creswell, 2007).

The WebQDA software is organized in three main tools, namely: 1) *Sources*, 2) *Codes*, and 3) *Queries* (Neri de Souza et al., 2011). The *Sources* section consists of a documents system storage area which holds documents, image, audio, videos, notes, and memos. The *Codes* section is provided to create the dimensions, indicators, categories, and subcategories, whether descriptive (descriptors and classifications) or interpretative (free codes and tree codes). At last, the *Queries* section integrates a set of search and feedback tools that allow inquiring the data *corpus* and thus to find out answers to the research questions as well as to formulate new questions directly connected to data.

In the words of Neri de Souza et al. (2011: 19), “questioning is the fundamental art for making science. The researcher needs to develop a critical thinking by questioning” data throughout the various stages provided by the research. In this respect, Richards (2002) states that the kind of tools provided by softwares like WebQDA allow the formulation of questions to which it would not be possible to respond in a valid and consistent way only using a manual system. This is a fact mainly when it is aimed to fully understand in an interactive way the existing patterns and interceptions between the categorized data. In order to attain these objectives, four types of tools are available: i) more frequent words, ii) text search tool, iii) matrixes, and iv) codes search.

In particular, matrixes permit versatile answers to the diverse questions that the researcher may pose throughout all the process of analysis and interpretation of its data *corpus* (Neri de Souza et al., 2011). This allows, for instance, making cross-analysis between the different type of respondents’ classifications and the respective categories as well as between the different dimensions. In the present study, this specific tool will play a crucial role mainly regarding the cross-analysis between KT&LE with each of the dimensions of the central block of the model – Activities, Outputs, and Outcomes. This will be reflected in the results discussion and conclusion-drawing of Chapter 7.

6.4 Methodological Triangulation - strategies for validating findings

Triangulation is fundamental as a strategy of validating findings. In a triangle analogy, triangulation implies that a single point is considered from three different and independent sources in the study of social phenomena (Bryman, 2008; Decrop, 1999). Although the “emphasis has tended to be on methods of investigation and sources of data” (Bryman, 2008: 379), Denzin (1978, in Decrop, 1999) identified the following main types of triangulation: multiple observers, theoretical perspectives, sources of data, and methodologies. In Table 6.9 it is presented a summary of these types of triangulation as applied to the present study.

Table 6.9 Types of triangulation in qualitative research applied in the study

Type of triangulation	Meaning	Use in this study
Data and methods triangulation	Use of multiple methods and data to study a single problem. It can include different qualitative methods or a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques. It can combine primary and secondary data, at different places and times.	Use of different qualitative methods to collect primary data, including participant observation, and exploratory interviews in a first stage of the research, and semi-structured interviews with direct observation in a second stage. Secondary data based on documents from multiple types (reports, photographs, promotional material, minutes of meetings, newspapers, etc).
Observers triangulation	Use of several different researchers to interpret the same body of data or multiple observers registering field notes of their observations too.	In some phases of the study, mainly as a participant observer and in some interviews the researcher could share her interpretation of the reality observed with other participants and register field notes of the resulting discussions. In this way, the researcher field notes did not depend only on her own view. All the interviews´ transcripts were reviewed by a Mexican collaborator avoiding errors or misunderstandings of the researcher translation transcripts.
Theoretical triangulation	Theoretical triangulation involves using multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data.	Data analysis considered the multiple perspectives that arose from the literature review combining three main fields of study: IDC, tourism, and KT. The interpretation done in light of the IDCT model proposal led to diverse theoretical implications, allowing triangulation.

Source: adapted from Decrop (1999); Diefenbach (2009)

Through the combination of data sources and methods, observers, and theories, triangulation in this study contributed to richer and potentially more valid interpretations, helping to get a fairly good picture of the reality under study (Decrop, 1999; Diefenbach, 2009). In this process, like highlighted by Diefenbach (2009), the most important thing is whether or not the study gained with the selected methods and options in such a way that permitted to answer to the research questions.

6.5 Conclusion

The rationale of this chapter was the outlining of the methodology adopted for the empirical study of this thesis, considering three main aspects: the case study strategy, the research design, and methodological triangulation. This discussion was done according to the research paradigm that underlies this thesis as discussed in Chapter 1.

Prior to outlining the case study, this option was justified around some major arguments, mainly the fact that the nature of the main research question was focused on the “how” type. Another major reason was the aim to analyse the context and processes of KT within IDC programmes in tourism, which would be more attainable adopting a case study strategy. It was then introduced the type of case study to be analysed as a single-case corresponding to an IDC programme implemented in a tourism destination of a

developing country. Within this context, the researcher role was defined as to expand and generalize theory about KT and learning through IDC programmes in the tourism field.

Secondly, the following subsection presented three main reasons that supported the decision for selecting the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme and its application to Chiapas, in Mexico, in 2008. The main reason being the fact that this constitutes an approach that aims to support developing countries to achieve a sustainable and more competitive tourism sector based on KT and learning processes. At last, this case was described, characterizing the programme in general, and then contextualizing its implementation in Mexico in the state of Chiapas.

The research design was then presented emphasizing, first, the set of data collection methods, and then the description of data analysis procedures. A two-stage research process was undertaken to collect data. The first was based on the direct participation of the researcher in the UNWTO.Volunteers programme, including a course preparation in 2007 and its implementation in Chiapas in 2008, and the second in a follow-up research conducted in Chiapas in 2011.

Throughout the participation of the researcher in the programme being studied, data collection consisted in document analyses, participant observation and exploratory semi-structured interviews. This phase was considered determinant to adjust the focus of the literature review to the development of a theoretical model aiming at filling an identified gap in this research field. Additionally, knowing in advance the programme and the field before undertaking the designated research second stage facilitated the process of data collection fieldwork. Fifty semi-structured interviews were applied to a purposive and snowball sample of key actors of that programme, complemented with document analysis and direct observations. The methods adopted for data analysis were explained following the principles of content analysis, having been presented six main dimensions, and corresponding categories and subcategories. This would sustain all the process of data codification with the support of the WebQDA computer software.

The chapter ends highlighting triangulation as a strategy for validating findings. It was concluded that the combination of research methods adopted in this study permitted to apply triangulation, namely through multiple observers, theoretical perspectives, sources of data, and methodologies. This contributed to richer and potentially more valid interpretations, helping to get a fairly good picture of the reality of the processes and contexts under which KT can be successful through IDC programmes within tourism destinations. In this way it is believed that are gathered the conditions to answer to the research questions of this thesis through the results discussion undertaken in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

Considering that the main goal of this study is concerned with the analysis of the critical success factors of IDC programmes that are based in KT approaches in the context of tourism development, it is worth to remind some principles associated to the appreciation of success, as to clarify in advance the analysis context of these factors. The first principle is related to the concept of success for which there is no agreement as regards international cooperation projects (Font et al., 2012). Indeed, like outlined by Diallo and Thuillier (2005: 238), “there is no «absolute» success or consistency in success appreciation over time: there is only «perceived success»”, which differs among the stakeholders involved. The second main principle is related to the variables that can be considered in that process of perceived success and that should take into account if the goals and objectives are achieved in the planned timeframe, cost and quality within the context of the project’s terms of reference (Font et al., 2012).

It is with these assumptions that the results discussed in this chapter are primarily conducted based on the perceptions from fifty interviews conducted to both transferor and transferee actors involved in the UNWTO.Volunteers programme. This is complemented whenever useful with the field notes reported by the researcher in the fieldwork as well as various documentation collected. With this analysis it is expected to test the theoretical model, discussing the level of importance of the identified key factors through the content analysis of the respective categories and subcategories.

As explained in the methodology chapter (subsection 6.3.2), the discussion of the results will be done based essentially on the content analysis of the interviews. This will be complemented whenever relevant with observations done by the researcher as a result of the participant observation conducted during the fieldwork. The content analysis undertaken with the support of the WebQDA software permitted to select the most relevant excerpts of the interviews that better represented the ideas being discussed, whether associated to the categories and subcategories of the theoretical model or other that have not been considered.

It was decided to translate from Spanish into English the literal transcriptions of the selected excerpts of the interviews as to avoid the use of two languages in the main corps of the thesis. The original excerpts extracted from the *ipsis verbis* transcription of the interviews in Spanish and its translation into English are presented in the group of Appendices number 7. It should also be noted that some of them were intercepted with suspension points to avoid it being too long and whenever considered that the main meaning of the phrases was not affected. At last, in the end of each excerpt it is identified the interviewee by the associated code and type of actor.

The chapter presents the results and follows, as accurately as possible, the structure of the theoretical model in its main sections. Section 7.2 presents the most relevant evidences

concerned with the *Inputs* dimension that constitutes the first section of the model. This analysis provides important background information and an overview about what could be considered the “raw material” from which all the programme is triggered and that will determine the process of KT and learning in the subsequent dimensions. This is done presenting the foremost aspects that help to understand to what extent the characteristics of the programme, of the transferor and of the transferee may determine its results.

In sections 7.3, 7.4, and 7.5 it is presented, respectively, the analysis of the Activities, the Outputs, and the Outcomes dimensions, simply describing how the main intervening actors perceived what happened in each of them. That description will be then complemented with the discussion undertaken in section 7.6 where a cross-analysis between those three dimensions and the KT&LE categories will allow for a better comprehension about the importance of the latter within each dimension. This type of analysis is facilitated by the use of a matrix tool available in the WebQda software that permits to cross all the references (number of excerpts) and sources (number of interviews) in an interchangeable way from one dimension to another. Thus, prior to the content analysis of these references, an overview of the total number of references and sources per category is presented at the beginning of the subsections 7.6.1, 7.6.2, and 7.6.3, related respectively with the cross-analysis of KT&LE with the Activities, Outputs, and Outcomes dimensions. This last subsection is divided in two as to present other critical factors with potential influence in the *Outcomes*, and to finalize with some recommendations proposed by the actors to improve the programme outcomes.

The *Impacts* dimension was excluded from the same type of analysis conducted for the other dimensions. This is related with the complex nature inherent to this dimension mainly due to its long-term timeframe that would render it impracticable. As a matter of fact this would demand the development of specific monitoring and evaluation tools that the case study programme does not contemplate and that would be beyond the aims of this study.

It is through the results discussion conducted in Section 7.7 that the main conclusions of the empirical study are drawn and confronted with the literature review and the IDCT model as to confirm and evaluate the relative importance of the interrelations of its dimensions and associated key factors.

7.2 Inputs characterization

The analysis of the *Inputs* dimension provides important background information and an overview about the model categories designated as *characteristics of the programme*, *characteristics of the transferor*, and *characteristics of the transferee*. Regarding the *characteristics of the programme* it is important to analyse the perceptions of the interviewees regarding such aspects of the programme as the typology of development intervention, its mission and aims as well as the practicability for its implementation and follow-up (subsection 7.2.1).

The *characteristics of the transferor* and *the transferee* also constitute important *inputs* for all the process of KT (Szulanski, 1996; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008). These two key factors were described with detail through the assigned categories and subcategories subjacent to the theoretical model since it was based on a consolidated scientific literature about the variables that have a greater influence in this process. Therefore, subsection

7.2.2 analyses the characteristics of the transferor through their own voices complemented with the transferee's and the researcher's opinions about the four subcategories considered more important for the process of KT: the *willingness to implement*; the *level of experience* in projects of the same nature; the *knowledge base*; and the *cultural behaviour* (Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; Goh, 2002; Szulanski, 2000; Duan et al., 2010; Kayes et al., 2005; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Makilouko, 2004).

Similarly, subsection 7.2.3 also analyses the characteristics of the transferee through their own testimony and the opinions of the transferor and the researcher regarding the following four subcategories: the *willingness to learn*; *trust* in the programme; *knowledge base and absorptive capacity*; and *cultural behaviour* (Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; Szulanski, 1996; Diallo & Thuillier, 2005; Cooper, 2006; Kayes et al., 2005; Bathelt, et al. 2004; Makilouko, 2004; Xiao & Smith, 2007). Each of these subcategories is analysed separately although in most of the cases they are interrelated.

7.2.1 Characteristics of the programme

The characteristics of the programme case study were described in Chapter 6 mainly based on the literature review, document analysis and participant observation. According to it, the *typology of development intervention* can be clearly associated to what de Lange and Feddes (2008, in subsection 5.3.1) classify as a planned intervention aiming a planned change through an indirect approach providing support concerning local tourism development processes. In terms of instruments and resources applied, it can be considered a short-term intervention that does not involve any financial support but just technical assistance through information and KT involving essentially human resources like specialized volunteers and consultants.

In terms of its original conception, the UNWTO.Volunteers programme was considered in general an innovative and audacious approach to KT in the context of tourism development (Appendix 7.1 - Q1). It was considered important to understand the perception of the 6 transferor interviewees (3 consultants and 3 volunteers) about the typology of development intervention, its mission and aims. In this regard, it should be noted that all of them highlighted the KT approach of the programme (see also Appendix 7.1 - Q3, Q4):

Q2 - The idea sprung from the need of cooperating at a technical level with developing countries, to provide knowledge to the various administrations and above all the ones related to tourism that were in need of such knowledge and did not have the economic and technical means to achieve it. (E1, Consultant)

Nevertheless, some major criticisms and suggestions were delineated associated to the difficulty of putting in practice what some of the transferor actors considered to be intangible, theoretical and generic aims for this kind of interventions. This was pointed out by one consultant and one volunteer in the following terms:

Q5 - The first thing that should be retouched are the objectives of each mission and turned them much more specific and not as general since there is a waste because of the intangible result that ensues. The more specific the objectives and the smaller territory the better the results will be. They in turn can be better evaluated and there is a better chance of continuity (...) (E1, Consultant)

Q6 - (...) they are objectives much more visionary and utopic (...) I believe these projects have a too large scope, as an umbrella that want to cover too much (...) I believe the objectives should be much more concise, realistic, and tangible. (V2, Volunteer)

These views of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme are coincident with most of the areas of concern for the success of IDC programmes outlined in Chapter 2 (subsection 2.3.4). For instance, UNDP (2009b) points out the greater chance of success when the objectives and scope of the programmes are properly defined and clarified as to avoid difficulties in implementation.

Another frequent drawback pointed to IDC programmes is related with the problems that developing countries often face and that would need to be solved prior to tourism development plans. In Chiapas this problem also emerged with some actors expressing some doubts as to the potential that this region would have in taking off in terms of tourism without resolving a few things beforehand such as lack of water or the serious problems regarding trash collection. Some of them even questioned how could a long-term tourism plan actually be developed if people “continue to throw garbage around and cutting trees” (see also Appendix 7.1 - Q8):

Q7 - We were very clear in expressing some doubts as to the potential that this region would have in taking off in terms of tourism without resolving a few things beforehand such as lack of water within the town and other problems. (CD2, Public Sector)

Finally, several criticisms were outlined mainly relating to the fact that the UNWTO.Volunteers programme does not contemplate any follow-up actions for the implementation of the proposed development plans. The evidences that confirm these criticisms will be discussed with further detail throughout the Outputs and Outcomes analysis.

It can be concluded that as far as concerns the *characteristics of the programme*, the UNWTO.Volunteers programme was conceived according to some of the principles of what is considered a new paradigm of development cooperation, namely the attempt to respond to the MDGs challenges through tourism in which the receiver is supposed to drive the process of its own development by incorporating the resulting knowledge exchange (OECD, 2012) (see subsection 2.3.1, Table 2.3).

Nevertheless, the case study data suggests that if the development agency has no interference at all in the process of implementation and there are no follow-up activities such as spending more time in the field and involving more local actors, it is improbable that real development changes would be accomplished. The problem here is that the programme lacks the necessary resources, mainly financial ones. At an initial phase of the programme this is somehow solved through the support of technical volunteer work and facilities provided by the local tourism authorities and the private sector (e.g. transport and accommodation).

Nevertheless, to maintain the programme with follow-up activities is a more complicated task. This would demand the maintenance of a set of resources that the UNWTO.Themis Foundation so far cannot guarantee. This is related with the typology of the development agency supporting the programme and its available resources to adequately back the programmes in the long-term. This fact raises the question about to what extent should development agencies go forward with IDC programmes knowing that there will be no conditions to guarantee the necessary follow-up for implementation and thus guarantee results afterwards.

Another conclusion is that if one goal of the development intervention is to contribute to the MDG through poverty reduction, this can hardly be achieved if the programme does not work directly with the local poor communities. Additionally, prior to a development intervention in tourism, other areas of concern should be addressed, such as environmental, social, political

and infrastructural problems. Therefore, one critical success factor for tourism development cooperation effectiveness may be that IDC programmes should be more realistic in its aims and more focused in small projects working directly with the poorest communities. Furthermore, they should contemplate some follow-up actions and demand accountability for results from the start which the majority of the programmes like the one being analysed do not contemplate.

7.2.2 Characteristics of the Transferor

The analysis of the *characteristics of the transferor*, according to the discussion of the *Inputs* of the model proposal (subsection 5.3.1) aims at determining to what extent those characteristics may influence the results of the programme (Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; Goh, 2002; Szulanski, 1996; Duan et al., 2010; Kayes et al., 2005; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Makilouko, 2004). As these were divided in four main subcategories - *willingness to implement*, *level of experience*, *knowledge base*, and *cultural behaviour* - each of them is discussed in a separate subsection as follows.

Willingness to implement

Data resulting from the interviews confirming that the *willingness* to support the process of KT reflected in the motivation of the diverse transferor actors to participate in the programme (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008) was considered determinant for the success of the project (Appendix 7.1 - Q9, Q10). In fact, the interviews evidenced that the transferor actors had high expectations towards the programme and its potential to trigger a development process through tourism:

Q11 - The truth is that from the first moment I had a lot of faith in its success, as something that can well trigger development. But I felt this at the beginning of the field work. (V3, Volunteer)

Furthermore, it is interesting to verify the individual motivations implicit in the participation of the volunteers.

Q 12 - (...) I have studied tourism and then I did cooperation work and the opportunity to combine both was the perfect opportunity for me. (V2, Volunteer)

Q 13 - The motivations that made me join the programme were twofold: experience and training wise. International cooperation matters have always interested me and I also started to work on tourism projects in my company and I was lacking theoretical background. Then I thought that this programme complemented the two areas well (...) (V1, Volunteer)

There were three main motivations for participation in the UNWTO.Volunteers that emerged from the interviews and the participant observation of the researcher. The most evident corresponds to the ideal of working on an international project aiming at enhancing the competitiveness of tourism development of a less developed region. This opportunity to integrate an international multidisciplinary team and learning with it emerged here as one of the main motivations to volunteer in IDC programmes as it is viewed as potentially generating professional benefits. In fact, the volunteers considered they could benefit from the experience through the opportunity of knowledge exchange in the field of tourism and international cooperation with people from different origins and backgrounds. The third reason is associated to the development of oneself through the intrinsic personal rewards of contributing to that project. These kinds of motivations to participate in volunteer projects

were well described in the literature review (e.g. Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Guttentag, 2009).

Regarding professional reasons as the main motivations to participate, it should be noted that this may determine in part the short duration of the fieldwork activities of the programme (3 weeks) that was considered a limitation and therefore a critical negative factor (see Appendix 7.1 - Q15, Q16). The short duration of the programme is in consonance with the majority of the volunteers' tourism projects (Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Guttentag, 2009), and with many IDC programmes. Although this is intrinsic to the characteristics of the programme (e.g. limited financial resources to support programmes for longer periods in the field), it is certainly also related with the *characteristics of the transferor* in that qualified volunteers have probably limited availability to be out of their workplaces for a longer period.

Level of experience

Lin and Berg (2001) and Waroonkun (2007) highlighted the level of experience of the transferor in IDC programmes as a critical success factor for the credibility and effectiveness of technology transfer, having this been integrated in the IDCT model. This key factor should be analysed considering two different perspectives: the view of the transferee and the view of the transferor themselves.

From the point of view of the transferee actors, the perceived *level of experience* of the whole transferor team (volunteers, consultants, and the UNWTO it self) played a crucial role for them to engage in the programme, generating high expectations for the programme to be successful. There were diverse opinions in this regard (see also Appendix 7.1, Q19):

Q17 - They were people with a lot of experience in this type of situations and our interest was the evaluation but also to acquire experience with them (...) apart from the fact that they came from different parts of the world and it was important for us to listen to their point of view according to their origin and how they perceived the situation from the outside. (*C8, Public Sector*)

Q18 - (...) First of all they get involved with all their time and availability, and I am not being flattering, and were all very professional and with plenty of experience. I remember perfectly the case of (...) people from Brazil or your case, bringing experience from other areas from other countries. This was enriching. (*P3, Public Sector*)

These opinions demonstrate that apart from the experience in international projects, the local actors attributed a great importance to multidisciplinary teams highlighting the opportunity of learning with people from different places, countries and backgrounds. Regarding the level of expertise they just assumed that the volunteers were effectively people with a high level of technical experience in international projects as they were part of UNWTO staff. That seems to have worked as an incentive for the local actors to engage more in the programme.

Nevertheless, when pinpointing the effective experience of the volunteers in projects of the same kind, it could be verified that just a few had relevant experience, as recognized by themselves (see also Appendix 7.1 - Q22):

Q20 - At the personal level this project represented my first activity in international volunteering related to tourism. (*V2, Volunteer*)

Q21 - I had not worked with international agencies before, however I had worked in communities, (...) we had no experience, myself included, and that meant that we believed everything what the consultants told us. (*V3, Volunteer*)

Anyway, in general it was considered that an eventual lack of experience of these volunteers would not affect their performance as long as they were coordinated by consultants with experience in the same kind of IDC programmes:

Q23 - (...) with a volunteers' team that must have training in tourism either as undergraduate or postgraduate or even if they have other type of background, as long as coordinated by a series of experts that establish the direction to take and that somehow coordinate all the work, so everything fits (...) (E1, Consultant)

Q24 - I believe that the success or repercussion of these programmes depend on the person behind them and I speak from my experience in two projects. (V1, Volunteer)

Additionally, as the majority of IDC programmes have limited resources implying a shorter fieldwork period than would be often necessary in order to get a fair picture of the local reality, it was considered fundamental that at least the programme's coordinators had experience and knowledge about the specific working area or that, preferentially, they were native. This was certainly the case of the Chiapas' programme as the two main coordinators were Mexican and with experience of work in the tourism sector in Mexico and other countries. This is clearly recognised by one of them:

Q25 - In the case of Chiapas something very curious happened that does not happen often: a native Mexican that knows the place, the people and how things work was responsible for the mission (...) in other countries some outside consultant that does not know the place has to make a plan within a period of 4 weeks in the office and 3 weeks of fieldwork and sometimes those plans do not correspond to the reality of the place. This is because we recommend things that are not applicable due to the political, economical and social conditions of the area. However in the case of Chiapas everything was right. (E2, Consultant)

Therefore, it is fundamental that at least the consultants or main coordinators of the projects have working experience in the specific zone where the projects take place, even if the other members have not that level of experience. As recognized in Q25, when none of the members of the teams know the local political, economic and social conditions, with limited time for fieldwork and reports delivering, it happens that many of those plans become unrealistic. This aspect confirms what Bourguignon and Sundberg (2007) considered a critical success factor once that development agencies operate often with an inadequate and unadjusted knowledge of the local environment leading to unadjusted plans proposals.

Knowledge base

The knowledge base of the transferor is pointed out by several authors as a determinant factor in the transfer process in order to be useful in exchanging knowledge with the transferee (e.g. Goh, 2002; Szulanski, 2000; Duan et al., 2010; Kayes et al., 2005; Waroonkun, 2007).

The lack of experience in previous IDC programmes verified within the group of volunteers that participated in this programme seems to have been compensated with their high level of qualifications or work experience in other relevant areas for the study. This fact was probably what permitted the group to work well coordinated providing what almost all the participating actors considered to be inputs of a team with a high level of *knowledge base* (see also Appendix 7.1 - Q28):

Q26 - There is no doubt that there was a positive equilibrium between people that have high academic standards. There was a good mixture between academics, consultants, and a group of

young people that were beginning their careers and had just received their degree in tourism, pure graduates. The whole equilibrium was a very good one. (E2, Consultant)

Q27 - (...) and according to the comments that were being made in the chats (...) we felt that their arrival was determinant for us, because since the moment they arrived it started to improve (...) we were landed with people that had control and dominated the Spanish language well and came very well prepared. (C10, Private Sector)

Apart from the *knowledge base* the fact that almost all the volunteers were fluent in Spanish is also highlighted in this last statement. It is worth to note that the UNWTO.Volunteers course provides an opportunity for testing the knowledge and personnel skills aiming at filling eventual knowledge gaps. This aspect resulted from improvements introduced while the duration of the programme as recognised by one of its consultants (see Appendix 7.1, Q29). Some examples of the mentioned improvements were: the establishment of a preparation course of volunteers; and an increase in the age average as to guarantee greater maturity and experience. Therefore, as stated by E1 (Q29), even if this might imply losing a bit of the young “volunteer idealism or utopia” this is compensated with more maturity.

This can be considered as one distinguishing characteristic in relation with other volunteer programmes or development cooperation projects in that it permits UNWTO staff to select people in advance according to the skills and personnel characteristics of the individuals that form part of the corps of volunteers. Therefore, when constituting the teams of volunteers to integrate the programmes it is easier to adjust them to their specific requirements and guarantee that their knowledge base is adequate for that project.

The concerns of some researchers (e.g. Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Guttentag, 2009; Simpson, 2004) regarding whether or not there are any benefits to be had from volunteers that have an incipient knowledge base or are too young assumes a greater importance when talking about demanding technical cooperation projects like was the case here. This aspect did not constitute a problem as the volunteers in this case had a good and diversified knowledge base corresponding to the requested profile as “volunteer cooperants”.

Cultural behaviour

As discussed in Chapter 4, the *cultural behaviour* of the transferor in relation to the transferee can be determinant for the *communication* process, on which the effectiveness of knowledge or technology transfer and learning process depends (Lin & Berg, 2001; Makilouko, 2004; Waroonkun, 2007). The extent to which this may condition the communication process, trustworthiness and therefore the success of the programme depends largely on the existing cultural differences between the countries of origin of the transferor and transferee actors involved (Bathelt et al., 2004; Shaw & Williams, 2009; Waroonkun, 2007).

In the case of the Chiapas programme, the transferor team was composed by people from several different countries - Mexico (4 different states), Guatemala, Brazil, Spain, and Portugal. As discussed above, this fact seems to have worked as a positive factor in terms of the transferee actor's perceived international experience of the transferor. Nevertheless, if in some situations this multicultural team's profile enriched the discussions and conclusions, in others also brought additional challenges to overcome:

Q30 - At the time we did the meetings, and the interviews, I did not notice major differences in the way we acted and communicated, between us who came from different countries. People like the fact that outsiders come and tell how things should be run (...) (V3, Volunteer)

Q31 - I think that there may have been a gap between us and them but I also saw it within the own group (...) (V1, Volunteer)

According to the previous quotations, and as observed by the researcher, it can not be said that the diversity and multicultural profiles of the transferor caused a cultural gap between them and the local actors. Though V1 considered that there might have been a gap, the majority considered that the cultural differences added value to the project. It is worth to note, however, that these differences might have been more evident within the group of volunteers in terms of team coordination, as refereed by V1. Indeed, it was observed that in some situations this became a complex task due to the different ways of work, discuss and report things.

Nevertheless, these aspects were not evident for the transferee actors. Conversely, they expressed, in general, enthusiastic opinions regarding the intercultural relationships (see also Appendix 7.1, Q34):

Q32 - Very interesting since the working group was a very plural one (...) (P6, Private Sector)

Q33 - I saw it under a positive light. Very accessible and straight forward crowd like yourself that talked things through and proposed something feasible and perceptible (...) (P1, Private Sector)

Considering these evidences, it can be concluded that *cultural behaviour* provided by multicultural teams plays a very important role in that it helps to improve communication, leadership, and trust which are essential to create a propitious environment for knowledge exchange. Therefore, the selection of projects' teams should favour multicultural profiles while being aware that this can also bring problems in terms of coordination of the team as a whole from the point of view of the performance of the needed project's tasks.

7.2.3 Characteristics of the Transferee

The analysis of the *characteristics of the transferee* refers in this case to some relevant features of the Chiapas local actors that may have influenced the results of the programme (Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; Szulanski, 2000; Diallo & Thuillier, 2005; Cooper, 2006; Kayes et al., 2005; Bathelt, et al. 2004; Makilouko, 2004). According to the IDCT model proposal (subsection 5.3.1) it integrates the following subcategories analysed separately below: *willingness to learn, trust in the programme, knowledge base and absorptive capacity, and cultural characteristics and behaviour*.

Willingness to learn

The expectations and associated motivations of the transferee concerning the KT process that can result from a development intervention are considered crucial for them to accept and implement knowledge from the outside (Szulanski, 1996). Therefore, it is important to understand the expectations and different kinds of motivations of the diverse local actors that sustained all the process of KT in Chiapas within the UNWTO.Volunteers programme.

First of all, it was verified that in general the programme generated high expectations mainly due to the fact that it was being conducted by a recognized international organization like UNWTO. In general, this was mentioned as a very important factor that contributed for a high motivation to participate in the programme by actors of the five municipalities (see also Appendix 7.1 - Q35, Q36, and Q37):

Q38 - The WTO's involvement in the tourism work was a motivating factor. Because it's a top institution, the entity that knows what there is to know on tourism was involved in the tourism project in Chiapas and specifically in the region I work with, it was motivating indeed. (P3, *Public Sector*)

Q39 - I feel that somebody like the WTO with a vision on tourism destinations development was important to arrive here and guide us, made suggestions and made various proposals to us (...) (C7, *Public Sector*)

The high expectations generated with the involvement of the UNWTO and its legitimacy to transfer knowledge and call the attention of the local authorities to the importance of developing and invest more in tourism were also observed by the researcher and the other volunteers, as evidenced by one of them:

Q40 - (...) It is not just what we may bring once we are there but also the involvement of everybody and specially the authorities who are in charge of tourism development as well. Tourism development is always a secondary objective, it is conceived as an achievable objective but one where they do not want to invest. This type of programmes with the backing of the WTO generates a political commitment to work for tourism development. I think this is after all its main usefulness (...) (V1, *Volunteer*)

Additionally, there were different kinds of motivations for the local actors to get actively involved in the programme, associating it to diverse benefits that the region could take in terms of tourism development:

Q41 - The idea was that the municipality could increase the overnight stays, at least two nights (...) because there were a few things at stake: a successful sustainable tourism, that could compete at an international level since nowadays there is more global competition, as well as to involve people with less resources that could become involved in tourism for the good of the economic development of the community (...) (T5, *Private Sector*)

Q42 - (...) I convey to the politicians or whoever represents the people that tourism represents without any doubt the economy that can throb and awaken the "sleeping giant". I believe the key to economic success is tourism before anything else and we have to sell them this project so they understand they will reap benefits from it (...) a well orchestrated strategy. (T6, *Private Sector*)

Therefore, some of the local actors associated the participation in the programme with an excellent opportunity of incrementing the hotel occupation, to improve in general the competitiveness of tourism in the region through sustainable tourism and benefiting the poor communities as well.

It is worth to highlight the case of the municipality of Chiapa de Corzo regarding several categories throughout the dimensions of the model as its differences comparing to the other municipalities were such that will bring different results in the end. Indeed this could be perceived since the very beginning of its involvement in the project and the inherent motivations to participate in it. Therefore, it is worth to outline here some of those main motivations.

First of all, there was a general commitment of the local community in getting the "*Pueblos Mágicos*" ("Magical Villages" Programme) classification. This refers to a Mexican initiative led by the Mexico's Secretariat of Tourism (SECTUR) aiming at promoting diverse villages

and towns around the country recognizing them as places with specific characteristics that make them unique and historically significant:

Q43 - Look, this was started by us in 2005 if my memory serves me right. There was a meeting with the mayor and from here on we asked them if we could be part of the “*Pueblos Mágicos*” programme. A project like this could be very important for Chiapa de Corzo (...) then we started to collaborate with the council and they started to call us: “look, we have to form a counseling group and it has to have power to put forward the “*Pueblos Mágicos*” programme as to generate a visible impact in the municipality”. That is how it started and then it was clear that a study supported by the WTO would be needed. (*C11, Private Sector*)

Q44 - Then, we felt that we were doing well, we feel that with the confirmation of our application of Pueblo Mágicos we will receive a lot of investment and that will allow for more tourism infrastructures, hotel building, restaurant creation and travel agency build up. This in turn will call for more investment and economic benefits for tourism entrepreneurs in Chiapas. (*C7, Public Sector*)

Therefore, the involvement of Chiapa de Corzo in the programme was clearly encouraged by the perception that this could benefit all the application process to the “*Pueblos Mágicos*” programme for which preparation had started some years before. The expectations were then very high with most of the actors believing that all this process would bring more tourism investment, infrastructures improvement and diverse other economic benefits.

In contrast, some transferor actors believed that political motivations were in some cases the main reason for the local authorities to engage in the programme:

Q45 - Look, it seems to me that these are political decisions. This is the thing! What probably happened was that the mayor asked to be that way and that’s it! (...) there are many things when international projects are involved that are manipulated politically. (*V3, Volunteer*)

Q46 - I think they want to improve their rating to position themselves, they have the connection with those entities (ex. WTO) and that something is going on but they do not really care how is carried through. (*V1, Volunteer*)

These statements reflect also the opinion of other transferor and transferee actors for whom the main reason for the involvement of the public authorities in IDC programmes with organizations like the UNWTO is associated with political interests. In their opinion they do this while thinking about their own projection through the connections they believe it will bring without really caring about the effective development results in the end.

The case study’s results concerning the subcategory *willingness to learn* provides important insights about the type of expectations and motivations that could be behind a project like this and the importance it may have for its success. Like highlighted by Waroonkun and Stewart (2008), to achieve success in this kind of development interventions it is fundamental that the transferor is *willing to transfer* the appropriate knowledge and that the transferee has every intention to adopt it. On one hand, almost all the local actors revealed a high level of expectations with the opportunity of being involved in a project led by a highly recognized international organization. Adding this to the generalized set of motivations associated to the will of improving the tourism sector in the region, it could be considered that there were very good conditions to get the necessary commitment of the diverse actors. This was believed to have a great potential to improve the local economic and social situation.

On the other hand, care should be taken regarding the political interests behind the involvement of the local governments once that this may compromise their commitment to work effectively to achieve the intended development results. These aspects and their

influence on the results of IDC programmes will be analysed further ahead when discussing the perceived outcomes of the programme and to what extent this was critical for success.

Trust

As discussed in the literature review, the perception about the reliability, trustworthiness, and knowledgeability attributed by the transferee to the transferor may influence to a great extent the behaviour of the former and its commitment with all the programme intervention (Szulanski, 1996; Goh, 2002). In this case, associated to the high level of expectations and motivations of most of the local actors involved in the UNWTO.Volunteers in Chiapas, it was inherent a high level of trust of the transferee in the programme and in the transferor. The following excerpts constitute evidences of this (see also Appendix 7.1 - Q47):

Q48 - I mean ...could one imagine that such an important organization comes to Chiapa de Corzo and brings its experts and especially when you were coming on a volunteer basis?! (...) We felt that your arrival was important and above all because you would bring all your experience. (C10, Private Sector)

Q49 - I believe that people that produced the study and gave their opinion arriving to a consensus, they were very well prepared people (...) and there is no other entity like the WTO that can give you a more complete diagnostic than what was given to us. (P2, Public Sector)

The main aspects on which that high level of trust seems to be founded are mainly related with the international experience attributed by the transferee to the transferor. That fact meant for them that no one else could do it better. On the other hand, it was also verified that some local actors revealed a certain level of fatigue with this kind of programmes whether it is from UNWTO or any other international organization. This was more evident in San Cristóbal, which could be explained by the fact that this municipality attracted, since its earlier stages of tourism development, diverse development projects mainly due to its high percentage of indigenous population and vast architectonic and cultural heritage. For that reason, the level of *trust* in any international development organization is lower:

Q50 - (...) and you start all over again, they come and here we go again. I was fed up, I said: "I am going to my company, you do what you want, I am developing my own model so I can position myself in the market and I will fight by myself but I will survive". (S4, Private Sector)

Similar opinions from other actors of the civil society were observed by the researcher in the municipality of San Cristóbal during the programme fieldwork in 2008. In fact some of them manifested the same fatigue as S4 mainly due to the fact that the local community was fed up with so many development projects, each of them promising development interventions and changes that would improve the municipality situation. The main complaint here was the lack of visible results and information about it after the end of the respective fieldworks. Therefore, there was here a lack of trust in the beginning of yet another ID project which was only observed in this municipality.

At last, it was verified in this study that the level of *trust* in the local authorities or specific task forces constituted to lead locally the development intervention plays also an important role for its trustworthy and success. Chiapa de Corzo seemed to be the municipality where this level of trust in the local authorities was higher, depending on the type of actors and their connection to what was going on. This was expressed by C4 as follows:

Q51 - Look we have complete trust in the group that is handling Chiapa de Corzo that is also part of the “*Pueblos Mágicos*” programme, through them they have contacted the groups that arrive here or in this case the volunteers that came from various places. We have full confidence and that is why we confided in them to do the job. (C4, *Civil Society*)

Nevertheless, this was the exception and not the rule as in other municipalities it was observed that even when revealing a high level of trust in the UNWTO team, the local actors did not trust the respective local authorities, and that this lack of confidence worked as a constraint for them to get more involved and to believe in the success of this kind of projects. The main reason for not trusting the local authorities is related with their conviction about the already mentioned political interests behind the involvement of the politicians in the IDC programmes. Furthermore, it was observed by the researcher that a few actors were against the involvement of the other municipalities due to a lack of trust in its local actors and respective authorities. This was mainly related with previous conflicts of interests. This will be further analysed when discussing the subcategory *Situatedness*.

Data confirmed, therefore, the importance of the subcategory *trust* for the success of the IDC intervention. Indeed, it was verified that the commitment of diverse local actors in the programme benefits the level of trust of the transferee in the transferor. The lack of trust that could be generated by “differing communities of practice” with different cultures and vocabularies (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Hjalager, 2002) was not evident in this case. In this regard, it became clear that if the transferor belongs to a recognized international development agency this will guarantee, at first glance, a high level of trust. This can indeed facilitate all the process at an initial phase. Nevertheless, it should be considered that there are some areas where there is a kind of fatigue with IDC programmes of diverse organizations and typologies due to a lack of tangible results and follow-up actions of previous interventions.

On the other hand, it was concluded that *trust* should also be considered among the transferee themselves. This fact was not discussed in the literature review and emerged here as an important determinant to accomplish positive results in a development intervention. As this kind of projects implies a great level of team work and achievement of consensus for the region being studied, it is of utmost significance that there would be a high level of trust also among the different sectors of the society involved.

Nevertheless, data from this case study suggests that there is often a lack of trust mainly from actors of the private sector and civil society regarding the local authorities and their apparent commitment in participating in development projects. The same was noted regarding the fact that there were different municipalities involved that were more used to compete than to cooperate as tourism destinations (e.g. Tuxtla and San Cristóbal; San Cristóbal and Palenque; Comitán and San Cristóbal). Apart from the very different levels of tourism development stages, what seems to have contributed more for that lack of trust was the geographic distance among the municipalities involved. This was also recognized by authors like Shaw and Williams (2009) and Bathelt et al. (2004) for whom the lack of geographic proximity between the members or organizations in a tourism destination may contribute for a lack of trust in a KT process.

Knowledge base/absorptive capacity

As discussed in Chapter 4 and reviewed in the model proposal, in the process of KT in a tourism destination the *knowledge base* and *absorptive capacity* of the transferee play a determinant role (Cooper, 2006; Goh, 2002; Szulanski, 2000; Kayes et al., 2005). In an ID

programme in this context, the *knowledge base* and experience of the transferor will be ineffective if the local community has not the capacity to absorb and share new knowledge and take advantage from it (Duan et al., 2010; Waroonkun, 2007). Therefore, in this section it is analysed data related to aspects such as the Chiapas local community ability to produce, gather, organize and apply new knowledge from UNWTO as well as the capacity to share it (Kayes et al., 2005; Szulanski, 1996).

Concerning the perception of the Chiapas programme consultants, they considered that the *knowledge base* and *absorptive capacity* of the local actors could be higher in order to take more advantage of the programme KT process. Nevertheless, this seems not to have constituted a barrier as regards the potential problem of the “two-community metaphor” (Caplan 1979; Caplan et al., 1975; Dunn 1980; Weiss 1979; Xiao & Smith, 2007). In fact, the frequently mentioned dichotomy between knowledge producers (e.g. academics) and users (e.g. practitioners or policymakers), although referred by some actors did not constitute a barrier for the absorption of knowledge in this case. This may be justified due to the fact that the “knowledge producers” team was not constituted only by academics but also by practitioners. It was curious to verify that some of them complained about the lack of an adequate capacity of the local actors to interpret the knowledge transferred not in an academic way but with a technical view as to convert that knowledge into the real life practice:

Q52 - There should be somebody able to interpret our point of view in an academic, technical and scientific accuracy for sure but also that could be put into practice in real life. As we say in Mexico that could land on the ground. This is my view and this part was lacking. (E2, *Unwto Consultant*)

One of the volunteers added that there was an evident lack of knowledge of the local authorities in order to take advantage of the programme and to adopt the necessary follow-up measures:

Q53 - I think that when the programme was finished and the only thing left were the local authorities, I get the impression that they had not enough preparation or knowledge to ensure the continuation of the project and what had just happened. This is clear. (V3, *Volunteer*)

Therefore, in order to avoid this apparent lack of knowledge base that could impede the transferee to take advantage of the KT process, it was suggested the following idea:

Q54 - The alternative would be to do a course with the local participants involved in the project which is not always possible because you have no control over the local actors. Many of them are not selected in terms of their relevance to the project but instead based on their availability to be present on the day the event takes place. In fact the ideal thing to do would be to solve this beforehand and organize a workshop for the local participants and prepare them well beforehand. (E3, *consultant*)

In this excerpt it is identified one of the main problems associated with the *knowledge base* of the transferee that is related with the process of selection of the participating actors. Indeed it was observed that this did not follow any criteria and many of those participants where there due to convenience reasons and not because they were the most relevant to be there. There were some exceptions to this, mainly in the municipalities of Tuxtla, the leading municipality, and Chiapa de Corzo. In any case and as the transferor can hardly interfere in these selection processes, one of the recommendations of E3 to minimize this problem would be to provide a preparation course with them in advance. This could be useful not as a way of filling knowledge gaps related to tourism but mainly to raise awareness about its importance for the region, the main aims of the programme and the needed conditions for its effectiveness.

One of the problems associated with this was that even when the local actors were totally committed with the programme and revealed a high level of absorptive capacity, it could not be guaranteed that they would remain involved in the programme after the end of the intervention and in the long-term like would be needed. This constituted a major limitation for the continuity of the programme mainly considering the lack of knowledge of the municipal tourism directors who had changed in three municipalities from 2008 on without setting up any follow-up programme.

In fact, among the five municipalities only in Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla the tourism directors were previously involved in the programme and fully aware of it and therefore revealing an adequate knowledge base. In Palenque the tourism director with whom it was not possible to conduct an interview was considered by the local actors as being totally committed with the programme knowing it well. On the opposite side, there were the municipalities of Comitán and San Cristóbal where the tourism directors had no knowledge at all about the programme and about what was going on in the other municipalities. They were just acting with a certain amateurism (see Appendix 7.1 - Q55 and Q56).

This reality is also observed and criticized by some local actors, mainly those from the private sector regarding the lack of knowledge of the tourism authorities:

Q57 - This has a lot to do with who is heading and who is in charge in each turn from the authorities of each municipality, the regional directors and the state tourism representatives, and I do not want to undervalue them but they come in and they do not know anything, anything at all. (...) they do not fill the necessary requirements or the particular profile to lead the process. (S1, Private Sector)

Q58 - It is very difficult to have a follow up in these kind of programmes. Obviously the people that are admitted in the tourism boards of the municipality and tourism delegation are people without experience. In Mexico the appointments to these posts do not obey the rules but other particular situations, unfortunately this fact prevents the way forward. (S4, Private Sector)

The opinions expressed in these two statements reveal that the eventual lack of knowledge and experience of the transferee constitutes a barrier to tourism development mainly in what refers to the tourism directors once that the majority is considered as not having the minimum knowledge and preparation to lead that process.

Concerning the knowledge and absorptive capacity of the local actors, it was considered that in general there are very well prepared people, from the private sector to the civil society. It is worth to distinguish here two kinds of knowledge considered important for participating in tourism development by the transferor and the transferee. One is concerned with the knowledge local actors have about their own municipality, not only in terms of tourism but also concerning such aspects as **history, culture, traditions**. This was more evident in Chiapa de Corzo:

Q59 - (...) the people involved in the association “*Pueblos Mágicos*” in Chiapa de Corzo have full knowledge of how the process went and made sure to inform newcomers (...) There are many people here that know all about traditions, know Chiapa de Corzo like historians, chroniclers, opinion leaders, people with added value. I feel there are people that have contributed a lot for the culture of Chiapa de Corzo and they need to be involved. There are capable people here and if they were properly trained and guided there would be no problems. (C4, Civil Society)

The other kind of knowledge considered important in this context is related with **technical skills** and the inherent capacity to implement changes resultant from tourism development programmes:

Q60 - Look, the people from the tourism sector are people that are always busy. You have to summon them and you have to take them into consideration (...) They are more experienced now and are more dynamic and I believe that there are people in San Cristóbal that would love to participate in this, people involved with the Project Chiapas Vision 20-20 that are responsible for the economic development of Chiapas, business programmes, private entrepreneurs that can contribute with information and we must include them. (*S4, Private Sector*)

Q61 - I see a great job in what they did and I would go as far as to say that there is much to be unraveled from this study. We still could not absorb all the information that was left to us (*C11, Private Sector*)

In these last statements it is recognized by some transferee actors that in fact there is a good knowledge base and technical skills related to tourism mainly from actors of the private sector. The problem is that many of those skilled local actors are not really involved in the programme. Additionally, it was considered that if, on the one hand, the information and knowledge provided by the programme was very relevant and with great potential, on the other they could not yet absorb all that information and take full advantage of it.

From the data discussion related with the subcategory *knowledge base/absorptive capacity*, some important conclusions could be drawn. There exists the conviction of some authors (e.g. Cooper, 2006) that one of the main constraints for KT processes in tourism destinations is that many of the users of knowledge in tourism have a lack of knowledge and experience in the field. This was also verified in the case of Chiapas, concerning not all the potential users of that knowledge but mainly some of the municipal tourism directors with a manifest lack of knowledge and experience in the field. As they are the ones responsible for using and sharing the body of knowledge provided and for implementing the necessary actions, this is highly prejudicial for the KT process.

On the other hand, although some actors pointed out an eventual lack of capacity of the local community to absorb all that new knowledge, in general it was considered by the consultants and the local community that there was a high level of inner knowledge and experience in tourism around the municipalities but mainly in the private sector that, if well explored and coordinated, could be very useful in all the process. In this regard it was also distinguished two kinds of knowledge, one concerned with the general knowledge that local actors have about their own municipality, and the other one about tourism specifically. It was interesting in this case to verify to what extent the theoretical concept of the “two-community metaphor” was evident or not. It was concluded that in general the two different cultures of the Chiapas community and the UNWTO consultants and volunteers did not act as a barrier for the absorption of knowledge.

Furthermore, it was observed that the “new” knowledge produced in fact was not new, but transformed, as it was conceived not by abstract and theoretical concepts but essentially using the local community practical knowledge. This came out from the programme fieldwork, including the interviews and mainly from the stakeholders meetings carried out in each municipality. In this context, what was new was the systematization of the knowledge that already resided within the local community and the form in which it was systematized. This is in consonance with the principles of what should be a successful KT process in the context of IDC programmes. In this respect it is claimed that knowledge resides in the recipient developing countries and not in the donor organizations (Denning, 2001), not exclusively in individuals but also in institutional experiences and databases (Fukuda-Parr & Hill, 2002). Therefore, the case study confirmed this principle as a critical success factor.

Cultural behaviour

A possible cultural gap between the transferor and the transferee was identified in the literature review as extremely important in influencing the success of IDC programmes (Waroonkun, 2007). This gap is frequent in these programmes mainly due to the cross-border nature of the approaches and actors involved. In the context of the cultural behaviour influence in the success of IDC programmes, the “gap” factor is often referred to in association with the cultural, political, social and environmental characteristics of the transferee which are usually very different from the transferor (Duan et al., 2010; Lin & Berg, 2001; Waroonkun, 2007).

In order to understand that gap, it is important to give an overview of some major cultural features of the study area. However, it should be noted that in this regard it is not an easy task to provide a glimpse of the whole area as it comprises five geographically disperse municipalities that although share some common characteristics of the state of Chiapas, have distinguishable aspects worth of mention.

One remarkable characteristic is associated with the indigenous cultural influence in the tourism development of Chiapas (see Appendix 7.1 - Q62, Q63). Nevertheless, while this is considered one of Chiapas main tourist attractions the indigenous communities are still segregated from the tourism development process. This was evident throughout the programme fieldwork and there were several references to this problem in the interviews. It was indeed observed by the researcher that the indigenous population is seen as a threat in terms of political stability. Therefore, in the context of a development intervention, although this might be a sensitive political and cultural matter, this type of situations should be taken into consideration in that a greater effort should be put into involving all the relevant segments of the population in the tourism development process and in the IDC programmes agenda.

Another cultural aspect that emerged from data was the cultural differences between the municipalities on the one hand, and, the different feelings and ideas about themselves, on the other. With the exception of Chiapa de Corzo, the municipalities were very critical regarding their own culture and way of being (see also Appendix 7.1 - Q64, Q65):

Q66 - Do you know what is wrong? There is a lot of disillusionment (...) we all say to push the car in the same direction but when there is no will, and there aren't many who have it (...) we are very dependent and people here are very passive. There are only 4 or 5 service suppliers that are involved and that is why they are not interested. Since you came I began to have many problems.
(CD7, Public Sector)

Therefore one of the reasons for the lack of results of the programme according to some local actors had to do with their inner cultural behaviour in that the majority of the population is “apathetic” revealing a lack of interest and involvement regarding any initiative to improve local development. Even when they engage in some of these initiatives at some stage, if they do not see direct benefits in the short-term they simply move away from it. Additionally, according to some of the interviewees even if they are initially interested in participating in the promoted initiatives and programmes, they are always expecting someone to lead the process and do what in turn is expected from them. This type of opinions emerged somehow in all municipalities with the exception of Chiapa de Corzo.

There was also a tendency to consider that their problems are exclusive and that the other places are better off and do not face the same kind of challenges. In Appendix 7.1 (Q67) it is presented a statement evidencing a good example of this through an interesting anecdote

comparing the people of Comitán with that of San Cristóbal, where the former is claimed to be much more passive than the latter. These opinions put in evidence that the local cultural characteristics may imply different levels of commitment from the different segments of the population involved in the same development intervention.

The case of **Chiapa de Corzo** is very impressive in terms of the very distinctive pride and self-recognition about their historical place and cultural characteristics. The following example and others in Appendix 7.1 (Q68, Q69) represent only a selection of many of the voices manifesting the ego of this place related with its history and traditions:

Q70 - Historically Chiapa de Corzo gave its name to the State. The “s” was later added as a symbol for the unity of the different ethnic groups - Zoque, Chiapaneca, Tzotzil, Tzeltal, Tojolabal, Lacandón... Generally speaking Chiapa de Corzo had given the State of Chiapas its culture, history, tradition, customs, parts of its legends, marimba, the embroidery, artists, all of them. Chiapa de Corzo has contributed towards the state of Chiapas. And here we have the central origin of the Chiapanec culture. (C1, Civil Society)

Therefore, there is the idea that IDC programmes like the UNWTO.Volunteers can be very helpful to add value to those cultural features but that it implies to accept the errors and the inherent demanding changes (see also Appendix 7.1- Q71):

Q72 - What happens is that we have been very interested in everything that has to do with Chiapa de Corzo. When there are programmes that help the municipality we are committed so that everything goes well. We support these kind of activities and programmes because they are in support of the population that we love so much. (C4, Civil Society)

Q73 - I insist, I love my people, I love my customs and if I love that I must accept my mistakes and if we are going about it the wrong way and somebody comes and mentions it to us with pretty words or even with ugly ones we must accept it. (C13, Private Sector)

These excerpts put in evidence cultural differences between the municipalities that may justify in the end different performances and effects related with the programme. These differences will be even more evident when cross-analysed with the other model dimensions. On the other hand, the cultural characteristics of the local community as a whole did not seem to have constituted a barrier for the KT process due to a possible cultural gap between the transferee and the transferor actors. This is observed even if recognizing that there were significant cultural disparities between them.

Overall, this case study shows that the cultural characteristics of the transferee should be taken into account in several perspectives, considering not only a possible cultural gap between the transferor and the transferee but also differences among the participating local groups. In this particular case we refer to the five different municipalities, and the extent to which these differences determine different results for the same programme.

Concerning the former, although it is common to observe cross-cultural, geographical, economic, and political gaps in cross-border KT processes (Duan et al., 2010; Waroonkun, 2007), this did not seem to constitute a barrier in this case. This may be justified in part by the fact that although the UNWTO team was international, about half of its members were Mexican, including the two main coordinators and three UNWTO volunteers. Therefore, in this regard the constitution of ID programme's teams should be carefully planned considering that the integration of local and national members may attenuate an eventual cultural gap that can negatively influence the effectiveness of the intervention.

In relation with the cultural differences among the participating groups or geographic areas it emerges the idea that those with more pride in their culture and traditions are more keen to be committed with an ID programme which is seen as an opportunity to improve their condition rather than others where there is traditionally a certain level of disdain about themselves and their own cultural features.

Additionally, it came out from this study that there is a tendency for the transferee to set aside from IDC programmes some segments of the population with specific cultural features as they are often seen as a threat for the instituted system of power relations. This was evident in this case as it was verified a resistance by the local tourism leaders to involve representatives of the Chiapas indigenous populations (which correspond to a significant part of the local population) in the stakeholders meetings and scheduled interviews during the programme fieldwork. As it is probable that similar situations occur often in IDC programmes, care should be taken by the transferor coordinators that should always be aware of this type of cultural contexts trying to counteract the transferee leaders' pretensions to take control over the development interventions schedules.

7.3 Activities characterization

In this section it will be explored the *Activities* dimension of the UNWTO.Volunteers in Chiapas as to analyse to what extent this may have influenced the results of the programme. According to the discussion of the theoretical model proposal (subsection 5.3.2), the *Activities* include all the actions and processes undertaken in the context of the programme in order to conduct it in such a way that it permits to take the most advantages of the mobilization of the available *Inputs* to produce the desired *Outputs* (CIDA, 2008; UNDP, 2009b). After having discussed in the last section the *Inputs* as perceived by the vast range of participating actors, it will be easier to contextualize data concerning the activities derived from those *Inputs*. This will be done considering the perceptions of the involved actors about how they have interpreted the activities conducted not only during the fieldwork but also those that preceded it like the preparation and selection of the volunteers as well as the fieldwork planning activities.

As described in Chapter 6 (subsection 6.3.3.2), the *Activities* that integrate the UNWTO.Volunteers programme start with the preparation of volunteers that are trained to be part of the respective corps of volunteers. Like in other UNWTO.Volunteers development interventions, the selection of some of these volunteers to the *Chiapas 2015* programme would be done afterwards following a schedule previously established between the UNWTO team and the local political authorities. This would then be transcribed into a *Terms of Reference* agreement according to which all the working plan actions were delineated. Therefore, the description and analysis about the perceptions of the transferor and the transferee concerning this dimension will follow the order by which all the activities directly related with the programme intervention took place: i) preparation of volunteers, exploratory mission and *Terms of Reference* of the project *Chiapas 2015*; ii) preparation of the fieldwork and collection of secondary data; and iii) programme fieldwork actions.

i) Preparation of volunteers, exploratory mission and Terms of Reference

Concerning the preparation of volunteers, this process was described in the presentation of the case study in Chapter 6 mainly based on the researcher participant observation. From the analysis of the established *Terms of Reference* and some of the interviews it was verified that some changes occurred regarding the initial plan of action. The main change refers to the territories that were to be included in the established tourism cluster for Chiapas. Firstly, the interest and petition for an intervention of UNWTO.Volunteers in Chiapas surged from the municipal tourism direction of Tuxtla Gutierrez, the capital of the state. Later on was proposed the integration of the other municipalities. In this regard there were two different versions about how this process evolved. On one hand, one representative of Tuxtla explained that it was an idea of the UNWTO coordinators to add the municipalities of Chiapa de Corzo, San Cristóbal, Comitán and Palenque to Tuxtla to form a tourism cluster in Chiapas, with the latter leading all the process:

Q74 - As you well know in 2007 there was an application to the WTO thanks to the Tuxtla Gutierrez city council in order to elaborate a study which would show the wide tourism potential available in Tuxtla Gutierrez. That was the original idea. What happened? Due to all the fuss created the WTO finally said “why not involve that natural corridor present in Tuxtla, Chiapa de Corzo, San Cristóbal, Comitán y Palenque?”. (T7, Public Sector)

On the other hand, one of the municipal tourism coordinators of Chiapa de Corzo gave a version more in accordance with what really seems to have happened:

Q75 - Fortunately, Chiapa de Corzo managed to integrate this International touristic corridor because originally the project was just geared towards Tuxtla, San Cristobal and Palenque which were the most representative so to speak. Comitán and Chiapa de Corzo were not originally contemplated. When we heard about the WTO’s presence to define the international touristic corridor we approached the general tourist secretary of the State government of Chiapas and made an application for our inclusion in such a corridor. (C7, Public Sector)

In this last quotation, it becomes evident that the authorities of Chiapa de Corzo were extremely motivated to integrate the project having developed several efforts to integrate it. It was after this that a tourism cluster comprising the five municipalities was proposed. An exploratory mission was then undertaken in October 2007 with one of the programme’s Mexican coordinators and the UNWTO.Themis director. Fieldwork visits were organized to the five municipalities in order to evaluate the logistical conditions to develop the programme, as well as to undertake meetings with the official authorities from the state, the municipalities involved and some actors of the private sector. It can be considered that in this phase there is already a potential for changes induced by KT:

Q76 - I think that the preparatory visit was carefully planned in that respect and were very careful since we knew that in the case of Chiapas which was at the time in a delicate position we had to listen to the local authorities, something which should be done in all destinations. Then the contexts change for one day to the next. However there was enough attention paid to the political and security context so that the volunteers could travel. There was great care in that part. (E3, Consultant)

Therefore, it was under the results of the exploratory mission that the *Terms of Reference* about the scope, nature and deliverables of the project were agreed. This process took nearly a year with the agreement signed in August of 2008, after being selected the UNWTO volunteers to accomplish the intended working plan. The communication established between the parties, even though limited to the UNWTO consultants and regional and local authorities coordinators, acted already as a starting point to induce relevant changes in the destination.

In this context, the case study suggests that the organization of the first meetings, the actors to be involved, the discussion around the main areas demanding intervention and other aspects to integrate in the Terms of Reference of the project are determinant for the subsequent phases of the project. For that reason, it should be guaranteed a higher level of commitment with the project by involving more actors in the definition of those terms. Even if it is difficult to put it in practice, it would be important that apart from the politicians at least some members of the private sector and the civil society are also involved, constituting since the beginning a task force for that purpose. The only case in which this was verified was in the municipality of Chiapa de Corzo.

ii) Preparation of the fieldwork and collection of secondary data

To accomplish the technical programme requirements, the eleven volunteers selected were divided into three groups and put to work online from its respective countries of origin, following a plan set off by the UNWTO experts for the project, in relation to the research of secondary data about the tourism destination. Each volunteer within the groups, including the researcher, was assigned specific research topics to deliver to the coordinators before starting the fieldwork.

Some problems were verified in this phase. The volunteers did not have access to information that probably existed already in the destination or within the UNWTO and that could have been facilitated and used to work together with the local authorities. This would have been important mainly due to the scarce time to do it (about five weeks). These facts may have also contributed to some limitations in terms of interactions of knowledge that could have been more prolific according to the transferor actors. This will be further detailed in section 7.3.2.

iii) Fieldwork actions

The 3-week fieldwork activities took place from the 21st of September to the 10th of October 2008, following the technical programme previously agreed. The schedule included a diagnostic of the local tourism system and a tourism development model proposal with specific programmes of action. This implied a very exhaustive work that had to be planned and structured in the first four days with all the team in Tuxtla, in order to join, present and discuss the information gathered by the volunteers in the previous phase.

Furthermore, during this period the team of international and local volunteers, the UNWTO coordinators and the local officials of the five municipalities involved had the opportunity to know each other and to discuss together the secondary data already collected as well as the most adequate methodology for primary data collection in the field.

As could be observed and registered by the researcher, these moments worked as an important opportunity of knowledge sharing between the transferor actors *per se* as well as among them and some transferee actors in a preliminary phase. It was after this that the group was subdivided into three, each of which with one UNWTO coordinator, one local coordinator, and one local volunteer. These groups were assigned to three areas: 1) Tuxtla Gutierrez and Chiapa de Corzo, 2) San Cristóbal de las Casas and Comitán de Domínguez, and 3) Palenque. The researcher was integrated in the second working area.

Several interviews were conducted, as well as field visits and an inventory and analysis of tourism resources. A stakeholders' workshop per municipality with representatives from municipal and state governments, the private sector, and civil society was conducted. It was observed that this workshop constituted one of the most important moments of knowledge sharing and information gathering in each municipality. Finally, the group joined together again in Tuxtla in the last few days to discuss the preliminary results and to prepare its public presentation to the local community.

Concerning all this process, some excerpts were selected as to get an idea about the opinions of the transferee regarding their overall perceptions of the activities undertaken and its implicit aims (see also Appendix 7.2- Q78, Q79):

Q77 - Firstly we involved ourselves in the sense that we participated when the organisation came and they started to investigate which were the pros and cons that we had, the things we needed, to which direction had Chiapa de Corzo to go in relation to all the information that you could take with you and then bring the results of everything that you saw and analysed in terms of infrastructure, tourist services and everything else that you took with you. (C5 Private sector)

From those quotations it became evident that the transferee actors had a clear idea of the aims and relevance of the programme, highlighting the comprehensive diagnostic conducted through the multiple interviews and field visits. On the other hand, from the point of view of the volunteers interviewed and concerning the methodology employed during the fieldwork, diverse weaknesses were pointed out (see also Appendix 7.2- Q82):

Q80 - I know it is difficult to meet deadlines and although they subdivided us into small groups for each area to analyse the economic sector, education and the rest, you simply cannot arrive somewhere without knowing so little about the place when you are only going to stay 3 weeks. (V2, Volunteer)

Q81 - I think it is a programme that has a lot room for improvement in as far as methodology is concerned and the rest (...) so that all that knowledge can be as effective as it can get. (V1, Volunteer)

Therefore, the volunteers that participated in the fieldwork activities were very critical regarding the methodology even though they recognized that there was a great potential for KT in this phase. The main criticisms were concerned with the lack of time in the field for the demanding tasks assigned in the project for such a large area as well as the limited range of local actors interviewed. Nevertheless, the majority of the local actors involved did not seem to have perceived these methodological constraints, considering in general, that the methodology was adequate:

Q83 - The study of the WTO in all the years that I have been working in this city was the most serious and complete of them all (...) It is very good, it is the first one that is done in such a methodical way, including the procedures and methods that were followed through. You have to take into consideration that every year consultants, businessmen and people that want to carry out studies never achieve anything. In this case a conclusion was reached, studies were carried out (...) the study showed the strengths and weaknesses and that had never been done before. It was really interesting. (T4, Private Sector)

Q84 - You detected quite well what the potential was, in other words, which routes could not be touched and which could. You studied the airline companies, thus all the access routes, transportation possibilities, infrastructure, what you could count on, what was needed, the capacity, the investment needed for road building, in tourist infrastructure as well as involving the local community so that they would feel part of the process (...) (T5, Private Sector)

These opinions reveal that in general the local actors were very pleased with the data and information collection methods employed in the fieldwork. They highlighted such aspects as the way the SWOT analysis was conducted in each municipality involving the

participation of diverse local actors, the type of information gathered and its systematization. Furthermore, some of them established a comparison with previous studies in the region which they considered not so rigorous and comprehensive.

It can be concluded that the way the Activities' processes are organized, including the methods employed to gather data and information that will be transformed in new knowledge, is essential for the achievement of positive results. The more systematic and organized is the process from the first contacts between the development agency and the destination coordinators to the preparation and coordination of the team constituted to conduct the intervention, the more effective should the fieldwork activities be. The way this is developed and the communication that is established between the actors involved seem to work as incentives for the transferee to engage in a process of change through the many opportunities for knowledge brokerage that are generated. This is clear when analysing the perceptions of the participating actors concerning all the implicit process of KT&LE (section 7.6).

7.4 Outputs characterization

As proposed in the theoretical model of this thesis, the *Outputs* dimension concerns the specific products and services that emerged from the completion of the programme's fieldwork activities which will be determinant for the achievement of the Outcomes (CIDA, 2008; Pearson, 2011; UNDP, 2002). In this case study, the output that resulted from the UNWTO.Volunteers programme in Chiapas refers to the final report delivered to the authorities of Chiapas concerning the designated project "Chiapas 2015 - Strategic and Competitiveness Plan for the Municipalities of Tuxtla Gutierrez, Chiapa de Corzo, Comitán de Domínguez, San Cristóbal de las Casas, and Palenque".

Until it is completed and delivered to the transferee, the Output is mostly under the control of the transferor (UNDP, 2002) as was the case in this study. After being delivered, and considering the characteristics analysed in the Inputs dimension, the transferor has no more interference on it being solely under the control of the transferee. The *Outputs* dimension will be herein characterized according to the perceptions of the transferor and the transferee essentially about the type of deliverable, its quality and credibility, discussing to what extent this was useful and adequate to the needs of the destination.

As discussed in Chapter 4, the perceptions of the transferor and the transferee about the quality and credibility associated to the knowledge produced, as well as its potential to generate the desired results, are determinant for a successful knowledge utilization afterwards (Xiao & Smith, 2007; Beijerse, 1999). Regarding the perceptions about the final study delivered to the authorities of Chiapas, it was observed that in general the opinions were favourable, mainly those from the transferee actors.

Nevertheless, it should be noted that these opinions were largely based on the perception about what the content of the final report would be. This in turn was either based on the preliminary conclusions presented to the local actors or on the interactions between them and the transferor throughout the Activities phase. Only in a few cases, the opinions about the outputs were based in a carefully reading of the final report. The most

favourable opinions in this regard came from actors of Chiapa de Corzo, the majority associating the usefulness (Xiao & Smith, 2007) of the study for the ongoing process of application to the “*Pueblos Mágicos*” Programme classification and for its **strength as a methodology of work** (see also Appendix 7.3 – Q87):

Q85 - What you left us is part of a delineated plan that we are carrying out. Apart from that, it served as an exercise for the “*Pueblos Mágicos*” issue and the realization that the society is being involved and is complementing what we are doing (...) above all to make people aware, otherwise we will not make it. (C12, Public Sector)

Q86 - (...) I feel that the methodology that you employed was ideal for what we needed and it matches the one required for “*Pueblos Mágicos*” also(...) they complement each other. Before they came to evaluate us, you came and assessed us first, and thanks to that we have the tools to improve and change what is not right... it was a step forward to do things properly (...) (C11, Private Sector)

Therefore, the output of the programme in this case was viewed as an important base of information and inspiration to sustain the goal of the municipality in getting the “*Pueblos Mágicos*” classification. In all this process it was highlighted also the important role played by the programme output in raising awareness of the local community and the leaders of that programme about the relevance of being Pueblo Mágico. Similarly, in the case of the municipality of Tuxtla, the majority also considered it very useful mainly in terms of its role as a **guiding tourism plan** for the whole destination comprising the five municipalities:

Q88 - We therefore have a kind of Bible which we take with us. It is a notebook that has been drafted with whatever it was done and we have been working on from the beginning. That was key towards the whole integration [of the Project Chiapas 2015]. (T7, Public Sector)

Q89 - (...) I believe that a set of instructions could be created based on that [Chiapas 2015 report] which could serve as a manual so that we could learn from it and, in case of new staff, I could put it to use. I could train my staff with it. The report served as a base for this type of information that is needed. (T4, Private Sector)

In the other municipalities, the opinions were more diversified. On one hand, there were few actors that did not hesitate to consider it also very positive and adequate to what they needed (see Appendix 7.3 – Q90). On the other hand, some transferee actors of San Cristóbal and Comitán pointed out several criticisms mainly related with a certain superficiality in the proposals for what they expected from a competitiveness plan (see also Appendix 7.3 – Q93):

Q91- (...) We felt it had some deficiencies and we had conveyed that before on other occasions. In reality they were not proposing something innovative, they were not telling us “how” to achieve those goals. We know what we need but we do not know the how and the resources needed for it. (S2, Civil Society)

Q92- (...) In a given moment the various observations and proposals were put forward and there was no mention as to the priority of each one of them. After reading the report I should have known what were the first steps to be taken such as “this is vital so that everything else works” (...). They are there as part of the recommendations but they do not mention the urgency and priorities of each one of them. (S5, Public Sector)

Hence, the main weaknesses identified, for instance by these actors of San Cristóbal, concerned the lack of specific recommendations essentially about **how** to implement it, who would be accountable and what the established priorities would be. Instead, they considered that this was limited to the identification about **what** to do based on the diagnostic done which did not bring any new approaches to other studies conducted before. Similar criticisms were corroborated by one of the volunteers (see Appendix 7.3 – Q94).

The justification for those criticisms may be related with the different expectations of the transferee and the transferor regarding their idea about what should be the final output in this programme. This becomes evident when comparing the previous statements with the following ones concerning the perspective of the coordinators in this regard:

Q95 - (...) I would say that we should convince a businessman or business association to take the document in and show it to whoever came along and said “we have a first draft”. I am not saying that this document is a development plan, I insist there is a lot missing and a lot needs to be done but it is a base. It needs to be worked on in terms of specific proposals such as how much, how long and how to do it. Nevertheless there is ground for development. (E2, *Consultant*)

Q96 - (...) Final reports can always be better but given the time, conditions and expectations they are useful and serve as starting points. Such an exercise cannot promise to deliver a definitive text or doctoral thesis due to its very nature. They serve as starting points for the state governments. (E3, *Consultant*)

These statements put in evidence that the transferor actors recognise that the final report could be more comprehensive in terms of diagnosis and specific recommendations. Nevertheless, they also justify that this kind of programmes are not intended to be that comprehensive and specific but only a basis of work to be put forward by the local government or by the community afterwards.

Therefore, this is assumed as the beginning of a process and not an end in itself. The main problem here, other than the more or less credibility of the study, seems to be essentially related with the lack of knowledge sharing and follow-up actions related with the Outputs, as will be discussed in section 7.6. What type of changes may have been generated by the programme is described below with the *Outcomes* characterization.

7.5 Outcomes characterization

In order to analyse the critical factors that may have contributed to achieve the expected outcomes of the UNWTO.Volunteers in Chiapas, it is important to understand first what type of outcomes were attributed to the programme, according to the perceptions of the diverse interviewees. Throughout this study it could be perceived that there are several potential positive changes induced by the programme even when there are not visible evidences of that.

It is worth to note that the outcomes associated to development interventions like the one being analysed in this research can go well beyond the simple application of a recommended plan of action, as will be evidenced throughout this study. Nevertheless, in order to understand the overall outcomes that can be associated to the UNWTO.Volunteers programme in Chiapas it is worthwhile to start by reviewing the level of implementation of the five programmes that were systematized as a global plan of action of the “Chiapas 2015” Report, described in subsection 6.3.3.2:

- P1** - Cross-institutional coordination;
- P2** - Training programmes in tourism;
- P3** - Creation and consolidation of tourism products;
- P4** - Marketing strategy;
- P5** - Infra-structures and services.

In parallel, this analysis will be complemented with the discussion about the extent to which the programme intervention in general may have influenced not only decision-making concerning tourism development in the region but other possible outcomes.

The coordinator of the state government tourism board (SECTUR) responsible for the implementation of the programme “Chiapas 2015” was one of the interviewees from Tuxtla that helped to understand the vision of the local political leaders about the outcomes to be achieved with the programme. The following statement suggests that there was the conviction that the programme was being fully implemented following its main guidelines:

Q97 - What did we do? First of all, we created a committee where the five city councils were involved in coordination with the federal government not just the tourism dept but also various other sectors such as the economic, infrastructure, general coordination office, public relations (...) The rules of the whole operation are geared towards the Chiapas 2015 project and are intended as a strategic plan for tourist competitiveness. It stems from the need of the councils not just to strengthen and integrate the institution itself but also to help with promotion itself. Its ultimate goal is a greater sale and destination promotion. We therefore created a commercial brand (registered trademark) called “*Senda de Colores*”. (T7, Public Sector)

This coordinator assumed that the new inter-municipal team was formed precisely to follow the recommendation implicit in P1 (Cross-institutional coordination) that advised about the constitution of a task force integrating actors of the 5 municipalities to provide a cross-institutional coordination. This should work on the main problems affecting the whole destination not only in terms of tourism but above all in terms of infrastructures and general conditions considered essential to consolidate the tourism cluster. Nevertheless, what is really implicit in that statement is that the focus of the inter-municipal team was being put on tourism promotion through the creation of a new tourism brand for the region. It was believed that only with this innovation, tourism arrivals would increase in the short-term. The transferee coordinator took this principle in her stride and emphasized its importance by encouraging the practice of regular meetings:

Q98 - After all the hard work, we determined what the logo should be and then we started a campaign at the local level to start the interaction and the actual work. What was the idea? First, was up to us, Chiapas inhabitants, to know our own region and nothing better than to start off with the regional level and so we started to set up meetings but, after a while, those meetings became itinerant that is to say that it was not just concentrated here, we moved to Palenque, to San Cristóbal, to Comitán. (T7, Public Sector)

Additionally, in order to follow the recommended programmes of action in terms of tourism development, municipal councils of tourism were created, with the support of the SECTUR:

Q99 - (...) something else we did was to start the COCOTUR (Tourist consultant councils) in every municipalities. (T7, Public Sector)

This COCOTUR board approved the designated “*Senda de Colores*” promotional brand using it to promote the destination at the national and international level. As will be seen below, the main problem here was that only few local actors recognized and accepted that brand (see Appendix 7.4 - Q100).

The enthusiasm of the state government tourism board with the claimed success of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme undertaken in 2008 led them to go a step further requesting a second intervention to extend it to another group of municipalities in the south of Chiapas. Another exploratory mission was then conducted and by the time the

researcher was in the field undertaking data collection in August 2011, a second edition was about to start in the referred area.

Q101 - Due to the success of our relentless managing we succeeded their return in a short time. I say this with all my heart, my liver, my secretions, my body, this is to what extent my health has come down to. Now we are going to do the second part of the study (...) they [UNWTO] are coming to audit again soon. They are coming to do fieldwork and will stay for 21 days. What is the idea? To create a corridor, a complete Chiapas tour to promote this destination. (T7, *Public Sector*)

Nevertheless the key idea subjacent to this second edition of the programme was, yet again, to work mainly on a promotional plan for the whole state territory. The following excerpt reveals the conviction of the coordinator in the fulfilment of the set of programmes of action to be implemented highlighting the enlargement of the number of municipalities involved:

Q102 - This year we have passed from five municipalities to nine. That means four new ones. As it happens, we are also starting to work with other municipalities which although are in the corridor are not part of the original study. They joined so they could contribute in matters of environment, promotion, development, institutional strengthening and capacity building (...) (T7, *Public Sector*)

It was therefore believed that all the involved municipalities including others that were about to join the group were working not only in tourism promotion but on all type of relevant development affairs such as environment management, institutional reinforcement, human resources capacity-building, among others.

Therefore, bearing this perspective of the main tourist board of the state of Chiapas in mind, one might consider as a positive outcome of the programme the institutional changes it generated. Nevertheless, many criticisms were pointed out in this regard. Indeed, the previous statements suggest that the essence of the proposed development plan had been distorted. The main transferor coordinator explains what happened and why it is improbable that the programme can be put forward according to what was initially intended and generate the expected outcomes. This was actually corroborated by other transferor actors (see also Appendix 7.4 - Q104):

Q103 - (...) We have to do three things, planning, improving the quality of the destinations in terms of public services urban image, infrastructure and then once we have achieved all that then we create a mechanism that would allow to join the 5 municipalities and create a promotion programme. I think they started the wrong way around. They started by combining the 5 municipalities into one goal and they named it “Senda de Coiores”. I do not know if it is a good or a bad thing but nobody knows about its existence not even the locals. We are promoting something that has not even been created yet. (E2, *Consultant*)

The main criticisms raised are related with the lack of an integrated approach. It was formed a new brand to promote the tourism cluster with the designation of “*Senda de Coiores*” without working first the other programmes of action essential to sustain the needed tourism development plan. Instead, the main focus of the implemented activities was on the programme of action P4 (Marketing Strategy) that recommended the “creation of a marketing plan as a reference framework for the five municipalities involved based on the identified tourism potential”. Therefore, there were many actors accusing the local authorities from having preferred to start to promote the destination without it being consolidated and recognized as such by the range of stakeholders involved.

In sum, from the point of view of the authorities in charge of leading the implementation of the UNWTO.Volunteers plan of action, it could be considered that this contributed to operational changes with the potential to generate positive development changes in all the territory. Nevertheless, there was a set of factors that seem to have been neglected by SECTUR regarding the necessity of reaching an agreement among the five municipalities.

This agreement would imply to work first with each of them to find consensus about the tourism products to consolidate (P3), to solve some structural problems identified in the study (P1, P2, P5) and only then to look for an agreement on the most appropriate marketing strategy (P4) to be pursued by the cluster. In reaching this point of the discussion, it is worth to present a differentiated analysis according to the different opinions verified among the five municipalities involved regarding the respective perceptions about the outcomes achieved. The data analysis discussed below suggested that this could be divided in three main groups:

- i) the municipalities of **San Cristóbal, Comitán, and Palenque** with no perceived positive results;
- ii) the municipality of **Tuxtla** with some actors very enthusiast and others very disappointed;
- iii) **Chiapa de Corzo** where most of the actors recognized positive operational changes (this justifies a greater detail in its systematization below).

i) Perceived outcomes in San Cristóbal, Comitán, and Palenque

The lack of results associated to the UNWTO.Volunteers programme in San Cristóbal, Comitán, and Palenque was evidenced in the statements of diverse local actors, including some former local authorities involved in the programme. In fact, most of them were not participating in the process of tourism development that was supposed to actively involve the five municipalities. The following excerpts demonstrate the position of actors of these three municipalities, for instance, regarding “*Senda de Colores*”:

Q105 - As far as we are concerned we receive the information from the “*Senda de Colores*” as a programme that is being pushed by some departments, tourism, economic affairs, and they are looking how to position themselves. But we have nothing. (S4, Private Sector)

Q106 - What is wrong with “*Senda de Colores*” is that information is scarce. As a result from your work the important thing that is being done now is that the programme is being considered as a mosaic of possibilities (...). (CD7, Public Sector)

Q107 - (...) It was started with “*Senda de Colores*” taking into account the diagnostics that stemmed from the study (...) is working as a brand. A lot of investment in promotion has been carried out but the project still has not really taken off. (P2, Public Sector)

These opinions clearly contrast with those of the tourist board of Chiapas, as analysed above, which denied that the information was not being shared equally throughout the five municipalities (see Appendix 7.4 - Q108).

Despite the lack of effects associated to the UNWTO.Volunteers programme common to these three municipalities, there were differences worth of analysis in terms of perceived potential benefits of the programme. Almost all the local actors regretted the lack of continuity of the programme. In some cases they were really disappointed for having believed that this could generate relevant outcomes. In verifying that it did not

happen, they considered that this was **another project** without any follow-up like many others:

Q109 - I feel that the local actor's thinking is "ah, yet another Project which will eventually be discontinued that will be the end of it" The same happened with Agenda 21. Agenda 21 was an interesting project but there was no follow up, that is, diagnostics come and go, administrations come and go and we simply are left with a lot of paper work and nothing else. (*P2, Public Sector*)

Q110 - (...) then that was the problem. Since there was no feedback and there was no reunion, no continuity, a lot of people said "well I continue with my job, my activities and the rest is the municipality's responsibility". (*S2, Civil Society*)

Q111 - I thought that was the first approach, the fact we could do the workshops, interact, well. What have we and have we not done, what tasks, what can be done to improve it? It did not work out. Then, the disenchantment (...) (*CD2, Public Sector*)

There are here evidences of disenchantment with the programme as many actors were expecting many benefits of it. Another aspect that came out of these statements was that there was a fatigue related with the participation in other programmes like Agenda 21 that also presupposed community participation in a given moment but that in fact had no continuity. Therefore, the consolidation of the tourism product in the territory with the participation and commitment of representative actors was not being implemented in a sustained and planned way in all the municipalities contrary to what was being claimed by the Chiapas tourist board.

ii) Perceived outcomes in Tuxtla

Being Tuxtla the capital of the state where were the tourist board of Chiapas leading the programme was settled, there was an intermediate position with very different opinions. It was verified that those actors working closely with the local authorities or from the private sector but with a close association with them were very enthusiast. The following quotations represent two examples of contrasting opinions regarding the outcomes of the programme:

Q112 - (...) A lot has been done right now in Chiapas since a lot of people are excited about tourism, they really are making an effort so that people know the importance of receiving the tourists properly (...) (*T3, Public Sector*)

Q113 - There were not better results, that is, everything depends on the budget available. One may have the best of intentions but if there is no assigned budget there is no way forward. Progress is slow. (*T2, Public Sector*)

It is worth to note in these statements that, on one hand, there is the perception that a lot has been done to improve tourism and raise awareness of its importance in the region but, on the other, there is also the perception that this process has been very slow due to the limited available resources. Other reasons will be discussed for these contrasting opinions in the discussion of the KT&LE concerned with the perceived outcomes in this municipality.

iii) Perceived outcomes in Chiapa de Corzo

The municipal authorities of Chiapa de Corzo undertook several decisions based on the programme recommendations. Several actors recognised that this process contributed to new ways of thinking about the problems, influencing decision-making namely concerned with the implementation of most of the recommended programmes of action. For instance,

this conviction was acknowledged by the main UNWTO coordinator (see Appendix 7.4, Table 7.4.1-Q114). Therefore, the analysis of what happened in this municipality is worth looking at with more detail in order to understand the main critical factors that may have contributed to this afterwards. In Appendix 7.4 (Table 7.4.2, Q115-Q126) it is systematized a set of excerpts that represent evidences of the implementation of actions related with each of the five programmes of action of the “Chiapas 2015” report.

From the application of those programmes of action it was possible to identify the achievement of specific positive results that the local actors of Chiapa de Corzo associated directly to the UNWTO.Volunteers programme intervention (Appendix 7.4, Table 7.4.3 - Q127-Q133). The examples presented are unequivocal and reveal that in fact it was considered by many actors that, after the participation of Chiapa de Corzo in the programme in 2008, there was an **increase in the tourism supply and demand**. There were references to **new investments** from the private sector, to the recognition of UNESCO of the very popular local traditional event - “*El parachico*” - as intangible **world heritage**, a clear relation with the “*Pueblos Mágicos*” programme classification, and an associated **increase in the number of tourists and average length of stay**. The Spanish word “*detonante*” (trigger) was used often in the interviewees’ discourse to express the changes triggered by the programme in this municipality.

In the other municipalities there were not such evidences regarding specific outcomes associated to the programme. Why was then the case of Chiapa de Corzo different from the others? Considering the characteristics of the programme being analysed, the answer to this question might be more complex than normal mainly due to the dearth of any monitoring and evaluation plan that the programme does not foresee anyway. In this regard, there were several criticisms to this as illustrated by the statements below:

Q134 - (...) your assessment and subsequent opinions are very valuable in that sense. Because it should be evaluated in two or three years from now and ask what progress has been made in that direction. Maybe we are not on the right track and you, having realised that, come out and say “you know what, it is interesting that you are gathering all that but it is not taking you anywhere” It would be useful if you could intervene. (S8, Public Sector)

Q135 - (...) I don’t think that the WTO would be as foolish as to say “there it is, it is now over”. There should be a question such as “right, San Cristóbal, tell me how the programme is going on, what has already been implemented? I’d say there should be an assessment (...) Why? Because it is the only way to say if it worked or not, “either they worked or not and why should we keep helping them if they do not want to work?” Otherwise everything will remain the same. (V3, Volunteer)

It was thus considered imperative that the UNWTO would monitor the results in each municipality as well as in the whole destination following the scheduled plan of action in order to reconsider the actions needed to achieve the intended outcomes. There would be even more pressing need of that evaluation considering the new UNWTO.Volunteers programme about to be implemented in another region of Chiapas under the coordination of SECTUR. The latter should not have gone ahead without a prior evaluation of what went well or wrong and pinpoint what the necessary steps would have to be in order reformulate the programme’s approach in order to guarantee the achievement of future positive outcomes. For that reason, V3 expressed the view that without this evaluation the outcomes of that second edition of the programme would have the same fate of the first, i.e., a lack of clear results necessary to improve tourism development benefiting the whole territory in an integrated manner.

7.6 Cross-analysis of the KT&LE with the Activities, Outputs and Outcomes

While the previous sections (7.3, 7.4, and 7.5) simply described how the main intervening actors perceived what happened in each phase of the programme, in this section such a description is complemented with a **cross-analysis** between each of those dimensions and the **KT&LE** categories. It will be very useful to understand to what extent those perceptions derived from the processes inherent to the **KT&LE** dimension in each phase of the programme.

As sustained in the IDCT model, proposed in Chapter 5, the **KT&LE** dimension should be analysed under the light of the post-rationalist approaches (McFarlane, 2006; Wenger, 1998) reviewed in Chapter 4. This presupposes that knowledge and learning are generated through a dynamic process that translates existing knowledge into new knowledge. Therefore, in the context of IDC programmes, that process should consider the analysis of the categories of *Interactions of actors* (knowledge socially produced), *Interactions of knowledge* (between tacit and explicit knowledge), *Situatedness* (spaces and times in which knowledge exchange takes place) and *Government Enforcement* (extent to which the local government encourages the process) (see Chapter 5, Table 5.5). In order to understand how they were manifested throughout the different phases of the programme and their influence in its effectiveness, a cross-analysis was conducted.

Using the matrix tool of the WebQda software, it was possible to cross all the **sources** (number of interviews in which there are mentions to the respective categories or subcategories) and **references** (number of excerpts related to the respective categories or subcategories) concerning the process of **KT&LE** within each central dimension of analysis. Although only the content analysis of these references allows the understanding of the real meaning given by each interviewee to the respective categories, an overview of the total number of references and sources per category may suggest their level of relevance as critical success factors as perceived by the participating actors. This will be done in the beginning of each subsection after which a more detailed explanation is given through the content analysis of the evidences inherent to the respective subcategories.

7.6.1 Activities and KT&LE process cross-analysis

Table 7.1 - Matrix of analysis of KT&LE within the Activities dimension

KT & LE categories	ACTIVITIES No. sources	ACTIVITIES No. references
Interactions of knowledge	22	47
Interactions among actors	35	118
Situatedness	8	13
Government enforcement	24	45

It can be observed that the greatest number of references that link the **KT&LE** to the Activities dimension is on the category of *Interactions among actors* (118), followed by the *Interactions of knowledge* (47), *Government enforcement* (45), and the *Situatedness*

category (13). The order by which the content analysis of each category will be presented is the same as that of Table 7.1. Each of these will be discussed in a subsection that starts with the presentation of another table with the number of references and sources regarding the respective subcategories. It should be noted that all the categories and subcategories are interrelated.

Interactions of knowledge

Table 7.2 - Matrix of analysis of Interactions of Knowledge/Activities

Interactions of knowledge subcategories	ACTIVITIES No. sources	ACTIVITIES No. references
Access to Information and knowledge	15	28
Tacit and explicit knowledge translations	13	17

A successful KT environment is dependent on the combination of different types of knowledge available in varied sources through diverse services and people, in different ways and places, and at varying times (Coulson-Thomas, 1997; Xiao & Smith, 2007). Throughout the Activities of the programme there were several opportunities for knowledge interactions, having been registered 28 references related with access to information and different types of knowledge and 17 directly associated to translations between tacit and explicit knowledge (Table 7.2).

All this process took place with the interaction of several different actors, most of which through face to face contacts within small or larger assemblies bringing together people that in other ways would not join and discuss matters of their common interest. Therefore, there were diverse opportunities for interactions of knowledge through processes of socialization (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). It can be considered that this took place in different times and spaces (McFarlane, 2006) throughout the programme. This included the preparation of the volunteers and all the interactions prior and during the fieldwork.

Regarding the preparation phases prior to the activities in the field, it should be highlighted the training course to prepare the future participating volunteers as a first opportunity of KT within the transferor actors. This process determined later the selection of the team of volunteers with the most adequate profile to fulfil the established technical programme for the *Chiapas 2015* programme. Some transferor interviewees mentioned the advantages of these preliminary stages of KT, referring also the improvements that have been meanwhile introduced in the programme:

Q136 - There were many different people within the group that contributed in many different things (...) that is there were many different backgrounds such as anthropologists that contributed a lot. (V2, Volunteer)

Q137 - (...) I think that it has been improved since there were a lot of people with different knowledge backgrounds such as tourism but without cooperation experience and good people from cooperation backgrounds but without an idea in tourism (...) To me the main usefulness of the course was that it selected volunteers which complemented each other quite well. (V1, Volunteer)

These statements suggest diverse types of knowledge translations (McFarlane, 2006) from tacit to explicit forms or/and also from explicit to tacit. For instance, the conversion of knowledge from documents such as IDC programmes' reports, transmitted in explicit forms by the UNWTO collaborators throughout the course to the volunteers represent examples of translations of explicit to tacit knowledge and vice-versa. Diverse types of knowledge interactions took place as well among the volunteers.

Then, a second opportunity for KT in this process occurs throughout the preparation stage when the selected team for the *Chiapas 2015* project is brought together to work online with specific instructions of the UNWTO coordinators and some local officials. The knowledge exchange verified in this period, of about five weeks, was more about interactions of explicit to explicit knowledge. Some examples of this are the collection and analysis of statistical, political, legal, socioeconomic, and environmental data about the destination and the conversion of it into other explicit forms. This secondary data would be subsequently combined with primary data to be obtained in the fieldwork. Furthermore, it can be considered that the translations of this type of data and information into specific knowledge about the destination contributed to improve the knowledge base of the transferor.

However, some problems were raised in this regard. One limitation to knowledge interactions in this phase was the scattered state of information available about the country, the State of Chiapas and the municipalities. Some of these problems and concerned suggestions were pointed out in the following terms (see also Appendix 7.5, Q140):

Q138 - The majority of people were involved in the last minute, it was not done with anticipation. Knowledge and also what were they trying to achieve? What did they come here to do? There should have been an interaction with the council as well so that everybody knew what was being done. That is what I consider it was missing. (C4, Civil Society)

Q139 - (...) If they (the local actors) would be in the preliminary work I think they would guide us better in order to conduct our work and it would be important the participation of the local authorities in the whole volunteering process and not just in the work done in the field. (V1, Volunteer)

Therefore, it was considered that one of the major limitations of the programme was that in this phase previous to the field work, *Interactions of Knowledge* with the transferee were almost inexistent with the previously mentioned exception of KT in the exploratory mission with the official authorities. This meant that the majority of the local actors that were called to participate in the fieldwork had not a previous knowledge about what was going to happen with the UNWTO.Volunteers programme in Chiapas. The main suggestions to avoid this problem were related with the organization of meetings with the local actors to make them aware of the programme, its aims, methodology and planned agenda. Additionally, it was proposed that some of them should be formerly involved sharing knowledge with the volunteers and coordinators of the programme previously to the fieldwork. This would allow for a much greater effectiveness once in the field.

The third and most important phase in terms of *interactions of knowledge* is throughout the fieldwork activities. Indeed, most of the transferee actors highlighted the opportunities for knowledge interactions in this phase referring specifically some relevant aspects they observed in the methodology employed (see also Appendix 7.5, Q144):

Q141 - The programme that was organised was good, nice and very complete (...) Everything ranging from the Government to the private sector was covered. The situation was diagnosed and the needs were pointed out and there followed suggestions by experts (...) From my point of view it was a valuable work done with reliable information. With enough detail you can work well (...) a lot of people were interviewed. (CD4, Civil Society)

Q142 - They were not just focused on one source of the problem (...) they got involved and walked (went out there) as we say over here, talked to guides, with hotel owners, airport employees, they were in the indigenous communities, had meetings with the secretary of tourism, mayors. Stakeholders meetings were carried out with education institutions, many interviews (...) (P3, Public Sector)

Q143 - (...) that visit really helped a lot so that we would realize what work had to be done, what to keep because there are things that we take for granted (...) However you came and told us that “we have to take care of that aspect as well” (C5, Private Sector)

These are just some examples among many others that reveal the positive perceptions of most of the local actors regarding the methodology employed which permitted to collect relevant data. Specific references were made regarding the many interviews conducted with different types of actors, the detailed reports produced with very credible information, and the stakeholders meetings that took place. All these were considered as some of the privileged tools to collect local knowledge and make a rigorous diagnosis of the destination, among others.

Furthermore, as was clearly assumed in Q143, the opportunity for discussing the tourism potential of each place between different stakeholders possessing different types of knowledge and skills was considered very important as a key channel for “knowledge brokerage” (Sheate & Partidário, 2010). This was due to the credibility associated to the opinions of “external individuals” who operate within and across distinctive knowledge communities, i.e. from different countries and international tourism experience (Weidenfeld et al., 2010; Beijerse, 1999).

Therefore, this case study confirmed that one critical success factor for IDC programmes in the context of tourism is in fact the opportunities for knowledge interactions that it generates. As reviewed in Chapter 4, several authors (e.g. Cooper, 2006; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995; McFarlane, 2006) defend that tacit knowledge is passed between individuals through various forms of learning experiences and socialization. Therefore, this depends to a great extent from the methodology employed which should always facilitate this process. This can include not only field visits and interviews with key actors, but it should encourage stakeholders’ assemblies in order to gather local knowledge while adding external insights. This was the case here with many recognized advantages:

Q145 - (...) volunteering is a question of image which helps but the experts, for example, they go around with all their international experience and at least they awaken with the stakeholders meetings, you make them see something they have never seen before and that is extremely important because you can change the direction they were going and position themselves accordingly (...) that for me is the key, at the level of thought, reflection and encouragement. It is important. (E1, Consultant)

These assemblies, organized in each of the five municipalities, worked as brainstorming sessions involving local actors of the public and private sectors as well as the civil society to discuss their vision for the whole tourism destination towards 2015. The perceptions of the transferee actors concerning this methodology were in general very positive, as can be evidenced in the following excerpts:

Q146 - (...) I had that hope because you say to yourself, we were various experts, archaeologists, historians, anthropologists, all exchanging this information of how we see tourism (...) then you say “

let's hope we have these kind of workshops in the future so we can Exchange these types of perspectives. (CD2, Public Sector)

Q147 - The workshop was very interesting, there was a lot of openness, interesting notes were taken (...) I remember there was a type of debate where the problems of the tourism sector were put on the table and interesting ideas were put forward. (S6, Private Sector)

There were many references to the opportunity of joining together many local experts with different backgrounds and opinions about the destination that could freely discuss their points of view with other local actors. As this was not a common procedure, it was expected that this could trigger similar processes of knowledge sharing in the future. Nevertheless, even though recognizing the advantages of these initiatives to promote knowledge interactions, some weaknesses were identified mainly concerned with the type of actors involved in these meetings as there were many sectors of the local community that were not represented. This is discussed in the next subsection.

Interactions among actors

Table 7.3 - Matrix of analysis of Interactions among Actors/Activities

Interactions among actors subcategories	ACTIVITIES No. sources	ACTIVITIES No. references
Community Participation / COP	29	75
Communication	27	49
Trust	19	31
Leadership	12	25

Many of the 118 references done by the 35 interviewees regarding *Interactions of Actors* throughout the Activities were expressed in a positive sense referring the opportunities generated by putting together different actors communicating about the tourism destination:

Q148 - (...) in the field, interaction was excellent, intense and detailed, well structured (...) and then you reach the climax and suddenly everything is erased, also with the local actors, the interaction does not go on after the field work is concluded (...) I think that is the weakness of the programme. (E3, Consultant)

Q149 - I believe that there was (interaction between the different actors) during the programme because you reach agreements together, they see themselves as being part of a team and this generates a group feeling. It isn't about the guys from Palenque against the ones from Tuxtla but about everybody from Chiapas being part of one single project (...) (V1, Volunteer)

It was recognised the advantages inherent to the strong interactions of actors during the fieldwork such as raising awareness for the importance of working together for the same goal instead of looking at each other as competitors. Nevertheless, almost all regretted the fact that these practices were not kept after the programme, being one of its main weaknesses.

The subcategories *Communication*, *Trust* and *Leadership* that summed 49, 31, and 25 references, respectively (Table 7.3), are implicit in most of the statements about the fieldwork *Activities*. As reviewed in Chapter 4, these subcategories constitute conditions *sine qua non* for the generation of "communities of practice" that are essential for a

dynamic learning environment and translations of knowledge (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; Szulanski, 2000). Although there were references to this dynamic KT and learning process in all the municipalities, it was in the municipality of Chiapa de Corzo that this was more markedly expressed:

Q150 (...) We learnt much from them, above all with Experience and much ability to deal in these type of situations and our interest was not just the assessment but also to acquire the experience they had because I went along with them (...)and ask them how they saw this and that and interact in each situation and learn from it. (C8, Public Sector)

Q151 - It was a proper process. Because you facilitated the whole process. There were no impositions, on the contrary you allowed everybody to talk and express what they had to say. (C10, Private Sector)

It is clearly assumed the learning environment generated by the programme based on a trustful team. This was facilitated by its perceived expertise and leading capacity while interacting with the diverse actors and situations that arose in the field. Nevertheless, some problems were pointed out by several actors concerning the limited range of local actors involved in the fieldwork activities and in particular in the stakeholders' assemblies:

Q152 - From my point of view it was more geared towards businessmen and few people from the community were involved. I think they forgot about involving more people specifically from the tourism sector, not just those who offer tourist packages or welcome tourists. (S3, Civil Society)

Q153 - (...) I consider that the indigenous communities have an extremely important potential to be developed (...) They forgot a little bit about that (...) To be specific let's say Arcotete (indigenous community). If they had gone and know them they would have said "we can spark this, this and this". We can foresee that a group of businessmen walking hand in hand with the private sector and indigenous communities. (S1, Private Sector)

This lack of community participation was more evident in San Cristóbal where, for instance, few representatives of the indigenous population were involved, although it was also verified in other municipalities. The programme's coordinators and volunteers also considered that there were significant differences between the five municipalities regarding the desired proportional representation of all the sectors - public, private and civil society. This would be essential to create a representative "community of practice" in the future (see also Appendix 7.5-Q155):

Q154 - (...) tourist life in Chiapas is all about the communities (...) and when you arrived at San Cristóbal who were the spokesmen or participating actors? The owner of the best hotel, the most luxurious restaurant, the hotel association the tourist guides but there was no participation from the communal land companies or the communities who could greatly benefit from this type of projects and would certainly be more open to suggestions and comments from the group (...) The work should have been about the development of the products within the communities. (E2, consultant)

The principle group which lacked representativeness was the indigenous population and nowhere was this more evident than in San Cristóbal although, having said that, also artisans and other sectors of the population were not usually heard. In these statements it is also put in evidence that this selection process was not under the control of the transferor but of the local authorities who are usually moved by political reasons, according to some. Even though they were encouraged to involve a diversified range of local actors, the transferor pointed out diverse reasons for that to not happen:

Q156 - (...) I believe that it has to do with two things. The first one is that governments usually do not get people involved because they believe we have our shortcomings, many different reasonings and complaints may arise and therefore things will tend to complicate and secondly and most serious of all because the community work cannot be done in three weeks which is the duration of the volunteer programme. Community work is an everyday thing where you nourish the relationship

and where you begin to build people's trust. It seems to me that the way the programme is designed this will be difficult to achieve. (E2, Consultant)

Concerning the indigenous population, one of the main reasons for not involving them is related with the fear of the local authorities of giving them an opportunity for complaining publicly about their plight. As reviewed in Chapter 6 (section 6.2.3.2), in Chiapas there are historical conflicts between the government, the indigenous and marginalized rural populations (Willis, 2011; Van den Berghe, 1995). It became evident the existing tension and its effect on their reluctance to be involved in the programme. Furthermore, it was considered that the complex nature inherent to a community development project would not be feasible within a 3-week fieldwork programme which under normal circumstances would demand regular interaction and monitoring.

Another criticism in terms of lack of interaction among actors was the absence of contacts with the local universities and other educational institutions considering the programme claims to work essentially within a knowledge sharing platform involving universities from both sides (Appendix 7.5-Q157). The point was also brought up as regards the few representatives of the civil society actually involved. However, in this aspect it was recognized that many of these and other representatives were invited by the local authorities but that did not show up due to a generalized apathy (Appendix 7.5-Q158).

It can be concluded that the *Interactions of Actors* throughout the Activities play a determinant role suggesting the potential for the constitution of "communities of practice". It helps to raise awareness towards the importance of putting the local actors of distinct communities working together, as long as there is a recognized and trustful leadership and that an adequate communication is established. Nevertheless, it was also at this stage that it came to light out the limitations to a wide participation of the main sectors of the local community such as indigenous and marginalized rural populations, and the civil society.

Situatedness

Table 7.4 - Matrix of analysis of Situatedness/Activities

Situatedness subcategories	ACTIVITIES No. sources	ACTIVITIES No. references
Time context	4	5
Spatial context	6	8

The analysis about the *situatedness of knowledge* concerning the Activities of the programme will be focused on specific references to the ways and means the information and knowledge circulate in terms of *time* and *space* throughout the fieldwork phase of the programme. As initially presented, this category did not register a significant number of references (13) when compared to the others. Nevertheless, the content analysis of some of them reveals interesting aspects that should be taken into account. Regarding the *spatial context*, the 8 references registered revealed that there was a general acceptance regarding the inclusion of the five municipalities integrated in the tourism cluster working plan:

Q159 - (...) Those are the areas that have to be taken into account because they are the head of the municipality. Each one of the 118 municipalities that Chiapas has should be analysed individually to see who is apt and which not and which one has the potential to develop in tourist terms. (S1, Private Sector)

The transferor actors highlighted, however, the difficulty of undertaking all the fieldwork assigned tasks when it comes to work with such a geographically disperse territory:

Q160 - The distance between the areas involved was a problem (...) you have to combine the work among the areas which really need it and have a potential with others that of course want to be a part of the success of the programme but maybe do not have the same tourist development levels as the others. (V1, Volunteer)

On one hand, there was a general agreement among the local actors about the five municipalities chosen to integrate the tourism cluster within the Chiapas 2015 project. Nevertheless, some of them pointed out that although these were in fact the municipalities that presented more tourism potential worth working with, there were others among the 118 of the state of Chiapas that could enrich the cluster. On the other hand, this idea was refuted by the consultants and volunteers who considered that even those five were too much for this kind of intervention. This was due to the difficulties of working together such a geographic dispersing territory with very different characteristics in a programme with the characteristics of the UNWTO.Volunteers.

These limitations are directly related with those concerned with the *time context* subcategory:

Q161 - (...) You can hardly set up a tourist development plan for anybody with just 4 weeks of previous office work and three weeks of fieldwork. Very hard. (E2, Consultant)

Q162 - (...) you have to extend the time frame. Instead of two weeks of interviews, four weeks would be better but with more in depth and not just with anybody (...) we have to be more inclusive because there is no time for much more. Why? Because when the volunteers come they have to leave their own jobs for 3 weeks or a month. It is complicated. (V3, Volunteer)

In this regard, although it was recognized by the volunteers and coordinators that more time would be necessary to make more effective the KT process during the Activities, this would not be possible considering the characteristics of the programme and of the transferor, namely its volunteer dimension and the available time to participate in it. Therefore, given the necessity of working in the field within a limited timeframe, the alternative to face this problem would be a better coordination and organization of the working agenda considering the limited available time to do it.

Government enforcement

Table 7.5 - Matrix of analysis of Government enforcement/Activities

Government enforcement subcategories	ACTIVITIES No. sources	ACTIVITIES No. references
Commitment	22	31
Logistical support	10	14

The *government enforcement* plays a crucial role to guarantee that all the activities take place according to the necessary conditions to develop them adequately. Indeed, the *commitment* and *logistical support* of the local government is determinant from the moment of its preparation and definition of the Terms of Reference of the programme to the conditions to be provided in the fieldwork activities. This is essential to provide a favourable KT&LE process.

From the 45 references made by 24 interviewees concerning the government enforcement throughout the Activities (Table 7.5), the majority (31) were related with the *commitment* subcategory which is also associated with that of *logistical support*. As already discussed there were significant differences when comparing, on one hand, the municipalities of Tuxtla and Chiapa de Corzo and, on the other hand, the municipalities of San Cristóbal, Comitán and Palenque. The former were totally committed providing all the facilities and logistical support in order to support the planning and fieldwork activities which contributed to a favourable KT&LE:

Q163 - (...) that is where you find all that synergy with the leaders of the Municipal tourist Board of Tuxtla. All the proceedings are backed by the State Government and the federal one. Work starts straight away (...) (T7, Public Sector)

Q164 - (...) In the case of Chiapa de Corzo, the mayor assumed his role in the Project. I believe that of all mayors in the five municipalities that were involved he was the one that better took the reins of the process. Proof of that is the fact that the tourist employees are still working and continue to make things happen. (E2, Consultant)

In the other three municipalities there was a lack of commitment mainly from the municipal presidents:

Q165 - As an employee responsible for looking after them my plight was not the pressure involved but the pity I took on them volunteers. I said to my boss "listen, it is not possible it is a very important job they are doing and in Tuxtla they got this and achieved this(...) it is not possible that this people come and not receive a single dollar" (...) (S8, Public Sector)

Q166 - Our mayor did not care (...) Then you set up a meeting, you need the money, you need something for at least a coffee break or something but they were not interested, each one had to contribute from our own pockets. There was a lot of misinformation (...) I found many, many problems. (CD7, Public Sector)

167 - (...) When we arrived at Palenque we had no idea who to interview or what was the atmosphere like, if it was a hostile environment or not. It was very hostile (...) we had to change completely what we wanted to do (...) at the beginning the programme started for a specific area and then it was expanded to others but the new arrivals were not in tune. (V2, Volunteer)

In these statements it becomes evident that throughout the Activities several political and institutional problems arose. These derived mainly from the contrast between the commitments assumed by the municipal presidents in the planning Activities, namely in the exploratory mission and the Terms of Reference that followed. Indeed, it was conceived within the agreement the need for commitment from all the municipal authorities involved who would therefore assume to guarantee the necessary logistical support:

Q168 - (...) We have striven to improve the commitment from all the institutions including from the government ones to the companies and the educational ones within the ones that applied for the project (...) we had preparatory meetings with businessmen, cooperatives, and the municipalities and even the mayors so that when the group arrived everybody would have been previously informed about what was it all about and the schedules to be had (...) (E3, Consultant)

As pointed out by E3 (see also Appendix 7.5 - Q169), although there were efforts in the exploratory mission to prepare all the municipalities and relevant local institutions to the programme's aims and implications, it is very difficult to guarantee the same level of commitment in such a diverse territory. It would have been essential that between the Terms of Reference agreement and the fieldwork activities diverse key actors of each municipality would have been informed about the programme that was about to take place namely its aims and needed commitment in terms of their active participation and support. In general, not only was this previous preparation and involvement of the local community not verified, but during the fieldwork this process was too much dependent on the goodwill of the local governments:

Q170 -The job was done with all actors that the government invited to participate. I do not mean that it has to be this way but it occurs to me that the government does not invite those actors that may create conflict or be more critical (...) (E2, Consultant)

Therefore, it became evident that some limitations to a broader community participation were posed by the local governments as they tried sometimes to exert an excessive control over the fieldwork activities agenda and in particular regarding the type of local actors to be involved. As evidenced in the example above, this control can produce the avoidance of important key actors whom the local government fears due to their critical positions towards the local development process. The consultants and volunteers should avoid this control, by imposing the maximum independence throughout the process, although this is not always feasible. The specific conditions under which the fieldwork activities should take place, including a representative selection of key local actors and their preparation in advance, should be clearly assumed in the agreed conditions between the parties in the Terms of Reference.

7.6.2 Outputs and KT&LE process cross-analysis

Table 7.6 - Matrix of analysis of KT&LE within the Outputs dimension

KT & LE categories	OUTPUTS No. sources	OUTPUTS No. references
Interactions of knowledge	28	73
Interactions among actors	32	97
Situatedness	13	17
Government enforcement	21	25

Through the analysis of Table 7.6, it can be observed that the greatest number of references that link the KT&LE to the *Outputs* dimension is on the category of *Interactions among actors* (97), followed by the *Interactions of knowledge* (73), *Government enforcement* (25), and at last the *Situatedness* category (17). The most expressive excerpts that put in evidence the meaning given by the actors to each category and associated subcategories will be discussed below.

Interactions of knowledge

Table 7.7 - Matrix of analysis of Interactions of Knowledge/Outputs

Interactions of knowledge subcategories	OUTPUTS No. sources	OUTPUTS No. references
Access to Information and knowledge	26	55
Tacit and explicit knowledge translations	11	17

The analysis of the references about *Interactions of Knowledge* concerning the *Outputs* evidences the importance attributed by the interviewees to the *access to information and knowledge* produced. Indeed, 26 of the 50 interviewees made 55 references either to its importance or to the necessity for its dissemination.

Concerning specifically the types of *knowledge translations* throughout the *Outputs* dimension it could be observed that most of the 17 references were related with advantages that are associated with translations of tacit into explicit forms of knowledge. The following excerpt constitutes an illustrative example of this:

Q171 - (...) I understood the results that were sent. It is something that you know but you don't want to know. Yeah you already know about it but does not want to see it (...) the work that was carried out by the WTO was to identify, well, do a SWOT analysis which the strengths and weaknesses. Even if you don't like it certain things must be improved and some things we knew but we did not want to see, they are there and they came to the surface in this document. We did not make it happen but the experts that came from outside did. It has another impact when somebody from the outside tells you the truth [laughs] (C11, Private Sector)

In this last statement, C11 clearly highlights what Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) considered as the internalisation of knowledge by creating new ideas from written documents or learning by doing (subsection 4.2.1). Additionally, this and the following statements put in evidence that the UNWTO team was perceived as having played the role of a knowledge broker (Sheate & Partidário 2010; Weidenfeld et al., 2010; Wenger, 1998). This was yet again more evident in the municipality of Chiapa de Corzo:

Q172 - It is a document which is not being drafted by one's self , it involves methodology a tool that says " this is what is happening methodologically and I do not grasp it and is not about what I think or certain people think" but it is about a methodological work, research, it has strength, why ? because it is measurable, verifiable and has everything it has to have. (C11, Private Sector)

Q173 - I feel the observations they left were important because they were activities or actions that we had to take in order to improve some centers. Then the final report by the WTO was interesting so we could see what our shortfalls were and what we had to do. (C7, Public Sector)

Q174 - I think the job you did when you visited us, to analyse and try and give us the formulas, let's say that they are not the magic formulas but it helps a great deal. It helps because it contributes to become aware, to integrate. I cannot arrive with my truth because my truth is not the only one (...) they are different worlds and they all have to be integrated into one product and that is what we are doing. (C12, Public Sector)

These statements are really illustrative of how the Output of a programme such as this one can work as a base of knowledge that systematizes all the relevant information about the destination, raising awareness for the main critical aspects to be considered while at the same time serving as a guiding manual to strengthen future processes of decision-making (as corroborated also by actors of Tuxtla in Q88 and Q89, Appendix 7.4). Therefore, in these cases, it became evident the importance of translating tacit knowledge

into explicit one. The mere fact that the report transcribed in writing many of the deficiencies present in those municipalities was enough to spark a chain reaction within the various actors and acted as a catalyst for future actions. They may have been already aware of some of the problems to be tackled but the fact that it was said in writing in a clear and concise way was enough to make them do something about it.

Nevertheless, it should be noted that, as discussed in section 7.4 where the main perceived Outputs of the programme were identified, there were also some actors in the other municipalities that considered the explicit knowledge as expressed in the “Chiapas 2015 Report” insufficient for what they needed (e.g. Q91 and Q92, Appendix 7.4). In their case the level of expectations was much higher and, from their point of view, the report should have addressed in depth the means to tackle the specific issues at hand. These differences in their respective perceptions have to do with factors associated mainly with the KT&LE dimension, not only related with the knowledge interactions produced, but with the other categories within this dimension as discussed below.

Interactions among actors

Table 7.8 - Matrix of analysis of Interactions among Actors/Outputs

Interactions among actors subcategories	OUTPUTS No. sources	OUTPUTS No. references
Community Participation / COP	26	58
Communication	24	46
Trust	16	32
Leadership	12	15

The *interactions among actors* constituted the category of KT&LE most referenced by the interviewees concerning the *Outputs* dimension. It should be noted that most of the references to *interactions among actors* within the *Outputs* were negative. This was verified mainly with respect to the lack of involvement of the transferee actors that participated in the fieldwork Activities and the local community in general. The lack of *communication* of the results is directly associated to this lack of *community participation*, which registered 58 and 46 references, respectively. In this context of analysis, the three following excerpts were selected as representing the general negative opinions verified in each of the municipalities of San Cristóbal, Palenque, and Comitán:

Q175 - We believe it was incomplete because the delivery (of the report) would have been important to know which way to follow once the critical route had been planned. The delivery did not take place and the work was truncated. Many people, hotel owners above all, did follow some things but not as widely organized once that the civil society and other social entities have to be involved (...) the report was given to the municipality and that was that (...) (S2, Civil Society)

Q176 - I would love to have (...) the final report(...)and for the authorities to be invited once more and well they can say what to do based on the report and the decisions that they will take. How we can be involved (...) (P1, Private Sector)

Q177 - If we really knew the report maybe I would have said “I think I can contribute with my particular grain of sand” that can range from workshops, educational issues, to participation on radio, television, academic fora (...) (CD2, Public Sector)

Therefore, in these three cases, the programme was considered incomplete mainly due to the lack of interactions of actors that characterized this phase of the programme. The local actors were expecting to keep on participating on the process of knowledge sharing, through stakeholders meetings or the creation of a task force with the aim of working on the results or, at least, by using the social media to disseminate that information. It was therefore criticized the fact that almost all sectors of the local community were excluded of the process of this knowledge sharing process, with the exception of some hoteliers and the local authorities. Nevertheless, many of them revealed a renovated interest in recovering the opportunity of accessing to that explicit knowledge and giving their contribution to enhance it.

Also in the case of Tuxtla, curiously being the capital of the state and the leading municipality in this programme, although some actors revealed to know the study having regular contacts with the local authorities about it (see Appendix 7.6 - Q178), some other interviewees from the private sector mentioned the incipient or null knowledge about the results of the study (see also Appendix 7.6 - Q180):

Q179 - (...) We have a meeting with the hotel association once a month (...) the majority of the partners commented that they had no knowledge. They did know that the WTO came and did something because it was in the newspapers but they didn't know anything more profound. (T8, Private Sector)

Even the most optimist transferee actors of Chiapa de Corzo assumed that they became formally aware of the main results of the study only with the public presentation of the final results that took place in Tuxtla, in September of 2009:

Q181 - The process served as the trigger, specially when the conclusions were presented in Tuxtla and the way the community was involved as well as service providers which served towards the good results and I feel that with your arrival the Governor moved the ideas once more. (C7, Public Sector)

Q182 - It was useful because your work is widely recognized (...) we do not know it 100% because only certain parts were presented (...) we should know this work in more detail. (C5, Private Sector)

Some of these actors considered that this public presentation was important to involve the local community and raise awareness for the project including the Chiapas state governor, while others recognised that this was not enough to get a deep understanding of the whole knowledge it contained. Therefore, there was a generalized *lack of communication* and *community participation*. It would be essential to encourage at this stage the maintenance of communities of practice through a process of regular *interaction of actors*.

Additionally, it was verified a lack of *trust* from most of the local actors of the private sector and the civil society on the type of actors that were leading the programme at the stage when the UNWTO team was no longer present. In particular, the lack of a strong and representative *leadership* involving the same actors since the beginning and throughout the Outputs and subsequent phases was considered a weakness of the programme. This fact seems to have limited its potential success. Among the references to the subcategories of *leadership* (32) and *trust* (15) within the *Outputs* dimension, the following excerpt illustrates well this kind of negative perceptions:

Q183 - (...) many people do not know what the famous clusters are. I sent the conclusions or information that was prepared to the new president of CANIRAC and they responded - This is just nonsense". - What? Wait. Why? He simply did not know what they were talking about. Why? Because he never participated in anything, in the round tables or anything else and that happened to everybody and not just with certain economic groups but with all the rest as well. That is what happens when the presidency is a rotating one. (S4, Private Sector)

Therefore, according to some actors and as illustrated by S4, the lack of leadership constitutes a problem evidenced already in the Outputs and in particular in the exchange of knowledge among the local actors regarding the analysis of the programme recommendations. As it happens, one year after the Activities fieldwork the results were presented to an assembly of local leaders that were not all the same from the beginning and therefore they could not understand the conclusions and recommendations that were conveyed. This generated a lack of interest and trust in the study recommendations by these particular leaders and as a consequence that new knowledge would not be shared with the community they were representing.

As recognized by several actors (e.g. Goh, 2002; Szulanski, 1996), this lack of *leadership* and accountability associated to the inherent lack of *trust* generated among the local actors constitutes a barrier to a successful KT&LE. In order to guarantee the necessary leadership throughout all the process, most of the transferor and transferee actors considered that the UNWTO should provide some kind of long-term *leadership*:

Q184 - Another group of volunteers would have to come and say “the strategy is this set let’s carry it out this way”. But of course this group of volunteers is not included in the package from the WTO. They say “we help you prepare, we leave you the document and then execute it” The WTO should be more forceful by saying “you have to do it, carry it out, monitor it” and they do not do that, They deliver the document and their involvement is over. (V3, Volunteer)

Q185 - somehow if we could be informed by you, the final result and what we can do so that the authorities can do the follow up. It would be interesting to do something through you or together. (P1, Private Sector)

Therefore, some of the participating actors considered that if leadership is not feasible within the local community, then it would be required that the UNWTO would keep its leading role not only during the programme’s Activities but until the Programmes of Action would be put into practice. Thus, in this type of development interventions, it is very difficult to assure a successful process of KT that lasts through time in order to implement the necessary changes generated by the programmes without the guarantee that the COPs created in the meantime by that same process would be preserved.

This also confirms the perspective of Waroonkun (2007) who concluded that programmes of technology transfer through IDC programmes can not be successful if there is not an effective *communication* and *leadership* because without it, stakeholders will not *trust* each other. Furthermore, like reviewed in Chapter 4, it is essential to guarantee that sources of new knowledge are kept for a longer period until the COPs generated by the programme are consolidated with a recognized leadership fully accepted by the respective local community (Brown & Duguid, 1991; Shaw & Williams, 2009).

Situatedness

Table 7.9 - Matrix of analysis of Situatedness/Outputs

Situatedness subcategories	OUTPUTS No. sources	OUTPUTS No. references
Time context	5	6
Spatial context	8	9

In the context of the *Outputs* dimension, the category of *Situatedness* (McFarlane, 2006) can be associated to the ways and means the information and knowledge circulated in terms of *time* and *space* concerning the programme's *Outputs* and the extent to which this was shared after the results of the study became available.

The *spatial context* of the programme considers in this case the exclusion or inclusion of the territories initially involved in the programme throughout the *Outputs* and the extent to which they kept connected with it and in particular with the results and Programmes of Action to be implemented. It was observed that in the municipalities more distant from the capital of the state (Tuxtla), where the tourism board responsible for making public the results of the programme was based, there was a higher lack of knowledge and a generalized lack of commitment.

Indeed, in the municipalities of Tuxtla and Chiapa de Corzo (about 15 km from Tuxtla) most of the initial participants in the programme were still involved and aware of its results. In Palenque, the most distant municipality, only the municipal and regional public authorities were aware of it, while in the municipalities of San Cristóbal and Comitán not even the local authorities responsible for the tourism sector knew the programme outputs.

Concerning the limited number of references to the subcategory *time* within the *Outputs* dimension, it was in general considered that it took too much time for the local authorities to get the feedback from the UNWTO and to know about the final report that was publicly presented in October of 2009 (see also Appendix 7.6 - Q188):

Q186 - (...) When you finished and left and then came back to hand in the report I felt you were delaying things but then you explained that it was a long process. (S5, Public Sector)

Q187 - I think that when the Project was over and the only thing left were the local authorities I felt they were not sufficiently prepared in terms of know-how to continue with what had happened. It is very clear. They said: We were left in the open, we do not know what happened after a few months when the results came. (V3, Volunteer)

As presented in Chapter 6 when referring to the structure of the UNWTO.Volunteers (subsection 6.2.3.1, Figure 6.2), the timeframe between the fieldwork Activities and the delivering of the final Report to the local authorities should not be more than 3 months. Nevertheless, considering the dimension and characteristics of the territory, it would not be probable that this timeframe could be accomplished. The problem here was the expectations generated mainly among the local actors that participated actively and the political changes that meanwhile took place. From the last statement it is also patent that the transferee was not in general prepared to implement the resulting recommendations of the programme without the transferor keep being actively involved. The combination of the latter with the mentioned prolonged time gap between the fieldwork and the results delivering may have been one of the causes for the lack of follow up of the programme. All this has contributed for forgetfulness of those who got tired of waiting or the lack of interest from others that changed posts meanwhile. One main conclusion that this analysis induces is that, when conceiving IDC programmes and discussing it with the potential beneficiaries, the timeframe assigned to each phase should be realistic and adjusted to the transferee's context. This should take into consideration the political cycles and scheduled phases of the programme, the characteristics of the territory avoiding the large ones and, therefore, minimising the consequent disparities among the territorial units. In this timeframe the development agency should keep in contact with the local authorities and the main local participants so as to keep the interest and commitment.

Government enforcement

Table 7.10 - Matrix of analysis of Government enforcement/Outputs

Government enforcement subcategories	OUTPUTS No. sources	OUTPUTS No. references
Commitment	21	25
Logistical support	0	0

As recognized by Waroonkun (2007), the *government enforcement* plays a crucial role for KT to occur in appropriate conditions throughout the Outputs. All this process depends now more than ever on the transferee and it is no longer on the control of the transferor. In the 25 references made by 21 interviewees in this regard, there were different opinions about the importance of the *government commitment* and its role in the sharing of the results. The majority of the actors of Palenque, Comitán and San Cristóbal were adamant in accusing both the state and the municipal authorities for not inviting the local actors, including sector association's representatives, for the presentation or future release of the final conclusions of the study:

Q189 - What happens is that I was left waiting what the result of the analysis would be, what was done. I really do not know if they delivered it to the authorities, never again. In 2009 I was still participating within the Hotel Association managerial team but I did not receive any invitation not as an association nor as a hotel owner. I do not know what went on afterwards (...) (P6, Private Sector)

Q190 - I believe that the State Government received the report and it is up to them to follow it through in each city, each place. I never saw it or heard about it. Maybe in Tuxtla Gutierrez or Chiapa de Corzo. I do not know whether the "Senda de Colores" derived from it. (CD4, Civil Society)

Q191 - I do not have anything by post, I have not been notified, I have no idea what happened. I was involved in the round tables with the city council, with various people that started the competitiveness movement, I was even present in the signature with the Governor in Tuxtla and when the clusters were starting to be formed and when we said "we are going to introduce all that and do all this" I was present until then (...) (S4, Private Sector)

One consideration that can be raised in this regard is the lack of involvement of many of the local actors of the private sector and civil society that accused the local authorities for not keeping them informed about the programme outputs. This could be partly attributed to the supra discussed hiatus between the Activities fieldwork and the date of the delivering of the final Chiapas 2015 Report. In fact, in the space of one year, the political and institutional scenery may suffer many changes as seems to have been the case here. Nevertheless, this does not explain everything as some of the former leaders of the tourism sector associations and other institutions were the same one year later.

Therefore, we may ask what were the sort of reasons that may have justified this lack of attention from the head of the tourism board in Tuxtla for not keeping those same leaders of the three distant municipalities informed or at least inviting them for the public presentation of the final Report. As it was observed by the researcher in the field, the answer to this may be very complex and difficult to clarify. What can be inferred from the following statements is that this was somehow related to political reasons. Most of these reasons eventually derived from changes at the very local level:

Q192 - (...) Imagine that even the president of the municipality was going to attend and I did not know about it, I was not invited but even the president of the municipality and the other one who were supposed to be there were not there, of course. (CD7, Public Sector)

For instance, in this last statement from Comitán it was, on the one hand, criticized by the former tourism coordinator the fact of not having been invited, and on the other that the municipal president that have been allegedly invited for the public presentation of the study did not attend. It was suggested that by this time that the municipal head of Comitán had clearly rejected any kind of interest in keeping its commitment due to inner political conflicts. In the municipality of San Cristóbal something similar seems to have happened:

Q193 - I would have liked very much to see the result. The last thing I knew was the “Senda de Colores” programme. I managed to see a map about it. (S8, Public Sector)

Being this last statement from one former municipal tourism technician that actively participated in the fieldwork Activities in 2008, it becomes evident that this involvement was not kept even though this interviewee was still working in the public tourism board afterwards. In the case of Palenque, although it could be confirmed by the researcher that the actual tourism municipal director was committed with the Chiapas 2015 programme, by the time of the presentation of the final report it was observed that also the former tourism technician responsible for it had never had any further information after the end of the fieldwork (see Appendix 7.6, Q194).

As mentioned before, in the case of Tuxtla and Chiapa de Corzo, the state government and municipal authorities demonstrated a higher commitment in sharing the programme outputs. This was done through the respective tourism municipal councils:

Q195 - (...) it was him (the municipal tourism coordinator) who had the initiative so that the study would be done and it was him who did the presentation(...) and informed what was going to be done and for what purposes. He also kept informing during the following council sessions and to the hotel association who meet once a month. The report with the conclusions was also presented there (...) (T3, Public Sector)

Q196 - (...) we are working in a coordinated manner through a advisory tourism board for municipal tourist development and it is on that board that all the service providers are integrated (...) Then we receive the final report and round tables were formed where people were informed, through this advisory board, about the final results of the WTO and its recommendations. (C7, Public Sector)

In these statements it is assumed by the public authorities of Tuxtla and Chiapa de Corzo that the Outputs of the programme were shared with the respective local community actors that integrated the tourism municipal councils. Nevertheless, it was suggested that this information should have been more carefully analysed and communicated with greater detail:

Q197 - The report circulated but the population is large and many people should have this information (...) In the meetings that we have had we were informed but I would not go as far as saying “this is the report, that is how it was done at a national level”. We were not given the opportunity to read, know, or discuss it. We were just told and that was it. I feel it was not successful. (C4, Civil Society)

Therefore, also in these two municipalities where the local government was apparently more committed in sharing the results of the programme, there seems to have failed a deeper analysis of it as would be required. Instead, they limited it to the simple communication of the main conclusions of the study. This may have been derived from a lack of understanding and absorptive capacity from the local authorities about the inner conclusions of the study and the respective recommendations:

Q198 - - What had we envisaged for the document? (...) As for myself I was expecting more than just a mere academic document I was looking for a more practical document so that businessmen could take into practice after they had read it and understood it so they could take it into practice. What really happened is that it was not spread it was left in the government's hands. And the government did not understand the document as such. What would have been necessary? For them to interpret it from our point of view since we were the fieldwork team and we all had the same vision (...) (E2, Consultant)

Therefore, as deemed by E2, even though there was an initial commitment from the local government of the municipalities of Tuxtla and Chiapa de Corzo which in theory would have meant some kind of communication of the main conclusions of the study to the local community, in fact it did not happen maybe due to the fact that they did not fully understand the overall vision of the study. It would have been important that the transferee and the transferor had shared the same vision of the study.

Like discussed in subsection 7.2.3, concerning the *characteristics of the transferee as Inputs* of the programme, one that was considered a potential barrier to the absorption of knowledge was precisely the lack of a *knowledge base* and *absorptive capacity*. Therefore, it was considered that although in some municipalities (Comitán, San Cristóbal, and Palenque), the lack of knowledge about the conclusions of the study was due to a lack of commitment from the local government to the programme since the beginning, in the two other municipalities this might have been more related with that lack of absorptive capacity (See Appendix 7.1 - Q53 and Q54).

Therefore, while the problem of lack of *government commitment* might be more difficult to surpass (Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008) in the municipalities where this constituted the main barrier to KT, the lack of knowledge base or absorptive capacity (Goh, 2002; Szulanski, 1996) could potentially be better shaped in order to ease the way to a successful KT&LE process. This would imply more commitment of the transferor in guaranteeing follow-up activities making sure that all the local key actors were still involved in the aftermath including the awareness about the conclusions and plans of action. This will be further discussed in the next section about the *Outcomes* as this will depend to a great extent of the *Outputs* of the programme.

7.6.3 Outcomes and KT&LE process cross-analysis

Table 7.11- Matrix of analysis of KT&LE within the Outcomes dimension

KT & LE categories	OUTCOMES No. sources	OUTCOMES No. references
Interactions of knowledge	36	107
Interactions among actors	46	297
Situatedness	25	59
Government enforcement	36	130

As discussed in the literature review, the achievement of the Outcomes of an ID programme that is based on a dynamic KT&LE perspective depends on a complex set of factors and should not be analysed in a linear way (Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; Duan et al., 2010). Indeed, this implies an analysis of the level of knowledge utilization and its influence in the changes produced for instance through processes of decision-making

(Chapter 4, Table 4.1) (Rich, 1997; Xiao & Smith, 2007). While this should not only be based on the identification of the implementation of occasional actions that derived specifically from the programme, the analysis conducted in section 7.5 showed the importance of understanding first the perceptions of diverse actors about the level of implementation of the programmes of action in the five municipalities.

Nevertheless, it will be the cross-analysis between the categories of KT&LE with the Outcomes that will allow interpreting the most critical factors that may influence after-all the KT process subjacent to the UNWTO.Volunteers programme, according to the post-rationalist perspective. As observed in Table 7.11, the category of *Interactions among actors* totalizes the greatest number of references (297) followed by the *Government enforcement* (130), *Interactions of knowledge* (107), and *Situatedness* (59). The relative importance of each of these categories for the achievement of the Outcomes is evidenced in the content analysis that follows.

Interactions of knowledge

Table 7.12 - Matrix of analysis of Interactions of Knowledge/Outcomes

Interactions of knowledge subcategories	OUTCOMES No. sources	OUTCOMES No. references
Access to Information and knowledge	33	86
Tacit and explicit knowledge translations	13	21

The lack of *Interactions of Knowledge* verified within the Outputs persisted throughout the Outcomes with many of the references being concerned with a generalized lack of access to information and knowledge about the programme and the eventual decisions taken based on that. Indeed, most of the actors lamented the lack of *access to information and knowledge* concerning the follow-up measures that they expected to see after the delivering of the Output of the programme.

Even in Chiapa de Corzo most of the decisions taken that led to important operational changes were more based in the knowledge exchanges informally produced throughout the Activities and Outputs than in a carefully planned follow-up of the final recommendations. In the case of Tuxtla, there were some attempts to follow the final study according to a more programmed agenda. However, this was carried out missing some important steps while taking determinant decisions.

It can be considered that in this context it would have been important to maintain a certain level of knowledge interaction with at least some members of the transferor and mainly with representatives of different sectors of the local community. As this was not the case, it was verified that several decisions were taken based on the knowledge generated by the programme but in an arbitrary manner. Some of these decisions had, for instance, direct implications on the tourism promotion of the 5 municipalities and were taken by SECTUR without informing relevant local tourism players. This was the case of Tuxtla where useless promotion through pamphlet printing and pen distribution took place without consolidating the promotion activity first. Some of the 86 references to the *access to information and knowledge* were precisely related to such a fact; being regretted by most of the actors of Palenque, San Cristóbal and Comitán.

The interest demonstrated by some of the interviewees in this regard was such that they believed that there was a new opportunity to generate outcomes provided by the re-use of that knowledge. Like defended by some authors (e.g. Xiao & Smith, 2007; Rich, 1997), this recognition about the usability of the knowledge produced, offers a great potential for its effective use. Indeed, it was very interesting to register the enthusiasm they demonstrated when associating the presence of the researcher to a new opportunity of exchanging what they considered useful knowledge through a possible reactivation of the programme after three years of the fieldwork:

Q199 - I would love to have it (...) I feel the important thing is that there is somebody interested in bringing the Project back to life because there was a beginning and the first steps were taken (...) The important thing is not to let it fall and be forgotten (...) if somehow you could inform us of the end result and the things we can do so that the authorities follow it through. (P1, Private Sector)

Q200 - Then let's say, it is like a proposal, in a given moment, to reinitiate the process from the beginning, see who participated and organize a round table even with the people that participated at the end and say, "what happened? let's start over and do a reevaluation because there is a lot of work invested and it cannot be thrown just like that". That would be one of the most productive options, a round table where we could analyse each point. (S4, Private Sector)

These testimonies reveal that these actors believed that there had not been any follow-up actions from the SECTUR and the municipal authorities. In trying to understand why were these perceptions so different from those of Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla, it can be concluded that one of the reasons was related precisely with the lack of information exchanged between the authorities and the private sector and civil society citizens. As can be verified in the following excerpts, the access to information related with the programme was considered essential by the local actors of Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla who kept the interest in it and recognised that it added value to the previously existing knowledge (Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008). It was considered, therefore, that this access to information contributed to produce important operational changes (see also Appendix 7.7 - Q203, Q204):

Q201 - There was a need for information but we also should have awoken the interest of the people, the service providers, and teach them that we had to think different and use a different outlook. The WTO's arrival was very helpful because from then on we immersed ourselves in a process of change (...) Look it is very simple and wonderful, for us the arrival of the WTO volunteers allowed us to realize what we had on our doorstep and although we already knew what we had we were not capable of looking for some trademarks, for publicity, in other words we were living at home without knowing what we had. (C7, Public Sector)

Q202 - (...) with this programme something changed because it is all very professional. It told you where the potential laid and where not to lose your time. (T5, Private Sector)

These ideas demonstrate the potential of KT that an IDC programme with such characteristics may proportionate through the changes induced, as long as there is still place for keeping some level of *interactions of knowledge* after the delivering of results. Indeed, in the previous excerpts the term "change", or other expressions that suggest change, emerged as evidence of tacit and explicit knowledge translations (McFarlane, 2006) leading to a *knowledge brokerage* process (Sheate & Partidário, 2010). This took place at different levels only in the municipalities of Tuxtla and Chiapa de Corzo, precisely the only ones where there was room for willingness and knowledge interactions after the end of the development intervention.

Interactions among actors

Table 7.13 - Matrix of analysis of Interactions among Actors/Outcomes

Interactions among actors subcategories	OUTCOMES No. sources	OUTCOMES No. references
Community Participation	46	228
Communication	35	98
Trust	22	44
Leadership	25	73

While most of the references to *interactions among actors* referred to its importance as an essential condition for KT to take place within the Outcomes, just a few confirmed that this type of interactions was really verified. The importance attributed to the subcategory of *community participation* in the processes of decision-making related with the programme recommendations summed the greatest number of references (228).

Q205 - (...) We need these kind of updates or to be constantly on the look out for what is missing and organize stakeholders meetings, talks or whatever you want to call it in order for all this not to be lost (...) the funny thing is to have this reinforcement and say “let’s move on”, then we meet again and we move forward (...) (P7, Public Sector)

Like illustrated in the previous statement It was mentioned by many actors the importance of community participation as the way of reinforcing the work that has to be continued to achieve the Outcomes. Furthermore, it was noted that there is already some relevant experience from some actors in participating in this kind of stakeholders’ meetings defending its importance (see also Appendix 7.7, Q207):

Q206 - (...) We have discussed it enough, we have a few ideas at least within the hotel association. We say “gentlemen, let’s do an exercise, let’s gather everybody involved in the business, hotel owners, restaurant owners travel agencies, tour operators, transport companies and don’t know who else, let’s get everybody together and let’s do a brainstorming” After this there is a simple mechanism where we are supported by a professional team where everybody comes in. (CD3, Private Sector)

Nevertheless, many criticisms were pointed out to the municipal tourism councils that were considered one of the ways of enhancing community participation and that could be capitalized to improve decision-making processes based on the recommendations of the programme. Once again, in the municipalities of Comitán, San Cristóbal and Palenque the running of these councils’ meetings (COCOTUR) were considered inefficient and were not used as a tool to share new knowledge derived from the programme (see also Appendix 7.7 - Q210):

Q208 - (...) apparently there is an entity called COCOTUR which is the tourism advisory council of Comitán. However it really is something that does not work, I have not seen any results up to now (...) We would like them to do something. (CD5, Private Sector)

Q209 - The thing is that when there are round tables and fora where one can participate the group that is selected is very restricted and not the same people go every time. If the invitation was made you attend if it wasn’t then you have no access (...). Then the same thing happens and everything revolves around the same groups in power over and over again and they have access to the information immediately and they control and manipulate everything. (S6, Private Sector)

Therefore despite the existence of institutional conditions for the organisation of fora to promote community participation through the so called COCOTUR, this tool was not used as standard practice for knowledge sharing resulting in more participation in the decision making processes. This inefficiency is attributed to several reasons such as the lack of representatives of all sectors and the fact that only the “local elites” that have good relations with the governmental authorities, moved by personal and political interests, are invited to participate. It is claimed that this type of actors are always the same and control all the decision-making processes.

On the other hand, the local actors of Chiapa de Corzo revealed very positive perceptions about the municipal committee, highlighting several benefits and its efficacy in the decision-making processes to solve diverse problems that are of common interest of the local stakeholders:

Q211 - The council is beneficial because the right decisions were taken and things were done for the good of the municipality (...) debates and problem solving were organized as long as it is for the good of the whole community and municipality. And if any good has come out of that board is thanks to the topics which were not personal and therefore concern the municipality and all of us. Everybody comes out on top. (C4, Civil Society)

Q212 - No, since the last administration a promotion and development board was created and I have been working hand in hand with the city council (...) everybody is free to speak their mind and at the end there is a vote and it is decided what to do. (C5, Private Sector)

Through the analyses of these statements, it can be confirmed that one of the reasons that may justify a greater use of knowledge deriving from the programme in Chiapa de Corzo that may have supported some important decisions regarding tourism development was the fact that the COCOTUR was recognised by the stakeholders as a free discussion platform about the existing problems allowing for more participated decision making. It is only natural that the ensuing recommendations would have been subject to broader discussion and more consensus over the actions to be adopted.

This idea can be reinforced by the analysis of the other interrelated subcategories - *communication*, *leadership*, and *trust* - that summed respectively 98, 73, and 44 references. It can be observed that while in Chiapa de Corzo most of the references to these subcategories were positive, in the others several actors argued about the lack of *interaction among actors* mainly due to two aspects: the lack of *communication*, and the lack of a strong and *trustful leadership*:

Q213 - (...) we have to strengthen the communication and experience exchanges but if whoever leads the Project is not the same ,other interests may spring. For a city council, maybe tourism is not a priority. Or maybe it is important but not as much, but whoever comes next (...) Our role, us who led the project is to maintain a permanent dialogue. (P3, Public Sector)

Q214 - (...) because there are many things than can be done even without resources. It is a question of organization, communication and getting organized. We have to set goals and these goals are recommendations. Recommendation N°1 How are we going to achieve this? “there, there, and there and follow it through. It is not that difficult. My main belief is that we do not organize ourselves, we do not communicate. (T2, Public Sector)

Therefore, all recognize the importance of maintaining a consolidated communication process among the involved stakeholders as to facilitate interactive and knowledge exchange practices in an organized manner. This would be essential to work on the recommendations of the programme and to take decisions according to the needed consensus among all. Nevertheless, in general this seems to be difficult to put into practice mainly due to the lack of a sturdy *leadership* in which all the actors trust and

interact according to established goals. This idea is reinforced in the following statements (see also Appendix 7.7 - Q217):

Q215 - (...) there are no methodological process that can be accounted for and also there are no facilitators in those processes. Hence people are appointed and they start their jobs (...) but they should have somebody who would help him with elements and tools so that their leadership would be a consolidated one. (S2, Civil Society)

Q216 - (...) We all have ideas in our heads (...) everybody makes an effort but we are not articulated. There is not an axis that says “we all push in one directions and we all do this” It does not exist. The new mayor comes with his ideas and appoints a new clerk in the coordination (...) then what happens ? Nothing happens. There are meetings and we are going to do this, petitions arise and then everything goes back to square one. (CD3, Private Sector)

It is also implicit in these statements that the mentioned lack of leadership derives from the constant turnover of the leaders in charge in the diverse institutions and functions as they move around throughout very short periods often acting according to different interests from the predecessors. This implies a lack of continuity and coordination in the responsibilities assumed. In the following examples it can be better understood the problematic associated not only to the short cycles of the municipal authorities but also of the leaders of other institutions like hotel and tourism associations:

Q218 - (...) there has been a lot of changes among those who lead the civil organizations and sometimes they do not pass on the message or the torch, as people do at the races. Those changes which happen not just at a government level but also at the association level actually limit the development of the project. (P3, Public Sector)

Q219 - The information is O.K. what happens is that us, as a private organization, work at a very different pace than the public organization. The public one is a bit slower, more bureaucratic and it changes every three years. This hinders the progress that has been achieved lately (...) (C11, Private Sector)

These set of factors make leaderships weak. Additionally, there is the problem of the very short political cycles that makes matters worse. This will be further discussed within the *government enforcement* category. In this regard, it was highlighted the role that the UNWTO should have kept playing after the delivery of the conclusions in order to guarantee the needed leadership to implement the programmes of action. Some actors argued that this problem should have been anticipated by the UNWTO in order to avoid the discontinuity of the programme after the end of the scheduled intervention as it was too much dependent on the political authorities in charge by then (see also Appendix 7.7 - Q222, Q223):

Q220 - The WTO has to assume a leadership role and a greater responsibility because they have made that commitment (...) they have forgotten the raw materials which are us making it happen (...) then maybe the model is not properly conceived by the WTO when everything started. This is due to the fact that nobody knew how it would operate (...) These are the models that we have and I think the change should start from there. To detect those leaders and make them work in the right direction under WTO´s guidance and without the municipalities. (S4, Private Sector)

Q221- (...) it would depend on the continuity of things and I would risk as far as to say that the WTO should be closer and monitoring closely because a long time has passed. I know it is complicated. (C10, Private Sector)

These results confirm the importance of the category *Interactions of Actors* and the interrelation between the subcategories *community participation*, *communication*, *trust*, and *leadership* as all are crucial to undertake the required changes to achieve the Outcomes of the programme. While throughout the *Activities* and *Outputs* dimensions of the programme the transferor still plays a certain role of leadership that is essential to

keep the communication and trust among the transferor and the transferee actors, it is unlikely that this is maintained after the end of the development intervention. In fact, diverse barriers are raised when the transferee is confronted with the need of maintaining those community participation practices in order to enhance the processes of decision-making based on the new knowledge generated. These barriers are essentially related with weak leadership and communication channels among the transferee actors.

Situatedness

Table 7.14 - Matrix of analysis of Situatedness/Outcomes

Situatedness subcategories	OUTCOMES No. sources	OUTCOMES No. references
Time	12	19
Space	23	41

In the analysis of the category *Situatedness* in the context of the *Outcomes* dimension it is important to understand the role played by *time* and *space* in the processes of decision-making and the utilization of new knowledge (McFarlane, 2006) that derived from the programme. It is worth noting clear differences of opinions between the transferor and the transferee in this regard. On one hand, some transferor actors admitted that the proposed recommendations and respective programmes of action could have been more practicable and adequate to the local reality if the territory was smaller integrating municipalities with a similar stage of development:

Q224 - The more specific and smaller the area the better results we get and you can evaluate better and continuity can happen. When the area is broaden everything becomes more difficult (...) I think it is one of those things that should come out of this programme is that it should not be applied in places where there is already a certain degree of tourism development. I personally would not have taken it to San Cristóbal. I would have taken it to Palenque and perhaps Tuxtla I have my doubts, Comitán and Chiapa de Corzo, Why? Because in those cases the planning and tourist development work can actually represent a change for the community. (E2, Consultant)

Q225 - (...) I think that the programmes should be more focused in the local and incipient destinations and not those destinations that are already mature and although they may need some development work it is at another level, not one of planning. (V1, Volunteer)

The main problems pointed out here are related with the different levels of tourism development of the five municipalities. It was considered that the success of this kind of programmes is more likely to be achieved when there is a low level or at least a similar level of tourism development in all the territories involved. This seems to have impeded the concretization of the necessary actions to consolidate the intended tourism cluster comprising those five municipalities. The problem is that they all had different priorities and necessities of intervention. Additionally, the big dimension of the territory revealed to be a problem regarding the knowledge management and the achievement of consensus that would be necessary to put in practice the tourism competitiveness plan in the cluster. This has been also verified throughout the Activities and Outputs.

On the other hand, most of the transferee actors did not seem to have agreed with that view, as illustrated in the following statement:

Q226 - (...) Just think, we cannot see Chiapa de Corzo isolated, we have to look at it in an integrated way. We belong to this state but not only that we belong to Mexico (...) you can not see it in an isolated manner unless you are being selfish. We should strengthen those points. Just imagine “come to Chiapas and visit not only this but all that as well” (C11, Private Sector)

From the above arguments it became evident the different perspectives of the transferor’s and the transferee’s point of view about what to consider as an adequate space to work with this kind of programmes. The former favours smaller territories as to guarantee positive and viable outcomes and the latter defends an integrated view for the whole destination even if big and geographically disperse.

In what refers to the *time* subcategory most of the references are related to the political timing as a major impediment to achieve the Outcomes of this programme as well as of others. Indeed, the short political periods seem to be perceived as the main limitation for the adoption and continuity of the programmes of action to be implemented. As discussed above in the *Interactions of Actors* category, it was considered that a strong *leadership* is determinant for the continuity of the KT&LE needed to adopt programmes of action that lead to the desired outcomes. Nevertheless, this is very difficult to assure in any development intervention mainly due to the very short-time political and institutional cycles:

Q227 - (...) at the time when you are at the working place and you do not have the command in order to retake the experience and say “ I am going to do it this way” there is a standby which is bad news for the programme since it represents lost time. I insist it has to do with the government process which affects the institutions. (P6, Private Sector)

This problem is even more acute considering that the achievement of the Outcomes of an ID programme based on a KT approach demands a lasting and sturdy leadership. The analysis below related with political constraints will allow a better understanding as to why these aspects may have conditioned the outcomes in some municipalities and not in others. It is believed that this kind of obstacles are common in other IDC programmes and therefore should be taken into account when establishing the respective terms of reference as to secure that the outcomes are achieved as was originally established.

Government enforcement

Table 7.15 - Matrix of analysis of Government enforcement/Outcomes

Government enforcement subcategories	OUTPUTS No. sources	OUTPUTS No. references
Commitment	36	123
Logistical support	5	7

Most of the references to government enforcement within the Outcomes were related to the level of *commitment* of the local authorities. Most of the 123 references were in fact concerned with the lack of commitment in continuing the programme including the necessary practice of knowledge sharing with the local community stakeholders in order to implement the recommended programmes of action and achieve the outcomes. As discussed above this was attributed mainly to the **local political system** that entails the change of the municipal authorities every three years (see also Appendix 7.7 - Q230):

Q228 - - Maybe they did not contemplate that for example in Mexico there are election process, institutional changes that limit this in a way (...) There has been 3 city councils involved (...) it is up to you to analyse but this process depends on the follow up. In my case I am still the same clerk but not them. They have to get involved, get to know the sources and that implies distractions (...) (P3, Public Sector)

Q229 - (...) what is lacking is that the government follow through among the municipalities. Why? Because the heads changed. (T5, Private Sector)

It is therefore suggested that these aspects related with the transferee political and institutional systems should be adequately evaluated when a programme like the UNWTO. Volunteers is conceived as the leaders, mainly the municipal ones, change too often generally implying a cut off of every ongoing development projects. Furthermore, in association to the problem of the short political cycles, the lack of *commitment* of the local governments with the processes of tourism development is attributed to some other reasons:

Q231 - (...) there are other priorities for the government and we feel that they have not given all the chances that tourism may have. We need people that are sensible towards tourism that know the sector and know what this industry can do in terms of job creation and which can be a trigger for growth. I do not know if there is a lack of resources or something else but we have not achieved the level we would have wanted. (CD3, Private Sector)

Q232 - (...) what happens is that we are dependant on the local system which lacks of transparency and efficiency. It is very hard and I think what happens in Latin America is that we are very good in making plans but very bad in executing them (...) mainly for political reasons. (E2, Consultant)

One of the problems identified in the Report “Chiapas 2015” was the lack of well prepared human resources to work on the diverse tourism boards and services and this problem seems to persist as a major limitation for a well planned tourism development. It was also criticized the lack of awareness about the economic and social importance of the tourism sector for the region development. It was suggested that maybe the main problem is that there is a generalized lack of political will for betting on tourism or a lack of financial resources needed to achieve the desired level of development (Q222).

Therefore, as these kind of characteristics are prone to be verified in many other transferee contexts, and not only in Latin America, it is very unlikely to expect the much needed lasting level of commitment from the local governments to achieve the planned outcomes of IDC programmes (Q223). Crossing these evidences with others previously analysed it can be concluded that the only way of guaranteeing the necessary level of commitment of the transferee in order to achieve the ID programme’s outcomes is the adjustment of the type of leadership that these programmes idealize.

Indeed, no matter how much commitment the local politicians of the moment can put in a programme like this, it is very improbable that they would remain in those same leadership positions in the long-term. This was clearly one of the main limitations raised about the programme effectiveness and that can be applied to many others:

Q233 - The municipality defines the priorities and we do not participate in that evaluation. Therefore we do not know what happened at the end of the development programme and after all the work was done (...) if there is anybody with enough rallying, knowledge and leadership characteristics that are needed for these kind of posts (...) it is certainly not up to the private individuals to do so. (S4, Private Sector)

When questioned about what alternative would there be, many voices agreed that the only way would be the creation of a task-force or a committee since the very beginning that should not be dependent on the political or institutional power. *Commitment* and

accountability from nominated actors of the private sector and the civil society globally accepted by the local communities as formal leaders throughout all the phases of the programme, and not only during the Activities, would be essential as pre-conditions to be established in the Terms of Reference. Those empowered leaders should have the ability to rally the community decision-makers (see also Appendix 7.7 - Q235, Q236):

Q234 - I feel that one of the big mistakes initially was not to make the private sector accountable, for example say “if you are the coordinator you should give a post to whoever is responsible so that he takes the task to the end and not just until his mandate is over and then he is out” (...) a trust fund or similar should be created and it should stay even after the government changes so that the programmes move on (...) (S4, Private Sector)

Therefore, it is considered that one of the reasons why IDC programmes fail is precisely related with the fact of being too much dependent on the political leaders as the main drivers of all the process of implementation of the necessary changes in the long-term. The municipalities of Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla were the only ones in which there was some evidence of a certain level of government enforcement after the delivering of the results, which were considered to some extent as a working base to achieve the established Outcomes. In the case of Tuxtla, this was mainly due to the commitment and leadership of all the process through the state tourism board, the SECTUR. Nevertheless, this was still too much dependent on the political power.

In the case of Chiapa de Corzo, the geographic and cultural proximity with the tourism board of Tuxtla and the overall willingness of the local community in achieving a set of goals that were believed essential to improve tourism development, were determinant for keeping that same level of commitment of the local authorities with the established Outcomes of the Programme.

Q237 - A lot of effort has been put in the case of Chiapa de Corzo because we want to become a Pueblo Mágico now. We made it and thanks to the State government, the “Parachico”, one of the most traditional festivities has now been given the cultural, material and immaterial world heritage award. The January celebrations has also been named the traditional festivity of the State of Chiapas (...) we were named the international tradition capital, in other words, we have many awards which makes us want to evolve, change but we do not want just the awards but also we have to be there all the time. (C8, Public Sector)

This *commitment* was assumed by a group of local stakeholders from the private sector and the civil society that in collaboration with the municipality were mobilized to organize, for instance, the application process to the “*Pueblos Mágicos*” classification, to the recognition of UNESCO of the local traditional annual event, “*El Parachico*”, as world heritage, among the reinforcement of other nominations. The UNWTO.Volunteers programme was considered a fundamental tool in supporting all these projects and, consequently, caught the attention and full support of that team since the beginning and throughout all its phases. This team included one municipal collaborator who maintained these functions. These factors may justify that, unlike the other municipalities, in Chiapa de Corzo this commitment remained unwavering throughout the different municipal administrations.

The analysis of the category of *government enforcement* in this research confirms, as reviewed in Chapter 4, its importance attributed by several authors (e.g. Waroonkun and Stewart, 2008; Duan et al., 2010), as an enabler in KT IDC programmes. This is essentially related with the *commitment* subcategory. *Logistical support* in this phase is not so relevant. This was the case in the Outcomes, as well as in the Outputs. Although this commitment is too much dependent on several issues related with the host

government's policies, regulations and enforcement practices (Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008), the most important factor influencing the achievement of project's success seems to be the domestic political structure and governance that in turn influence accountability.

Indeed, when comparing the perceived outcomes of the programme in Chiapa de Corzo with those of the other municipalities, it is evidenced that one of the major factors that contributed to those positive outcomes was the maintenance of the level of commitment of a team of local stakeholders that was kept and supported by the different municipal administrations. Therefore, in order to guarantee joint and long-standing collaborative knowledge and learning processes (Goh, 2002) in tourism destinations, further attention should be given to the local existing conditions and whether or not it will enable accountability and solid commitment in the long-term.

7.6.3.1 Other critical factors with potential influence in the Outcomes

While the cross-analysis of the KT&LE categories could provide important insights for the comprehension of the major critical success factors for the Outcomes of the programme UNWTO.Volunteers in Chiapas, other factors emerged from the content analysis of the interviews that should not be neglected as well. While some of these factors stem from national and international state of affairs, others are essentially related with the characteristics of the programme, some of which already discussed in the Inputs (Section 7.2). Nevertheless, as there were several references to them as critical factors for the achievement of the outcomes they will be also subject of analysis in this section.

Social instability and insecurity

One factor often cited as a handicap in the region that limits tourism development projects are the social problems that persist in Chiapas related with the uprising of some groups of the indigenous population. This is mainly concerned with the fight for their rights like land tenure and access to natural resources. The following excerpt constitutes one example of how these problems are perceived as affecting tourism development:

Q238 - Agua Azul is a government banner but the community continues the same. It starts with problem, they make noise, and everything is over and as a tourist you are afraid or myself and the government says why putting tourists there if there is going to be social unrest, there is always the danger they may be retained or assaulted. You cannot go, let's say, to the Taj Mahal and suddenly be trapped in the middle of a revolt and be stuck. (T5, Private Sector)

These conflicts often involve cutting off of roads, mostly in the access to important tourism archaeological and natural sites like Palenque and Lakes of *Agua Azul*, or Lakes of *Montebello*. These kind of conflicts may in fact constitute a barrier to tourism development due to the effect it has on tourism demand which in turn may lead to government's refraining in terms of investments for the improvement of those specific destinations. . This can be verified, if not on the whole destination, at least in some important tourist attractions. These factors may constitute significant constraints from the local governments to go forward with some development programmes and to put in practice its recommendations as this is often not under their control but under national

and state order of affairs. This can be even aggravated if these communities are systematically put apart from the processes of tourism development.

Therefore, IDC programmes that aim to improve development in tourism destinations should establish as an intervention priority the integration of indigenous communities when these kind of social and political contexts arise. In this case, it was verified that there were already some initiatives promoted by the private sector and civil society actors that could be acknowledged and serve as a reference:

Q239 - For me it would be a priority to work on projects which somehow would generate better quality of life for those who have less (...) you walk around the center of San Cristóbal and unfortunately you find a lot of misery. We do not have the magic wand to eradicate each one of the problems that the communities have but we have the will to identify them precisely and generate an incentive or alternative economic plan for their families (...) It would help not just San Cristóbal as a destination but it would help towards the main priority which is the income of those communities. (S1, Private Sector)

Q240 - The long-term impact in terms of the reduction of poverty is minimal, minimal and it is a pity because it is feasible but we would need another argument more pragmatic and operational. If that was the case we could achieve many things but carrying out a project in a country in two or three weeks is impossible, unfeasible under my point of view. (E1, Consultant)

Statement Q239 from S1, a hotel owner of San Cristóbal that has been involved in different tourism development projects with local communities, represents one good example of the perceived potential for working more actively with indigenous communities. From his long experience in the tourism sector and from working directly with those communities, he argued that development interventions can only be successful if they are directly involved and get net benefits from tourism development projects. Therefore, these kind of programmes should be more focused in small projects with achievable results.

A similar opinion was expressed by some transferor actors, like E1 in Q240, who admitted that it is very unlikely that IDC programmes with the characteristics of the one being analysed here have any impact on poverty reduction due to the type of approach applied. For a more integrative approach it would be necessary to make it more pragmatic and operational, working more closely with the local communities. This would demand more time and resources and thus changes in the characteristics and type of approach of the majority of IDC programmes.

World financial-economic crisis and pandemic influenza

At last, other factors of an external nature were mentioned as having potentially influenced negatively the programme outcomes achievement. Indeed, in September 2008 during the programme fieldwork in Chiapas, the news about the financial crisis peak in the USA caught the attention of all and was by then also a matter of discussion among the participating actors in the UNWTO.Volunteers programme. Nevertheless, they were far from thinking about the repercussions that this would have on their lives and in particular in the tourism development. The truth is that this would have a major impact in many sectors and parts of the world but with a special significance in Mexico naturally highly dependent on the North-American market.

Additionally, in March and April 2009 an outbreak of a new strain of influenza known as “swine flu” infected many people in Mexico, causing illness and panic of travellers not

only to Mexico but also to other parts of the world. This caused a breakdown of tourism demand worldwide and Chiapas was not an exception:

Q241 - We had a very bad year in 2009 here in Mexico. All due to external factors. First was the influenza on the one hand and then the economic crisis in 2009. Mexico has a record, it has 85% of tourist come from the United States and Canada. If those markets fall tourism falls in the country and that is exactly what happened in the case of Influenza and then the crisis in the United States, it was a critical year. (E2, Consultant)

This statement evidences that the external situation generated by the financial crises, on one hand, and the swine flu, on the other, both with severe impacts on international and domestic tourism demand may have justified the non implementation of the recommended plan of action. Although by the time of the second stage of data collection in 2011 there were already good signals of recovery, the following excerpts from local actors confirm that economic arguments justified often the non adoption of some measures:

Q242 - Look any person with private initiative is going to ask for more but we know of the limitations of the municipality (...) sometimes they do not have the resources. (C11, Private Sector)

Q243- (...) with the “Senda de Colores” Project (...) I have stopped due to the money issue. (CD1, Public Sector)

It is here highlighted the financial limitations of the local authorities to carry out important investments that the programmes of action would require, such as a more active participation in the project “*Senda de Colores*”. Therefore, the success of IDC programmes can be always dependent on external contextual factors that should be taken into account. Even if not originated in external factors, financial limitations can always impede the implementation of IDC programmes’ recommendations. These factors should also be rationally weighted.

7.7 Results discussion

This chapter presented the results of the empirical study of the thesis following the same structure of the proposed IDCT model. This analysis was conducted aiming at validating the model looking, as much as possible, for meaningful evidences regarding not only its main dimensions and key factors, but essentially significant interrelations among them. The main conclusions that could be drawn are presented below.

According to the IDCT model, the *Inputs* dimension contains key factors that rely on the *characteristics of the programme* and the *characteristics of the transferor and the transferee*. These were considered in the literature review as playing a determinant role for IDC programmes’ success and therefore incorporated in the left hand of the model as representing the “raw material” with which a programme will function (Szulanski, 1996; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; de Lange & Feddes, 2008; UNDP, 2002). In addressing this dimension and the associated key factors that arose from the empirical study, it became clear that there are several areas requiring attention regarding IDC programmes. This is certainly the case of the *characteristics of the programme* whose specifications would definitely affect the final results of any programme.

The case study data suggests that this programme presents some weaknesses that seem to be common to most IDC programmes. One of the main problems posed to the

accomplishment of the intended and agreed aims for the development intervention is that they were considered somehow intangible and unrealistic (e.g. to contribute to the attainment of the MDG through measures of tourism development to reduce poverty). It generated, then, high expectations that could not be fully attended afterwards, considering the characteristics of the programme and of the destination. Some examples of this can be pointed out: underestimating the needs of local communities; ignoring structural development problems that should have been evaluated in advance; not working directly with local and indigenous communities.

It should be noted that it was considered that the UNWTO.Volunteers programme was conceived according to some principles associated to post-rationalist approaches to KT matching the latest paradigms of development (Szulanski, 1996; OECD, 2012; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Willis 2011). Nevertheless, whilst the programme pays particular attention to such aspects as capacity building by betting in highly skilled volunteers and consultants who emphasize local knowledge and translate it into operational tourism development recommendations, it fails in developing tools that can perpetuate the accomplishment of the needed implementation actions afterwards. This would imply follow-up activities and further investments in human and financial resources and, hence, changing some essential *characteristics of the programme*.

Regarding the *characteristics of the transferor*, it was clearly witnessed that the *willingness* to support the process of KT within the programme played an important role. This was reflected in the diversity of motivations of the transferor actors to participate in it (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008). Not surprisingly, although this project is essentially based on volunteer work, it was found that the main motivation to participate is not associated with altruism but to personal development and rewards gained through the fulfillment of participating in an IDC programme with the seal of approval of the UN.

Nevertheless, what matters is that the *willingness* to participate was very high having been determinant to generate the needed commitment within the project, at least during the fieldwork activities. On the other hand, this might also imply drawbacks in completing more demanding tasks like those related with deskwork, reporting or conceiving accurate recommendations. In this case, this final and more demanding work was centered on the main coordinator. A minimum number of transferor team members that are held accountable for results in the scheduled timeframe should be guaranteed in advance as this might have been one of the reasons for the delayed delivery of the final report. This delay was pointed out by some interviewees as one of the causes for the lack of involvement of the local actors, mainly from the local politicians, in pursuing follow-up activities.

The *level of experience* and *knowledge base* of the transferor's team members were naturally confirmed to be important for a successful KT process, although at different levels. While the level of experience was considered important like suggested by Lin and Berg (2001) and Waroonkun (2007), this case showed that as long as there is a good level of *knowledge base* (Goh, 2002; Szulanski, 1996; Duan et al., 2010; Kayes et al., 2005; Waroonkun, 2007), it is not crucial that all the team members have previous experience in projects of the same type. It is indeed important, a good combination of both characteristics within a multidisciplinary team and that at least some members and projects' coordinators have a high level of experience and essentially local knowledge.

Overall, it was verified in this case that the local actors attributed a great importance to multidisciplinary teams highlighting the opportunity of learning with people from different places, countries and backgrounds. Specifically, in terms of tourism development projects it can be concluded that these different international backgrounds and experiences play an important role since it enriches knowledge exchange regarding international tourism. In this particular project, this aspect clearly represented an added value being reflected throughout the fieldwork in different moments of knowledge exchange among the volunteers and local actors. In this regard, it can be concluded that the format adopted by the UNWTO.Volunteers to form a corps of international volunteers trained specifically to participate in IDC programmes in tourism destinations represents a good example of how to provide the necessary diversification of backgrounds and nationalities when constituting transferor teams. In so doing, it is guaranteed that their knowledge base is adequate for one specific project according to its characteristics and requirements.

Finally, in terms of knowledge base, one aspect that was not explored in the literature review and that emerged here as being very important was the issue of the working language. It was verified that, from the point of view of the *communication* between the transferor and the transferee, the fact that all the transferor members were fluent in the local language facilitated all the process of KT. It is believed that this issue is not often given the attention it deserves in IDC programmes and can indeed constitute a critical success factor for an effective process of KT.

Regarding *cultural behaviour*, the wide cultural background of the volunteers enriched the whole atmosphere promoting a wider scope of thinking and rationale. On the other hand, the cross-cultural and geographical idiosyncrasies could be the cause of misunderstandings and mishaps in relation to the transferee as often happens in cross-border KT processes (Duan et al., 2010; Waroonkun, 2007). However, in this case, these problems were easily overcome by the integration of a considerable Mexican task force which clearly compensated any eventual communication hindrances. The fact that the main consultants leading the project were also of Mexican origin clearly helped in the overall integration of the multidisciplinary team.

Regarding the key factor *characteristics of the transferee*, this case study had put in evidence important aspects some of which have been confirmed in previous studies (e.g. Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008). On one hand, as regards the subcategory *willingness to learn*, almost all the local actors revealed a high level of expectations with the opportunity of being involved in a project led by a highly recognized international organization. If we add to this the existence of a generalized set of motivations associated to the will of improving the tourism sector in the region, it could be considered that there were very good conditions to get the necessary commitment of the diverse actors. This was believed to have a great potential to improve the local economic and social situations. On the other hand, care should be taken regarding the political interests as a potential main motivation behind the involvement of the local governments, as this may compromise their commitment to work effectively to achieve the intended development results.

In this case, Palenque, San Cristóbal and Comitán constituted examples where the existence of complex conflicts of interest and rivalry had created a general atmosphere of distrust and where the political and personal motifs overwhelmed any desire to benefit the community. Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla made the difference in this respect whereby the authorities were genuinely interested in the successful outcome of the programme and even the higher representatives were personally involved during the course of action.

Thus, *willingness* is vital and should be the very basis to any intervention since it provides a distinguishable objective and ultimate goal for which the recipient will strive and fight.

The international character of the intervention created a high level of initial *trust* between most of the transferee actors and the transferor. Chiapa de Corzo was a prime example of that since it had never been a target of such interventions before and its high level of *trust* was clearly present throughout the programme. This was clearly motivated by the international character and reputation that a UN intervention naturally brings. This ulterior purpose and the sense of belonging to a grander scheme of things made them constantly aware and committed of the work that had to be done. Therefore, in this case, working within “differing communities of practice” with different cultures and vocabularies (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Hjalager, 2002) has strengthened the level of *trust* and not the opposite as often happens in IDC programmes and as was witnessed in San Cristóbal and Palenque.

Indeed, in San Cristóbal and Palenque the team encountered some rejection as regards IDC programmes in general as past experience had taught them that no tangible results arise from such interventions. Being a mature destination has made them targets of “similar” interventions in the past and the end result has always been on the line of rationalist approaches (Szulanski, 2006). This implied the delivery of a report (if at all) where no subsequent course of action takes place, lacking objective and detailed recommendations, rendering any eventual results practically useless. This disillusionment directly affects their performance and collaborative spirit thus condemning the intervention almost from the start. One practical implication of these findings is that mature tourism destinations should not be the main target of this kind of interventions giving preference to less developed ones with effective needs for tourism development consultancy support. Therefore, one subcategory that was not initially integrated in the key factor *characteristics of the transferee* and that was found here as playing an important role is the *level of tourism development of the destination* justifying, then, the integration of this new subcategory.

It was also found in this study that, apart from the very different *levels of tourism development stages*, what seems to have contributed even more for that lack of *trust* in detriment of the KT process, was the disparity among the municipalities involved which traditionally are more used to compete among them rather than to cooperate with each other as tourism destinations. This critical factor was pointed out already in previous studies (e.g. Shaw & Williams, 2009; Bathelt et al., 2004). Thus, the subcategory *trust*, embracing all these perspectives, represents a critical success factor and a challenge when conceiving and implementing IDC programmes.

When we move on to the *Knowledge base* and *absorptive capacity* we find two distinctive and opposing realities. One is the generalized lack of *knowledge base* from the part of the local authorities and their inability to absorb new ideas and recommendations and put them into practice. As a consequence, with the exceptions of Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla, the follow up actions of the development intervention that should have ensued with the local community basically did not take place. This confirms what some authors like Cooper (2006) state arguing that some of the main constraints for KT processes in tourism destinations are related with the fact that many local authorities in tourism have a lack of knowledge base and experience in the field.

The second reality is the one found among the private sector and the civil society who had quite a reasonable *knowledge base*. These actors had good grounds as regards their

history, culture, tourism and tradition and were made up of a vast array of individuals such as chroniclers, historians, opinion leaders, tourism businessmen and entrepreneurs who provided a good potential to develop the already wide *knowledge base*. This clearly confirms what was assumed in the literature review as one of the main principles to pursue in dynamic KT approaches to IDC (e.g. Denning, 2001; Fukuda-Parr & Hill, 2002) which basically recognizes that knowledge resides essentially in the recipient and that the main role of the transferor should be one of convener of such knowledge rather than as a provider of knowledge (Wenger, 2009). The transferor should act essentially as a facilitator of knowledge networks and COPs, thus aiming at enabling knowledge sharing and capacity-building (Kuramoto & Sagasti, 2002).

Regarding the subcategory *cultural behaviour* of the transferee, this case study puts in evidence that cultural characteristics should be taken into account in several perspectives. Not only it is important to consider the possible cultural gap between the transferor and the transferee, but also the main differences among the participating local groups, and the extent to which they may determine different results for the same programme. From the example that could be taken from San Cristóbal and Chiapa de Corzo, there was evidence of a certain level of segregation by the local government against the indigenous communities who were seen as potential threats against the social and political establishment. As a result they were not involved in the programme. As sensitive as it can be to deal with this kind of socio-political issues, the terms and conditions agreed between the donors and the recipients should include clauses that impede discrimination or marginalization of any segments of the population from development plans. This is even more important when one of the claimed objectives of the UNWTO.Volunteers is to reduce poverty through tourism development plans. How can this goal be attained if representative indigenous minorities of the local community are excluded from the ongoing development process?

Additionally, and yet regarding *cultural behaviour*, it could be observed that there was even an atmosphere of low esteem among certain players in that area in clear contrast with the pride expressed in a general way by the inhabitants of Chiapa de Corzo. It was found that the more pride a population has in their cultural traditions the more chance of success they are prone to have engaging in IDC programmes.

The above discussed key factors that integrated the *Inputs* dimension of the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme provided reasonable evidences of how it may determine all the subsequent KT&LE process within the central block of the IDCT model integrating the three dimensions *Activities*, *Outputs* and *Outcomes* and the set of interrelations established among them. The *Activities* constitutes the first part of this set referring to all the actions and processes through which *inputs* are mobilized to produce *outputs* (CIDA, 2008) leading to the *Outcomes* that can trigger long-term development changes, the *Impacts*.

This process was described through the analysis of the perceptions of different actors regarding the different moments of *Activities* that were undertaken to put the UNWTO.Volunteers in practice, namely: i) Preparation of volunteers, exploratory mission and Terms of Reference; ii) Preparation of the fieldwork and collection of secondary data; and iii) Fieldwork actions. One first conclusion regarding this process is that all the *Activities* since the beginning of the programme constituted important opportunities for inducing changes through KT. Indeed, even in the preliminary stages since the preparation of volunteers, exploratory mission and discussion of the Terms of

Reference between the transferor and the transferee there were already changes taking place. This was the case, for instance, with certain decisions adopted, such as: whereas to include or not certain territories in the programme, deciding on the profile required for the team members according to previous knowledge exchange and experiences throughout the training course or experience in previous projects.

The training course to prepare the future participating volunteers represented an excellent opportunity for KT&LE within the transferor actors in this first phase. This process determined later the selection of the team of volunteers with the most adequate profile to fulfil the established technical programme for the *Chiapas 2015* programme. There were diverse types of knowledge interactions taking place, namely from *tacit to explicit* forms or also from *explicit to tacit*, among the volunteers and the UNWTO staff and consultants. Additionally, it was verified that this process permitted to introduce gradually in subsequent editions of the course some changes aiming at improving the *Inputs*, namely the *characteristics of the programme and of the transferor*.

Mainly from the point of view of the transferee it was very important that, derived from the first discussions related with the terms and conditions to take the programme forward, some new ideas and changes started to take place. This was clearly the case concerning the aspirations within the destination to constitute a tourism cluster comprising the five municipalities that would come to integrate this programme. This was possible through face to face contacts within small or larger assemblies bringing together people that in other ways would not join and discuss matters of their common interest.

Nevertheless, it was also noted that the potential that these early stages of the programme's activities represented could have been put to better use if there was a higher level of involvement with a more diversified range of actors from the private sector and the civil society and not only with those from the public authorities. Since it is at this stage that many decisions about the main goals of the programme and the priorities of areas of intervention are taken, there should be a greater level of involvement of local key actors apart from the restrict group that was involved in this case. We firmly believe it is the case in most of them.

Regarding the preparation of the fieldwork and collection of secondary data it was found that some problems that emerged could have been avoided if the *interactions of knowledge and of actors* were reinforced as well as if the timing (*situatedness*) was better managed. Indeed, prior to the fieldwork activities it is common to see the need to collect as much data and information as possible in order to work on it preparing the fieldwork in advance and thus gaining time. However, several times the information is not systematized and organized as it should in order to make more effective the fieldwork activities. This would imply a better coordination among all the participants, transferor and transferee, even without many of them knowing each other. Furthermore, this reinforcement of the *interactions of actors and knowledge* previously to the fieldwork could play an important role to involve earlier several transferee actors that are usually involved only during some fieldwork actions, some of them not knowing exactly the purpose of that work.

It is throughout the fieldwork activities that the KT process is more intense and with potential to introduce more important development changes. This is due to the fact that it is in this phase that the most important opportunities for *interactions of actors* and *interactions of types of knowledge* take place which constitute major key factors of KT&LE. This was verified from the fieldwork preparation activities with all the team,

considering the exhaustive work that had to be planned and structured in the first days and that were followed by several interviews and field visits. Among these fieldwork activities, it was observed that the realization of municipality stakeholders' meetings, with representatives from municipal and state governments, the private sector, and civil society, constituted the most important moments of knowledge sharing and information gathering. Specifically, there were clear evidences about the importance of the subcategories *Communication*, *Trust* and *Leadership* as drivers for *Interactions of actors and knowledge*. In this regard, the municipality of Chiapa de Corzo provided the most remarkable evidences of this dynamic KT&LE process.

Nevertheless, some criticisms were raised concerning the limited range of local actors involved - with the paradigmatic case of the exclusion of indigenous representatives in San Cristóbal - and the lack of sufficient time in the field for the demanding tasks assigned to the project to cover such a large area (*Situatedness*) and diversity of actors and environments. The problem here seemed to be the limitations faced by the transferor team to control the *Activities* agenda including the type of actors to involve in all these KT moments as it was too much dependent on the local authorities who are usually moved by political reasons (*Government enforcement*). It was, therefore, at this stage that it came to light most of the limitations for a wide participation of the main sectors belonging to the local community, corroborating the conclusions of previous studies about the obstacles of putting into practice community participation for tourism development projects in developing countries (e.g. Cole, 2006; Tosun, 2005).

In this regard, the absence of contacts with the local universities and other educational institutions was also criticized by some actors. This is even more evident if considering that the UNWTO.Volunteers programme claims to work essentially within a knowledge sharing platform involving universities from both the transferor and the transferee sides. This would have been important, for instance, to guarantee the needed continuity of those *interactions of actors* and essentially of *knowledge* which in this case may represent a future important role played by the universities.

Proceeding with the analysis of whether the *Activities* undertaken led to the needed *Outputs* and *Outcomes* of the programme, the focus of attention was concerned at first with the resulting report "Chiapas 2015 - Strategic and Competitiveness Plan for the Municipalities of Tuxtla Gutierrez, Chiapa de Corzo, Comitán de Domínguez, San Cristóbal de las Casas, and Palenque" and then with tangible or intangible *Outcomes* that might have been achieved through the completion of the *Activities*. The discussion regarding the *Outputs* was initially conducted according to the perceptions of the transferor and the transferee about the quality and credibility associated to it. However, only in few cases the opinions about it were based on carefully reading of the final report.

The most favourable opinions in this regard came from actors of Chiapa de Corzo, the majority associating the *usefulness* (Xiao & Smith, 2007) of the study for the ongoing process of application to the "Pueblos Mágicos" Programme and for its strength as a methodology of work to achieve that ambitious goal by that time. Through this example, it was found that this kind of *Outputs* can constitute the basis, or inspiration, for other ongoing projects in terms of the new knowledge, methodologies and ideas that it may trigger. Of course, the extent to which this may occur depends on a set of interrelated key factors, namely associated with the *characteristics of the transferee*. In this regard, there were clear evidences of how the different characteristics of the five municipalities

determined so different perceptions about the same *Output* of the programme and its level of *usability*.

It should be highlighted the important role of the programme's *Output*, in raising *awareness* of the local community towards some new or translated knowledge that could be applied for their own benefit. This was recognized mainly in the municipalities of Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla being the *Output* here considered as a guiding tourism plan serving as a manual to strengthen future decision making for the whole destination. There were several references about translations of *tacit into explicit forms* of knowledge. It was highlighted, mainly in the case of Chiapa de Corzo, what Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) considered as the internalisation of knowledge by creating new ideas from written documents or learning by doing, while the UNWTO was being perceived as having played the role of a knowledge broker (Sheate & Partidário, 2010; Weidenfeld et al., 2010; Wenger, 1998).

In contrast, in municipalities like San Cristóbal and Comitán it was considered that the final *Output* of the programme was superficial. Through these evidences we believe that both perspectives may occur in other IDC programmes and this depends, not only on the effective content of the study, but also on the level of initial expectations and necessities that the different actors and territories have. In this case, the alleged superficiality was attributed to the lack of specific recommendations essentially about how to implement the proposed plan of action, the lack of identification of priorities and the lack of any mention as to whom would be accountable for its implementation. Some of the actors considered that the study was limited to a mere diagnosis about the destination which did not bring any new approaches to other studies conducted before.

Nevertheless, it was found that these perceptions resulted, in most cases, from a lack of a deeper analysis as would be rightly required, being limited instead to the public presentation of the conclusions of the study. It was also noted a lack of understanding and *absorptive capacity* from the local authorities about the inner conclusions of the study and the respective recommendations. This analysis puts in evidence the different perceptions around the single notion of *Output* that an IDC programme may generate.

Nevertheless, the main problem here, other than the more or less perceived utility of the study, seems to be essentially related with the lack of *interactions of actors and of knowledge* regarding the final *Outputs*. Indeed, although there was a public session to present the results of the study, this took place only one year after the completion of the field work (*Situatedness*). Most of the local actors, mainly those from the more distant municipalities (*Situatedness*), had no more information at all about it and did not even participated in that public session to share the results of the study, either because they were not invited by the local authorities (*government enforcement*) or simply because they were not anymore in the same positions or lacked the initial enthusiasm. All these reasons are intrinsically associated to the key factors for KT&LE within the central block of the IDCT model and were not accomplished in this case.

Therefore, with some exceptions, the expectations created among the local actors during the fieldwork activities were dashed and untapped regarding the *Outputs*. Curiously, in this case, it was found that despite that disillusionment and lack of trust, many of the interviewees revealed a renovated interest in recovering the opportunity of accessing that explicit knowledge as well as giving their contribution to enhance it through new opportunities for sharing knowledge within the local community.

It was also concluded that it is fundamental that the agreed deadlines for the delivery and presentation of the final *Outputs* are obeyed as to avoid the lack of interest and thus keep the necessary commitment to proceed with the ensuing *Outcomes*. The discussion about the *Outcomes* should not only be based on the identification of the implementation of occasional actions that derived specifically from the programme's *Outputs*, but also on its intangible effects. It was verified that the perception about the levels of implementation varied according to the background and type of actors interviewed. On the one hand, we found a clear recognition of a high level of implemented actions assumed as positive *outcomes* of the programme from the tourist authorities. On the other, we have contrasting opinions from diverse actors mainly from the private sector and the civil society as well as from some transferor actors.

Regarding the view of the state tourism authorities, there was a considerable enthusiasm generated by the presence of the UNWTO team which led to the formation of a task force comprising the 5 municipalities in question to carry out the objectives of the programme. This was given the form of a new brand named "*Senda de Cores*" which was believed would help in the promotion of the tourist cluster. However, this optimistic view was not shared by the majority of the private sector and civil society, as well as some members of the transferor's team. It was considered as being just another bureaucratic organisation essentially created for marketing and promotion with no clear beneficial or practical effects for the local community and whose representatives tend to be excluded from the decision-making process.

The same occurrence was found in the COCOTUR municipal boards in which this consultant platform was supposed to increase knowledge sharing as to improve decision making for the whole municipalities and ended up being another redundant government body. This kind of problems are often pointed out as a limitation for the success of IDC projects as are dominated afterwards by the rooted local power relations. Thus, one of the main problems that limit IDC programmes' outcomes achievement is that the political discourse is often outdated from that of most of the local actors and mainly from the private sector.

It can be considered that, to some extent, in Tuxtla those technocratic mechanisms were put to meaningful use. Nevertheless, although the decisions taken here produced relevant operational changes after the delivery of the study, this was conducted in an arbitrary manner and without outside consultation, instead of resulting from consolidated *knowledge exchanges* and carefully delineated follow-up plans. Haste promotion took place in the form of leaflets and publicity without contemplating the necessary preliminary actions such as cross institution coordination, training programmes and the consolidation of the tourism products.

The real exception to the rule was once more represented by Chiapa de Corzo as it was verified that a good and credible use of the COCOTUR entity took place creating a solid and sustainable ground for the actions that would be put in practice. This was done by involving the local community representatives in the process of decision-making mainly based on the new knowledge brought up by the UNWTO.Volunteers programme. This, at least apparent success story, makes us believe that as long as some of the outlined parameters are observed, it is indeed possible that IDC programmes generate positive outcomes (e.g. new investments, increase in tourism supply and demand, "*Pueblos Mágicos*" and "*El Parachico*" World Heritage Classifications).

Therefore, understanding the reasons that may explain such different results for the same development intervention in different municipalities definitely needs a deeper analysis into the sort of factors that might have influenced the processes through which knowledge and learning were translated in those different contexts. It is suggested that while this may be related with specific characteristics of the transferee (see conclusions outlined for Chiapa de Corzo *transferee characteristics*), the major reasons are concerned with the subjacent processes of KT&LE undertaken in each territory. Understanding these differences may provide invaluable insights to the analysis of critical success factors of similar IDC programmes.

To put things into perspective we should go back to the cross-analysis between the categories of KT&LE with the *Outcomes* dimension of the central block of the IDCT model which will allow interpreting those critical factors. The way that Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla attained a reasonable level of knowledge utilization was by keeping *interactions of knowledge* and *interactions of actors* alive well after the development intervention had been concluded. This involved a combination of factors mainly linked to good *communication*, proper *leadership*, high levels of *trust* and interactive *community participation*. In sharp contrast, we have the other three municipalities in which the above mentioned factors were of little effect. One which assumes special relevance is the lack of *leadership* and the periods under which a leader effectively leads. Whereas in Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla a few leaders across the political and civil spectrum remained the same long after the intervention, in the case of the others, the high turnover rate verified in the various posts (whether political or civil) made a successful follow up virtually impossible.

Furthermore, in this case there were evidences that the maintenance of the needed *leadership* and the COPs is practically impossible with such a wide *spatial* scope of the territory. Some actors considered that smaller areas would be more prone to successfully manage knowledge circulation and hence put into practice the recommended plans of action. The development intervention area which was finally chosen was clearly too disperse and varied to be integrated in a unified and sole tourist cluster. Indeed, the results suggest that the geographic and cultural proximity between Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla favoured the accomplishment of positive *outcomes* in this area.

The geographical barrier throughout the whole territory became harder to overcome with the weak level of *commitment* from the local *governments* to provide the necessary conditions for capacity development (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; McFarlane, 2006) within the recently formed tourism cluster. A way forward would be the setting up of an independent body comprising public, civil and private sector representatives who would depend only on themselves and would not be subjected to the political will and its unstable cycles. They would be equally accountable to the project's goals and a non political leadership would be the preferable choice.

Finally, the results also suggested that the success of IDC programmes can be always dependent on external contextual factors. In this case, we had the example of the world economic and financial crises, on one hand, and the swine flu in the year after the intervention, on the other. These factors were perceived by some as major reasons for the non accomplishment of the main goals of the programme. This was due to, not only the severe impacts on international and domestic tourism demand, but also to the chain reaction it generated including those engendered by the resulting financial limitations.

As complex as it may be to establish direct relations between an IDC programme like the UNWTO.Volunteers in Chiapas and the generation of certain long-term *Impacts*, this

study provided useful insights for better understanding how different territories and contexts subjected to one same development intervention may respond and create the necessary conditions, or not, to trigger potential long-term development changes. For instance, with the example of the outcomes achieved in Chiapa de Corzo, we can infer that *capacity building* was reinforced in such a way that it could well lead to *socioeconomic benefits* and thus, even if indirectly, reduce poverty through the overall process of tourism development.

Nevertheless, as discussed in the literature review, this can only be regarded as positive *impacts* resultant from tourism development if that process guarantees that net benefits for the poor are higher than the costs (Brohman, 1996; Clancy, 1999; Cole, 2006). Equally, it should keep on improving the participation processes, reinforcing COPs and their capacity to influence the state and social institutions (*empowerment*) (Cole, 2006; Eade 1997; Scheyvens, 1999, 2011; Sofield, 2003; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007). This is interrelated with other long-term impacts such as *ownership and control* over the tourism industry by the local community leading to linkages and minimizing leakages and the dependence on foreign inputs (Eusébio et al., 2013; Mastny, 2001; Mowforth & Munt, 2009). We believe that, if there were more evidences like those registered in Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla, those internal and durable changes could potentially alter the whole communities' outlook on tourism for generations to come while making structural changes in the functioning of the society in the process.

Throughout the results discussion it was possible to confirm that the IDCT model constitutes a comprehensive base of analysis of the main critical success factors and inherent systemic interrelationships between the established dimensions and associated key factors. Apart from the diverse examples that were discussed throughout this chapter about those possible interrelations there were also evidences showing that the intermediate results generated by the dynamic process of the central block (*activities-outputs-outcomes*) were commencing to influence the *Inputs* dimension in a close circuit fashion, re-starting all the cycle again. This was demonstrated, for instance, by the realization of a new edition of the UNWTO.Volunteers in the south of Chiapas, in 2011, in which there were already signs of change namely in the overall make up of the *characteristics of the programme and the transferor* (e.g. team composition and type of approach; size of the intervened area). Although it was not in the scope of this research to find out what have happened subsequently, this gives an idea that it is always possible to introduce changes in IDC programmes based on the evaluation of critical success factors of previous editions in order to improve as much as possible future development intervention effectiveness.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The main goal of this thesis was to propose a conceptual theoretical model of critical success factors of IDC programmes that are based in KT approaches in the context of tourism development. It was developed what was designated as the IDCT model to facilitate and improve the analysis of those key factors through an intricate set of dimensions that were considered the most influential to apply in different contexts of tourism development. The systematization of these factors was done following a structure of categories and subcategories that have emerged, on one hand, from the literature review and, on the other, from data that came out from the various stages of data collection in the field. This chapter provides a concluding overview of the study according to the objectives initially established. Subsequently, the relevance of the study and its main theoretical and empirical implications are outlined. The chapter finalises with a discussion of the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research in order to enhance the body of knowledge in this field.

8.2 Main conclusions

In order to address the main research question of this thesis focused on the understanding of the critical success factors for the achievement of positive development changes within IDC, three specific objectives were outlined:

- 1) To discuss the main challenges of tourism as a development tool, analyzing how the general characteristics of developing countries determine the likelihood of success of development initiatives.
- 2) To add knowledge to the theoretical discussion about whether the different approaches and paradigms of IDC adopted overtime have been applied to the tourism field and analyse the sort of reasons that may explain the limited success that it seems to have had.
- 3) To develop a theoretical model that systematizes the main critical success factors to be addressed in a development intervention in the tourism field, establishing some major theoretical pillars that can support the future development of practical guidelines in this area.

The research was structured around 3 main theoretical pillars - international development cooperation, tourism as a tool for development, and knowledge transfer. By exploring these pillars' main interrelations, it was possible to gather the necessary background to develop a theoretical model and apply it to a real context. However, it was evident throughout the thesis that the research strategy adopted could not follow a linear sequence and it was necessary to constantly interchange theoretical and empirical data.

This process has shaped the whole research strategy, establishing a relationship between theory and data that had to necessarily combine deductive and inductive approaches (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007).

In order to understand the “why” and “how” of the problem under study (Riley & Love, 2000; Walle, 1997), a qualitative research approach was adopted thus allowing to investigate the deeper meanings of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme applied to a tourism development context in Chiapas. This programme constituted a fundamental case study of this thesis due to its characteristics and the opportunity for the researcher to participate directly in it. From this point, it was possible to delineate important conclusions, ultimately, allowing for relevant theoretical and practical learnings. The next paragraphs outline the major conclusions of the thesis considering the initially established objectives.

Main challenges of tourism as a development tool

The literature review conducted in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 provided useful theoretical insights and permitted to respond to **objective number one** - to what extent the general characteristics of developing countries determine the likelihood of success of development initiatives? Considering the important role that tourism activity has been playing in developing countries in the last years, it was concluded that more attention is needed regarding the costs and benefits that this process may generate.

It was highlighted throughout the research that the tourism sector embraces unique characteristics and can indeed favour disadvantaged communities and diverse segments of the population which tends to generate very high expectations towards this sector. However, developing countries embrace very different characteristics and priorities of development which are often neglected. The launching of appropriate development initiatives demands a look into the overall tourism system and not just to the front line as is usual, in order to consider the multiplicity of potential opportunities for development (Sofield & Mactaggart, 2005).

Considering the overall perspective of the tourism system, those initiatives should be devised as to integrate such aspects as the available resources, attractions and services that support the tourism supply and demand within a contiguous geographic territory. The main challenge for the key players and local governments is to guarantee that the benefits of tourism are higher than the inherent costs. This balance and the likelihood of success of development interventions is closely related to the general characteristics of the tourism destination. At the socio-economic level, it is common to find the following features that determine low levels of development: economic fragility with low levels of capital; limited competence in global markets; severe balance of payments deficits and high levels of international debt; lack of services of welfare state; income inequality; low qualifications of human resources (Nafziger, 1990; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Todaro, 1994; Tosun, 2005; UNDP, 2011).

Those socio-economic characteristics are associated to political and cultural ones, such as the following: lack of effective community organizations that can be instrumental in defining and advancing the collective interests of the local communities; focus of many governments on serving organized groups in the modern sectors of the economy; increased cultural struggles over material conditions and practices and meanings of “everyday life” (Mathur, 1995; Tomlinson, 2003; Tosun, 2005). It was found that, in fact,

political and cultural features determine to a great extent the performance of IDC programmes as it may limit the necessary practical actions to improve destination development levels through tourism. Local political interests in this kind of programmes are very difficult to overcome by development agents and may be critical for the achievement of positive results in the long-term. This will be further discussed ahead.

Environmental and technological characteristics such as high vulnerability to climate change and intensity of climatic phenomena, water and sanitation shortages, overexploitation of natural resources, increased levels of pollution, and technological deficiencies (Commission for Africa, 2005) determine to a great extent the level of development of the local communities and cannot be ignored whenever devising development programmes. It was found throughout the empirical study of this thesis that local communities tend to be very critic regarding projects of tourism development that are focused only on tourism issues without addressing first these type of basic and infrastructural problems. This would demand more articulation within the IDC community as to articulate different types of interventions according to the priorities of development identified in advance for the specific destination.

Donors tend to ignore some of the identified characteristics of developing countries and the existing local knowledge when devising IDC projects. The degree to which those characteristics are neglected by development agents can explain to a great extent the success or failure of a development intervention within a tourism context. IDC programmes should be focused, therefore, on the reinforcement of the tourism destination capacity-building through initiatives that consider the outlined characteristics and work on it as to improve: (i) empowerment, community participation, ownership and leadership; (ii) opportunities of participating in the tourism activity and an equitable distribution of benefits; (iii) access to information, knowledge and communication.

Approaches and paradigms of IDC applied to the tourism field

A further objective of this thesis was to enhance the scientific debate as regards the manner in which different approaches and paradigms of IDC adopted overtime have been applied to the tourism field and the sort of reasons that may explain the limited success that it seems to have had. The literature review conducted throughout Chapters 2 and 3 provided very useful insights in relation with these two fields of study yet their interrelationship has up to date been insufficiently covered.

It was confirmed that, although tourism is increasingly recognized as one of the most powerful and favoured sectors for policies towards development, it is when we analyse how it has been incorporated within IDC, that we verify an overall lack of theoretical and practical framework. This has been confirmed by several authors (e.g. Font et al., 2012; Hawkins & Mann, 2007; Lindberg et al., 1999; Mitchell & Ashley, 2007) for whom there is still a disparity of approaches, implementation realities, and outcomes (Fayos-Solà et al., 2012). Most of those projects take place without any planned development strategy or articulation with other initiatives and related sectors as it would be necessary. This was also confirmed in the empirical study of this thesis regarding the implementation of the UNWTO.Volunteers programme in Chiapas.

The analysis of the evolution of these approaches led to the conclusion that, historically, development agencies and multilateral banks evolved from encouraging large-scale projects to support small and medium-sized businesses, community-based tourism and

policy development. Nevertheless, there are still several criticisms pointed out to these approaches mainly for being considered neo-liberal in its essence and for its local and community-based nature with a limited impact at the regional or national levels. This constitutes a paradox as empirical data also suggested that in fact small and community-based projects may be the only way of integrating and benefiting local and disfavoured communities in tourism projects even if it does not generate significant impacts at the regional and national levels. A programme like the UNWTO.Volunteers more focused on tourism planning through KT for a whole region may constitute, to a certain extent, a good example of approach to improve tourism development in a destination.

On the other hand, when considering tourism development initiatives more focused at the local level, several doubts are also raised regarding its global impact. Indeed, the designated alternative tourism projects like community-based-tourism or Pro-Poor Tourism approaches have been subject to several criticisms regarding its real impact in terms of development changes they possibly generate (Lima, Eusébio, & Partidário, 2011b). Most of them are related with its claimed limited impact in the respective projects and destinations as well as its growing commercial approach.

Whilst several development agencies combine expertise development work with volunteers' collaboration, it was found that in the scientific literature this approach to "voluntourism" has not been addressed. Therefore, it was proposed in this research to widen the traditional theoretical concept of volunteer tourism to embrace other approaches that integrate volunteers that have specialized knowledge and technical skills. This can potentially provide greater insights to volunteer work within IDC programmes. It can be considered, therefore, that a combination of several approaches to tourism development would be ideal as to take advantage of various types of interventions.

A major problem that seems to limit almost all development interventions is the lack of follow-up measures to guarantee the continuation of the initialized measures that tend to be focused on the short-term results. Accountability from both the donors and the recipients in ensuring long-term results would be required. Nevertheless, there is still too much focus on the outputs and outcomes and less in the long-lasting impacts.

It was found that there is a growing recognition that KT approaches are more prone to produce long-term results than technical or financial assistance (Sagasti & Alcalde, 1999). In fact, knowledge is increasingly being required for more effective and efficient decision-making and as a necessary and sustainable source of competitive advantage in tourism destinations in developing countries. Nevertheless, KT based projects have been undertaken traditionally with a linear rationalist perspective shaping development paradigms which have limited the achievement of effective and long-term results. Furthermore, KT processes can be highly subjective, even more so within a cross-border perspective, a fact which is often ignored. This has to do with the already mentioned characteristics of developing countries but also with those of the transferor which may generate cross-cultural, geographical, economic, and political gaps.

Some major limitations that have up to date shaped development paradigms have been identified. The recognition of such inabilities, in conjunction with the extensive literature review and the empirical data meanwhile collected in the field, made clear the necessity to develop a model that, in turn, would permit the systematization of the critical success factors for KT through IDC in tourism. This was the central goal of this thesis.

The IDCT model proposal

The IDCT model proposes an innovative approach towards the systematization of the main critical success factors for IDC in tourism, integrating multiple perspectives regarding KT and can be used as an overarching guideline to inspire future improvements within IDC programmes. It was concluded that to produce positive results in an IDC programme it would be crucial to observe a dynamic exchange of tacit and explicit knowledge (Polanyi, 1962, 1966; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995), throughout the appropriate times and spaces (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; McFarlane, 2006), involving diverse development actors and stakeholders (McFarlane, 2006) since the very beginning and throughout the remaining phases.

It was equally considered that local government enforcement plays a determinant role in all the process (Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008). All of these constitute key factors to analyse within all phases of a programme. In turn, the way this process takes place is directly dependent on the inner *characteristics of the programme, of the transferor and of the transferee* (Cooper, 2006; Duan et al., 2010; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008), represented in the left hand of the model as the *Inputs* dimension.

The theoretical model was conceived presupposing that an IDC programme should always be seen as a process and not an end in itself; as a way of changing the state of affairs within the tourism system in a sustainable manner so that it potentially generates positive development changes. It was considered that this is not possible if, instead of encouraging KT&LE, knowledge is simply disseminated in a linear, static, north-south approach. This implies the notion that much of the knowledge on development resides in the recipient developing countries and not in the donor organizations (Denning, 2001); development agencies should act as “conveners” or “knowledge brokers” rather than as “providers of knowledge” (Weidenfeld et al., 2010: 607; Wenger, 2009); and that capacity development is forwarded through “learning by doing” which in turn is a social process (Fukuda-Parr & Hill, 2002: 194), being often dependent on local political contexts (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; McFarlane, 2006).

The empirical study of the thesis permitted to refine the IDCT model confirming some of its main identified key factors and interrelations. The *Inputs* dimension was represented in the model as to mean the “raw material” with which any programme will work and depend on. The key factors considered in this perspective were the *characteristics of the programme, the characteristics of the transferor, and the characteristics of the transferee*. The crucial role of these factors for the success of IDC programmes was recognized by several authors (e.g. Szulanski, 1996; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; de Lange & Feddes, 2008; UNDP, 2002). The empirical study confirmed that there are several areas requiring attention in this regard.

As far as the *characteristics of the programme* are concerned, it was found that the specifications of the programmes, formalized in the respective Terms of Reference, definitely affect its final results and should be carefully adapted to each context of intervention, according to the global situation of the destination. One of the main problems posed to the accomplishment of the agreed aims is that they tend to be somehow intangible and unrealistic, generating high expectations that can not be fully attended afterwards. It is recognized that there is a greater chance of success when the objectives and scope of the programmes are properly defined and clarified (UNDP, 2009b).

The *characteristics of the transferor* were also confirmed crucial for the programmes' success. The subcategory *willingness to transfer* plays a determinant role for a successful KT in IDC programmes corroborating the findings of previous studies (e.g. Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008). The case study conducted in this thesis showed that, regarding the different motivations and professional profile of the volunteers that participated in the programme under study, it was verified that they can provide very positive insights. Nevertheless, the fact of being volunteers may limit the time they can dispose to actively participate in the project. Thus, care should be taken when selecting volunteers' teams, having in consideration not only their intrinsic motivation and expertise but also their availability to devote time and the necessary resources (Szulanski, 1996) the projects may demand.

While the *level of experience* subcategory was considered important, like suggested by Lin and Berg (2001) and Waroonkun (2007), the case study showed that, as long as there is a good level of *knowledge base* (Goh, 2002; Szulanski, 1996; Duan et al., 2010; Kayes et al., 2005; Waroonkun, 2007), it is not decisive that every single team member has previous experience in projects of the same type. What is truly fundamental is a good blend of both characteristics within a multidisciplinary team.

Multidisciplinary teams were considered very important as to facilitate KT among people from different places, countries and backgrounds, promoting a wider scope of thinking and rationale. This is also related with the subcategory *cultural behaviour*. In terms of tourism development projects it can be concluded that these different backgrounds and experiences play an important role as it helps to promote knowledge exchange concerning international tourism as a whole. Care should be taken, however, as these cross-cultural and geographical idiosyncrasies can potentially generate misunderstandings and deepen existing gaps between the transferor and the transferee as often happens in cross-border KT processes (Duan et al., 2010; Waroonkun, 2007).

This study has also put in evidence the important role attributed by previous studies to the *characteristics of the transferee* (e.g. Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008) highlighting the *willingness to learn* of the transferee as a condition for the success of development interventions. Important insights were provided about the intrinsic motivations that can lead tourism destinations of developing countries to join IDC programmes. It became clear that one main motivation is related to its international character and in turn the projection it may generate for the politicians involved. This may compromise their commitment to work effectively to achieve the intended development results in the long-term. On the other hand, there is a contrasting perspective among broader segments of the local community which demonstrate a higher level of commitment derived from an effective will of improving the tourism sector in the destinations in the long-term.

It was found in this study that the transferee's level of *trust* towards the transferor and the type of programme to be implemented is also critical for success. On one hand, the cases of Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla put in evidence that working within "differing communities of practice" and its different cultures and vocabularies (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Hjalager, 2002) strengthens the level of *trust*. It was concluded that the highest the level of development and the number of previous development interventions experiences with no apparent results, the lower would be the level of *trust* in engaging in a new programme. The *level of tourism development of the destination* was, therefore, incorporated as a new subcategory in the key factor *characteristics of the transferee* as it was considered here as playing a significant role.

While programmes like the one analysed in this study represent a great potential to promote the needed cooperation and facilitate the constitution of COPs among different actors, organizations, and territories, it should be carefully taken into consideration the extent to which the lack of *trust* among competing territories, like municipalities, might compromise that goal. Therefore, it should be evaluated in advance if it is viable or not to join in the same intervention territories that are not naturally willing to cooperate.

Concerning the *Knowledge base* and *absorptive capacity* of the transferee, it could be observed two distinctive and opposing realities. On the one hand, it was confirmed what some authors like Cooper (2006) state arguing that some of the main constraints for KT processes in tourism destinations are related with the fact that many local authorities in tourism have a lack of knowledge base and experience in the field. On the other hand, it was found in this case study that, among the private sector and the civil society, there was a reasonable *knowledge base*, confirming that one of the main principles to pursue in dynamic KT approaches to IDC (e.g. Denning, 2001; Fukuda-Parr & Hill, 2002) is the recognition that knowledge resides essentially in the recipient (Wenger, 2009). Therefore, the main role of the transferor should be the facilitation of knowledge networks and COPs, enabling knowledge sharing and capacity-building (Kuramoto & Sagasti, 2002).

When dealing with the *cultural behaviour* of the transferee, the main conclusions relate to the extent to which different characteristics and behaviours may determine different results for the same programme. There were evidences in this study of the difficulties of putting in practice an equal participation of representatives of the main segments of the local community. It was observed that due to a certain level of segregation by the local governments against indigenous communities they were not involved in the programme. It is believed that this type of obstacles are frequent in other programmes as it implies to deal with political and social issues that the transferor actors usually do not have the capacity to interfere with. Additionally, as already mentioned, it is important to consider the possible cultural gap that may exist between the transferor and the transferee.

The *Inputs* dimension of the UNWTO.Volunteers Programme provided reasonable evidences of how the set of identified key factors of this dimension may determine all the subsequent KT&LE process within the central block of the IDCT model. This integrates the three dimensions designated as *Activities*, *Outputs* and *Outcomes* and the set of interrelations established among them. There were considerable evidences regarding the potential for the KT&LE process throughout the *Activities* in all its stages confirming the relative importance of the key factors considered in the IDCT model.

One first conclusion regarding this process is that all the *Activities* since the beginning of the programmes constitute important opportunities for inducing changes through KT. Already in the preliminary stages of the programmes, including the discussion of the Terms of Reference and exploratory missions, there are important decisions taking place about the main goals of the programme and the priorities of areas of intervention. Therefore, a greater level of involvement of the private sector and the civil society should be considered and not only the governmental authorities as happens most of the times.

It is throughout the fieldwork activities that the KT process is more intense and with potential to introduce more important development changes. This is due to the fact that it is in this phase that the most important opportunities for *interactions of actors* and *interactions of types of knowledge* take place which constitute major key factors of KT&LE. Among the fieldwork activities, it was observed that the realization of municipality stakeholders meetings, with representatives from municipal and state

governments, the private sector, and civil society, constitute very important moments of KT. It has been highlighted the range of opportunities generated by putting together different actors communicating about the problems and opportunities of development for the tourism destination.

This type of activities raises awareness among the municipalities involved towards the importance of working together for the same tourism development goal instead of looking at each other as competitors. This constitutes an evidence of the potential that this kind of programmes may have as a channel for “knowledge brokerage” (Sheate & Partidário, 2010). This was due to the credibility associated to the opinions of “external individuals” who operate within and across distinctive knowledge communities, i.e. from different countries and international tourism experiences (Weidenfeld et al., 2010; Beijerse, 1999).

It was precisely through the stakeholders meetings highlighted above that the importance of the subcategories *Communication*, *Trust* and *Leadership* as drivers for *Interactions of actors and knowledge* was put in evidence. These subcategories comprise essential conditions for the creation of COPs that are so essential for a dynamic learning environment and translations of knowledge (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; Szulanski, 2000). Nevertheless, it was also found that several limitations may occur during the fieldwork *Activities* regarding the main key factors for a successful KT&LE process. These are related with the limited range of local stakeholders (*interactions of actors*) that participate, mainly due to the influence of the local governments (*government enforcement*) in controlling the fieldwork agendas. This kind of obstacles to community participation seem to be common in developing countries as was corroborated in previous studies (e.g. Cole, 2006; Tosun, 2005).

The analysis of whether the *Activities* undertaken led to the needed *Outputs* and to tangible or intangible *Outcomes* allowed to reach different conclusions according to the different municipalities. In general, it was found that an *Output* like the “Chiapas 2015” Report can constitute an important basis, or inspiration, for other ongoing projects in terms of the new knowledge, methodologies and ideas that it may generate, depending on a set of interrelated key factors, namely associated to the *characteristics of the transferee*. In this regard, the different characteristics of the five municipalities determined very different perceptions about the same *Output* of the programme and its level of *usability*.

On one hand, the important role of the programme’s *Output* in raising awareness of the local community towards some new or transformed knowledge that could be applied for their own benefit was highlighted in the municipalities of Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla. The *Output* was here considered as a guiding tourism plan serving as a manual to strengthen future decision making for the whole destination. On the other hand, in municipalities like San Cristóbal and Comitán it was considered that the final *Output* of the programme was superficial, failing in delineating specific recommendations about how and by whom to implement the proposed plan of action, as well as the lack of identification of priorities.

These evidences lead to the conclusion that both perspectives may occur in other IDC programmes and this depends, not only on the type of *Outputs* produced, but also on the level of initial expectations and necessities that the different actors and territories initially have, as well as on the level of *absorptive capacity* of the local authorities about the content of the study and the necessary actions to put in practice. By interpreting these facts in light of the KT&LE key factors regarding the *Outputs* it can be concluded that the

main problem seems to be essentially related with the lack of *interactions of actors and of knowledge* at this stage.

It is not enough to transmit the resulting *Outputs'* knowledge through a public session, as tends to occur in this kind of projects, specially when there is a too long period between its presentation and the end of the fieldwork activities. It is fundamental that the agreed deadlines for the delivery and presentation of the final *Outputs* are obeyed as to avoid the lack of interest as well as keeping the practices of KT and the necessary commitment to proceed with the ensuing *Outcomes*.

Through the discussion of the *Outcomes*, it was verified that the perceptions about the levels of implementation varied according to the background and type of actors interviewed. In general, it was recognized by the tourism authorities a high level of implementation of actions which was assumed as positive *outcomes*. However, this was mainly related to the creation of bureaucratic organisations for marketing and promotion purposes with no clear beneficial or practical effects for the local community. It was verified that most of its representatives still tended to be excluded from decision-making processes. Essential recommended actions (e.g. cross institution coordination, training programmes and the consolidation of the tourism products) that were supposed to be put in practice before any marketing actions were not implemented at all.

The deeply rooted political power base and its decisive influence can, therefore, be of vital importance for the success or failure of an IDC programme. By creating the necessary integrating grounds at the preparation stage where a variety of actors are included from the start as well as establishing a set of accountability conditions, it may definitely help to offset this rigid power factor from the overall equation. This is in line with the findings of previous studies about tourism planning processes (e.g. Ruhanen, 2006) that tend to prioritize short-term planning horizons omitting the participation of key groups while favouring others with considerable influence and power over the process.

The case of the municipality of Chiapa de Corzo constituted an exception to the rule confirming that the particular *characteristics of the transferee* even within the same tourism cluster may be determinant for an achievement of *Outcomes*. Here, it was verified a greater and continuous involvement of the local community representatives in the process of decision-making mainly based on the new knowledge brought up by the UNWTO.Volunteers programme. On the other hand, in the municipalities where almost no tangible results were observed, it was detected a clear potential that a programme such as the UNWTO.Volunteers would represent in terms of the interest by the local community in taking new opportunities of accessing new knowledge and giving their contribution to enhance it. It was concluded that, as long as there is room to provide new *Inputs* (e.g. a transferor facilitator in the field) to generate new *Activities* and subsequent dimensions within a KT&LE, it is always possible to reactivate the dynamic process represented by the IDCT model central block (*Activities-Outputs-Outcomes*) with the intricate circuit arrow system as its ultimate representation.

This study contributed to understand the reasons that may explain the different results that the same IDC programme may have in different territories. On one hand, this may be related with the above cited different characteristics of the transferee, and on the other, with the subjacent processes of KT&LE undertaken in each territory. The cross-analysis between the categories of KT&LE with the *Outcomes* dimension of the central block of the IDCT model allowed for some important conclusions regarding the main critical success factors verified in this case. The way that Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla attained a

reasonable level of knowledge utilization was by keeping *interactions of knowledge* and *interactions of actors* well after the development intervention had been terminated. This involved a combination of factors mainly linked to good *communication*, *leadership*, high levels of *trust* and interactive *community participation*. In comparison, we have the other three municipalities in which the above mentioned factors were of little effect.

One critical factor which assumes special relevance is the lack of *leadership* and the periods under which a leader effectively leads. The high turnover rate verified in the various political or civil posts make it very difficult to guarantee the necessary follow-up measures. This is related to the unstable political cycles established in the local system which makes long-term policies hard to implement since they do not coincide with the private sector's and civil society's priorities. This is a common feature in developing countries. Additionally, most of the IDC programmes have a short timeframe intervention and thus the conditions on which such programmes are negotiated should be reframed especially when the main goal is to contribute to better decision-making processes regarding strategic tourism development plans based on dynamic processes of KT.

If an effective *communication* and *leadership* is not maintained afterwards, it is unlikely that the new knowledge generated will be used to improve the processes of decision-making concerning tourism development in the destination. Therefore, the transferor should keep its leading role not only during the programme's *Activities* but until the programmes of action would be put into practice. In this type of development interventions, it is very difficult to assure a successful process of KT that lasts through time in order to implement the necessary changes generated by the programmes without the guarantee that the COPs created in the meantime are preserved.

There were also evidences that the maintenance of the needed *leadership* and the COPs is practically impossible in wide and disperse territories like was the case in this study. The results suggest that the geographic and cultural proximity between Chiapa de Corzo and Tuxtla favoured the accomplishment of positive *outcomes* in this area. The geographical barrier throughout the whole territory became harder to overcome coupled with a weak level of *commitment* from the local *governments* to provide the necessary conditions for capacity development (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; McFarlane, 2006) within the recently formed tourism cluster. The establishment of an independent body comprising public, civil and private sector representatives who would not be controlled by third parties and thus would not be subjected to the political will and its unstable cycles would be a clear way forward. They would, of course, be equally accountable to the project's goals and a non political leadership would be the preferred choice.

The results also suggested that the success of IDC programmes can be always dependent on external contextual factors, like economic and financial crises or epidemic episodes. This type of unpredictable factors should also be rationally weighted. After all, they can potentially impede the achievement of the intended long-term *Impacts* that constitute the ultimate goal of an IDC programme, even if all the remaining conditions were ideal.

Finally, as complex as it may be to establish direct rapports between an IDC programme like the UNWTO.Volunteers in Chiapas and the production of certain long-term *Impacts*, this research provided useful insights for a better comprehension as to how different territories and contexts subjected to one same development intervention may, or may not, respond and create the necessary conditions to spark potential long-term development changes. Through the example of the outcomes achieved in Chiapa de

Corzo, we can infer that *capacity building* was reinforced in such a way that it could contribute to reduce poverty through the overall process of tourism development, even if indirectly.

Throughout the results discussion of the empirical study it was possible to confirm that the IDCT model constitutes a comprehensive base of analysis of the main critical success factors and inherent systemic interrelationships between the established dimensions and associated key factors. Apart from the diverse examples about those possible interrelations there were also evidences showing that the intermediate results generated by the dynamic process of the central block (*activities-outputs-outcomes*) were commencing to influence the *Inputs* dimension in a close circuit fashion, re-starting the cycle all over again.

8.3 Theoretical and practical contributions of the thesis

Theoretical contributions

The key contribution of this thesis in the theoretical realm is the bridging of fields of study that were until now insufficiently covered in the scientific literature - knowledge transfer, tourism in developing countries, and international development cooperation. The cross-analysis of those three fields of study permitted to add knowledge to the current scientific debate about the critical success factors for IDC programmes in tourism through KT&LE and to propose an innovative theoretical model in this regard.

It was noted that, while considerable attention has been devoted to the study of tourism as a tool for development, and mainly about its impacts in developing countries (Blake, 2008; Brohman, 1996; Chok et al., 2007; Harrison, 2008; Roe et al., 2004; Scheyvens, 2011; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008), less attention has been put on the role played by the diverse initiatives and IDC programmes applied to tourism development in developing countries. As such, one of the theoretical contributions of this thesis lies in adding knowledge to that identified research gap.

Regarding specifically KT theories applied to tourism, it was found that this has been mainly focused on the context of tourism destinations as learning regions (Cooper, 2002; Jafari, 1990; Novelli et al., 2006; Pechlaner, et al., 2002; Scott & Laws, 2006; Shaw & Williams, 2009). There were not found any studies about KT through IDC in the tourism development context. Therefore, one important theoretical contribution of this thesis is that it provided relevant insights to fill this gap by reviewing KT theories as applied to other levels and fields of study and theorizing about it within the context of IDC in tourism. From this point, it was possible to identify important key factors influencing the likelihood of success of IDC programmes through KT in tourism.

It has been found that KT theories have rarely been translated into the practice of IDC programmes even when these are focused in KT approaches. This confirms that identified gap having allowed to draw some of the reasons for the failing of many IDC programmes in achieving positive and lasting results. This study has demonstrated that while post-rationalist KT has been widely favoured over rationalist approaches within the scientific community, this seems to have been neglected by the development community and in particular in the tourism context.

From the review of IDC conceptual models, presented in Chapter 2, none of them seemed to clearly incorporate the overall dynamic dimensions associated to KT as a “translation” process. As far as KT models are concerned, it was found that the main key factors considered determinant for an effective dynamic KT process within IDC were disperse throughout diverse reviewed models, none of which in an integrated manner. The main theoretical contribution of this thesis was, then, the identification and systematization of the critical success factors through the proposal of a new theoretical model. The IDCT model provides grounds to deepen the analysis of those, until now, disperse areas of study. While theorizing about the set of relevant key factors that may enable or impede the achievement of successful results in tourism IDC, it is considered that it constitutes a theoretical baseline from which practical and operational guidelines for future IDC programmes may be drawn.

Finally, the research strategy employed proved to be valuable in addressing the objectives initially outlined for the study, particularly the adoption of a two-stage qualitative approach, and the triangulation of data sources and methods, observations, and theories (Decrop, 1999; Diefenbach, 2009). The research strategy adopted was then considered innovative in relating and testing tourism and the IDC fields of study, suggesting that the replication of this study in different contexts of intervention, employing similar methods could be very valuable to enhance the body of knowledge in this area.

Practical contributions

The application of the IDCT model to a real context of an IDC programme in a tourism destination of a developing country permitted to test it partially providing useful practical contributions. It was suggested that IDC programmes in these contexts constitute a process rather than an end in itself. Therefore, they should be seen as a way of triggering positive development changes in the long-term and not as a finalized outputs delivering. This process is very influenced by the *Inputs* of the programmes considering its characteristics as well as those of the development agency actors - the transferor - and the local system and type of actors - the transferee. This study suggested that it is not possible to achieve positive results if, instead of encouraging a KT and learning environment, it is simply disseminated knowledge in a linear, static, north-south approach.

The characteristics of this type of development interventions should be reviewed in that it was found that it is very difficult to guarantee the maintenance of the development changes induced by an IDC programme if it is not safeguarded the necessary conditions and accountability to implement the recommended plans of action. While it was perceived a great potential for development changes to be induced by some IDC programmes in tourism destinations, it was concluded that these processes are too much dependent on the local political systems and existing power relations, as well as on the level of tourism development of the destination. Henceforth, some practical implications and recommendations can be postulated.

It is important to provide multidisciplinary teams with diversified profiles and backgrounds whose members are trained in advance as to facilitate selection procedures to attain specific projects´ requirements; formulating adequate realistic aims and focus of intervention; favouring KT approaches that reinforce the use of local knowledge as to strengthen capacity building; guaranteeing follow-up implementation actions; demanding accountability for results.

Regarding the characteristics of the transferor, this study confirmed that *willingness to transfer* plays a determinant role for a successful KT in IDC programmes corroborating the findings of previous studies (e.g. Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Waroonkun & Stewart, 2008; Szulanski, 1996). However, when selecting team's members it is important to evaluate their real motivations to participate in it and whether they will be fully available and committed to it until the end of the project and not only during fieldwork activities, The accountability factor should also be taken into consideration from now on.

As long as there is a good level of *knowledge base*, it is not decisive that all the team members have previous *experience* in projects of the same type. The most important is to guarantee a good combination of both characteristics within a multidisciplinary team and that at least some members and the coordinators of the projects have a high level of experience and also local knowledge. The selection of projects' teams should then favour multicultural profiles, including whenever possible nationals/natives or actors with a good level of the local language and local knowledge as well as experience of work in the target destination. While all this will facilitate communication, trust and cultural proximity, there should be awareness that this multidisciplinary can also bring some challenges in terms of coordination of the teams as a whole from the point of view of the performance of the needed project's tasks and that this can deepen the eventual existing gap between the transferor and the transferee.

IDC programmes tend to fail in the time scheduled for fieldwork activities which is often insufficient for an adequate study of the area and to engage in the needed KT processes. This might influence the success of the interventions and, hence, should be reviewed whenever possible favouring as much as possible moments for knowledge exchange embracing comprehensive stakeholders' meetings and interviews with a diversified range of local actors. The way this is developed and the communication that is established between the actors involved seem to work as incentives for the transferee to engage in a process of change through the many opportunities for knowledge exchange that are generated. Local universities and educational institutions in coordination with the local stakeholders should be taken into consideration as a way of facilitating knowledge exchange in a regular basis and guaranteeing the continuity of the programmes after fieldwork activities are over.

The issue of *government enforcement* and the influence in the effectiveness of IDC programmes arose in this study thus confirming what previous studies found about the tendency of the local governments to take over control the development agenda. Some examples of this were the exclusion of important key actors whom the local government feared due to their critical positions towards the local development process. The consultants and volunteers should avoid this control, by imposing a certain independence throughout the process, as difficult as it may be. The specific conditions under which the fieldwork activities should take place, including a representative selection of key local actors and their preparation in advance should be clearly assumed in the agreed conditions between the parties.

Another practical implication is that mature tourism destinations should not be the main target of development interventions like the one analysed in this study. It should be given preference to less developed ones with effective needs for tourism development consultancy support and that are consequently more genuinely motivated. The real motivations for joining the programmes should be carefully evaluated in advance, avoiding those cases in which they may be essentially politically driven. This also suggests

the need for further attention to the timing of the interventions both regarding the political context and the tourism development stage. It should also be taken into consideration the extent to which the existing lack of trust among local actors of different sectors, as well as between competing and geographically dispersed territories might compromise the whole development intervention. Therefore, this can be considered a challenge to be faced by the transferor and the transferee when conceiving and implementing IDC programmes.

As far as is concerned the *knowledge base* and *absorptive capacity* of the transferee, IDC programmes should be focused in taking the most potential of the existing knowledge base applying tools that allow the most adequate transformation of it into new forms of knowledge to integrate in tourism development plans. As “knowledge producers”, the transferor teams should be constituted by a diversified range of profiles including not only academics but essentially practitioners that make a good combination of their own knowledge with the local knowledge.

Regarding the planning and preparatory activities of IDC programmes, they should be carefully planned and involve a greater and diversified number of local key actors, namely from the private sector and civil society as to provide more transparent and participated processes of decision-making regarding interventions that may represent significant changes for the whole destination. It would be essential the organization of meetings with the local actors to make them aware of the programme, its aims, methodology, and planned agenda in advance.

The terms of reference of IDC programmes should be very concise about the type of *Outputs* to produce, putting in detail the exactly specifications to be introduced. Furthermore, IDC agents should previously analyse if there are other studies having been conducted before and that could be taken into consideration or used as secondary data, trying always to add value through the new knowledge to be generated. It is also important to clarify that the *Outputs* should not be regarded as a final work but essentially as a basis of work to be continued and put forward.

The timeframe assigned to each phase should be realistic and adjusted to the transferee’s context. The presentation of the final *Outputs* results should not surpass the established timeframe of the programme’s agreement and the development agency should keep in contact with the local authorities and the main local leaders so as to keep the interest and commitment. The scheduled phases of the programme should take into consideration the political cycles and a timeframe that in general is compatible with the circulation of knowledge throughout different territories.

8.4 Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research

Despite the theoretical and practical contributions provided by this thesis, some limitations of the research can be pointed out. The study was restricted to one single case study about one kind of IDC programme, the UNWTO.Volunteers. This was particularly focused on KT approaches in the context of tourism development led by the UNWTO. Although it was pondered at the outset of the study to conduct a multiple case study as to analyse and compare different types of programmes’ approaches as well as the influence of different countries’ contexts and actors in the achievement of results, it was soon recognized that this would not be feasible within the current study. This was mainly

due to financial and time constraints as well as to the considerable wider scope involved. Nevertheless, it was found that the comparisons among the five municipalities involved allowed the delineation of important conclusions regarding the influence of different contexts, territories and actors about the same development intervention.

An additional challenge was the inability to interview few key actors who had either actively participated in the UNWTO.Volunteers fieldwork Activities in Chiapas in 2008 or that, despite not having participated in that phase, played an important role in tourism planning and decision-making by the time of empirical data collection in 2011. Equally, it would have been beneficial to get the views from UNWTO officials as well as obtaining official documents about the conception of the programme and the respective Terms of Reference agreed. Despite concerted attempts to get the collaboration of the mentioned key actors, it was not possible to undertake such a task due to complex bureaucratic and confidentiality constraints.

An inherent challenge of any qualitative research is the avoidance of the researcher's personal perspectives and its eventual influence on data interpretation which could also constitute a limitation of this study. This potential limitation was overcome by avoiding equivocal evidence or biased views and hence reporting the findings as fairly as possible by supporting all the data analysis with the WebQDA software. Furthermore, due to the complexity inherent to the programme in question it was considered that to fully understand it, a qualitative or mixed research approaches would be the most adequate (Riley & Love, 2000; Walle, 1997).

Considering the outlined limitations and in order to examine the ability to generalise the findings of this thesis to other contexts and development programmes within tourism destinations, further research would be desirable. The lessons learned with new approaches could enhance the discussion conducted in this thesis, particularly as regards the most efficient ways of working on important key factors when tourism is the main tool for development. Some important areas for future research are suggested below.

It would be important to replicate the study considering different typologies of IDC programmes and other countries with different levels of human development. This replication would enable to establish important comparisons allowing to deepen the level of analytical generalizations and to confirm the consistency of the results attained in this thesis. In particular it would enhance the discussion around the influence that the characteristics of different transferors, transferees, and programmes can exert in all the process of KT&LE.

The analysis of how different IDC programmes influence development changes and long-term impacts constitutes an important area of research that can lead to a deeper understanding of how tourism can be a valuable development strategy. Specifically, it would be essential to develop monitoring and evaluation approaches coupled by a set of indicators that would facilitate the measurement of those impacts. The analysis of long-term impacts of such programmes would require longitudinal studies over a number of years as these "are ideal for studying social change" and the combined effects with diverse variables (Veal, 2006: 105). These studies would allow to understand better how and under what circumstances can IDC programmes generate long-term impacts, complementing the analysis conducted in this thesis.

The development of studies using other research strategies focused on quantitative methods could be useful to complement the conclusions of this thesis. Such a

complement would be, for instance, the examination of the dimensions and categories that resulted from this study through the application of a questionnaire to key actors of the transferor and the transferee regarding knowledge transfer and learning processes within tourism development. Also the application of a Delphi study to gather and analyse information on tourism and IDC from an international panel of experts would be important as to delineate future trends that could provide new insights to devise a new development paradigm.

Considering the important role that tourism activity has been playing in developing countries in the last years and the insufficient number of studies conducted up to date about its costs and benefits, as well as the various ways in which IDC can be more effective, there are numerous different research areas demanding further research. It would be fundamental to develop more studies about the perspective of other stakeholders, such as the visitors, about the process of tourism development and their views regarding the critical success factors for the generation of positive impacts of tourism in developing countries.

In particular, it would be very important to deepen the analysis about the critical factors to reinforce processes of community participation and empowerment, complementing the few studies in this regard that have been conducted until now. One of the main challenges of tourism development in these countries is the existing power relations and political dominance over decision-making processes which have a strong influence in people's lives and in tourism planning and development. Further research is required about these fields of study as to better understand how these complex challenges can be overcome in the context of tourism development. It was also identified a gap regarding the role of volunteer tourism and its potential to improve the performance of IDC programmes for tourism development. The technical and expertise profiles of some international volunteers represent a great potential for them to play the role of "knowledge brokers" within and across diverse tourism development projects worldwide. Further research would be required to deepen this study field.

It is hoped that this thesis provided the grounds to inspire such important steps in future research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 2.1- HDI, Gini Coefficient, Population, GDP per capita, MPI (selected countries, 2011)

Table 1 - HDI, Gini Coefficient, Population, GDP per capita, MPI, Poverty line (selected countries), 2011

HDI rank	Human Development Index (HDI)	Income Gini coefficient	Population Total (millions)		GDP per capita (PPPS)	Population in multidimensional poverty ^a				Population below income poverty line	
	Value 2011	2000-2011 ^b	2011	2009		Headcount (%)	Intensity of deprivation (%)	Population vulnerable to poverty (%)	Population in severe poverty (%)	PPP \$ 1.95 a day 9000c (%)	National poverty line 9000-9000c (%)
Very high human development											
1	Norway	0.943	25.8	4.9 c	56214						
2	Australia	0.929	..	22.6 d	39539						
3	Netherlands	0.910	..	16.7	40676						
4	United States	0.910	40,8	313,1	43989						
5	New Zealand	0.908	..	4.4	28993						
6	Canada	0.908	32.6	34.3	37808						
7	Ireland	0.908	34.3	4.5	40697						
8	Liechtenstein	0.905	..	0.0	..						
9	Germany	0.905	28.3	82.2	36338						
10	Sweden	0.904	25.0	9.4	37377						
41	Portugal	0.809	..	10.7	24920						
42	Bahrain	0.806						
43	Latvia	0.805	35.7						
44	Chile	0.805	52,1	17,3	14311						
45	Argentina	0.797	45,8	40,8	14538	3,0	1,160	37,7	5,7	0,2	0,9
46	Croatia	0.796	33,7	4,4	19986	4,4	196	36,3	0,1	0,3	11,1
47	Barbados	0.793	..	0,3	..						
High human development											
48	Uruguay	0.783	42,4	3,4	13189	1,7	56	34,7	0,1	0,0	20,5
57	Mexico	0.770	51,7	11,8	14.258	4,0	4.313	38,9	5,8	0,5	47,4
80	Peru	0.725	48,0	29,4	8.629	19,9	5.421	43,2	16,9	6,0	34,8
84	Brazil	0.718	53,9	196,7	10.367	2,7	5.075	39,3	7,0	0,2	21,4
87	Colombia	0.710	58,5	46,9	8.959	5,4	2.500	40,9	6,4	1,1	45,5
94	Tunisia	0.698	40,8	10,6	8.273	2,8	272	37,1	4,9	0,2	3,8
Medium human development											
95	Jordan	0.698	37,7	6,3	5.597	2,4	145	34,4	1,3	0,1	13,3
101	China	0.687	41,5	1.347,6	..	6.828	12,5	161.675	44,9	6,3	15,9
108	Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	0.663	57,3	10,1	4.419	20,5	1.972	43,7	18,7	5,8	14,0
121	Honduras	0.625	57,7	7,8	3.842	32,5	2.281	48,9	22,0	11,3	23,3
133	Cape Verde	0.568	50,4	0,5	3.644	21,0
134	India	0.547	36,8	1.241,5	3.296	53,7	612.203	52,7	16,4	28,6	41,6
139	Cambodia	0.523	44,4	14,3	1.915	52,0	6.946	48,4	21,3	22,0	28,3
140	Swaziland	0.522	50,7	1,2	4.998	41,4	469	44,5	24,4	13,0	62,9
141	Bhutan	0.522	46,7	0,7	5.113	27,2	197	43,9	17,2	8,5	26,2
Low human development											
142	Solomon Islands	0.510	..	0,6	2.547						
143	Kenya	0.509	47,7	41,6	1.573	47,8	18.863	48,0	27,4	19,8	45,9
144	Sao Tome and Principe	0.509	50,8	0,2	1.820	34,5	56	44,7	24,3	10,7	53,8
145	Pakistan	0.504	32,7	176,7	2.609	49,4	81.236	53,4	11,0	27,4	22,6
146	Bangladesh	0.500	31,0	150,5	1.416	57,8	83.207	50,4	21,2	26,2	40,0
147	Timor-Leste	0.495	81,9	1,2	805	68,1	749	52,9	18,2	38,7	37,4
148	Angola	0.486	58,6	19,6	5.812	77,4	11.137	58,4	10,7	54,3	..
174	Ethiopia	0.363	39,8	84,7	934	88,6	65.798	63,5	6,1	72,3	39,0
175	Mali	0.339	39,0						
176	Guinea-Bissau	0.333	35,5	1,5	1.071	64,7
178	Guinea	0.344	39,4	10,2	1.048	82,5	7.459	61,3	9,3	62,3	53,0
179	Central African Republic	0.343	43,6	4,5	757	86,4	3.198	59,3	11,8	55,4	62,0
180	Sierra Leone	0.336	42,5	6,0	808	77,0	4.321	57,0	13,1	53,2	66,4
182	Liberia	0.329	52,6	4,1	396	83,9	2.917	57,7	9,7	57,5	63,8
183	Chad	0.328	39,8	11,5	1.300	62,9	5.758	54,7	28,2	44,1	61,9
184	Mozambique	0.322	45,6	23,9	885	79,3	18.127	64,6	9,5	60,7	54,7
185	Burundi	0.316	38,3	8,6	392	84,5	6.127	62,7	12,2	61,9	66,9
186	Niger	0.295	34,0	16,1	690	92,4	12.437	69,4	4,0	81,8	59,5
187	Congo (Democratic Republic)	0.286	44,4	67,8	319	73,2	44.485	53,7	16,1	46,5	71,3
Groups of countries totals											
Very high human development											
		0,889	..	1.129,5	85.768						
High human development											
		0,741	..	979,9	12.861						
Medium human development											
		0,630	..	3.545,5	5.077						
Low human development											
		0,456	..	1.259,7	1.671						
Arab States											
		0,641	..	360,7	8.256						
East Asia and the Pacific											
		0,671	..	1.978,5	6.227						
Europe and Central Asia											
		0,751	..	480,5	14.244						
Latin America and the Caribbean											
		0,731	..	591,2	10.739						
South Asia											
		0,548	..	1.728,5	3.368						
Sub-Saharan Africa											
		0,463	..	877,6	2.181						
Least developed countries											
		0,439	..	851,1	1.379						
Small island developing states											
		0,640	..	53,2	5.241						
World											
		0,682	..	6.974,0	10.715						

DEFINITIONS

Human Development Index (HDI): A composite index measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions of human development - a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living.

Income Gini coefficient: Measure of the deviation of the distribution of income (or consumption) among individuals or households within a country from a perfectly equal distribution. A value of 0 represents absolute equality, a value of 100 absolute inequality.

Total population: De facto population in a country, area or region as of 1 July 2011.

GDP per capita: Gross domestic product (GDP) expressed in purchasing power parity international dollar terms, divided by midyear population.

Multidimensional Poverty Index: Percentage of the population that is multidimensionally poor adjusted by the intensity of the deprivations.

Multidimensional poverty headcount: Percentage of the population with a weighted deprivation score of at least 33 percent.

Intensity of deprivation of multidimensional poverty: Average percentage of deprivation experienced by people in multidimensional poverty

Population vulnerable to poverty: Percentage of the population at risk of suffering multiple deprivations—that is, those with a deprivation score of 20–33 percent

Population in severe poverty: Percentage of the population in severe multidimensional poverty—that is, those with a deprivation score of 50 percent or more

Population below PPP \$1.95 a day: Percentage of the population living below the international poverty line \$1.25 (in purchasing power parity terms) a day

Population below national poverty line: Percentage of the population living below the national poverty line, which is the poverty line deemed appropriate for a country by its authorities.

Source: Adapted from UNDP (2012)

Appendix 2.2 - Types of Aid

Types of Aid	Description	Observations
Loan or grant	<p>Grants - money that the developing country won't have to repay (about 90% of ODA).</p> <p>Loans - "concessional" or "soft" loans charged at below-market rates and often with a longer repayment period (much of the rest of ODA).</p>	<p>- Lending seen as a way of introducing greater accountability and responsibility into development financing.</p> <p>- If the investment made with the loan generates higher returns than the interest rate paid, then it's a good deal for the country concerned.</p>
Planned or emergency	<p>Emergency aid gets much of the world's media attention, but in reality most ODA is planned out in advance and is not triggered by emergencies.</p>	<p>In 2008 emergency relief accounted for only about 3% of ODA, although the proportion has been much higher in years of cataclysmic events.</p>
Debt forgiveness	<p>Agreement of donor countries on differing loan repayments or cancelling them altogether. This forgiveness frees resources for developing countries to use as they wish, being counted as ODA.</p> <p>They may have originally been export credits not considered ODA.</p>	<p>- Cancellations are recorded as "grants" in ODA, even though no new funding is being provided at the time when the loan is forgiven.</p> <p>- Reinforced in 2000 with the "Jubilee campaign" to forgive developing countries' debt.</p>
Bilateral or multilateral	<p>Bilateral - given directly by the donor country to people or institutions in the recipient country.</p> <p>Multilateral - provided through an international agency, such as the UN.</p>	<p>- Multilateral agencies are "owned" by their member governments, being some regional and others international. They actually deliver about 40% of total aid - channelled through an estimated 200 multilateral donors and agencies.</p>
Technical co-operation	<p>Expertise and experience - supplying outsiders like consultants, advisors, teachers and administrators to developing countries as to provide much-needed expertise and experience.</p> <p>Training - paying for training for people from developing countries, both at home and abroad, often by providing study scholarships.</p>	<p>- Considered the most controversial type of aid due to critical factors like overpaid foreign experts and the introduction of technologies and approaches that are often inappropriate to developing countries' needs, failing to contribute to the development of local skills and knowledge.</p> <p>- It is often designated as "soft assistance" a term that includes policy advice and dialogue, advocacy and brokerage/coordination services. It is "soft" as compared to the "hard" or concrete contributions to development like the ones focused on infrastructures.</p>
Tied or untied	<p>Tied - Requirement to aid recipients to accept equipment or products from businesses in the donor country, even though cheaper alternatives might be available closer to hand. It was sometimes defended in the past as necessary to build support for aid programmes in donor countries.</p> <p>Untied - The OECD led a long-running campaign to persuade donors to untie aid, and by 2007 about four-fifths of ODA was untied.</p>	<p>Generally criticized "tied" aid raised the cost of many goods and services by between 15% and 30% and food aid by as much as 40%.</p>

Types of Aid	Description	Observations
Conditionality	Aid with “strings attached”: to receive, or go on receiving aid, developing countries typically have to commit to making certain reforms, for example liberalising the economy, reforming governance, or eliminating corruption.	Conditionality is highly controversial and there’s a great deal of debate over what it achieves. Advocates say it’s a useful incentive for driving reform in developing countries and a way to increase accountability. Opponents say there’s limited evidence that it leads really to reforms.
Project, programme or budget support	Most aid money went traditionally to specified high-profile projects and infrastructures, such as the building of a bridge or a road or hospital.	Such projects appeared to offer visible evidence that aid was working, but there were problems: the lengthy planning needed for some projects tied up aid commitments for long periods, and reduced flexibility when it came to responding to new needs; and projects weren’t always well integrated into national systems.
Other forms of aid	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Private philanthropy - Charities - Non-governmental (NGOs) and civil society organisations (CSOs) 	<p>Even this kind of aid is subject to controversy. In the case of private philanthropy, for instance, critics say that, unlike governments, private philanthropists are answerable to no one and, in some cases, they may use aid to further their business interests.</p> <p>Equally, some charities and NGOs have been criticized for their proliferation contributing to the growing complexity of the development world, making it ever more difficult to co-ordinate aid and development co-operation and avoid unnecessary efforts.</p>

Source: adapted from OECD (2012); UNDP (2002)

Appendix 2.3 - Typologies of donors

Donors	Categories' brief description
Bilateral Donors	<p>GOVERNMENTS:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Members of the OECD's DAC (provide the bulk of the world's aid) - Non-DAC member (e.g. Turkey) - Emerging economies, especially the BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa)
Multilateral donors	<p>DEVELOPMENT BANKS All focus mainly on lending to developing countries, but they are also a source of expertise and advice:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The World Bank Group includes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The "International Bank for Reconstruction and Development" (IBRD), focussed on middle-income countries and the stronger lower-income countries; - The "International Development Association" (IDA) deals only with the world's poorest countries; - Other agencies, such as the International Finance Corporation (IFC), which offers financing, guarantees and advice to privately-owned enterprises in developing countries. - Regional Development Banks, such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the Inter American Development Bank, - the African Development Bank, - the Asian Development Bank, - the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development
	<p>UNITED NATIONS UN efforts range from providing emergency and humanitarian assistance through agencies like the World Food Programme, to pursuing longer-term development goals, like poverty reduction and strengthening governance and capacity-building, through specialized agencies, working in its related core areas, such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) - United Nations World Health Organization (UNWHO) - United Nations Children's Fund - (UNICEF)
	<p>EUROPE The world's largest donor through the combined efforts of the 27 members of the European Union. Though there is a high degree of co-operation among EU Member States, much of their aid effort still reflects the development priorities of individual countries.</p>
	<p>GLOBAL FUNDS Over the past decade or so, a number of special agencies have been set up to pursue particular development goals, the best known being the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, which was created in 2002. This Global Funds are solely financing agencies.</p>
NGOs	<p>NGOs are organizations that are neither run by the state nor profit-making companies having become increasingly active in development in recent decades, in both developed and developing countries. Their role is acknowledged mainly as representative of the voice of communities and social groups. They can range from very small-scale to very large organizations like the Oxfam or the Médecins Sans Frontières . NGOs are important sources of development funding and governments also use them as a channel for official aid. Governments in developing countries also use NGOs to deliver services on the ground. Many of them work with volunteers.</p>
Private philanthropy	<p>PRIVATE PHILANTHROPY may be undertaken by many different actors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Religious groups, representing most of the world's main faiths, including Buddhism, Christianity, Islam, and Judaism; - Foundations (representing a substantial amount), associated with successful entrepreneurs or wealthy families and some individuals (e.g. Bill Gates, Warren Buffet; Mo Ibrahim); - The latter emerging in developing countries themselves (e.g. Carlos Slim in Mexico, Huang Rulun in China); - Diaspora groups - typically emigrants and their descendents; - Diverse businesses providing aid, either as a cash donation or "in kind", including acts like providing expertise, scholarships or discounts on goods sold to developing countries.

Source: adapted from OECD (2012); Willis (2011)

Appendix 2.4 - Aid Effectiveness Round Tables / Paris Declaration Five Principles

Table 1 - International round tables about aid effectiveness

Event	Main commitments
2002 Monterrey Conference UN International Conference on Financing for Development.	<p>The Monterrey Consensus (Mexico) Creation of a new partnership for development moving world attention towards management strategies to achieve results: (1) developing nations reaffirmed their commitment to policies and actions to promote economic growth and reduce poverty; and (2) developed countries committed to support developing countries with more effective aid and trade policies.</p>
2003 Rome High Level Forum	<p>The Rome Declaration on Harmonization Couched in terms of development effectiveness, the Declaration was primarily concerned with the delivery of development assistance in ways that minimized administrative burdens and undermining of national planning and budgetary systems within developing countries. Anticipated a number of features of the Paris Declaration contents.</p>
2004 Marrakech 2 nd International Roundtable on Managing for Development Results	<p>Joint Marrakech Memorandum Stated that for countries to be able to “take the lead in managing their development and transitional processes” they require stronger capacity for strategic planning, accountable management statistics, monitoring and evaluation.</p>
2005 Paris High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness	<p>Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness - Specific commitments related to “Managing for Development Results”: actions to be taken both separately and jointly to “administer and implement aid in a way that is focused on the desired results and uses the information to enhance decision-making”. - 56 Partnership Commitments achieved under 5 overarching principles of ownership, alignment, harmonization, managing for development results and mutual accountability</p>
2008 Accra 3 rd High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness	<p>Accra Agenda for Action (Ghana) Political document setting out a list of commitments building on those already agreed in the Paris Declaration. Identifies three main areas where progress towards reform is still too slow: Country ownership; Building more effective and inclusive partnerships; Achieving development results—and openly accounting for them.</p>
2008 Doha Follow-up International Conference on Financing for Development	<p>Doha Declaration on Financing for Development (Qatar) Follow-up International Conference on Financing for Development to review the Implementation of the Monterrey Consensus strong commitment by developed countries to maintain their Official Development Assistance (ODA) targets irrespective of the current financial crisis, and a decision to hold a UN Conference at the highest level on the impact of the current financial and economic crisis on development.</p>

Event	Main commitments
2011 Busan 4 th High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness	Busan Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation (South Korea) - Assess progress in improving the quality of aid against the agreed commitments and share global experiences in delivering the best results; - agreed upon a document to further the effectiveness of aid and development efforts and pursuit of the MDGs. - new roadmap for a more global partnership for development

Source: own construction adapted from OECD (2012); OCDE-DAC (2012); Petit (2011)

Table 2 - Paris Declaration Five Principles

Ownership
The core idea behind ownership is this: it should be up to each developing country to set its own development goals, map out the route to reaching them, and co-ordinate its own and donors' activities. It is essentially about a developing country taking control of its own development agenda and setting down its own plans.
Alignment
The principle of alignment goes beyond simply following the developing country's plans; it also asks donors to use the developing country's own financial and budgetary systems in order that the people and their representatives in parliament, as well as civil society and the media, can get a clear picture of what is being planned and how money is being spent.
Harmonisation
Managing relations with a donor requires an investment of time and resources by developing countries. And, because most of them have more than one donor, this task is usually multiplied many times. The idea behind harmonisation in aid effectiveness is to tackle these problems by getting donors to work together better. One approach has been to reduce aid fragmentation, which is basically just another way of cutting the number of donors operating in each country. This can be done in several different ways: Donors can focus their efforts on just a few countries; channel aid through agencies like the UN; or allow one donor to take the lead role with financial support from others.
Results
Aid can also be made more effective if both donors and recipients think in terms of what they are trying to achieve, or if they are "managing for development results". In recent years, many governments have zeroed in on the idea of "results-based management" to promote good governance taking the same approaches pioneered in the private sector - extensive planning, constant monitoring and evaluation, and systemised approaches to learning lessons from both failures and successes.
Mutual accountability
The aid relationship has often been represented as a form of the "principal-agent" accountability model with donors as the principals and developing countries as the agent. Frequently, this involved donors providing aid in return for the recipient accepting certain conditions aimed at improving the politics and behaviour of the developing country. Conditionality hasn't gone away, but increasingly this sort of one-sided relationship is regarded as outmoded and unhelpful. For one thing, it makes the developing country's government accountable to donors, not to its own citizens. For another, conditionality is widely seen as having done little to change how developing countries do things. The two sides together are expected to jointly assess their success, or otherwise, in meeting development goals.

Source: adapted from OECD (2012)

Appendix 3.1 - Cross-analysis of HDI and total contribution of Tourism & Travel to GDP, 2000 and 2011

HDI 2011	Travel & Tourism Total Contribution to GDP % share	2000	2011	VAR 2011/2000	Travel & Tourism Total Contribution to Employment % share	2000	2011	VAR 2011/2000
	Very High HDI countries				Very High HDI countries			
0,943	Norway	8,1	6,1	-24,7	Norway	12,2	8,4	-31,1
0,929	Australia	13,7	9,7	-29,2	Australia	16	11,8	-26,3
0,910	Netherlands	7,4	5,8	-21,6	Netherlands	13,1	10,4	-20,6
0,910	United States	9,2	8,7	-5,4	United States	10,7	10,2	-4,7
0,908	New Zealand	20,4	14,5	-28,9	New Zealand	24	16,9	-29,6
0,908	Canada	6,4	4,4	-31,3	Canada	7,5	5,3	-29,3
0,908	Ireland	7,9	7,4	-6,3	Ireland	7,7	7,3	-5,2
0,905	Germany	6,7	4,5	-32,8	Germany	6,9	4,8	-30,4
0,904	Sweden	5	5,4	8,0	Sweden	5,3	5,5	3,8
0,903	Switzerland	8,9	8,4	-5,6	Switzerland	10,5	10,4	-1,0
0,901	Japan	6,6	6,6	0,0	Japan	7,1	7	-1,4
0,898	Hong Kong	8,8	15,1	71,6	Hong Kong	7,7	12,7	64,9
0,898	Iceland	18,8	17,4	-7,4	Iceland	19,7	18,8	-4,6
0,897	South Korea	6,6	5,2	-21,2	South Korea	6,7	5,6	-16,4
0,895	Denmark	9,4	5,9	-37,2	Denmark	16,9	11,3	-33,1
0,888	Israel	10,1	8	-20,8	Israel	10,5	8,5	-19,0
0,886	Belgium	8,7	4,9	-43,7	Belgium	9,2	5,4	-41,3
0,885	Austria	14,8	13,7	-7,4	Austria	15,8	14,7	-7,0
0,884	France	12,7	9,2	-27,6	France	14	10,4	-25,7
0,884	Slovenia	10,8	12,8	18,5	Slovenia	11	13,1	19,1
0,882	Finland	9,3	6,2	-33,3	Finland	9,7	6,5	-33,0
0,878	Spain	16,8	14,8	-11,9	Spain	14,1	12,6	-10,6
0,874	Italy	10,8	8,6	-20,4	Italy	11,4	9,7	-14,9
0,867	Luxembourg	4,8	5,6	16,7	Luxembourg	6,1	7,5	23,0
0,866	Singapore	10,4	10,5	1,0	Singapore	8,3	8,5	2,4
0,865	Czech Republic	11,1	8,4	-24,3	Czech Republic	12,5	10,3	-17,6
0,863	UK	9	6,6	-26,7	UK	8,6	7,3	-15,1
0,861	Greece	16,4	16,5	0,6	Greece	19,1	18,4	-3,7
0,846	United Arab Emirates	7,8	13,5	73,1	United Arab Emirates	5,5	10,7	94,5
0,840	Cyprus	32,8	17,7	-46,0	Cyprus	35,2	19	-46,0
0,838	Brunei	5,2	6,5	25,0	Brunei	6,8	7,6	11,8
0,835	Estonia	17,8	12,6	-29,2	Estonia	16,8	12,3	-26,8
0,834	Slovakia	6	5,9	-1,7	Slovakia	5,5	5,7	3,6
0,832	Malta	28,2	27,7	-1,8	Malta	28,7	28,5	-0,7
0,831	Qatar	5,4	3,2	-40,7	Qatar	5,5	2,9	-47,3
0,816	Hungary	15,5	10,4	-32,9	Hungary	14,2	9,7	-31,7
0,813	Poland	6,2	4,8	-22,6	Poland	5,9	4,7	-20,3
0,810	Lithuania	7,6	4,2	-44,7	Lithuania	7	4	-42,9
0,809	Portugal	14	15,2	8,6	Portugal	16	17,7	10,6
0,806	Bahrain	19,5	14,3	-26,7	Bahrain	19,1	14,3	-25,1
0,805	Latvia	5,3	7,7	45,3	Latvia	4,8	7,2	50,0
0,805	Chile	8	8,3	3,8	Chile	7,5	7,8	4,0
0,797	Argentina	8,6	10,5	22,1	Argentina	7,9	9,8	24,1
0,796	Croatia	16,2	26,4	63,0	Croatia	21,2	28,2	33,0
0,793	Barbados	42	43,5	3,6	Barbados	41,3	42,7	3,4
	HIGH HUMAN DEVELOPMENT				HIGH HUMAN DEVELOPMENT			
0,783	Uruguay	9,1	10,7	17,6	Uruguay	8,4	10	19,0
0,781	Romania	4,2	4,4	4,8	Romania	4,9	5	2,0
0,776	Cuba	12,1	11,4	-5,8	Cuba	10,9	10,4	-4,6
0,773	Seychelles	50,1	60,7	21,2	Seychelles	49,1	59,8	21,8
0,771	Bahamas	45,2	46,1	2,0	Bahamas	61	53,7	-12,0
0,771	Montenegro	10,2	15,4	51,0	Montenegro	12,3	13,7	11,4
0,771	Bulgaria	22,3	12,8	-42,6	Bulgaria	20	11,7	-41,5
0,770	Saudi Arabia	5,7	5,4	-5,3	Saudi Arabia	5,4	5,3	-1,9
0,770	Mexico	13,8	12,4	-10,1	Mexico	16,1	13,7	-14,9

APPENDICES

HDI 2011	Travel & Tourism Total Contribution to GDP % share	2000	2011	VAR 2011/2000	Travel & Tourism Total Contribution to Employment % share	2000	2011	VAR 2011/2000	
0,768	Panama	4	10,7	167,5	Panama	3,7	10,1	173,0	
0,766	Serbia	4,5	6	33,3	Serbia	4	5,5	37,5	
0,764	Antigua and Barbuda	76,3	74,9	-1,8	Anguilla	74,2	71,6	-3,5	
0,761	Malaysia	15,2	14,8	-2,6	Malaysia	12,4	12,9	4,0	
0,760	Kuwait	5,8	5,2	-10,3	Kuwait	6,1	5,8	-4,9	
0,760	Libya	5,7	3,2	-43,9	Libya	5,4	3	-44,4	
0,756	Belarus	7,7	4,5	-41,6	Belarus	6,8	4,1	-39,7	
0,755	Russia	6,3	5,8	-7,9	Russia	5,8	5,4	-6,9	
0,748	Grenada	25	22,1	-11,6	Grenada	23,1	20,4	-11,7	
0,745	Kazakhstan	7,5	5	-33,3	Kazakhstan	6,6	4,5	-31,8	
0,744	Costa Rica	15,6	12,2	-21,8	Costa Rica	14,3	11,4	-20,3	
0,739	Albania	15,6	21,7	39,1	Albania	13,9	19,7	41,7	
0,739	Lebanon	14,9	35,1	135,6	Lebanon	13,7	33,4	143,8	
0,735	St Kitts	22,6	27,9	23,5	St Kitts	21,6	26,4	22,2	
0,735	Venezuela	8,4	9,2	9,5	Venezuela	7,7	7,9	2,6	
0,733	Bosnia Herzegovina	6,7	7,4	10,4	Bosnia Herzegovina	5,9	6,7	13,6	
0,729	Ukraine	6,7	7,4	10,4	Ukraine	5,9	6,5	10,2	
0,728	Mauritius	26,4	28,5	8,0	Mauritius	24,2	26,9	11,2	
0,728	Macedonia	5,7	4,7	-17,5	Macedonia	5,1	4,3	-15,7	
0,727	Jamaica	27,3	25,6	-6,2	Jamaica	25	24	-4,0	
0,725	Peru	7,7	9,1	18,2	Peru	6,5	7,9	21,5	
0,724	Dominica	27,5	31,7	15,3	Dominica	25,2	29,3	16,3	
0,723	St Lucia	49,6	42,5	-14,3	St Lucia	49,9	42,1	-15,6	
0,720	Ecuador	7,5	5	-33,3	Ecuador	6,7	4,5	-32,8	
0,718	Brazil	9,5	8,6	-9,5	Brazil	8,5	7,8	-8,2	
0,717	St Vincent and the Grenadines	31,7	25,2	-20,5	St Vincent and the Grenadines	28,6	23	-19,6	
0,716	Armenia	4,6	7,9	71,7	Armenia	4	7	75,0	
0,710	Colombia	4,9	5	2,0	Colombia	5,4	5,4	0,0	
0,707	Iran	10,8	6,3	-41,7	Iran	9,7	5,6	-42,3	
0,705	Oman	8,7	6,4	-26,4	Oman	8,4	6,3	-25,0	
0,704	Tonga	11,2	13,1	17,0	Tonga	11,1	12,1	9,0	
0,700	Azerbaijan	5,7	6,7	17,5	Azerbaijan	5	6	20,0	
0,699	Turkey	10,6	10,9	2,8	Turkey	7,2	8	11,1	
0,699	Belize	21,9	33,2	51,6	Belize	19,8	30	51,5	
0,698	Tunisia	19,4	14,2	-26,8	Tunisia	17,3	12,8	-26,0	
MEDIUM HUMAN DEVELOPMENT					MEDIUM HUMAN DEVELOPMENT				
0,698	Jordan	20,5	18,8	-8,3	Jordan	18	16,8	-6,7	
0,698	Algeria	6,3	7,7	22,2	Algeria	5,7	7	22,8	
0,691	Sri Lanka	6,6	8,3	25,8	Sri Lanka	5,8	7,5	29,3	
0,689	Dominican Republic	16,5	15,1	-8,5	Dominican Republic	14,9	13,9	-6,7	
0,688	Fiji	27,2	35,3	29,8	Fiji	24,5	31,8	29,8	
0,687	China	12,9	9,1	-29,5	China	8	8,1	1,3	
0,682	Thailand	17	16,3	-4,1	Thailand	13,3	11,4	-14,3	
0,680	Suriname	7,8	4,4	-43,6	Suriname	7	4	-42,9	
0,674	El Salvador	4,5	6,8	51,1	El Salvador	4	6,1	52,5	
0,674	Gabon	5	2,8	-44,0	Gabon	4,6	2,5	-45,7	
0,665	Paraguay	3,9	4	2,6	Paraguay	3,4	3,5	2,9	
0,663	Bolivia	5,6	6,2	10,7	Bolivia	4,9	5,5	12,2	
0,661	Maldives	70,4	70,5	0,1	Maldives	63,1	50,8	-19,5	
0,653	Mongolia	12,9	8,9	-31,0	Mongolia	11,2	7,7	-31,3	
0,649	Moldova	7,7	3,1	-59,7	Moldova	6,6	2,7	-59,1	
0,644	Philippines	10,8	8,5	-21,3	Philippines	12,4	9,6	-22,6	
0,644	Egypt	14,1	14,8	5,0	Egypt	12,4	13,1	5,6	
0,633	Guyana	13,7	9,1	-33,6	Guyana	12,1	8,1	-33,1	
0,633	Botswana	6,5	6,4	-1,5	Botswana	9,6	7,6	-20,8	
0,632	Syria	13,6	13,1	-3,7	Syria	12	11,4	-5,0	
0,625	Namibia	7	20,3	190,0	Namibia	9,9	27	172,7	
0,625	Honduras	9	15,1	67,8	Honduras	7,8	13,3	70,5	

APPENDICES

HDI 2011	Travel & Tourism Total Contribution to GDP % share	2000	2011	VAR 2011/2000	Travel & Tourism Total Contribution to Employment % share	2000	2011	VAR 2011/2000
0,624	Kiribati	13,1	19,5	48,9	Kiribati	11,4	16,9	48,2
0,619	South Africa	7,1	8,5	19,7	South Africa	7,4	9	21,6
0,617	Indonesia	12,2	8,7	-28,7	Indonesia	10,7	7,7	-28,0
0,617	Vanuatu	66,1	52,9	-20,0	Vanuatu	58,5	47	-19,7
0,615	Kyrgyzstan	6,2	3	-51,6	Kyrgyzstan	5,4	2,6	-51,9
0,593	Vietnam	10,3	9,9	-3,9	Vietnam	8,9	8,6	-3,4
0,589	Nicaragua	6,1	9,8	60,7	Nicaragua	5,3	8,5	60,4
0,582	Morocco	12,1	18,9	56,2	Morocco	10,7	16,8	57,0
0,574	Guatemala	6,6	8,6	30,3	Guatemala	5,9	7,7	30,5
0,568	Cape Verde	19,8	43,4	119,2	Cape Verde	17,4	38,7	122,4
0,547	India	9,2	6,4	-30,4	India	11,8	7,8	-33,9
0,541	Ghana	4,9	5,4	10,2	Ghana	4,2	4,7	11,9
0,533	Congo	2,7	2,7	0,0	Congo	2,4	2,5	4,2
0,524	Laos	12,3	18,1	47,2	Laos	10,7	15,8	47,7
0,523	Cambodia	15,1	22,1	46,4	Cambodia	13	19,1	46,9
0,522	Swaziland	5,2	4	-23,1	Swaziland	4,6	3,5	-23,9
LOW HUMAN DEVELOPMENT					LOW HUMAN DEVELOPMENT			
0,510	Solomon Islands	3,5	13,2	277,1	Solomon Islands	3	11,5	283,3
0,509	Kenya	10,2	13,6	33,3	Kenya	8,9	11,8	32,6
0,509	Sao Tome & Principe	16,7	12,1	-27,5	Sao Tome & Principe	14,5	10,7	-26,2
0,504	Pakistan	6,2	7,3	17,7	Pakistan	5,4	6,4	18,5
0,500	Bangladesh	4	4,6	15,0	Bangladesh	3,5	4	14,3
0,486	Angola	3,5	3,4	-2,9	Angola	6,1	3	-50,8
0,483	Burma	5,3	3,1	-41,5	Burma	4,6	2,7	-41,3
0,480	Madagascar	6,4	14,8	131,3	Madagascar	5,6	12,5	123,2
0,466	Tanzania	8,4	13,3	58,3	Tanzania	7,3	11,5	57,5
0,466	Papua New Guinea	4,3	2,4	-44,2	Papua New Guinea	3,7	2,1	-43,2
0,462	Yemen	4,5	7,7	71,1	Yemen	3,9	6,7	71,8
0,459	Senegal	8,9	12,2	37,1	Senegal	7,8	10,7	37,2
0,459	Nigeria	4,9	3,3	-32,7	Nigeria	4,3	2,8	-34,9
0,458	Nepal	11	8,8	-20,0	Nepal	9,5	7,6	-20,0
0,454	Haiti	6,2	4,3	-30,6	Haiti	5,4	3,8	-29,6
0,450	Lesotho	13,9	14,2	2,2	Lesotho	12	12,2	1,7
0,446	Uganda	8,4	9	7,1	Uganda	7,3	7,8	6,8
0,435	Togo	2,8	5,4	92,9	Togo	2,4	4,7	95,8
0,433	Comoros	13,1	7,7	-41,2	Comoros	11,4	6,6	-42,1
0,430	Zambia	6,5	5	-23,1	Zambia	3,4	3,6	5,9
0,429	Rwanda	4,7	8,4	78,7	Rwanda	4,1	7,3	78,0
0,427	Benin	5,5	6,6	20,0	Benin	4,8	5,8	20,8
0,420	Gambia	12,7	12,5	-1,6	Gambia	11	10,9	-0,9
0,408	Sudan	2,8	3,1	10,7	Sudan	2,5	2,7	8,0
0,400	Cote d'ivoire	5	5,9	18,0	Cote d'ivoire	4,4	5,2	18,2
0,400	Malawi	7,4	6	-18,9	Malawi	6,4	5,2	-18,8
0,376	Zimbabwe	7,8	11,7	50,0	Zimbabwe	6,8	9,1	33,8
0,363	Ethiopia	6,8	10,7	57,4	Ethiopia	5,9	9,3	57,6
0,359	Mali	8,9	12,1	36,0	Mali	7,8	10,5	34,6
0,344	Guinea	2	4,4	120,0	Guinea	1,7	3,8	123,5
0,343	Central African Republic	3,7	4,7	27,0	Central African Republic	3,2	4,1	28,1
0,336	Sierra Leone	4	7,2	80,0	Sierra Leone	3,5	6,3	80,0
0,331	Burkina Faso	2,4	3,6	50,0	Burkina Faso	2,1	3,1	47,6
0,328	Chad	3,3	4,5	36,4	Chad	2,9	3,8	31,0
0,322	Mozambique	4,3	6,9	60,5	Mozambique	3,7	6,1	64,9
0,316	Burundi	2,2	7,5	240,9	Burundi	1,9	6,5	242,1
0,295	Niger	2,9	4,4	51,7	Niger	2,5	3,8	52,0
0,286	Democratic Republic of Congo	2,1	2,2	4,8	Democratic Republic of Congo	1,8	1,9	5,6
0,682	World	10	9,1	-9,0	World	9,7	8,6	-11,3

Source: own construction based on UNDP (2012); WTTC (2012)

Source: own construction based on UNDP (2012); WTTC (2012)

Appendix 6.1- Map of Mexico, Chiapas

Figure 1 - Map of Mexico - Chiapas



Source: San Cristóbal Language School (n.d.). *Mexico Map*. Retrieved March 25, 2014, from <http://www.sancristoballanguageschool.com/mexico-map.htm>

Figure 2 - Map of Chiapas and study area



Appendix 6.2 – Selection of images of Chiapas cultural and natural heritage

Chiapas Cultural Heritage

Indigenous communities



Indigenous costumes
(Local Museum Sergio Castro)



San Juan Chamula, indigenous community



San Cristóbal de las Casas handicrafts



Tuxtla Gutierrez
Mariachi folk music



Tuxtla Gutierrez – Chiapa de Corzo
El Parachico



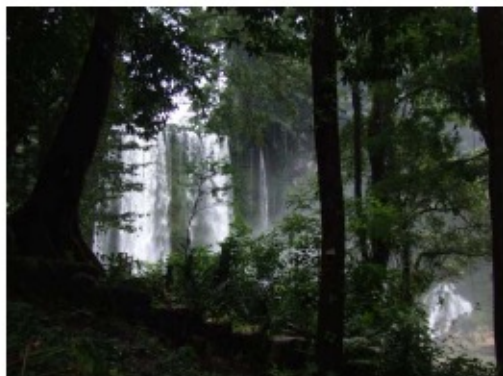
La chiapaneca



Source: photos by Susana Lima

Chiapas Natural Heritage

Cascade “*El jaguar*”



Lakes “*Agua Azul*”



Source: photos by Susana Lima N.T.



Gorge “*Cañon del Sumidero*”

Source: Retrieved March 20, 2014,
from https://www.google.pt/?gfe_rd=cr&ei=pqQZVNbXN5Cs8weEtYCoBw&gws_rd=ssl#q=ca%C3%B1on+del+sumidero+images

Appendix 6.4 - Exploratory interview guide for volunteers of UNWTO.Volunteers program, Chiapas 2008

Universidade de Aveiro, Portugal (Abril 2008)

Objetivo: evaluar los factores críticos de suceso en la transferencia de conocimiento generada por la implementación de los programas de asistencia técnica y de cooperación para el desarrollo de destinos turísticos de países en desarrollo, tomando como referencia el Programa UNWTO.Volunteers, de la Organización Mundial del Turismo (y comparación con otro tipo de programas).

Perfil del Voluntario

Nombre:
Edad:
Formación profesional (licenciatura, postgrados, Maestría, Phd):
Experiencia profesional:
Ocupación actual:
Experiencias anteriores en proyectos de voluntariado:
En que equipo hiciste el trabajo preliminar:
En que equipo hiciste el trabajo de campo en Chiapas:

- 1- ¿Cuál fue tu principal motivación para integrar el Programa Volunteers de la OMT (curso OMT)?
- 2- ¿Cuál es la principal motivación para participar como voluntario en este proyecto de Chiapas?
- 3- ¿Que expectativas tienes en cuanto a los resultados de este proyecto para el desarrollo del turismo en el destino Chiapas?
- 4- ¿Como evalúas la metodología utilizada en el trabajo de campo (formación de equipos, coordinación, fichas, recogida de información, talleres, ..)
- 5- ¿Cual es tu opinión sobre la capacitación y conocimientos de los voluntarios OMT para este proyecto?
- 6- ¿Crees que este proyecto puede contribuir para el refuerzo de la cooperación entre los actores locales en los destinos (sector público, privado, sociedad civil)?
- 7- ¿En tu opinión que aspectos podrían ser mejorados en la metodología aplicada?

Otros comentarios / sugerencias:

Appendix 6.5 - Exploratory interview guide for consultants of UNWTO.Volunteers program, Chiapas 2008

Universidade de Aveiro, Portugal (Abril 2008)

Objetivo: evaluar los factores críticos de suceso en la transferencia de conocimiento generada por la implementación de los programas de asistencia técnica y de cooperación para el desarrollo de destinos turísticos de países en desarrollo, tomando como referencia el Programa UNWTO.Volunteers, de la Organización Mundial del Turismo (y comparación con otro tipo de programas).

Perfil del Coordinador

Nombre:
Formación académica (licenciatura, postgrados, Maestría, Phd):
Experiencia profesional:
Ocupación actual:
Experiencias anteriores en proyectos de cooperación:

- 1 - ¿Cuándo y como fue que fuiste involucrado en este proyecto (participación en misión exploratoria, definición de metodología, selección de voluntarios OMT y locales...como fue todo este proceso)?
- 2 - En tu opinión cuales son los factores de que dependiera la eficacia de la intervención del Programa UNWTO.TedQual Volunteers en el destino?
- 3 - Crees que la metodología aplicada en este programa en Chiapas es la mejor? En que se podría mejorar? (trabajo preliminar, trabajo de campo, trabajo posterior, diseño del programa en general)
- 4 -Cuál es tu opinión sobre la capacitación de los voluntarios de la OMT para la participación en este proyecto
- 5 - ¿Cuál es tu opinión sobre el nivel de involucramiento de los agentes locales y influencia que esta tiene en los resultados obtenidos (desde la fase de misión de exploración, hasta el trabajo de campo, apoyo logístico..).
- 6 - Hasta que punto el nivel de desarrollo existente en el destino antes de la implementación de los programas condicionara los resultados obtenidos?
- 7 -Cuál es tu expectativa sobre la implementación del plan estratégico que se venga a proponer para Chiapas? Que habría que hacer para que sea eficaz y produzca resultados?
- 8 - Conoces otro tipo de programas de cooperación internacional para el desarrollo que tengan buenos resultados en términos del desarrollo sostenible del turismo en el destino? Cuales y porque funcionan?

Appendix 6.6 - Interview guide for the transferor

Interview to the actors involved in the UNWTO volunteer Program
PhD Research
Susana Lima
Universidade de Aveiro, 2011

Identification of the Interviewee (*transferor*):

Place:

Time:

Duration of interview:

Dimension: INPUTS

Keyfactor: **Transferor characteristics**

Q1 - Category: *Level of experience in other projects*

Q.1.1 What is your previous experience in international cooperation programs for development? In what type of programs have you participated in?

Q2 - Category: *Willingness to transfer*

Q 2.1 What was your motivation that made you want to take part in this Project ?

Q 2.2 In your opinion which were the expectations and motivations in relationship to this development intervention by the UNWTO as well as the local counterparts?

Q3 - Category: *Knowledge base*

Q3.1 Do you think the team selected for this particular Chiapas Project had the necessary skills to achieve the desired results for this intervention?

Q3.2 What is your opinion about the local counterpart's abilities as regards their knowledge abilities to carry out the program on the same level as the rest of the team?

Q4 - Category: *Cultural behaviour*

Q 4.1 Do you think that there may be a gap between the knowledge base between the UNWTO and the local counterpart's teams thus affecting the results? How would you rate the interaction between the actors involved in terms of behavior, trust and communication skills on the field?

Dimension: ACTIVITIES / KT AND LEARNING ENVIRONMENT PROCESS

Keyfactor: Government enforcement

Q5 - Categories: *Logistical support / Commitment / Communication*

Q5.1 In so far as the fieldwork and the *knowledge transfer and learning process* is concerned, what conditions do you think would be important to guarantee the success of the intervention in comparison to what actually happened ?

Keyfactor: *Interaction***Q6 - Categories: *Type of interaction***

Q6.1 Do you think that this intervention can reinforce the *networking* among the local stakeholders during and after the fieldwork ?. Could this process contribute towards the creation of a communal entity among all the stakeholders that could function as a network afterwards?

Q6.2 How would you evaluate the type of interaction that was produced in terms of: trust, compromise, teamwork, leadership, information sharing, communication, attitudes?

Keyfactor: *Situatedness***Q7 - Categorias: *Time and spatial context***

Q7.1 (*spatial*) Were the areas involved in the Project the ideal ones ?

Q7.2 (*spatial*) Do you consider that there were different levels of involvement among the different municipalities that took part in the program?

Q 7.3 (*Time*) How would you rate the way the political social environmental and economic contexts were treated in the program? Did they have an influence in the way the intervention took place ?

Q8 - Categories: *Logistical support / Commitment / Communication*

Q8.1 - How would you evaluate the logistic support that was given by the local counterpart ?

Dimension: *OUTPUTS***Q9 - Category: *Perceived quality***

Q9.1 Do you consider that the study accomplished what was initially intended?

Dimension: *OUTCOMES***Knowledge utilization****Q10 - Category: *Types of use***

Q10.1 What type of use do you think that may have been verified/produced with the knowledge that was transferred through the consequent report?

Q10.2- Do you think that this type of program has had some influence on the decision making process, some problem solving or attitude change?

Q10.3 Do you think that the same outcome would have happened from the local counterpart´s point of view if no intervention had taken place?

Dimension: *IMPACTS*

(To ask only if the previous questions are positive)

Q12.3 To what extent the results you have mentioned would have occurred anyway, without the program intervention?

(To ask only if the previous questions are negative)

Q12.4 Do you think that it would all have continued the same without any intervention? What do you think it would have happened without the UNWTO´s intervention?

Q12.5 What are the aspects that need changing to improve the program in terms of achievable results?

Q11 -What type of impacts in the medium and long term do you think that this program can generate?

Appendix 6.7 - Interview guide for the transferee

Interview to the actors involved in the UNWTO.Volunteers program
PhD Research - Susana Lima - University of Aveiro -
July-August 2011

Identification of the Interviewee (*transferee - local actors*):

Place: Time: Duration of interview:

Dimension: INPUTS

Keyfactor: **Transferee characteristics**

Q1 - Category: *willingness to learn*

Q1.1 - How did you become involved in the UNWTO.Volunteers program (at what stage did you find out about it, how were you informed?, what sessions have you taken part in ?

Q.1.2 - What were the main motivating factors that made you participate in the program?

Q2 - Category: *Trust*

Q2.1 What was your perception/opini3n about the work team (volunteers and consultants) in terms of their professional abilities to develop this type of project ?

Q2.2 Do you think these abilities were useful for the local actors involved in the Project ?

Q3 - Category: *Knowledge base / absorptive capacity*

Q3.1 Have you been made aware of the information that was generated in the project's aftermath through the various reports that were written ? If you were, do you think that it was easily assimilated and was it suited to its audience ?

Q3.2 How would you rate its usefulness ? Do you consider that new knowledge was added to the existing one and did it really apply towards the intervention needs of Chiapas tourist development ?

Q 3.3 Do you consider that the proper conditions were created for the local actors in order to take advantage of the program in terms of their future contributions towards the planning and tourist development process in Chiapas ?

Q4 - Category: *Cultural behaviour*

Q4.1 Do you consider that the profile, behaviour and communication skills of the team members were appropriate ? (yes o no answer). In what ways do you think this influenced the intervention results ?

Dimension: ACTIVITIES / KT AND LEARNING ENVIRONMENT PROCESS

Keyfactor: Government enforcement

Q5 - Category: *Commitment / Logistical support / Communication*

Q5.1 To what extent do you consider the Project was credible in so far as the UNWTO would be able to induce knowledge to improve the strategic tourism planning in Chiapas in general and in this municipality in particular ?

Q5.2 To what extent this idea contributed towards a bigger or lesser commitment and support from the local authorities in relation to making the field work easier in such terms as logistical conditions, communications ? (as regards to your municipality and others)

Q5.3 Do you consider that the type of actors and resources involved by the local authorities were the most appropriate in order to achieve the desired results ?

Q5.4 Would you consider the communication to have been the most appropriate one (in terms of the previous preparation and insideness with which the intervention was conveyed to everybody as well as the aftermath's conclusions and action plans) between all actors involved (the 5 municipalities on the one hand and the different sectors within the same in terms of public and private actors as well as the civil society, on the other ?

Keyfactor: **Interaction**

Q6 - Category: Intensity / Evaluation

Q6.1 How would you evaluate the type of interaction that took place during the field work and the one afterwards?

Q6.2 Do you think this intervention contributed to strengthen the (*networking*) between the local stakeholders while the fieldwork was taken place as well as afterwards ?

Keyfactor: **Situatedness**

Q7 - Category: Time and spatial context

Q7.1 (spatial) Were the territories involved the most appropriate ones ? Why ?

Q7.2 (spatial) Do you consider that there were different levels of involvement between the 5 municipalities that took part in the program ? Did that originate different levels of results in terms of information and knowledge being generated ?

Q 7.3 (Time) Do you consider that the time chosen for such a program was the best in terms of the political, social, economic international, national and local environment?

Dimension: OUTPUTS

Studies / Reports

Q8 - Category: Perceived quality

Q8.1 Do you consider that the final report answers what was needed for the particular destination ? Why ?

Dimension: OUTCOMES

Knowledge utilization

Q9 - Category: Types of use

Q9.1 What type of measures were taken with the knowledge that was passed on in the final report ? (political, operational...)

Q10 -Category: Knowledge-based decision making improvements

Q10.1 - Do you think the program influenced in some way the decision making process as far as tourist planning in this municipality is concerned? What about the other municipalities?

Q11 - Category : Problem solving

Q11.1 Did the program contributed to solve some kind of problems or even spark some changes in the attitudes towards tourist development? Which ones?

Q12 - Category: Communities of practice

Q12.1- Following the conclusion and final report presentations **how and who** (local actors in the 5 Municipalities) was properly informed? Did information sharing take place among all the actor or did this information stayed on the local authorities´ "desk"?

Q12.2 Has a more evenly distributed tourist planning been reinforced? (among private and public actors not only in the particular municipalities but in all of them?)

Dimension: IMPACT

(To ask only if the previous questions are positive)

Q12.3 To what extent the results you have mentioned would have occurred anyway, without the program intervention?

(To ask only if the previous questions are negative)

Q12.4 Do you think that it would all have continued the same without any intervention? What do you think it would have happened without the UNWTO´s intervention?

Q12.5 What are the aspects that need changing to improve the program in terms of achievable results?

Appendix 6.8 - Transferee profile and closed questions

Cuestionario a los actores locales sobre su percepción del proyecto:
Turismo y cooperación internacional para el desarrollo - factores críticos de éxito en el caso del Programa UNWTO. Volunteers en Chiapas

Señale con una **X** la opción que más se adecua a su situación u opinión

1

IDENTIFICACION PERSONAL				
Nombre:			Edad:	Sexo:
Formación académica:	Sin estudios		20-30	Masculino
	Educación básica		31-40	Feminino
	Bachillerato		41-50	
	Grado universitario		51-60	
	Posgrado		> 60	
	Otros			
Organización a la que pertenece:				
Sector Público:	Federal	Iniciativa privada	Sociedad Civil	
	Estatal			
	Municipal			
Experiencia profesional principal				
Cargo/ocupación Agosto 2008:				
Cargo/ocupación Actualmente:				
Municipio				

2 - En que fase, o **fases**, del programa fuiste involucrado?

- Fase previa de petición a la OMT
- Fase previa de misión exploratoria de la OMT a Chiapas
- Fase de trabajo de campo con equipo de voluntarios
- Fase de implementación

3- Has tomado **conocimiento del Informe** final producido?

Sí No

3.1 - Se si, como tomaste conocimiento del Informe? (Señala la(s) respuesta(s) correspondiente(s))

- Participación en la presentación oficial del Informe Final
- Lectura integral del informe final
- Lectura parcial del informe final

(Indicar las secciones consultadas):

- Participación en reuniones de discusión del informe final con otros actores locales

4 - Si la respuesta anterior fue afirmativa, consideras que el **estudio** producido correspondió a lo que se pretendía inicialmente?

Sí No

5- Los 5 municipios involucrados han seguido un **contacto más regular** por causa del programa y respectivos planes de acción propuestos?

Sí No

5.1 - Se si, de que forma se concretan esos contactos?

Nº de reuniones:

Tipo de actores que participan:

Quien lidera:

Tipo de reuniones:

Temas debatidos:

Tipo de decisiones tomadas:

6 - Si consideras que el programa no ha logrado los resultados esperados, identifica las principales razones para ello:

- Cambio de los actores políticos involucrados inicialmente
- Falta de coordinación entre los actores políticos, empresarios y sociedad civil
- Limitaciones financieras
- Falta de seguimiento por parte de la OMT para la implementación de los programas
- Cambios en el entorno socio-económico
- Otros. Cuales

Gracias por tu colaboración.

Appendix 6.9 - General structure of the interviews

Section INPUTS dimension		
Key factors	Main aims	Questions
<i>Transferor characteristics</i>	1. Characterize the transferor in terms of <i>Level of experience</i>	Q1.1 What is your previous experience in international cooperation programs for development? In what type of programs have you participated in?
	2. Characterize the transferor in terms of <i>Willingness to transfer</i>	Q2.1 What was your motivation to take part in this Program? Q2.2 In your opinion which were the expectations and motivations in relationship to this development intervention by the UNWTO as well as the local counterparts?
	3. Characterize the transferor in terms of <i>Knowledge base</i>	Q3.1 Do you think that team selected for this Project had the necessary skills to achieve the desired results for this intervention? Q3.2 What is your opinion about the local counterpart's abilities as regards their knowledge abilities to carry out the program?
	4. Characterize the transferor and transferee in terms of <i>Cultural behaviour</i>	Q4.1 Do you think that there may be a gap between the knowledge base between the UNWTO and the local counterpart's teams thus affecting the results? How would you rate the interaction between the actors involved in terms of behavior, trust and communication skills on the field?
<i>Transferee characteristics</i>	5. Characterize the transferee in terms of <i>willingness to learn</i>	Q5.1 How did you become involved in the UNWTO.Volunteers program (at what stage did you find out about it, how were you informed? What sessions have you taken part in ? Q.5.2 What were the motivating factors for your participation in the program?
	6. Characterize the transferee in terms of <i>Trust in the project</i>	Q6.1 What was your opinion about the work team (volunteers and consultants) in terms of their professional abilities to develop this type of project? Q6.2 Do you think these abilities were useful for the local actors involved?
	7. Characterize the transferee in terms of <i>Knowledge base and absorptive capacity</i>	Q7.1 Have you been made aware of the information that was generated in the project's aftermath through the various reports that were written? If you were, do you think that it was easily assimilated and was it suited to its audience? Q7.2 How would you rate its usefulness? Do you consider that new knowledge was added to the existing one and did it really applied towards the intervention needs of Chiapas tourist development? Q7.3 Do you consider that the proper conditions were created for the local actors in order to take advantage of the program in terms of their future contributions towards the planning and tourist development process in Chiapas?
	8. Characterize the transferee and the transferor - <i>cultural behavior</i>	Q8.1 Do you consider that the profile, behavior and communication skills of the team members were appropriate? In what ways do you think this influenced the intervention results?

Section KT&LE dimension		
Key factors	Main aims	Questions
<i>Government enforcement</i>	9. To find out the influence of the level of commitment of the local government	Q9.1 In so far as the fieldwork and the <i>KT&LE process</i> is concerned, what conditions provided by the government do you think would be important to guarantee the success of the intervention in comparison to what actually happened ?
<i>Interaction</i>	10. To find out if the program reinforce interaction and the formation of communities of practice	Q10.1 Do you think that this intervention can reinforce the <i>networking</i> among the local actors during and after the fieldwork? Could this process contribute towards the creation of a communal entity among all the stakeholders that could function as a network afterwards? Q10.2 How would you evaluate the type of interaction that was produced in terms of: trust, compromise, teamwork, leadership, information sharing, communication, attitudes?
<i>Situatedness</i>	11. To find out the influence of the time and spatial context.	Q11.1 Were the areas involved in the Project the ideal ones? Q11.2 Do you consider that there were different levels of involvement among the municipalities that took part in the program? Q11.3 How would you rate the way the political social environmental and economic contexts were treated in the program? Did they have an influence in the way the intervention took place?
Section OUTPUTS dimension		
Key factors	Main aims	Questions
Studies / Reports	12. To find out the perceived study quality.	Q12.1 Do you consider that the study accomplished the established objectives meeting the necessities of the destination?
Section OUTCOMES dimension		
Key factors	Main aims	Questions
Knowledge utilization	13. To find out what type of use was given to the transferred Knowledge.	Q13.1 What type of use do you think that may have been verified/produced with the knowledge that was transferred through the consequent report? Q13.2- Do you think that this type of program has had some influence on the decision making process, some problem solving or attitude change? Q13.3 Do you think that the same outcome would have happened from the local counterpart's point of view if no intervention had taken place?
Section IMPACTS dimension		
Key factors	Main aims	Questions
<i>Development changes</i>	14. To know the perceived results of the program in the medium and long-term.	Q14.1 To what extent the identified results attributed to the program would have occurred anyway, without UNWTO intervention? Q14.2 What are the aspects that need changing to improve the program in terms of achievable results?

Appendix 6.10 - Respondents' profile, affiliation, and interviews' details

Interviewees codified by groups	Gender F/M	Interviewee subgroup	Affiliation	Part. 2008 Y/N	Interviews' Details			
					Place	Date	Duration (min.)	n pages
Transferor								
V1	F	Volunteer	Tuxtla/Chiapa	Y	Spain	24-06-2011	41	9
V2	F	Volunteer	Palenque	Y	Mexico	19-08-2011	18	5
V3	M	Volunteer	San Cristobal/Comitan	Y	Mexico	10-08-2011	60	15
E1	M	Expert	UNWTO	N	Portugal	03-06-2011	30	5
E2	M	Coordinator	UNWTO	Y	Mexico	19-08-2011	30	9
E3	F	Coordinator	UNWTO	Y	Portugal	07-06-2011	40	6
Total: 6	3M-3F	3V-3E		5Y-1N			219	49
Transferee					Mexico			
Comitán								
CD1	F	Public Sector	Local Tourism Authority	N	Comitan	15-08-2011	10	3
CD2	M	Public Sector	Federal	Y	Tuxtla	27-07-2011	44	12
CD3	M	Private Sector	Hotel	Y	Comitan	15-08-2011	22	5
CD4	M	Civil Society	Local volunteer	Y	Comitan	15-08-2011	10	3
CD5	M	Private Sector	Hotel	N	Comitan	15-08-2011	15	4
CD6	F	Public Sector	State Tourism Authority	N	Comitan	15-08-2011	16	5
CD7	F	Public Sector	Former Local Tourism Aut.	Y	Comitan	15-08-2011	29	7
Total: 7	4M-3F	4PB-2PR-1CS		4Y-3N			146	39
S Cristobal								
S1	M	Private Sector	Hotel	Y	S Cristobal	11-08-2011	38	10
S2	F	Civil Society	Civil Society Association	Y	S Cristobal	09-08-2011	36	8
S3	M	Civil Society	Museum	Y	S Cristobal	09-08-2011	16	4
S4	M	Private Sector	Hotel	Y	S Cristobal	08-08-2011	51	13
S5	M	Public Sector	Former Local Tourism Aut.	Y	S Cristobal	08-08-2011	35	9
S6	F	Private Sector	Tourist Guide Association	Y	S Cristobal	16-08-2011	17	4
S7	F	Public Sector	Local Tourism Authority	N	S Cristobal	11-08-2011	16	4
S8	M	Public Sector	Former Local Tourism Aut.	Y	S Cristobal	10-08-2011	23	6
Total: 8	5M-3F	3PB-3PR-2CS		7Y-1N			232	58
Palenque								
P1	F	Private Sector	Restaurant	Y	Palenque	03-08-2011	20	5
P2	M	Public Sector	Former Local Tourism Aut.	Y	Palenque	04-08-2011	30	5
P3	M	Public Sector	State Tourism Authority	Y	Palenque	04-08-2011	25	7
P4	M	Private Sector	Restaurant	N	Palenque	03-08-2011	27	7
P5	M	Private Sector	Hotel Association	N	Palenque	03-08-2011	12	3
P6	F	Private Sector	Hotel	Y	Palenque	02-08-2011	27	7
P7	M	Public Sector	Federal	Y	Villahermosa	01-08-2011	18	5
Total: 7	5M-2F	3PB-4PR-0CS		5Y-2N			159	39
Tuxtla								
T1	F	Private Sector	Congress Center	N	Tuxtla	28-07-2011	27	7
T2	F	Public Sector	Municipal Museums Assoc.	Y	Tuxtla	28-07-2011	20	6
T3	F	Public Sector	Local Tourism Authority	N	Tuxtla	27-07-2011	26	7
T4	M	Private Sector	Hotel	Y	Tuxtla	27-07-2011	25	7
T5	F	Private Sector	Hotel&Restaurant Assoc.	Y	Tuxtla	26-07-2011	47	12
T6	M	Private Sector	Transports Association	N	Tuxtla	26-07-2011	24	7
T7	F	Public Sector	State Tourism Authority	N	Tuxtla	12-08-2011	22	7
T8	F	Private Sector	Hotels Association	N	Tuxtla	25-07-2011	35	10
T9	M	Public Sector	Federal	Y	Tuxtla	27-07-2011	17	5
Total: 9	3M-6F	4PB-5PR-0CS		4Y-5N			243	68
Chiapa								
C1	M	Civil Society	municipal chroeniclar	N	Chiapa	21-07-2011	48	5
C2	M	Private Sector	Hotel	N	Chiapa	25-07-2011	30	3
C3	M	Civil Society	Sculptor	Y	Chiapa	25-07-2011	40	5
C4	M	Civil Society	Lyons Club	Y	Chiapa	22-07-2011	48	10
C5	M	Private Sector	Restaurant	Y	Chiapa	25-07-2011	36	10
C6	F	Private Sector	Hotel/Restaurant	N	Chiapa	22-07-2011	60	15
C7	M	Public Sector	Local Tourism Authority	Y	Chiapa	22-07-2011	42	10
C8	M	Public Sector	Local Tourism Authority	N	Chiapa	19-07-2011	25	7
C9	M	Civil Society	Marimba Local Music Atelier	Y	Chiapa	21-07-2011	13	4
C10	M	Private Sector	Pueblos Magicos Comite	Y	Chiapa	21-07-2011	21	11
C11	M	Private Sector	Pueblos Magicos Comite	Y	Chiapa	21-07-2011	35	10
C12	M	Public Sector	State Tourism Authority	N	Chiapa	22-07-2011	48	7
C13	F	Private Sector	Craft shop	Y	Chiapa	21-07-2011	60	8
Total: 13	11M-2F	3PB-6PR-4CS		8Y-5N			506	105
TOTAL	31M-19F	17PB-20PR-7CS		33Y-17N			1505	358

Appendix 7.1 - Selected Quotations related with the *INPUTS* dimension

Note: the complementary quotations omitted but signaled in Chapter 7 are shadowed in gray in the respective tables bellow.

Table 7.1.1 - Selected Quotations related with the category *Typology of development intervention*

Q.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q1	VI, Volunteer	- <i>Todo el mundo habla del mentor del programa como un visionario, como una persona que va muy adelantada a su tiempo y todo el mundo habla del programa de voluntariado como un logro de el, una idea que el tuvo para transmitir conocimiento.</i>	- <i>Everyone speaks about the program's mentor as a man ahead of his time and refers to the volunteer's program as his personal achievement, as an idea he had in order to transfer knowledge.</i>
Q2	EL, Consultant	- <i>La idea surgió un poco de como hacer una cooperación a nivel técnico con países en desarrollo, prestar en definitivo conocimiento a administraciones, sobretudo, turísticas que lo necesitaban y que no tenían medios económicos y técnicos para llegar a ello.</i>	- <i>The idea sprung from the need of cooperating at a technical level with developing countries, to provide knowledge to the various administrations and above all the ones related to tourism that were in need of such knowledge and did not have the economic and technical means to achieve it.</i>
Q3	VI, Volunteer	- <i>Yo creo que el programa nació a lo mejor con esa intención de transferencia de conocimiento con voluntarios (...) Lo que pasa es que después también al mismo tiempo yo creo que el crecimiento del programa y que generase interés en otro tipo de personas que ya no eran solo estudiantes, que podrían ser profesionales y demás hizo con que la OMT lo viese como una plataforma formativa, ya no solo para los destinos como también para la gente de aquí.</i>	- <i>I believe that the program was born with the intention of carrying out knowledge transfer with volunteers (...) What happened was that at the same time and as the program evolved, it generated growing interest not just among students but also among professionals and then the UNWTO began to see it as a training platform not just for the destinations themselves but for the local population too.</i>

<p style="text-align: center;">Q4</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><i>E3, Consultant</i></p>	<p>- (...) uno de los objetivos es lograr que la presencia de la OMT se sienta dentro del ámbito del intercambio de información de instituciones educativas, de los gobiernos que solicitan el programa, y la sociedad civil. Entonces para nosotros es muy importante por eso, desde un principio la participación de jóvenes, profesionales de diferentes partes del mundo y de diferentes disciplinas (...) El segundo objetivo es hacer una gestión del conocimiento de lo que tiene disponible la OMT con la participación de expertos y con la participación del grupo interdisciplinario (...)</p>	<p>- (...) one of the objectives is to succeed in turning the presence of the WTO as a point of information Exchange between the different education institutions within the governments that apply for the program and the civil society. That is why so important for us the participation from the very beginning of Young professionals from various parts of the world and with different disciplines. The second objective is to manage the available knowledge in the WTO with the help of experts and its leading interdisciplinary team in order to satisfy the application of a specific region.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Q5</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><i>E1, Consultant</i></p>	<p>- Lo primero que yo creo que había que retocar son los objetivos de cada misión y hacerlos mucho más específicos y no tan genéricos, porque se pierde, porque es menos tangible. Cuanto más específico y el territorio más pequeño mejor los resultados, y lo puedes evaluar mejor y puede haber continuidad (...)</p>	<p>- The first thing that should be retouched are the objectives of each mission and turned them much more specific and not as general since then there is a waste because of the intangible result that ensues. The more specific the objectives and the smaller territory the better the results will be. They in turn can be better evaluated and there is a better chance of continuity (...)</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Q6</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><i>V2, Volunteer</i></p>	<p>- (...) son objetivos mucho más visionarios, más utópicos (...) estos proyectos creo que tienen una visión muy grande, como un paraguas que quieren abarcar demasiado (...) Yo creo que tendrían que ser objetivos mucho más concisos y mucho más realistas y medibles.</p>	<p>- (...) they are objectives much more visionary and utopic (...) I believe these projects have a too large scope, as an umbrella that want to cover too much (...) I believe the objectives should be much more concise, realistic, and tangible.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Q7</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><i>CD2, Public Sector</i></p>	<p>- (...) nosotros fuimos muy claros en expresar algunas dudas de que, si esta región quería que despegara turísticamente, habría que solucionar unas cosas antes, antes del desarrollo turístico, como la falta de agua dentro de la población y otros problemas.</p>	<p>- We were very clear in expressing some doubts as to the potential that this region would have in taking off in terms of tourism without resolving a few things beforehand such as lack of water within the town and other problems.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Q8</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><i>S2, Civil Society</i></p>	<p>- Por ejemplo, ahorita se ha hecho el intento con el tema del reciclaje y ese es un trabajo estrictamente social. Tenemos un problema serio de basura pero la gente dice “es del municipio”. No, tiene que ser la ciudadanía, el municipio, las organizaciones, los empresarios. (...) ¿Cómo vamos a hacer un plan turístico estratégico de largo alcance si la ciudadanía sigue arrojando basura, sigue rellenando, sigue talando [árboles]?</p>	<p>- For example only now some work has been done in terms of recycling and this is just a social awareness job. We have serious problems as regards trash collection but people say is “up to the city council” It is not like this. It must be the citizens the city council, the various organizations, the private enterprises (...) How are we going to develop a long term strategic tourist plan if the people continue to throw garbage around, keep filling and continue the tree cutting?!</p>

Table 7.1.2 - Selected Quotations related with the category *Characteristics of the Transferor*

Q.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
<i>Willingness to implement</i>			
Q9	V1 Volunteer	- (...) porque bueno por mucho que tú intentes platearlo de la mejor manera posible, al final está un poco la voluntad del equipo de trabajo que al final configures. Si el equipo es bueno (...)	- (...) no matter how well you want to plan things at the end of the day it is up to the willingness of the team to make it through. If the team is a good one (...)
Q10	E2 Consultant	- (...) Sí, yo estoy muy contento la verdad, he tenido algunas experiencias de grupos de voluntarios y la verdad es que es el grupo con el que más contento me he sentido (...)	- I am very happy. I have had some experiences in volunteer groups and in fact this is the group with which I have been the most happy with. (...)
Q11	V3 Volunteer	- La verdad es que en un primer momento yo le tuve mucha confianza que esto puede detonar, que puede funcionar muy bien. Pero también, eso fue en el principio del trabajo de campo.	- The truth is that from the first moment I had a lot of faith in its success, as something that can well trigger development. But I felt this at the beginning of the field work.
Q12	V2 Volunteer	- (...) estudié turismo y luego hice cooperación, justo que hiciera esas dos cosas, que es un nicho como muy pequeño, fue la oportunidad perfecta.	- (...) I have studied tourism and then I did cooperation work and the opportunity to combine both was the perfect opportunity for me.
Q13	V1, Volunteer	- Las motivaciones de apuntarme al programa fueran dos: a nivel de experiencia y a nivel formativo... el ámbito de la cooperación internacional siempre me interesó y en el ámbito turístico en aquel momento empezaba a trabajar en mi empresa en proyectos de desarrollo turístico y me faltaba conocimiento teórico. Entonces yo pensé que era un programa que compaginaba bien las dos áreas (...)	- The motivations that made me join the programme were twofold: experience wise and training. International cooperation matters have always interested me and I also started to work on tourism projects in my company and I was lacking theoretical background. Then I thought that this programme complemented the two areas well (...)
Q14	E2, Consultant	- Yo creo que había esa mezcla entre gente de la academia, había un grupo dedicados a la consultoría como consultores y un grupo de muchachos que estaban empezando su carrera y que eran egresados de esta cosa de turismo y que iban por la emoción de conocer a gente de otros lados del mundo.	- I think there was a mixture between academics, a group of consultants and a group of young people that were beginning their working career and had just finished their tourism studies and wanted to experience the thrill of meeting people from other parts of the world.
Q15	V2, Volunteer	- (...) sólo vas a estar tres semanas que al final no son ni tres semanas, porque entre que llegas, coordinas (...)	- (...) we are only staying 3 weeks, not even, because time flies while you get settled and start coordinating (...)

Q16	V3, Volunteer	- (...) estuvimos tres semanas intensas aquella vez, y yo les comentaba que a lo mejor hay que alargar el tiempo, en lugar de tres semanas, cuatro semanas, pero hacer las entrevistas a profundidad (...)	- (...) we had 3 intense weeks that time and I suggested that instead 3 weeks it should be extended to 4 weeks in order to carry out the interviews with more depth (...)
Level of experience			
Q17	C8, Public Sector	- Eran gente con mucha experiencia , con mucha capacidad en este tipo de situaciones y nosotros, si nuestro interés era también no solo la evaluación sino también adquirir la experiencia de ellos... además también de que como venían gentes de diferentes países , para nosotros era importante que nos dieran su punto de vista de cómo veían de acuerdo al lugar de donde venían ellos y cómo nos veían de fuera.	- They were people with a lot of experience in this type of situations and our interest was the evaluation but also to acquire experience with them ... apart from the fact that they came from different parts of the world and it was important for us to listen to their point of view according to their origin and how they perceived the situation from the outside.
Q18	P3, Public Sector	- (...) En primer lugar se involucraran con todo el tiempo y la disponibilidad, y no es como te esté echando porras, con el profesionalismo y la experiencia de que en ese caso estuvieron. Recuerdo perfectamente el caso de (...) compañeros que venían de Brasil, tu caso; con la experiencia que traían de otros temas, no? pero traían experiencia de otros países. Eso fue enriquecedor.	- (...) First of all they get involved with all their time and availability, and I am not being flattering, and were all very professional and with plenty of experience. I remember perfectly the case of (...) people from Brazil, your case, bringing experience from other areas from other countries. This was enriching.
Q19	C7, Public Sector	- (...) nos faltaba la perspectiva o la visión de poder ver en el extranjero también la oportunidad de ¿cómo poder crecer? Entonces el trabajo que hizo la OMT a través de los voluntarios nos ayudó mucho para que también a nivel mundial tengan ellos la perspectiva de ver a Chiapa como un destino turístico.	- We lacked the perspective or the vision to understand how to grow but from the perspective of the international tourism demand. What the WTO did was to help us in that respect through the volunteers so that they can see Chiapas as a tourism destination from a worldwide level.
Q20	V2, Volunteer	- Pues a nivel personal, para mí el proyecto en sí era mi primera actividad de voluntariado internacional relacionado con turismo.	- At the personal level this project represented my first activity in international volunteering related to tourism.
Q21	V3, Volunteer	- No había trabajado con organismos internacionales , pero sí lo que sí había trabajado era en comunidades (...) no teníamos la experiencia, me incluyo yo porque yo no tenía la experiencia, y eso hizo que creímos todo lo que decían los coordinadores técnicos o los expertos.	- I had not worked with international agencies before, however I had worked in communities, (...) we had no experience, myself included, and that meant that we believed everything what the consultants told us.
Q22	V1, Volunteer	- Tenía experiencia previa como consultora en proyectos de desarrollo socioeconómico a nivel local y coordinaba los proyectos de desarrollo turístico, implementación de producto turístico, planes estratégicos y demás, en España.	- I had previous experience as a consultant in projects of socioeconomic development at a local level and coordinated projects of tourism development and implementation of tourism products, strategic plans and other aspects in Spain.

Q23	E1, Consultant	- (...) con un equipo de voluntarios que tienen que tener una formación en turismo bien de grado o de postgrado , o aunque tengan otro tipo de formaciones coordinados por una serie de expertos que les marcan las directrices y que de alguna manera coordinan todo el trabajo para que esto funcione.	- (...) with a volunteers´ team that must have training in tourism either as undergraduate or postgraduate or even if they have other type of background, as long as coordinated by a series of experts that establish the direction to take and that somehow coordinate all the work, so everything fits (...)
Q24	VI, Volunteer	- (...) yo creo que al final el éxito o la repercusión de estos programas en el destino dependen mucho también de la persona que lo impulsa , por los dos programas en que participé.	- I believe that the success or repercussion of these programmes depend on the person behind them and I speak from my experience in two projects.
Q25	E2, Consultant	- En el caso de Chiapas pasó algo muy curioso que no ha pasado muy frecuentemente, pasó que un mexicano que conoce el lugar , que conoce la gente, que sabe cómo son las cosas, era el responsable de toda la misión del grupo (...) En otros países llega un consultor de fuera que no conoces, que no sabe y en este mismo periodo, con cuatro semanas de gabinete, con tres semanas de trabajo de campo, hay que hacer un plan, entonces a veces esos planes no se ajustan mucho a la realidad de las condiciones de los lugares porque recomendamos cosas que no son aplicables, que no se pueden hacer por las condiciones políticas, económicas, sociales de las localidades. Pero este caso de Chiapas sí estaba muy emparejado.	- In the case of Chiapas something very curious happened that does not happen often: a Mexican that knows the place, the people and how things work was responsible for the mission (...) in other countries some outside consultant that does not know the place has to make a plan within a period of 4 weeks in the office and 3 weeks of fieldwork and sometimes those plans do not correspond to the reality of the place. This is because we recommend things that are not applicable due to the political, economical and social conditions of the area. However in the case of Chiapas everything was right.
knowledge base			
Q26	E2, Consultant	- Sin duda, es más, yo creo que era un equilibrio muy bueno entre gente que tiene alto nivel , muy alto nivel académico. Yo creo que había esa mezcla entre gente de la academia, había un grupo dedicados a la consultoría como consultores y un grupo de muchachos que estaban empezando su carrera y que eran egresados de esta cosa de turismo... puros doctores . Yo creo que el equilibrio era muy bueno. Muy bueno.	- There is no doubt that there was a positive equilibrium between people that have a high academic standards. There was a good mixture between academics, consultants, and a group of young people that were beginning their careers and had just received their degree in tourism, pure graduates. The whole equilibrium was a very good one.
Q27	C10, Priv. Sector	- (...) y segundo los comentarios que se fueron haciendo en las pláticas nos fueron haciendo muchas, más que observaciones, nos fueron dando propuestas o alternativas de solución (...) Nos tocó gente que dominaba bien, dominaban casi todos bien el español y venían muy bien preparados los muchachos .	- (...) and according to the comments that were being made in the chats, then became more than just observations, they became proposals or alternative solutions, we felt that their arrival was determinant for us, because since the moment they arrived it started to improve (...) It was relevant. We were landed with people that had control and dominated the Spanish language well and came well prepared.

Q28	C7, Public Sector	- Yo siento que fue un trabajo muy importante. Sin lugar a dudas los voluntarios que integran la OMT y los consultores, pues es gente capacitada académicamente, son profesionales y que tienen una visión sobre todo en el desarrollo sustentable del turismo.	- I feel it was a very important job. There is no doubt that the volunteers integrating the WTO the consultants are well capable academically and are professionals with a complete vision with anything to do with development in sustainable tourism.
Q29	E1, Consultant	- Bueno, en términos de voluntarios ha ido evolucionando mucho, desde el principio. No había el curso de preparación de voluntarios, se hacía simplemente un seminario de introducción al país, a la región a lo que se iba a encontrar y un poquito de conocimiento. Ya cuando se empezó con el curso de voluntarios ya cambió totalmente y de hecho el nivel de prelación y de formación del voluntario ha ido mejorando, bastante, no?! Pero, y también cambió la edad , porque antes la mayoría tenían como 22 años de promedio, faltaba mucha madurez y eso dificultaba tremendamente y luego ya se ha ido evolucionando y ya ha subido la edad, con la cual ha subido la experiencia y eso es mucho más cómodo . Pierdes a lo mejor un poco de idealismo o de utopía pero ganas en profesionalidad y al fin y al cabo el programa de voluntariado debe ser, ante todo, profesional para poder transmitir conocimiento.	- Well, in terms of volunteers there was a great evolution from the beginning. There was no preparation course in volunteering, there was simple an introduction lecture about the country, the region and what was expected from the area as well as some knowledge base. When the volunteer's course started everything changed, the level of priorities and training of the volunteers has improved greatly, has it not? But the age average also changed before the average was 22 years, there was a lack of maturity and that made things difficult and progressively the age average has risen and as a result experience has risen too and it is much easier as a result. You loose a bit of idealism or utopia but you win in professionalism and at the end of the day the volunteer's programme must be above all professional in order to transfer knowledge.
Cultural behaviour			
Q30	V3, Volunteer	- En la hora que hicimos los talleres, las entrevistas, yo no noté diferencias muy grandes entre nosotros que veníamos de diferentes países y la forma de actuar y de comunicar. Es que la gente le gusta que gente venga de fuera que le digan las cosas como se hacen (...)	- At the time we did the workshops, and the interviews, I did not notice major differences in the way we acted and communicated, between us who came from different countries. People like the fact that outsiders come and tell how things should be run (...)
Q31	VI, Volunteer	- Yo creo que podría haber un gap entre nosotros y ellos, pero yo lo vería ya entre el propio grupo (...)	- I think that there may have been a gap between us and them but I also saw it within the own group (...)
Q32	P6, Priv. Sector	- Muy interesante porque además fue un grupo de trabajo muy plural.	- Very interesting since the working group was a very plural one (...)

Q33	PI, Priv. Sector	- (...) lo sentí muy bien. La gente muy accesible como tú, gente sencilla que te platicaba las cosas y te planteaba algo viable, palpable (...)	- I saw it under a positive light. Very accessible and straight forward crowd like yourself that talked things through and proposed something feasible and perceptible (...)
Q34	CI3, Priv. Sector	- Fue un trabajo muy bonito. (...), bueno yo siento que venía un gran equipo de trabajo, hubo mucha convivencia con ellos, platicaron, me gustó mucho la manera como explicaron todo (...)	- It was a beautiful work. (...) I felt that a great working team was coming, there was a lot of coexistence, talks, I enjoyed how everything was explained (...)

Table 7.1.3 - Selected Quotations related with the category *Characteristics of the Transferee*

Q.	Type Of Actor	<i>Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish</i>	<i>Translated Quotations into English</i>
<i>Willingness to learn</i>			
Q35	CD3, Priv. Sector	- Nos llamó la atención la forma como se dio que una instancia internacional como la OMT pusiera sus ojos en esta región (...) nos dio mucho gusto (...)	- It was brought our attention the way how an international organization such as the WTO put its eyes in this region (...) it was a great fulfillment for us.
Q36	SI, Priv. Sector	- La OMT realmente tiene una plataforma importante para poder regir a muchos que estamos involucrados en el principal motor económico de San Cristóbal que es el Turismo, pero, muchas veces también ni siquiera a veces los que somos empresarios en este sector, como prestadores de servicios turísticos sabemos cuál es nuestro rumbo, nuestras fortalezas, nuestras debilidades o nuestras oportunidades, un poco lo que se hizo, como el DAFO [SWOT]: Fortalezas, Oportunidades, Debilidades y amenazas (...) Se me hizo tan interesante que pues obviamente estábamos en un buen ánimo participando.	- The WTO has a very important platform to manage everybody involved in the main economic engine in San Cristóbal which is tourism but sometimes not even the businessmen involved in tourism know which is our path ahead of us, our strengths, our weaknesses, our opportunities, a bit like what was done with SWOT analysis: Strengths, Opportunities, Weaknesses, and threats (...) It was very interesting and there was a good participating atmosphere.
Q37	T5, Priv. Sector	- A bueno porque la OMT es la autoridad máxima en el turismo. Es gente como tú, experta que sabe muy bien de cómo poder organizar un destino turístico para hacerlo exitoso (...)	- The WTO is the maximum authority on tourism. People like you who knows very well how to organize a tourist destination and turn it into a success (...)
Q38	P3, Public Sector	- El que la OMT se involucre en los trabajos de turismo en el estado de Chiapas fue motivante. Porque la máxima institución, el organismo de, como decimos aquí «se lo sabe de todas a todas en turismo», se involucrara en los trabajos de turismo en Chiapas y específicamente en la región en que yo trabajo, fue motivante.	- The WTO's involvement in the tourism work was a motivating factor. Because the top institution, the entity that knows what there is to know on tourism was involved in a tourism project in Chiapas and specifically in the region I work with. It was motivating indeed.
Q39	C7, Public Sector	- Yo siento que era importante que alguien como la OMT con una visión de destinos de desarrollo turístico era importante de que viniera a caminar y a sugerirnos y a proponernos (...)	- I feel that somebody like the WTO with a vision on tourist destination development was important to arrive here and guide us, suggest us and made various proposals to us (...)

Q40	VI, Volunteer	<p>- (...) Ya no es solo lo que les aportemos os que vayamos ahí, sino que con eso consiguen involucrar más y principalmente a las autoridades que tienen por encima del desarrollo turístico. El desarrollo turístico siempre es un objetivo secundario, se ve siempre como un objetivo que se quiere conseguir, pero en que no se quiere invertir. Entonces a lo mejor yo creo que en este tipo de programas al tener el respaldo de la OMT te genera un compromiso a nivel político de trabajar por el desarrollo turístico que yo creo que es la principal utilidad que tiene (...).</p>	<p>- (...) <i>It is not just what we may bring once we are there but also the involvement of everybody and specially the authorities who are in charge of tourism development as well. Tourism development is always a secondary objective, it is conceived as an achievable objective but one where they do not want to invest. This type of programs with the backing of the WTO generates a political commitment to work for tourism development. I think this is after all its main usefulness (...)</i></p>
Q41	T5, Priv. Sector	<p>- La idea era sobre todo por parte del municipio de Tuxtla que la pernocta en Tuxtla fuera más larga, mínima de dos noches (...) porque eran varias cosas: un turismo sustentable, exitoso, que pudiera competir a nivel mundial pues con todo lo que hay ahorita, que cada vez hay más competencia global y que aparte se pudiera involucrar a la gente de escaso recursos en el aspecto turístico para un desarrollo económico de su comunidad (...)</p>	<p>- <i>The idea was that the municipality could increase the overnight stays, at least two nights (...)</i> because there were a few things at stake: a successful sustainable tourism, that could compete at an international level since nowadays there is more global competition, as well as to involve people with less resources that could become involved in tourism for the good of the economic development of the community (...)</p>
Q42	T6, Priv. Sector	<p>- (...) yo le digo a la gente del estatus político o quienes representan a los ciudadanos en los diferentes municipios, que el turismo es la economía que puede hacer latir y despertar al "gigante dormido", sin duda. Yo creo que la base del éxito económico de un estado como este está en el turismo, antes de cualquier otra cosa y yo creo que es cómo venderles un proyecto que ellos entiendan que si se suman van a obtener beneficios (...) una estrategia bien diseñada.</p>	<p>- (...) <i>I convey to the politicians or whoever represents the people that tourism represents without any doubt the economy that can throb and awaken the "sleeping giant". I believe the key to economic success is tourism before anything else and we have to sell them this project so they understand they will reap benefits from it (...)</i> a well orchestrated strategy.</p>

Q43	C11, Priv. Sector	<p>- Te platico bien como fue esto. Mira, esto lo comenzamos nosotros desde, sino mal recuerdo, 2005. Fue que se comenzó con esto, fue una reunión que tuvimos con el cabildo (...) y tuvimos una entrevista con él y a partir de ahí fue que nosotros le pedimos de que nosotros podíamos ser pueblos mágicos. Y un programa de esos sería muy importante para Chiapa de Corzo (...) Entonces, a petición de eso fue que comenzamos nosotros a trabajar junto con el municipio. (...) nos comienza a llamar, «miren tenemos que formar un consejo y este consejo darle fuerza para que pueda el programa de Pueblos Mágicos tener más impacto en el municipio». Bueno, comenzamos con eso y ya es de que sale lo de que se tenía que hacer un estudio antes por medio de la OMT.</p>	<p>- Look this was started by us in 2005 if my memory serves me right. There was a meeting with the mayor and from here on we asked them if we could be part of the Pueblos Mágicos program. A project like this could be very important for Chiapa de Corzo (...) then we started to collaborate with the council and they started to call us: "look, we have to form a counseling group and it has to have power to put forward the Pueblos Mágicos program as to generate a visible impact in the municipality". That is how it started and then it was clear that a study supported by the WTO would be needed.</p>
Q44	C7, Public Sector	<p>- (...) entonces sentimos que vamos bien, sentimos nosotros que con la declaratoria de Pueblos Mágicos vamos a recibir mucha inversión y esto va a permitir trabajar más en infraestructura turística, creación de hoteles, creación de restaurantes, de pensar en algunas agencias de viajes, entonces creo que esto también se va a traducir en inversión, en derramas económicas para los prestadores turísticos en Chiapa.</p>	<p>- Then we felt that we were doing well, we feel that with the confirmation of our application of Pueblo Mágico we will receive a lot of investment and that will allow for more tourism infrastructures, hotel building, restaurant creation and travel agency build up. This in turn will call for more investment and economic benefits for tourism entrepreneurs in Chiapas.</p>
Q45	V3, Volunteer	<p>- (...) mira, esto me parece que son decisiones políticas! Ese es el asunto, seguramente el presidente municipal pidió que sea así y ya está (...) hay muchas cosas sobre todo cuando hay programas internacionales que políticamente se maneja.</p>	<p>- Look, it seems to me that these are political decisions. This is the thing! What probably happened was that the mayor asked to be that way and that's it! (...) there are many things when international projects are involved that are manipulated politically.</p>
Q46	V1, Volunteer	<p>- (...) Más bien quieren elevar su rating, para posicionarse que tienen contactos con tales organismos [ex. OMT] y que se está llevando a cabo algún programa en específico pero no les interesa si se desarrolla realmente como.</p>	<p>- I think they want to improve their rating to position themselves, they have the connection with those entities (ex. WTO) and that something is going on but they do not really care how is carried through.</p>
Trust			
Q47	C5, Priv. Sector	<p>- Y con las recomendaciones que ustedes tienen pues lo que ustedes vienen del otro lado del charco pues es totalmente diferente, otra visión totalmente diferente de la que tenemos nosotros.</p>	<p>- And in the recommendations you can see that your views are very different from ours since you come all the way from the other side of the pond providing new insights.</p>

Q48	C10, Priv. Sector	- Quiere decir que, se imagina una organización tan importante que viniera a Chiapa de Corzo, y que vinieran evaluadores; y sobre todo cuando nos informaron que ustedes venían haciendo un servicio de voluntariado (...) Sí. Sentimos que fue importante la llegada pues de ustedes, sobre todo, estábamos a la espera de la experiencia que ustedes traían.	- I mean ...could one imagine that such an important organization comes to Chiapa de Corzo and brings its experts and especially when you were coming on a volunteer basis?! (...) We felt that your arrival was important and above all because you would bring your experience.
Q49	P2, Public Sector	- Yo creo que las personas que hicieron el estudio, que dieron sus opiniones que al final de cuentas llegó a un consenso, son personas totalmente preparadas , (...) y la Organización Mundial de Turismo, yo creo que no hay otro organismo mayor que te pueda dar un diagnóstico tan completo como ese que ahí está.	- I believe that people that produced the study and gave their opinion arriving to a consensus, they were very well prepared people (...) and there is no other entity like the WTO that can give you a more complete diagnostic than what was given to us.
Q50	S4, Priv. Sector	- (...) y vuelves a empezar y vuelven a venir y volvemos a iniciar y otra vez. Yo me fastidié , yo dije “ya me voy a mi negocio, háganse bolas y yo desarrollo mi propio modelo y me posiciono en el mercado y pues bueno, haré mi lucha, no puedo ganar la guerra pero voy a sobrevivir”.	- (...) and you start all over again, they come and here we go again. I was fed up, I said: “I am going to my company, you do what you want, I am developing my own model so I can position myself in the market and I will fight by myself but I will survive”.
Q51	C4, Civil Society	- Pues mira, nosotros tenemos plena confianza con el grupo que existe en Chiapa de Corzo que esta formado con los Pueblos Mágicos, entonces a través de ellos, ellos han estado contactando a los grupos que vienen o en este caso a los grupos voluntarios que vienen de diferentes lados o que recibimos la visita de gente que viene con esa planeación. Entonces nosotros tenemos la plena confianza y de hecho por eso se les dio el voto de la confianza para que ellos hagan el trabajo.	- Look we have complete trust in the group that is handling Chiapa de Corzo that is also part of the Pueblos Magicos programme, through them they have contacted the groups that arrive here or in this case the volunteers that come from various places. We have full confidence and that is why we confided in them to do the job.
Knowledge base/absorptive capacity			
Q52	E2, Consultant	- Haría falta alguien que tuviera esta capacidad de interpretar nuestra visión de un documento sí académico, sí técnico, sí con cierto rigor científico pero al mismo tiempo un documento que muy fácilmente se podría poner en la realidad. Como decimos en México, muy fácilmente se podría aterrizar. Y esa era un poco la idea de mi visión, creo que sí faltó un poco eso.	- There should be somebody able to interpret our point of view in an academic, technical and scientific accuracy for sure but also that could be put into practice in real life. As we say in Mexico that could land on the ground. This is my view and this part was lacking.
Q53	V3, Volunteer	- Yo creo que cuando se terminó el programa y quedaron las autoridades locales, tengo una percepción de que no estaban suficientemente dotados de conocimientos para darle continuidad a lo que había sucedido. Y eso está muy claro.”	- I think that when the programme was finished and the only thing left were the local authorities, I get the impression that they had not enough preparation or knowledge to ensure the continuation of the project and what had just happened. This is clear.

Q54	E3, Consultant	<p>- (...) <i>La alternativa sería ya hacer un curso también con todos los participantes locales que se iban a involucrar, lo cual no siempre es posible, porque tu no tienes ningún control sobre los actores locales. Muchos de estos no son seleccionados en función de su pertinencia para el proyecto, sino en función de su disponibilidad en el día en que se está haciendo el evento. Entonces si lo ideal sería tener eso ya solucionado antes y buscar que hiciera, yo lo propondría, hacer un taller para los participantes locales, para prepararlos antes de la intervención.</i></p>	<p>- (...) <i>The alternative would be to do a course with the local participants involved in the project which is not always possible because you have no control over the local actors. Many of them are not selected in terms of their relevance to the project but alternatively based on their availability to be present on the day the event takes place. In fact the ideal thing to do would be to solve this beforehand and organize a workshop for the local participants and prepare them well beforehand.</i></p>
Q55	CD1, Public Sector	<p>- <i>Yo apenas me acabo de integrar hace como dos meses. Pues digo, a mí siempre me ha gustado la cuestión de turismo. A pesar de que soy muy joven, mi carrera se ha enfocado al turismo (...)</i> De hecho, cuando yo entré, el primer día fue muy curioso, porque el primer día que yo entro, yo venía así como que no sabía realmente a dónde iba y entro directamente a la reunión de Senda de Colores.</p>	<p>- <i>I have just joined the group two months ago. I have always like the things about tourism. Although I am still young my career has been focused on tourism. In fact when I started the first day was funny because I felt as if I did not know where I was going and I find myself going into the meeting about the Senda de Colores.</i></p>
Q56	S7, Public Sector	<p>- <i>No. Realmente desconocía este programa. No tengo ni idea (...)</i> No conocí nada, pero dime cómo se llama el programa?</p>	<p>- <i>No, I really had no idea about this program, not any idea. So, tell me how is the program called?</i></p>
Q57	S1, Priv. Sector	<p>- <i>Y tiene mucho que ver sinceramente quién esté encabezando y quién esté en turno de cada municipio de sus autoridades, los directores de turismo municipal, los mismos delegados de turismo estatal que entra, y no es por menospreciarlos y en verdad se los digo, entran sin saber nada, sin saber nada (...)</i> no cumplen con las características ni con el perfil adecuado para poder encabezar.</p>	<p>- <i>This has a lot to do with who is heading and who is in charge in each turn from the authorities of each municipality, the regional directors and the state tourism representatives, and I do not want to undervalue them but they come in and they do not know anything, anything at all. (...) they do not fill the necessary requirements or the particular profile to lead the process.</i></p>
Q58	S4, Priv. Sector	<p>- <i>Entonces es muy difícil tener seguimiento a ese tipo de programas. Obviamente también la gente que entra a las direcciones de turismo, en el caso del municipio y a la delegación de turismo, es gente sin experiencia.</i> En México no obedece a la capacidad de la gente ese tipo de nombramientos, sino a otro tipo de situaciones particulares, desgraciadamente eso nos estanca.</p>	<p>- <i>It is very difficult to have a follow up in this kind of programmes. Obviously the people that are taken in the tourism boards of the municipality and tourism delegation are people without experience. In Mexico the appointments to these posts do not obey the rules but other particular situations, unfortunately this fact stops the way forward.</i></p>

Q59	CA, Civil Society	<p>- (...) la gente que está en este grupo acá en Chiapa de Corzo en la agrupación de Pueblos Mágicos tiene pleno conocimiento de cómo ha sido todo el proceso, entonces se han encargado de informar a la gente que viene también (...) Acá hay mucha gente que sabe lo de tradiciones, sabe lo de Chiapa de Corzo, historiadores, tal vez cronistas, tal vez líderes de opinión, tal vez gente de gran valía. Yo siento que, inclusive también familias que han dado mucho por la cultura de Chiapa de Corzo y se necesita incluirlos pues. Aquí la gente es muy capaz, obviamente bien orientadas y bien instruidas pues no habría problemas.</p>	<p>- (...) the people involved in the association Pueblos Mágicos in Chiapa de Corzo have full knowledge of how the process went and made sure to inform newcomers (...) There are many people here that know all about traditions, know Chiapa de Corzo like historians, chroniclers, opinion leaders, people with added value. I feel there are people that have contributed a lot for the culture of Chiapa de Corzo and they need to be involved. There are capable people here and if they were properly trained and guided there would be no problems.</p>
Q60	SA, Priv. Sector	<p>- Mira, la gente del sector turístico es una gente muy comprometida, el asunto es que la tienes que convocar, la tienes que tomar en cuenta. (...) Es gente que ahora ya tiene más experiencia, ya está más metida en estas dinámicas y yo creo que, inclusive, hay mucha gente en San Cristóbal que con mucho gusto podría participar en eso, gente que está en el programa Chiapas visión 20-20, gente que está en fomento económico de Chiapas, programas que son empresariales, privados y que de alguna manera pueden aportar información y hay que hacerlo.</p>	<p>Look the people from the tourism sector are people that are always busy. You have to summon them and you have to take them into consideration (...) They are more experienced now and are more dynamic and I believe that there are people in San Cristóbal that would love to participate in this, people involved with the Project Chiapas Vision 20-20 that are responsible for the economic development of Chiapas, business programs, private entrepreneurs that can contribute with information and we must include them.</p>
Q61	CI1, Priv. Sector	<p>- Yo veo un gran trabajo que hicieron en eso, es más hasta siento que no se ha depurado bien todo el análisis que hicieron. Nosotros todavía no hemos podido absorber toda esa información que nos dejaron.</p>	<p>- I see a great job in what they did and I would go as far as to say that there is much to be unraveled from their study. We still could not absorb all the information that was left to us.</p>

Cultural behaviour

Q62	E2, Consultant	<p>- (...) la vida turística de Chiapas pues está en las comunidades. (...)</p>	<p>- Tourist life is in the communities, you have little tourism in the cities.</p>
Q63	CD5, Priv. Sector	<p>- Sé que en Chiapas, la cuestión de las comunidades, los grupos de campesinos indígenas tienen mucha fuerza pero a través del diálogo se puede lograr mucho, platicar con ellos, convencerlos; y se pueden llevar más beneficios a las comunidades.</p>	<p>- I know that in the case of Chiapas there is the issue of the communities and indigenous farmers who are very strong indeed but through dialogue you can achieve a lot, and convince them. There is a lot of advantages that can be obtained for the community</p>

Q64	P7, Public Sector	- Si tú dejas abandonado ahí ya la gente se olvidan. No hay memoria a largo plazo en México desgraciadamente , tenemos memoria a muy corto plazo. Si tú refuerzas de alguna manera eso, la gente le interesa y sigue y aporta porque sí ven que se benefician directamente.	(...) if you let it be people forget about it. Unfortunately there is no long term memory in Mexico, we have very short term memory over here. If you keep at it people keep their motivation and help because they can see it is in their own interest.
Q65	T2, Public Sector	- Tuxtla es una ciudad muy fea, porque sí, es una ciudad horrorosa. Sí, los guías lo dicen. Yo tengo uno y dice “bueno, Tuxtla ni sus mejores amigos pueden decir que es una ciudad bonita” (...) es que siempre estamos esperando que el gobierno nos solucione. Hagamos algo!	- Tuxtla is a very ugly city because it really is. Even the guides say so. I have one and says “not even its best friends can say it is pretty city” (...) we are always expecting the government to solve the problems. I say “let’s do something.
Q66	CD7, Public Sector	- ¿Sabes qué pasa? Hay mucha apatía (...) todos decimos que empujemos el carro pero cuando no hay disposición, es que muy pocos tienen disposición (...) estamos muy dependientes y luego la gente aquí es muy apática. Son cinco o cuatro los prestadores de servicio que están involucrados, de ahí no les interesa. Y desde que vinieron ustedes yo empecé a tener muchos problemas.	- Do you know what is wrong ¿ there is a lot of disillusionment (...) we all say to push the car in the same direction but when there is no will, and there aren’t many who have it (...) we are very dependent and people here are very passive. There are only 4 or 5 service suppliers that are involved and that is why they are not interested. Since you came I began to have many problems.
Q67	CD7, Public Sector	- Aquí no, aquí [Comitán] como que piensan individualmente , aunque aparentan querer. -¿Te cuento un chiste? Dicen que una vez venía una persona con dos ollas y que alguien lo paró y le dice, “¿qué llevas en las ollas?”, y le dice, “cangrejos”. Y miraba una con tapa y otra sin tapa, y le dice, “¿por qué los llevas una con tapa y una sin tapa”, y le dice “es que estos son cangrejos de San Cristóbal y estos son cangrejos de Comitán”, “¿y eso qué tiene que ver?”, “mucho” dice, “estos de San Cristóbal los tengo que llevar tapados porque si no empiezan hacer montoncito y se avientan y se salen de la olla, y los de Comitán cuando uno va subiendo los demás lo agarran y lo jalan y entonces no necesitan la tapa”. Eso nos dibuja un poquito cómo somos acá (...)	- Not here, here each one thinks for himself. Do you want to hear an anecdote? One day a person was walking down the street with two buckets and somebody stopped him and asked him what he was carrying he answered that they were both full of crabs. One had the lid on and the other one had not. When he was asked why he said it was because one was full with crabs from Comitán and the other with crabs from San Cristóbal, what does that have to do with anything? plenty he answered The San Cristóbal ones need a lid because they always form a pile and try to escape whereas the ones from Comitán when one tries to escape the others pull him down so there is no need for a lid” This depicts a bit how we are over here (...)
Q68	CI3, Priv. Sector	Porque soy consejera del Comité municipal de turismo y represento los artesanos y somos un primer contacto que los turistas tienen cuando llegan a Chiapa y se quedan satisfechos de platicar con nosotros, les platico de nuestros costumbres, de lo hermoso que es bordar, de lo bonito que son las manos chiapanecas. Entonces la gente se queda satisfecha de platicar con los servidores (...)	- Because I am consultant of the municipal committee for tourism and I represent the artisans and we are the first contact that tourists have when they arrive at Chiapa and they are satisfied to talk to us, I speak about our customs how beautiful is to embroide and how beautiful our hands are. They leave all satisfied after talking to us although not everybody has the same character (...)

Q69	CI2, Public Sector	<p>- Sabes cuál es la magia de esta fiesta [Fiesta de Enero, asociada a la figura del Parachico, clasificada como patrimonio mundial de la Humanidad], no es en los restaurantes, es que tú como persona, si sigues a los Parachicos ellos tienen varias paradas por la senda del sol que bailan y esas casas abiertas que tú ves te invitan a comer y lo disfrutas. Te dan tu tequilita y te dan tu comida, que es un poco grasosa pero muy rica y te vas bailando todo el tramo (...) Y créeme que es una parte que conoces, la parte social cultural de la gente. Esa tradición viva y vas entendiendo. (...) El orgullo que tiene. Es un orgullo que no te lo sé describir. Desde el más chiquito hasta el más grande. Es impresionante. La mamá, la abuelita, el abuelito, el tío, la hermana, el sobrino, el nieto. Ves una cuestión familiar impresionante y la devoción con lo que lo hacen es más sorprendente.</p>	<p>- Do you know what is the magic of this festivity [January associated to the figure of “Parachico”, classified as world heritage] it is not in the restaurants, if you follow the “parachicos” they have various stopovers in the sun route and you walk into the open house and they invite you to eat and you enjoy yourself. They give you tequila, food, a bit greasy but tasty and you continue dancing all the way (...) And in that way you get to know the social part of people, this living tradition and you understand (...) The pride in it all. It is an indescribable pride. Since the mummy, granma, granpa, uncle, sister grandson. You feel the family and the devotion with what they do things which turns everything so surprising</p>
Q70	CI, Civil Society	<p>(...) históricamente le da Chiapa de Corzo el nombre del estado de Chiapas. Y anteriormente era Estado de Chiapa, no era Chiapas. Se unió la “S” por la unión de las etnias. Lo que es Zoque, Chiapaneca, Tzotzil, Tzeltal, Tojolabal, Lacandón...Pero generalmente Chiapa de Corzo le ha dado al estado de Chiapas su cultura, historia, tradición, costumbres, parte de su leyenda, la marimba, los bordados; le ha dado artistas, todos ellos. Ha contribuido Chiapa de Corzo con el estado de Chiapas. Y aquí es el centro medular del origen de la raza chiapaneca.</p>	<p>- Historically Chiapa de Corzo gave its name to the State. The “s” was later added as a symbol for the unity of the different ethnic groups, Zoque, Chiapaneca, Tzotzil, Tzeltal, Tojolabal, Lacandón .Generally speaking Chiapa de Corzo had given the State of Chiapas its culture, history, tradition, customs, parts of its legends, marimba, the embroidery, artists, all of them. Chiapa de Corzo has contributed towards the state of Chiapas. And here we have the central origin of the Chiapanec culture.</p>
Q71	CI2, Public Sector	<p>- Tenemos mucha tradición viva. Se ve hablando con la gente, lo viven de una forma muy intensa, muy auténtica, hablando con los artesanos, con la gente en la calle (...) es parte de su herencia familiar. Muchos son artesanos, otras son costureras, pero ya es de familia. El bordado es de familia, el tallado es de familia, inclusive aunque no te dediques a esto ya ellos saben ese tallado. Ya lo traen en la sangre, bastante. Y estamos rescatando muchas cosas de Chiapa de Corzo (...) Esperemos nos ayuden para que eso no se pierda.</p>	<p>- We have a lot of living traditions, you can feel it by talking to people, they live it in a very intense way, very authentic, talking to artisans with people on the street... It is part of the family tradition. Many are artisans, others are seamstresses, but it runs in the family. Embroidering is a family tradition, so is the woodcarving even if they do not dedicate to it they know how to carve. It is in their blood. We are recovering many things from Chiapa de Corzo (...) I hope you can help us to preserve all this.</p>

Q72	C4, Civil Society	<p>- Lo que sucede es que nosotros hemos estado muy interesados en todo lo que pasa en Chiapa de Corzo, cuando hay programas que favorezcan al municipio nos interesa sobre manera que salga todo bien. Aquí nosotros apoyamos este tipo de actividades y programas porque son en beneficio a esta población que queremos mucho.</p>	<p>- What happens is that we have been very interested in everything that has to do with Chiapa de Corzo, when there are programmes that help the municipality we are committed so that everything goes well. We support these kind of activities and programmes because they are in support of the population that we love so much.</p>
Q73	C13, Priv. Sector	<p>- (...) te lo vuelvo a repetir, amo a mi pueblo, amo a mis costumbres y si yo amo eso tengo que empezar aceptando mis errores y si andamos mal y si viene alguien y nos los ve y nos lo dice con palabras bonitas, y aunque nos dijeran con palabras feas, hay que aceptarlo.</p>	<p>- I insist, I Love my People, I love my customs and if I love that I must accept my mistakes and if we are going about it the wrong way and somebody comes and mentions it to us with pretty words or even with ugly ones we must accept it.</p>

Appendix 7.2 – Selected Quotations related with the **ACTIVITIES** dimension

Note: the complementary quotations omitted but signaled in Chapter 7 are shadowed in gray in the respective tables bellow.

Table 7.2.1 - Selected Quotations related with Activities

Q. Quotati on	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q74	T7, Public Sector	- Como bien sabes, en el 2007, por iniciativa del ayuntamiento municipal de Tuxtla Gutiérrez se hace la solicitud ante el Organismo Mundial de Turismo para que se hiciera primeramente un estudio donde realmente se quería ver la variedad que había en Tuxtla Gutiérrez. Esa era originalmente la idea. ¿Qué fue lo que pasó? Al darse todo este movimiento pues finalmente dice la OMT “por qué no involucramos ese corredor natural que se tiene de Tuxtla, Chiapa de Corzo, San Cristóbal, Comitán y Palenque?	As you well know in 2007 there was an application to the WTO thanks to the Tuxtla Gutierrez city council in order to elaborate a study which would show the wide tourism potential available in Tuxtla Gutierrez. That was the original idea. What happened? Due to all the fuss the WTO finally said “why not involve that natural corridor present in Tuxtla, Chiapa de Corzo, San Cristóbal, Comitán y Palenque.?”
Q75	C7, Public Sector	- Afortunadamente, Chiapa de Corzo se logró integrar a este Corredor Turístico Internacional porque el proyecto venía nada más para Tuxtla, San Cristóbal y Palenque que eran los mas representativos por así decirlo. No estaba contemplado Chiapa de Corzo ni Comitán. Cuando nosotros nos enteramos de la presencia de la OMT para poder definir un Corredor Turístico Internacional nos acercamos a la Secretaría de Turismo del gobierno del estado de Chiapas y solicitamos nuestra incorporación a ese centro turístico.	Fortunately, Chiapa de Corzo managed to integrate this International touristic corridor because originally the project was just geared towards Tuxtla, San Cristobal and Palenque which were the most representative so to speak. Comitán and Chiapa de Corzo were not originally contemplated When we heard about the WTO’s presence to define the international touristic corridor we approached the general tourist secretary of the State government of Chiapas and made an application for our inclusion in such a corridor.
Q76	E3, Consultant	- Yo creo que eso se cuidó mucho en la visita exploratoria, y ya se sabía, íbamos con esa cautela, que estábamos en el caso de Chiapas en un contexto delicado, y que había que hacer caso de las autoridades locales, creo que esto se debe hacer en todos los destinos. Entonces los contextos cambian de un día para otro. Pero si, se tuvo el cuidado de ver que había un contexto político, social, de seguridad para llevar ahí un grupo de voluntarios. Esa parte estaba cuidada.	I think that the preparatory visit was carefully planned in that respect and were very careful since we knew that in the case of Chiapas which was at the time in a delicate position we had to listen to the local authorities, something which should be done in all destinations. Then the contexts change for one day to the next. However there was enough attention paid to the political and security context so that the volunteers could travel. There was great care in that part.

Q. Quotation	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q77	C5 Priv. sector	- <i>Primero nos involucramos en el sentido de que participamos cuando vino la organización y empezaron a investigar cuáles eran los beneficios y los perjuicios que teníamos, qué nos hacía falta, hacia dónde podía ir encaminado Chiapa de Corzo en relación con toda la información que ustedes podrían llevarse y después traernos los resultados de todo lo que ustedes vieron y analizaron de infraestructura, de servicios turísticos de todo eso que ustedes se llevaron.</i>	<i>Firstly we involved ourselves in the sense that we participated when the organisation came and they started to investigate which were the pros and cons that we had, the things we needed, to which direction had Chiapa de Corzo to go in relation to all the information that you could take with you and then bring the results of everything that you saw and analysed in terms of infrastructure, tourist services and everything else that you took with you.</i>
Q7	S2, Civil societ	- <i>En esa ocasión se estaba haciendo una evaluación y lo que se quería hacer también era un diagnóstico que nos pudiera permitir diseñar el plan estratégico de 20 años para el desarrollo turístico en San Cristóbal.</i>	<i>On that occasion they were doing an evaluation and a diagnostic was also wanted that would allow us to design a 20 year strategic plan for the tourist development in San Cristóbal.</i>
Q79	P6, Priv. sector	- (...) bueno, adolecemos cuestiones como reglamentación , no sólo de nuestra actividad sino de actividades que afectan directa o indirectamente la imagen de la ciudad (...) se hicieron tanto inspecciones a los atractivos turísticos como a las empresas, hoteles, restaurantes, agencias de viajes, caminaron la ciudad, conocieron muchos sectores de la ciudad y realmente fue un trabajo, fueron tres o cuatro días bastante intensos.	<i>Well we suffer from lack of regulation not only in our activity but in others which have direct influence in the city's image (...) Inspections were carried out in companies, hotels, restaurants, travel agencies, they walked the city and got to know the different economic sectors in the city and it involved a lot of work, there were 3 or 4 days of intense work.</i>
Q80	V2 Volunteer	- yo sé que es difficil cumplir plazos y demás, pero aunque te desdoblaran en grupos pequeños para cada área, analizar sector económico, educación y demás, no puedes llegar a un sitio sabiendo tan poco de ese sitio cuando sólo vas a estar tres semanas.	<i>I know it is difficult to meet deadlines and although they subdivided us into small groups for each area to analyse the economic sector, education and the rest, you simply cannot arrive somewhere without knowing so little about the place when you are only going to stay 3 weeks.</i>
Q81	V1, Volunteer	- yo creo que es un programa que tiene aspectos claramente mejorables en cuanto metodología de trabajo y demás (...) para que realmente esa transferencia de conocimiento pueda ser todo lo efectiva a que podría llegarse.	<i>I think it is a program that has a lot room for improvement in as far as methodology is concerned and the rest (...) so that all that knowledge can be as effective as it can get.</i>
Q82	V3, Volunteer	- (...) fuimos muy directos a los actores turísticos y creo que nos limitamos (...) igual con la sociedad civil muy poco. Muy poco, faltó, me parece que hay que ampliar más esta visión de quienes son los actores locales en el turismo.	<i>We were too focused on the tourist players and by doing that we limited ourselves, the same happened in a way with the civil society. We should broaden the scope of the local players in tourism.</i>

Q. Quotati on	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q83	T4, Priv. sector	<p>- El estudio de la OMT creo que fue el que a mí me ha tocado ver en los diez años trabajando en esta ciudad, el más serio, el más completo (...)</p> <p>Es muy bueno, es el primer estudio que se hace de forma tan metódica, todo el procedimiento, método que se siguió y que se tome en cuenta porque, todos los años llegan consultores, empresarios y gente que quiere hacer estudios, entonces nunca llegan a nada, entonces en este caso sí se llegó a una conclusión, se hicieron todos los estudios (...)</p> <p>toda esa parte que se hizo en el estudio, viendo fuerzas y debilidades y todo eso no se había hecho antes. Yo creo que fue muy interesante.</p>	<p>The study of the WTO in all the years that I have been working in this city was the most serious and complete of them all (...)</p> <p>It very good, it is the first one that is done in such a methodical way, including the procedures and methods that were followed through. You have to take into consideration that every year consultants, businessmen and people that want to carry out studies never achieve anything. In this case a conclusion was reached, studies were carried out (...) the study showed the strengths and weaknesses and that had never been done before. It was really interesting.</p>
Q84	T5 Priv. sector	<p>- Ustedes detectaban muy bien cuál era el potencial, o sea, qué rutas realmente no podían tocarse o no se podían abarcar. Estudiaban ustedes las líneas aéreas, o sea, todo los accesos, la transportación, la infraestructura, con qué se contaba, qué hacía falta, la capacitación, la inversión que había que hacer en carreteras, en toda la infraestructura turística, y el involucramiento de la comunidad para que lo tomara como suyo (...)</p>	<p>You detected quite well what the potential was, in other words, which routes could not be touched and which could. You studied the airline companies, thus all the access routes, transportation possibilities, infrastructure, what you could count on, what was needed, the capacity, the investment needed for road building, in tourist infrastructure as well as involving the local community so that they would feel part of the process (...)</p>

Appendix 7.3 – Selected Quotations related with the *OUTPUTS* dimension

Note: the complementary quotations omitted but signaled in Chapter 7 are shadowed in gray in the respective tables below.

Table 7.3.1 - Selected Quotations related with the Outputs

Q. Quotation	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q85	C12, Public Sector	- <i>Lo que nos dejaron ustedes es parte de un lineamiento de trabajo que estamos teniendo. Y a parte que también nos servió como ejercicio para la cuestión de pueblo mágico y la concientización que se está haciendo con la sociedad ha sido parte de esa visita y complemento de lo que estamos haciendo (...) y sobretodo para concientizar, si no lo hacemos no lo vamos a lograr.</i>	- <i>What you left us is part of a delineated plan that we are carrying out. Apart from that it served as an exercise for the Pueblo mágico issue and the realization that the society is being involved and is complementing what we are doing (...) above all to make people conscientious, otherwise we will not make it.</i>
Q86	C11, Priv. Sector	- (...) <i>Yo siento que la metodología que ustedes trajeron era la más idónea para lo que nosotros necesitábamos, porque siento que va a la par con pueblos mágicos (...) se complementan. Y antes de que vinieran y nos evaluaron, y gracias a eso pues tienes las herramientas para poder mejorar y cambiar las partes que no estén bien...fue un adelanto para poder hacer bien las cosas (...)</i>	- (...) <i>I feel that the methodology that you employed was ideal for what we needed and it matches the one required for Pueblos Mágicos also(...) they complement each other. Before they came to evaluate us, you came and assessed us first, and thanks to that one we have the tools to improve and change what is not right... it was a step forward to do things properly (...)</i>
Q87	C8, Public Sector	- (...) <i>lo poco que pude leer y además las conversaciones que tuve con gente que estuvo involucrada más en esto, pues sí, era muy entendible. Nos decían qué debíamos de hacer, qué no debemos de hacer, cuál era nuestra fortaleza en cuanto al municipio en qué se podía desarrollar y en qué no, y qué estábamos haciendo mal y qué estábamos haciendo bien. Fue muy comprensible, adecuado.</i>	- (...) <i>what little I read and from the conversations that I had with people involved I realized that it was perfectly understandable. We were told what to do and not what to do, what was our strength as far as the municipality where things could be developed and which one could not, what we were doing right and what not. It was straightforward, appropriate.</i>
Q88	T7, Public Sector	- <i>Por ahí tenemos nosotros como una Biblia donde llevamos nosotros, que es un cuadernillo que hicimos con un poquito de lo que hemos hecho y cómo hemos trabajado y cómo se trabajó la primera parte. Yo creo que esto fue fundamental para la integración [del Proyecto Chiapas 2015].</i>	- <i>We therefore have a kind of Bible which we take with us. It is a notebook that has been drafted with whatever it was done and we have been working on from the beginning. That was key towards the whole integration [of the Project Chiapas 2015].</i>
Q89	T4, Priv. Sector	- (...) <i>yo creo que se podría hacer un instructivo para capacitarlo como tipo manual, más que dar un manual y que además nosotros lo aprendiéramos para que yo, en determinado momento si tengo rotación de personal, yo pueda capacitarlo. Yo pueda capacitar a la persona. Pero, este informe por ejemplo podría ser una base para ese tipo de información que se necesita.</i>	- (...) <i>I believe that a set of instructions could be created based on that [Chiapas 2015 report] which could serve as a manual so that we could learn from it and, in case of new staff, I could put it to use. I could train my staff with it. The report served as a base for this type of information that is needed.</i>

Q. Quotation	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q90	S5, Public Sector	- Pues bueno, entonces yo siento que sí hay un buen resultado , a mí me parece que el trabajo de ustedes fue bastante interesante, intenso y yo creo que sí se cumplió , pues eso que uno dice “hay que abarcar tales y tales cosas” creo que sí lo abarcaron. Pues yo al menos, como te comento, quedé muy complacido, muy satisfecho.	- I feel there was a good result, your work was interesting and intense and it met the targets. It was said that we should achieve this and that and it was accomplished. I was pleased and satisfied.
Q91	S2, Civil Society	- (...) nos parecía que tenía sus deficiencias porque era lo que ya habíamos manifestado en muchas ocasiones anteriores. En realidad no estaban proponiendo algo innovador y sobre todo no decían el “cómo” . Sabemos que necesitamos pero no sabemos cómo y la cuestión del recurso.	- (...) We felt it had some deficiencies and we had conveyed that before on other occasions. In reality they were not proposing something innovative, they were not telling us “how” to achieve those goals. We know what we need but we do not know the how and the resources needed for it.
Q92	S5, Public Sector	- (...) en un momento determinado cuando ponen varias de las observaciones y recomendaciones, qué tan prioritarias fueron o eran, eso sí talvez no se precisó mucho en términos de la visión de ustedes. Como haber dicho “sí, yo gobierno aquí me están diciendo...” pero lo leo y lo leo y ya veo qué puedo hacer. A lo mejor no me pusieron “esto es indispensable para que funcione todo lo demás” (...) están recomendadas pero no dicen qué tan urgentes o importantes son , por prioridades.	- (...) In a given moment the various observations and proposals were put forward and there was no mention as to the priority of each one of them. After reading the report I should have known what were the first steps to be taken such as “this is vital so that everything else works” (...). They are there as part of the recommendations but they do not mention the urgency and priorities of each one of them.
Q93	CD7, Public Sector	- Yo siento que faltó un poquito más de fondo, de poder explicar a fondo, cómo se inició, qué se quería con esto (...) Yo creo que sí porque nosotros que sabíamos entendíamos perfecto, pero mucha gente no (...) yo creo también que tendría que ser más específico en las recomendaciones , no porque no esté claro, si no porque no todos tienen el conocimiento de esto.	- I felt that it did not go deep enough, how it all started and what was the idea behind it (...) We understood it but a lot of people did not (...) I also think that the recommendations should be more specific, not because they are not clear enough but because not everybody is aware of how it works.

Q. Quotation	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q94	V3, Volunteer	<p>- Yo creo que el problema de fondo no es tanto que fuera superficial, yo creo que la gente quería saber el “cómo”. Ya no el “qué”, el “cómo se tenía que desarrollar”. Yo creo que se salva el documento, en muy pocas páginas, inclusive a lo mejor con que le hicieran un cuadrito y que diga, “el qué, el cómo instrumentarlo y quién se responsabiliza” en un cuadrito está salvado ese documento, porque saben a quién reclamarle y a quién responsabilizar para que se lleven a cabo o se desarrollen dichas acciones. Porque las propuestas están allí, están por ejemplo, dice: “Fortalecimiento institucional y bla, bla, bla.”, “Diseño del producto”, “Comercialización”; pero no dice quiénes son los responsables, o sea, se da por hecho que la institución que recibe el documento, en este caso la secretaria de turismo ya lo ejecutaba.</p>	<p>- I think the root of the problem was not the superficiality of it but the need of the people to find out the “how”. Not the “what” but “how to develop it”. The document would have been useful in just a few page sor even with a table explaining “ what, how to put it through and who is responsible” with such a table the document would have a meaning and somebody would be accountable for the actions to be carried through. The proposals are there such as “ institutional reinforcement and bla, bla, bla,” “Product design” “marketing, merchandising”; but it does not mention who is responsible, that is, it is taken for granted that the institution receiving the document, in this case the Tourism board, will execute it.</p>
Q95	E2, consultant	<p>- (...) yo diría que tendríamos que convencer a algún empresario o algún grupo de empresarios a que tomaran el documento y al que llegara le dijeran “aquí tenemos un primer documento”. Yo no quiero decir que este documento es un programa de desarrollo, insisto, es que le falta mucho, hay que trabajarle, es una base. Diagnóstico y propuestas concretas a lo mejor hay que trabajarle mucho más, a lo mejor hay que decir, cuánto cuesta, cuánto tiempo tarda, decir cómo hacerlo. Pero ya hay un costo ahí que puede servir para el desarrollo.)</p>	<p>- (...) I would say that we should convince a businessman or business association to take the document in and show it to whoever came along and said “we have a first draft”. I am not saying that this document is a development plan, I insist there is a lot missing and a lot needs to be done but it is a base. It needs to be worked on in terms of specific proposals such as how much, how long and how to do it. Nevertheless there is ground for development.</p>
Q96	E3, consultant	<p>- (...) aunque los informes finales siempre podrán ser mejores pero dado el tiempo, las condiciones y las expectativas yo creo que son informes buenos, son puntos de partida, nunca se promete hacer un texto acabado o una tesis doctoral a partir de un ejercicio de esta naturaleza. Son puntos de partida para los gobiernos estatales (...).</p>	<p>- (...) Final reports can always be better but given the time, conditions and expectations they are useful and serve as starting points. Such an exercise cannot promise to deliver a definitive text or doctoral thesis due to its very nature. They serve as starting points for the state governments.</p>

Appendix 7.4 – Selected Quotations related with the *OUTCOMES* dimension

Note: the complementary quotations omitted but signaled in Chapter 7 are shadowed in gray in the respective tables below.

Table 7.4.1 - Selected Quotations related with the Outcomes

Q. Quotation	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q97	T7, Public Sector	<p>- ¿Qué hicimos? <i>Primeramente lo que hicimos fue crear un comité donde participan los cinco ayuntamientos con coordinación con gobierno estatal que no sólo es turismo, somos varias dependencias que participamos, desde el sector económico, infraestructura, coordinación general de gabinete, comunicación social (...) Las reglas de operación es para el proyecto “Chiapas 2015” como un plan estratégico de competitividad turística y de la necesidad de los ayuntamientos, realmente, a parte del fortalecimiento institucional, de la integración y todo, pues es la promoción. Finalmente su principal objetivo pues es mayor venta y promoción del destino. Entonces creamos una marca comercial, con registro como marca como tal que se llama <i>Senda de Colores</i>.</i></p>	<p>- What did we do? First of all, we created a committee where the five city councils were involved in coordination with the federal government not just the tourism dept but also various other sectors such as the economic, infrastructure, general coordination office, public relations (...) The rules of the whole operation are geared towards the Chiapas 2015 project and are intended as a strategic plan for tourist competitiveness. It stems from the need of the councils not just to strengthen and integrate the institution itself but also to help with promotion itself. Its ultimate goal is a greater sale and destination promotion. We therefore created a commercial brand (registered trademark) called Senda de Colores.</p>
Q98	T7, Public Sector	<p>- Después de mucho trabajar y todo, se logra determinar el logo y empezamos a hacer una campaña a nivel muy local de cómo íbamos a interactuar y a trabajar. ¿Cuál era la idea? Primeramente era que los chiapanecos conociéramos Chiapas y, qué mejor, con un mercado regional y empezamos a realizar reuniones pero lo interesante de todo es que logramos volver las reuniones itinerantes, no era todo Tuxtla, no estuvo focalizado aquí, nos movimos a Palenque, nos movimos a San Cristóbal, nos movimos a Comitán.</p>	<p>- After all the hard work, we determined what the logo should be and then we started a campaign at the local level to start the interaction and the actual work. What was the idea? First was for us Chiapas inhabitants to know our own region and nothing better to start off with the regional level and so we started to set up meetings but, after a while, those meetings became itinerant that is to say that it was not just concentrated here, we moved to Palenque, to San Cristóbal, to Comitán.</p>
Q99	T7, Public Sector	<p>- (...) Otra cosa que hicimos, estamos creando en todos los lugares son los COCOTUR, Consejos Consultivos de Turismo.</p>	<p>- (...) Something else we did was to start the COCOTUR (Tourist consultant councils) in every municipalities.</p>

Q. Quotation	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q100	T7, Public Sector	- <i>Participamos en ferias, estuvimos en expos a nivel nacional y a nivel estatal. Y te quiero comentar que el año pasado yo me llevé la marca como tal a China, la expo Shangai (...)</i>	- We participated in fairs, we were exposed at a national and federal level. I would like to comment that last year I took the brand to China, expo Shangai (...)
Q101	T7, Public Sector	- Derivado del éxito de estar gestionando y gestionando logramos, en muy poco tiempo realmente, que vuelvan a venir. Lo digo con todo el corazón, mi hígado, mi bilis, mi cuerpo, mi salud ha quedado en eso. Pero ahora vamos a hacer la segunda parte del estudio (...) Ya vienen a hacer la otra inspección, ya van a estar aquí haciendo el trabajo de campo y los vamos a tener durante 21 días. ¿Cuál es la idea? Crear todo un corredor, un circuito completo en Chiapas para promocionar todo el destino.	Due to the success of our relentless managing we succeeded their return in a short time. I say this with all my heart, my liver, my secretions, my body, this is to what extent my health has come down to. Now we are going to do the second part of the study (...) they [UNWTO] are coming to audit again soon. They are coming to do fieldwork and will stay for 21 days. What is the idea? To create a corridor, a complete Chiapas tour to promote this destination.
Q102	T7, Public Sector	- <i>Este año ya no solo son cinco municipios, somos nueve. Con los cuatro nuevos. Resulta que empezamos a trabajar también que municipios que están en el circuito ya se suman a trabajar con las mismas líneas de actuación, aunque no están dentro del estudio. Se sumaron a dar una política pública llevada en materia de medio ambiente, una política llevada en tema de promoción, de desarrollo, de fortalecimiento institucional, de capacitación (...)</i>	- This year we have passed from five municipalities to nine. That means four new ones. As it happens, we are also starting to work with other municipalities which although are in the corridor are not part of the original study. They joined so they could contribute in matters of environment, promotion, development, institutional strengthening and capacity building (...)
Q103	E2, Consultant	- (...) <i>Hay que hacer tres cosas, hay que planear, hay que mejorar las condiciones de los destinos en términos de servicios públicos, imagen urbana, de infraestructura y luego, ya que se tenga todo eso entonces sí, creamos un mecanismo que permita juntar a los cinco municipios y hacemos un programa de promoción. Yo creo que empezaron al revés. Empezaron juntando a los cinco municipios en una cosa, inclusive le pusieron este nombre Senda de Colores. Que yo no sé si es bueno o malo pero nadie lo conoce, ni siquiera localmente. Estamos haciendo promoción a un producto que todavía no existe.</i>	- (...) We have to do three things, planning, improving the quality of the destinations in terms of public services urban image, infrastructure and then once we have achieved all that then we create a mechanism that would allow to join the 5 municipalities and create a promotion program. I think they started the wrong way around. They started by combining the 5 municipalities into one goal and they named it Senda de Colores . I do not know if it is a good or a bad thing but nobody knows about its existence not even the locals. We are promoting something that has not even been created yet.

Q. Quotation	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q104	VI, Volunteer	<p>- (...) es cierto que se crió este programa de la Senda de Colores, de corredores turísticos y demás que realmente, si es un programa que comprende algo más que actuaciones de marketing, significaría que se estaban llevando a cabo actuaciones derivadas del plano, que el programa tuvo éxito. Ahora, si ese programa se queda solo en actividades promocionales pues para mi el éxito del programa, pues no está claro. No me gustaría que este programa sirviese solo para dar lugar a una actuación promocional porque no es lo que necesitan. Lo que necesitan está bajo un territorio (...) Me da la impresión que no se concretó en trabajo de desarrollo turístico.</p>	<p>- (...) it is true that the Senda de Colores Project was created as well as another tourist corridors. If it means more than just a marketing plan it would mean that several actions would be taking place as a result of it, that the program was a success. However if the aftermath of the program touched just on promotion activities the success is not a clear one. I would not like that this program would just serve for promotional activities , that is not what they need. What they really need is under a territory (...) It seems to me that the work on tourist development was not realized.</p>
Q105	S4, Priv. Sector	<p>- No, nosotros nos llega la información de Senda de Colores como un programa que andan impulsando por ahí algunas dependencias, que lo trae por ahí Turismo que anda por ahí con Economía, que están buscando cómo meterse, cómo posicionarse. Pero no tenemos nada.</p>	<p>- As far as we are concerned we receive the information from the Senda de Colores as a program that is being pushed by some departments, tourist, economic affairs and they are looking how to position themselves. But we have nothing.</p>
Q106	CD7, Public Sector	<p>- Lo que pasa con Senda de Colores, es que está muy escasa la información y lo importante de Senda de Colores, ahorita que ya vino a raíz de lo que vinieron ustedes a hacer, es que se está haciendo como un tipo mosaico de posibilidades (...).</p>	<p>- What is wrong with Senda de Colores is that information is scarce. As a result from your work the important thing that is being done now is that the program is being considered as a mosaic of possibilities.</p>
Q107	P2, Public Sector	<p>- (...) se empezó con lo que es Senda de Colores, tomando en cuenta pues los diagnósticos que hubieron del estudio (...) está funcionando a manera de marca. Se le ha hecho mucha difusión, se le ha invertido pero no ha podido despegar como proyecto.</p>	<p>- (...) It was started with Senda de Colores taking into account the diagnostics that stemmed from the study (...) is working as a brand. A lot of investment in promotion has been carried out but the project still has not really taken off.</p>
Q108	T7, Public Sector	<p>- (...) Chiapa de Corzo conoce perfectamente el tema, Palenque conoce el tema, Tuxtla conoce muy bien el tema, Comitán conoce muy bien el tema, el que es muy renuente es San Cristóbal pero porque San Cristóbal es renuente de por sí. Y lo más curioso es que si lo conocen porque ellos les tuvieron a ustedes ahí. Y sabían de qué se trataba y se hizo el lanzamiento de la marca y se le invitó a todos (...)</p>	<p>- (...) Chiapa de Corzo knows the issue perfectly as well as Palenque, Tuxtla, Comitán. San Cristóbal is very skeptical but that is just the way they naturally are. The funny thing is that they know about the program is because you were there. They discovered what is was about and even the launching of the brand where everybody was invited took place there. (...)</p>

Q. Quotation	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q109	P2, Public Sector	- <i>Yo siento que los actores locales lo que sienten, lo que piensan es, «¡ah! pues es otro proyecto que se le va a dar carpetazo y listo» (...) Lo mismo se dio con la Agenda 21. Agenda 21 es un proyecto interesante, pero (...) no se le ha dado seguimiento, o sea, diagnósticos vienen diagnósticos van, administraciones vienen y administraciones van y sencillamente, se sigue teniendo el montón de papeles y nada.</i>	- I feel that the local actor´s thinking is “ah, yet another Project which will eventually be discontinued that will be the end of it” The same happened with Agenda 21. Agenda 21 was an interesting project but there was no follow up, that is, Diagnostics come and go, administrations come and go and we simply are left with a lot of paper work and nothing else.
Q110	S2, Civil Society	- (...) entonces, ese fue el problema. Como ya no hicieron la devolución, como ya no se ha vuelto a convocar, no se le dio continuidad, mucha gente dijo «bueno, yo me sigo en mi trabajo, en mis actividades y esto pues es responsabilidad estrictamente del municipio».	- (...) then that was the problem. Since there was no feedback and there was no reunion, no continuity , a lot of people said “well I continue with my job, my activities and the rest is the municipality´s responsibility”.
Q111	CD2, Public Sector	- <i>Yo pensé que esto era un primer acercamiento, que realmente se pudiera hacer estos talleres, intercambiar, bueno ¿Qué hemos hecho, qué no hemos hecho, qué tareas, qué cosas podríamos hacer para poder mejorarlo? No pasó. Entonces, el desencanto (...)</i>	- I thought that was the first approach, the fact we could do the workshops, interact, well What have we and have we not done, what tasks, what can be done to improve it ? It did not work out. Then, disenchantment (...)
Q112	T3, Public Sector	- (...) se ha hecho mucho realmente ahorita en Chiapas, pues mucha gente está muy animada con la cuestión del turismo, están echándole muchas ganas para que precisamente ya más gente se le haga saber cuál es la importancia de recibir bien a los turistas (...)	- (...) A lot has been done right now in Chiapas since a lot of people are excited about tourism , they really are making an effort so that people know the importance of receiving the tourists properly (...)
Q113	T2, Public Sector	- <i>No, ya no hubo mayor resultado, o sea, todo, todo depende del presupuesto que haya. Pues uno puede tener muchas intenciones pero si no hay el presupuesto asignado, es imposible avanzar mucho. Se va avanzando muy lentamente.</i>	-There were not better results, that is, everything depends on the budget available. One may have the best of intentions but if there is no assigned budget there is no way forward. Progress is slow.
Q114	E2, Consultant	- <i>En cada municipio tenía que haber habido, como hicieron en Chiapa de Corzo. En Chiapa de Corzo (...) le recomendamos que hicieran un trabajo de remodelación de algunos barrios. El alcalde se metió, consiguió plata e hizo la remodelación de algunos barrios. Entonces yo creo que en Chiapa de Corzo sí se entendió mejor cuál era la idea del programa. Un programa de cierre.</i>	- Each municipality should have followed Chiapa de Corzo´s example. There (...) we recommended that they would refurbish some of the neighborhoods. The mayor got involved, managed to get some money and in fact refurbished some of the neighborhoods. In Chiapa de Corzo it was better understood what the program was all about.

Q. Quotation	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
* Q134	S8, Public Sector	- (...) su asesoría, sus correspondientes opiniones serían muy valiosas en ese sentido. Porque habría que evaluar ya a dos años o casi tres de eso ¿qué realmente se ha avanzado en ese sentido? A lo mejor no estamos en el camino correcto y ustedes se están dando cuenta y decir, “saben qué, qué bueno que se están juntado pero esto que están haciendo no los va a llevar a tal cosa” Sería bueno, sería oportuno que pudieran intervenir.	- (...) your assessment and subsequent opinions are very valuable in that sense. Because it should be evaluated in two or three years from now and ask what progress has been made in that direction. Maybe we are not on the right track and you, having realised that come out and say “ you know what, it is interesting that you are gathering all that but it is not taking you anywhere” It would be useful if you could intervene.
* Q135	V3, Volunteer	- (...) yo no creo que la OMT sea tan tonta y decir “ahí está y se acabó”. Seguramente, “a ver, San Cristóbal, dígame cómo va el programa, que se está implementando?”. Yo digo que debería de haber una evaluación (...) ¿por qué? Porque es la única forma de decir, “funcionó o no funcionó, o no quieren trabajar, para qué les vamos a seguir apoyando si no quieren trabajar?” . Porque va a seguir lo mismo.	- (...) I don't think that the WTO would be as foolish as to say “ there it is, it is now over”. There should be a question such as “right, San Cristóbal tell me how the program is going on, what has already been implemented? I'd say there should be an assessment (...) Why? Because it is the only way to say “if it worked or not, either they worked or not and why should we keep helping them if they do not want to work? Otherwise everything will remain the same.

Note: Q134 and Q135 keep the original number order by which they appear in the main text (chapter 7) and therefore do not follow here the sequence numbers of table 7.4.1

Table 7.4.2 Implementation of the “Chiapas 2015” Report Programs of Action (PA) and specific outcomes achieved in the municipality of Chiapa de Corzo

PA	Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
P1 Community participation and cross-institutional coordination	Q115	C12 Public Sector	- <i>Todos los trabajos de aquí los estamos haciendo tanto el ayuntamiento como el gobierno del estado y la delegación. ¿Por qué? Porque si lo hiciéramos por separado, créeme que no tuviéramos tanto éxito. Cada quien estaría en su rumbo y cada quien manejando sus datos y manejando sus cosas y no avanzaríamos nada.</i>	- <i>All the work that is being done here is being carried out in equal parts by the city council the state government and the regional tourism board, why? Because otherwise it would not be as successful. Each body would go its separate way, would manage the data separately and we would not make any progress.</i>
	Q116	C10 Private Sector	- <i>El Consejo Ciudadano del Turismo, fue el primero que hay en el estado pues, sí y de ahí retomó Tuxtla, San Cristóbal y Comitán, pero el primero nació aquí. Y hasta el reglamento que tenemos, ellos lo manejaron, hicieron sus cambios (...) expresan sus inconformidades. Sentimos que la gente del consejo está aprendiendo a entrar al debate. Sí que no es fácil (...) Es un trabajo de verdad, de mucho dialogo, que la gente está empezando ya (...) En sí es un órgano de propuesta que se delibera. Y la autoridad se adapta a las conclusiones que lleguemos nosotros.</i>	- <i>The tourism citizen board was the first in the state and then came Tuxtla, San Cristóbal and Comitán but the first one was born here. The regulations that we have were even dealt with by them they made changes and voiced their unconformities. We feel that the council people are entering into the debate. It is not easy (...) it is a real job involving a lot of dialogue, that people have started already (...) It is a consultant body where deliberations take place and the authority adapts according to the deliberations reached by us.</i>
	Q117	C8 Public Sector	- <i>Crear el consejo consultivo, por ejemplo, donde ellos me acuerdo que nos decían, es que tienen que involucrar a la sociedad, y eso es un factor muy importante (...) fue de las recomendaciones donde entendimos que teníamos que involucrar a la sociedad, donde entendimos que no era nada más el ayuntamiento porque los ayuntamientos se van y si cuarteas, puedes tener como ayuntamiento muy buenos propósitos, muy buenas ideas y terminas un proyecto a los tres años y luego viene el otro ayuntamiento y no lo sigue, ahí se pierde el trabajo.</i>	- <i>To create the consultant body where according to them we would have to get the society involved was a very important factor. It was this recommendation where we knew we had o get the civil society involve and not just the city council who may have the goodwill to do things and promote ideas but which unfortunately is not enough when you have a 3 year term and the work is lost when the new government comes into term.</i>
	Q118	C11 Private Sector	- <i>De hecho se formó un organismo en el consejo consultivo especialmente para eso, que nada más es consultivo, que nosotros le decimos al gobierno, al municipio, lo que pensamos, qué es lo que se tiene que hacer. Y esto vino a reforzar realmente, a decir, «mira, no sólo lo decimos nosotros, sino también el organismo lo dice. Ahora sí, trabájale». Más fuerza.</i>	- <i>In fact a body within the consultant council was formed to tell the government or municipality what to do. This reinforced the whole idea that it wasn't just the government's initiative but that the consulting body also approved of it which really gave the go ahead to work harder.</i>

PA	Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
P2 Training programs	Q119	C7 Public Sector	- <i>Entonces nos hemos esforzado en ofrecer nuestro destino turístico con calidad a través de implementar algunos cursos de capacitación a restauranteros, hoteleros, sociedades cooperativas de lanchas (...)</i>	- <i>We have made an effort to offer a quality tourist destination through training courses geared towards restaurant and hotel owners as well as boat cooperatives. (...)</i>
	Q120	C12 Public Sector	- <i>Nosotros al menos damos capacitaciones a todos los prestadores, lancheros, hoteleros, restauranteros y artesanos. Esas capacitaciones (...) estamos en eso (...) ahorita lo que estaba buscando es ya establecer, para establecer una ruta de visita a Chiapa de Corzo, de un día a dos días. O como quieras. Y esa ruta ya se lo damos a los tour operadores para que sepan cómo vender Chiapa de Corzo (...)</i>	- <i>We at least provide skills to the service providers, boat workers, hoteliers, restaurant owners and artisans. These skills (...) we are dealing with it. Now what we are trying to establish is a guided tour to Chiapa de Corzo of either one or two days. The idea is to give that that guided visit to the tour operators so they know how to sell Chiapa de Corzo. (...)</i>
P3 Development of new tourism products	Q121	C7 Public Sector	- <i>Entonces cuando llegan los voluntarios y nos dicen 'pero tienes un centro acá de desarrollo importante algo, para mencionarte algo, las Cascadas de Chirriadero, que las tenemos a diez minutos de acá de la ciudad, son unas cascadas maravillosas. Encontramos cuevas en donde se puede hacer actividades de espeleología, se pueden hacer actividades de senderismo (...) Nos dejaron ellos la propuesta de que ahí se podía desarrollar un centro ecoturístico con servicio inclusive de alimentación, cosa que se dio, cosa que ya existe, se organizó.</i>	- <i>Then the volunteers come and tell us that we already have an important development potential such a the Chirriadero waterfalls which are 10 minutes away from the city and are wonderful. We have caves where we can practice speleology and trekking (...) They left us a proposal in which ecotourism could be developed with catering included. It was organised and was carried out.</i>
P4 Marketing strategy "Senda de Colores"	Q122	C7 Public Sector	- <i>(...) siento que la presencia de la OMT en Chiapa de Corzo fue muy importante, porque mira, también te quiero comentar, a raíz de la llegada de la OMT se diseñó el Corredor Turístico Internacional que incluye los municipios de Tuxtla Gutiérrez, Chiapa de Corzo, San Cristóbal, Comitán y Palenque. Es decir, a nivel internacional ya existe un Corredor Turístico. Esto fue algo detonante. Afortunadamente, gracias a la llegada de ustedes, Chiapa de Corzo se logró integrar a este Corredor Turístico Internacional (...) que se llama "Plan de Competitividad Turística para los clusters de Tuxtla Gutiérrez, Chiapa de Corzo, San Cristóbal de la Casas, Comitán de Domínguez y Palenque". Y el año pasado dentro de ese proyecto que se llama "Chiapas 2015" se diseñó un proyecto que se llama Senda de Colores (...) Entonces a través de estas sesiones y estas asambleas de estas convocatorias que emite la Secretaria de Turismo a través del programa Senda de</i>	- <i>(...) I feel that the presence of the WTO in Chiapa de Corzo was really important because stemming from it the international tourism corridor was created which included the municipalities of Tuxtla Gutiérrez, Chiapa de Corzo, San Cristóbal, Comitán and Palenque. Last year the Project was called "Chiapas 2015" and a Project called "Senda de Colores" was delineated There are sessions and meetings that the tourism secretary is organizing through the latter Project in order to duly inform about the criteria needed for the participating municipalities . fortunately is an open session where discussion take place in an open manner and where the idea is to support each other in a coordinated way among the participating municipalities</i>

PA	Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
			<i>Colores se está tratando de uniformar los criterios de los municipios participantes (...) Afortunadamente es una asamblea abierta, en donde se discute abiertamente y se trata de apoyarnos coordinadamente de una manera institucional entre los municipios participantes. (C7)</i>	
	Q123	C8 Public Sector	- (...) hemos hablado de crear nuevos productos en cada municipio y lo platicamos en las reuniones de Sendas de colores donde estamos los cinco municipios y nos dicen “tenemos que hacer nuevos productos” (...) entonces el esfuerzo ahí está, lo que falta a veces es lo económico .	- We have talked about creating new products in each municipality and we have talked about it in the Senda de Colores where the 5 municipalities are and they tell us that we have to create new products” (...) the effort is there but what lacks sometimes is the funding.
P5 Infra-structures and services	Q124	C7 Public Sector	- Se ha trabajado en el aspecto del mejoramiento de imagen urbana , del centro histórico de la ciudad, de la pintura uniforme, se esta trabajando el pavimento estampado de las calles, reordenamiento del comercio, se está tratando de ubicar al comercio ambulante en plazas de artesanías en donde puedan ellos expender sus productos, se trabajó en un proyecto de expendio de dulces típicos regionales en donde el ayuntamiento le donó a las vendedoras de dulces un mueble decorado con la pintura de laca que es la pintura tradicional. Se trabaja en el reordenamiento del transporte el primer cuadro de la ciudad (...) Es un trabajo que se está realizando coordinadamente con la policía de turismo, con la delegación de tránsito de que debemos darle suma prioridad a los autobuses de turismo.	- Work has been done in the improvement of the urban image, the historical center of the town , the homogeneous paint, the colorful street paving, the retail reorganization we are trying to relocate the street vending in a craft square where they can show their products we worked on a Project where the sellers of the typical regional sweets, were given special decorated furniture with a traditional paint which represents the traditional craftsmanship. We are currently working in the reorganization of public transport (...) This is being carried out in collaboration with the city’s tourism police and the transport authorities in order to give priority to tourist buses.
	Q125	C12 Public Sector	- Chiapa de Corzo a partir del 2008 que tú viniste, si te puedes dar cuenta, hoy la plaza ya está limpia , ya no hay vendedores ambulantes, ya no hay juegos mecánicos, se quitó todo, ahora la plaza es hermosa, limpia; los estacionamientos veías que había un conglomerado de autobuses, no lo hay (...) Y eso fue parte de la recomendación del programa y obviamente también la cuestión de la creación para pueblos mágicos (...) Ya, inclusive la imagen urbana, basada en esa visita, se cambió mucho , la modificación de colores, se está haciendo la remodelación de calles.	- Chiapa de Corzo has changed since 2008 when you were here, the square is clean there are no street vendors, no game machines, everything was removed now the square is beautiful and clean there was a traffic congestion due to the buses which is not there any more(...) and that was part of the recommendation of the program as well as the question of the creation of Pueblos Mágicos (...) The urban image changed a lot based on your visit , the colour change, street renovation.
	Q126	C11 Private Sector	- Los camiones en la plaza por ejemplo (...) Se logró y se sacó los camiones con las observaciones que ustedes hicieron . O sea, sí se ha venido trabajando realmente.	The buses in the square for example (...) We succeeded in removing them thanks to your recommendations . Thus we have been working on it really

**Table 7.4.3 - Examples of direct impacts (DI) of the program
UNWTO.Volunteers in Chiapa de Corzo**

DI	Q. Quotati on	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Increase in new tourism investments	Q127	C7, Public sector	- (...) la misma gente de Chiapa de Corzo le está apostando a la inversión. Precisamente este domingo 24 de Agosto se inaugura una posada de nueve habitaciones. Entonces anteriormente la gente tenía miedo de invertirle, no había una garantía de que ibas a vender tu producto (...) Entonces siento yo que la llegada de la OMT sirvió como detonante para poder ir creciendo turisticamente.	- (...) the people of Chiapa de Corzo is betting on investment. In fact, on this very Sunday 24 August we are inaugurating a new inn with 9 rooms. Before people were afraid of investing, there was no guarantee that you would sell your product (...) I feel that the arrival of the WTO was the spark that allowed us to grow from a touristic point of view.
	Q128	C2, Priv. Sector	- (...) Entonces la inversión que ahorita estoy haciendo sí es bastante (...) pero yo pienso que va a valer la pena porque Chiapa de Corzo ha progresado mucho desde 2008.	- (...) The investment that I am doing is considerable (...) but I think is worthwhile because Chiapa de Corzo has progressed a lot since 2008.
Classification of Chiapa de Corzo as Pueblo Mágico	Q129	C10, Priv. Sector	- Hasta nos ha servido como bandera para lo de Pueblo Mágico. Sí porque de ahí partió todo, de ahí partió casi todo, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, sí, ya vamos tres cuatro años con esto (...) de muchas cosas que ustedes nos dejaron lo integramos al expediente [proceso de Pueblos Mágicos]. (...) nos han felicitado, no nos han dado todavía el nombramiento y de la Secretaria de Turismo nos dicen que es uno de los expedientes más completos.	-It has been useful to act as a flagship for the Pueblo Mágico classification. It all started from there, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011 it has been 4 years with the project already. We integrated into the dossier many things that you left with us (Pueblos Mágicos process). Although we still not have the classification officially They have congratulated us from the secretary of Tourism board saying that it is one of the most complete dossier they have received.
	Q130	C5, Priv. Sector	- Sí se está dando el proceso y esto se ve a raíz a que también en ese momento que ustedes venían nosotros estábamos empezando a trabajar con lo de Pueblo Mágico. Y ahorita estamos a unos pasos que nos den la declaratoria de Pueblo Mágico (...).	- The dossier is moving on since you arrived although we had already started with the process before. Now we are just a few steps away from achieving the status of Pueblo Mágico (...).
Increase in	Q131	C7, Public Sector	-Fíjate que sucede un factor muy importante: se incrementa el turismo y pernocta ya en Chiapa.	- Look at an important fact: tourism is on the rise and people are staying overnight in Chiapa.

DI	Q. Quotation	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
	Q132	C12, Public Sector	- Yo creo que ahorita tenemos una capacidad en Chiapa de Corzo muy importante . Ya tenemos como 1 día de pernocta, cuando tú viniste teníamos como 0,4 o 0,5, entonces ahorita ya tenemos las pernoctas un poquito más dirigidas en 1 día, vamos avanzando más. No te voy a mentir, cuesta mucho, porque Tuxtla Gutiérrez y San Cristóbal son dos puntos muy importantes que nos dejan en medio pero ya estamos teniendo nuestra propia personalidad (...)	- I think that we actually have a very important capacity in Chiapa de Corzo . We have 1 day stay and when you came it was 0,4 or 0,5 things are geared towards the 1 day stay therefore we have improved. I am not going to lie to you it is hard because Tuxtla Gutiérrez and San Cristóbal are two major destinations that leave us in the middle but we are nevertheless creating our own personality (...)
	Q133	C11, Priv. sector	- (...) si ha habido un mayor número de gente que nos ha estado visitando a raíz de esa temporada , que ya venía aumentado por la misma fuerza, que ya estaba, pero no tanto (...) eso es lo que yo te digo, el fomentar un 20 a un 40% tus ventas en temporada baja va ayudar mucho a que en vez de que te quedes a las ocho ya permanezcas hasta las nueve o diez. Ahí es donde tú puedes medir realmente qué tan tangible es un programa como esto . (...) Más tangible todo. Porque hay actores que entraron después, compañeros que entraron después, no saben realmente la historia del proceso que nosotros tenemos. Entonces, los que fundamos todo esto somos pocos y sí hemos visto cómo se ha mejorado todo esto .	- (...) There has been a greater number of people that have visited us because of your season here , It was on the rise anyway but not with the same ímpetus as before. I say increasing you sales from 20% to 40% in low season means that instead of staying until 8 you keep going until 9 or 10. Here is where you can measure the success of such a program . (...) It is the most tangible aspect. There are colleagues that came afterwards and that are not aware of the history of this process. We are part of the few people that started it all and we have really seen how everything improved.

Appendix 7.5 – Selected Quotations related with the *cross-analysis between the Activities and the KT&LE*

Note: the complementary quotations omitted but signaled in Chapter 7 are shadowed in gray in the respective tables bellow.

Table 7.5.1 - Selected Quotations related with cross-analysis between the Activities and the KT&LE

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q136	V2, Volunteer	- <i>En el grupo había muchos tipos de personas que aportaban cosas muy diferentes (...) o sea, había perfiles de antropólogos, había muchos perfiles que aportaban mucho.</i>	- <i>There were many different people within the group that contributed in many different things (...)</i> that is there were many different backgrounds such as anthropologists that contributed a lot.
Q137	V1, Volunteer	- (...) <i>yo creo que lo han mejorado, pues ahí había gente con conocimientos muy dispares, con conocimiento turístico pero sin conocimiento de cooperación y gente muy buena en cooperación, pero que en turismo no tenían ni idea (...) Para mi la principal utilidad que tuvo ese curso es que a la hora de seleccionar voluntarios a ellos les permite conocer las personas y les permitió formar equipos que se complementasen bien.</i>	- (...) <i>I think that it has been improved since there were a lot of people with different knowledge backgrounds such as tourism but without cooperation experience and good people from cooperation backgrounds but without an idea in tourism (...)</i> To me the main usefulness of the course was that it selected volunteers which complemented each other quite well.
Q138	C4, Civil Society	- <i>Porque la gente, la mayoría fue involucrada solamente en el momento, no fue con anticipación. Conocimiento y tal vez también ¿qué es lo que vienen a efectuar? ¿Qué es lo que vienen a hacer? Y tal vez esa convivencia no solo con uno grupo determinado sino con el consejo completo, para que todos sepamos que es lo que están haciendo, eso es lo que considero que haría falta.</i>	- <i>The majority of people were involved in the last minute, it was not done with anticipation. Knowledge and also what were they trying to achieve? What did they come here to do?</i> There should have been an interaction with the council as well so that everybody knew what was being done. That is what I consider it was missing.
Q139	V1, Volunteer	- (...) <i>Si ellos [actores locales] estuviesen ahí en ese propio trabajo previo yo creo que podrían orientarnos más a nosotros, a dirigir nuestras labores, yo creo que sería importante la participación de esas autoridades locales en todo el proceso de voluntariado no solo en el trabajo que vamos a desarrollar allí en el terreno.</i>	- (...) <i>If They (the local actors) would be in the preliminary work I think they would guide us better in order to conduct our work and it would be important the participation of the local authorities in the whole volunteering process and not just in the work done in the field.</i>

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q140	E3, Consultant	- (...) pero ¿cual seria la alternativa? La alternativa seria ya hacer un curso también con todos los participantes locales que se iban a involucrar, lo cual no siempre es posible, porque tu no tienes ningún control sobre los actores locales (...) yo lo propondría, hacer un taller para los participantes locales, para prepararlos antes de la intervención.	(...) but What is the alternative? The alternative would be to do a course with all the local participants that were involved, which is not always possible because you do not always have control over the local actors (...). I would make a proposal to organize a workshop for them in order to prepare them before the intervention.
Q141	CD4, Civil Society	- El programa que manejan en sí, muy bueno, muy bonito, muy completo (...) Se abarcaron todo lo que es sector gobierno, iniciativa privada, todo. Se vio qué había, se analizó qué hacía falta, sugirieron, sobre todo, gente experta (...) Que fue un trabajo que desde mi punto de vista fue muy valioso, con información verdadera. A detalle, se puede trabajar muy bien sobre eso (...) se entrevistó a muchísima gente.	- The program that was organised was good, nice and very complete (...) Everything ranging from the Government to the private sector was covered. The situation was diagnosed and the needs were pointed out and there followed suggestions by experts (...) From point of view it was a valuable work done with reliable information. With enough detail you can work well (...) a lot of people were interviewed.
Q142	P3, Public Sector	- No estaban nada más enfocados que la fuente del problema fuera un solo factor (...) Y se involucraron, caminaron, como decimos por acá, “caminaron”, platicaron con guías, con hoteleros, con gente del aeropuerto, estuvieron en las comunidades indígenas, se reunieron con el secretario de turismo, estuvieron con los presidentes municipales, mesas de trabajo que realizamos con instituciones educativas, muchas entrevistas (...)	- They were not just focused on one source of the problem (...) they got involved and walked (went out there) as we say over here, talked to guides, with hotel owners, airport employees, they were in the indigenous communities, had meetings with the secretary of tourism, mayors. Workshops were carried out with education institutions, many interviews (...)
Q143	C5, Priv. Sector	- (...) esa visita realmente vino a ayudar muchísimo para que nosotros nos diéramos cuenta en qué teníamos que trabajar, qué teníamos que mantener, porque hay cosas que nosotros vemos que es algo normal (...) Sin embargo eso que vienen ustedes y nos lo dicen, para nosotros es decir “hay que cuidar eso también”.	- (...) that visit really helped a lot so that we would realize what work had to be done, what to keep because there are things that we take for granted (...) However you came and told us that “we have to take care of that aspect as well”
Q144	T5, Priv. Sector	- Ustedes detectaban muy bien cuál era el potencial, o sea, qué rutas realmente no podían tocarse o no se podían abarcar. Estudiaban ustedes las líneas aéreas, o sea, todo los accesos, la transportación, la infraestructura, con qué se contaba, qué hacía falta, la capacitación, la inversión que había que hacer en carreteras, en toda la infraestructura turística, y el involucramiento de la comunidad para que lo tomara como suyo (...)	- You pointed out what the potential was, that is, what routes could be touched upon and which ones were to be left alone. You studied the airlines, I mean all access, transportation, infrastructures, what we had, capacity building, investment needed on roads on all the tourist infrastructure and the involvement of the community so they would feel part of it all (...)

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q145	E1, Consultant	- (...) el voluntariado es una cuestión de imagen que ayuda pero los expertos, por ejemplo, que van ahí con su experiencia internacional y con los talleres, en lo mínimo les despiertas, los haces ver las cosas desde una visión que ellos jamás han tenido, y para mi eso es importantísimo porque <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> les puedes cambiar la dirección y posicionar (...) entonces eso para mi es clave, o sea al nivel de pensamiento, reflexión y dinamización es muy importante.	- (...) volunteering is a question of image which helps but the experts, for example, they go around with all their international experience and at least they awaken with the workshops, you make them see something they have never seen before and that is extremely important because you can change the direction they were going and position themselves accordingly (...) that for me is the key, at the level of thought, reflection and encouragement. It is important.
Q146	CD2, Public Sector	- (...) Yo tenía esa esperanza porque dices, estamos varios especialistas, arqueólogos, historiadores, antropólogos, intercambiando esta información de cómo vemos el turismo (...) entonces dices, “ojala haya este tipo de talleres para que en el futuro podamos intercambiar esas perspectivas.	- (...) I had that hope because you say to yourself, we were various experts, archaeologists, historians, anthropologists, all exchanging this information of how we see tourism (...) then you say “ let´s hope we have these kind of workshops in the future so we can Exchange these types of perspectives.
Q147	S6, Priv. Sector	- El taller fue muy interesante, hubo mucha apertura, se tomaron notas interesantes (...) recuerdo que hubo una especie de debate donde se pusieron en la mesa la problemática del sector turístico y se debatió y se hicieron muy interesantes aportaciones.	- The workshop was very interesting, there was a lot of openness, interesting notes were taken (...) I remember there was a type of debate where the problems of the tourism sector were put on the table and interesting ideas were put forward.
Q148	E3, Consultant	- (...) en el trabajo de campo la interacciones excelente, es muy intensa, va al detalle, esta muy bien estructurada (...) pero ahí parece que llegáramos a un clímax y de repente ya se apagó todo, pero también con los actores locales, no se mantiene esa interacción después de terminado el trabajo de campo (...) Esa es la parte que yo siento más débil del programa.	- (...) in the field interaction was excellent, intense and detailed, well structured (...) and then you reach the climax and suddenly everything is erased, also with the local actors, the interaction does not go on after the field work is concluded (...) I think that is the weakness of the program.
Q149	V1, Volunteer	- Yo creo que durante sí, seguro, porque te pones de acuerdo en común, ellos se ven formando la parte de un equipo, se genera esa conciencia de grupo, no solo es los de Palenque contra los de Tuxtla. Son todos los de Chiapas dentro de un programa (...)	- I believe that there was (interaction between the different actors) during the program because you reach agreements together, they see themselves as being part of a team and this generates a group feeling. It isn´t about the guys from Palenque against the ones from Tuxtla but about everybody from Chiapas being part of one single project (...)

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q150	C8, Public Sector	- (...) <i>Aprendimos mucho de ellos, sobre todo gente con la experiencia, con mucha capacidad en este tipo de situaciones y nosotros sí nuestro interés era también no solo la evaluación sino también adquirir la experiencia de ellos porque a mí me tocó caminar con ellos y (...) preguntar cómo veían esto, cómo veían lo otro y el ir interactuando en esta situación y a la vez pues ir aprendiendo.</i>	- (...) <i>We learnt much from them, above all with Experience and much ability to deal in these type of situations and our interest was not just the assessment but also to acquire the experience they had because I went along with them (...)and ask them how they saw this and that and interact in each situation and learn from it.</i>
Q151	C10, Priv. Sector	- <i>Fue un proceso adecuado. Sí porque fueron facilitadores ustedes en todo el proceso. No hubo imposición, si nos dejaron que la gente hablara, expresara lo que tenía que decir.</i>	- <i>It was a proper process. Because you facilitated the whole process. There were no impositions, on the contrary you allowed everybody to talk and express what they had to say.</i>
152	S8, Civil Society	- <i>A mi manera de ver fue más como para empresarios y se involucró muy poca gente de la comunidad. Pienso que se le olvidó haber involucrado más gente que está directamente con el turismo, mas no aquellos que ofrecen paquetes turístico o reciben turismo.</i>	- <i>From my point of view it was more geared towards businessmen and few people from the community were involved. I think they forgot about involving more people specifically from the tourism sector, not just those who offer tourist packages or welcome tourists.</i>
153	S1, Priv. Sector	- (...) <i>considero que las comunidades indígenas tienen un potencial importantísimo para poder desarrollar (...) entonces sí, se olvidaron un poco de todo eso (...) El caso concreto, pongamos, el Arcotete [comunidad indígena]. Si hubiesen ido a conocerlo pudiesen haber dicho, “aquí se puede detonar esto, esto y esto”. Nosotros eso sí lo visualizamos, un grupo de gente de empresarios, de caminar de la mano iniciativa privada con comunidades indígenas.</i>	- (...) <i>I consider that the indigenous communities have an extremely important potential to be developed (...)They forgot a little bit about that (...) To be specific let´s say Arcotete (indigenous community) If they had gone and know them they would have said “ we can spark this, this and this ”We can foresee that a group of businessmen walking hand in hand with the private sector and indigenous communities.</i>
Q154	E2, consultant	- (...) <i>la vida turística de Chiapas pues está en las comunidades (...) y tú llegabas a San Cristóbal y ¿quienes eran los interlocutores o los actores que participaban? El dueño del mejor hotel, el dueño del restaurante más lujoso, los de la Asociación de Hoteles, los guías de turistas, pero no había esta participación de las empresas ejidales o comunitarias que podrían ser muy bien beneficiadas en este tipo de proyectos y que seguramente estarían más abiertos a las sugerencias y comentarios que hiciera el grupo (...) el trabajo debió haber sido de desarrollo de productos con las comunidades.</i>	- (...) <i>tourist life in Chiapas is all about the communities (...) and when you arrived at San Cristóbal who were the spokesmen or participating actors? The owner of the best hotel, the most luxurious restaurant, the hotel association the tourist guides but there was no participation from the communal land companies or the communities who could greatly benefit from this type of projects and would certainly be more open to suggestions and comments from the group (...) The work should have been about the development of the products within the communities.</i>

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q155	V3, Volunteer	- Yo creo que lo que quieren, sobre todo el gobierno del estado de Chiapas, quieren que los resultados sean así, y quizás por esa razón invitan a ciertos sectores, pero no funciona, ya se sabe que así no funciona. Tiene que ser un número mayor de participantes, sobre todo si vienen de distintos organismos eso también enriquece (...) faltaron, por ejemplo, las sociedades cooperativas que, en realidad, no vimos que participaran, con excepción del caso que hicimos la entrevista en el chillón o el museo de medicina maya, pero no hubo más. Por ejemplo, dónde estaban los artesanos? no se vieron (...)	- I believe that what they want, above all the federal state of Chiapas is that the results would be left as they are and that is why they invite certain sectors but it does not work that way and it is common knowledge that it does not work. There has to be greater number of people involved specially if they originate from different bodies it is also more enriching (...) The cooperatives were missing for example , in reality we did not see them taking part with the sole exception of the interview in Chidlón or the museum for Mayan medicine and that was the end of that. For example where were the craftsmen ? we did not see them (...)
Q156	E2, Consultant	- (...) Yo creo que más tiene que ver con dos cosas. La primera es, los gobiernos normalmente no involucran a esta gente, porque como tienen tantas carencias, seguro va haber muchos planteamientos, va haber muchas quejas, entonces te van a complicar; y segundo, y esto me parece lo más fuerte, porque el trabajo comunitario no se puede hacer en tres semanas que dura el proyecto de los voluntarios. El trabajo comunitario es un trabajo de todos los días, de cultivar la relación, de hacer que la gente empiece a tener la confianza. Y me parece que el programa de voluntarios, así como está diseñado, difícilmente podría ser.	- (...) I believe that it has to do with two things. The first one is that governments usually do not get people involved because they believe we have our shortcomings, many different reasonings and complaints may arise and therefore things will tend to complicate and secondly and most serious of all because the community work cannot be done in three weeks which is the duration of the volunteer program. Community work is an everyday thing where you nourish the relationship and where you begin to build people's trust. It seems to me that the way the program is designed this will be difficult to achieve.
Q157	V3, Volunteer	- (...) ni siquiera visitamos universidades y nunca vimos las universidades que ofrecen carreras de turismo y deberían estar. Para mí tienen que ser y es muy importante porque son las responsables en la formación de recursos humanos (...)	- (...) We did not even visit universities and we never saw the universities with tourism degrees and we should have been part of it. They have to be part of it, it is extremely important since they are responsible in the human resource training (...)
Q158	E3, Consultant	- Si yo vi que había por ejemplo un montón de cartas para los talleres y llegaban unos diez, pero eso es normal en nuestros países, "si tengo otra cosa que hacer y me están invitando a un taller que a mejor no tengo bien claro para que sirve no voy", a lo mejor también se debería enfatizar con los gobiernos locales que al organizar las invitaciones que haya una representación significativa de la sociedad civil.	- I saw that for example there was a lot of letters for the workshops and ten would arrive, but this is normal for our countries "if I have something else to do and they are inviting me for a workshop which is not clear to me it is not worth going" Maybe there should be more emphasis placed on the local government in terms of organising the invitations so that there is a significant presence of the civil society.

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q159	S1, Priv. Sector	- (...) son los territorios que se tienen que tomar en cuenta forzosamente porque son las cabeceras municipales. Yo creo que sí es como que analizar uno por uno, los 118 municipios que tiene Chiapas para ver cuál es apto y cuál no es apto y cuál tiene potencial para poder desarrollarse turísticamente.	- (...) Those are the areas that have to be taken into account because they are the head of the municipality. Each one of the 118 municipalities that Chiapas has should be analyzed individually to see who is apt and which not and which one has the potential to develop in tourist terms.
Q160	V1, Volunteer	- La distancia entre los territorios involucrados era un problema (...) tienes que conjugar el trabajar con los territorios que realmente lo necesitan y que realmente tienen un potencial con otros territorios que, claro, se quieren sumar a los éxitos del proyecto pero que a lo mejor están en niveles de desarrollo turístico distintos.	- The distance between the areas involved was a problem (...) you have to combine the work among the areas which really need it and have a potential with others that of course want to be a part of the success of the program but maybe do not have the same tourist development levels as the others.
Q161	E2, Consultant	- (...) difícilmente se puede hacer un plan de desarrollo turístico para nadie con un trabajo previo de gabinete de cuatro semanas y tres semanas de campo. Muy difícil.	- (...) You can hardly set up a tourist development plan for anybody with just 4 weeks of previous office work and three weeks of fieldwork. Very hard.
Q162	V3, Volunteer	- (...) hay que alargar el tiempo, en lugar de dos semanas, cuatro semanas, pero hacer las entrevistas a profundidad y quizás, no a cualquier persona (...) y hay que ser más incluyentes, es que no da para mucho más. ¿Por qué? Porque implica que los voluntarios puedan dejar su trabajo tres semanas o un mes, para venir aquí, es muy complicado (...)	- (...) you have to extend the time frame. Instead of two weeks of interviews, four weeks would be better but with more in depth and not just with anybody (...) we have to be more inclusive because there is no time for much more. Why? Because when the volunteers come they have to leave their own jobs for 3 weeks or a month. It is complicated.
Q163	T7, Public Sector	- (...) ahí es donde se da toda esa sinergia con el liderazgo de la Dirección de Turismo Municipal de Tuxtla se hacen todas esas gestiones con el aval del gobierno estatal y el gobierno federal. Comenzamos a trabajar (...)	- (...) that is where you find all that synergy with the leaders of the Municipal tourist Board of Tuxtla. All the proceedings are backed by the State Government and the federal one. Work starts straight away (...)
Q164	E2, Consultant	- (...) el alcalde, en el caso de Chiapa de Corzo asumió muy bien el proyecto. Yo creo que de todos los alcaldes de los cinco municipios que están involucrados, el que mejor tomó el tema fue él, el de Chiapa de Corzo. Prueba de ello es que su gente de turismo sigue trabajando en turismo, siguen y le dan continuidad a las cosas.	- (...) In the case of Chiapa de Corzo, the mayor assumed his role in the Project. I believe that of all mayors in the five municipalities that were involved he was the one that better took the reins of the process. Proof of that is the fact that the tourist employees are still working and continue to make things happen.

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q165	S8, Public Sector	- <i>Yo como empleado y que me tocó atenderlos, yo estaba, no con la presión, sino con la pena. Yo le decía a mi jefe, “oye, pero es que no es posible, ese es un trabajo muy importante que están haciendo y en Tuxtla les dieron esto, y le consiguieron esto (...) no es posible que esta gente venga, no está cobrando ni uno solo peso, y (...)”.</i>	- <i>As an employee responsible for looking after them I was not under pressure but with pity. I said to my boss “listen, it is not possible it is a very important job they are doing and in Tuxtla they got this and achieved this(...) it is not possible that this people come and not receive a single dollar (...)</i>
Q166	CD7, Public Sector	- <i>Con nuestro presidente municipal, no pues no le importaba (...) entonces, haces una reunión, necesitas dinero, necesitas que te den para pues dar un coffee break o alguna cosa pero ya no les interesaba nada, ya todo tenía que salir de la bolsa de uno. Sí hubo mucha desinformación (...) Yo encontré mucho, mucho problema.</i>	- <i>Our mayor did not care (...) Then you set up a meeting, you need the money, you need something for at least a coffee break or something but they were not interested, each one had to contribute from our own pockets. There was a lot of misinformation (...) I found many, many problems.</i>
Q167	V2, Volunteer	- (...) <i>Nosotros llegamos a Palenque y no teníamos idea a quién teníamos que entrevistar, cómo estaba el ambiente, si era hostil o si no era hostil. Era muy hostil (...) y tuvimos que cambiar completamente lo que pensábamos que teníamos que hacer (...) el programa a principio nació para un territorio en concreto y luego se amplió entonces los que entraran después ya no estaban en la misma sintonía.</i>	- (...) <i>When we arrived at Palenque we had no idea who to interview or what was the atmosphere like, if it was a hostile environment or not. It was very hostile (...) we had to change completely what we wanted to do (...) at the beginning the program started for a specific area and then it was expanded to others but the new arrivals were not in tune.</i>
Q168	E3, Consultant	- (...) <i>se ha buscado mejorar el compromiso de todas las instituciones tanto gubernamentales, como empresariales y educativas dentro de los destinos que han solicitado el proyecto (...) tuvimos reuniones previas, tanto con empresarios, como con cooperativas, como con los municipios y inclusive con los presidentes municipales, para que cuando llegara el grupo estuviéramos todos muy bien informados de que se trataba, las agendas que se iban a tener...</i>	- (...) <i>We have striven to improve the commitment from all the institutions including from the government ones to the companies and the educational ones within the ones that applied for the project (...) we had preparatory meetings with businessmen, cooperatives, and the municipalities and even the mayors so that when the group arrived everybody would have been previously informed about what was it all about and the schedules to be had (...)</i>

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q169	E3, Consultant	- (...) yo diría que podría hacerse más en términos de compromiso de la entidad local demandante. Podría ponerse dentro de las cláusulas en que se establece lo que se requiere de la entidad local, ahí se podría pedir esto. ☒(...) El compromiso varia, de lugar a lugar, de municipio a municipio (...) creo que eso es un trabajo muy operativo, muy de detalle, muy del día a día, que es casi 24 horas checkando todos los aspectos para que todo salga bien. Hubo detalles de logísticas muy significantes, pero que pueden hacer una diferencia en el nivel de participación.	- (...) I would say that more could be done in terms of commitment from the local participating agency. It can be written down in the contract the obligations of the local entity, we could ask to be done in the future (...) The commitment varies from place to place, from municipality to municipality (...) I believe it is a very operational work, very detailed one and it is carried out on a daily basis which almost involves checking every aspect 24 hours a day so that everything works out. There were logistical parts that were very significant but can have enormous influence at the participation level.
Q170	E2, Consultant	- El trabajo se hizo con los actores que invitó el gobierno a participar. No quiero decir que así sea, pero se me ocurre pensar que el gobierno no invita a aquellos actores que pueden provocar un conflicto , que sean más críticos (...)	-The job was done with all actors that the government invited to participate. I do not mean that it has to be this way but it occurs to me that the government does not invite those actors that may create conflict or be more critical (...)

Appendix 7.6 – Selected Quotations related with the *cross-analysis between the Outputs and the KT&LE*

Note: the complementary quotations omitted but signaled in Chapter 7 are shadowed in gray in the respective tables bellow.

Table 7.6.1 - Selected Quotations related with cross-analysis between the Outputs and the KT&LE

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q171	C11, Priv. Sector	<p>- (...) <i>percibí los resultados que nos mandaron. Es algo como que, has de cuenta, que tú sabes pero que no quieres saber. Si lo sabes y todo mundo lo sabe pero no lo quiere ver (...) el trabajo que hicieron ellos [OMT] fue identificar, bueno, fue un análisis de DAFO que yo lo veo así, cuáles son tus fortalezas, tus debilidades, aunque no te guste pues esto es lo que tienes que mejorar y cosas que ya sabíamos pero que no lo queríamos ver, están ahí presentes y se manifestaron en ese documento y fue algo que realmente no nosotros no lo hicimos, sino vinieron expertos de fuera. Es otro impacto mayor que te vengan a decir la verdad [risas].</i></p>	<p>- (...) <i>I understood the results that were sent. It is something that you know but you don't want to know. Yeah you already know about it but does not want to see it (...) the work that was carried out by the WTO was to identify, well, do a SWOT analysis which the strengths and weaknesses. Even if you don't like it certain things must be improved and some things we knew but we did not want to see, they are there and they came to the surface in this document. We did not make it happen but the experts that came from outside did. It has another impact when somebody from the outside tells you the truth [laughs]</i></p>
Q172	C11, Priv. Sector	<p>- <i>Y después es un documento que no lo estás diciendo tú, es una metodología que trae, es un instrumento que te dice "metodológicamente esto es lo que está pasando, no estoy yo llegando y no es lo que yo pienso o lo que pensamos ciertas personas", si no ya es un trabajo metodológico, es una investigación, tiene una fuerza. ¿Por qué? medible, comprobable y tiene todo lo que tiene que tener.</i></p>	<p>- <i>It is a document which is not being drafted by one's self, it involves methodology a tool that says "this is what is happening methodologically and I do not grasp it and is not about what I think or certain people think" but it is about a methodological work, research, it has strength, why? because it is measurable, verifiable and has everything it has to have.</i></p>
Q173	C7, Public Sector	<p>- <i>Siento que las observaciones que nos dejaron fueron importantes, porque eran actividades o acciones que teníamos que emprender para mejorar algunos centros, entonces el reporte final de la OMT fue interesante para que nosotros también viéramos en que estamos fallando y que teníamos que hacer.</i></p>	<p>- <i>I feel the observations they left were important because they were activities or actions that we had to take in order to improve some centers. Then the final report by the WTO was interesting so we could see what our shortfalls were and what we had to do.</i></p>

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q174	C12, Public Sector	<p>- Yo creo que toda esta labor que ustedes hacen de venir a visitarnos, analizar y de tratar de dar las fórmulas, digamos que no son las fórmulas mágicas pero sí nos ayuda mucho.</p> <p>Nos ayuda mucho porque nos ayudan a crear conciencia. A integramos. Yo no puedo venir con mi verdad porque mi verdad no es la única (...) son diferentes mundos y todos esos mundos los tenemos que integrar en un solo producto y eso es lo que estamos haciendo.</p>	<p>- I think the job you did when you visited us, to analyse and try and give us the formulas, let's say that they are not the magic formulas but it helps a great deal. It helps because it contributes to become aware, to integrate. I cannot arrive with my truth because my truth is not the only one (...) they are different worlds and they all have to be integrated into one product and that is what we are doing.</p>
Q175	S2, Civil Society	<p>- (...) creemos que se quedó incompleto porque la devolución hubiera sido importante para entonces saber, bueno, ya que teníamos esa ruta crítica de alguna manera, por dónde empezar, y nunca se hizo la devolución y el trabajo quedó cortado. Muchos, los hoteleros sobre todo, siguieron en algunas cosas pero ya no como una organización amplia, porque tiene que estar involucrada la ciudadanía, las otras organizaciones sociales (...) se devolvió al municipio y ya ahí se quedó (...)</p>	<p>- We believe it was incomplete because the delivery (of the report) would have been important to know which way to follow once the critical route had been planned. The delivery did not take place and the work was truncated. Many people, hotel owners above all, did follow some things but not as widely organized once that the civil society and other social entities have to be involved (...) the report was given to the municipality and that was that (...)</p>
Q176	P1, Priv. Sector	<p>- Pues el informe final (...) me encantaría tenerlo (...) que se invite nuevamente a las autoridades y bueno, y ellos dirían qué se puede hacer o en base al informe de ustedes, qué decisión tomaran también. Cómo saber de qué manera poder participar (...)</p>	<p>- I would love to have (...) the final report (...) and for the authorities to be invited once more and well they can say what to do based on the report and the decisions that they will take. How we can be involved (...)</p>
Q177	CD2, Public Sector	<p>- Si realmente nosotros conociéramos el informe, a lo mejor te hubiera dicho "yo creo que puedo contribuir con un granito de arena en específico" que puede ser desde talleres, cuestiones educativas, a lo mejor, participación en la radio, televisión, hacer foros académicos (...)</p>	<p>- If we really knew the report maybe I would have said "I think I can contribute with my particular grain of sand" that can range from workshops educational issues to participation on radio, television, academic fora (...)</p>
Q178	T1, Priv. Sector	<p>- Sí, porque yo leí el estudio y pues sí (...) y pues de ahí dijimos, pues también influyó a todos los cambios que ahora sí estamos haciendo. Yo considero que sí (...) Sí, mandaron, bueno, a todas las dependencias nos hicieron llegar un informe de todo lo que observaron durante todo lo que hicieron.</p>	<p>- Yes I did read the study and (...) we concluded that it had an influence on all the changes that we are making. I consider it (...) They sent the report to all departments which included all they observed during their time here.</p>

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q179	T8, Priv. Sector	- (...) nosotros hacemos una reunión como asociación de hoteleros una vez al mes (...) la mayoría de los socios comentaron que no tenían conocimiento, pero sí tuvieron conocimiento de que algo vino a hacer la OMT porque salió en los periódicos, pero más a fondo no.	- (...) We have a meeting with the hotel association once a month (...) the majority of the partners commented that they had no knowledge. They did know that the WTO came and did something because it was in the newspapers but they didn't know anything more profound.
Q180	T5, Priv. Sector	- (...) Se puede retomar en cualquier momento porque las condiciones están. El diagnóstico está hecho. Pero lo que me parece también es que, no hubo como una comunicación de las conclusiones a todos los actores por lo menos que fueron involucrados, a la comunidad.	- (...) It can be reactivated at any moment because the conditions are there. The diagnostic is done. But what I think is that there was no information about the conclusions reached by the study to all the actors involved, the community
Q181	C7, Public Sector	- Detonó mucho el proceso, sobre todo las conclusiones cuando se dieron en Tuxtla, como que involucró a mucha gente de la sociedad, prestadores de servicio, eso sirvió para que esto empezara a dar buenos resultados y siento que, con esa llegada de ustedes, el gobernador retomó las ideas.	- The process served as the trigger, specially when the conclusions were presented in Tuxtla and the way the community was involved as well as service providers which served towards the good results and I feel that with your arrival the Governor moved the ideas once more.
Q182	C5, Priv. Sector	- Útil sí porque hubo todo un trabajo que se reconoce que hicieron en beneficio a su trabajo (...) no lo conocemos al 100% porque nada más presentaron unas partes (...) debemos de conocer más a fondo este trabajo.	- It was useful because your work is widely recognized (...) we do not know it 100% because only certain parts were presented (...) we should know this work in more detail.
Q183	S4, Priv. Sector	- (...) muchos no saben lo que son los famosos "clusters". Yo mandé al nuevo presidente de CANIRAC a recibir el cierre o la información que se hizo y llegan y me dicen "Es que son puras tarugadas" "What?, no esperate" ¿Por qué? Porque no entendía de qué le estaban hablando, ¿por qué? Porque nunca participó en eso, en las mesas de trabajo en todo lo que se hizo y eso pasó con todos, no sólo con un cierto grupo empresarial sino todos los demás grupos empresariales, como son rotativos los presidentes, también pasa eso.	-) many people do not know what the famous clusters are. I sent the conclusions or information that was prepared to the new president of CANIRAC and they responded - This is just nonsense". - What? Wait. Why? He simply did not know what they were talking about. Why? Because he never participated in anything, in the round tables or anything else and that happened to everybody and not just with certain economic groups but with all the rest as well. That is what happens when the presidency is a rotating one.

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q184	V3, Volunteer	- <i>Tendría que venir otro grupo de voluntarios para que vengan a decir “ya está el plan, hay que hacerlo así”. Pero claro, ese grupo de voluntarios no está incluido en el paquete que tiene la OMT. Él dice, “te ayudamos a preparar, te dejamos el documento y ejecútalo”. Entonces yo creo que, a lo mejor, sí la OMT puede ser un poco más coercitiva, en decir, “hay que hacerlo, ejecútenlo, llévenlo a cabo, hay que monitorear”. Yo creo que eso no lo hace. Entrega el documento, ahí terminó su compromiso.</i>	- <i>Another group of volunteers would have to come and say “the strategy is this set let’s carry it out this way”. But of course that this group of volunteers is not included in the package from the WTO. They say “we help you prepare, we leave you the document and then execute it” The WTO should be more forceful by saying “you have to do it, carry it out, monitor it” and they do not do that, They deliver the document and their involvement is over.</i>
Q185	P1, Priv. Sector	- <i>(...) de alguna manera sí se pudiera que ustedes a nosotros nos informaran, cuál es el resultado final y qué podemos hacer para que las autoridades le den un seguimiento. Nosotros tenemos que hacer algo a través de ustedes o juntos con ustedes pues es interesante.</i>	- <i>somehow if we could be informed by you, the final result and what we can do so that the authorities can do the follow up. It would be interesting to do something through to you or together.</i>
Q186	S5, Public Sector	- <i>(...) cuando terminaron ustedes de aquí que se fueron y regresaron para dar el informe, siento que se estaban tardando, pero bueno, así explicaron que era el proceso un poco tardado</i>	- <i>(...) When you finished and left and then came back to hand in the report I felt you were delaying things but then you explained that it was a long process.</i>
Q187	V3, Volunteer	- <i>Yo creo que cuando se terminó el programa y quedaron las autoridades locales, tengo una percepción de que no estaban suficientemente dotados de conocimientos para darle continuidad a lo que había sucedido. Y eso está muy claro. Lo que dijeron: “después nos quedamos al aire, no sabemos qué pasó, hasta que pasó meses y meses llegó el resultado.</i>	- <i>I think that when the Project was over and the only thing left were the local authorities I felt they were not sufficiently prepared in terms of know how to continue with what had happened. It is very clear. They said: We were left in the open, we do not know what happened after a few months when the results came.</i>
Q188	C7, Public Sector	- <i>(...) a lo mejor las metas no eran alcanzables en ese tiempo [2008], pero a esas alturas cuando ya conocimos el trabajo de la OMT si (...)</i>	- <i>(...) Maybe the goals were not achievable at that time (2008) but by the time we knew the work of the WTO they definitely were (...)</i>

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q189	P6, Priv. Sector	- <i>Lo que sucede es que yo me quedé esperando que iba a ver un resultado del análisis que hicieron y realmente no sé si lo hicieron llegar a las autoridades, porque en mi caso desconozco (...) Nunca más. Yo, en 2009 todavía estaba participando dentro de la directiva de la Asociación de Hoteles, pero no recibí invitación como Asociación ni como hotelero. Entonces no sé qué se siguió (...)</i>	- <i>What happens is that I was left waiting what the result of the analysis would be, what was done. I really do not know if they delivered it to the authorities, never again. In 2009 I was still participating within the Hotel Association managerial team but I did not receive any invitation not as an association nor as a hotel owner. I do not know what went on afterwards (...)</i>
Q190	CD4, Civil Society	- <i>Sí porque quiero entender que quien recibió el reporte fue el gobierno del estado, es el que debe darle seguimiento en cada ciudad, cada lugar. Nunca vi, nunca escuché nada de eso. Creo que en Tuxtla Gutiérrez o en Chiapa de Corzo, no sé si esto de Senda de Colores se derivó de esto.</i>	- <i>I believe that the State Government received the report and it is up to them to follow it through in each city, each place. I never saw it or heard about it. Maybe in Tuxtla Gutiérrez or Chiapa de Corzo. I do not know whether the Senda de Colores derived from it.</i>
Q191	S4, Priv. Sector	- <i>No, yo no tengo nada, por correo, no me han notificado nada, desconozco qué pasó. Hasta donde yo estuve trabajando con mesas redondas con el mismo ayuntamiento, con varias gentes que empezaron ese movimiento de competitividad, inclusive yo estuve en la firma en Tuxtla con el gobernador, y cuando se empezaron a definir los clusters y todo eso que nosotros dijimos “aquí vamos a meter esto y vamos a hacer todo esto” hasta ahí estuve (...)</i>	- <i>I do not have anything by post, I have not been notified, I have no idea what happened. I was involved in the round tables with the city council, with various people that started the competitiveness movement, I was even present in the in the signature with the Governor in Tuxtla and when the clusters were starting to be formed and when we said “ we are going to introduce all that and do all this” I was present until then (...)</i>
Q192	CD7, Public Sector	- <i>(...) fijate que iba a ir el presidente municipal, esa vez yo no me enteré, a mí no me invitaron, pero ni el presidente municipal ni el otro, los que iban a estar ahí, por supuesto no estaban.</i>	- <i>(...) Imagine that even the president of the municipality was going to attend I did not know about it, I was not invited but even the president of the municipality and the other one who were supposed to be there were not there of course.</i>
Q193	S8, Public Sector	- <i>Me hubiera gustado mucho ver el resultado. Lo último que supe fue este programa de Senda de Colores, logré ver un mapa a respecto de ello.</i>	- <i>I would have liked very much to see the result. The last thing I knew was the Senda de Colores program. I managed to see a map about it.</i>
Q194	P2, Public Sector	- <i>(...) a dato personal yo considero que la OMT hizo su trabajo, pero ahora a la hora de entregar el resultado considero que en las direcciones de turismo y en los ayuntamientos quedó nada más en papel y ahí se quedó. Ya no dieron mayor seguimiento.</i>	- <i>(...) on a personal note I think that the WTO did their job but when the moment came to hand over the result to the tourism boards and city councils I believe they just considered it as a piece of paper and it was left like that. They did not follow it through.</i>

Q. Quot.	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q195	T3, Public Sector	- (...) fue él [coordinador municipal de turismo] que tuvo la iniciativa de que se hiciera este estudio y él lo presentó (...) informó qué se iba a hacer y para qué. Y también fue informando en las siguientes sesiones del consejo y además en la asociación de hoteles que tiene una reunión cada mes. También ahí se presentaron los informes de las conclusiones (...)	(...) it was him (the municipal tourism coordinator) who had the initiative so that the study would be done and it was him who did the presentation(...) and informed what was going to be done and for what purposes. He also kept informing during the following council sessions and to the hotel association who meet once a month. The report with the conclusions was also presented there (...)
Q196	C7, Public Sector	- (...) nosotros estamos trabajando de manera coordinada a través de un consejo consultivo de turismo de desarrollo turístico municipal, en ese consejo consultivo están integrados todos los prestadores (...) Entonces cuando se recibe el reporte final, se hicieron unas mesas de trabajo en donde se le informó a la gente a través de ese consejo consultivo los resultados finales de la OMT y las recomendaciones.	- (...) we are working in a coordinated manner through a advisory tourism board for municipal tourist development and it is on that board that all the service providers are integrated (...) Then we receive the final report and round tables were formed where people were informed, through this advisory board, about the final results of the WTO and its recommendations.
Q197	C4, Civil Society	- Sí se estuvo difundiendo pero te digo, es grande la población y es mucha la gente que debe de tener esa información (...) Pues en las juntas que hemos tenido nos han informado, pero de que nos hayan dicho "esto fue el informe, esto se hizo así y esto se manejó a nivel nacional" no nos han dado la oportunidad de leer o de saber o discutirlo. Nos han informado y punto. Siento que también ha fallado.	- The report circulated but the population is large and many people should have this information (...) In the meetings that we have had we were informed but I would not go as far as saying "this is the report, that is how it was done at a national level" We were not given the opportunity to read, know, or discuss it. We were just told and that was it. I feel it was not successful.
Q198	E2, Consultant	- ¿Cuál era la visión que nosotros teníamos para el documento? (...) Yo, más que un documento muy académico, yo buscaba un documento muy práctico , que los empresarios cuando lo leyeran lo entendieran y lo pudieran llevar a la práctica. Lo que pasa es que después no lo conocieron, se quedó en manos del gobierno. Y el gobierno tampoco entendió el documento así como tal. ¿Qué hubiera hecho falta? Hubiera hecho falta que lo interpretara desde nuestro punto de vista que éramos el grupo de trabajo, que todos compartíamos esa misma visión (...)	- What had we envisaged for the document ? (...) As for myself I was expecting more than just a mere academic document I was looking for a more practical document so that businessmen could take into practice after they had read it and understood it so they could take it into practice. What really happened is that it was not spread it was left in the government's hands. And the government did not understand the document as such. What would have been necessary? For them to interpret it from our point of view since we were the fieldwork team and we all had the same vision (...)

Appendix 7.7 – Selected Quotations related with the *cross-analysis between the Outcomes and the KT&LE*

Note: the complementary quotations omitted but signaled in Chapter 7 are shadowed in gray in the respective tables bellow.

Table 7.7.1 - Selected Quotations related with cross-analysis between the Outcomes and the KT&LE

Q. Quot .	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q199	PI, Priv. Sector	- <i>Y ahí me encantaría tenerlo (...) yo siento que lo importante es que haya alguien interesado en que se le vuelva a dar vida al proyecto porque ya hubo un inicio, ya hubo las primeras base (...) Lo importante es no dejarlo caer y que se olvide (...) pues de alguna manera sí se pudiera que ustedes a nosotros nos informaran, cuál es el resultado final y qué podemos hacer para que las autoridades le den un seguimiento.</i>	- <i>I would love to have it (...) I feel that the important thing is for somebody to be interested and willing to give life back to the project as it was at the beginning at the first phase (...) The important thing is not to let it fall down and let it be forgotten (...) if somehow you could keep us informed of the end result we could make the authorities do the follow up.</i>
Q200	S4, Priv. Sector	- <i>Entonces, por decir algo, como una propuesta, en un momento determinado, es retomar el expediente de inicio, ver quiénes participaron al inicio y hacer mesas redondas a la mejor con los que participaron al final y decir, “¿a ver, qué fue lo que pasó, vamos a reiniciar esto, una reevaluación porque hay mucho trabajo invertido y que tampoco puede quedar tirado ahí”. Para mí eso sería una de las opciones más productivas, en una mesa redonda donde pudiéramos analizar cada punto.</i>	- <i>Then let’s say it is like a proposal, in a given moment, to reinitiate the process from the beginning see who participated and organize round table even with the people that participated at the end and say, “what happened? let’s start over and do a reevaluation because there is a lot of work invested and it cannot be thrown just like that” That would be one of the most productive options a round table where we could analyse each point.</i>

Q. Quot .	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q201	C7, Public Sector	<p>- Creo que hacía falta información, pero también hacía falta que le despertáramos el interés a la ciudadanía, a los prestadores de servicios de que teníamos que pensar diferente, de que nuestra visión fuera diferente. Siento que fue oportuna la llegada de la OMT porque a partir de ahí empezamos a someternos nosotros en un proceso de cambio (...) mira, algo muy sencillo y maravilloso para nosotros, la llegada de los voluntarios de la OMT nos permitió darnos cuenta ¿qué tenemos en nuestra casa? ☒ Pues aunque lo sabíamos, pero a lo mejor no estábamos preparados para buscar algunas denominaciones, algunas declaratorias, es decir, que vivíamos en casa sin saber que teníamos.</p>	<p>- There was a need for information but we also should have awoken the interest of the people, the service providers, and teach them that we had to think different and use a different outlook. The WTO´s arrival was very helpful because from then on we immersed ourselves in a process of change (...) Look it is very simple and wonderful, for us the arrival of the WTO volunteers allowed us to realize what we had on our doorstep and although we already knew what we had we were not capable of looking for some trademarks, for publicity, in other words we were living at home without knowing what we had.</p>
Q202	T5, Priv. Sector	<p>- (...) con el programa ha cambiado algo porque todo el plan es muy profesional. Te decía en dónde tener un potencial y en dónde definitivamente no perdieras el tiempo.</p>	<p>- (...) with this program something changed because it is all very professional. It told you where the potential laid and where not to lose your time.</p>
Q203	C11, Priv. Sector	<p>- Mira, hace tres años cuando ustedes vinieron, nosotros veíamos Pueblos Mágicos...uff! (...) ya cuando ustedes vinieron e hicieron el estudio, eso nos dio el impulso para poder ahora sí decir, ahorita ya estamos nosotros, nosotros ya lo vemos, decir “ya lo tenemos, si no lo agarramos es porque no queremos”... Y te digo, la verdad, muchas de las cosas que vinieron a hacer ya lo sabíamos pero no lo queríamos reconocer. Has de cuenta que vengan y te lo digan ayuda mucho, porque dices, eso ya lo sé, incomoda, enoja pero ya lo sabíamos y en la parte que dice “son muy buenas y estas son las virtudes que tienen” pues sí, todo mundo lo sabe y se jactan “esa yo también la tengo”.</p>	<p>- Look. Three years ago when you came we saw Pueblos Mágicos Uff (...) when you came and did the study it gave us the drive to go forward and to feel part of it and say “we have it if we don’t grasp it is because we do not want it” and I tell you truthfully many things that you came to do we already knew but were not capable of realizing it. When somebody from the outside comes it helps you a lot, you say “I know that” it bothers you and when it comes to the part “you are good and these are the virtues you have” everybody knows it and they brag about it “I also have that”</p>

Q. Quot .	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q204	C10, Priv. Sector	<p>- Como fue la primera experiencia, sentimos que todo lo que traían fue novedoso para nosotros. Ahí nos enseñaron a ver desventajas, ventajas, ahí nos enseñaron cual es el camino de resistir los embates que vengan, y hasta la fecha lo decimos que esto es un proceso de resistencia. No hay otra, y la cuestión, como le dijera, las sugerencias que nos dieron fueron determinantes, nos enseñaron a sentir, a ser muy positivos en todo el proceso, que hay que vencer todos los obstáculos que se presenten. Es muy complicado esta cuestión del turismo.</p>	<p>- Considering it was the first Experience we felt that everything they brought was new to us. They taught us the disadvantages, advantages and the way to resist to attacks from the outside. Up to know we admit that it has been a process of resistance. The suggestions they gave us were vital, they taught us to feel to be positive during the whole process and to win all obstacles in our way. Tourism is a complicated question.</p>
Q205	P7, Public Sector	<p>- (...) se necesita este tipo de actualización o este tipo de ir constantemente a revisar lo que hace falta y organizar, no sé si sean mesas de trabajo, reuniones, coloquios, no sé cómo llamarlo, para que precisamente esto no se vaya perdiendo (...) el chiste es tener este reforzamiento de decir “bueno, va a seguir” entonces nos volvemos a reunir, volvemos a echarnos ganas (...)</p>	<p>- (...) We need this kind of updates or to be constantly on the look out for what is missing and organize work tables, meetings, talks or whatever you want to call it in order for all this not to be lost (...) the funny thing is to have this reinforcement and say “let’s move on” then we meet again and we move forward. (...)</p>
Q206	CD3, Priv. Sector	<p>- (...) Nosotros ya hemos discutido bastante, ya tenemos algunas ideas, al menos dentro de la asociación de hoteles. Dice, “señores, hagamos un ejercicio, convoquemos a todos los involucrados en el sector, hoteleros, restauranteros, agencias de viajes, operadoras, transportistas, yo no sé cuántos más, nos reunimos todos y hagamos una lluvia de ideas”. Después de esa lluvia de ideas hay un mecanismo muy sencillo para apoyarnos con un buen equipo de cómputo y meternos todos.</p>	<p>- (...) We have discussed it enough, we have a few ideas at least within the hotel association. We say “gentlemen, let’s do an exercise, let’s gather everybody involved in the business, hotel owners, restaurant owners, travel agencies, tour operators, transport companies and don’t know who else, let’s get everybody together and let’s do a brainstorming” After this there is a simple mechanism where we are supported by a professional team where everybody comes in.</p>

Q. Quot .	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q207	S2, Civil Society	<p>- <i>Están como diferentes grupos en el grupo amplio, de ahí se va a tener que retomar un liderazgo. Ya las organizaciones tienen a sus representantes que son líderes: en el caso de los hoteleros hay un presidente; en el caso de los restauranteros hay una entidad; en el municipio tiene que tener un representante, algún delegado de lo que es estatal y un federal, porque tendrían que entrar los tres niveles de gobierno; y en el caso de lo social pues se tendrá que hacer una representatividad. Si la metodología es en foros sectorizados, de ahí van a surgir esos liderazgos y uno centralizado que permita que se pueda dar seguimiento (...) y que de ahí diga, “esta es tu carta de desarrollo, tu plan estratégico de tantos años”.</i></p>	<p>- <i>They are different groups within the broad spectrum and a leadership should come from it. The organizations have their representatives who are leaders. In the case of the hotel owners there is a president; in the case of the restaurant owners there is a board, in the municipality there is a representative, a clerk from the state and from the federal government too because the 3 levels of the state should be represented. In the case of the civil society there should be some kind of representation organized. The effort is centered in specialized meetings from which the leadership spring up and then it is centralized so that it can do the follow up (...) he can then say “this is your development card your strategic plan for years to come”</i></p>
Q208	CD5, Priv. Sector	<p>- (...) se ve que existe una instancia que se llama COCOTUR, que es Consejo Consultivo de Turismo de Comitán, sin embargo realmente es un membrete que no trabaja, no he visto los resultados hasta ahora (...) Sí nos gustaría que hiciera algo.</p>	<p>- (...) apparently there is an entity called COCOTUR which is the tourism advisory council of Comitán. However it really is something that does not work, I have not seen any results up to now (...) We would like them to do something.</p>
Q209	S6, Priv. Sector	<p>- La situación es de que cuando hay estas mesas de trabajo, cuando hay estos foros en donde uno puede participar es muy selectivo el grupo al que invitan y no siempre van los mismos. Si te llegó la invitación pues acudes, pero si no te llegó la invitación, (...) entonces no tenemos acceso. Entonces se vuelve, los mismos, los mismos y los mismos y gira todo encima de estos grupos de poder en el sentido de que tienen el acceso a la información de manera inmediata entre ellos y manejan todo y controlan todo.</p>	<p>- The thing is that when there are round tables and fora where one can participate the group that is selected is very restricted and not the same people go every time. If the invitation was made you attend if it wasn't then you have no access (...). Then the same thing happens and everything revolves around the same groups in power over and over again and they have access to the information immediately and they control and manipulate everything.</p>
Q210	CD2, Public Sector	<p>- (...) después de lo que sucedió no hubo un seguimiento, nunca nos volvieron a reunir (...) Sé que hay un consejo consultivo para otras cuestiones pero de turismo no lo sé. Hay cosas que precisamente nos gustaría que se pudiese trabajar en este sentido.</p>	<p>- (...) after what happened there was no follow up we never met again (...) I know there is an advisory board for other issues but I ignore if tourism is included. There are things that we would like to work on regarding that.</p>

Q. Quot .	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q211	C4, Civil Society	<p>- <i>Sí es de mucho beneficio el consejo porque se han tomado decisiones muy acertadas, se han hecho cosas para el beneficio del municipio (...) porque, ahí han hecho mesas de debate, de discusiones de los problemas que hay pero de colectividad que sea el municipio el que salga beneficiado. Y sí se le ha sabido sacar provecho a ese consejo porque lo que ahí se llega a manifestar no son cosas personales, son cosas de todo el municipio, de todos y que a todos nos afecta o nos beneficia (...)</i></p>	<p>- <i>The council is beneficial because the right decisions were taken and things were done for the good of the municipality (...) debates and problem solving were organized as long as it is for the good of the whole community and municipality. And if any good has come out of that board is thanks to the topics which were not personal and therefore concern the municipality and all of us. Everybody comes out on top.</i></p>
Q212	C5, Priv. Sector	<p>- <i>No, nosotros desde la administración pasada se creó un consejo de promoción y desarrollo turístico. Ha venido trabajando de la mano con el ayuntamiento (...) ahí es de libre opinión y todos opinan como les parezca y al final de cuentas se hace una votación y se decide que se va hacer.</i></p>	<p>- <i>No, Since the last administration a promotion and development board was created and. I have been working hand in hand with the city council (...) everybody is free to speak their mind and at the end there is a vote and it is decided what to do.</i></p>
Q213	P3, Public Sector	<p>- (...) <i>tenemos que fortalecer las vías de comunicación, intercambios de experiencia, pero si quienes están liderando el proyecto no son los mismos, traen otros intereses. Para un ayuntamiento puede ser que el turismo no sea prioritario. O sí es importante pero no tan importante como lo era para aquel, o no tan importante como para el que viene (...)</i> Pero creo que aquí el papel de nosotros que lideramos el proyecto es: mantener una línea permanente de diálogo.</p>	<p>- (...) <i>we have to strengthen the communication, experience exchanges but if whoever leads the Project are not the same they bring other interests. For a city council maybe tourism is not a priority. Or maybe it is important but not as much but whoever comes next (...)</i> Our role, us who led the project is to maintain a permanent dialogue.</p>
Q214	T2, Public Sector	<p>- (...) <i>porque hay muchas cosas que se pueden hacer sin gran recurso. Es cuestión de organización. De comunicación, de organizarse. Ponerse metas y las metas son las recomendaciones. Recomendación número uno, ¿cómo vamos a llegar a esto? "Tas, tas, tas" y darle seguimiento. Yo creo que no es tan difícil, lo que yo creo es que no nos organizamos, no nos comunicamos principalmente.</i></p>	<p>- (...) <i>because there are many things than can be done even without resources. It is a question of organization, communication and getting organized. We have to set goals and these goals are recommendations. Recommendation N°1 How are we going to achieve this? "there, there, and there and follow it through. It is not that difficult. My main belief is that we do not organize ourselves, we do not communicate.</i></p>

Q. Quot .	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q215	S2, Civil Society	- (...) <i>es que no hay procesos metodológicos que los vincule, y tampoco hay facilitadores en los procesos. O sea, la gente la nombran y empiezan a hacer su trabajo (...) Pero tendría que tener alguien que le ayudara a darle elementos y herramientas para que su liderazgo estuviera bien consolidado.</i>	- (...) <i>there are no methodological process that they can be accounted for and also there are no facilitators in those processes. Hence people are appointed and they start their jobs (...) but they should have somebody who would help him with elements and tools so that their leadership would be a consolidated one.</i>
Q216	CD3, Priv. Sector	- (...) <i>Todos tenemos ideas dándonos vuelta por la cabeza (...) Todo mundo hace esfuerzo pero no están articulados. No hay un eje que nos diga, “todos empujemos en este sentido, ahora hagamos esto”. No hay eso. El nuevo presidente municipal llega con sus ideas y pone un nuevo funcionario en las coordinaciones (...) entonces, ¿qué nos pasa? No pasa nada. Hay reuniones, y que vamos a hacer esto, surgen peticiones, y todo; vuelve otra vez al inicio.</i>	- (...) <i>We all have ideas in our heads (...) everybody makes an effort but we are not articulated. There is not an axis that says “we all push in one directions and we all do this”. It does not exist. The new mayor comes with his ideas and appoints a new clerk in the coordination (...) then what happens? Nothing happens. There are meetings and we are going to do this, petitions arise and then everything goes back to square one.</i>
Q217	V1, Volunteer	- <i>Si se pierde ese liderazgo de la persona que coordina y demás yo creo que vuelve a desaparecer pero bueno como pasa en todos los sitios. En la realidad de mi trabajo yo lo veo o sea cuando estamos desarrollando el trabajo de consultoría pues los empresarios están juntos, si tu los llamas para reunirlos, los convocas, esas consciencia de grupo existe pero si luego si no hay nadie que haga esa labor de convocatoria es difícil que salga de ellos a no ser que haya un liderazgo fuerte que haga que se junten para que hagan cosas en común.</i>	- <i>If leadership is lost from the coordinator then everything disappears but it is the same everywhere. I see it in the everyday reality of my job when we are developing consultancy work because the businessmen are together and if you summon them this group consciousness is there but if there is nobody with the summoning experience is difficult that it will come naturally from them unless there is a strong leadership that makes them come together for a common good.</i>
Q218	P3, Public Sector	- (...) <i>ha habido muchos cambios en quienes lideran las organizaciones civiles y a veces no se pasan la estafeta como muchos llaman en las carreras. Esos cambios que se dan no nada más a nivel gubernamental sino a nivel Asociaciones limitan el desarrollo del proyecto.</i>	- (...) <i>there has been a lot of changes among those who lead the civil organizations and sometimes the do not pass on the message or the torch as people do at the races. Those changes which happen not just at a government level but also at the association level actually limit the development of the project.</i>
Q219	C11, Priv. Sector	- <i>La información está bien, lo que pasa es que a veces nosotros como organización privada trabajamos a otro ritmo muy diferente que la organización pública. La pública es un poquito más lento, más burocrático y va cambiando cada tres años. Eso frena mucho el avance que se ha tenido con lo que se viene manejando (...)</i>	- <i>The information is O.K. what happens is that us, as a Priv. organization, work at a very different pace than the public organization. The public one is a bit slower, more bureaucratic and it changes every three years. This hinders the progress that has been achieved lately (...)</i>

Q. Quot .	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q220	S4, Priv. Sector	<p>- La OMT tiene que asumir un liderazgo y una responsabilidad mayor porque la han asumido a su manera (...) se han olvidado de la materia prima que somos nosotros los que vamos a realizarlo (...) entonces, a lo mejor el modelo no estaba bien diseñado por parte de la OMT cuando se inició esto. Porque no se conocía cómo se podía operar (...) Son los modelos que tenemos y yo creo que ahí es donde tendríamos que cambiar esos modelos. A lo mejor detectar esos liderazgos y meterlos a trabajar pero con la dirección directa de la OMT, ya no con las presidencias municipales.</p>	<p>- <i>The WTO has to assume a leadership role and a greater responsibility because they have made that commitment (...) they have forgotten the raw materials which are us making it happen (...) then maybe the model is not properly conceived by the WTO when everything started. This is due to the fact that nobody knew how it would operate (...) These are the models that we have and I think the change should start from there. To detect those leaders and make them work in the right direction under WTO's guidance and without the municipalities.</i></p>
Q221	C10, Priv. Sector	<p>- (...) dependería de dar más continuidad y ahora me arriesgaría yo, que la UNWTO estuviera más cerca, más seguimiento por qué pasó un largo tiempo. Yo sé que es muy complicado.</p>	<p>- (...) it would depend on the continuity of things and I would risk as far as to say that the WTO should be closer and monitoring closely because a long time has passed. I know it is complicated.</p>
Q222	S1, Priv. Sector	<p>- (...) Debió haber quedado aquí un líder, un representante para que convocara.</p>	<p>- (...) A leader or representative should have stayed behind to keep the gathering spirit.</p>
Q223	E2, Consultant	<p>- A lo mejor una forma de hacerlo sería provocar, después de hacer el documento y entregarlo, provocar estancias de voluntarios que le dieran seguimiento. Dos voluntarios que vinieran como becarios a trabajar para el gobierno de Chiapas, que sean los encargados de dar seguimiento y de estar cerca de los presidentes municipales y de estar cerca de las comunidades (...)</p>	<p>- Maybe the way to do it would be to force things after the document has been drafted and delivered so that volunteers can do the follow up. Let's say two volunteers that would come with grants to work for the Chiapas Government and would be responsible for the continuation and to be closer to the municipal presidents and the communities (...)</p>

Q. Quot .	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q224	E2, Consultant	<p>- <i>Cuanto más específico y el territorio más pequeño mejor los resultados, y lo puedes evaluar mejor y puede haber continuidad. Cuando el territorio se amplia se hace todo más difícil (...) me parece que una de las cosas que si se tiene que pensar de este programa es que no debe aplicarse en un lugar que tenga cierto grado de desarrollo de turismo. Yo no lo hubiera llevado a San Cristóbal. Yo lo hubiera hecho, sí para Palenque, no sé si Tuxtla, aun tengo esa gran duda, Comitán y Chiapa de Corzo. ¿Por qué? Porque ahí sí que el trabajo de planeamiento y desarrollo turístico si puede representar un cambio para la comunidad.</i></p>	<p>- <i>The more specific and smaller the area the better results we get and you can evaluate better and continuity can happen. When the area is broaden everything becomes more difficult (...) I think it is one of those things that should come out of this program is that it should not be applied in places where there is already a certain degree of tourism development. I personally would not have taken it to San Cristóbal. I would have taken it to Palenque and perhaps Tuxtla I have my doubts, Comitán and Chiapa de Corzo, Why? Because in those cases the planning and tourist development work can actually represent a change for the community.</i></p>
Q225	V1, Volunteer	<p>- (...) bueno yo creo que los programas deberían ser mas enfocados en ese tipo de destinos más locales y más incipientes y no a destinos que ya son destinos turísticos y que a lo mejor, si, necesitan trabajo de desarrollo, pero en otro tipo de necesidades, no de planificación.</p>	<p>- (...) I think that the programs should be more focused in the local and incipient destinations and not those destinations that are already mature and although they may need some development work it is at another level not one of planning.</p>
Q226	C11, Priv. Sector	<p>- (...) Has de cuenta, no podemos ver a Chiapa de Corzo aislado si no tenemos que verlo integrado. Somos del estado y no sólo somos del estado, somos de México (...) No lo puedes ver de manera aislada y si lo ves de una manera aislada pues eres egoísta. Y lo que sí debemos hacer es fortalecer esos puntos. Has de cuenta “ven a Chiapas y visita no sólo eso, sino tienes todo esto”.</p>	<p>- (...) Just think, we cannot see Chiapa de Corzo isolated, we have to look at it in an integrated way. We belong to this state but not only that we belong to Mexico (...) you can not see it in an isolated manner unless you are being selfish. We should strengthen those points. Just imagine “come to Chiapas and visit not only this but all that as well”</p>
Q227	P6, Priv. Sector	<p>- (...) en el momento en que estás en la mesa de trabajo y no tienes el mando de una decisión, de retomar la experiencia y decir “yo lo voy a hacer así” se causa, de alguna manera, un standby que para el programa esos tiempos perdidos son malos. Pero insisto, tiene que ver con ese proceso gubernamental que se vienen dando a niveles institucionales.</p>	<p>- (...) at the time when you are at the working place and you do not have the command in order to retake the experience and say “I am going to do it this way” there is a standby which is bad news for the program since it represents lost time. I insist it has to do with the government process which affects the institutions.</p>

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Q228	P3, Public Sector	- <i>Tal vez no contemplaron que en México, por ejemplo, existen procesos electorales, procesos de cambios institucionales, que de alguna manera han limitado esto (...)</i> ha habido tres ayuntamientos (...) <i>ese proceso, creo, tú tendrás que analizarlo, influye mucho en el seguimiento de los proyectos. El caso mío, sigo siendo el mismo delegado, pero ellos no, ellos tienen que involucrarse en el tema, conocer las fuentes, conocer los temas y eso implica muchos distractivos (...)</i>	- <i>Maybe they did not contemplate that for example in Mexico there are election process, institutional changes that limit this in a way (...)</i> There has been 3 city councils involved (...) it is up to you to analyze but this process depends on the follow up. In my case I am still the same clerk but not them. They have to get involved, get to know the sources and that implies distractions (...)
Q229	T5, Priv. Sector	- (...) <i>lo que falta es el seguimiento gubernamental entre los municipios siento yo. ¿Por qué? Porque cambiaron las cabezas.</i>	- (...) <i>what is lacking is that the government follow through among the municipalities. Why? Because the heads changed.</i>
Q230	S4, Priv. Sector	- <i>Desde que iniciaron, tenemos un cambio de gobierno desde hace dos, tres años que hubo también una delegación, la delegación tuvo cambio de delegado estatal de turismo, tampoco ha convocado a una sola reunión. Entonces es muy difícil tener seguimiento a ese tipo de programas.</i>	- <i>Since they begun we have had a change in government since 2-3 years ago, the board had a new state tourist secretary which has not even called a single meeting. It is therefore very hard to give continuation to these kind of programs.</i>
Q231	CD3, Priv. Sector	- (...) <i>hay algunas otras prioridades también para el gobierno, sentimos que no se le ha dado toda la prioridad que puede tener el turismo. Necesitamos gente más sensible al turismo, que conozcan el sector, que sepan que es una industria que puede darle trabajo a muchísima gente, que puede ser un detonador para el desarrollo. No sé si no hay recursos, no hay suficiente voluntad, o qué pasa, no hemos logrado el nivel que quisiéramos tener en ese sentido.</i>	- (...) <i>there are other priorities for the government and we feel that they have not given all the chances that tourism may have. We need people that are sensible towards tourism that know the sector and know what this industry can do in terms of job creation and which can be a trigger for growth. I do not know if there is a lack of resources or something else but we have not achieved the level we would have wanted.</i>
Q232	E2, Consultant	- (...) <i>lo que pasa es que estar dependiente del sistema local, de falta de transparencia, de gobernabilidad. Sí es muy difícil, y creo que es lo que pasa en América Latina, somos muy buenos para hacer planes pero somos muy malos para ejecutarlos (...) principalmente por cuestiones políticas.</i>	- (...) <i>what happens is that we are dependant on the local system which lacks of transparency and efficiency. It is very hard and I think what happens in Latin America is that we are very good in making plans but very bad in executing them (...) mainly for political reasons.</i>

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Q233	S4, Priv. Sector	- <i>El municipio prioriza los programas y ya no participamos en la evaluación. Entonces, en automático desconocemos lo que en realidad pasó al final del esquema del desarrollo de todos los trabajos que hicieron (...) si no va haber gente que tenga poder de convocatoria, conocimiento, capacidad, liderazgo y todas las características que se requieren para estar en se tipo de puestos (...)</i> Los particulares no vamos a convocar.	- <i>The municipality defines the priorities and we do not participate in that evaluation. Therefore we do not know what happened at the end of the development program and after all the work was done (...) if there is nobody with enough rallying, knowledge and leadership characteristics that are needed for these kind of posts (...) it is certainly not up to the private individuals to do so.</i>
Q234	S4, Priv. Sector	- <i>Yo siento que uno de los grandes errores inicialmente es no involucrar con responsabilidades al sector privado por ejemplo, decir “si tú eres el coordinador de esto, dale un nombramiento a ese señor y que él lo lleve hasta el final y no que ya terminó su periodo y ya me voy” (...)</i> que se crea una especie de Fideicomiso o una cosa así que permanezca, que cambie digamos el gobierno pero que le den continuidad a los programas (...)	- <i>I feel that one of the big mistakes initially was not to make the private sector accountable, for example say “if you are the coordinator you should give a post to whoever is responsible so that he takes the task to the end and not just until his mandate is over and then he is out” (...)</i> a trust fund or similar should be created and it should stay even after the government changes so that the programs move on (...)
Q235	T6, Priv. Sector	- (...) <i>ustedes pueden seleccionar gente que pueda sumarse con ese interés de crear y va a ser hasta mágico cómo rápido vamos a avanzar en muchas cosas. Pero sí tendría que ser gente que no tenga el interés político, el interés económico de inicio porque por eso se caen estos proyectos.</i>	- (...) <i>you can select people that can jump on with the idea of creating so that it can be magical the way we could move forward in many things. However it would have to be people without political or economical motivation because these are the main reasons these projects fall through anyway.</i>
Q236	CD4, Civil Society	- <i>Con un comité, con un patronato que sea de personas que no pertenezcan a gobierno. Sí claro, pueden estar integradas al mismo grupo algunas personas del gobierno pero que no sea la base, que no dependa de ellos, que ellos puedan en determinado momento sugerir, participar, pero que en realidad los que tomen decisiones sean los que no pertenecen al sector gobierno (...)</i>	- <i>With a committee, a sponsor without any ties to the government. Of course some government people can be connected with the project but it cannot depend on them they cannot be the foundation. At a given moment they can suggest, participate, but in reality the decisions have to be taken by people not connected with the government (...)</i>

Q. Quot .	Type of actor	Original Quotations as literally transcribed in Spanish	Translated Quotations into English
Q237	C8, Public Sector	<p>- <i>En el caso de Chiapa de Corzo se le han echado muchas ganas porque queremos ser Pueblo Mágico ahorita. Logramos y gracias al apoyo del gobierno del estado que el Parachico, una de las fiestas tradicionales mas importantes del estado sea considerado como patrimonio cultural y material de la humanidad, la fiesta de enero también es nombrada la fiesta tradicional del estado de Chiapas (...) fuimos nombrados la capital internacional de las tradiciones, o sea, tenemos muchos nombramientos que nos hacen que nosotros también vayamos evolucionando, vayamos cambiando y que no solo los nombramientos se queden ahí sino que tenemos que estar ya a la par.</i></p>	<p>- <i>A lot of effort has been put in the case of Chiapa de Corzo because we want to become a Pueblo Mágico now. We made it and thanks to the State government, the Parachico, one of the most traditional festivities has now been given the cultural, material and immaterial world heritage award. The January celebrations has also been named the traditional festivity of the State of Chiapas (...) we were named the international tradition capital, in other words, we have many awards which makes us want to evolve, change but we do not want just the awards but also we have to be there all the time.</i></p>
Q238	T5, Priv. Sector	<p>- <i>Agua Azul es un estandarte del estado pero sigue la comunidad como en aquel momento te pasó. Comienza con problemas, hacen borlote, pues se acaba todo, porque ya como turista pues tú ya tienes temor, o ya también uno, o el gobierno dice “pa qué meto los turistas si vaya a haber algún problema social, de que queden ahí o que le vayan a dar algún golpe a alguien o que te retengan ahí, o sea, imagínate. No puedes ir al Taj Mahal pues y que ahí de repente empiece la revoltura y te quedas encerrado.</i></p>	<p>- <i>Agua Azul is a government banner but the community continues the same. It starts with problem, they make noise, and everything is over and as a tourist you are afraid or myself and the government says why putting tourists there if there is going to be social unrest, there is always the danger they may be retained or assaulted. You cannot go to say the Taj Mahal and suddenly be trapped in the middle of a revolt and be trapped.</i></p>
Q239	S1, Priv. Sector	<p>- <i>Para mí sería prioridad trabajar en proyectos que de alguna manera pudieran generar una mejor calidad de vida a los que menos tienen (...) aquí en San Cristóbal, tú caminas en el centro y desgraciadamente hay una gran miseria. Yo creo que no tenemos la varita mágica tampoco para poder erradicar cada uno de los problemas que ellos tienen estas comunidades, pero sí tenemos la gran voluntad de poder ir identificando con precisión y generarles un atractivo, una alternativa de desarrollo económico para sus familias (...) creo que ayudaría no solo a San Cristóbal como destino sino también ayudaría a la prioridad, los ingresos de estas comunidades.</i></p>	<p>- <i>For me it would be a priority to work on projects which somehow would generate better quality of life for those who have less (...) you walk around the center of San Cristóbal and unfortunately you find a lot of misery. We do not have the magic wand to eradicate each one of the problems that the communities have but we have the will to identify them precisely and generate and incentive or alternative economic plan for their families (...) It would help not just San Cristóbal as a destination but it would help towards the main priority which is the income of those communities.</i></p>

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Q240	E1, Consultant	<p>- <i>El impacto de largo plazo en la reducción de pobreza es mínimo, mínimo, no y es una pena porque podría hacerse, pero con otro planteamiento, mucho más pragmático y operativo. Ahí se podrían conseguir muchas más cosas, pero claro un trabajo en un país de dos o tres semanas es imposible, es inviable bajo mi punto de vista.</i></p>	<p>- <i>The long term impact in terms of the reduction of poverty is minimal, minimal and it is a pity because it is feasible but we would need another argument more pragmatic and operational. If that was the case we could achieve many things but carrying out a project in a country in two or three weeks is impossible unfeasible under my point of view.</i></p>
Q241	E2, Consultant	<p>- <i>Tuvimos un 2009 muy malo aquí en México. Por factores externos totalmente. Que fue la influenza por una parte y luego la crisis económica de 2009. México tiene un record, tiene un 85% de turistas que vienen de Estados Unidos y Canadá. Si se caen estos mercados se cae el turismo en el país y con la influenza eso fue lo que justamente pasó, luego se presenta la crisis en Estados Unidos, pues fue un año crítico.</i></p>	<p>- <i>We had a very bad year in 2009 here in Mexico. All due to external factors. First was the influenza on the one hand and then the economic crisis in 2009. Mexico has a record, it has 85% of tourist come from the United States and Canada. If those markets fall tourism falls in the country and that is exactly what happened in the case of Influenza and then the crisis in the United States, it was a critical year.</i></p>
Q242	C11, Priv. Sector	<p>- <i>Mira, cualquier persona de iniciativa privada te va a pedir más, pero también sabemos de las limitantes del municipio (...) a veces ellos no tienen los recursos.</i></p>	<p>- <i>Look any person with private initiative is going to ask for more but we know of the limitations of the municipality (...) sometimes they do not have the resources.</i></p>
Q243	CD1, Public Sector	<p>- (...) <i>con el proyecto de senda de colores (...) yo me he detenido por la cuestión del dinero.</i></p>	<p>- (...) <i>with the Senda de Colores Project (...) I have stopped due to the money issue.</i></p>