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Stakeholder Participation in Regional Tourism Planning: Brazil's Costa Dourada Project

Lindemberg Medeiros de Araujo

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements of
Sheffield Hallam University
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

November 2000



Abstract

Many developing countries are increasingly using tourism as a tool for regional development. While it is expected that tourism can bring substantial benefits, there is also evidence that it can entail negative social, cultural and environmental impacts, and clearly tourism at the regional scale requires careful planning in order to promote sustainable development. While tourism has been planned for decades, there has been relatively little research on how to plan for tourism development at the regional scale in either developing or developed countries. There is growing acceptance that tourism planning at all geographical scales ought to involve broad participation so that the affected stakeholders are engaged in the decision-making. However, research on stakeholder participation in tourism planning has only very recently begun to draw on the valuable insights offered by collaboration theory.

This research examines stakeholder participation in tourism planning based on a case study of the Costa Dourada project, a regional tourism initiative involving ten very poor municipalities in Alagoas State in north-east Brazil. The project sought to combine regular collaborative planning meetings involving a range of key stakeholders with consultation with a much larger number of parties affected by the project. The study examines the participation processes involved in the collaborative planning process, the extent to which collaboration fully emerges in the planning process, and the views of stakeholders not involved in the collaborative planning about the project and the planning process. Additionally, consideration is given to the extent to which the planning process was likely to promote co-ordinated planning and concern for the varied issues affecting the sustainable development of the region.

The approach to the study was based on a conceptual framework that will be of use to other researchers, this being developed from literature on collaboration theory, stakeholder participation in tourism planning, regional tourism planning and sustainable tourism planning. Importantly this framework can be applied to other regional tourism planning contexts. Data for the study was collected from primary documents related to the project, two semi-structured interviews and two structured questionnaires, and from observation of planning activities. The planning issues and the planning process were evaluated from the perspectives of both participants in the regular collaborative planning meetings and also other stakeholders affected by the project.

The results suggest that the approach to regional tourism planning adopted in the Costa Dourada project encouraged a reasonably co-ordinated response from a broad range of stakeholders whose interests were largely focused either at local, state and national geographical scales. The regional planning process adopted by the project helped the federal government to share power and decision-making with state and local governments. Participants in the collaborative planning were engaged in negotiation, shared decision-making and consensus building and most were broadly supportive of the project aims, decision-making, and decisions. However, some participants had significant concerns, such as about the extent to which everyone's views were taken into account. The way in which collaborative and consultative approaches to participation were combined was relatively successful in helping to identify key stakeholders and issues, in raising awareness about the project and building external support for the project. The range of participants in the project planning was also likely to promote consideration of many of the issues of sustainable development, although there was only limited involvement of environmental groups and of private sector interests.

The study develops a new conceptual model of the collaborative process in regional tourism planning which was developed deductively from relevant academic literature and also inductively from the Costa Dourada case study. The model integrates collaborative and consultative approaches to tourism planning and relates these to broader influences. One contribution of the study is that it identifies stages in the collaborative process but stresses that these substantially overlap and there are dynamic and iterative links between them. Key issues for a theoretical understanding of collaborative regional tourism planning are also evaluated.

Dedication

*This thesis is dedicated to my father,
Severino Liberato de Medeiros, in memoriam,
and to my mother, **Anaisa Araujo de Medeiros**.*

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This PhD study was sponsored by CAPES (Brazilian Ministry for Education), and I thank the Brazilian government for giving me this opportunity.

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Contents

	Page
<i>Abstract</i>	<i>i</i>
<i>Dedication</i>	<i>iii</i>
<i>Acknowledgements</i>	<i>iv</i>
<i>List of Figures</i>	<i>x</i>
<i>List of Tables</i>	<i>xi</i>
1 <i>Introduction</i>	1
1.1 The Study	1
1.2 Aims of the Research	4
1.3 Conceptual Fields of Study	7
1.3.1 Regional tourism planning	7
1.3.2 Stakeholder participation in tourism planning	8
1.3.3 Stakeholder participation and sustainable tourism planning	8
1.3.4 Tourism and collaboration theory	10
1.4 Contributions to Research	12
1.4.1 Regional tourism planning level	12
1.4.2 Emerging regional tourist destinations in developing countries	13
1.4.3 The wider environment affecting tourism collaboration	14
1.4.4 Stakeholder participation in regional tourism planning	15
1.4.5 Collaboration and sustainable regional tourism planning	16
1.4.6 Relationship between collaboration and consultation	16
1.4.7 The views of non-participating stakeholders	17
1.5 Research Methodology	17
1.6 Organisation of the Thesis	18
2 <i>Literature Review</i>	20
2.1 Introduction	20
2.2 Regional Tourism Planning	20
2.3 Stakeholder Participation in Tourism Planning	28
2.4 Stakeholder Participation in Sustainable Tourism Planning	36

2.5	Stakeholder Assessment	44
2.6	Collaboration Theory and Tourism	47
2.6.1	General context for collaboration	47
2.6.2	The processes of collaboration	51
2.6.3	The extent of consensus	55
2.6.4	Stages of collaboration	55
2.6.5	Tourism applications of collaboration theory	57
	Conclusion	64
3	<i>Research Approach</i>	65
3.1	Introduction	65
3.2	Conceptual Frameworks	65
3.2.1	Framework for examining collaboration among participating stakeholders	66
3.2.2	Framework for examining the views of non-participating stakeholders	69
	Conclusion	71
4	<i>Methodology</i>	73
4.1	Introduction	73
4.2	Case Study Selection	73
4.3	Detailed Discussion of The Study Conceptual Frameworks	74
4.4	Preparation For The Fieldwork	86
4.5	Social Survey	90
4.6	Sampling Procedure	95
4.6.1	The sample of participating stakeholders	97
4.6.2	The sample of non-participating stakeholders	99
4.7	Implementation of The Fieldwork	106
4.7.1	The pilot	106
4.7.2	Implementation of the interviews and questionnaires	107
4.7.3	Fieldwork outcomes	108
4.8	Approach to Data Analysis	110
	Conclusion	111
5	<i>The Costa Dourada Project and Its Context</i>	113
5.1	Introduction	113

5.2	The Context of The Project	113
5.2.1	Recent dictatorial and democratic experiences in Brazil	113
5.2.2	The project's context: the north coast of Alagoas state	116
5.3	The Costa Dourada Project	119
5.4	The Planning Process for The Costa Dourada Project	123
5.4.1	The planning framework	123
5.4.2	Stakeholder participation in project planning	128
5.4.2.1	Meetings and workshops of participants	129
5.4.2.2	Meetings of 'co-implementing' organisations	129
5.4.2.3	Meetings of the Management Group	130
5.4.2.4	Open meetings of the Planning Unit	130
5.4.2.5	Initial general workshop	131
5.4.2.6	Municipal workshops	131
5.4.2.7	Seminars	132
	Conclusion	133
6	<i>The Collaborative Planning Process</i>	135
6.1	Introduction	135
6.2	Range of Stakeholder Participation	135
6.3	Participation Methods and Techniques	145
6.4	Commitment to Collaborate	147
6.5	Identification of Issues of Concern	151
6.6	Common Definition of Problem	153
6.7	Decision-Making Procedure	155
6.8	Setting the Collaborative Agenda	158
6.9	Dealing with Constituencies	161
6.10	Consideration of The Views of All Participants	163
6.11	Implementation of Planning Decisions	174
	Conclusion	175
7	<i>The Degree of Collaboration in the Planning Process</i>	180
7.1	Introduction	180
7.2	Consideration of the Views of Participants	180
7.3	Consideration of the Priorities of Participants	182

7.4	Supporting Collective Decisions	183
7.5	Compliance with Shared Rules	185
7.6	Agreement about a Shared Vision of Project Development	187
	Conclusion	197
8	<i>The Views of Non-Participating Stakeholders</i>	202
8.1	Introduction	202
8.2	Range of Stakeholders With an Interest in the Project	203
8.3	Stakeholder Representation in the Planning Process	209
8.4	Identification of Issues of Concern	215
8.5	Common Definition of Problem	219
8.6	Commitment to Collaborate	220
8.7	Decision-Making Procedure	223
8.8	Participation Methods and Techniques	224
8.9	Dealing With Constituencies	226
8.10	Consideration of the Views of All Parties With An Interest in the Project	228
8.11	Implementation of Planning Outcomes	237
8.12	Acceptance of the Need to Give Full Consideration to the Views of All Parties With and Interest in the Project	238
8.13	Acceptance of the Need to Give Full Consideration to the Planning Priorities of All Parties With An Interest in the Project	239
8.14	Reaching Agreement About a Shared Vision of Project Development	239
8.15	Right to Participate in the Planning Process for the Project	242
8.16	Capacity to Participate in the Planning Process for the Project	244
	Conclusion	246
9	<i>Analysis and Conclusion</i>	247
9.1	Introduction	247

9.2 The Participation Processes Involved in the Costa Dourada project	247
9.2.1 Strategies for stakeholder participation in the project's planning	248
9.2.1.1 The collaborative planning process and the range of stakeholders involved	248
9.2.1.2 Other participation approaches used in the planning process	250
9.2.2 Methods of Participation in the Project's Planning	255
9.2.3 Types of stakeholder involvement in the collaborative planning process	257
9.2.4 Priorities of the participating stakeholders in the collaborative planning	257
9.2.5 Adjusting priorities to a shared view of the domain	258
9.2.6 Decision-making processes in the collaborative planning	259
9.2.7 Agenda setting processes in the collaborative planning	260
9.2.8 Dealing with constituencies related to the project's problem domain	261
9.3 The Extent to Which Collaboration Emerges in the Planning Process	262
9.4 How Non-Participants Viewed the Project and Its Planning Process	269
9.5 Factors Influencing the Stakeholders' Decisions About Whether or Not to Participate in the Collaborative Planning	273
9.6 The Project Planning As An Approach to Sustainable Development	276
9.7 Stages of the Collaborative Process	280
9.7.1 <i>Antecedents</i>	281
9.7.2 <i>Initiation</i>	283
9.7.3 <i>Problem-Setting</i>	285
9.7.4 <i>Direction-Setting</i>	291
9.7.5 <i>Structuring</i>	295
9.7.6 <i>Implementation</i>	297
9.8 A Conceptual Model Of The Collaborative Process in Regional Tourism Planning	298
9.9 The Main Contributions Of the Study For Tourism Planning Theory	301
9.10 Future Research Direction	307
9.11 Some Limitations	309
References	311
Appendices	334
<i>Appendix I: Participants' Interview Schedule</i>	334
<i>Appendix II: Non-Participants' Interview Schedule</i>	339

<i>Appendix III: Participants' Questionnaire</i>	344
<i>Appendix IV: Non-Participants' Questionnaire</i>	349
<i>Appendix V: Cover Letter For Participants</i>	354
<i>Appendix VI: Cover Letter For Non-Participants</i>	356

List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Location of the Costa Dourada project	2
Figure 5.1 Costa Dourada project tourism development areas	122
Figure 9.1 The collaborative process in regional tourism planning	300

List of Tables

Table 1.1	Recent, more focused studies of tourism collaboration	12
Table 2.1	Arguments in support of a regional planning approach to tourism development in many large developing countries	25
Table 2.2	Some strategies and techniques for stakeholder participation in regional tourism planning	31
Table 2.3	Pretty's typology of stakeholder participation in tourism planning	32
Table 2.4	Six theoretical perspectives to understand collaborative behaviour	50
Table 2.5	McCann's collaborative stages and related issues	57
Table 2.6	Gray's collaborative stages and processes	57
Table 3.1	Framework for examining collaboration among stakeholders involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	68
Table 3.2	Framework for examining the views of non-participating stakeholders about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process	70
Table 4.1	Conceptual frameworks for examining the views of participating and non-participating stakeholders about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process	76
Table 4.2	Issues that could have led to problems for the fieldwork data collection	89
Table 4.3	Individuals in the fieldwork area with whom the researcher intensified contacts in preparation for the fieldwork	90
Table 4.4	Methods and techniques to express one's views	93
Table 4.5	Sample of stakeholders involved in collaborative planning for the Costa Dourada project (the <i>participants</i>)	98
Table 4.6	Stakeholders included in the core of non-participating stakeholders at the start of the snowball sampling procedure	100
Table 4.7	Private-sector organisations identified by most stakeholders in the snowball sampling procedure	101
Table 4.8	Other organisations often mentioned by stakeholders in the snowball sampling procedure	101

Table 4.9	Organisations at the local level most often mentioned by stakeholders in the snowball sampling procedure	102
Table 4.10	Twelve additional organisations identified for the sample of non-participants	103
Table 4.11	Sample of stakeholders affected by the Costa Dourada project who are not involved in a direct way in its planning process (the <i>non-participants</i>)	104
Table 4.12	List of collected data and types of material	109
Table 6.1	Main objectives of the stakeholders participating in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	137
Table 6.2	The six types of positive impacts respondents indicated their organisations would receive from the Costa Dourada project	139
Table 6.3	The four types of negative impacts respondents indicated their organisations would receive from the Costa Dourada project	140
Table 6.4	Types of stakeholder involvement in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	141
Table 6.5	List of stakeholders that were not involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project but that respondents considered ought to be represented	143
Table 6.6	Final list of stakeholders that were not involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project but that respondents considered ought to be represented	144
Table 6.7	Characteristics that respondents distinguished between participants who were involved directly in the planning process for the project and other parties with an interest in the project who were not involved in this way	145
Table 6.8	Methods and techniques used by the participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project, the number of times they were mentioned and the degree of effectiveness assigned to them	146
Table 6.9	Respondents' explanations of how their organisations benefit from working together with the other participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	148
Table 6.10	Respondents' explanations of why their organisations benefit from working together with the other participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	149
Table 6.11	Issues the respondents' organisations wanted to have considered in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	152

Table 6.12	The issues three respondents thought had not been considered in the planning process for the project	153
Table 6.13	Stakeholders' priorities in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	154
Table 6.14	Participants that had an input in establishing the planning agenda for the Costa Dourada project	160
Table 6.15	Approaches and sources used by members of the Planning Unit to decide which issues to include in the planning agenda for the Costa Dourada project	161
Table 6.16	Explanations of how municipal, state and federal level participants had felt able to express their views fully about the Costa Dourada project within its planning process	164
Table 6.17	Explanations of how participants from the government, the private sector and NGOs had felt able to express their views fully about the Costa Dourada project within its planning process	166
Table 6.18	Stakeholders that in the respondents' views had not had – sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the Costa Dourada project in its planning process	167
Table 6.19	Respondents' opinions on how the views of municipal, state and federal-level participants had been taken into consideration in the planning process for the project	169
Table 6.20	Respondents' opinions on how the views of government, private sector and NGO participants had been taken into consideration in the planning process for the project	170
Table 6.21	The ways in which the respondents expressed their views about the Costa Dourada project to the participants involved in its planning process	171
Table 6.22	The ways in which the views of the respondents' organisations were likely to be taken fully into consideration by the participants involved in the planning process for the project	173
Table 7.1	Decisions that respondents identified as having been supported and agreed collectively but that may not be in the best interest of one or more participants	184
Table 7.2	Shared vision that respondents considered was reached by the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	188
Table 7.3	Factors that respondents claimed enabled the participants to reach a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term	189

Table 7.4	Explanations offered by respondents as to why the participants had not reached a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term	191
Table 7.5	Explanations offered by respondents as to why non-participants were likely to shared the project vision of the participants	193
Table 7.6	Explanations offered by respondents as to why a wider range of parties with an interest in the project were not involved as participants in its planning process	195
Table 8.1	Main objective/objectives of non-participating organisations	204
Table 8.2	The four types of positive impacts respondents indicated their organisations were likely to receive from the Costa Dourada project	207
Table 8.3	Types of non-participating stakeholder involvement in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	208
Table 8.4	Non-participating organisations which considered they had a representative in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	209
Table 8.5	Ways in which the non-participating organisations are represented in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	210
Table 8.6	Explanations why the non-participating organisation is not represented in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	211
Table 8.7	Explanations why non-participants felt all parties with an interest in the Costa Dourada project were represented in its planning process	212
Table 8.8	Initial list of stakeholders that were not involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project but that respondents consider ought to be represented	213
Table 8.9	Consolidated list of stakeholders that were not involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project but that respondents consider ought to be represented	213
Table 8.10	Issues that non-participants wanted to have considered in the project's planning process	216
Table 8.11	Explanations why some non-participants considered that the issues their organisations wanted to have considered in the planning for the project had not been considered	218
Table 8.12	Priorities that the non-participants wanted the Costa Dourada project to have in its planning process	220

Table 8.13	Non-participants' explanation of how their organisations would benefit from working together with participants in the project planning	221
Table 8.14	Non-participants' explanation of why their organisations would benefit from working together with participants in the project planning	222
Table 8.15	Non-participants' explanations why their organisation would not benefit from working together with participants in the project planning	223
Table 8.16	Non-participants' views on who decided who could participate in the project planning	224
Table 8.17	Non-participants' views on ways in which it was decided who could participate in the Costa Dourada's planning process	224
Table 8.18	Methods and techniques used by non-participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project to express their views about the project to participants in its planning	225
Table 8.19	Suggestions offered by non-participants on how parties interested in the Costa Dourada project could express their views fully about the project to participants	230
Table 8.20	Stakeholders that non-participants considered were not likely to have the opportunity to express their views fully about the project to participants	230
Table 8.21	Stakeholders that non-participants considered were not likely to have the opportunity to express their views fully about the project to participants	232
Table 8.22	Non-participants' views on how the views of all parties with an interest in the project at the municipal, state and federal levels are likely to be taken fully into consideration	233
Table 8.23	Stakeholders whose views the non-participants considered were unlikely to be taken fully into consideration by participants	233
Table 8.24	Stakeholders whose views non-participants considered were unlikely to be taken fully into consideration by participants	234
Table 8.25	Explanations offered by non-participants as to why their organisation had not had sufficient opportunity to express their views to participants	235
Table 8.26	Explanations offered by non-participants of how their organisations' views were likely to be taken fully into consideration by the participants	237

Table 8.27	Explanations offered by non-participants of why their organisations' views were unlikely to be taken fully into consideration by the participants	237
Table 8.28	Explanations of why non-participants considered that the participants were likely to reach an agreement about a shared vision for the Costa Dourada project	240
Table 8.29	Explanations of why non-participants considered that the participants' shared vision of the project would be shared by other parties with an interest in the project who were not direct participants in the project planning	241
Table 8.30	Explanations of why non-participants considered that their organisation had the right to participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project	243
Table 8.31	Characteristics that respondents distinguished between parties with an interest in the project who were not involved in the project's planning process and stakeholders who were directly involved in it	243
Table 8.32	Resources that non-participants' organisations had which could justify their participation in the project planning	245
Table 8.33	Skills non-participants' organisations had which could justify their participation in the project's planning process	245
Table 9.1	Common elements among participants' explanations that may be of wider interest for advocates of collaborative regional tourism planning	267
Table 9.2	Participants' broad explanations of why they had not reached a shared vision for the project that may be of wider interest for advocates of collaborative regional tourism planning	269

Chapter 1: Introduction

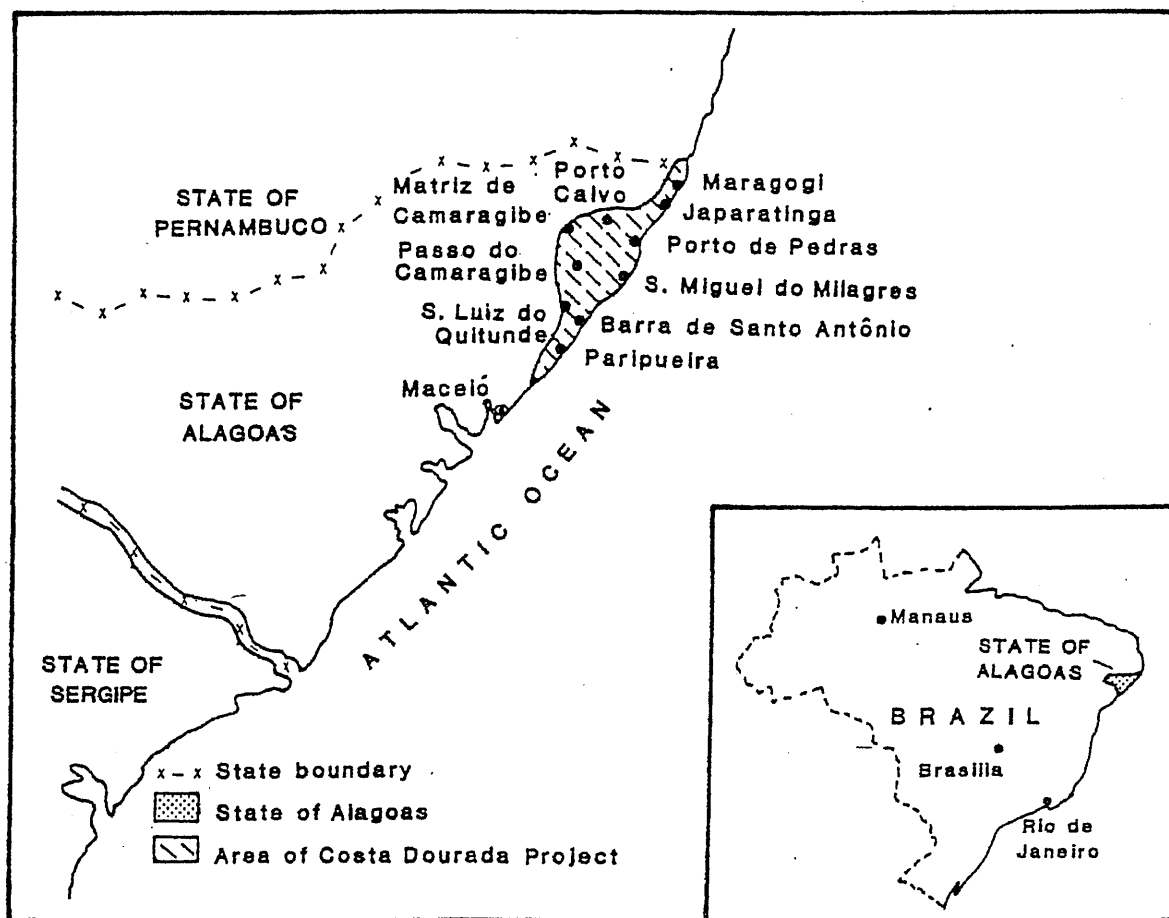
1.1 THE STUDY

Governments world-wide are increasingly using tourism as a tool for regional development (Keller, 1987; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996; De Lacy and Boyd, 2000). The regional tourism planning approach has gradually gained interest, especially in large developing countries, partly as a result of the perceived difficulty for central planning of meeting the planning requirements of diverse regions within a country (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996). Government officials, planners and academics alike appreciate that tourism can be used to help revitalise regional economies and that it can stimulate socio-economic development and foster benefits to a region's population. Also there is broad support in the literature that the people affected by tourism development have a right to participate in the planning of tourism initiatives (WCED, 1987; Keogh, 1990; Drake, 1991; Brandon, 1993; Simmons, 1994; Marien and Pizam, 1997).

This study is concerned with stakeholder participation in the planning process for regional-scale tourism projects and it uses a case study, namely the Costa Dourada project. The Costa Dourada project is a regional tourism development initiative covering ten municipalities in Alagoas state, in north east Brazil (Figure 1.1). The project area forms a coastal belt about 100 km long and about 20 km across. The ten municipalities affected by the project are in an economically poor region of Brazil and have a combined population of 148,080 (SEPLANDES, 1998). The main economic sector of the region is agriculture, particularly sugar cane plantations, and the region faces high unemployment, low salaries, high rates of illiteracy and endemic disease. Despite these problems and the deficient road access to the region, tourism has intensified from a rather low base from the second half of the 1980s to become an important economic activity in the region (Medeiros de Araujo and Power, 1993; SEPLANDES, 1998).

The Costa Dourada project forms part of a larger Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL). This programme has the broad aim of "encouraging the region's socio-economic development, taking into account its environmental preservation and restoration" (SEPLAN, 1994:3). The PRODETUR/AL started in 1994 and it aims to boost the annual average number of domestic tourists in the Costa Dourada project area to 265,000 and of international

Figure 1.1 Location of the Costa Dourada project.



tourists to 172,000 by 2010. The projection of the annual average number of domestic tourists without the project is 139,940 and of international tourists is 50,892 by 2010 (SEPLAN, 1994).

The Costa Dourada project uses tourism in order to promote sustainable development (CODEAL, 1993; DOE/AL, 1997). While the project aims to build and up-grade tourism-related infrastructure in the project area, such as telecommunications, electricity, water supplies, and sewage and solid waste disposal, the project also includes investment in health care, education, social facilities, and improved access to the region (SEPLAN, 1994). The project is intended to benefit the population of the north coast of Alagoas by creating and up-grading tourism infrastructure and improving health care, education and social facilities.

The strategy for the Costa Dourada project includes the intention of involving a broad number of stakeholders in the project's planning process (SEPLAN, 1994), and the government of Alagoas has created specific legal provisions for stakeholder

participation in this planning (DOE/AL, 1997). This reflects a trend in Brazil towards encouraging broader stakeholder participation in the shaping of public policies in various fields. However, this is a recent trend for Brazil as it only emerged in the mid-1980s from a 20-year period of military dictatorship. During the dictatorship, policy-making was highly concentrated within the national government (Vieira, 1995; Viola, 1987).

Stakeholder participation in tourism planning is becoming a more accepted practice in many countries (Keogh, 1990; Drake, 1991; Brandon, 1993). The term 'stakeholder' has been defined in the context of business management theory as "any group or individual who can affect, or is affected by, the achievement of a corporation's purpose" (Freeman, 1984:vi). Alternatively, Gray (1989:5) defines stakeholders in broader social contexts as "all individuals, groups, or organizations that are influenced directly by actions others take to solve [a] problem". Adapting both Freeman and Gray's definitions of stakeholders to the purpose of this research, stakeholders are understood here to include all individuals, groups, or organisations that are affected by, or can affect, the outcomes of the planning for a regional tourism initiative.

More specifically, this study is concerned with stakeholder participation in tourism planning around a regional problem domain (Getz and Jamal, 1994). Parker (1999:240) defines a problem domain as "a system-level challenge composed of numerous parts over which no single organization or societal-sector has complete authority. Multiple stakeholders are involved with the concept yet none has the breadth or knowledge, power or legitimacy to institute the required system-wide solutions". A tourism problem domain can be illustrated by the existence of large-scale infrastructure deficiencies in a region. Multiple stakeholder groups, such as the government, the private sector, non-governmental organisations and communities, may perceive these infrastructure deficiencies as a major obstacle to regional tourism development. At the same time, these stakeholder groups may perceive that no one group can provide the solution to the problem by acting independently. A solution for the problem may be possible when affected stakeholders acknowledge their inter-dependence and work together to try to reach an agreed solution to their shared problem.

Inter-organisational dependence is a key concept of collaboration theory, as it is seen as a driving-force that leads multiple organisations to get together and attempt to agree solutions to problems affecting them and in relation to which they may feel they

are mutually dependent. In this context, collaboration has been defined as a process through which "a group of autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engage in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms and structures to act or decide on issues related to that domain" (Wood and Gray, 1991:146).

Ultimately, the central focus of this present research is to investigate regional tourism planning during the early stage of the planning process for an emergent regional tourist destination in a developing country. This investigation is conducted using the case study of the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. The case study is examined using a conceptual framework of collaborative planning that was developed by the author and which integrates elements drawn from four fields of study: regional tourism planning, sustainable development, stakeholder participation in tourism planning, and collaborative planning.

Planning outcomes that emerge from collaborative arrangements in tourism affect the interests of a broad number of stakeholder groups that may not be involved in a direct way in collaborative planning. These non-participating stakeholders may also affect the implementation of the collaborative decisions by opposing them when the decisions are perceived to be against their own best interests. Hence, this research also examines views about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process among stakeholders who are not participants in the project planning process.

Involving multiple stakeholders in planning might help promote sustainable tourism development. For example, participation can enhance project-related resource use by drawing on solutions based on local cultural traditions (Bramwell, 1998). Another benefit of stakeholder participation is that it can also foster the long term integration of social, environmental and economic issues within the overall planning framework of the destination with positive impacts on project sustainability (Getz, 1987; Dutton and Hall, 1989; Dredge and Moore, 1992; Gill and Williams, 1994). Moreover, the participation of multiple stakeholder groups may provide the broad political support required from affected parties for successful project development and implementation (Rees, 1989; Pretty, 1995), thus increasing the prospects for the project to be sustainable in the long term.

1.2 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The planning process for the Costa Dourada project is focused on a problem-domain, namely the deficiencies in physical and social infrastructure of the north coast of

Alagoas state and the potential to overcome them using tourism development. The infrastructure deficiencies are themselves viewed by the government and the private-sector as a major obstacle to tourism development in the region (SEPLAN, 1994). Early in the research process, an examination of documents concerning the Costa Dourada project, such as technical reports and legislation, led to the research proposition that the early planning for the project had been based largely on a collaborative approach. This study seeks to address three domain-level research questions concerning the project's planning process and the potential presence of elements of collaborative planning. These three research questions are:

- 1) What are the participation processes involved in the collaborative planning process for the Costa Dourada project, if any?**
- 2) To what extent does collaboration emerge in the planning process for the project?**
- 3) How do non-participating stakeholders view the project and its planning process?**

These questions are considered to relate to the domain level because they concern aspects of a planning process whose aim is to solve a problem that affects multiple stakeholders (from the government, the private sector, non-governmental organisations and communities) in a socio-economic context where no one single organisation or stakeholder group can provide a solution to the problem by acting in isolation (Wood and Gray, 1991).

While some academics and tourism-related organisations over the 1990s have begun to show interest in the concept of regional tourism planning (Gunn, 1994a; Inskip, 1991; Komilis, 1994; WTO, 1994), there has been relatively little significant development of theory related to tourism planning at the regional scale. Similarly, academic interest in collaboration theory in the tourism field is a recent phenomenon. More particularly, our understanding of how collaboration theory may apply to regional tourism planning is still underdeveloped.

The overall aim of this research is:

To examine critically collaborative stakeholder participation in tourism planning during an early stage of the planning process for an emergent regional tourist destination in a developing country.

This is based on a case study of stakeholder participation in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. The attainment of the research's overall aim is based on nine specific objectives. These objectives are:

- 1) To identify the range of stakeholders involved in the collaborative planning process for the project.**
- 2) To identify the methods and techniques of stakeholder participation involved in the regional tourism planning process.**
- 3) To examine critically the processes of stakeholder collaboration in the regional tourism planning process.**
- 4) To examine the factors that influenced whether stakeholders from the government, the private sector, non-governmental organisations and communities, with interests at the local, regional or national scales, participated in the collaborative regional tourism planning process.**
- 5) To evaluate the use made of consultative participation in support of collaborative planning for the project.**
- 6) To evaluate the degree of collaboration reached in the regional tourism planning process.**
- 7) To examine the views of stakeholders that are not direct participants in the project's planning about the project and its planning process.**
- 8) To assess the planning process for the project as an approach to sustainable regional tourism planning.**
- 9) To develop a conceptual model of the collaborative process in regional**

tourism planning.

This study examines both collaboration and consultation as approaches to the planning process for a regional-scale tourism initiative. It also considers these in relation to the objectives of sustainable development. The aims are to understand for the Costa Dourada project the extent to which collaborative planning has promoted sustainable development, if at all, and also whether the use of consultation, if any, in support of collaboration has enhanced the project's sustainability. An assessment of the views of non-participants about the project and its planning process, including consideration of how they are likely to react to the project's outcomes is also used to examine the potential of the project to further sustainability.

1.3 CONCEPTUAL FIELDS OF STUDY

This study draws on research in the fields of regional tourism planning, stakeholder participation in tourism planning, stakeholder participation in sustainable tourism planning and collaboration theory. The following sections relate these four research fields to the focus of this study and identify related aspects of tourism research that are underdeveloped. The study will add to our understanding in these areas.

1.3.1 Regional Tourism Planning

Regions are spatial entities that can be demarcated based on their specific identity and homogeneity within a portion of territory. However, regions are complex in many ways. While regions may have internal physical similarities, such as in their climate, geology, topography and vegetation, they may also have significant internal variations, such as in society, economy, culture, history and politics. These can also lead to differences in the way a region's natural resources are used and exploited. The mix of physical and human elements within regions may also lead to internal variations in development levels as well as in development aspirations, capacity and potential (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996). Another element adding to the complexity of regions is that even remote areas are becoming increasingly affected by an intensification in the mobility of people, commodities and capital originating from other regions in a country and also from abroad (Jamal and Getz, 1999).

In considering the external and internal influences over regions, regional tourism planning has interfaces with various policy areas, such as transportation, health care, education, public security and conservation. Likewise, regional tourism planning

affects multiple stakeholders, such as government, the private sector, non-governmental organisations and local communities, and these stakeholders may have interests focused at the local, regional or national scales.

In theory at least, regional planning is well positioned to take account of the relationships between local and national planning priorities and policies, and also between diverse economic, environmental, social, cultural and political concerns (Komilis, 1994). Hence, a number of academics and some tourism organisations have suggested that tourism planning at the regional scale has the potential to bring together local and national stakeholder interests within a regional development perspective (Gunn, 1994b; WTO, 1994; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996).

1.3.2 Stakeholder Participation in Tourism Planning

There is increasing consensus among scholars that stakeholder participation in tourism planning is valuable (Keogh, 1990; Drake, 1991; Simmons, 1994; Marien and Pizam, 1997; Jamal and Getz, 1999). There can be different degrees of stakeholder participation in tourism planning. For example, stakeholder involvement in planning has been modelled in several ways, ranging from manipulative strategies, where participation may be a pretence, to approaches where participants have an important role in decision-making (Arnstein, 1969; Pretty, 1995; Abbott, 1996).

The tourism literature identifies various participation techniques that can be used in tourism planning (Marien and Pizam, 1997). However, it is clear that no single method or technique can cover all participation planning requirements in every circumstance. Hence, it is suggested that a combination of approaches is more likely to make a consistent contribution to effective participation (Keogh, 1990; Simmons, 1994). Tourism academics highlight how stakeholder participation in community tourism planning is a complex phenomenon and they are still debating the relative merits of different approaches to achieving meaningful participation. The challenge is even greater when the focus of participation is on the regional scale given the broad number of stakeholders involved. Certainly, there is scant guidance on how to achieve meaningful and effective participation in regional tourism planning.

1.3.3 Stakeholder Participation and Sustainable Tourism Planning

Stakeholder participation has been widely recognised as an essential ingredient of sustainable tourism planning (Drake, 1991; Long, 1993; Jamal and Getz, 1997; Hall, 2000a). Many arguments have been suggested in support of incorporating

stakeholder inputs into planning for sustainability. For example, stakeholder involvement enhances the possibilities of effectively channelling benefits to the local population. Another potential benefit is that stakeholder participation can increase opportunities to conserve resources. Furthermore, it can be suggested that planners have a moral obligation to listen to the people affected by their projects. Benefiting local people, conserving resources (for present and future generations), and listening to people affected by development actions are all features of the sustainability concept. Stakeholder participation can also help to minimise conflicts with the local community, it may have an educational function, and it may foster better planning by providing additional information and by identifying alternative courses of action. Furthermore, stakeholder participation can reinforce the accountability of project managers and help to legitimise the decision-making process (WCED, 1987; Drake, 1991).

An increasing range of techniques has been identified as useful for listening to stakeholder views concerning tourism. For example, Marien and Pizam (1997) identify twenty-two procedures and techniques for stakeholder involvement, such as drop-in centres, focus group interviews, workshops and seminars, public hearings, and the nominal group technique. These and other participation approaches and techniques can be combined in various ways to meet differing planning stages and types of decisions. For example, planners may use a self-completion questionnaire survey covering a broad number of stakeholders at the start of the planning for a project in order to identify the initial views of stakeholders. Later in the planning process workshops may be used with a narrower number of stakeholders in order to decide about particular issues, such as the design of a tourism centre or the location of a marina.

Despite the existence of a broad array of participation approaches and techniques, some key questions relating to their use at a regional level tend to go unanswered. For example, is the experience of participation gained by stakeholders at the community level also useful for guiding stakeholder participation in regional tourism planning? Can existing participation techniques be combined in effective and meaningful ways at the regional tourism planning level? And, possibly the most important question, can participation approaches at the regional level take adequate account of the very broad range of issues affecting sustainable development (Bramwell and Lane, 1993b), namely, issues of the economy, society, culture, politics and environment? These unanswered questions appear to suggest that it is a difficult

task to involve stakeholders in sustainable tourism planning at a regional scale, with these difficulties being conceptual, political, administrative and operational. To answer these questions, researchers need to integrate theory with the practical evaluation of the planning processes involved in specific regional-scale tourism projects involving stakeholder participation.

1.3.4 Tourism and Collaboration Theory

The theory of collaboration emerged from organisational behaviour research, and it was developed to help understand the relations between organisations. In turbulent environments, which are characterised by a great level of uncertainty, competing organisations often act independently in many different directions and they also often "produce unanticipated and dissonant consequences in the overall environment they share" (Trist, 1983:273). In order to overcome turbulence and reduce these unwanted consequences, some organisations may seek to engage in collaborative arrangements. The central idea behind collaboration is that organisations involved in collaborative arrangements can secure benefits that no single organisation could gain if acting on their own, including reducing uncertainty (Gray, 1989). Tourism planners and academics are also beginning to acknowledge the value of collaboration theory, both for understanding inter-organisational relations in tourism planning and for designing participation approaches that might include the interests of affected parties in more meaningful ways.

Regional tourism planning exemplifies a potentially turbulent inter-organisational environment. For example, regions may contain a broad number of stakeholders, including governmental and non-governmental organisations, with interests focused at local, regional and national scales that are associated with transportation, accommodation, and attractions. Importantly, there are numerous local community interests within the broader region. While tourism has been depicted as a system that is organically interconnected (Gunn, 1994a), in practice tourism planning is often highly fragmented. Bramwell and Lane (1999:179) stress how in tourism destinations "In few situations does one company or organisation control all the components, or all the stages and decision-making processes in the creation and delivery of the tourism product". Hence, regional tourism initiatives are likely to lead to uncertainty, complexity and possibly also conflict between and among concerned stakeholders, especially in emergent tourism destinations (Reed, 1999).

In such a complex environment, collaboration theory has considerable potential to help explain the relationships between the numerous stakeholder groups.

Collaboration theory can also enhance understanding of how inter-organisational domains develop, including how organisations may come to recognise mutual interdependences in their problem domain, start to work together and possibly also make and implement shared decisions to solve the problems that brought them together (Trist, 1983; Gray, 1989; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Parker, 1999; Fyall *et al.*, 2000).

Tourism academics have only recently become interested in collaborative arrangements. When this present research was started there was no more than an initial interest in collaboration theory in the tourism field and only a few collaboration-based tourism research studies had been published. Table 1.1 summarises some key contributions marking the recent start of more focused interest among tourism academics in collaboration theory. These initial contributions are restricted to a limited range of tourism-related issues. For example, Selin and Beason (1991) focus on just three stakeholder groups, namely the US Forest Service, Chambers of Commerce and associated tourism organisations, although the authors do identify the need for further research to investigate wider inter-organisational relations in the tourism field. Selin (1993) identifies a general trend toward increased collaborative action among tourism organisations. Selin and Chavez (1995a) apply Gray's (1989) collaborative model in relation to tourism partnerships, but no empirical investigation is conducted in order to test the model in practice. The authors suggest that more research is needed to understand the processes involved in tourism partnerships. Finally, Jamal and Getz (1995) draw on several aspects of collaboration theory to understand collaborative planning in tourism destinations, but their study focuses exclusively at the community level.

Interest in the application of collaboration theory in the tourism field intensified considerably in the late 1990s when several partnership and collaboration-based studies were published (Timothy, 1999b; Reed, 1999; Robinson, 1999; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Roberts and Simpson, 2000; Bramwell and Lane, 2000). These studies apply conceptual frameworks to examine tourism-related collaboration, and they have improved our understanding of using collaborative arrangements in order to plan and manage tourism-related initiatives. Chapter 2 provides a detailed discussion of collaboration theory and its application to tourism.

Table 1.1 Recent, more focused studies of tourism collaboration.

Study	Study focus	Comments
Selin, S. and Beason, K., 1991. <u>Interorganizational relations in tourism</u>	Interorganisational relations between the U.S. Forest Service, Chambers of Commerce and Tourism Associations close to an Arkansas National Forest.	Though focused on interorganisational relations, this study is based mainly on co-operation rather than on collaboration. In addition, the study's scope is narrow in that it examines only the relations between three stakeholder groups.
Selin, S., 1993. <u>Collaborative alliances: new interorganizational forms in tourism</u>	Trend toward more collaborative initiatives among tourism organisations.	The study emphasises the importance of Gray's (1989) model of the collaborative process to illustrate in general terms the process that might be involved in tourism settings. Selin stresses that the tourism field is experiencing unprecedented institution-building at the interorganisational level. He notes that basic and applied research is needed to understand better the collaborative processes in tourism.
Selin, S. and Chavez, D., 1995a. <u>Developing an evolutionary tourism partnership model</u>	Partnerships as a management strategy and as a theoretical construct.	The authors use Gray's (1989) model of the collaborative process to explain the dynamic nature of tourism partnerships. They highlight antecedents to collaborations as well as outcomes. Further partnership research is needed at the network and organisational levels in order to broaden understanding of the collaborative processes involved in partnerships.
Jamal, T.B. and Getz, D., 1995. <u>Collaboration theory and community tourism planning</u>	Application of collaboration theory to community-based tourism planning.	The authors highlight the potential utility of collaboration theory for tourism planning and point out that the use of collaboration theory for that purpose had not been reported until then. It is argued that a domain-level focus in community tourism planning is critical due to the interdependencies among multiple stakeholders in a community tourism destination. They suggest that collaboration might also be suitable for co-ordinating regional-level tourism planning.

1.4 CONTRIBUTIONS TO RESEARCH

This study builds on the previous research applying collaboration theory to tourism-related studies (McCann, 1983; Gray, 1989; Selin and Beason, 1991; Selin, 1993; Long, 1997; Jamal and Getz, 1995, 1997; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 2000; Parker, 1999; Hall, 2000a; Reed, 1999), and it incorporates a number of approaches to collaboration that so far are recognisably underdeveloped in the tourism field. By doing this, the study broadens the research on tourism collaboration and also adopts new approaches. The discussion now explains how this study examines issues regarding collaborative stakeholder participation in tourism planning which previously have not been studied in depth.

1.4.1 Regional Tourism Planning Level

There is growing use of tourism as a tool for regional development, and there is increasing recognition that regional-scale tourism is well positioned to integrate the

interests of multiple stakeholders focused on various geographical scales. However, research concerning the use of tourism as a tool for regional development is underdeveloped. Most published research usually does not go much further than identifying the theoretical benefits of regional tourism planning and suggesting general guidance for tourism planning at the regional scale. When regional case studies are examined, they have usually been done in a descriptive way (Gunn, 1994a; Inskip, 1991). Little consideration has been paid to understanding how tourism can be planned so that the multiple interests at various geographical scales can effectively be integrated into a coherent, practical vision of regional development.

Recent studies have suggested that collaboration theory may be a useful instrument for understanding inter-organisational relations around tourism initiatives and for co-ordinating and integrating the interests of multiple stakeholders in tourism planning. However, most collaboration-based studies that examine stakeholder participation in tourism planning in considerable depth are based at the community level (Jamal and Getz, 1995, 1997, 1999; Reed, 1997; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999). These studies have often identified ways in which collaboration can enhance the processes and outcomes of community tourism planning. It is still uncertain whether similar benefits can be gained from collaborative tourism planning at the regional scale.

This study develops a collaborative analytical framework and applies it to an examination of stakeholder participation in a regional-scale tourism initiative, namely the Costa Dourada project.

1.4.2 Emerging Regional Tourist Destinations in Developing Countries

Almost all the research studies of collaborative tourism planning are located in developed countries (Selin and Myers, 1998; Jamal and Getz, 1999; Reed, 1999). It is paradoxical that, while many developing countries are increasingly using tourism as a tool for regional development (Inskip, 1991; WTO, 1994; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996), there are very few studies of collaborative regional tourism planning in a developing country (Timothy, 1998).

Developing countries differ considerably from developed countries, notably with regard to the availability of finance, information and expertise and the role played by public institutions in planning and development. Political, economic and administrative contexts are commonly less stable in developing countries, and they are likely to introduce different influences on collaborative arrangements and related processes.

Likewise, cultural differences and the recent political history of developing countries may affect collaboration in ways which have yet to be identified in the literature. This study conducts an in-depth examination of the planning process for the Costa Dourada project, which is located in an emerging regional tourist destination in north east Brazil. The project area is an economically poor region of Brazil that faces serious socio-economic and political problems. The region has a declining economy (based mainly on sugar cane plantations), high rates of illiteracy and unemployment, low salaries, endemic disease, poor health care, and politico-administrative instability.

1.4.3 The Wider Environment Affecting Tourism Collaboration

Collaboration theory was influenced by the concept of turbulent inter-organisational environments (Emery and Trist, 1965). Tourism scholars have drawn substantially on this turbulence concept in order to explain collaborative arrangements in the tourism field (Selin, 1993; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Reed, 1999; Fyall *et al.*, 2000). Reference to the environmental context of these collaborative arrangements is generally made in two ways. First, by identifying general factors creating a high level of complexity and uncertainty between stakeholder groups around a problem domain. In this sense, a number of key factors have been cited as promoting collaborative arrangements. For example, Ritchie (1999) mentions international competition, a growing concern for environmental protection, and social and political pressure for more democratic governing processes. The power of large international corporations, which "may marginalise national social justice, and environmental laws ... [and] ... rapid economic and technological change, global interdependence, and blurred boundaries between government, industry, and the voluntary sector" are highlighted by Selin (1999:260), while the disturbing effects of globalisation, which "increases the challenge of sustaining the planet's ecological and cultural resources" are discussed by Jamal and Getz (1999:290). The identification of these turbulence-creating factors is important for analytical purposes, but these influences are fairly general and apply to most planning contexts world-wide. The second way in which turbulence is discussed in the tourism literature is by identifying the immediate elements creating disturbance in specific problem domains and which lead to the emergence of the collaborative arrangements and technical planning processes in a tourism initiative.

The identification of general influences and highly specific influences creating turbulence is an important step to understand the processes and outcomes of collaborative tourism arrangements. However, many studies of tourism-related collaboration have failed to take into consideration the socio-economic, cultural and

political contexts of the projects they examine. Examining these contextual factors in different societies with varied levels of development appears to have high relevance to research on how collaborations emerge and evolve, and on the decision-making processes and the planning outcomes. Evaluations of these factors appear to be especially necessary for regional-scale tourism initiatives, particularly when regions play an important role in the national economy and when they are vital in shaping a nation's identity. Regional-level collaborations may be generally influenced by both the national and the regional socio-economic, political and cultural contexts.

This research provides a detailed discussion of the wider contexts affecting the Costa Dourada project, both at the national and the regional levels, and this helps explain its planning process and the responses to it.

1.4.4 Stakeholder Participation in Regional Tourism Planning

In an attempt to understand how collaboration theory applies to tourism initiatives, some researchers (Selin, 1993; Selin and Chavez, 1995b; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Parker, 1999) have used frameworks based on McCann (1983) and Gray (1989). McCann (1983) proposes a framework for understanding social problem solving. The framework involves three inter-connected stages. In the first stage, 'problem setting', stakeholders trying to solve a problem that affects them develop a shared understanding of the problem and about who is affected by it. In the second stage, 'direction setting', the stakeholders establish a joint solution to the problem and agree on a collective course of action to implement the agreed solution. In the third stage, 'structuring', the stakeholders structure roles and responsibilities for implementing the decisions. Based on McCann's framework and also on an extensive literature review and case study examination, Gray (1989) proposes a three-stage collaborative process. Gray's model, which is detailed in Chapter 2, comprises three phases, namely 'problem setting', 'direction setting' and 'implementation'. Gray's model identifies a number of planning processes within each collaborative stage, ranging from a common definition of problem to structuring for the implementation of the decisions made, and monitoring compliance with the agreement. However, despite the increasing interest in collaboration theory in the tourism field there are no published studies that apply in a sustained and systematic manner Gray's (1989) model of the collaborative process in order to examine stakeholder participation in tourism planning. There needs to be more research that examines a range of processes contained in Gray's model, including the identification of stakeholders involved in the planning and the implementation of the planning outcomes.

This research examines process issues in collaboration theory, notably those identified by Gray (1989:55-94), and it develops an analytical framework to evaluate stakeholder participation in the planning for the Costa Dourada project. The investigation of the planning process for the project includes consideration of the range of participating stakeholders, the decision-making procedures that are adopted, the probability that the decisions will be implemented, and the degree to which collaboration emerges in the planning process.

1.4.5 Collaboration and Sustainable Regional Tourism Planning

Collaborative planning has the potential to enhance the responsiveness and sustainability of tourism projects by involving stakeholders with diverse interests (Jamal and Getz, 1997; Parker, 1999; Robinson, 1999), but, by contrast, collaborative arrangements may be quite elitist. For example, collaborative arrangements may involve only those stakeholders who are affected by a tourism development and also have the capacity to participate in the collaborative process, that is, they also have the resources and skills to participate in the negotiations (Gray, 1989). In particular, some interests and stakeholders may be excluded from the planning process. In this way, the collaboration may involve enhanced responsiveness and concern for diverse issues but the project may not promote broad participation, and hence may not meet this criterion of sustainability. Hence, the use of collaborative planning may lead to significant negative as well as positive repercussions for society at large. If these likely impacts are not accounted for in the planning process, then there may be serious conflicts between parties affected by the project.

This study includes an examination as to whether the planning process for the Costa Dourada project incorporated the interests of all affected stakeholder groups, and how this relates to the sustainability of the project. In particular, did the range of participants promote consideration of the very broad range of issues affecting sustainable development?

1.4.6 Relationship Between Collaboration and Consultation

The sustainability concept indicates that parties affected by a development should be involved in its planning (WCED, 1987). However, the number of stakeholders relevant to regional tourism problem domains may be very broad, and this raises the question as to whether collaborative regional tourism planning can ever involve sufficient stakeholders fully to represent the multiple interests affected by regional-scale tourism initiatives. Despite this, it is possible that consultative approaches used in support of

collaborative tourism planning at the regional scale could increase stakeholder participation and hence the broader sustainability.

This study examines the extent to which planning for the Costa Dourada project uses consultative participation in support of collaborative planning.

1.4.7 The Views of Non-Participating Stakeholders

Tourism research on collaboration in planning initiatives has usually neglected the views of stakeholders who are not actively involved in the planning process, that is, the 'non-participants'. The ways in which the processes and the outcomes of collaborative planning for regional-scale tourism initiatives are perceived by non-participating stakeholders has not been reported in the literature. This is despite the outcomes of collaborative arrangements being likely to affect the interests of a broad number of stakeholders who are not actively involved in the planning process. This can affect the sustainability prospects of the project because powerful non-participating stakeholder groups that are left outside the collaboration process may oppose the project implementation if they perceive that it may be against their best interests. Similarly, coalitions of less-powerful groups may also significantly affect the implementation of collaborative planning decisions.

This study uses an innovative approach to collaboration research by also examining the views about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process among stakeholders whose interests are likely to be affected by the project but who are not involved in a direct way. This approach addresses a theoretical and empirical vacuum concerning how non-participating stakeholders may view regional-scale tourism initiatives.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to examine the planning process for the Costa Dourada project, the study uses a social survey consisting of multiple research methods and sources of data. Two structured interview schedules and two structured, self-completion questionnaires form the major data collection instruments. Information was also collected using observation of project planning meetings, observation of a public seminar about studies commissioned for the project, and also using informal conversations with participating and non-participating stakeholders. Information was also gained from technical reports and legislation concerning the project, and from *Gazeta de Alagoas*,

which is Alagoas state's most widely read daily newspaper. The methodology used in the study is discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

This study draws on literature relating to four research strands, these being regional tourism planning, stakeholder participation in tourism planning, stakeholder participation in sustainable tourism planning and collaborative planning. Chapter 2 provides a critical review of literature in these four research fields. Key concepts are identified from each of those research fields that are used subsequently to underpin the study of stakeholder participation in planning for the Costa Dourada project.

Chapter 3 details the development of the two analytical frameworks used to examine the Costa Dourada project planning process. The first framework draws on collaboration theory while also incorporating concepts from the fields of regional tourism planning, stakeholder participation in tourism planning, and sustainable development. The second analytical framework draws on concepts from the same research fields, but it relates to consultative stakeholder participation in tourism planning. This second analytical framework is used to examine the views of non-participating stakeholders about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process.

Chapter 4 documents the methodology used in the research. There is discussion of the Costa Dourada as a case study, the development of the analytical approaches used in the study, the data sources and methods of data collection, and the specific techniques of data analysis.

Chapter 5 provides a detailed analysis of the Costa Dourada project and of the general and more specific contexts in which it has developed. Consideration is given to the recent dictatorial and democratic experiences in Brazil which have influenced the project's planning process, and to the economic, political, social and environmental characteristics of the north coast of Alagoas state. There is also a discussion of the aims and objectives of the project, the project's planning framework, and the ways in which stakeholders have participated in the planning process.

Chapters 6 to 8 report on specific results of the study. Chapter 6 provides a detailed analysis of stakeholder participation in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. Chapter 7 focuses on an assessment of the degree to which collaboration has been reached, including the extent to which there was respectful listening,

negotiation and shared consensus-building. Chapter 8 analyses the results relating to the views of non-participating stakeholders.

Chapter 9 provides an overview of the key findings in Chapters 6, 7 and 8 and it relates them to the study's three research questions and related aims and objectives. There is a focus on issues concerning the collaborative planning process for the project, the degree to which collaboration and consensus is reached, and the views of non-participating stakeholders. There is also an examination of the planning process for the Costa Dourada project as an approach to sustainable regional tourism development. This chapter also considers the main findings and related implications of the research as well as the research results in relation to the study's overall aims and objectives. Next, there is a discussion of the stages of the collaborative process in regional tourism planning. Furthermore, a conceptual model is proposed of the collaborative process in regional tourism planning. This model incorporates consultative approaches in support of collaborative planning. Then, there is a discussion of the main contributions of the study for tourism planning theory. Finally, this chapter discusses future research directions.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The Costa Dourada project is a regional-scale tourism initiative aiming at the sustainable tourism development of Alagoas' north coastal area. Official documents set the goal of involving parties that are affected by the project in its planning process through partnerships. So, in order to establish a conceptual approach to examine stakeholder participation in regional tourism planning based on the case study of the Costa Dourada project, this study needed to review literature concerning the following related research fields:

- **Regional Tourism Planning;**
- **Stakeholder Participation in Tourism Planning;**
- **Stakeholder Participation in Sustainable Tourism Planning; and**
- **Collaboration Theory.**

This literature review identifies key related concepts of interest for this study in these four research fields. These concepts were then used in the next chapter as the base for the development of the research approach to the study.

2.2 REGIONAL TOURISM PLANNING

Tourism can be planned at the national, regional and local spatial scales, although historically tourism planning has been more common for facilities and services at the site scale (WTO, 1980; Pearce, 1989; Hall, 1991). The emergence of tourism planning at larger geographical scales is a much more recent phenomenon (Gunn, 1994b). In particular, the region has become an increasingly common geographical scale for tourism planning and scientific inquiry.

The increased recognition of tourism's potential as an economic development strategy (Keller, 1987) has encouraged governments world-wide to use tourism as a tool for regional development, such as in Brazil, Turkey and Indonesia (Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994a; Becker, 1995; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996; Timothy, 1999; De Lacy and Boyd, 2000). Tourism can encourage economic diversification, the creation of jobs and income, a growth in tax revenue, and can provide a major source of foreign exchange (Lee, 1987; Solá, 1992; WTO, 1994; Gunn, 1994b). Many government officials and planners now appreciate that tourism can be used to help revitalise regional

economies and to foster socio-economic development for the benefit of a region's population.

Based on a review of studies concerned with the definition of regions, Tosun and Jenkins (1996) conclude that there is no single way to define regions (Richardson, 1973). For example, a region may be defined as a large territory with fixed limits and some internal homogeneity (Paelinck and Nijkamp, 1964; Bradshaw, 1988; Dickinson, 1994), or as a specific pattern in the variability of its features (Reiner, 1972).

Geographers tend to define a region as a changing geographical area that stands out for the particular way in which humans interact with the natural environment (Smith, 1976). In the tourism context, Pearce (1989:262) suggests that a region can be defined "in terms of the spatial association of attractions and associated facilities ... or possibly in physical terms (a stretch of coast, a river system or a highland massif) or administrative ones, especially where tourism forms part of an overall regional strategy". Tosun and Jenkins (1996:520) contend that "the most appropriate and useful definition depends on the particular purpose to be served or the objective of inquiry".

Tourism planning has been defined as being "concerned with anticipating and regulating change in a system, to promote orderly development so as to increase the social, economic and environmental benefits of the development process" (Murphy, 1985:156). Getz (1987:3) considers it to be a process "based on research and evaluation, which seeks to optimize the potential contribution of tourism to human welfare and environmental quality". However, Brandon (1982) argues that there will not be a single definition of tourism planning. Tosun and Jenkins (1996:520) define tourism planning at the regional scale as "an effort to attain the best possible spatial pattern of development". A common reason for regional tourism planning is to insert regional tourism plans into a country's national development plan. For the purpose of this research, regional tourism planning is defined as a decision-making process involving multiple stakeholders that is designed to develop tourist infrastructure and related developments in a region.

While tourism development can generate regional socio-economic progress, it can also lead to negative impacts. Hence, historically, a *laissez-faire* attitude to tourism development sometimes leads to such tourism-related problems in regions as polluted beaches, landscape erosion, urban sprawl, noise, traffic congestion, tasteless architecture and infrastructural overload (Edgell, 1990). In many developing countries

the tourism problems have resulted from an emphasis on economic growth without appropriate planning (Green, 1995). An increasing awareness of these problems has encouraged the use of tourism planning so that tourism is more sustainable and more integrated within the regional economy, society and environment (Hall, 1991; Gunn, 1994b; Pearce, 1989; Bramwell and Lane, 1993b; Gartner, 1996). The question of the sustainability of tourism development is on the agenda of growing numbers of stakeholders.

Tourism planning at the regional scale is a complicated undertaking that represents a formidable challenge. One reason for this is the sheer complexity of the tourist industry. The tourist industry is a multifaceted system consisting of a fragmented and broad array of inter-related activities, such as road transportation, hotels, attractions, and governmental planning and management (WTO, 1994; Gunn, 1994a; Getz and Jamal, 1994; Alipour, 1996; Hall, 2000a). In consequence, the decision-making processes required to deliver the tourism product involve numerous stakeholders, with no single stakeholder group having complete control of these processes (Bramwell and Lane, 1999). Effective regional tourism planning must consider all these activities, decision-making processes and stakeholders.

Regional tourism planning is also difficult because regions are complex geographical entities. Regions usually include areas with varying physical characteristics, natural resources, economic activities, ways of life and politics, so it can be difficult to understand how these elements interact with the larger region. For example, natural resources are likely to influence the economy of the region, and the region's economy tends to affect the social objectives and politics. There are also influences originating from outside of the region, such as national policies, relating to infrastructure, industry and agriculture which set specific development priorities. A region's historical legacy and culture also influences development and affects the values regarding regional tourism planning. They can also lead to differences in how natural and cultural resources are exploited. The complexity of regions is also affected by an intensification in the mobility of people, commodities and capital originating from other regions and countries (Jamal and Getz, 1999). The mix of physical and human elements between regions also influences development levels as well as development aspirations, capacity and potential.

The increasing use of tourism for regional development has promoted some academic interest in understanding the processes involved in regional scale tourism planning

(Lee, 1987; Pearce, 1989; Solá, 1992; Dowling, 1993; Gunn, 1994b; Komilis, 1994; Gartner, 1996; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996). A number of reasons have been identified in support of regional tourism planning. For example, the regional scale is considered well positioned to take account of relationships between local and national planning priorities and policies, and also between diverse economic, environmental, social and political concerns. It is suggested that tourism planning at the regional scale has the potential to bring together local and national tourism policies within a regional development perspective (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996; WTO, 1994). Gunn (1994b) argues that the regional approach is concerned with solving the problems of the region and inserting regional plans into the overall national development plan. Central planning cannot easily incorporate local level peculiarities, so regional tourism planning is better placed to bring these together and hence can help minimise tensions between national and local perspectives, notably around tourism's environmental and social impacts. In addition, regions may be well placed to manage any tensions between municipalities. More generally, Komilis (1994:70) argues that the regional scale "seems more appropriate for addressing the complex issues involved in mixing and interrelating various dimensions (economic, environmental, social) of the policies pursued, for making certain intersectoral connections, or for considering and assessing ecosystemic and socio-economic impacts".

Another reason for the increasing acceptance of regional tourism planning is that it is difficult for central planning to meet the planning needs of the diverse regions in a country, especially in large developing countries (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996). Large countries often have regions with distinctive natural, socio-economic and cultural features and related historical antecedents, leading to unequal capacities for tourism development. In large developing countries there also tends to be pronounced regional discrepancies in development levels, with related uneven distributions of wealth, infrastructure and managerial capacity. Such discrepancies lead to variations in the capacity of regional government to develop tourism infrastructure. Regional variations in tourism resources also favour certain types of tourism over others, such as resort-based tourism, adventure tourism and cultural tourism, which ends require specific planning strategies. Regions also vary in their natural, economic and socio-cultural carrying capacities in relation to tourism.

A key issue for regional tourism planning in developing countries is that most tourism planning models have been designed in and for developed countries. Using such models devised by developed countries in developing countries may well require

finance, information and expertise which is unavailable. Moreover, the social, cultural and political characteristics of developing countries may present obstacles which are less common in developed countries. Hence, there is the need for models of regional tourism planning that can respond adequately in both developed and developing countries.

Tosun and Jenkins (1996:522-528) present a number of arguments in support of a regional planning approach to tourism development in Turkey. These arguments are summarised and adapted in Table 2.1, and they may apply in many developing nations. The many tourism planning-related issues in this table as well as their implications for tourism planning at the regional level illustrate how the concept of regional tourism planning has been broadened considerably in recent years to encompass socio-economic, physical, environmental and political dimensions of space.

- Current notions of regional tourism planning appear to be much broader than those of the early regional tourism plans. These were based mainly on consultancy work and were concerned largely with economic and physical planning (Gunn, 1965, 1994b; Kiemstedt, 1967; Lawson and Baud-Bovy, 1977). The popularisation in the 1980s and 1990s of the concepts of sustainable development and of strategic and holistic planning (Acerenza, 1985; WCED, 1987; Hall, 1991; Dowling, 1993; Komilis, 1994; Gunn, 1994a; Green 1995; Alipour, 1996) led to a broadening of regional tourism planning from an almost exclusive focus on economic and physical planning to also encompass political, social and environmental issues and inter-sectoral interests (Bramwell and Lane, 1993b; Komilis, 1994; Robinson, 1999; Hall, 2000a). For example, Gunn (1994a:28) argues that "the main reason for planning at [the regional] scale is better integration of the whole". This resembles Timothy's (1999:4) suggestion that sustainable approaches to tourism planning "have emphasized a forward-looking form of tourism development and planning that promotes the long-term health of natural and cultural resources, so that they will be maintained and durable, permanent landscapes for generations to come. The concept also accepts that tourism development needs to be economically viable in the long term and must not contribute to the degradation of the socio-cultural and natural environments".

Komilis (1994) advocates the use of five objectives behind the selection and promotion of tourism products in order to encourage sustainable development at the regional scale. According to the first objective, there should be a continuous process

Table 2.1 Arguments in support of a regional planning approach to tourism development in many large developing nations.

Issues	Related arguments
Geographical size of the country	"A country such as Turkey may be too large and lacking in homogeneity to be viewed from a single point of view. Hence, regionalization is inevitable" (p. 522).
Integration of the country's development	Considering the likely regional variations within large countries "a regional planning approach is necessary to integrate tourism into national development" (p. 522).
Development capacity of different regions	Every "location, region, resources, amenities and infrastructure have an unequal capacity for particular forms, types and scales of development" (p. 523).
Tourism takes place in communities within regions	Regional and local government are geographically closer to where many of tourism's impacts occur. Hence, decentralising the powers of central government to regional and local government is an alternative strategy to deal with these impacts.
Tourism problems often vary between regions	Each region within a country tends to face tourism development issues that are unique to the region.
Varying regional prospects	"As experience in many tourist destinations has indicated, not every destination has to have the same fate and the life cycle can be extended" (p. 525).
Necessity for comprehensive and flexible planning	A comprehensive and flexible approach to regional tourism planning may help manage tourism more effectively, particularly in developing countries where the public administration system is not well established.
Tourism is a multisectoral and fragmented activity	Tourism encompasses many small businesses of varying types, and it serves both visitors and local residents. In consequence, "an integrated and comprehensive regional planning approach is essential to be sure that all the components of the tourism industry are harmoniously developed and managed to meet visitors' and hosts' needs in a particular tourist destination" (p. 526).
Distribution of tourism benefits	Developing countries often have regional disparities in their socio-economic development. A regional planning approach "may be used as a tool to contribute to equitable distribution of the various benefits of tourism development between developed and undeveloped regions, and amongst host communities" (p. 527).
Increased tourist satisfaction	A regional approach to tourism planning, management and marketing may help hosts to develop positive attitudes toward visitors. Such attitudes may increase the likelihood of tourist satisfaction.
Sustainability	Planning and management approaches focused on specific regional destinations "are not only necessary, but have almost become basic needs in order to develop tourism in a sustainable form" (p. 528).

Source: Adapted from Tosun and Jenkins, 1996.

of encouraging greater differentiation and vitality in regional tourism products in order to increase regional competitiveness. The second objective relates to economic integration, and it involves maximising the benefits of tourism across the region by providing optimal linkages between tourism and other sectors of the regional economy. The third objective involves encouraging equity and paying attention to the local conditions necessary for wider participation in tourism decision-making. The intention here is to minimise social conflicts by seeking to avoid the negative consequences of tourism growth. The fourth objective entails taking account of

environmental considerations in tourism policies and product development, such as by setting constraints or limits and by adjusting trade-offs in decision-making processes. The fifth objective relates to the need for adaptability in a region's tourism development so that it is responsive to the requirements of tourists.

Effective regional tourism planning is likely to involve strategic planning, which Hall (1991) suggests is also a prerequisite of sustainable tourism planning. Komilis (1994) contends that strategic planning is a key issue for academics and planning professionals as well as for the political agenda. This is because of the intensity of environmental problems, the undesirable consequences of unplanned development and the pressure of 'big business', which encourage the public sector to attempt to create more stable and secure operating conditions. Acerenza (1985) recommends that strategic tourism planning should begin with a critical assessment of both the positive and negative impacts of previous tourism development and an analysis of the existing political significance of tourism.

Tosun and Jenkins (1996) and Getz and Jamal (1994) have also argued that decentralisation is a necessary strategy for regional tourism planning and development. Decentralisation involves the transference of planning, implementation and management powers from higher administrative levels to lower ones, usually from the central government to regional and local governments. Tosun and Jenkins (1996) suggest that decentralised planning is not enough in itself to secure plan implementation and the attainment of the aims and objectives of tourism policies. They argue that it is a prerequisite that there is also decentralisation of political, administrative and financial powers. In their view, without this there is little prospect of effective implementation.

Regional tourism planning includes the concept of tourism centres. Major regional tourism centres may be developed as gateways to the region, and are often focused around marked concentrations of attractions or a major settlement (Pearce, 1989). Pearce remarks that one or two centres may be established in a region if the aim is to limit adverse social impacts on other parts of the region. If the aim is to spread economic growth across the region, then a larger number of tourism centres may be created. Pearce argues that clustered tourism development should be favoured in coastal regions in order to avoid ribbon development along all the coastline. He suggests that this policy may be reinforced by economic considerations to reduce the costs of providing infrastructure. According to Gunn (1994a), the location of regional

tourism centres is a major element of regional tourism plans and should reflect the location of regional destination zones. Destination zones are communities that have adequate infrastructure, potential to attract visitors and to support new tourism services, and adequate access from market sources.

The tourism planning literature identifies other important concerns for regional tourism planning. For example, Gunn (1994a) highlights general issues that should be addressed before initiating more specific planning processes, including the suitability of developments in relation to the region's socio-economic features, public policies, and to transport provision from markets. Do all the affected parties see the need for planning, are government, business and non-governmental organisations involved from the start in planning, is there communication with different constituencies about the benefits and costs of tourism, are steps taken to avoid exaggerated claims about tourism developments, is account taken of the region's political, economic and social policies, and is there integration of the different planning sectors, such as urban planning and transportation planning?

Gunn (1994a) identifies other considerations for regional tourism planning. First, there should be planning for all travel not just pleasure travel. Second, tourism planning should involve government, business, non-governmental organisations and communities in decision-making. Third, stakeholders with interests in the region need to understand the differences between their perspective on development and those of travellers. Fourth, regional tourism development goals need to consider improving the economy and business success, enhancing visitor satisfaction, protecting resources and involving the affected communities in the development process. Fifth, regional tourism planning needs to encourage the involvement of interested parties in decision-making. And, sixth, it needs to integrate issues related to local and national geographical scales of planning.

The discussion above illustrates the complex nature of tourism planning. In part, this complexity is because tourism is a multi-faceted and often fragmented industry that includes the interests of multiple stakeholder groups. Regional tourism planning is also complex because regions consist of an amalgam of natural, economic, social, cultural, political and environmental elements. The use of sustainable, strategic and holistic approaches in regional tourism planning also means that interests at the local, regional and national spatial scales need to be considered in decision-making processes. Finally, despite the suggestion that the regional planning approach can

play an important role toward sustainable tourism development, it may be difficult to put this concept into practice especially in developing countries which are often affected by limited resources, socio-economic crises and political instability.

2.3 STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM PLANNING

Stakeholder participation in the planning process first emerged as an important public and political issue in the 1950s (Abbott, 1996). However, stakeholder participation in tourism planning is a more recent development and it has been most forthcoming at the community level (Keogh, 1990; Joppe, 1996; Jamal and Getz, 1997) where tourism has been described as a 'community industry' (Murphy, 1985). Tourism academics and practitioners are increasingly recognising the importance of stakeholder participation in tourism planning at all geographical scales (Keogh, 1990; Drake, 1991; Simmons, 1994; Gartner, 1996; Marien and Pizam, 1997; Williams *et al.*, 1998; Jamal and Getz, 1999). Despite governments increasingly adopting tourism as a regional development tool, especially in developing countries, such as in Turkey (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996) and in Brazil (CODEAL, 1993; Becker, 1995), this has still – not led to extensive published research on stakeholder participation in regional tourism planning. Similarly, there have been few attempts in practice in developing countries to encourage stakeholders to participate fully in regional tourism planning.

The participation concept has been defined in many ways. For example, Arnstein (1969:216) defines it as "the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic process, to be deliberately included in the future". Participation in the tourism literature has been defined in varied ways, but there is usually a focus on the community. Drake (1991:132) defines tourism participation as "the ability of local communities to influence the outcome of development projects ... that have an impact on them". By contrast, Getz and Jamal (1994:155), based on Gray (1989), define participation in tourism planning as "a process of joint decision-making among autonomous and key stakeholders of an inter-organisational domain to resolve problems of the domain and/or to manage issues related to the domain". Despite numerous definitions of stakeholder participation in different planning fields, Abbott (1996) contends that there is still no clear understanding of what constitutes meaningful and effective participation.

The definitions of participation above appear to convey significant variations in their political content. Arnstein's definition implies the need for stakeholders to share power in the decision-making process explicitly through a re-distribution of power and,

Drake puts an emphasis on the self-mobilisation capacity of local populations to influence decision-making. Meanwhile, Getz and Jamal's notion of participation based on collaboration theory appears to restrict direct participation to a rather limited number of 'key' stakeholders, and hence presumably many stakeholders may be left outside the planning process. These three studies (Arnstein, 1969; Drake, 1991; Getz and Jamal, 1994) suggest that all types of stakeholders have the capacity to participate in the planning process and make decisions and/or influence decision-making. For example, examination of case studies involving collaborative tourism planning has demonstrated that stakeholder groups affected by a tourism project, including non-governmental organisations and community groups, all have the capacity to participate in planning and decision-making about the future of a destination (Getz and Jamal, 1994; Jamal and Getz, 1997). It becomes also evident that the political nuances around the effects of power on participation have crucial implications for the design of decision-making structures intended to promote stakeholder input in regional tourism planning. The degree of inclusion of multiple stakeholder interests in regional tourism planning will be significantly affected by the participation approach that is adopted, and both will be influenced by broader systems of values, ideologies and power relationships.

Several arguments can be put forward in support of stakeholder participation in tourism planning. For example, Drake (1991) observes that stakeholder participation can contribute to sustainable development by incorporating into decision-making the interests of community stakeholders affected by tourism. Second, stakeholder participation can help conserve resources by involving environmental interests. Third, it can also be argued that planners have a moral obligation to listen to the people who are affected by their projects (Kottak, 1985; WCED, 1987; Tacconi and Tisdell, 1992). Fourth, participation can be more democratic by providing stakeholders with additional information about proposed actions (Keogh, 1990). Fifth, stakeholder participation may have an educational component, providing stakeholders with skills to deal with planning problems relevant to the problem domain where they have interests (Sewell and Phillips, 1979). Sixth, some governments, development banks and non-governmental organisations have begun to recognise that a development project may be more sustainable if it has the support of local stakeholders (Drake, 1991). Finally, perhaps the most important benefit for stakeholders who have less power, information and planning skills is that this may enhance their ability to frame and discuss their interests with other stakeholders affected by regional tourism planning (Abbott, 1996; Healey, 1997).

The participation concept is not without controversy in tourism planning, despite the benefits that may be associated with it. Some scholars see stakeholder participation as an ideal which is undermined by practical problems. For example, Tacconi and Tisdell (1992) identify three practical obstacles to stakeholder participation. First, participation causes delay in project implementation. Second, it makes intensive use of personnel thus it reduces project efficiency. Third, wide participation is sometimes rejected by local bureaucrats and powerful elites because it decreases their control over projects. Their third argument illustrates again how stakeholder influence on tourism planning may be tilted towards powerful organisations and groups at the expense of less powerful stakeholders.

The meaningful involvement of stakeholders in regional tourism planning may require planners to identify a number of participation techniques, which can often best be used in combination. Table 2.2 adapts and summarises a categorisation developed by Marien and Pizam (1997) of some stakeholder participation strategies and techniques that can assist in tourism planning. The difference between these two groups of participation strategies and techniques relates to the objectives being sought. Administrative-orientated strategies and techniques are consultative in nature and they are used to build some consensus between public officials and other interested parties at large on tourism development policies. Consultation provides an opportunity for public debate about proposed developments (Burton, 1979) but key powerful stakeholders retain the right to decision-making. Stakeholder-oriented strategies and techniques provide more direct stakeholder involvement in the planning process. In this way, participation provides an opportunity for stakeholders to make tourism planning decisions or influence the decision-making process. Using stakeholder-oriented strategies and techniques involves some degree of recognition about the importance of the values of interested parties in general concerning planning for tourism development. These participation strategies and techniques have relevance at regional as well as other spatial scales.

The participation strategies and techniques in Table 2.2 involve many types of decision-making, ranging from litigation in confrontational strategies to the use of workshops in more co-operative and collaborative planning. Marien and Pizam (1997:172) suggest that "effective participation programmes in tourism ... require a combination of techniques that will work best for its unique set of constituents", and these constituents are likely to vary considerably between regions. It is important to remember that many participation models have been developed in and for developed

Table 2.2 Some strategies and techniques for stakeholder participation in regional tourism planning.

Administrative-orientated strategies and techniques	Stakeholder-oriented strategies and techniques
<u>Information exchange</u> - Drop-in centres - Public hearings - Large and small group public meetings - Focus group interviews - Telecommunications techniques <u>Education and support building</u> - Advisory groups and task forces - Technical and professional advice - Petitions - Workshops and seminars - Expert panels - Formal and professional training	<u>Decision-making supplements</u> - Direct confrontation - Litigation - Role playing and game playing <u>Representational input (active process)</u> - Votes, referendums and plebiscites - Partnership - Delegated power - Stakeholder control <u>Representational input (passive process)</u> - Nominal group technique (NGT) - Delphi process - Stakeholder surveys - Planning charrettes

Source: Adapted from Marien and Pizam, 1997.

countries, and at best these will require adapting for the very different cultural, political and financial circumstances of developing countries.

There is much debate about the extent to which all stakeholders participating in planning have their interests fully taken into consideration in decision-making (Arnstein, 1969; Pretty, 1995; Abbott, 1996). Arnstein's (1969) 'ladder of citizen participation' suggests that there are degrees of participation from manipulation to citizen control. In the tourism field, Pretty (1995) presents a typology of stakeholder participation based on the varying degrees of stakeholder control over decision-making. An adapted version of this typology forms Table 2.3. A key difference between the various types of participation in Pretty's typology is the level of power that participants have over decision-making. For example, in 'manipulative participation', decisions are made by key stakeholders while the other participants have no power to make decisions or to influence decision-making. In 'functional participation' stakeholders are involved when major decisions have already been made and participation aims to meet project goals rather than the interests of participating stakeholders. In 'self-mobilisation', participants have control over specific resource use but they may not have control over decision-making for developments that affect their other interests. However, there may be some degree of influence on decision-making. Pretty's typology of varying degrees of participation by stakeholders in tourism planning shows once again the importance of the political context and power

Table 2.3 Pretty's typology of stakeholder participation in tourism planning.

Types of participation	Related characteristics
Manipulative participation	Participation is simply a pretence. There may be stakeholder representatives on official boards, but they are unelected and have no power.
Passive participation	Stakeholders participate by being told what already has been decided or has happened. This may involve unilateral announcements by project management without listening to stakeholder responses. Information sharing is only with other "professionals".
Consultative participation	Stakeholders participate through consultation or by answering questions. However, external agents define the problems and information-gathering processes, and hence they control the analysis. The process does not accede any share in decision-making to other groups. Professionals are under no obligation to take account of stakeholder views.
Material incentive participation	Stakeholders participate in trials of a new approach or technology by contributing resources (e.g. labour) in return for food, cash or other material incentives but they are not involved in testing the ideas or the process of learning. The stakeholders have no stake in prolonging the tested approach or technology when the incentives end.
Functional participation	Participation is seen by external agencies as a means to achieve project goals, especially reduced costs, and this may involve stakeholders forming groups to meet project objectives. While involvement may be interactive and involve shared decision-making it tends to arise only after major decisions have already been made by the external agents. At worst, local stakeholders may be co-opted only to serve the needs of the external agents.
Interactive participation	Stakeholders participate together in joint analysis and in the shared development of action plans and in the strengthening of local institutions. Participation is seen as a right, not just as the means to achieve project goals. The process involves inter-disciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and use systemic and structured learning processes. The group jointly takes control of local decisions and determines how available resources are used and they also have a joint stake in maintaining the resulting structures and practices.
Self-mobilisation participation	Stakeholders participate to change systems by taking initiatives independently of external institutions. They develop contacts with external institutions for the resources and technical advice they need, but they retain control over the resource use. Self-mobilisation can spread if governmental and non-governmental organisations provide an enabling framework of support. Self-mobilisation may or may not challenge existing distribution of wealth and power.

Source: Adapted from Pretty, 1995.

relations in participation processes.

Another issue discussed in the tourism literature is the effectiveness of stakeholder participation. According to Gunn (1994b:111), effective stakeholder participation in tourism planning should start at the onset of project planning. However, this alone does not guarantee that stakeholder participation will be effective. For example, stakeholder participation may be conducted in a manipulative way. Another aspect of the effectiveness of stakeholder participation concerns whether planners should start the planning process from their own perspective or from those of stakeholders likely to be affected by their actions. Tacconi and Tisdell (1992) argue that planning may be improved by starting from the needs of stakeholders other than those of the planners, as this may promote the objectives of sustainable development, but they also suggest that there are many examples where improvements have not resulted.

Stakeholder participation in tourism planning may result from the requirements of international funding or donor organisations or from the preference of a key individual or lead organisation involved in the planning process. Not uncommonly, stakeholder input is gathered through consultation approaches where the collected information subsequently may be considered by a few decision-makers or they may alternatively ignore it. As shown in Pretty's participation typology, consultative participation involves external stakeholders defining the problems, conducting information gathering processes and analysis. Consultation approaches may allow participants to exert a little more influence on decision-making than manipulative and passive forms of participation but there are participation forms, such as interactive participation, in which the potential influence of stakeholders on decision-making may be considerably larger. Also, there is a big difference between consultation and collaboration approaches (collaborative planning is discussed in detail in section 2.6). Stakeholder participation through consultative approaches could significantly broaden the information base for regional tourism planning, but such consultation can be of little use for stakeholders who may not be articulate enough to express their views to decision-makers or who lack power to influence them. This may imply a functional dichotomy in the planning process between the planners who are responsible for the project and the other stakeholders of the problem domain. On the one hand, planners may incorporate the collected information selectively in decision-making to enhance their own views of project development. On the other hand, the stakeholders who provided information through consultation are unlikely to have any control over the use of the information they provided. If regional tourism planning is to be sustainable, holistic and strategic, then there is a pressing need for approaches to stakeholder participation that are more inclusive of the interests and views of all affected stakeholder groups.

Based on a review of the work of numerous authors (Brandon, 1982; Acerenza, 1985; Baud-Bovy, 1985; Murphy, 1985; Getz, 1986, 1987), Pearce (1989:245) argues that tourism planning approaches have evolved significantly, with "a move away from a narrow concern with physical or promotional planning facilitating the growth of tourism to a broader, more balanced approach recognising the needs and views of not only tourists but also the wider community". This is similar to Green's (1995:94) assertion that tourism now tends to be seen as "one element of a wider socio-economic setting ... in which tourism is recognised as one of the many elements for consideration". This wider perspective on the tourist industry expands considerably the number of stakeholders whose interests are acknowledged as potentially affected by tourism

development. This broadening in the concept of tourism planning to account for the multiple affected interests means that stakeholder participation in regional tourism planning is inevitably highly complex. For example, regional tourism planning is likely to have to encompass many municipalities, often with strong political rivalries between them (Joppe, 1996), and also community participation within each municipality.

Tosun and Jenkins (1996:526) contend that involving multiple stakeholders in tourism planning is most appropriate at the community and regional scales for "a regional or a destination-specific approach is the only appropriate scale which may encourage community participation in tourism development". Tourism planning at the national scale "is concerned with tourism development policies, structure plans, facility standards, institutional factors and all the other elements necessary to develop and manage tourism" (WTO, 1994:03), but it is unlikely that many local and regional stakeholders will see the relevance of their involvement in such national-scale issues. It has been observed that tourism policy-making "involves the *values* of individuals, groups and organisations in the struggle for *power* through human interaction relative to the decision" (Hall and Jenkins, 1995:33; Henning, 1974). The extent to which stakeholders are involved in making tourism planning decisions is affected by the political dimensions of the values and ideologies of stakeholder groups and of decision-making structures and administrative arrangements (Hall and Jenkins, 1995; Joppe, 1996). The choice of participation approaches in the planning process will reflect values, interests and power relations and often can lead to different distributive outcomes (Healey, 1990). More powerful stakeholders may influence the decision-making process in order to protect their own interests, and this is often at the expense of the interests of less powerful groups.

The value-laden nature of tourism planning has been depicted as "the mobilisation of bias. Some issues are organised into politics while some others are organised out" (Hall and Jenkins, 1995:69 [after Schattaschneider, 1960]). Conventionally, government bureaucracies have been represented as value-neutral, there simply to follow the objectives set by politicians with the utmost economy and efficiency. But Hall and Jenkins (1995:42) argue that "bureaucrats are not immune to political struggle and, hence, value competition ... Bureaucratic bodies cannot be neutral instruments; inevitably they develop powers and styles of behaviour that press in certain directions, and close off potential ... pathways".

The politics of tourism planning involves identifying exactly who should participate. Another issue is the extent to which a representative of a stakeholder group is accountable to the interests of those being represented (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Bramwell and Lane, 2000). Keogh (1990:460) makes two points in relation to tourism planning that are relevant to the question of stakeholder accountability. He argues on the one hand, that in a representative democracy there is the tendency for citizens to trust their representatives hoping that they will act in their best interests, while on the other hand representation has been more forthcoming from specific interest groups rather than from the general public. He contends that as a result, the process of participation has tended to be conservative, frequently institutionalised, and often more representative of socio-economic and environmental elites.

The question of who should participate is particularly complex in the context of regional tourism planning. As discussed above, planning affects multiple stakeholders who have interests in diverse fields, such as the regional economy, environment, infrastructure provision, community development, the business environment, public security, health care, education, public administration and social justice. Regional tourism planning also affects numerous stakeholder groups located outside the region, such as banks, airlines, hotel chains, national government and non-governmental conservation organisations. Regional tourism development is likely to affect these groups because it involves, for example, the construction and upgrading of tourism infrastructure and increased numbers of tourists visiting the region. Impacts may also include increased vehicular traffic, water pollution, inflation, prostitution and greater demand for welfare, education and social services.

Sewell and Phillips (1979:358) highlight the issues of the inputs for decision-making which are needed from interested parties and how these inputs can be obtained most effectively. Keogh (1990) argues in the context of tourism planning that there is much doubt as to what are the really important issues at stake and what are the attitudes to these issues of all the main affected stakeholders. Another question is whether the important issues for stakeholders should be incorporated on an *ad hoc* basis or in an institutionalised way. When the latter is considered the best option, then there is the further question of the extent to which institutional processes should be established (Sewell and Phillips, 1979). One more difficulty with stakeholder participation concerns how to motivate stakeholders to participate in tourism planning, especially in developing countries where stakeholders may be sceptical or lacking in trust due to past political competition, corruption, problems of controlling the bureaucracy, and

making it more accountable and a general scarcity of funding and other resources to implement decisions (Morah, 1996). Particular difficulties may arise in countries that in recent years have experienced dictatorial regimes, such as in Brazil (Vieira, 1995; Ribeiro, 1998), where public sector staff may be apprehensive or uncertain about democratic planning approaches (Garcia, 1988).

This literature review has identified several issues relevant to stakeholder participation in regional tourism planning. *First* and foremost, it must be kept in mind that planning is influenced by values, ideologies and power relations within and between organisations. *Second*, there is always an inequitable allocation of power in relation to regional tourism planning between stakeholders, such as between government, business interests, non-governmental organisations and communities. *Third*, participation appears to be more positive when it starts early in the planning process and, in the cases of emerging tourism destinations, this may need to be an antecedent to more formal planning mechanisms. *Fourth*, there are many strategies and techniques of stakeholder participation and these can be combined to meet the specific requirements and aims both of regional tourism planning and of the various stages involved in the planning process. *Fifth*, the degree to which the interests of multiple stakeholders are taken into account in planning is likely significantly to be influenced by the balance of power between them. *Sixth*, most participation models in the tourism literature were developed in and for developed countries, and in consequence these models may not be fully relevant to the economic, social-cultural and political contexts of planning in developing countries. *Seventh*, the general strategy or approach to participation adopted in any given planning situation is likely to affect the degree to which the interests of the multiple affected parties are later considered in the approaches and decision-making. The apparent neutrality with which participation approaches are usually dealt with in the literature is a political issue in itself, and this may affect stakeholder participation in real situations by favouring some approaches and techniques to the exclusion of others.

2.4 STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION IN SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING

The discussion about regional planning and sustainable development dates back at least to the 1920s (Roberts, 1995). As a planning concept, sustainability was popularised in the 1980s (Hunter, 1995) when sustainable development emerged as environmentalism's major new paradigm (Bramwell and Lane, 1993b). In the 1990s, tourism scholars also became involved in substantial discussions about sustainability,

and there is now an extensive literature about sustainable tourism planning and development (e.g. Dowling, 1993; Lane, 1994; Green, 1995; Bramwell *et al.*, 1996; Joppe, 1996; Robinson, 1999; Tremblay, 2000; Hall, 2000a). However, this literature highlights that there are clearly major difficulties involved in designing and implementing effective stakeholder participation in sustainable tourism planning. Recent published research has made new contributions to the debate and has opened new research avenues regarding stakeholder participation in tourism sustainability (Bramwell and Lane, 2000).

The sustainability concept has been interpreted in many ways but a number of core principles have long been recognised (Bramwell *et al.*, 1996). For example, there is concern for future generations and an understanding that development should meet present needs "without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987:8). Another common view is that "growth and development *per se* are not necessarily desirable" (Marien and Pizam, 1997:164). Due to an increased awareness of the detrimental effects of environmental impacts resulting from an 'at all costs' attitude to development in the 1970s and 1980s, there is now recognition among government and business about the need for the conservation of natural, built and human cultural resources as these are increasingly considered as a basis for our future well-being. There is also acceptance that the economic, social, cultural and environmental benefits and costs of development should be distributed in a fair way within society. Further, it is often suggested that sustainability has much to gain from multiple stakeholder participation in the planning process (Bramwell, 1998; LGMB, 1993).

In the tourism field, to a large extent, the perception of the need for sustainable planning and stakeholder participation in the planning process is linked to the increasing recognition that tourism can neither exist nor be planned in isolation from the rest of the economy and society (Komilis, 1994; Hunter, 1995). There is consensus among tourism scholars that in order for tourism to be planned effectively and stand a greater chance of being sustainable, much of the tourism planning effort needs to be devoted to understanding the inter-linkages between tourism and other policy fields, such as urban and rural development, environmental conservation and transportation, and also to giving proper consideration to the multiple interests affected by tourism development (Heeley, 1981; Lee, 1987; Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994a, 1994b; Hunter, 1995; Hall and Page, 1999).

The interfaces of tourism with society are manifold. For example, when tourism is used as a development strategy, tourism can cause significant effects on local and regional economies, and economic sectors ranging from agriculture to the construction industry. Tourism development can lead to an improvement in the quality of life of communities by fostering increased provision of education, health care and social services, but at the same time tourism can also add to or worsen such social problems as crime, violence and prostitution. Tourism can provide an opportunity for cultural interaction for tourists and residents alike, but it can also lead to adverse cultural impacts in tourist destinations. Tourism may give rise to strong political leadership with positive benefits for local and regional development, but it may also cause political problems between municipalities that have conflicting interests or have a history of economic and political rivalries (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996; Reed, 1997). While tourism planning can include ameliorative measures for environmental protection, the industry has caused severe environmental impacts world-wide. Furthermore, while tourism planning can favour local technologies by incorporating them into the tourist product, it might marginalise local technologies as, for example, in the case with nature-based tourism. For example, on the coastal zone of Alagoas state, Brazil, there are traditional small rum distilleries ('alambiques') and small-scale family-run devices ('casas-de-farinha') to produce cassava flour, a staple food in the region (SEPLAN, 1994). If tourism is based only on sun, sand and sea on the coast of Alagoas state, without taking into consideration the interests of the 'alambiques' and 'casas-de-farinha', which are also important cultural features of the region, these activities may not derive much benefit from tourism development. These many linkages between tourism and other socio-economic activities illustrate the multiple interests that are often affected by the tourism industry.

While there is consensus that tourism affects many other socio-economic activities, there is much debate about how to give effective consideration to those activities. There are no definitive answers to this question. Nonetheless, there is recognition among academics that stakeholder participation in the planning process has the potential substantially to enhance the sustainability of tourism development (Drake, 1991; Long, 1993; Joppe, 1996; Jamal and Getz, 1997; Marien and Pizam, 1997; Hall, 2000a; Jamal and Getz, 1999; Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 2000). Yet the principle of stakeholder participation is not without controversy. For example, it has been pointed out that participation of community stakeholders in tourism project decision-making can exert pressure to increase the range or amount of benefits they receive beyond those originally planned, with consequent increases to project costs.

Also, some planners perhaps understandably have concerns that increased participation may lead to their loss of control of the planning agenda to other stakeholder groups (Goddard and Cotter, 1986). Additionally, based on the experiences of participation in other planning fields, it is suggested that participation on a substantial scale is both an idealistic dream and also that in a representative democracy it is impractical and unnecessary (O'Riordan, 1978). However, if this were the case, pressure groups and protest movements that oppose major development plans would be virtually non-existent in western advanced capitalist countries.

Although it is often difficult and time-consuming to involve a range of stakeholders in the planning process, this involvement may have significant benefits for sustainability. In particular, participation by multiple stakeholders with differing interests and perspectives might encourage more consideration of the varied social, cultural, environmental, economic and political issues affecting sustainable development (Bramwell and Lane, 1993b). Timothy (1998) argues that participation in tourism planning by many stakeholders can help to promote sustainable development by increasing efficiency, equity and harmony. For example, broad stakeholder involvement has the potential to increase the self-reliance of stakeholders and their awareness of the issues, facilitate more equitable trade-offs between stakeholders with competing interests, and promote decisions that enjoy a greater degree of 'consensus' and shared ownership (Warner, 1997).

It can also be suggested that participation by several stakeholders is likely to contribute to planning outcomes being reached that are more balanced and which serve the common good more than narrow sectional interests (Ostrom, 1990; Innes, 1995). Additionally, participation by public and private interests might foster better co-ordination between these sectors, and, by involving more parties who need to implement the planning decisions, might increase the likelihood of the successful implementation of a tourism plan (Inskeep, 1994). Stakeholder participation could also help minimise conflicts by providing an opportunity for stakeholder groups who hold conflicting interests to express and discuss their interests and concerns in a more direct way. Potentially, participation might also have an educational function for local communities because participants have opportunities to expand their understanding of planning and of the tourist industry, and as a result they may gain an enhanced appreciation of how their communities may be affected by tourism development.

Stakeholder participation might also foster better planning by providing all parties with additional information and by helping to identify new alternatives. Furthermore, stakeholder participation could assist in legitimising the decision-making process, reinforcing the accountability of project managers, and enhancing the political acceptability of projects (Drake, 1991; Long, 1993; Marien and Pizam, 1997). It is possible that involving stakeholders in the planning process will help create a sense of ownership among participants regarding the decisions, and that in turn this will improve the implementation of decisions. Without their participation, the affected parties might consider that the planning outcomes and developments have been imposed on them and they could oppose tourism plans irrespective of whether they are good or bad.

There is growing acceptance among practitioners of the importance of participation for sustainability, but securing the effective participation of multiple stakeholders in the planning process is a difficult task, and there is usually a wide gap on the ground between the advocacy of participation and its effective use (Mowforth and Munt, 1998). This is supported by Jamal and Getz's (1999:291) contention that "multi-sectoral and community involvement in addressing development issues ... is easily recommended, but the difficulties of enacting such processes for *effective* participation tend to be underestimated".

One difficulty involved in promoting stakeholder participation in sustainable tourism planning is that there has been little sustained attention to this issue in the tourism literature (Witt *et al.*, 1991; Green and Hunter, 1992). In addition, the limited research on stakeholder participation in tourism planning has tended to be focused on the more local or community scales (Mowforth and Munt, 1998; Roberts and Simpson, 2000; Jamal and Getz, 1999). Although there is a need for improved knowledge about involving multiple stakeholders in tourism planning at local scales, tourism is also being planned at larger geographical scales in several parts of the world (Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994a; Becker, 1995; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996; Timothy, 1999). Another source of difficulty is that sustainable tourism planning is often discussed in a compartmentalised way, with a focus on such issues as socially sustainable tourism (Long, 1993) or environmentally sustainable tourism (Dowling, 1993), when sustainability needs to be considered as an holistic concept (Murphy, 1985; Inskeep, 1991). Hence, planners are likely to face conceptual and practical difficulties when considering stakeholder participation in sustainable tourism planning at larger scales, such as the regional level.

The potential benefits and difficulties of multiple stakeholder participation in sustainable tourism planning possibly hold true for both developed and less developed countries. However, there are significant differences between these two groups of countries, with the particularities of developing countries likely to add to the complexities inherent in promoting stakeholder participation. Hence, it is useful to take a closer look at the problems that are more prominent in the developing world which may affect participation. One difficulty for participation in developing countries is that the participation concept largely originated in developed countries (Mowforth and Munt, 1998). Participation approaches that were developed in and for developed countries may not be appropriate in developing countries given their significant socio-economic, cultural, administrative and political differences. In addition, the theoretical and practical debates regarding stakeholder participation in tourism planning mainly concern developed countries, though there are exceptions (Timothy, 1998, 1999a; Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 2000).

Another potential influence on stakeholder participation in developing countries is the existence of serious social problems in these countries, such as declining economies, unemployment, poor education and health-care provision. In an attempt to overcome these problems, governments, business groups and communities all very often aspire for rapid economic growth (Tosun and Jenkins, 1998), even if, as is often the case, that growth may not be sustainable. This widespread aspiration for rapid growth may mean that some stakeholder groups are disinterested in participating in planning as they feel that their voices will be ignored. For example, business groups and communities may be interested above all else in the delivery of infrastructure and in the provision of health care, education and social services. Furthermore, the political dynamics in developing countries are often unstable and unpredictable, with rapid and sometimes abrupt changes in political leadership. This also leads to frequent changes in the staff of planning organisations and to a lack of continuation in the development policies being pursued. Because of these problems and as a result of political promises often going unmet, local communities often perceive municipal and state planning levels as being too remote from, and disinterested in their own concerns, and hence they may not feel motivated to discuss larger-scale tourism development plans (Long, 1993).

In some political contexts, however, such as in post-dictatorship periods, there may be some impetus for more democratic approaches to planning (Roberts and Simpson, 2000). Multiple stakeholders may then have some opportunities to work with official

tourism planning organisations in ways that were inconceivable during dictatorial periods. In such transitional periods, there is usually reduced control on society either through coercion or through political and ideological channels. For example, Roberts and Simpson (2000) report that in Romania and Bulgaria there have been more democratic planning experiences in the tourism field during the period following the collapse of their dictatorial regimes. Studies of Latin American countries also suggest that the period subsequent to the collapse of specific dictatorships have presented countries with opportunities for experimentation with new governmental views and practices that are more inclusive of the collective interests of society (Garcia, 1988). In such transitional socio-political contexts, the official planning organisations for tourism development might promote broader participation in planning by highlighting the demands of such financing organisations as the World Bank and the Interamerican Development Bank for broad stakeholder participation in the planning process for development projects. However, while the planners and bureaucrats might decide in transitional periods to adopt more democratic planning approaches involving wider stakeholder participation (Roberts and Simpson, 2000), they may still block the interests of less powerful stakeholders (Hall and Jenkins, 1995).

In both developed and developing countries, stakeholder participation in planning is strongly influenced by a country's social and political structures and practices. In the case of totalitarian regimes, control over society may be enforced by repression or force, and it usually excludes most socio-economic and political groups from decision-making, notably those groups whose views potentially conflict with the prevalent autocratic interests. In democratic states where the social and political order has been long established, the influence of elected politicians and of bureaucracies over society and consequently also over planning organisations is exerted in more subtle ways. A common form of influence in democracies is the use of lobbying so that certain individuals are appointed to key posts in public administration. In this way, the country's political and often also economic elites tend to have their interests represented more strongly in public administration and hence in official planning organisations. In consequence, the interests of workers, communities and non-governmental organisations may often be under-represented.

Stakeholder participation in tourism planning in all countries is also affected in fundamental ways by power issues. For example, more powerful stakeholders involved in planning may feel reluctant to share power in relation to the future of a project with other stakeholders, although they may do so if they feel dependent to

some extent on the resources of those stakeholders (Emery and Trist, 1965; Rhodes, 1996). In many planning fields, especially in land use planning, stakeholder participation has often resulted from stakeholder pressure to express their views about proposed developments, and it is probably unlikely that wide participation will result from the altruism of the stakeholders who dominate a planning process.

Tourism planning is also greatly affected by the values and ideologies of planners and others involved in tourism planning organisations (Hall and Jenkins, 1995; Joppe, 1996). As Jamal and Getz (1999:290) suggest: "the domain of tourism planning and development is a *political* one, where the needs, demands and values of a diverse number of stakeholders impact" on the domain's future. Despite the importance of politics, there is often little discussion of the political implications of stakeholder participation or of the power relationships that exist within tourism planning processes (Norkunas, 1993). For example, attention should be directed to whether planning organisations are more accountable to those stakeholder groups that are politically powerful in society than they are to less powerful groups, such as communities and non-governmental organisations. In this context, Hall and Jenkins (1995:45) argue that "different interests, with different sets of values, compete with each other to influence or control the tourism [planning] agenda. The success of these groups is relative to their power within the [planning] arena".

Marien and Pizam (1997) contend that planning requires, among other things, the opening of power distribution channels for stakeholders to feel encouraged to participate. However, it is most unlikely that power will be distributed to multiple stakeholders in equitable ways within a tourism planning domain. In fact, participation tends to be limited merely to consultation and, while this is a useful planning instrument, it might not be an effective instrument to more widely distribute power. For example, when planners consult with multiple stakeholders about proposed tourism developments this may be used merely to justify those developments and to placate opposing groups (Arnstein, 1969; Pretty, 1995). Consultation may well not involve feedback to inform the participants whether or not their views have influenced the planning decisions.

The discussion so far indicates that an analysis of the economic, socio-political and cultural contexts is crucial for a full understanding of stakeholder participation in sustainable tourism planning. It is surprising then that this type of analysis has been largely overlooked in the tourism field. Much published research on participation in

tourism planning has examined the participation methods and techniques available, the planning stages when these methods and techniques might be used, and how they have been used in specific cases. The published research indicates that the participation of multiple stakeholder groups might promote tourism sustainability, but it also suggests that there are major difficulties to overcome in order for participation to be implemented effectively and for it to attain the objectives of tourism sustainability. The pooling of varied social, political and financial resources from several stakeholder groups, including their knowledge and expertise, is likely to provide decision-makers with a broader basis for decision-making. On the other hand, the political nature of planning poses planners with a number of difficulties in their attempts to secure more effective and more equitable forms of stakeholder participation in sustainable tourism planning. These problems are likely to be ever greater in the context of developing or newly industrialised countries.

2.5 STAKEHOLDER ASSESSMENT

What approaches can be taken to assessing the stakeholders who are affected by a tourism project and also might participate in collaborative tourism planning for the project?

A *first* potential approach is to examine whether the stakeholders who become involved in collaborative arrangements for a project adequately represent the affected stakeholders (Boiko *et al.*, 1996). If the collaborating stakeholders are not representative, then some needs might not be articulated and related planning alternatives could be ignored, and stakeholders who are excluded might reject the resulting planning proposals (Gregory and Keeney, 1994). Finn (1996) also suggests that problems can arise if some stakeholders are excluded from the early stages of the collaboration process. For example, it risks having to begin all over again as members joining at a later stage insist on discussing and negotiating about their understanding of the issues and about their views on planning options (Bryson, 1988; Gray, 1989). Another consideration is whether the stakeholders involved in collaborative planning includes parties with significant financial, institutional or political power and whose involvement might significantly broaden the planning options which are feasible for the other stakeholders (Warner, 1997).

A *second* approach involves passing information from assessments of relevant stakeholders to the stakeholders involved in collaborative planning arrangements in

order to improve their understanding of the interests and viewpoints of other stakeholders (Finn, 1996). The information from these assessments might also assist the stakeholders to identify strategies to secure specific management or political outcomes (Bryson and Roering, 1987). For example, such information could enable stakeholders to identify parties who are supportive, opposed or neutral to their interests. These stakeholders might then form coalitions among supportive stakeholders in order to enhance their power and also to target neutral or 'swing' stakeholders with special lobbying (Bryson, 1988; Rowe *et al.*, 1994). Such political objectives may be very contentious.

A *third* potential approach is to identify stakeholders who are considered to have legitimate and important views but need to have their capacities raised to enable them to put these views forward and to negotiate in collaborative decision-making arrangements (Carroll, 1993). For example, they may lack technical knowledge about tourism planning or skills in presenting their views in meetings, and these might be developed through education and training. Warner (1997:418) adopts a normative position that 'stakeholder targeting' is needed to create an equitable basis for collaborative negotiations, and that "a 'consensus' model of participation should direct early effort towards those stakeholders who are most polarized from a capability to negotiate collaboratively".

The approaches mentioned so far can be developed further by a *fourth*: asking stakeholders affected by the tourism issue or project to identify other stakeholders who could be of interest to the researcher. Stakeholders can also be asked for their opinions on which stakeholders affected by a tourism project ought to be involved in its planning. Stakeholders' opinions can be collected using such methods as focus group discussions, interviews and questionnaires. The stakeholders who are identified by other stakeholders as relevant to a tourism project will reflect the value judgements of the stakeholders themselves (Mark and Shotland, 1985).

The snowball method is a useful means of identifying relevant stakeholders based on the views of other stakeholders. This method can involve identifying a core subset of actors who are affected by an issue or project and asking them to nominate other stakeholders they consider have relevant characteristics. These nominated stakeholders then can be asked to nominate others they consider have the characteristics, with the potential to repeat this process until few new stakeholders are identified (Finn, 1996; Rowley, 1997). The snowball method can be very useful at a

local level. Political rather than personal knowledge may be particularly critical in the use of the snowball method at regional and national scales.

A *fifth* approach to assess relevant stakeholders is to place them on a diagram or map according to their key relationships to the issue. A network of arrows can then be used to show existing or likely relationships between the stakeholders, such as the involvement of some of them in collaborative planning arrangements. Patterns of particularly important relationships usually emerge, and these patterns can be portrayed on a revised map. The resulting stakeholder map, usually involving a complex array of multiple relationships, can be examined using social network analysis. The purpose of this analysis is to evaluate the relational networks between stakeholders, notably to determine interdependencies, constraints and behaviours, and how their behaviours affect the network (Marin and Mayntz, 1991; Rowley, 1997).

Stakeholders affected by an issue or project can be positioned on a map according to many relationships (Harrison and St John, 1994). Only three of these relationships are discussed here, although these three can be particularly important.

The first such relationship is the power of different stakeholders affected by an issue to influence the relationships between them (Eden, 1996). Mitchell *et al.* (1997) suggest that the power of a stakeholder in such relationships is related to the extent to which it can impose its will through coercion, through access to material or financial resources, or through normative pressure. A second relationship is the perceived legitimacy of the claims of different stakeholders. Legitimacy relates to perceptions that the interests or claims of a stakeholder are appropriate or desirable, with these perceptions being based on socially constructed values and beliefs. It has been claimed in the context of ecotourism that "legitimacy is socially produced in the communicative interaction among stakeholders" (Lawrence *et al.*, 1997:309). A third relationship is that of the urgency of the claims of different stakeholders. According to Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997:867), the urgency arises from "the degree to which stakeholder claims call for immediate attention". Such claims for immediate attention will be affected by views on importance, which in turn are affected by the other attributes of power and legitimacy. These three relationships are likely to be significant influences on which stakeholder groups become involved in collaborative planning arrangements around an issue.

The utility of the first and fourth of these approaches is examined in the empirical research and is used in the assessment of who was included and excluded in the collaborative planning around the Costa Dourada project.

2.6 COLLABORATION THEORY AND TOURISM

There is growing acceptance among scholars in several fields that the traditional means for resolving conflicts between organisations, such as litigation, are no longer effective for solving multi-party, complex social problems (Emery and Trist, 1965; Rhodes, 1996). The limitations of litigation and the increased interdependence between organisations require solutions that are based on new interorganisational forms, such as those that emerge with collaborative-based relations. Trist (1977b:268-269) notes that "The prevailing organizational form in advanced industrial societies is the technocratic bureaucracy ... The competitive technocratic bureaucracy is a singular organization supposed to have no other interest than its own self-interests". A technocratic bureaucracy may have limited potential to provide effective solutions to many contemporary social problems because solving such problems usually involves taking into account the interests of other stakeholders, through shared decision-making processes. Collaboration, for instance, appears to be better equipped to establish such collective solutions (Gray, 1989; Healey, 1997). When stakeholders recognise that working together to solve a common problem offers potential advantages, then collaboration may help to resolve conflicts between them or to advance shared visions concerning the future of the inter-organisational domain to which they belong. The central idea to collaboration is that organisations involved in collaborative arrangements can gain benefits that would not arise if they acted single-handedly (Gray, 1989; Wood and Gray, 1991).

2.6.1 General Context for Collaboration

The emergence of collaboration theory is linked to the concept of 'turbulence' (Emery and Trist, 1965; Trist, 1973; Jamal and Getz, 1995). In turbulent fields, competing organisations acting independently in many directions "produce unanticipated and dissonant consequences in the overall environment they share" (Trist, 1983:273). Turbulence results from the interaction of the various organisations involved with a problem and from social-economic and political dynamics of the inter-organisational domain they share.

The tourist industry has been depicted as a typically turbulent environment (Jamal and Getz, 1995), for tourism is a multifaceted industry that includes many different

organisations, such as those involved in attractions, services, transportation and promotion (Pearce, 1989; Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994a), and these organisations may have interests at local, regional and national geographical scales (Pearce, 1989; WTO, 1994; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996). Despite being a multi-stakeholder domain, the tourist industry usually lacks internal co-ordination (Jamal and Getz, 1995). There are also co-ordination difficulties in tourism planning between different geographical scales (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996). As a consequence, the tourist industry tends to operate in a fragmented way, using communication systems that are usually underdeveloped (Selin, 1993; Fyall *et al.*, 2000), thus causing unwanted consequences within the domain shared by tourism organisations and other stakeholder groups outside tourism.

Resolving conflicts and advancing shared tourism development visions is a difficult task due to the increasing environmental complexity, change and organisational interdependence within tourism-related domains. In this context, strategies to advance organisation-based interests might be inappropriate as they can increase the turbulence in the inter-organisational domain to which the organisation belongs (Trist, 1977a; Jamal and Getz, 1995). Turbulent fields generate a high level of uncertainty for stakeholders as they may be unaware of the whole causal network of relations existing in the domain (Emery and Trist, 1965). For example, business organisations in a regional tourism domain may be unaware of the government's tourism goals and hence may feel uncertain as to how to develop their product or services. In such a context, decisions made by individual organisations without taking into consideration the interests of other stakeholders may cause unwanted consequences in the inter-organisational domain they share. Similarly, the creation of infrastructure for regional tourist development may give rise to a new situation where all affected have to re-adjust their goals and management to cope with new, domain-level challenges. Here the organisations involved may not be able to develop a realistic understanding of the domain, including the direction of changes, and may fail to create adequate solutions at the domain level, resulting in unforeseen impacts on other organisations.

Collaboration theorists suggest that when organisations appreciate their mutual interdependence relative to a problem then collaborative arrangements have the power to advance more appropriate solutions (Trist, 1983; Gray, 1989; Wood and Gray, 1991). Collaboration has also been recognised by tourism scholars as potentially useful to address problem domain challenges in tourism (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Parker, 1999; Fyall *et al.*, 2000). Sharing a common problem is often

insufficient for stakeholders to decide to work together collaboratively. Stakeholder commitment to collaborate is likely to be strengthened the more they perceive that (1) the present situation fails to serve their interests; (2) collaboration will produce positive outcomes; (3) it is possible to reach a fair agreement; (4) there is parity among the stakeholders; and (5) the other participants also agree to collaborate to craft a collective solution (Gray, 1989). To participate in collaborative negotiations in tourism planning, stakeholders need to work jointly and to abide by shared rules (Wood and Gray, 1991).

According to several authors, in collaboration stakeholders must remain formally autonomous by retaining their powers to make decisions independently (Wood and Gray, 1991; Marin and Mayntz, 1991; Jamal and Getz, 1995). While collaborating stakeholders need to observe shared rules in the planning process to participate in joint decision-making concerning the problem domain, they need to retain the freedom to join and leave the collaboration. They are also likely to need to enjoy the freedom to act in competitive, independent ways regarding issues not included in the collaborative agenda (Rhodes, 1996).

Drawing on an examination of nine diverse collaborative arrangements, as well as extensive previous empirical research on collaborative arrangements, Wood and Gray (1991) propose six theoretical perspectives that may be used to examine and explain collaborative behaviour, which have been later elaborated upon by Long (1997). These theoretical perspectives and their respective focus appear in Table 2.4. The nine collaborative arrangements examined by Wood and Gray argue that the identified preconditions, processes and outcomes of collaboration tend to vary between these theoretical perspectives. For example, in the case of the 'resource dependence', 'microeconomics' and 'strategic management' perspectives, the collaborative processes were not addressed in any detail. An examination of the collaboration-based literature in the tourism field shows that the analytical potential of these theoretical perspectives, both individually and collectively in more integrated approaches, for understanding collaborative initiatives has only started being investigated (Long, 1997; Fyall *et al.*, 2000).

In the early 1990s, scholars started to recognise that collaborative arrangements were becoming increasingly important in the tourism field (Selin and Beason, 1991; Selin, 1993). Hall (2000a:146), proposes that moves to increasingly integrated tourism planning may be regarded as a collaborative approach in that it "requires participation

Table 2.4 Six theoretical perspectives to understand collaborative behaviour.

Theoretical perspective	Focus
Resource dependence	"This approach examines how focal organizations might reduce environmental uncertainty and work towards achieving stability in their domain by seeking necessary resources externally. The focus is on minimizing inter-organizational dependencies and preserving the organization's autonomy while recognizing that inter-organizational relationships are necessary in order to acquire resources" (Long, 1997:240).
Corporate social performance	"This perspective focuses on stakeholders defining and achieving social and institutional legitimacy for their collaborative actions. The Corporate Social Performance approach therefore moves beyond narrow organizational concerns to examine wider, societal consequences of partnerships" (Long, 1997:240).
Strategic management	"This perspective is primarily concerned with strategy within independent, focal organizations. However, in terms of partnerships, the way in which participants in an alliance might regulate their self-serving behaviours so that collective gains can be achieved would be a legitimate area of inquiry from a strategic management viewpoint" (Long, 1997:240).
Microeconomics	"Achieving transaction efficiencies in markets is the main concern of this approach in an inter-organizational context. The emphasis would, therefore, be on ways in which inter-organizational partners might overcome impediments to efficiency in their bilateral transactions. A wider question would involve an examination of the overall efficiency of resource use within an entire inter-organizational network" (Long, 1997:241).
Institutional/negotiated order	This perspective focuses on the institutional environment within which partnerships operate. The emphasis is, therefore, upon the norms and ideologies present in the institutional environment, and ways in which alliances might adjust to or seek to influence these dominant ideologies and norms" (Long, 1997:241).
Political theory/Political geography	"Access to and distribution of power and resources is a central concern of this approach. A geographical component would also take into account the definition of boundaries and spatial impacts of a partnership's operation. Issues of accountability, legitimacy in the community, and winners and losers from collaborative alliances represent major research interests in this context" (Long, 1997:241).

Source: Adapted from Wood and Gray, 1991, and Long, 1997.

and interaction between the various levels of an organisation or unit of governance and between the responsible organisation and the stakeholders in the planning process to realise horizontal and vertical partnerships within the planning process" (Hall and McArthur, 1998). Collaborative planning has the potential to promote integration of the various component parts of the tourism industry and also to help integrate tourism development with other socio-economic activities (Pearce, 1989; Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994a; Komilis, 1994; Jamal and Getz, 1997). Gunn (1994a) as well as other commentators make the point that tourism planning should be a continuous, interactive, and integrated exercise. Hence, Pearce (1989:245) identifies a trend in tourism planning toward recognising the multiple interests affected by tourism and concern that "tourism should be integrated with other forms of social and

economic development". Inskeep (1991) also highlights the need for a continuous and integrated planning approach at regional and national levels. However, it is also recognised that achieving effective co-ordination and integration among the multiple stakeholders affected by tourism at different geographical scales is a challenging task that "requires the development of new mechanisms and processes" (Jamal and Getz (1995:187). There is now growing acceptance that collaborative planning has good potential for helping to integrate multiple stakeholder interests and to improve co-ordination in tourism planning, especially at local and regional scales (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Parker, 1999; Hall, 2000a).

2.6.2 The Processes of Collaboration

The way in which collaboration unfolds varies considerably depending on the specific circumstances and content of the negotiations. However, there are at least two major factors influencing the way a collaboration will develop. The first is the extent to which motivation to collaborate is based on achieving advantage in a situation of conflict or by a desire to develop a shared vision concerning the problem. A second significant factor is the intended scope of the collaboration. For example, stakeholders may be interested simply in exchanging information or they may seek to create agreements which will become policy commitments for the participating organisations.

Involving stakeholders in negotiation usually requires the initiative of a convener, who may not be a stakeholder of the domain or who need not possess formal authority. Wood and Gray (1991:151) explain that instead "a convener may possess informal authority such as that based on position and influence in an informal network, expertise and knowledge with respect to the problem domain, or credibility among the stakeholders of the domain". The convener may be an existing business or non-governmental organisation, a government agency or an expert who enjoys a reputation of trust with several stakeholders and who is perceived as having legitimate authority to organise the domain (Gray, 1989). Gray (1989) emphasises that stakeholders possessing legitimate authority within the domain may take the convening role, and this is supported by Parker's (1999) case study of tourism collaboration on the island of Bonaire, NA, in the Caribbean where the leadership of the collaboration was shared by three such organisations, a public corporation, a hotel and tourism association and an underwater resorts operator.

A key role for the convener is to identify the stakeholders of the problem domain, that is the individuals, organisations and groups with relevant interests. Stakeholders may

have both common and differing interests in the collaboration, although the interests involved may change or be redefined as the negotiations develop (Wood and Gray, 1991). Regional tourism planning affects very many types of interests, so stakeholder identification needs to establish stakeholders who have a legitimate stake in the problem domain, which clearly can be difficult. However, it may not be necessary that all stakeholders of a problem domain are involved for collaboration to occur. In fact, varying numbers and types of stakeholders enter collaborative arrangements. For example, it has been proposed that stakeholder configurations can be defined using the following criteria:

... (a) those stakeholders, however few, that are most interested in working collaboratively to solve a problem; (b) the most powerful or influential stakeholders, along with those who seek solutions, whatever their power; (c) the majority of stakeholders of a problem domain so that social norms can be established that pressure others to participate eventually; or (d) the best organized networks of stakeholders of the problem-domain so that social pressure may be brought to bear on nonparticipants.

(Wood and Gray, 1991:155).

However, Wood and Gray (1991:155) also admit that, while in some cases participation by all stakeholders may not be necessary, there is a need for further research on the issue of how many stakeholders are needed to form an effective collaborative alliance. They also argue that it is necessary to investigate how the objectives, processes and outcomes of alliances are shaped by the character of the participants relative to the wider population of domain stakeholders.

An important consideration is legitimacy of stakeholders in collaborative arrangements. Here Gray (1985:922) suggests that "A legitimate stake means the perceived right and capacity to participate in the negotiations. Those actors with a right to participate are those impacted by the actions of other stakeholders ... However, to be perceived as legitimate, stakeholders must also have the capacity to participate. That is, they must possess resources and skills sufficient to justify their involvement ... Some stakeholders are perceived as legitimate because they have recognized expertise to bring to bear on the problem. Others control needed financial or informational resources. Still others wield the power to effectively veto an agreement". This is quoted at length as it may represent an elitist interpretation of

who should participate in collaborative arrangements, as many less powerful stakeholders would be excluded if they lacked resources and skills.

Irrespective of the legitimacy of the participants, all stakeholders are likely to bring differing values, ideologies and interests to the collaborative process, conferring a highly political content to the collaboration (Gray, 1989; Hall and Jenkins, 1995; Reed, 1997; Jamal and Getz, 1999). In addition, the political dynamics of the domain mean that some stakeholders with legitimate stakes may not be included. Such exclusion may also be based on the preconceptions of stakeholders or a history of conflict between stakeholders (Gray, 1989). Exclusion of key stakeholders from the negotiations may well be detrimental to the collaborative objectives because it may limit "the quality of the political force of the recommendations and drain ... power from the [collaboration]" (Gray, 1988:29; Gray and Hay, 1986). Furthermore, the exclusion of stakeholders with expertise and information concerning the problem is likely to restrict how the problem is defined, possibly also reducing the potential for a solution.

The definition of stakeholder legitimacy that a partnership for regional sustainable tourism development might hold may also considerably limit the potential of such a partnership to advance a shared vision, particularly if there is wider legitimacy outside the participants. For example, tourism development usually has varied cultural, environmental, social, political and economic impacts (Murphy, 1985; Inskeep, 1991; Dowling, 1993; Gunn, 1994a; Reed, 1997; Robinson, 1999). Consequently, the number of stakeholders affected by tourism development at the regional level may be very broad. While it is often impossible to have every stakeholder participating (Gray, 1989), the neglect of key stakeholders may not allow the articulation of legitimate interests and may undermine the force of any resulting agreements. In this context, Gray (1989:68) makes the point that "successful collaboration depends on including a broad enough spectrum of stakeholders to mirror the critical components of the problem". But this may be very difficult to achieve when, for example, the concept of equity in sustainable development means that all stakeholder groups affected by a development should be represented in the planning process (WCED, 1987).

Identifying a sufficiently broad number of representatives of the problem domain is particularly crucial to a successful common definition of the problem. This is the step where collaborating stakeholders identify the major issues of concern, seek any overlap in how these issues are defined, and then establish a broadly agreed definition of the problem in such a way that it reflects the views of all the stakeholders.

The definition of the problem usually implies acknowledgement that several stakeholders have a stake in the problem, and this tends to legitimise their standing in the negotiations (Gray, 1989). A problem definition that accommodates the interests of all stakeholders involved usually heightens their commitment to seek jointly a solution to the problem.

A common definition of the problem may offer some guidance for agenda setting, that is, for the participants to establish the working agenda for the collaboration. Because many mandates and interests are involved, and because the stakeholders differ in the degree of power, information and expertise they hold, the agenda setting is a delicate task that usually involves intense debate (Susskind and Madigan, 1984; Hall and Jenkins, 1995). For example, stakeholders who feel that their interests have not been taken into consideration sufficiently may drop out of the negotiations. Clearly, it is likely to be difficult to establish an agenda that satisfies all interested parties in the case of large-scale tourism planning projects involving numerous stakeholder groups at different planning levels. Some stakeholders may perceive that an issue has already received proper attention or that it belongs to another domain. Also, an issue that is important for one stakeholder may not have developed sufficient significance in the domain to gain the interest of other stakeholders (Post, 1978; Bucholtz, 1986). Hence, in regional tourism collaborations where there is a need to develop basic infrastructure, the private sector may decide to delay their participation until the infrastructure has been established.

When stakeholder groups are involved in a collaborative arrangement, their representatives who attend the meetings and discussions need to be accountable to those they are meant to represent. For example, the representatives may well need to explain to their constituencies how well the collaboration is progressing. Dealing effectively with constituencies is a key activity for a successful collaboration because "If parties do not take time to ensure that the various stakeholder constituencies understand the rationale for the trade-offs made and support the final agreement, any or all of them may disavow the agreement at some future date" (Gray, 1989:87). Dealing effectively with constituencies during the negotiation process is also important because these constituencies may work to build external support for the collaborative outcomes and this will improve the likelihood of implementation work being successful. Building external support may be more effective if the constituencies fully understand the collaboration and its objectives. Collaboration may result in different types of outcomes but the support of wider constituencies is invariably important for

their success. For example, the outcome of a collaboration may be the implementation of technical procedures by the staff of the participating organisations, or the recommendation to an organisation that has a public mandate to implement the decisions, or else policy suggestions to be passed on to a legislative body. In the latter case, the wider constituencies may be called to lobby legislators to take up suggestions made by the partnership.

2.6.3 The Extent of Consensus

Decision-making based on consensus-building processes is central to collaboration theory (Gray, 1989). Stakeholders must try to negotiate with each other to reach collective views on the general problem and on the specific issues. Consensus-building means that the collaborating stakeholders appreciate that by working together they may reach decisions that are largely representative of their collective interests. However, they appreciate also that some decisions may even be partially or largely against their individual interests. One can interpret stakeholder acceptance of collective decisions as a recognition that collectively-crafted decisions are better suited to bring change to the problem and that the decisions are able to help build a future for the domain that is desired by most of the stakeholders. But it must be remembered that collaborative consensus does not mean that every stakeholder agrees fully about each decision, although it is necessary that they be able to agree to support the overall proposal (Bryson and Crosby, 1992).

Reaching consensus in collaborative tourism planning involves stakeholders being engaged in a discursive process where they express their views, listen respectfully to each other, explore their differing perspectives, and then forge a new combined perspective about the nature of the problem and the desired policy direction (Innes, 1994; Healey, 1997; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999). Collaborative discussion among stakeholders about their interests, views on the problem and shared concerns are important so that they learn about each other, the potential impacts of their actions on the domain, and about possible ways of addressing the problems in the domain (Susskind and Cruikshank, 1987; Innes, 1992). If a collaboration is successful in building a consensus, the stakeholders "are then likely to have some sense of 'ownership'" of the collaborative outcomes (Healey, 1997:279), with this being founded on the "negotiated order" they have created (Gray, 1989:25) through their joint discussion and decision-making in the different stages of a collaboration.

2.6.4 Stages of Collaboration

It is helpful to depict the collaborative process as unfolding through a series of stages. Gray (1989) points out that different authors describe the collaboration process as involving anything from three to five stages (McCann, 1983; Cummings, 1984; Gray, 1985; Saunders, 1985; Susskind and Madigan, 1984; Dunlop, 1987), but she argues there is general agreement that collaborations usually include three main stages regardless of the problem being considered. However, she suggests that the length and the issues and difficulties in each stage vary considerably depending on the nature of the collaboration. Gray (1996:61) illustrates this point by explaining that "In cases where the stakeholders are convening to advance a shared vision, gaining a commitment to collaborate may take considerably less time than it would in a fractious environmental dispute".

Table 2.5 summarises a three-stage model of collaboration developed by McCann (1983). This model has served as an important conceptual foundation in the development of collaboration theory and has been used by some tourism researchers. In 'problem setting', participants recognise they have a common problem and initiate the collaboration. In 'direction setting', the stakeholders establish planning ground rules and work together to create a common vision for the future of the domain. In 'structuring', stakeholders design mechanisms and agree on responsibilities to implement their agreements. McCann (1983:178) explains that, despite being modelled as a sequence, these stages greatly overlap and interact and that they "are ... open-ended and continuous in the sense that they are never 'complete'", and this recognition of continuities is consistent with later empirical research findings (Inskip, 1993; Gray, 1996). For instance, new stakeholders may join the collaboration later in the process and raise issues which may require discussion again despite having been discussed earlier on in the problem-setting stage (Inskip, 1993; Gray, 1996).

Gray (1989) proposes a stage model of collaboration that modifies McCann's 1983 model and this identifies a range of key collaborative processes in each stage (Table 2.6). The major change introduced by Gray is in the third collaborative stage, where 'Structuring' becomes the 'Implementation' stage, and this includes the former as one of several collaborative processes. Despite Gray locating collaborative processes in specific stages, some of these processes may also occur in the other two stages. For example, representatives to a collaboration may be required to deal with their constituencies in the problem-setting and direction-setting stages. Similarly, a stakeholder may join the collaboration at a later stage of its development, and stakeholders are usually involved in reaching agreements about specific issues at all

stages of the collaboration. These aspects illustrate the flexible and emergent nature of the collaborative phenomenon.

2.6.5 Tourism Applications of Collaboration Theory

Based on a synthesis of research on collaborative processes (Gray, 1985, 1989;

Table 2.5 McCann's collaborative stages and related issues.

COLLABORATIVE STAGES		
Problem setting	Direction setting	Structuring
<p>This stage concerns identifying the problem.</p> <p>Stakeholders define the current state of the problem, identify who is affected and in what ways, and discuss whether the current state is less than desirable.</p> <p>There is recognition of the problem and agreement about bounds and the identity of relevant stakeholders.</p>	<p>This stage concerns establishing legitimacy for their shared purpose.</p> <p>Stakeholders agree on what would be a more desired direction for the future of the domain and what must be done to bring about this desired future.</p> <p>There is agreement about valued shared ends and about a direction for action.</p>	<p>This stage concerns establishing functional viability.</p> <p>Stakeholders decide about who will assume what functional roles and responsibilities as well as what mechanisms must be created and managed to regulate relations.</p> <p>There is design of regulative processes and negotiations of functional roles and responsibilities.</p>

Source: Adapted from McCann, 1983.

Table 2.6 Gray's collaborative stages and processes.

<p>Stage 1: Problem setting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Common definition of problem • Commitment to collaborate • Identification of stakeholders • Legitimacy of stakeholders • Convener characteristics • Identification of resources
<p>Stage 2: Direction setting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishing ground rules • Agenda setting • Organising subgroups • Joint information search • Exploring options • Reaching agreement and closing the deal
<p>Stage 3: Implementation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dealing with constituencies • Building external support • Structuring • Monitoring the agreement and ensuring compliance

Source: Gray, 1989.

McCann, 1983; Waddock, 1989), Selin and Chavez (1995a) develop a model of the collaborative process in natural resource management. They propose a five-stage model in which collaboration emerges out of a set of 'antecedents', such as an existing crisis, mandates and networks and leadership, and that it then develops through 'problem- setting', 'direction-setting' and 'structuring' stages. They also suggest that the 'outcomes', such as the resulting programmes, impacts and benefits, influence the other collaborative stages. This supports further the idea of the interactive and cyclical nature of collaboration. Selin and Chavez (1995a) stress the need for empirical case studies in order to test their model and to develop our understanding of collaborative processes. Drawing on Selin and Chavez's (1995a) model as well as Wood and Gray's (1991) theoretical perspectives for the study of collaborative arrangements, Fyall *et al.*, (2000) conduct a case study of collaboration in the Waterways consortium in the UK. This consortium involved local authorities, commercial hire-boat operators, trade and government organisations, and the EU (through its Regional Development Fund) and it was motivated by "the overwhelming desire to compete more effectively overseas" given increasing competition abroad (Fyall *et al.*, 2000:95). The study demonstrates the potential utility of Wood and Gray's (1991) theoretical perspectives to understand the inter-organisational dynamics of the Waterways consortium, especially the 'Microeconomic Theory', 'Institutional/Negotiated Order Theory' and 'Political Theory' perspectives. On the other hand, Fyall *et al.* suggest that Selin and Chavez's (1995a) 'antecedents' stage appears not to be sufficiently developed as to be able to explain the institutional context within which the Waterways consortium developed. For example, prominent in the consortium context are the previous partnership experiences of many participants and also a reduction in public spending and the attempt to adopt a market segmentation strategy for the national tourist authority.

Interest in collaboration theory in the tourism field has intensified considerably in the past four years. An example of this is Jamal and Getz's (1997) examination of tourism-related collaborative arrangements in four North-American communities: Jackson Hole (Wyoming), Aspen (Colorado), Calgary (Alberta) and Revelstoke (British Columbia). Their study focuses on the content, processes and outcomes of local collaborative arrangements in tourism and it gives prominence to the concept of strategic 'visioning'. The strategy-making element of strategic visioning is depicted as "an intuitive and creative process of *synthesis* requiring both soft and hard data, where strategies can be formed deliberately or may *emerge* over time" (Jamal and

Getz, 1997:201 [original emphasis]; Mintzberg, 1994). From a corporate perspective, strategy-making embodies both the desired direction and also the values of the organisations and their related stakeholder groups. Strategic 'visioning' is a process where stakeholders (a) envision a future stage for their organisations, (b) communicate the vision to other interested parties, and this serves to (c) empower other parties to be able to enact the vision. Jamal and Getz explain that the strategic 'visioning' exercises used in the four communities included consensus-based as well as other types of decision-making processes. They contend that community-based tourism visioning exercises could enable community stakeholders to increase their awareness of their interdependence, and to appreciate their jointly held values, needs and aspirations, and thus they can be useful instruments to establish future direction, manage growth and/or integrate the views of multiple stakeholders in the community domain.

Another application of collaboration theory in tourism is Parker's (1999) study of the island of Bonaire in the Caribbean, where stakeholders used a collaborative approach in an attempt to balance three policy areas in search of sustainable tourism development, these being an hotel-room inventory, airline capacity and water pollution abatement. Parker relies on Gray's (1989) stage model of the collaborative process to examine the decision-making processes on Bonaire. The case study demonstrates how collaboration allowed a tourism policy agenda to evolve, and consensus to be reached around economic and ecological approaches to sustainability, in a way that would not have been possible previously. The study also highlights that the collaborative effort had not been fully successful due to (a) a decline in tourist demand, which is a direct influence of the wider environment affecting a specific problem domain; and (b) the lack of an emergent more formalised institutionalised structure for the domain, with too much reliance on informal, *ad hoc* collaborative arrangements. The geographical scale of the collaboration on Bonaire also limits its relevance for collaborative planning at larger geographical scales, such as the regional scale. The range of issues involved in the collaboration was also focused on just three policy areas, when regional tourism planning is likely to entail a broader range of policies.

Long (1997) examines several local tourism development partnerships in order to identify the collaborative approaches that have become a *modus operandi* for policy formulation and programme formulation and implementation in the United Kingdom. He contends that, while organisational studies have been a neglected area in tourism

studies (Pearce, 1992), the concept of inter-organisational collaboration "appear[s] to be particularly relevant at a time when public, private and, to an extent, voluntary sectors are increasingly forging partnership arrangements to plan, implement, and evaluate tourism development strategies and programmes" (Long, 1997:236). His study highlights the need to identify the preconditions for collaboration, assess the alternative organisational structures, define organisational boundaries, recognise any conflicts around stakeholder interests, and to evaluate partnership outcomes. Long uses Wood and Gray's (1991) theoretical perspectives on inter-organisational collaboration discussed earlier, and he advocates their wider application to the tourism field to explain how tourism partnerships operate.

An important conceptual framework to assess shared decision-making processes, the 'Framework of Design and Evaluative Criteria for SDM [shared decision making] Process', has been developed by Penrose (1996). This framework uses criteria derived from the theory and practice of consensus-building (Cormick, 1989), interest-based negotiation (Fisher and Ury, 1981) and collaboration (Gray, 1989), which are then organised into three broad categories: support for process, representation and resources, and process design. Williams *et al.* (1998) applies Penrose's framework in an examination of a collaborative tourism land-use planning exercise in British Columbia, Canada. The authors conclude the study by suggesting that "While a collaborative, consensus-based approach to decision-making does not promise to resolve all conflicts, it does offer the opportunity to make more balanced and better informed decisions" (Williams *et al.*, 1998:886). The land-use planning process involved local, regional, provincial and national stakeholders from the government, but with very limited private sector representation. While the study helpfully was based on observation of the planning meetings and on document analysis, the value of the study for an understanding of the participants' own perspectives was limited as they were examined using interviews with just six of the participating stakeholders.

The collaborative concept in tourism has also been evaluated in relation to member satisfaction with the effectiveness of tourism marketing alliances. Selin and Myers (1998) examine one regional alliance, California's Coalition for Unified Recreation In the Eastern Sierra (CURES), which comprised over 90 members and was dedicated to preserving the region's natural, cultural and economic resources and enriching the experiences of visitors and residents. The authors apply selected constructs from previous research on partnerships and collaboration (Sheffen, 1991; Waddock and Bannister, 1991; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Selin and Chavez, 1995a) to examine the

CURES case study. They find that individual and organisational leadership is important to predict the effectiveness of partnerships, which supports earlier studies (Gray, 1995; Waddock and Bannister, 1991; Selin and Chavez, 1994; Jamal and Getz, 1995). The authors make the point that, although tangible outcomes such as project implementation are important, "the emphasis should be on the collaborative process and relationship building" (Selin and Myers, 1998:92). They also highlight the value of evaluating similar collaborative frameworks in a range of planning settings.

One difficulty in applying collaboration theory to examine case studies is that there remains a lack of clarity about analytical criteria to assess whether the collaboration is inclusionary of participants' interests and whether it involves collective learning and consensus-building (Healey, 1997). Bramwell and Sharman (1999) make an important contribution in this respect by developing an analytical framework around three central collaborative issues, these being the scope of the collaboration, its intensity and the degree to which consensus emerges among participants. This draws on ideas on interorganisational collaboration (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Long, 1997; Selin and Beason, 1991), 'communicative approaches' to planning (Healey, 1997), and on citizen participation (Marien and Pizam, 1997; Ritchie, 1985, 1993). The framework is applied to an examination of a local collaborative arrangement in a public-private sector partnership set up to develop a Visitor Management Plan for the Hope Valley in Britain's Peak District National Park. The analytical framework helped them to question "the extent to which power imbalances among stakeholders may be reduced, if at all, within a collaboration" (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999:411). The results suggest that unequal power relations among stakeholders were often maintained and that the authorities tended to exert more power than the residents in the planning process. The analytical framework has potential to be applied to tourism planning at larger geographical scales, and it helps to identify how collaborative planning may be successful and unsuccessful in being inclusionary of affected interests. This research also develops the concept of partial consensus, which in their case study allowed stakeholders to support the visitor management plan while having reservations about specific proposals, and allowing some to disagree with the plan as a whole and leave the partnership.

Based on an examination of tourism collaboration in relation to the objectives of sustainable development, Hall (2000a:143) argues that "the predominance of narrow corporatist notions of collaboration and partnership in network structures may serve to undermine the development of the social capital required for sustainable

development". In many Western countries the privatisation and commercialisation of tourism functions that used to be in the public sphere (Pearce, 1992; Elliot, 1997; Hall, 2000b), has led numerous tourist organisations to reduce their planning, policy and development roles while maintaining or increasing their involvement in marketing and promotion. The 'rolling back' of the role of the state in tourism also encouraged networks of collaborative inter-organisational relations that emphasise public links with industry (Hall and Jenkins, 1995; Hall, 2000b). This new emphasis on collaborative returns in tourism planning may help to promote the objectives of sustainable development as a wider set of social actors are involved in meeting the needs of the 'public interest' of both present and future generations (Healey, 1997; Hall, 2000b; WCED, 1987).

Hall (2000a) points out that with increasing privatisation there is a greater need to examine the role of interest groups in collaborative arrangements because different actors involved in policy formulation carry different degrees of influence. He makes the important point that "power can be hidden behind the facade of 'trust' and the rhetoric of 'collaboration', and [can be] used to promote vested interest through the manipulation of and capitulation by weaker partners" (Clegg and Hardy, 1996:678; Hall, 2000a:150). Power imbalances were also identified by Bramwell and Sharman (1999) in their examination of the Hope Valley case study. Furthermore, Reed (1997) contends that the rhetorical underpinnings of existing models for community-based tourism planning (Blank, 1989; Gunn, 1994a; Murphy, 1985) are weakly developed. In her view, power relations are a key issue that is under-explored in this field. Reed (1997:567) examines stakeholder participation in the development of a tourism plan for Squamish, British Columbia in Canada, and she concludes that "power relations may alter the outcome of collaborative efforts or even preclude collaborative action" in community tourism planning. Gray (1989) argues that, while some difference in power between stakeholders is important so that negotiations do not reach a stalemate, large differences in power may dissolve collaborations because very powerful stakeholders may resort to less collaborative means to achieve their goals.

The ways in which power relations affect the processes and outcomes of collaborative arrangements in tourism are only just beginning to be examined (Hall, 2000a; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Reed, 1997). In a case study of stakeholder conflict over tourism-related development in the Canadian town of Canmore, Jamal and Getz (1999) provide particularly useful insights on the rhetorical, ideological and power-based aspects of partnerships and collaborations. A multiple stakeholder Growth

Management Committee (GMC) was convened by local government to develop a strategic direction for the community, based on consensus-based approaches and to address conflicts arising from new, large-scale tourism development proposals in the area. Jamal and Getz (1999:291) explain that "The Canmore Growth Management Committee (GMC) followed a process resembling multi-stakeholder round tables (cf. Cormick *et al.*, 1996), as well as the principles of 'interest-based' negotiation" (Fisher & Ury, 1981; Ury, 1993). While they argue that "a 'consensus' process is no guarantee that the voices and words of a participant will necessarily be heard or incorporated into the decision-making" (Jamal and Getz, 1999:305), their study suggests that in Canmore there was an increase in both individual and community capacity to address local level conflicts. By contrast, they also suggest there was evidence of "the potential for repressing participation in both overt and covert ways, as in the subjection (cf. Butler, 1997) of a participant by group pressure and the outspoken threat of repercussion from the community if anyone walked away and caused the process to collapse" (Jamal and Getz, 1999: 305). They conclude that great care needs to be paid to the design and enactment of such processes if the intention is to promote more equitable decision-making.

Ritchie (1999) reports on the use of the technique of Interest Based Negotiation (IBN) developed by Fisher and Ury (1991) as a means to reduce the problems of power differentials in a collaborative arrangement to determine tourism-related policies for the Banff National Park, which was commissioned by the Canadian Government. This partnership was commissioned due to growing public concern about the future of the park, including its environmental conservation, as a result of increasing tourist numbers and a significant presence of local residents. Ritchie argues that from a theoretical perspective the interest-based negotiation model "is simply a form of (a) community collaboration (Gray, 1989; Himmelman, 1992; Jamal and Getz, 1995), of (b) group-based consensus decision-making (Delbecq & Van de Ven, 1971; Johnson & Johnson, 1987) or, of (c) conflict resolution (Potapchuck & Polk, 1993)" (Ritchie, 1999:212). In his view, in comparison with other approaches to stakeholder participation in the tourism literature (Simmons, 1994; Getz and Jamal, 1994; Haywood, 1988; Ritchie, 1988; Keogh, 1990), the use of interest-based negotiation in the case study not only allowed participants to seek consensus, it also transferred a meaningful proportion of real decision-making to round tables which involved a much larger and diverse range of participating stakeholders. Ritchie (1999:212) admits that "it may well be that members of the Task Force chose to emphasise the Fisher and Ury approach to collaborative planning for pragmatic rather than theoretical

considerations (the 'method' had a certain 'visibility')". However, growing awareness of such techniques may allow policy-makers to choose the technique which best fits their aspirations for the extent and intensity of stakeholder participation (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Selin and Chavez, 1995a).

Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed literature concerning the use of a regional approach to tourism planning and about stakeholder participation in the tourism planning process. Several authors contend that the regional planning approach is well positioned to realise an integration of diverse stakeholder interests related to multiple geographical scales into a vision of regional tourism development. Tourism scholars also argue that stakeholder participation is necessary for decision-makers to be able to take into account the various interests that are affected by a tourism project. However, the concept of stakeholder participation is fairly complex and there is no consensus on how best to involve in the planning process parties that are affected by a tourist development proposal in a meaningful way. One of the many problems is that participation is a political undertaking. For example, some planning schemes may involve stakeholders in manipulative and passive ways in which participation is used merely to justify developments, leading to no benefits to 'participants'. Other forms of participation may involve stakeholders in more consequential decision-making that leads to incorporating the input of multiple interests into project design and implementation, with benefits for participants and for the sustainability of the project. For example, some authors suggest that collaborative planning may enhance project sustainability by involving multiple interested parties who may perceive participation with other stakeholders as a way to solve complex, domain-level problems. However, others contend that some interpretations of collaborative arrangements may be elitist and more inclusive of narrow corporatist interests rather than of broader social interests. In conclusion, it is evident that regional tourism planning and stakeholder participation in tourism planning are complex concepts which require further understanding for them to be used in more effective ways.

The following chapter draws on key concepts from this literature review and develops a conceptual approach to examine stakeholder participation in regional tourism planning based on the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Chapter 3: Research Approach

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the research approach adopted and relates it to two analytical frameworks that are discussed below. The main aim of this research is to examine critically collaborative stakeholder participation in tourism planning during an early stage of the planning process for an emergent regional tourist destination in a developing country. This is based on a case study of the planning process for the Costa Dourada project in north-east Brazil. The justification for using this case study is discussed in Chapter 4, and background information about the Costa Dourada project is provided in Chapter 5. The study was developed around three main research questions: (1) What are the participation processes involved in the collaborative planning process for the Costa Dourada project? (2) To what extent does collaboration emerge in the planning process for the project? And, (3) How do non-participating stakeholders view the project and its planning process? Research questions 1 and 2 are placed within a framework of collaborative issues in sustainable regional tourism planning, with these issues used to examine the project's planning process. Research question 3 is placed within a framework of issues based on the concepts of consultative stakeholder participation in sustainable tourism planning. Based on the evaluation of these three questions in relation to the Costa Dourada project, the research also aims to develop a broader conceptual model of the collaborative processes involved in stakeholder participation in sustainable regional tourism planning that can promote the involvement of diverse stakeholders with interests at local, regional and national scales.

3.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

The research approach to this study was developed based on an integration of key planning concepts concerning the tourism-related research fields reviewed in Chapter 2. In summary, the literature review indicates that governments world-wide are increasingly using tourism as a tool for regional development (Becker, 1995; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996; De Lacy and Boyd, 2000). In addition to the proposition that the regional scale is appropriate for integrating the multiple interests affected by tourism projects (see Section 2.2), there is also a call for regional tourism projects to be planned in a sustainable way. For example, Timothy (1999:183) suggests that proposals of sustainable approaches to tourism planning "have emphasized a forward-looking form of tourism development and planning that promotes the long-

term health of natural and cultural resources, so that they will be maintained and durable, permanent landscapes for generations to come" (see Section 2.4). Also, as discussed in Section 2.3 there is the suggestion that increased stakeholder participation in tourism planning is likely to enhance project design and implementation. For example, involving a broad range of stakeholders affected by a tourism project in its planning may enhance project design by incorporating 'added-value' knowledge held by participating stakeholders, of which planners might be unaware. Involving multiple stakeholders in the planning stage may also secure their support for project implementation because participants may develop a sense of ownership regarding decisions that they helped to forge. Finally, the proposition is also made that collaborative planning can be a useful stakeholder participation approach to sustainable regional tourism planning (see Section 2.6). These concepts are integral to the examination of the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

3.2.1 Framework For Examining Collaboration Among Participating Stakeholders

The planning process for the Costa Dourada project illustrates what is known in collaboration theory as a 'problem domain' (Getz and Jamal, 1994). The deficiencies in physical and social infrastructure of the north coast of Alagoas are perceived by municipal, state and federal governments and the private sector to be major obstacles to the region's tourism development and they are being tackled through collaborative action between the parties affected by these problems. While the region's difficulties affect a broad number of stakeholders from the government, the private sector, non-governmental organisations and communities, no single local, regional or national organisation or stakeholder group, has on an individual basis, the resources (such as information, money and expertise) or the political power, authority or legitimacy to build the required regional infrastructure or otherwise tackle the problems.

The Costa Dourada project has a number of elements that are intrinsic to collaborative forms of inter-organisational arrangements. For example, (a) despite the fact that Alagoas' government has created legal provisions for stakeholder participation, in practice the stakeholder involvement in the project's planning process is voluntary; (b) stakeholders have common interests, notably in the construction of more infrastructure on the north coast of Alagoas; (c) the stakeholders differ such as in the geographical scale (local, regional and national) of their prime interests as well as in the types of interests they have (government, private sector, non-governmental organisations and communities); (d) several affected stakeholders interact together through the facilitation of a convening organisation, the Planning Unit for the project ;

(e) the stakeholders are working together in order to produce solutions to their shared problems; (f) potential solutions to the problems are beyond their individual limited resources and competencies; and (g) the stakeholders are working together to decide about the future of the domain they share. These seven elements were also present in nine of the collaborative arrangements that were reviewed by Wood and Gray (1991). The identification of these collaborative elements early on in the research process led to the research proposition that the planning for the Costa Dourada project is based largely on a collaborative approach.

Based on these initial findings, a framework was developed, drawing from collaboration theory, in order to examine the Costa Dourada project planning process. The conceptual framework, which is adapted to the specific context of this project, appears in Table 3.1. Gray (1989), explains that several authors have identified generic stages in collaboration, varying from three to five stages (McCann, 1983; Cummings, 1984; Gray, 1985; Saunders, 1985; Susskind and Madigan, 1984; Dunlop, 1987). Despite differences in how the collaborative process is conceptualised, Gray makes the point that there is general agreement among academics that collaboration involves taking interested parties to the table in order for them "to explore, reach, and implement an agreement" (Gray, 1989:57). Based on this broad understanding of collaboration, Gray conceptualised a generic model of the collaborative process which consists of three stages, namely Stage 1: 'problem setting' (to explore), Stage 2: 'direction setting' (to reach), and Stage 3: 'implementation' (to implement agreements). The domain-level framework presented in Table 3.1 focuses on collaborative issues that are usually present in the 'problem setting' and 'direction setting' stages of this collaborative process model. When the data was collected, the planning for the Costa Dourada project may not have reached the 'implementation' stage of the collaborative process model.

Despite this, it was deemed useful to include in the collaborative framework for this research two issues that belong to Stage 3 of Gray's model. One of these is issue IX. Dealing with constituencies. Engaging in negotiation regarding a number of issues in the two initial stages of the collaborative process may involve dialogue between representatives of stakeholder groups and their constituencies. For example, when the representatives are engaged in negotiations concerning the 'definition of problem' and 'setting the collaborative agenda', they may consult with, and inform their

Table 3.1 Framework for examining collaboration among stakeholders involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

A.	The collaborative process:
I.	Range of participating stakeholders
II.	Stakeholder representation in the planning process
III.	Identification of issues of concern
IV.	Common definition of problem
V.	Commitment to collaborate
VI.	Decision-making procedure
VII.	Setting the collaborative agenda
VIII.	Participation methods and techniques
IX.	Dealing with constituencies
X.	Consideration of the views of all participants
XI.	Implementation of planning outcomes
B.	Degree to which collaboration emerges:
I.	Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to all participants' views
II.	Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to the planning priorities of all participants
III.	Acceptance that participants may need to support decisions that are agreed collectively but are against their respective organisation's best interest
IV.	Compliance with shared rules
V.	Reaching agreement about a shared vision of project development

constituencies about the options and the decisions reached. So, the 'dealing with constituencies' issue appears to be relevant also to the initial stages of collaboration. Likewise, as the early examination of the project planning showed that some negotiated decisions had already been reached - for example, participants agreed that sewage infrastructure would be built first in the Municipality of Maragogi - it was additionally considered important to include in the framework one more issue that belongs to the implementation stage of collaboration. This is issue XI. Implementation of planning outcomes. As the agreement above had already been reached in the project's planning, participants were asked whether they consider that decisions that are made concerning the project are likely to be fully implemented. So, in addition to examining the views of the stakeholders concerning the implementation of one specific decision they had forged, it also allows the research to investigate how they view the likelihood that decisions agreed among them will be fully implemented in practice.

The issues in the framework above cover six out of the seven specific objectives of this research. The seventh issue is discussed in section 3.2.2. The six specific objectives in this section are: (1) To identify the range of stakeholders involved in the planning process for the project; (2) To identify the methods and techniques of stakeholder participation involved in the regional tourism planning process; (3) To examine critically the processes of stakeholder collaboration in the regional tourism

planning process; (4) To examine the factors that influenced whether stakeholders from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations with interests at local, regional and national scales participated in the collaborative regional tourism planning process led by the state government; (5) To evaluate the degree of collaboration reached in the regional tourism planning process; and (6) To assess the planning process for the Costa Dourada project as an approach to sustainable regional tourism development. These six specific objectives have the purpose of understanding the participation processes involved in the collaborative planning for the Costa Dourada project as well as understanding the extent to which collaboration emerges in the planning process for the project. These are two of the three research questions of this study.

3.2.2 Framework For Examining The Views Of Non-Participating Stakeholders

The seventh specific objective of this study corresponds to the third research question. This objective is to understand how stakeholders who are not involved in the collaborative planning for the Costa Dourada project perceive the project and the way in which it is being planned. This involves examining non-participants' views regarding issues such as whether they consider the project is likely to affect the objectives of their organisations, the decision-making procedure for the project and whether participants involved in the planning for the project consult with, and inform non-participants' organisations about decisions that are made concerning the project. This is conducted based on a framework of issues that was drawn from the same fields of regional tourism planning and sustainability, but also from the specific field of stakeholder participation in tourism planning. This framework appears in Table 3.2. The theoretical basis of this framework is three-fold. First, the Costa Dourada project affects a broad range of diverse stakeholder groups whose main interests are focused at the local, regional or national scales. The number of parties affected by the project is far larger than the number of stakeholders that can be accommodated in collaborative arrangements in any meaningful way. Second, as discussed below, sustainable tourism planning implies taking into consideration the interests of the multiple stakeholders affected by developments. And third, the stakeholder participation concept implies using different consultative procedures to enable planners to hear the views of affected parties, such as through self-completion questionnaires and workshops.

The outcomes of regional collaborative arrangements often extend far beyond the specific problem domain that has brought the stakeholders together. For example,

Table 3.2 Framework for examining the views of non-participating stakeholders about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process.

Item	Planning issue:
I.	Range of stakeholders with an interest in the project
II.	Stakeholder representation in the planning process
III.	Identification of issues of concern
IV.	Common definition of problem
V.	Commitment to collaborate
VI.	Decision-making procedure
VII.	Participation methods and techniques
VIII.	Dealing with constituencies
IX.	Consideration of the views of all parties with an interest in the project
X.	Implementation of planning outcomes
XI.	Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to the views of all parties with an interest in the project
XII.	Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to the planning priorities of all parties with an interest in the project
XIII.	Reaching agreement about a shared vision of project development
XIV.	Right to participate in the project's planning process

the decisions made by the 29 stakeholders involved in the planning for the Costa Dourada project affect very many stakeholders in the north coast of Alagoas. In fact, a key argument used by the regional government in Alagoas to justify the project is that it aims to induce broad regional development to create jobs, and to enhance income and tax revenue. It is claimed that these effects will lead to an improvement in the quality of life of everyone in the region. Moreover, the project documents identify sustainability as a principle to be observed.

Sustainability is sometimes conceptualised as synonymous with a project being planned so that it is economically viable over the long-term irrespective of the negative impacts it causes to society at large. Clearly, sustainability is a much broader concern, involving economic, social, cultural, environmental and political impacts. Robinson (1999:379) points out that, despite the need for a broader interpretation of the sustainability concept, "a central driving force behind the concept of sustainable tourism is the concern for the destruction of the environment and thus the resource base upon which the viability of the tourism industry depends". This has been termed a 'tourism-centric' approach (Hunter, 1995) because it focuses on the viability of the tourism industry alone, and because the other key dimensions of the sustainability concept, namely the economy, society, politics and culture, are somehow relegated as being less important. So, sustainability can be interpreted in many ways, from a narrow view centred on project viability to a broader vision that also encompasses the effects of the project on the environment and on society at large.

Bramwell and Lane (1993b:2) contend that the concept of sustainability is based on four principles. These are: "(1) the idea of holistic planning and strategy-making; (2) the importance of preserving essential ecological processes; (3) the need to protect both human heritage and biodiversity; (4) the key requirement: to develop in such a way that productivity can be sustained over the long term for future generations". Based on this understanding of sustainability, it can be argued that the Costa Dourada project is likely to impact widely on the society, economy, politics, culture and the environment of the north coast of Alagoas and consequently affect the interests and priorities of countless local, regional and national stakeholders. A large part of these interests and priorities may not be represented in the planning for the Costa Dourada project.

There are a number of important theoretical issues concerning the interests of stakeholder groups who do not have direct representatives in the official planning process for the Costa Dourada project. For example, (1) Do the interests and priorities of participating stakeholders correspond in any way to the interests and priorities of the stakeholder groups who are not participants in the planning process? (2) Would adopting consultative planning approaches combined with collaboration enhance the economic, social, cultural, political and environmental sustainable prospects? (3) Do non-participating stakeholders consider that they also have the right to participate in the collaborative planning process? These issues, and the others that appear in Table 3.2, are examined based on the views of a sample of stakeholder groups that are affected by the project but who are not involved in a direct way in its planning process.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the objectives and the research questions behind this study, and has placed them into two analytical frameworks. The first framework was developed based on the concepts of collaboration theory, regional tourism planning and sustainable planning. This framework was developed in order to examine the collaborative planning process for the Costa Dourada project. The second analytical framework was developed based on the concepts of regional tourism planning, sustainable planning and consultative stakeholder participation in tourism planning. This framework was developed in order to examine the views about the Costa Dourada project and its planning among a sample of stakeholders who were not participants in the project planning.

The next chapter provides an explanation of the methodology that was used in this study.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the methodology used in this research to examine three research questions concerning stakeholder participation in collaborative tourism planning at the regional scale (see Chapter 1). The research uses a case study approach, namely the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. This case study uses a social survey consisting of multiple research methods and data sources. This chapter first explains the case study selection. Next, there is a detailed discussion of the study's conceptual framework. This is followed by an explanation of the arrangements made in preparation for data collection. The remaining four sections discuss why and how the study adopted a social survey; the procedures used to establish a sample of stakeholders involved in the project's planning (the 'participants') and also of stakeholders not directly involved in the project's planning (the 'non-participants'); the implementation of the fieldwork; and the approach used for data analysis. Finally, a summary is provided of key issues for the study methodology.

4.2 CASE STUDY SELECTION

The case study approach has been used extensively in the social sciences to examine various types of research questions (Moser and Kalton, 1971; Dezin and Lincoln, 1994; Stake, 1994). Robson (1993:5) explains that the case study approach "is a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence". This is done in such a way that the unique attributes of the phenomenon being studied are preserved (Good and Hatt, 1952).

The case study of the Costa Dourada project was developed using two simultaneous and combined strategies. The first strategy involved developing a preliminary understanding of the project and of its social, economic, political and administrative context. This was achieved through an examination of technical reports, legislation and administrative acts regarding the project covering 1993-1997. The *Gazeta de Alagoas*, which is Alagoas state's most widely read newspaper, was also scanned for accounts of the project, its planning process as well as developments in the project's regional context that could affect it. For this period the researcher also regularly contacted by mail, fax and telephone key individuals involved in the project's planning.

The data collected in this way provided a preliminary understanding of the project, its objectives and its planning process.

The second strategy in the case study involved an examination of literature concerning collaboration theory, stakeholder participation in tourism planning and regional tourism planning. The Costa Dourada project was deemed to be an appropriate case study because:

- (a) It involves tourism development at the regional scale, and this scale of development has not been examined previously in great depth using collaboration theory.
- (b) It is an emergent tourism destination in a developing country. This is important for two reasons. First, the early stages of a tourist destination often largely determine how the destination develops in the long term, and, secondly, most empirical studies using collaboration theory are located in developed countries. Hence, there is limited knowledge of how tourism collaboration works in developing countries, while there is increasing investment in tourism development in these countries.
- (c) Planning documents set a goal of sustainable development for the Costa Dourada project. Collaboration theory has the potential to examine the economic, social and environmental aspects of sustainability in the context of empirical studies, but this potential has not been examined systematically in the context of large-scale tourism schemes in developing countries.
- (d) The official documents concerning the project identify stakeholder collaboration as a strategy for the project planning. However, there is often a wide gap between stated strategies regarding development actions in developing countries and what is actually achieved. The use of collaboration theory may help to reveal the extent to which collaboration is actually attained and provide an understanding of the conditions facilitating and constraining collaboration. Again this may have wider relevance for other newly industrialised or developing countries.

4.3 DETAILED DISCUSSION OF THE STUDY CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

The literature review showed that research on collaborative planning in several fields, including tourism, has relied on the views of stakeholders who are participants in

collaborative arrangements as well as on related documents. While this is theoretically sound and helps explain the motivations of stakeholders for their collaboration, it fails to pay attention to the views of other stakeholders in the problem domain who are affected by a collaborative arrangement and who may have the power to significantly affect it and the future of the domain.

In addition, as a collaboration is always inserted into a specific socio-economic and political context, limiting the analysis to the views and interests of a restricted set of stakeholders could be interpreted as an elitist approach. This approach may ignore also other important domain-related expertise, resources and information that might broaden the way the problem is defined. Listening to the views of non-participating stakeholders might encourage consideration to be given to other interests related to the problem domain and might contribute to more equitable forms of development and to getting the support of more stakeholders for implementation activities.

This study is innovative as it simultaneously examines the collaborative planning processes for the Costa Dourada project based on the views of both collaborating and non-collaborating stakeholders. This section provides a detailed discussion of the two conceptual frameworks used in the study (Table 4.1), which are used to underpin the design of the study's social survey, as discussed later. The first framework examines the participants' views on the project's collaborative process and the degree to which collaboration emerges in this collaborative arrangement. The second framework examines how a sample of non-participating stakeholders view the project and its planning process.

The framework for non-participants was designed to mirror as far as possible the framework used with participants so that the views of both groups can be compared. However, it must be noted that there are key differences between them, notably because non-participants cannot answer some questions because they were not involved in the project's planning. An example of this is the question of how the collaborative agenda was set, for this is an activity about which only participants are likely to have information. Another example is there are issues in the non-participants' conceptual framework that would not apply to participants. Thus, the issue of the right to participate in the project's planning was not relevant to participating stakeholders.

There are other ways in which the framework design differs. For example, while the issue of representation of stakeholders in the project's planning is common to both

Table 4.1 Conceptual frameworks for examining the views of participating and non-participating stakeholders about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process.

Participants	Non-Participants
<p><u>A. The collaborative process</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Range of participating stakeholders - Stakeholder representation in the planning - Identification of issues of concern - Common definition of problem - Commitment to collaborate - Decision-making procedure - Setting the collaborative agenda - Participation methods and techniques - Dealing with constituencies - Consideration of the views of all participants - Implementation of planning outcomes <p><u>B. Degree to which collaboration emerges</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to all participants' views - Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to the planning priorities of all participants - Acceptance that participants may need to support decisions that are agreed collectively but are against their respective organisation's best interest - Compliance with shared rules - Reaching agreement about a shared vision of project development 	<p><u>A. Stakeholders views about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Range of stakeholders with an interest in the project - Stakeholder representation in the planning process - Identification of issues of concern - Common definition of problem - Commitment to collaborate - Decision-making procedure - Participation methods and techniques - Dealing with constituencies - Consideration of the views of all parties with an interest in the project - Implementation of planning outcomes - Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to the views of all parties with an interest in the project - Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to the planning priorities of all parties with an interest in the project - Reaching agreement about a shared vision of project development - Right to participate in the planning process for the project - Capacity to participate in the planning process for the project

frameworks, the question wording is different for each stakeholder group. For example, the question in the participants' interview is worded: 'Do you represent any interested party or parties in your involvement in the planning process for the Costa Dourada Project?' (see *Appendix I* for the participants' interview schedule). However, for non-participants this was worded: 'Does anyone represent your organisation in the planning process for the Costa Dourada Project?' (see *Appendix II* for the non-participants' interview schedule). There are also differences in the probes attached to these questions for consistency in the wording.

The following sections, A. The Collaborative Process and B. Degree to Which Collaboration Emerges in the Planning Process, present a detailed discussion of the conceptual frameworks used in the study. The model of collaborative planning draws on Gray (1989). The issues in the framework for participants are presented here in bold italics, while the issues included in the non-participants' framework are presented inside parentheses.

A. The Collaborative Process

I - Range of participating stakeholders

Who should participate in a collaborative initiative is a crucial question for the resulting outcomes. Gray (1989:64) contends that to solve multiparty problems "multiple sources of information are necessary to foster as complete an understanding of the problem as possible". In order to have access to multiple information sources the collaboration should involve a broad range of stakeholders. However, collaboration also presupposes stakeholder engagement in the decision-making process through negotiation and consensus-building, and it is usually difficult to reach negotiated decisions when the group of participants is large. Hence, collaborative arrangements should be kept to a reasonably manageable size. A balance between a sufficiently broad representation of stakeholders and keeping it to a reasonable size is difficult to achieve. For example, leaving legitimate stakeholders out of the collaboration may weaken the quality of decisions reached and the decisions may not be implemented satisfactorily. Likewise, "parties that are left out may disrupt the proceedings or ultimately challenge the outcome reached, while parties that stay out are implicitly challenging the effort as it begins" (Fox, 1982:402). The inclusion of key stakeholders that initially are left out of a collaboration may lead to improvements in the collaborative outcome (Gray, 1989). Questions in this section identify the main objective or objectives of participants; examine whether respondents consider their organisation's objectives are likely to be affected by the project; and assess how the respondents are involved in the project's planning process.

(I - Range of stakeholders with an interest in the project)

Collaborative regional tourism planning impacts on the interests of multiple stakeholders who despite not being involved in the collaboration might be consulted on the proposed development and planning. Such consultation may bring various benefits to a collaborative arrangement (Keogh, 1990; Simmons, 1994; Marien and Pizam, 1997). For example, it may broaden the collaboration's information base and help to identify whether key legitimate stakeholders have been left outside the collaborative arrangement. Examining the objectives of non-collaborating stakeholders and whether they consider they are affected by the collaborative arrangements may highlight weaknesses and strengths of the collaboration as well as the implications of its outcomes for sustainable development (Bryson, 1988; Finn, 1996; Warner, 1997).

II - Stakeholder representation in the planning process

The issue of stakeholder representation in the planning process for the project extends the previous issue because each individual may represent more than one stakeholder. The number of interests represented in the project's planning may be broader than may be suggested in an examination of the previous conceptual issue. Furthermore, not all stakeholders may participate to the same extent in a collaboration and some stakeholder groups may be represented indirectly. Some legitimate stakeholders may also be left out or stay out of collaborative arrangements (Gray, 1989). Questions in this section examine which interests the participants represent; whether participants consider all parties with an interest in the project are represented in its planning; and how participants distinguish themselves from non-participating stakeholders. Examining these three issues is important for understanding the rationale for the involvement of the current participating stakeholders.

(II - Stakeholder representation in the planning process)

The examination here of the views of non-participants focuses on similar issues. These include whether they consider their own interests are represented in the collaboration and also whether they consider all parties with an interest in the project are represented. While these issues have not been examined in collaboration-based studies, they are of crucial importance to understand the degree of inclusion of wider interests in a collaboration and also to identify ways in which collaborative arrangements could benefit from consultation with several non-collaborating stakeholders in the problem domain, such as by enhancing the sustainability prospects of the project (WCED, 1987; Joppe, 1996; Timothy, 1998).

III - Identification of issues of concern

Identifying the issues that participating organisations want to have considered in the planning process is a crucial step to establish the interests at stake in the project's planning. Examining whether or not the stated issues have been considered also sheds light on the degree of inclusion of participants' interests in the planning process. Identification of issues of concern among participating stakeholders is important in investigating whether there is "overlap in how the parties define the major issues of concern" (Gray, 1989:58). This is a decisive step concerning the common definition of the problem. Questions in this section identify the main issues each participant's organisation wants to have considered in the project's planning and examine whether the participants consider that these issues have been considered in the planning process.

(III - Identification of issues of concern)

Asking the same questions of non-participants helps identify whether their interests overlap with those of participants' and whether there is a common definition of the problem. Moreover, examining whether or not non-participants perceive their concerns have been considered in the project's planning indicates the potential for broadening how the problem is conceptualised. Gray (1989) argues that the larger the number of stakeholders participating in the problem definition, the richer this definition is likely to be, thus enhancing the potential for identifying a more appropriate solution. A broad representation of interests in a collaboration may increase the potential to integrate multiple interests and for co-ordination in tourism planning (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Parker, 1999; Hall, 2000a).

IV - Common definition of problem

The success of a collaborative arrangement is largely dependent on the stakeholders reaching a satisfactory common definition of the problem. Gray (1989:58) explains that "if a problem is defined to the satisfaction of some parties but not others, the latter will have little incentive to collaborate. Indeed, under those circumstances it may be in the latter's best interest to block the negotiations". It is important that the problem definition is sufficiently broad or ambiguous to encompass the agendas of multiple stakeholders. Stakeholders' priorities concerning the project's planning process may indicate whether the participants are likely to reach a common definition of the problem as these priorities suggest how the problem is conceptualised by each participant. Questions in this section identify each organisation's main priorities in the planning process, examine whether there is an agreed view about the main issues to be considered in the planning, and consider whether the participants share an agreed view about planning priorities.

(IV - Common definition of problem)

Examining what non-participants would like the project's planning to give its main priority to highlights the similarities and dissimilarities in how participants and non-participants conceptualise the problem domain of the Costa Dourada project.

V - Commitment to collaborate

Stakeholder commitment to working together with other stakeholders to solve a problem is a central concept in collaboration theory (Gray, 1989). Questions in this section examine whether participants are fully committed to working together, whether they perceive collaboration may enable their organisation to gain benefits it would not

gain by acting alone and whether they accept that their organisation may have to adjust its priorities so that all participants secure some gains.

(V - Commitment to collaborate)

Questions in this section examine whether non-participants perceive they would get benefits from joining the collaboration that they would not otherwise gain. This suggests the potential for the collaborative arrangement to broaden its range of participants and the scope of the issues being addressed. It may also provide insights into how sustainable regional tourism planning can benefit by giving consideration to the interests of more parties affected by the project (Dowling, 1993; Gunn, 1994b; Komilis, 1994).

VI - Decision-making procedure

Collaboration involves negotiation, consensus-building and joint decision-making among the participating stakeholders. Decisions should not be imposed on participants from outside the collaborative planning process. When collaboration occurs, each individual participant brings their assumptions, beliefs and viewpoints to the negotiations. Then, "through collaboration these multiple perspectives are aired and debated, and gradually a more complete appreciation of the complexity of the problem is constructed" (Gray, 1989:14; Jamal and Getz, 1995, 1997). In this process, stakeholders are directly responsible for reaching agreement on a solution. Questions in this section identify who decides who can participate in the project's planning and how this decision is made, and examine the procedures used to reach decisions among the participants.

(VI - Decision-making procedure)

Non-participants are unlikely to know about the project's decision-making procedures, so they were only asked who in their view decides who can participate and how such a decision is made. This can help explain how closely non-participants follow the project planning and how transparent the planning procedures are to external stakeholders and hence to society in general. How non-participants perceive a collaboration will influence whether they support or block negotiations and the implementation of the collaboration agreements.

VII - Setting the collaborative agenda

Agenda setting involves identifying the main issues a collaboration will focus on. This is an important step and those stakeholders who do not believe their interests have

been satisfactorily included in the collaborative agenda may not be committed to the negotiations. Some stakeholder groups may not join a collaboration until they perceive that their interests coincide with the collaborative agenda. For example, private sector stakeholders may not be willing to join a collaboration if issues concerning their interests have not developed sufficiently to feature in the collaborative agenda (Gray, 1989). Questions in this section examine which participants have had an input in establishing the planning agenda and how this agenda was established.

VIII - Participation methods and techniques

Whereas it may be important that a large number of stakeholders are included in a collaboration, they may not all participate to the same extent. This may be due to stakeholder influence, for often the most powerful stakeholder takes the lead (Gray, 1989). The methods and techniques of stakeholder participation in the planning process may enhance explanation of which stakeholders have most influence in the planning process. The questions also examine which methods are perceived as being more effective by participants. Questions in this section identify the methods that participants use to communicate their organisation's views about the project to other participants, and also examine the perceived effectiveness of these methods.

(VII - Participation methods and techniques)

Although non-participants are not directly involved in the project's planning process, according to the criteria used to identify the participants in this study (see section 4.5.1), some may have attended some of the planning activities. Hence, questions are asked about the methods and techniques that non-participants may have used to express their views to the participants, as well as about the degree of effectiveness of these methods. This provides useful information about whether and how stakeholders external to the collaborative arrangements do interact with the wider planning process.

IX - Dealing with constituencies

A key role to be played by stakeholder representatives in a collaboration is "persuading their constituencies that the agreement is the best they could secure" (Gray, 1989:86). If representatives fail to convince their constituencies of this, then stakeholder support for the collaboration may eventually end. Questions in this section examine whether the participants consult with their constituencies before planning decisions are made, whether they report to their constituencies about

decisions made, and how much importance they put on consulting with and reporting to their constituencies.

(VIII - Dealing with constituencies)

The issues above are also investigated among non-participants. Despite not being directly involved in the project's planning, they are likely to have discussed issues concerning the project. They are asked whether the participating stakeholders consult with and report to them concerning decisions made about the project, a strategy that could lead to building external support for the collaboration (Gray, 1989).

X - Consideration of the views of all participants

As discussed above, the larger the number of stakeholders that participate in problem definition, the richer the way the problem is likely to be defined. However, this is only one of the steps in the collaborative process. In order to maintain commitment to the collaboration each stakeholder must continue to have some standing in the negotiations. Moreover, participants must also perceive that their interests are considered satisfactorily in the agreements that are reached (Gray, 1989). Questions in this section examine whether participants consider the views of participants in general and whether their views in particular have been examined in the negotiations.

(IX - Consideration of the views of all parties with an interest in the project)

This section examines whether non-participants consider the interests of non-participating stakeholders, and their interests in particular, are likely to be included in the negotiations. Whether or not consideration is given to the views of all affected parties may influence whether the implementation of the resulting policies will be supported and be sustainable in the long term.

XI - Implementation of planning outcomes

Collectively forged agreements may not be implemented if (a) careful attention is not devoted to convincing participating stakeholder constituencies that agreements are satisfactory to them, (b) the participants fail to gain the support of non-participants who may be charged with implementing decisions, (c) the participants fail to strengthen or create structures to implement decisions, and (d) the stakeholders fail to guarantee the compliance of participants with the agreement(s) (Gray, 1989). These issues were not included in the present conceptual framework because collaborative arrangements for the Costa Dourada project appeared yet to be fully developed.

Nonetheless, it was deemed important to examine the extent to which participants consider the project's collaborative agreements are likely to be implemented.

(X - Implementation of planning outcomes)

Non-collaborating stakeholders can potentially block negotiations and the implementation of agreements if they perceive that their interests may adversely be affected by them (Gray, 1989). Despite this, collaboration-based research has often ignored whether non-participating stakeholders are likely to support implementation of collaborative agreements and whether they consider they are likely to be implemented.

B. Degree to Which Collaboration Emerges in the Planning Process

Managing a collaboration involves bringing stakeholders together around a problem for which they feel inter-dependent, and reaching negotiated agreements that are satisfactory to all parties involved (Gray, 1989). As the collaborative arrangements around the Costa Dourada project were not fully developed, this study focuses on those processes and not the implementation stage. Questions in the following sections examine the extent to which participating stakeholders have been able to collaborate. Related questions also examine whether non-participants might have been able to collaborate if they had joined the planning process. In addition, some questions investigate whether non-participants consider that they have the right and the capacity to participate in the project planning (WCED, 1987; Drake, 1991; Marien and Pizam, 1997).

I - Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to all participants' views

Questions in this section are linked to the earlier issue X - Consideration of the views of all participants. Accepting that it is important to consider all the participants' views may reflect a perceived inter-dependence between the participants and an appreciation that they have a legitimate standing in the negotiations. Gray (1989) sees this as a fundamental development for collaborations to work.

(XI - Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to the views of all parties with an interest in the project)

Questions in this section are linked to issue (IX - Consideration of the views of all parties with an interest in the project). They examine whether non-participants consider it important that the stakeholders involved in the collaboration give full consideration to the views of all affected stakeholders. Consideration is also paid to

whether the non-participants perceive that the participants consider it important to give full consideration to the views of all non-participating stakeholders.

II - Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to the planning priorities of all participants

This issue is linked to issue IV - Common definition of problem. Gray (1989) considers it crucial that participants give full consideration to the priorities of all participants, because the resulting definition of the problem may then be rich enough to be satisfactory to all. Questions in this section examine the extent to which participants recognise the need to give full consideration to the planning priorities of the local, regional and national levels of government, and of the private sector and non-governmental organisations involved in the collaboration.

(XII - Acceptance of the need to give full consideration to the planning priorities of all parties with an interest in the project)

The negotiation and decision-making process in the Costa Dourada project is likely to focus on the interests of the 29 participants in the planning process. In a broad problem domain like a regional tourist destination many legitimate stakeholders may not be invited to collaborate (Gray and Wood, 1991). There may also be many parties who are affected by the project but may not qualify as legitimate stakeholders as they are considered to lack the necessary resources and skills to participate (Gray, 1989). However, this concept of stakeholder legitimacy in some collaboration theory may be challenged by those who consider it important to strengthen the participation capacity of less powerful stakeholders rather than leave them outside of the planning process (WCED, 1987; Abbott, 1996). Hence, questions in this section examine whether non-collaborating stakeholders consider it important that the project planning gives full consideration to the planning priorities of all affected parties from local, regional and national levels of government, and from the private sector and non-governmental organisations. Consideration of the views of these non-participants could be seen as crucial for sustainable regional tourism planning.

III - Acceptance that participants may need to support decisions that are agreed collectively but are against their respective organisation's best interest

This issue is linked to issue V - Commitment to collaborate. Stakeholder involvement in collaboration may be based on an understanding that in order for them to gain benefits they would not gain by acting in isolation they may need to support some agreements that to some extent go against their own best interests (Gray, 1989).

Questions in this section examine the extent to which participants accept that they may have to support decisions that are agreed collectively but are against their own organisation's best interests. These questions also function as a cross-check to issue V - Commitment to collaborate as they explore further respondents' views concerning stakeholder commitment to the collaboration.

IV - Compliance with shared rules

Collaboration presupposes that participants will establish and abide by shared rules. Shared rules are needed to secure an atmosphere of respect and trust among participants. Without this, it is unlikely that stakeholders will commit themselves fully to the collaboration (Wessel, 1976; Fisher and Ury, 1981). Questions here examine whether the participants consider there is an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust in the planning process.

V - Reaching agreement about a shared vision for the project

The Costa Dourada project needs to gain the commitment of the participating stakeholders around an agreed set of issues (Gray, 1989). The research examines whether the collaborating stakeholders reach a 'shared vision of project development' which presumably requires participants to reach some compromises about various more specific issues. Questions in this section examine whether the planning process has enabled the participants to reach an agreement about a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term.

(XIII - Reaching agreement about a shared vision of project development)

Support for collaborative agreements from non-participating stakeholders may considerably increase the likelihood that the agreements actually will be implemented. This might be based on an acceptance by non-participants that collaborative agreements might have taken into account the interests of other interested parties who are not involved directly in the negotiations. Questions in this section examine whether non-participants consider it likely that participants will reach a shared vision of how the project should develop, and whether they consider the shared vision is likely to be accepted by all parties affected by the project.

(XIV - Right to participate in the planning process for the project)

Determining which stakeholders have a legitimate stake in a problem is an important part of the process of identifying the stakeholders who might participate in collaborative planning. Gray (1985) explains:

A legitimate stake means the perceived right and capacity to participate in the negotiations. Those actors with a right to participate are those impacted by the actions of other stakeholders. They become involved in order to moderate those impacts. However, to be perceived as legitimate, stakeholders must also have the capacity to participate. That is, they must possess resources and skills sufficient to justify their involvement ... Some stakeholders are perceived as legitimate because they have recognised expertise to bring to bear on the problem. Others control needed financial or informational resources. Still others wield the power to effectively veto an agreement reached either through direct action or by failing to carry out the agreements once they're negotiated (p. 922).

Gray has been quoted at length here because the criteria for identifying legitimate stakeholders are a central issue in collaboration theory. The criteria used will influence the range of stakeholders participating in a collaboration. As collaboration may exclude key affected parties from the planning process it is useful to examine views on this issue among the affected parties who are left outside of the process (Hall and Jenkins, 1995; Reed, 1997; Hall, 2000a). Questions in this section seek the views of non-participating stakeholders on whether or not they consider their organisation has the right to participate in the project planning.

(XV - Capacity to participate in the planning process for the project)

Stakeholder capacity to participate in a collaboration is a key element of the concept of stakeholder legitimacy. According to Gray's (1989) interpretation of collaboration, in addition to being affected by the outcomes of collaborations, parties must have the resources and skills necessary for them to enter the collaborative arrangement before they should be allowed to do so. However, this is one of many possible interpretations. For example, the sustainable development perspective suggests that less powerful organisations should have their capacity enhanced in order for them to participate in planning. A broad interpretation of sustainable development also acknowledges that cultural heritage and 'local' knowledge are crucial resources for more equitable forms of development (WCED, 1987; Marien and Pizam, 1997). Questions in this section examine whether non-participants consider their organisation has the necessary resources and skills to participate in the project planning.

4.4 PREPARATION FOR THE FIELDWORK

This section describes the preparation for data collection, notably for the development of the study's social survey.

The term 'fieldwork' may have various meanings. For example, it can refer to the location where data are collected, or it can be synonymous with data collection using observational methods (Robson, 1993). Some social scientists use the term to refer to data collection using a social survey and this is how the term is used here (Moser and Kalton, 1971). The fieldwork for this research involved the researcher in collecting data and information in Maceió, capital city of Alagoas state, and in the ten municipalities in the area of the Costa Dourada project, the 'fieldwork setting'.

The preparation for the fieldwork started very early in the research process. The researcher intended to use the Costa Dourada project as a case study from the very beginning of the research process. For this reason, he started collecting and reading documents about the project from March to August 1996, prior to studying in Britain. The researcher kept up-to-date about the project's development from September 1996 until February 1998 (after which fieldwork started). To do this, the researcher (a) read technical reports and legislation concerning the project, (b) read a daily newspaper for Alagoas state, the *Gazeta de Alagoas*, through the Internet, and (c) maintained regular contacts with planners involved in the project's planning. Information collected in this way provided important data to assist in choosing the study's research instruments and sampling procedures, and in designing the strategy for implementing the fieldwork.

The implementation of a social survey can face a number of difficulties. For example, there may be practical problems such as of identifying organisations that have data concerning the subject being investigated, of gaining access to these organisations and of convincing them to participate in the survey, and also of time and financial constraints. There may also be cultural barriers to the research implementation, such as due to a low level of importance attached to scientific investigation or due to a rejection of the presence of the researcher as an unwanted nuisance. Moreover, there may be theoretical problems, such as of identifying who would be an appropriate representative to speak for a stakeholder group, of non-responses or a low response to questionnaire questions, all of which can be affected by local cultures (Moser and Kalton, 1971; Neuman, 1997).

The information assembled about the Costa Dourada project, together with an understanding of issues involved in designing and implementing social surveys (Moser and Kalton, 1971; Robson, 1993; Neuman, 1997), led the researcher to identifying five issues that could have caused data collection problems (see Table 4.2). Based on these potential problems of fieldwork implementation, a strategy was designed to reduce them and for data collection to be completed in an intensive three-month period. The fieldwork strategy comprised three activities. The first involved creating a fieldwork base with the infrastructure required to implement the survey. With the help of a fieldwork assistant, the researcher created a base in the fieldwork area, which included a PC, printer, telephone, fax machine, two tape-recorders and a car. The fieldwork base helped to reduce problem 1 in Table 4.2 (see Figure 1.1, page 2). The second activity in the development of the fieldwork strategy helped ameliorate problems 2 and 3 in Table 4.2. This involved intensifying contacts with key individuals in the fieldwork area over the two months preceding the start of data collection. These individuals are described in Table 4.3. The third activity in the fieldwork strategy helped to reduce the problems 4 and 5 in Table 4.2. A pilot of the research instruments was used to test the use and conduct of the interviews and questionnaires with the respondents. The researcher interviewed the respondents and then remained in the same room as they completed the questionnaire. The researcher explained to the respondent that they should ask for clarification in case there were doubts concerning the completion of the questionnaire as a whole or regarding any specific question. The pilot indicated that conducting the interview and the questionnaire in just one session did not lead to interviewee fatigue. It was decided to conduct both on each occasion as this guaranteed obtaining a completed interview and questionnaire for each respondent.

Table 4.2 Issues that could have led to problems for the fieldwork data collection.

Issue	Problem	How the problem could affect the survey
1. Geographical area of the 'fieldwork setting'	The fieldwork setting includes the Municipality of Maceió and the ten municipalities affected by the project, involving altogether an area of approximately 2,500 km ² .	Travelling over the entire area to interview stakeholder representatives and to collect secondary data for the study would require substantial financial resources and time. The survey could have been less than satisfactory without appropriate infrastructure to conduct the survey and without an effective fieldwork strategy.
2. Types of stakeholders in the samples	The samples of participants and of non-participants would include stakeholders whose representatives are usually difficult to get hold of, such as politicians, business people and public officials in large organisations.	Gaining stakeholder consent to participate in the survey as well as access to their representatives could take up considerable time. Once stakeholders had agreed to participate in the survey, there could still be problems concerning when their representative could be available for interview.
3. Potential high rate of stakeholder refusal to participate in the survey	The survey of the Costa Dourada project touches on sensitive issues, so there could have been a high refusal rate to participate in the survey.	If a large number of stakeholders refused to participate, it would require identifying other stakeholders for the sample. This could result in using a lot more time and financial resources than those that were available for the survey.
4. Potential low response rate to the questionnaires	Based on his knowledge of the society in the fieldwork area, the researcher estimated that the non-response rate to the questionnaire could exceed 50% if the questionnaire was sent to respondents by mail. A similar low response rate could result even if the questionnaire was handed to respondents in person soon after the interview, with them asked to complete it later and then post it back.	A low response rate to the questionnaire could lead to a less than satisfactory data set. While questions were included in both the interview and the questionnaire for increased data reliability, several questions were only included in the questionnaire. If a large number of respondents failed to return the questionnaire, this would lead to a limited data set.
5. Potential low response to some questions, especially by non-participants	It was estimated that many non-participants might not be well acquainted with the project and its planning. Thus, some respondents might have difficulty in answering some of the questions.	Non-response to some questions in the questionnaire would lead to an inconsistent data set. This might lead to problems in the examination of issues of interest for this research.

Table 4.3 Individuals in the fieldwork area with whom the researcher intensified contacts in preparation for the fieldwork.

Individual	Purpose of contacting the individual
Assessor of Legislation for the Planning Unit for the project	Information was obtained concerning recent developments in planning for the project as well as about political, economic and administrative developments in the fieldwork area that could affect the project and the survey. The individual also helped to gain access to other stakeholders in the sample.
Co-ordinator for the Environment for the Planning Unit for the project	As above
Co-ordinator for the Coastal Management Project for the State of Alagoas	As above
Co-ordinator General for the Planning Unit for the project	This individual assisted in identifying participants in the project planning for the project. He also supported the survey by granting access to the offices of the Planning Unit and by talking with the other members of the Planning Unit about the study and convincing them to participate in the survey.
President of the Institute for the Environment (IMA/AL)	Permission was gained to get access to secondary data available at IMA/AL. He also encouraged others to assist with the interviews. He is a highly-respected public official who has easy access to a broad number of private sector and state government stakeholder groups in the fieldwork area.

4.5 SOCIAL SURVEY

The social survey is the most extensively used strategy in social research and is largely used when the subject matter of the study is "concerned with ... the opinions and attitudes of some group of people" (Moser and Kalton, 1971:1). This applies to this examination of the Costa Dourada project. The social survey approach also enabled the researcher to collect a fairly large volume of data in a relatively short amount of time (Robson, 1993; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Neuman, 1997).

The planning of a social survey involves a combination of technical and organisational decisions, such as "what population coverage to aim at; what information to seek; how to go about collecting this information" (Moser and Kalton, 1971:41). These surveys vary from the *structured interview* on the one side to the *unstructured interview* on the other. A quantitative questionnaire is an example of a completely *structured interview* because all the questions are closed and the respondents are asked just to choose their answers from a list of pre-determined responses. The use of closed response options has the disadvantage that the researcher determines the range of possible responses, with other responses largely excluded. A more qualitative research instrument may be an *unstructured interview* in which the questions are formulated as the researcher talks with the interviewee. In this case, the interviewee's answers are

not based on the researcher's categories and they are communicated in words of their own choice. A *semi-structured interview* is positioned between these two extremes, although it is in fact fairly structured as it usually consists of a list of 'pre-determined' questions and probes. However, the researcher can modify the order of the questions "based upon her perception of what seems most appropriate in the context of the 'conversation', can change the way they are worded, give explanations, leave out particular questions which seem inappropriate with a particular interviewee or include additional ones" (Robson, 1993:231). These various methodological possibilities for a social survey provide flexibility in the choice of data collection strategies.

It was considered that a mixture of more qualitative and more quantitative approaches to data collection was appropriate for the present research. One reason for this was that using a questionnaire to cover some issues would allow the interview itself to be less than one hour in length. Robson (1993:229) explains that interviews "going much over an hour may ... have the effect of reducing the number of persons willing to participate". Long interviews can also lead to interviewee fatigue (Neuman, 1997). By adopting both methods, the research also benefited by collecting more data over the same time period. It also facilitated increased data reliability by allowing some key issues to be examined using both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Qualitative methods have the capacity to capture complex phenomena in an in-depth way, particularly as it is possible to combine various approaches to qualitative data collection, such as interviews, observation and document analysis. Although several authors highlight the distinctions between qualitative and quantitative methods (McCracken, 1988), it is difficult to see these two methodological approaches as mutually exclusive. In fact, researchers are increasingly combining both approaches in single studies (Haralambos, 1990).

The rationale for using a two stage approach (of an interview followed immediately by a related questionnaire) with the same respondents was that (a) it would keep the interview to less than one hour in length, and hence it would reduce interview fatigue; and (b) it would allow the examination of key research issues using both qualitative and quantitative instruments and from two different perspectives. Based on the pilot and subsequent responses, it became clear that respondents did not consider the two stage approach to be unduly onerous. Indeed, they seemed to prefer this to completing the questionnaire at a later time as it meant that all their input into the research could be completed at one time. However, the fact that the questionnaire

was implemented immediately following the interview may have had some limitations, as discussed in section 9.11.

The use of multiple methods and data sources in scientific inquiry is a strategy known as 'triangulation' (Decrop, 1999). Denzin and Lincoln (1994:2) explain that a "combination of multiple methods, empirical materials, perspectives ... in a single study ... adds rigor, breadth, and depth to" scientific investigation. There are a number of other arguments in favour of triangulation. For example, using different methods and sources of data may help to control "for possible biases by the researcher being the sole observer of "a phenomenon (Selin and Chavez, 1995b). Triangulation can help reduce the likelihood of misinterpretation by posing a question in two different research instruments (Denzin, 1989; Goetz and LeCompte, 1984). This procedure can also help to clarify meaning by capturing differences in the way a phenomenon is perceived (Flick, 1992). Similarly, using combined methods can add depth where a single method has limitations (Moser and Kalton, 1971). This study's triangulation approach included using both interviews and questionnaires. These were used to collect data about different conceptual issues, to collect data about different aspects of the same issue, and to collect data about the same issue in both instruments. In addition, the study also collected data from existing documents and through observation of planning meetings and of a public seminar concerning the Costa Dourada project.

Social surveys frequently use attitude scales, such as the Guttman, Thurstone and Likert scales (Neuman, 1997). Likert scales are "the most popular scaling procedure in use today" and they are used in the questionnaires developed for this study (Oppenheim, 1992:195). The Likert scale has various strengths. In particular, they are simple and easy to use (Neuman, 1997) and the items in a Likert scale "look interesting to respondents, and people often enjoy completing a scale of this kind. This can be of importance, not only because if they are interested they are likely to give considered rather than perfunctory answers, but also because in many situations people may, not unreasonably, just not be prepared to co-operate in something that appears boring" (Robson, 1993:260). In addition, the reliability of Likert scale findings "tends to be very good" (Oppenheim, 1992:200). In Likert scales, people are usually asked to indicate whether they agree or disagree with a statement along with some variation in the degree to which they agree with the statement, in categories such as *strongly agree* or *somewhat disagree* (Oppenheim, 1992). It is usually "best to use four to eight categories ... [because] ... more distinctions than that are probably not

meaningful, and people will become confused" (Neuman, 1997:195). There is debate as to whether or not to include a neutral or 'don't know' category for fear that people may chose nonattitude choices to avoid making a choice. Despite this, Neuman (1997:242) is of the opinion that it is usually best to offer a nonattitude choice, because "by offering a nonattitude (middle or no opinion) choice, researchers identify those holding middle positions or those without opinions", and this is used in the present study.

Two types of Likert scales are used in the questionnaires for participants (see **Appendix III**) and non-participants (see **Appendix IV**). A Likert scale was used to measure respondents' views concerning key issues regarding the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. For example, for Question 3 in the participants' questionnaire, the following statement was provided: *In my view, all participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada Project are fully committed to working together.* Then, respondents were asked to mark in the Likert scale below the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statement:

<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither disagree nor agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
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Another Likert scale is used in the questionnaires to assess respondents' views on the degree of effectiveness of the methods or techniques they had used to express their views about the Costa Dourada project. Respondents were instructed to indicate which of a list of methods and techniques they had used to express their views (see Table 4.4), and then to select for each method used one option on the Likert scale

Table 4.4 Methods and techniques to express one's views.

<input type="checkbox"/> Meetings with one other participant	<input type="checkbox"/> Telephone conversation
<input type="checkbox"/> Meetings with two or three participants	<input type="checkbox"/> Letters by post
<input type="checkbox"/> Meetings with more than three but not all participants	<input type="checkbox"/> Letters by messenger
<input type="checkbox"/> Meetings called for all participants	<input type="checkbox"/> Fax
<input type="checkbox"/> Workshops	<input type="checkbox"/> E-mail

below to express their view on the degree of effectiveness of the method:

<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
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It was decided to include both a 'middle position' and a 'no opinion' category in the two Likert scales used in the study. The middle positions are *Neither disagree nor agree* (for statements) and *Neither ineffective nor effective* (for the methods or techniques used to express views). The 'no opinion' or 'don't know' category was used for the statements and the methods and techniques. There are two reasons for doing so. First, the examination of documents concerning the Costa Dourada project revealed that the collaboration arrangements might not be fully developed yet. So, possibly there would have not been enough time for stakeholders to assess fully the effectiveness of the methods they had used, and this could be captured by a middle-position category in the scale. Using a 'no opinion' category had the objective of preventing respondents from choosing a mid-point position in an odd-numbered scale. Respondents could choose that category to record what in effect is a 'no opinion' response as distinct from a genuinely neutral attitude. In addition, some stakeholders, especially non-participants, might not have any real impression concerning the effectiveness of the methods or techniques they had used, and this could be captured by the 'don't know' category.

The examination of documents related to the project and contacts with planners involved in its planning suggested that the study would benefit considerably by the use of observation, which is one of the main methods of data collection in surveys (Moser and Kalton, 1991; Neuman, 1997). Observation can be used as a supplementary data collection method to help put into perspective data collected through interviews and questionnaires (Robson, 1993). Through conversations with the Co-ordinator General and other members of the Planning Unit, the researcher found out that it was usually from about 3.00pm to 5.30pm that there were more activities in the Unit, and the researcher included as many visits as possible between those hours for observation. In total, 16 observation visits were made to the Planning Unit between the beginning of April and the end of June, 1998. Visits varied from fifty minutes to about one and a half hours each. Notes were taken in a fieldwork notebook of all activities observed in the meetings which were of interest for the study.

Data were needed about the aims and objectives of the project, its planning process, and its social, economic, political and administrative context. It was decided that much of this type of data could be collected from documents, such as technical reports and legislation, a strategy that is common in the case study approach (Moser and Kalton, 1971).

4.6 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

A preliminary examination of the planning documents, legislation, official administrative acts and newspaper articles, showed that the Costa Dourada project affects numerous stakeholders with interests at diverse geographical scales. While it was relatively easy to identify a sample of stakeholders involved in the project's planning, it was more complex establishing a sample of stakeholders affected by the project but who were not participating in the planning process. Early assessments of the case study suggested that the number of stakeholders who potentially could be involved in a direct way in the project's decision-making processes amounted to 45 stakeholders. By contrast, the number of stakeholders who were affected by the project but were not involved in its planning could be very large.

The procedure used to establish the sample of stakeholders directly involved in project planning took into consideration criteria derived from collaboration theory. Importantly, it was decided that the sample should only include stakeholders directly involved in negotiations with other participants involved in the planning process, for such negotiation is a key element in collaborative decision-making. It is through negotiation that participating stakeholders attempt to establish a collective interpretation of their shared problem and agree on jointly-crafted solutions to the problem (Strauss, 1978).

The procedure to identify the sample of non-participating stakeholders took into consideration some general criteria linked to the concepts of regional tourism planning, stakeholder participation in tourism planning and sustainability. Scholars arguing for the adoption of regional-scale tourism planning emphasise that regional tourism development affects the interests of multiple stakeholders with interests at the local, regional and national scales (Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994a, 1994b; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996). Likewise, the sustainability concept requires that development actions take into account the interests of a wide spread of affected organisations of various types and sizes and with interests at various spatial scales (WCED, 1987). The sample was also developed by snowballing. The approach used to establish the sample of non-participating stakeholders that met these criteria is discussed in detail in section 4.6.2.

There are two general categories of sampling procedure: 'probability samples' and 'non-probability samples' (de Vaus, 1996). With probability samples, "it is possible to specify the probability that any person (or other unit on which the survey is based) will

be included in the sample" (Robson, 1993:140). Probability samples include among others *simple random sampling*, *systematic sampling* and *cluster sampling*. With non-probability samples it is not possible to specify the probability that any person or other unit will be included in the sample. Non-probability samples include among others *convenience sampling*, *purposive sampling* and *snowball sampling*.

The early assessment of the Costa Dourada project suggested that some stakeholder groups were more intensely involved in project planning than others. Collaboration theory suggests that usually there are differing levels of stakeholder participation and that normally there is a core of stakeholders that participate more intensely in the negotiations (Gray, 1989). So, it was decided that the degree of participation in the project's planning process would be a suitable criteria to identify participating stakeholders. This is a type of *purposive sample* because the sample was drawn in a way that could satisfy specific theoretical and empirical requirements. A purposive sampling procedure was also used to identify the sample of non-participating organisations, including a snowball sampling procedure which, according to Robson (1993), is a particular type of purposive sample. The snowball sampling aims to establish a directly and indirectly inter-connected web of people or units. This multi-stage technique "begins with one or a few people or cases and spreads out on the basis of links to the initial cases" (Neuman, 1997:207).

Purposive sampling is a type of non-probability sampling "where cases are judged as typical of some category of cases of interest to the researcher. They are not selected randomly" (de Vaus, 1996:78). Purposive sampling is an acceptable kind of sampling for special situations in which the researcher uses their judgement to select cases with a specific purpose in mind and usually for in-depth investigation (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1981; Neuman, 1997; Babbie, 1998). A researcher usually decides upon a sample design "in the light of what is practically feasible as well as of what is theoretically desirable ... [also] ... due regard must be paid to the purposes of the survey, the accuracy required in the results, the cost, time and labour involved" (Moser and Kalton, 1971:41). Purposive samples can allow sufficient data to be collected to examine clearly defined purposes (Babbie, 1998), as in the case with the examination of the case study of the Costa Dourada planning process.

The purposive sampling approach was deemed to be appropriate for this research because it had three important advantages. First, it allowed the researcher to adjust the sample to assess the elements of collaboration theory and the concepts of

sustainability and regional tourism planning. Second, it allowed adjustments to be made to the characteristics of the case study. And, third, the sample would not involve too much financial resource, time and labour, all of which were constraints on the data collection.

4.6.1 The Sample of Participating Stakeholders

The Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL), of which the Costa Dourada project is a part, runs from 1994 to 2010 (SEPLAN, 1994). As a consequence, the project's planning had been in progress for over three years when the present data were collected. Stakeholder participation in collaborative planning initiatives may be a dynamic process in which stakeholders get involved and possibly subsequently drop in and out as the planning process progresses (Cropper, 1996). In addition, there are cases in which stakeholder participation is mandated, that is, the government establishes the project planning framework by legislation and identifies stakeholders that should be involved in the planning process. This was the case with the Costa Dourada project (Selin, 2000; DOE/AL, 1996a, 1996b, 1997). Fieldwork preparation enabled the researcher to develop an initial understanding of the Costa Dourada project and its planning process, and based on this preparation and pre-determined criteria, a preliminary list of 45 stakeholders was produced who potentially could be involved in the project's planning. The researcher sent this stakeholder list to the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit for the PRODETUR/AL by fax, and asked him to indicate those organisations, and others not in the list, which in his view met the following criteria. First, that they had representatives who were invited and often attended planning meetings for the project up to early 1998; second, that these representatives were accountable to their organisation; and, third, that they exchanged information with the project planners. In addition, the researcher telephoned the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit to make sure he understood the request and the criteria provided to identify the stakeholders. This process identified 29 stakeholder representatives who often attended planning meetings up to early 1998 and who also met the stipulated criteria. In Table 4.5 these 29 representatives are classified by stakeholder category and the geographical scale at which they had strongest interests. They were classified in this way because one objective of this research is to examine the extent to which the project's planning process involved stakeholders from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations with interests at the national, regional and local scales.

Table 4.5 Sample of stakeholders involved in collaborative planning for the Costa Dourada project (the *participants*).

Geographical scale	Type of stakeholder	Stakeholder	Job title of representative
National	Government environment	Brazilian Institute for the Environment and Renewable Natural Resources (IBAMA)	Technical Director
	Government environment	Coastal Management Project (GERCO/AL)	Co-ordinator for the State of Alagoas
	NGO environment	Foundation for Marine Mammals (FMM)	National Director
	Government other	Service of the National Coastal Lands (DPU)	Architect
	Government other	Department for the Development of the North East (SUDENE)	Head of the Technical Department
	Private sector tourism	Brazilian Company of Airport Infrastructure (INFRAERO)	Superintendent for the State of Alagoas
Regional	Government environment	Institute for the Environment (IMA/AL)	Director of the Dept. for Ecosystems
	Government tourism	Tourist Board of the State of Alagoas (EMATUR/AL)	Planning Co-ordinator
	Government infrastructure	Department of Roads of the State of Alagoas (DER/AL)	Assessor to Director General and President of DER/AL's Planning Unit for the Costa Dourada Project
	Government infrastructure	Water and Sewage Company of the State of Alagoas (CASAL)	Superintendent for Engineering
	Government tourism	Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (UEE-PRODETUR/AL)	Co-ordinator for the environment
	"	"	Co-ordinator for Administration & Finance
	"	"	Co-ordinator for Institutional Development
	"	"	Co-ordinator for Transport & Roads
	"	"	Assessor for Legislation
	"	"	Assessor for Project Development
	"	"	Assessor for Management of Partnerships and Marketing
	"	"	Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit
Local	NGO other	Association of the Municipalities of the State of Alagoas (AMA)	President
	Municipal government	Municip. of Barra de Santo Antônio	Secretary of Tourism
	"	Municipality of Japaratinga	Secretary of Health
	"	Municipality of Maragogi	Secretary of Tourism & Environment
	"	Municip. of Matriz de Camaragibe	Head of Mayor's Office
	"	Municipality of Paripueira	Secretary of Tourism & Environment
	"	Municip. of Passo de Camaragibe	Secretary of Tourism & Environment
	"	Municipality of Porto Calvo	Mayor
	"	Municipality of Porto de Pedras	Secretary of Administration

Table 4.5 (continued...)

<i>Local</i>	"	Municip. of São Luiz do Quitunde	Secretary of Tourism
	"	Municip. of São Miguel dos Milagres	Secretary of Tourism & Environment

4.6.2 The Sample of Non-Participating Stakeholders

To attain the research objectives the sample of non-participating stakeholders needed to include a broad range of interests, including stakeholders in the public, private and non-governmental or non-profit sectors, at national, regional and local geographical scales, and of small, medium and large organisations. The sample of government stakeholders was focused particularly on departments and organisations with statutory responsibilities for tourism planning, economic development and infrastructure development. There was also a strong representation of stakeholders from three municipalities in the project area where the first phase of tourism development was to be concentrated.

The researcher used three stages to develop a core of non-participating stakeholders. The first stage involved examining technical reports, legislation, official administrative acts and newspaper articles related to the project in order to identify affected stakeholders. The second stage involved conversations with a number of representatives of organisations who were involved in the project's planning. They were asked individually through an informal conversation for their opinion about the initial list of participants in the planning process. They were also asked to identify other stakeholders which in their view should participate in the project planning. The third stage involved what Miles and Huberman (1984:42) call "work[ing] a bit at the peripheries", that is, talking with people who are not central to the project but are linked to it in some way. This step involved talking with tourism journalists and people in state-level government planning organisations who were not directly involved in the project planning for the project. They were asked to name organisations and individuals that in their view should participate in the planning process. Based on these three steps, a core, initial sample of non-participating stakeholders was established prior to the snowball sampling procedures (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Stakeholders included in the core of non-participating stakeholders at the start of the snowball sampling procedure.

Geographical scale	Type of stakeholder	Stakeholder	Reason for inclusion in the sample
National	Government tourism	Brazilian Tourist Board (EMBRATUR)	EMBRATUR is one of the creators of the PRODETUR/NE and is responsible for Brazilian tourism policies
	Government transport	Port of Maceió	Maceió is the major gateway to the project, and the Port of Maceió regularly receives cruise ships
	Private sector tourism	TAM (airline)	A major Brazilian airline that operates flights to Alagoas
	Private sector tourism	VARIG (airline)	As above
	Private sector tourism	VASP (airline)	As above
Regional	Government tourism	Tourism Secretary of the State of Alagoas (SETUR/AL)	SETUR is responsible for Alagoas' tourism policies
	Government infrastructure	Telecommunications of Alagoas (TELASA)	TELASA is responsible for the telecommunications infrastructure in the project area
	Government infrastructure	Electricity Company of the State of Alagoas (CEAL)	CEAL is responsible for electricity infrastructure in the project area
	Government banking	Bank of the Northeast (BN)	BN is Brazil's major financing organisation for the project
Local	Government legislative	Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Maragogi	Maragogi municipality is the leading tourist municipality in the project area and is included in the first phase of the project*
	Government legislative	Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Barra de Santo Antônio	This municipality is included in the first phase of the project*
	Government legislative	Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Paripueira	This municipality is included in the first phase of the project*

* The municipalities included in the first phase of the Costa Dourada project are the first in the project area to have major infrastructure projects.

These stakeholders were interviewed and asked to nominate other stakeholders that they considered were significantly affected by the project. The named parties were then asked to identify other relevant parties, and when several respondents mentioned a particular stakeholder it was added to the sample. After the snowball sampling procedure had run for some time patterns were identified of stakeholders that were often mentioned. First, all stakeholders contacted in the snowball sampling procedure mentioned that the private sector should also participate in the planning process. In addition to identifying this general stakeholder group, five specific private sector organisations were often named, and these were included in the sample (see Table 4.7). One was another national airline (Transbrasil), but its General Manager

refused to be interviewed because he considered the company had no contributions to make to the Costa Dourada project at its current stage. The stakeholders in the snowball sampling procedure identified three other organisations (see Table 4.8), with these also included in the sample.

Another general stakeholder group that was often mentioned in the snowball sampling procedure were the 'communities' affected by the project. Based on detailed knowledge of the project area, the researcher concluded that by the term 'community' stakeholders probably meant all local stakeholders who were affected by the project, including the government, private sector, non-governmental organisations and residents. Often five private-sector organisations were mentioned as 'community' stakeholders and these were included in the sample (see Table 4.9). These are the only local-scale organisations specifically named in the snowball sampling procedure. Hence, the examination of documents and the snowball sampling procedure identified

Table 4.7 Private sector organisations identified by most stakeholders in the snowball sampling procedure.

Geographical scale	Type of stakeholder	Stakeholder
<i>Regional</i>	Private sector tourism	Brazilian Association of Event Organisers (ABEOC), Alagoas State section
	Private sector tourism	Brazilian Association of Tourism Journalists and Writers (ABRAJET), Alagoas State section
	Private sector tourism	Brazilian Association of Hoteliers (ABIH), Alagoas State section
	Private sector tourism	Brazilian Association of Travel Agents (ABAV), Alagoas State section
	Private sector other	Brazilian Service for the Support to Small Businesses (SEBRAE)

Table 4.8 Other organisations often mentioned by stakeholders in the snowball sampling procedure.

Geographical scale	Type of stakeholder	Stakeholder
<i>Regional</i>	Government education	Federal University of the State of Alagoas (UFAL)
	Government public security	Secretary for Public Security of the State of Alagoas (SSP/AL)
	NGO environment	Institute for the Preservation of the Atlantic Rain Forest (IPMA)

Table 4.9 Organisations at the local level most often mentioned by stakeholders in the snowball sampling procedure.

Geographical scale	Type of stakeholder	Stakeholder
<i>Local</i>	Private sector tourism	Hotel Captain Nicholas
	Private sector tourism	Hotel Bitingui
	Private sector tourism	Hotel Salinas
	Private sector tourism	Association of the Craftsmen of the Municipality of Paripueira
	Private sector commerce	Commercial Association of the Municipality of Paripueira

25 organisations that were included in the sample of non-participating stakeholders. The snowball sampling procedure ended when it did not identify new stakeholders.

At this stage, the researcher decided that the sample of non-participants would be completed based on a combination of theoretical concepts and empirical information.

Most proponents of both regional tourism planning and sustainable development argue that it is important to listen to the views of numerous stakeholders affected by development policies, including those of local communities (WCED, 1987; Drake, 1991; Joppe, 1996). Empirical information collected from stakeholders in the snowball sampling procedure showed that local communities were often named as stakeholders who should participate in the project planning. However, with the exception of the five local scale organisations named specifically by stakeholders, they used the generic term 'communities'. For this reason, the researcher decided to include several local-scale organisations in order to have a broad spread of this type of stakeholder in the sample. In addition to including these seven other local scale stakeholders, the researcher included 6 other regional scale stakeholders in the sample (see Table 4.10). A justification is also presented in the table for including each stakeholder.

Snowballing and other purposive sampling procedures eventually established a sample of 38 stakeholders affected by the project but who were not involved as participants in its planning process. Table 4.11 details the consolidated sample of 38 non-participating organisations.

This table reveals that the sample includes stakeholders from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations at the local, regional and national geographical scales, with the exception of the national geographical scale where

Table 4.10 Twelve additional organisations identified for the sample of non-participants.

Geographical scale	Type of stakeholder	Stakeholder	Justification for including the stakeholder
<i>Regional</i>	Government legislative	Association of the Municipal Legislators of the State of Alagoas (UVEAL)	UVEAL involves at the state level all municipal legislators ('vereadores') of Alagoas state (there are over 1,000 of them).
	Government transport	Traffic Department of the State of Alagoas (DETRAN)	DETRAN is responsible for creating and implementing traffic policies in the ten municipalities affected by the project.
	NGO environment	Movimento pela Vida (MOVIDA)	MOVIDA is Alagoas' most articulate environmental NGO and the only one with actions covering the whole of the state. MOVIDA, which has a seat at the Alagoas council for the environment, has existed since the mid-70s.
	Private sector tourism	Transcontinental (travel agent and operator)	Transcontinental was created recently.
	Private sector tourism	Aeroturismo (travel agent and operator)	Aeroturismo is one of Alagoas' oldest travel agents and operators.
	Private sector fisheries	Federation of the Fishers' Associations of the state of Alagoas	The Federation is very articulate and operational at the regional level. Fisheries are also an important traditional sector of the economy in the project area.
<i>Local</i>	NGO residents	Association of the residents of Ponta do Mangue, Municipality of Maragogi	Residents associations in the project area are usually well informed about the basic needs of the community. Maragogi is included in the first stage of the project.
	NGO residents	Mulheres Barra Forte (Women's Association of the Municipality of Barra de Santo Antonio)	Residents associations in the project area are usually well informed about the basic needs of the community. Barra de Santo Antônio is included in the first stage of the project.
	NGO residents	Association of the Residents of the Municipality of Japaratinga	Residents associations in the project area are usually well informed about the basic needs of the community. Japaratinga was included instead of Paripueira because there were no residents' associations in the latter.
	Private sector tourism	Hotel Praia Dourada	Medium-size hotel in the project area.
	Private sector tourism	Chalés Costa Dourada (accommodation)	Small-size accommodation organisation.
	Private sector tourism	Pousada Olho d'Água (accommodation)	As above
	Private sector tourism	Frutos do Mar (restaurant)	Larger restaurant in Maragogi, the leading tourism municipality in the project area.

Table 4.11 Sample of stakeholders affected by the Costa Dourada project who are not involved in a direct way in its planning process (the *non-participants*).

Geographical scale	Type of stakeholder	Stakeholder	Job title of representative
National	Government tourism	Brazilian Tourist Board (EMBRATUR)	Representative for Alagoas State (President of the Tourist Board of the State of Alagoas (EMATUR/AL))
	Government infrastructure	Port of Maceió (capital city of Alagoas State)	Substitute General Manager
	Private sector tourism	Brazilian Association of Event Organisers (ABEOC), Alagoas State section	President
	Private sector tourism	Brazilian Association of Tourism Journalists and Writers (ABRAJET), Alagoas State section	President
	Private sector tourism	TAM (airline)	Representative for Alagoas state
	Private sector tourism	VARIG (airline)	General Manager
	Private sector tourism	VASP (airline)	General Manager
	Private sector tourism	Brazilian Association of Hoteliers (ABIH), Alagoas State section	President
	Private sector tourism	Brazilian Association of Travel Agents (ABAV), Alagoas State section	President
Regional	Government legislative	Association of the Municipal Legislators of the State of Alagoas (UVEAL)	President
	Government tourism	Tourism Secretary of the State of Alagoas (SETUR/AL)	Technical Assessor to the President
	Government education	Federal University of the State of Alagoas (UFAL)	Co-ordinator for International Exchange (appointed by the Rector for the interview)
	Government infrastructure	Telecommunications of Alagoas (TELASA)	Planning Director
	Government infrastructure	Electricity Company of the State of Alagoas (CEAL)	Technical Director
	Government public security	Secretary for Public Security of the State of Alagoas (SSP/AL)	Chief Secretary
	Government banking	Bank of the Northeast (BN)	General Manager for Alagoas state branch
	Government transport	Traffic Department of the State of Alagoas (DETRAN)	Director
	NGO environment	Institute for the Preservation of the Atlantic Rain Forest (IPMA)	President
	NGO environment	Movimento pela Vida (MOVIDA)	President
	Private sector other	Brazilian Service for Support to Small Businesses (SEBRAE)	Consultant
	Private sector tourism	Transcontinental (travel agent and operator)	Events Co-ordinator
	Private sector tourism	Aeroturismo (travel agent and operator)	General Manager/Owner
	Private sector fisheries	Federation of the Fishers' Associations of the State of Alagoas	President

Table 4.11 (continued...)

<i>Local</i>	Government legislative	Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Barra de Santo Antônio	President
	Government legislative	Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Maragogi	President
	Government legislative	Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Paripueira	President
	NGO residents	Association of the Residents of the Municipality of Japaratinga	President
	NGO residents	Association of the Residents of Ponta do Mangue, Municipality of Maragogi	President
	NGO residents	Mulheres Barra Forte (Women's Association of the Municipality of Barra de Santo Antônio)	Treasurer
	Private sector tourism	Hotel Captain Nicholas	General Manager
	Private sector tourism	Hotel Bitingui	General Manager/Owner
	Private sector commerce	Commercial Association of the Municipality of Paripueira	President
	Private sector tourism	Pousada Olho d'Água (accommodation)	General Manager
	Private sector tourism	Hotel Praia Dourada	General Manager
	Private sector tourism	Frutos do Mar (restaurant)	General Manager/Owner
	Private sector tourism	Chalés Costa Dourada (accommodation)	General Manager/Owner
	Private sector tourism	Hotel Salinas	General Manager
	Private sector tourism	Association of the Craftsmen of the Municipality of Paripueira	President

there is no non-governmental organisation. At the national level, there are more private sector than governmental stakeholders. There is only one private sector stakeholder in the sample of participants, so including more of them among non-participants allows the research to investigate private sector views about the Costa Dourada project and its planning. At the regional level, there are government organisations in seven fields: legislative, tourism, education, infrastructure, public security, banking and transport. The private sector interests are in fisheries, tourism and business consultancy. At the local level, the sample includes three governmental organisations, three residents' organisations (NGOs) and nine private-sector tourism stakeholders (these being two large, three medium and four small organisations).

4.7 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE FIELDWORK

4.7.1 The Pilot

A pilot was conducted in order to improve the fieldwork procedures, notably the design and implementation of the interviews and questionnaires, including the tape-recording and note-taking of interviews. Of particular importance was an evaluation as to whether the interview and questionnaire could be undertaken in only one session without this leading to interviewee fatigue. It was decided that in the pilot, the interviewer would conduct the interview and after a short break the respondent would complete the questionnaire. The researcher remained in the room and told the respondent that if he/she had any doubts about how to complete the questionnaire or regarding any particular questions, the researcher would clarify them. It was also important to test the clarity of the questions in the survey, in part because they were designed in English and then translated into Portuguese. It was also vital to test the overall appropriateness of the survey instrument in relation to the data needs of the research. It was important to test how best to use the tape-recorder in the interviews as well as to test interviewees' reaction to it, so that adjustments could be made.

Two participants involved in the project's planning process undertook the pilot, as well as two non-participating stakeholders. The pilot highlighted only a few minor problems. First, when the researcher stopped speaking generally about the interview and turned on the tape recorder to begin the interview questions, the two non-participating stakeholder representatives became a little reserved and less spontaneous. The response to this was to position the tape-recorder a little away and to the side of the interviewee and by turning it on while talking to them so their attention was focused on the interviewer not on the tape-recorder. Second, these interviewees often asked the interviewer related questions about the project in order to put questions in perspective, which showed their relative lack of awareness of some project issues. The two respondents in the pilot who were involved in the project's planning understood the questions straight away, so the researcher concluded that the two non-participants possibly lacked familiarity with the project and its planning process. This demonstrated that the researcher needed to be available to provide clarifications when the questionnaire was being completed. The pilot showed that respondents could quite comfortably complete the questionnaire immediately after the interview. The pilot also showed that question 4 for participants: *Do you represent any interested party or parties in your involvement in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?* should come before question 1: *What is your*

organisation's main objective or objectives? This sequence was more logical for respondents. It also became evident that two additional questions were necessary for the participants' interview. These are question 6: *In your view, what distinguishes the participants who are more directly involved in planning for the Costa Dourada project from parties with an interest in the project who are not involved as participants?* and 22: *In your view, has your organisation had sufficient opportunity to express its views fully about the Costa Dourada project to the participants involved in the planning process for the project?* It was found that Question 6 was needed to distinguish between the 'participating' and 'non-participating' stakeholders. It provides empirical data regarding whether and how the participants and non-participants themselves distinguished between these two groups. It was also considered to be necessary to include Question 22 in the participants' interview so it could support Questions 18, 19, 20 and 21. It was also evident that one additional question was necessary for the non-participants' interview. This is question 21: *In your view, what distinguishes parties with an interest in the project from the participants who are more directly involved in planning for the project?* This question is a counterpart to a similar question asked of participants (Question 6). This question helps understand how both participants and non-participants distinguished between themselves.

As the pilot identified only minor problems and the information collected was considered adequate, this information was included in the research data. The amendments that were necessary were made soon after the pilot study had been completed and the four respondents in the pilot were contacted again and were asked the additional questions.

4.7.2 Implementation of the Interviews and Questionnaires

The stakeholders were contacted in advance by telephone or through a personal visit to invite them to participate. If this first contact was in person, a letter was handed to the stakeholder in order formally to identify the researcher, explain the purpose of the interview and to assure them about confidentiality. If the first contact with the stakeholder was by telephone, a similar introduction letter was then sent by mail. A copy of the letter for participants is in **Appendix V** and for non-participants in **Appendix VI**. This was followed by a telephone call to arrange where and when the interview would take place and who would be the stakeholder representative to be interviewed, or to confirm these arrangements if they had been agreed during a personal visit. The stakeholder was asked that their representative should be the

person who held the highest post in the organisation and/or who knew the most about the organisation and its involvement in the Costa Dourada project. Interviews normally took place at the place of work or home of the respondent.

The social survey included 29 interviews with the representatives of stakeholders involved in the project planning and 38 with representatives of non-participating stakeholders. All stakeholders in both samples agreed to participate in the sample, except the General Manager of the airline for Alagoas state who argued his company did not have a contribution to make to the project at the current planning stage. The interviews were tape-recorded, and detailed notes were taken. Interviews with participants took on average 45 minutes, and it took respondents on average 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. For non-participants they took on average 42 and 18 minutes respectively.

4.7.3 Fieldwork Outcomes

Data collection for this research used two structured interviews, two self-completion structured questionnaires, observation of project planning meetings, and observation of a public seminar concerned with a socio-economic survey of the project area commissioned by the Planning Unit. Other data sources included technical reports, legislation, official administrative acts and newspaper articles. The data sources and type of information collected are listed in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 List of collected data sources and types of material.

Data source	Description of material
Interviews with participants	Thirty tapes of recorded interviews with representatives of participating stakeholders.*
Interviews with non-participants	Thirty-nine tapes of recorded interviews with representatives of non-participating stakeholders.*
Questionnaires for participants	Twenty-nine questionnaires completed by representatives of participating stakeholders.
Questionnaires for non-participants	Thirty-eight questionnaires completed by representatives of non-participating stakeholders.
Observation of planning meetings	Fieldwork notes based on 16 visits to the Planning Unit . Notes were taken from observation of planning meetings and other activities concerning planning for the project carried out in the Planning Unit.
Observation of a public seminar	Fieldwork notes based on observation of a one-day seminar about a socio-economic survey of the project area commissioned by the Planning Unit .
Workshop reports	Ten reports concerning planning workshops that were carried out in each of the ten municipalities affected by the project.
Management Plan for the North Coast of Alagoas	Copy of the first version of the Management Plan for the North Coast of Alagoas State that was developed by the Coastal Management Project (GERCO).
"	Copy of the second version of the Management Plan for the North Coast of Alagoas, which is an improved version of the plan mentioned above.
Conceptual approach of the project	Copy of a proposal for a conceptual approach to the Costa Dourada project which was developed by a consultancy firm at the start of the project's planning.
Presentation on the project	Copy of a presentation on the project in power point.
Technical report	PRODETUR (Programme for Tourism Development), 1993. <i>Projeto PRODETUR</i> , Recife, Brazil: Department for the Development of the North East (SUDENE). This document describes the first stage of the conceptual development of the Costa Dourada project.
Technical report	CODEAL (Companhia de Desenvolvimento de Alagoas), 1993. <i>Projeto Costa Dourada - 2ª Etapa</i> . Maceió, Brazil: CODEAL. This document describes the second stage of the conceptual development of the Costa Dourada project.
Technical report	SEPLAN (Secretaria de Planejamento do Estado de Alagoas), 1994. <i>Programa de Desenvolvimento Turístico do Estado de Alagoas - PRODETUR/AL: Estratégia e Plano de Ação</i> . Maceió, Brazil: SEPLAN. This document describes the PRODETUR/AL as well as its strategy and action plan.
Technical report	SEPLAN (Secretaria de Planejamento do Estado de Alagoas), 1997. <i>Macro Estratégia</i> . Maceió, Brazil: SEPLAN. This documents contains adjustments to the overall strategy of the PRODETUR/AL.
Technical publication	Detailed description of the methodology used in the planning workshops for the project.
Technical publication	Becker, B.K., 1995. <i>Study and Evolution of the Federal Policy for Tourism and Its Impact on Coastal Regions (of Brazil)</i> . Brasília, Ministry for the Environment, Water Resources and the Legal Amazon.
Decree	DOE/AL (Diário Oficial do Estado de Alagoas), 1996. <i>Decreto No. 36.902</i> . 9/5/96. This decree enacted by the Governor of Alagoas created the Planning Unit for the PRODETUR/AL and consequently also for the Costa Dourada project.
Administrative act	DOE/AL (Diário Oficial do Estado de Alagoas), 1996. <i>Portaria SEPLAN-AL/PRODETUR No. 001/GS/96</i> . 13/5/96. This administrative act of the Chief State Secretary of Planning of the State of Alagoas sets out the structure and responsibilities of the Planning Unit.
Administrative act	DOE/AL (Diário Oficial do Estado de Alagoas), 1997. <i>Portaria SEPLAN No. 018/97</i> . 29/4/97. This administrative act of the Chief State Secretary of Planning of the State of Alagoas created the Group for the Co-ordination and Follow-up of the Integrated Actions for the Sustainable Development of the North Coast of Alagoas, referred to in this study as the Management Group (MG).
Legislation	Copy of the Brazilian Constitution.

Table 4.12 (continued...)

Legislation	Copy of the Constitution of Alagoas state.
Assorted publications	Copies of four assorted publications, three on tourism in Alagoas state and one on tourism in Brazil.
Newspaper articles	Assorted articles published in the <i>Gazeta de Alagoas</i> newspaper about the project as well as about developments in the political, social and state government administrative spheres which may affect the project and its planning.
Fieldwork notebook	Notebook with notes taken on all interviews with participants and non-participants.

* One interview with a participant and one with a non-participant failed to record. Data were retrieved as soon as possible afterwards from the notes taken in the fieldwork notebook during the interview.

4.8 APPROACH TO DATA ANALYSIS

This study uses various data sources: documents (technical reports, legislation and official administrative acts), newspaper articles, self-completion closed-question questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and observation. The data triangulation included examining key issues using both questionnaires and interviews.

Initially, the documents and newspaper articles were read in a detailed way and cross-checked with each other to identify common elements or regularities (Robson, 1993). This provided background information or a context, including the social, political and administrative context, in which to begin to understand the research issues (Bromley, 1986). This context is important as the Costa Dourada project seeks to build regional-scale infrastructure for tourism development on the north coast of Alagoas state, a region affected by a declining sugar-cane economy and severe social, political and administrative problems. Furthermore, Brazil has only emerged in the mid-1980s from a twenty-year dictatorship.

The observation of the planning meetings was guided by the framework of issues which was emerging from the analysis of data collected from the documents and in the interviews and questionnaires (Miles and Huberman, 1994). A preliminary analysis of these sources identified there was a predominantly positive attitude to participation among the stakeholders involved in the project planning, although some participants were concerned about the greater influence of those with more access to the Planning Unit. Based on these preliminary findings, the following issues were established as a guide for the observation of planning meetings: (a) Who participates? (b) What issues are raised by participants? (c) How are issues discussed? and (d) What procedures are used when decisions are made?

The interview transcripts were analysed using a slightly modified version of Ritchie and Spencer's (1994) 'framework' approach, which involved five inter-connected systematic steps. The first step involved the researcher becoming familiar with the range and diversity of the data and gaining an overview of the body of material that was collected. In the second step the researcher identified a thematic framework of issues and concepts arising from the recurrence or patterning of the responses. The third step involved rearranging the resulting issues, concepts and broader views into a more specific analytical framework. In the fourth step the researcher built up a broader picture of the data as a whole by identifying key characteristics of the data based on the range of views and attitudes expressed by the respondents. The final step related to the interpretation of the overall findings of the study.

This analysis of the transcripts involved the researcher reading at one time all the interview transcripts concerning a specific issue, e.g. *IV - Common definition of problem* (p. 79). This allowed the researcher to become familiar with the range and types of responses obtained. In the second step the researcher read each response, noted the issues and concepts that emerged from them and kept a record of how many times each issue or concept was mentioned and of the types of mentions found. This step involved recording issues that were mentioned only once or just a few times but were considered important for the study. In the third step, the researcher rearranged the responses by merging similar issues and concepts within more specific analytical frameworks for each issue being examined. Next, based on the data the researcher identified broader trends in the results which were then included in the tables presented in chapters 6, 7 and 8. In the final step, the researcher considered the content of the tables together with the spread of responses along the Likert scales used in the questionnaires to draw out the general implications of the data for the research questions and objectives.

The research questions were examined mainly through the interviews and the interview transcripts were analysed using Ritchie and Spencer's (1994) 'framework', as discussed earlier on. While the questionnaire responses could have been analysed using SPSS this was not considered to be necessary because the questionnaires were used mainly as a triangulation device to check on the interview responses. Hence, it was decided that the analysis of the questionnaires would be analysed based only on the frequency of responses.

Conclusion

This chapter has explained the methodology used in this study of the Costa Dourada project. It explains how the case study was selected as a collaborative arrangement concerning tourism planning in an emergent tourist destination in a developing country.

Previous research has focused exclusively on the views of collaborating stakeholders and related documents in order to examine tourism collaborative arrangements. This study used an innovative approach by also examining the views of the stakeholders in the wider problem domain who were not involved in the planning process. The chapter explained in detail how its two main conceptual frameworks were established for the study. The first framework was derived from collaboration theory and it was used to examine the views of participants about the project and its planning. The second framework was derived from literature concerning regional tourism planning, stakeholder participation in tourism planning and sustainable development and this was used to assess the views of non-participating stakeholders about the project planning.

This chapter discussed how a social survey was developed and analysed to examine the research questions. The principal social survey instruments were two semi-structured interviews and two questionnaires of pre-coded questions. There was also explanation of how the research used documents and newspaper articles to develop the case study and to decide which approach to use to data collection.

Chapter 5: The Costa Dourada Project and Its Context

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses key political, economic and social issues which have affected the Costa Dourada project. It places the project and its planning process in the context of recent historical developments in Brazil and Alagoas state. Development projects do not take place in a vacuum. Rather, they are conceived, planned and implemented in response to specific political, economic and social forces, which influence both the projects and the reactions of the parties with an interest in them. Hence, this chapter discusses briefly: (a) the rise and fall of Brazil's military dictatorship that spanned twenty years and also the emergence of a democratic regime at the end of the dictatorship; (b) the country's industrialisation process as well as the key economic sectors of the project area, namely sugar cane plantations, coconut production, fishing and tourism; and (c) the social issues that affect Brazil in general and the north coast of Alagoas in particular, which themselves reflect the broad political forces. This context helps to explain the project's strategy, notably its objectives for sustainable regional development based on tourism, as well as the planning process for the project, and the stakeholders that are involved in the project's planning process. Therefore, this chapter serves as a basis for subsequent explanation of the opinions expressed by stakeholders who were interviewed about the project and its planning process.

5.2 THE CONTEXT OF THE PROJECT

5.2.1 Recent Dictatorial and Democratic Experiences in Brazil

Brazil is a newly industrialised country, the result of a process that began in the 1930s (Ribeiro, 1998). A vision for rapid economic growth became widely accepted among the Brazilian ruling class, and was captured in the phrase coined by President Juscelino Kubistcheck in the late 1950s: 'advance 50 years in 5 years' (Viola and Leis, 1995:83).

As a result of this development strategy, Brazil experienced rapid economic growth in the 1950s. In the early 1960s, the country experienced a democratic political system where the civilian society was organised into various types of associations, movements and syndicates. Rural workers were particularly organised and were united in a fight for land reform which they saw as a basic condition to speed up Brazil's development process.

The country's rapid economic growth enabled Brazil to consolidate its economic dominance in Latin America. Some commentators suggested that a few overseas countries were concerned with Brazil's emerging dominance and, together with part of Brazil's economic elite, they encouraged the military to stage a *coup d'état*. Overnight, the military imposed a bureaucratic, centralised and authoritarian decision-making model of government on Brazil which virtually excluded the civilian society and its organisations from decision-making processes (Vieira, 1995; Ribeiro, 1998). The military dictatorship spanned a period of 20 years, from 1964 to the mid-1980s, and in that period, policy-making was highly concentrated within the national government (Viola, 1987).

During the military regime, especially in the 1970s, Brazil's government invested substantially in the construction of infrastructure, such as roads, ports and hydroelectric plants. Most of the infrastructural funding came as loans from the International Monetary Fund (IMF). While this infrastructural investment intensified Brazil's economic growth and consolidated its industrialisation process, most of the wealth that was generated was used to pay Brazil's foreign debt to the IMF. In the early 1990s, the government adopted neo-liberal economic policies which strengthened the country's economy but led to a deterioration in the quality of life of the population, especially through cuts in funds for education, health care and social services (Tapia, 1995; Krischke, 1995; Sallum Jr., 1996). In this respect, Maira (1991:46-47) argues that "the adjustment policies imposed by the IMF were aimed at creating the capacity for repayment [of the loans] at all costs. To this end, [Brazil's government was] forced to reduce public investments, leading to the destruction of programmes for health, education and housing".

As a consequence of the military's policy of 'developing the country at all costs' large-scale environmental degradation occurred. This led to the emergence of the country's environmental movement and related organisations in the 1970s. At the transition from dictatorship to democracy in the 1980s, the Brazilian environmental movement was highly politicised, with representation in various political parties at the municipal, state and federal levels of government. For example, in some municipalities in the south-east and southern regions of Brazil there was considerable participation by the environmental movement in public administration (Viola, 1987).

Throughout the dictatorship period, there were social movements that opposed the military regime and that fought for participation in the political decision-making

process. It was notably within the environmental movement that some of the civilian society concentrated its actions to oppose the development model imposed over the country and to secure greater social justice, ecological equilibrium and democracy. This pressure paved the way for more direct participation for civilian society in the decision-making processes shaping the country's development policies. The groups that were most active in this period were the syndicates, residents' associations, social movements linked to the church and to Liberation Theology, and to the feminist and environmental movements (Jacobi, 1985; Viola, 1987).

Research has shown that there was much ambiguity and uncertainty in public organisations in the period following the collapse of Brazil's dictatorship. This is because during the dictatorship, public organisations served the objectives of the military and were heavily censored by them. With the collapse of the military regime, public organisations had to redefine their roles to serve a new purpose, the emergent democracy. However, studies of Brazil and other Latin American countries also suggest that this period presented society with opportunities for experimentation with new governmental views and practices and with the idea of collective action (Garcia, 1988). In addition to a strengthening of political representation of different social classes, there has also been a trend toward large scale involvement of civilian society in the 'democratic project' with an emphasis on both relative autonomy and interdependence between representative institutions and forms of social participation (Petras, 1992; von Mettenheim, 1992).

Case studies of local power in many Latin American countries, including Brazil, show that this two-sided process of political representation and direct social participation had significant consequences for the consolidation of democracy at local and regional scales. These studies have shown that there were new, increased possibilities for direct participation by social actors, for administrative decentralisation, and for a better equilibrium between the executive, the legislators and the judiciary (Torres, 1992).

The transition from dictatorship and return to democracy created a socio-political context that is increasingly receptive to the organisation of social movements and to the discussion of new ideas. As a consequence, there was participation by Brazil's environmental movement in decision-making processes shaping public policies, particularly at the municipal level but also at the state level (Viola, 1987). This growth in stakeholder participation is still taking place in every Brazilian region. For example, various collaborative arrangements between the government, private sector and

NGOs have been established during the 1990s in north east Brazil, including in Alagoas state. A number of partnerships have been developed recently in Alagoas, in fields such as education, health care and tourism (Gazeta de Alagoas, 6/12/97, 6/9/99).

5.2.2 The Project's Context: The North Coast Of Alagoas State

The economic, political, social and environmental situation in Brazil during the military dictatorship period and the years following its collapse, also applies to Alagoas state. However, there are specific historical legacies on the north coast of Alagoas which have contributed to features that are particular to the area. This section discusses briefly the features of the area that have most relevance to the Costa Dourada project.

The environment, landscape, culture and politics of the north coast of Alagoas are profoundly influenced by its sugar cane plantations, which are the region's main economic activity, as well as by coconut production, fishing (Diégues Júnior, 1980), and, more recently, by tourism development (Medeiros de Araujo and Power, 1993). The sugar cane plantations on the north coast of Alagoas date back to the 17th century when sugar cane was grown in the fertile coastal valleys. It was also in the valleys that the traditional sugar factories, 'engenhos de açúcar', were located in order to make sugar transportation easy via the region's rivers. The 20th century saw the closing down of the region's 'engenhos de açúcar' as they were replaced by more modern sugar factories, the 'usinas de açúcar'. With the new sugar factories came an increased demand for sugar cane, which then started to be grown also on certain areas of the coastal plateau. In the 1970s, the federal government created a programme (PRÓ-ÁLCOOL) to produce alcohol for motor vehicles from sugar cane as a response to the oil crisis early that decade (AGB, 1988). The PRÓ-ÁLCOOL led to a considerable expansion in cultivated land, occupying virtually all the coastal plateau, and the adoption of intensely-mechanised production systems.

Coconut production, which dates back to the 16th century, dominates the landscape of the coastal plain of the state's north coast. Also, along the coastline there are towns whose main economic activity was fishing. These towns were once relatively isolated from the rest of Alagoas due to poor access roads. They have expanded in area considerably since the early 1980s due to tourism development. As a consequence of tourism development, the coast is now dotted with a number of tourist

facilities, such as hotels, bars, restaurants and holiday homes (Medeiros de Araujo and Power, 1993).

The region's sugar cane plantations and processing factories are owned by a small number of families. Due to the importance of this industry for the Alagoas state, these families exert considerable hegemonic control over the state's economy, politics and government administrative structures. They have high level political representation through the deputies and sometimes governors of the state, as well as through deputies and senators at the federal level of the Brazilian Congress. As they have had a relatively unchallenged dominance over the social, economic and political scene of Alagoas state, these groups tend to see changes in the status quo as potentially in conflict with their own interests. This was the case regarding conservation measures that started to emerge in Alagoas in the late 1970s (Diégues Júnior, 1980; Medeiros de Araujo and Power, 1993).

The interviews conducted for this study with stakeholders affected by the Costa Dourada project suggest that there have been changes in recent years in the socio-economic and more particularly in the political scene on the north coast of Alagoas. A number of interviewees observed that a new political and administrative mentality is emerging in the area. While mayors were appointed by the military during the dictatorship, or were elected with the support of local oligarchies to defend their interests, in more recent years a number of mayors have been elected with broad support, with some coming originally from other areas, usually from Maceió, the state's capital city. Additionally, while the earlier mayors were not necessarily competent public administrators, more recently they are considered to be more competent and to bring new administrative and political values and attitudes to the municipalities' development. According to interviewees, these new mayors normally see tourism development as a priority to create jobs, income and tax revenue for their municipalities. These recent political and administrative developments are likely to have led to new ideologies and approaches to planning for the region's economic development, perhaps including taking into account in decision-making the views of a range of social groups in the region. However, it has been noted that the implementation of government-led development policies which embody the potential to change the status quo is always difficult in areas traditionally exploited by private sector interests (Ehrenfeld, 1970).

There are a number of social and environmental problems in the project area, and these partly reflect the long-standing economic and political dominance of the interests of the sugar cane plantations. One such problem is that the sugar processing factories hire workers at the start of the harvest season, in September to October, and discard most of them at the end of the season, in March to April, a period encompassing the tourist season. In consequence, in addition to low salaries, during the inter-harvest period there is a high rate of unemployment. Likewise, a low priority has been placed on investment in social services, such as in health and education, which has led to widespread poverty in the area. The extreme concentration of wealth in the hands of a tiny percentage of the population contrasts very sharply with the poverty affecting the vast majority. Due to such problems, Brazil has one of the world's most unequal national distributions of wealth (Viola, 1987) and Alagoas is one of the poorest states in Brazil (Medeiros de Araujo and Power, 1993). A telling example of the state's social problems is that illiteracy affects up to 70% of its population (Gazeta de Alagoas, 9.9.99).

Environmental degradation is another key problem in the area. Sugar cane cultivation using highly-mechanised systems has caused intense erosion of the coastal plateau leading to the siltation of rivers, lagoons and estuaries. The planting of sugar cane has also led to the destruction of most of the area's Atlantic Rain Forest. This ecosystem, which has a wider biological diversification than the Amazonian Rain Forest, was once found all along Brazil's east coast. The sugar cane harvest also causes air pollution because the sugar cane straw is burnt prior to cutting, and the sugar refining seriously impacts on water bodies through the discharge of organic-rich effluents into rivers. Similarly, the initial spontaneous development of tourism on the north coast during the 1980s and early 1990s led to urban sprawl and development of tourist facilities in new areas. This has caused serious environmental problems in the form of habitat destruction on the coastal plain, discharge of untreated sewage into water bodies, and land reclamation from the estuaries and sea (AGB, 1988; Medeiros de Araujo, 1992; Medeiros de Araujo and Power, 1993).

As in many other parts of Brazil, the environmental movement emerged most strongly in Alagoas in the 1970s. The main driving forces behind the emergence of the environmental movement in Alagoas were the state's social problems as well as the development policies affecting the state that were dictated by the military regime. In the 1970s, the state's pioneering 'Movement for Life' (MOVIDA) had a main objective to block the decision by the military to build a big chlorine industry (Salgema S.A.) in

Maceió. The federal and state government also planned and built an industrial centre in an environmentally sensitive area near Maceió in the late 1970s and early 1980s. This led MOVIDA to intensify its activities. At that period a number of other environmental NGOs also appeared in Alagoas and joined the environmental movement, although they were less vocal. An important point to note is that the environmental movement as a whole in Alagoas campaigns for human rights, including participation in official decision-making processes, as well as for environmental conservation.

Though less than in other Brazilian states, during the transition from dictatorship to democracy, the environmental movement and other social movements, such as the residents' associations, which continued to exist in a clandestine way during the dictatorship, acquired some political expression and representation. This was achieved as a result of the election of both legislative and executive politicians at the municipal, state and federal levels who represented the interests of those social movements. As a result, currently there is some more inclusive stakeholder participation in the planning of development projects in Alagoas state, including in tourism planning. However, no studies have examined the extent to which these stakeholders have been involved and whether their views have affected the decision-making processes in the region.

The planning and implementation processes for the Costa Dourada project are in many ways different from the processes involved in other development initiatives in Alagoas. For example, unlike the spontaneous, market-led tourism development in Alagoas in the 1980s, the Costa Dourada project is a planned, policy-led development initiative, it has clearly-defined aims and objectives and its planning is conducted by the political and administrative structures of the government of Alagoas.

5.3 THE COSTA DOURADA PROJECT

This section explains how the Costa Dourada project was conceived, and it identifies and discusses the aims and objectives of the project, its strategy and the planned role of the project in the region's development.

In 1991, the federal and state governments of north-east Brazil proposed the idea of a Programme for Tourism Development of the North East (PRODETUR/NE), with the details of the programme being developed by the Department for the Development of the North East (SUDENE) in conjunction with the Brazilian Tourist Board

(EMBRATUR). The overall aim of PRODETUR/NE is to create tourism infrastructure and thereby to attract tourism projects to the region. It is also expected to lead to an increase in jobs and income generation, growth in commerce and industry, augmentation of private investment in services, expansion in tax revenue, the creation of awareness and action in conservation, and support for the distinctive regional culture (Becker, 1995). All states of the region have created programmes at the state level within PRODETUR/NE.

The Costa Dourada project forms part of one of these programmes, the Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL), and operates from 1994 to 2010. The Costa Dourada is a tourism-based project being used by the government of Alagoas as a tool for sustainable regional development. Hence, it is a broad project which includes investment in health care, education and social facilities, and improved access to the region (SEPLANDES, 1998). The project seeks to create the infrastructure required to exploit the tourism potential of the north coast of Alagoas, within the broader aim of 'encouraging the region's socio-economic development, taking into account its environmental preservation and restoration' (SEPLAN, 1994:3; CODEAL, 1993).

The strategy for the Costa Dourada project brings together a number of concepts in such a way that there are no precedents in the planning approaches adopted in other projects in Alagoas. Key elements in the planning for the project are:

- (a) Its regional scale. The project affects ten municipalities with a combined population of 148,080 within a coastal belt about 100 km long and 20 km across (SEPLANDES, 1998);
- (b) Its broad stakeholder participation. The planning for the project involves stakeholders from the government, the private sector and NGOs with interests at the local, regional and national scales (DOE/AL, 1997); and
- (c) Its environmental objectives. The planning for the project includes explicit objectives of environmental conservation (Becker, 1995).

In the interviews conducted for this research, the planners involved in the project planning explained that the Alagoas government wishes to develop tourism in the region in a sustainable way to avoid the problems that have occurred in other parts of Brazil and abroad, such as in Cancún, Mexico, such as the lack of integration between the local population and tourism development. Over recent decades, the

implementation of tourism projects in the south east and south of the country has led to excessive visitor pressure and serious impacts on nature and on cities. There are numerous examples in Brazil where exploitation of resources beyond their carrying capacities has resulted in "pollution of beaches and water resources, unacceptable numbers of tourists, leading to visitors' frustration and discomfort instead of bringing them the desired rest" (Ruschmann, D., 1997:164). So, in addition to leading to regional development, the project is expected to avoid the social, cultural and environmental problems that have occurred in other Brazilian destinations.

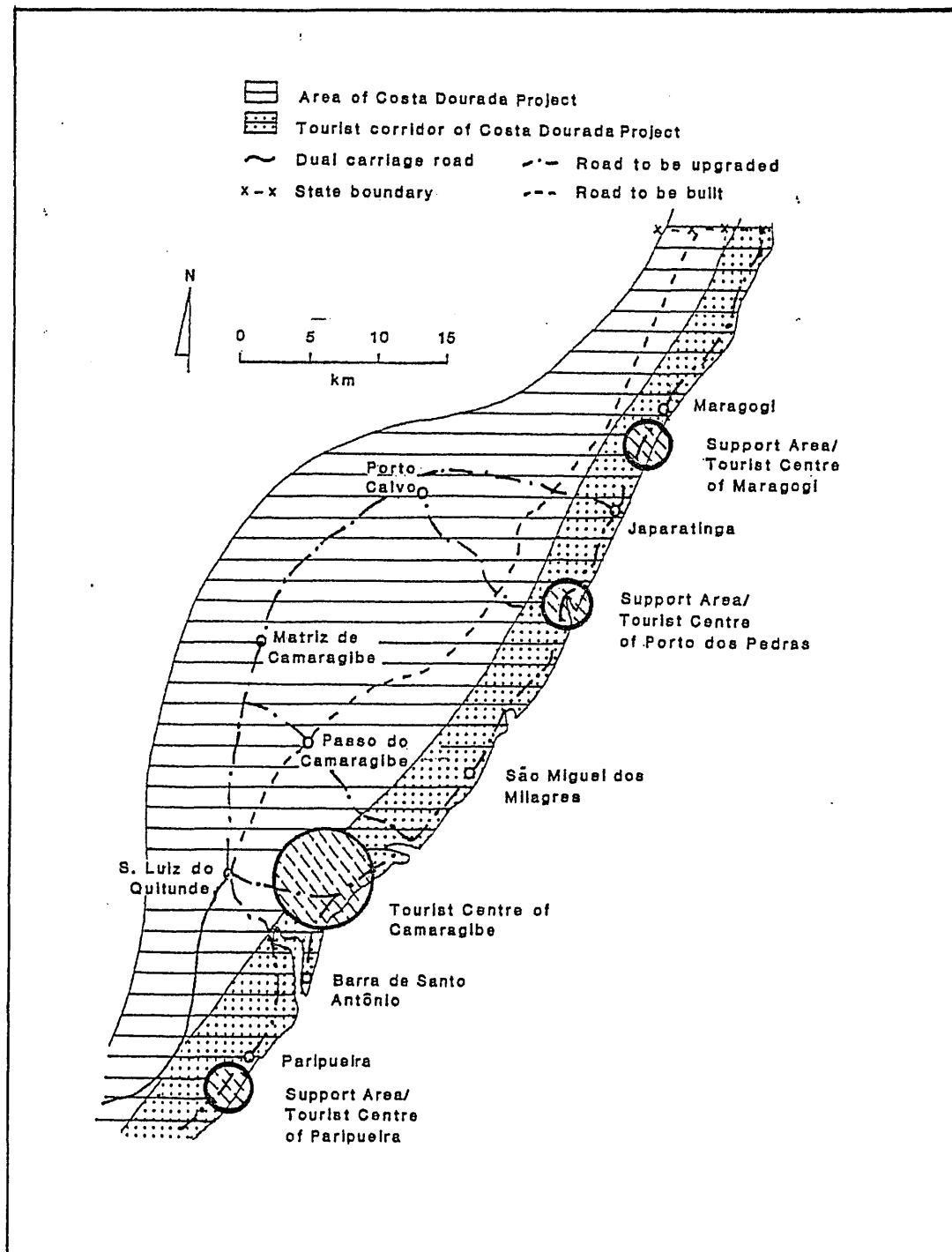
Despite poor road access to the north coast of Alagoas, since the second half of the 1980s tourism has grown steadily in the region from a fairly low base. In 1991 Alagoas attracted 128,018 domestic and 19,127 international tourists, with the largest number of international tourists being from Argentina, Spain and Germany. In 1994 it was estimated that by 2002-2010 the PRODETUR/AL will have boosted the annual average number of domestic tourists to 265,000 and of international tourists to 172,000, compared with an annual average number without the project of 139,940 domestic tourists and 50,892 international tourists (SEPLAN, 1994; Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 2000). Tourism development in Alagoas will be focused on three development zones, including the Costa Dourada project on its north coast.

Up to the early 1990s, tourism development on the north coast of Alagoas was mainly a result of a private sector initiative, resulting in a number of hotels and other types of tourist facilities. There was also some investment by municipal governments to create local tourist facilities and attractions. However, these incipient tourism planning actions were isolated and the region suffered from a number of obstacles to tourism development. For example, it was explained how "the serious problems of [transport] access to the north coast, together with the deficiency in basic urban services, according to private investors, are the principal obstacles to the implementation of hotel projects in the region" (SEPLAN, 1994:10). In addition, there are a number of other problems typical of under-developed regions, such as inadequate solid waste and sewage treatment, poor health care and education, deficiencies in telecommunications, insufficient water and energy supplies, and a lack of trained labour.

The strategy adopted in the Costa Dourada project focuses on "the expansion and improvement of its main product, namely 'sun and beach' tourism", and also product diversification (SEPLAN, 1994:9). The diversification elements include visits to small,

farm-based rum distilleries, ecotourism, and tourism based on raft and boat trips to the offshore coral reef. The main tourism-related infrastructure to be built or improved in the project area are main access roads, roads within urban centres, sewerage systems, waste collection and final disposal, health care, telecommunications, and water and electricity supplies. As shown in Figure 5.1, investments in the project area will be concentrated in one major tourist centre, Camaragibe, and three smaller tourist centres in the municipalities of Paripueira, Porto de Pedras and Maragogi.

Figure 5.1 Costa Dourada project tourism development areas.



The overt aim of sustainable regional development induced by tourism development means that the planning actions are intended to go beyond the mere creation of the infrastructure needed to attract private sector investment in tourist facilities and attractions. The project strategy also includes actions that focus on the strengthening and institutional development of the municipalities affected by the project so that they can cope with the increased tourist demand expected for the region. The project also includes the creation and improvement of social facilities and investments in health care and education (SEPLANDES, 1998). In this way, in addition to providing for tourists, the project will also accrue immediate and direct benefits to all residents.

However, attaining the project's broad aim of sustainable regional development is fraught with difficulties as the PRODETUR/AL planners face a number of challenges. First, planning on a regional planning scale entails the need for economic integration so that the benefits of tourism may be maximised across the entire region by providing linkages between tourism and other sectors of the regional economy (Komilis, 1994). Second, the intention of involving stakeholders in the project planning process in a significant way (DOE/AL, 1997) brings the need to use participation approaches that are inclusive of stakeholder values and views (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Bramwell and Lane, 1993; Healey, 1997). Third, there are the project intentions of creating greater environmental awareness in the region (Becker, 1995) and of incorporating in project planning and implementation specific measures for environmental conservation (SEPLAN, 1994; SEPLANDES, 1998). The objectives of attaining regional economic integration, stakeholder participation and environmental conservation represent challenges to the planners because of the area's recent history of dictatorial and centralised decision-making procedures. Despite the suggestion that democratic participation in decision-making practices are re-emerging in the area after the collapse of the military regime, attaining the project objectives is likely to involve considerable difficulties.

5.4 THE PLANNING PROCESS FOR THE COSTA DOURADA PROJECT

This section discusses the planning framework used in the planning for the Costa Dourada project and also the approach taken to stakeholder participation in the project planning process.

5.4.1 The Planning Framework

In order to implement the PRODETUR/AL and the Costa Dourada project, the government of Alagoas created a specific planning body which is located within the

Secretary of Planning and Development of the State of Alagoas (SEPLANDES). This planning body for the PRODETUR/AL is referred to in this study as the Planning Unit (DOE/AL, 1996a). The Planning Unit has the following responsibilities:

- I - To manage the implementation of the Sub-Regional Programme PRODETUR/AL.*
- II - To make sure the Strategy and Action Plan for the PRODETUR/AL is observed.*
- III - To design and implement the Annual Operative Plans for the PRODETUR/AL.*
- IV - To promote the preparation of studies and projects necessary for the implementation of the PRODETUR/AL.*
- V - To articulate and co-ordinate the actions of the state co-implementing organisations and municipal governments, on the basis of the norms of the PRODETUR/AL.*
- VI - To manage the resources allocated to the PRODETUR/AL and suggest alterations in its financial programme.*
- VII - To follow up, supervise and evaluate the physical and financial implementation of the PRODETUR/AL.*

(DOE/AL, 1996b:n.p.)

The document in which the government determined the procedures for the Planning Unit to attain its objectives, indicated that the Unit should have a Consultative Committee on which there should be state organisations and the municipal governments affected by the project. Chapter III, Article 6, of this document states that "Businessmen and other representatives of the tourism private sector, non-governmental organisations, investors in the Programme and other related interested parties can have access to the meetings of the Consultative Committee, if they are invited" (DOE/AL, 1996b). However, there are no stated provisions for any other forms of stakeholder participation or directions to guide stakeholder participation in the project planning process.

Based on the influence of the Planning Unit's staff members from previous successful experience of participative planning, the Planning Unit decided to adopt an inclusive approach to stakeholder participation in the project planning. First, they decided that any individual or organisation with an interest in the project would be granted access

to the project's planning process. Second, stakeholders have been granted access not only to the Consultative Committee but also to a number of other planning arenas, as discussed later in this chapter. Third, the Planning Unit has run a number of open seminars and workshops, including one workshop in each of the ten municipalities affected by the project. By comparison with the approaches used until recently in Alagoas, this represents a significant leap into more inclusive forms of stakeholder participation. As shown subsequently in detail, the collection of stakeholders involved in planning for the Costa Dourada project has included representatives from government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations with interests at the local, state and federal levels.

Stakeholder participation is an important factor in attaining the project's aim of sustainable regional development, in part because support for the project may be enhanced when those affected by it are included in designing it. In addition, according to Wahab and Pigram (1998:283) sustainable tourism requires that "the planning, development and operation of tourism should be cross-sectional and integrated, involving various government departments, public and private sector companies, community groups and experts, thus providing the widest possible safeguards for success".

As discussed earlier in this chapter, during the military regime and to some extent in the years following its collapse, most decisions regarding development projects in Alagoas were made by the federal and state governments. Private sector investment was largely divorced from the government. Most NGO activities were conducted in a reactive way against developments implemented in an authoritarian way by the government. Hence, NGOs had little power to influence decisions on such developments (Medeiros de Araujo and Power, 1993). The adoption of stakeholder participation in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project "reflects a trend in Brazil towards encouraging broader participation in the shaping of public policies in various fields" (Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 2000:279).

The planning process for the Costa Dourada project includes a number of policy arenas (Healey, 1997) within which decisions are made concerning the project. These different policy arenas are interconnected in the planning process for the project but this interconnection is mostly informal since it does not have any legal basis. This informal planning process is spear-headed by SEPLANDES through its executive body for the project, the Planning Unit. In addition to providing the general

guidelines for the project planning and making sure the project focuses on its stated aims and objectives, the Planning Unit co-ordinates the actions which emanate from the other decision-making arenas.

Closely linked to the Planning Unit, there is the Group for the Co-ordination and Follow-up of the Integrated Actions for the Sustainable Development of the North Coast of Alagoas (DOE/AL, 1997). In the interviews for this study, this group was commonly referred to as the Management Group (MG), and this term is adopted in the study. The MG consists of the following organisations:

- State Secretary for Planning and Development of the State of Alagoas (SEPLANDES)
- Planning Unit for the PRODETUR/AL
- Institute for the Environment (IMA/AL)
- Bank of the North East (BN)
- Federal University of Alagoas (UFAL)
- Service of the National Coastal Lands (DPU)
- Brazilian Institute for the Environment & Renewable Natural Resources (IBAMA)
- Department for the Development of the North East (SUDENE)
- Association of the Municipalities of the State of Alagoas (AMA)
- Institute for the Preservation of the Atlantic Rain Forest (IPMA)
- Foundation for Marine Mammals (FMM)

(DOE/AL, 1997)

The information collected in the fieldwork for this study, mainly from interviews with representatives of all the organisations listed above, reveal that other organisations have attended meetings of the MG, when its constituent members considered that to be necessary, or when interested parties communicated an interest to attend a meeting. The Administrative Act that created the MG determines that its responsibilities are "to promote studies in order to identify the potentials of the region; to motivate the participation of organisations interested in the sustainable development of the north coast; to promote and co-ordinate inter-organisational actions in the region; and to follow up the actions necessary for the sustainable development of the North Coast of Alagoas" (DOE/AL, 1997:n.p.). However, the MG has had a less important role than it could have had in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. The MG has limited its activities to making suggestions to the

Planning Unit regarding the planning for the project. In practice, it is the Planning Unit that has taken the responsibility to carry out the duties that were determined for the MG. That is less surprising once it is noted that eight official organisations in the MG are also organisations that participated in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project through attendance at the frequent meetings in the Planning Unit and elsewhere, as will be discussed later in this chapter. The only exceptions are the BN, UFAL and the IPMA which are not direct participants in the planning process for the project.

An important point to note in the Administrative Act that created the MG is that its responsibilities give prominence to the "...sustainable development of the north coast of the State of Alagoas" (DOE/AL, 1997:n.p.). The motivating factors for the state government to create the MG included the Costa Dourada project, but also involved a number of other developments in the region. Indeed, it appears that the main concern behind the responsibilities of the MG is the perceived need for co-ordination between the various development actions that exist in the region.—The aims of these development actions overlap widely with the aims of the Costa Dourada project. Conceptually, the creation of the MG with the responsibilities shown above is very sound in a region where broad stakeholder participation and inter-organisational co-ordination are emergent phenomena. In practice, however, it appears that the MG is falling short of implementing its responsibilities, apparently due to the existence of an over-lap with its members and the Planning Unit's members and activities. As a result, the Planning Unit has been more forthcoming concerning regional planning and co-ordination.

The planning strategy for the Costa Dourada project also includes a number of organisations which in the interviews the respondents called the 'co-implementing organisations'. These organisations have responsibilities of (a) promoting discussions internal to their own organisation on how best to articulate with the Planning Unit and the planning for the Costa Dourada project; (b) implementing actions in their remit that are linked to the aims and objectives of the Costa Dourada project; and (c) maintaining permanent relations with the Planning Unit in order to adjust accordingly their actions and monitoring and to be accountable to both their organisation and the Planning Unit. In addition, each co-implementing organisation is a direct participant in the project's planning process through a representative attending the regular planning meetings and workshops about the project. Based on the data collected in the fieldwork for this study, the co-implementing organisations for the Costa Dourada

project include: EMATUR, DER/AL, CASAL, IMA and the local government of the ten municipalities in the the project area.

A few municipalities have created a Municipal Planning Unit (UEM) with the purpose of implementing locally decisions concerning the Costa Dourada project which are made by the participants involved in the project's planning process. The UEMs also aim at the institutional strengthening and development of their respective municipal public administration in order for the local government to participate actively as a partner in the planning process, being able to respond at the local level in a co-ordinated way to the demands of the project. The municipalities whose governments have not created a UEM participate in the regional planning process for the project through a municipal secretary, usually the Municipal Secretary of Tourism and the Environment. It is also significant that each co-implementing organisation involves other stakeholders in their activities. The scope and intensity of stakeholder participation in these organisations varies according to their remit or scale at which they operate. The decisions made and implemented by the co-implementing organisations are reported to the Planning Unit by their representatives.

The UEMs, or their equivalent municipal secretaries, are treated here as a separate planning arena within the planning strategy for the project, despite the fact that they have already been included among the co-implementing organisations mentioned above. The reason for this is that the municipal governments potentially have considerable power to affect the planning and implementation of development initiatives like the Costa Dourada project. This derives from Brazil's political and administrative system, with municipal government having relative autonomy in relation to the state and federal governments. Within the Brazilian Constitution, the municipal governments have great freedom to create legislation and to plan for the development of their municipalities (Governo do Estado de Alagoas, 1999). The mayors, who are elected by the direct vote of the local population, are the head of the executive power of their municipality. In order to administer their municipality, the mayors count on a number of assistants, namely the chief municipal secretaries in fields such as education, health, social security and finance. The municipal governments are a key element in the planning strategy for the Costa Dourada project.

5.4.2 Stakeholder Participation In Project Planning

The Planning Unit has adopted two main approaches to stakeholder participation in the planning process for the project. One involves a number of stakeholder groups in

collaborative planning, and the other involves consultation with a broader range of stakeholders. The stakeholders included in collaborative planning are directly involved in the decision-making process for the Costa Dourada project, while consultation provides input to be considered by the collaborating participants. Despite the different level of power exerted by each of these stakeholder groups in the planning process, they are inter-woven in a way that is unheard of in other instances of official planning in Alagoas. This section discusses the collaborative tourism planning and consultation with stakeholders involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

There are 29 stakeholders directly involved in the collaborative planning process for the Costa Dourada project. They attend regular meetings with other direct participants in order to discuss issues pertaining to the project and its planning process. These stakeholders were identified by the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit as direct participants in the project's planning process, and they are referred to in this study as 'participants' in the collaborative planning process. A list of these participants appears in Table 6.1. Details of the methodology used to identify them is discussed in Chapter 4, section 4.6.1. In addition, a number of other stakeholders occasionally attended a planning meeting or were involved in other activities for the project. These are referred to in this study as 'non-participants' in the collaborative planning process, as at the most they might have attended a project meeting only occasionally.

Several types of planning activity for the project have involved stakeholder participation.

5.4.2.1 Meetings And Workshops Of Participants

The number of stakeholder representatives invited to these meetings and workshops by the Planning Unit varies according to the issues being discussed and whether the meeting or workshop takes place in the Planning Unit offices, in the offices in one of the participating organisations, in a municipality or elsewhere. Despite the fact that these meetings and workshops are for 'participants', other stakeholders occasionally attend. In these meetings and workshops the Planning Unit attempts to encourage collaborative planning through discussion, negotiation and consensus-building among participants (Gray, 1989; Jamal and Getz, 1995).

5.4.2.2 Meetings Of 'Co-Implementing' Organisations

As explained earlier, all co-implementing organisations are also participants in the planning process for the project. These meetings take place in their offices and attendees are all staff members of these organisations, with the meetings being organised and led by the organisation's representative who is most involved with the Planning Unit. A Planning Unit planner may participate in these meetings depending on the issues being discussed. The objective of these meetings is to discuss issues related to the participation of the organisation in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. By mid-1998, some of these co-implementing organisations had started running additional meetings in order to design a strategy for the institutional strengthening of their organisation so that they are more fully prepared to respond to the increased demands that will be placed on them as a result of the project's implementation. These organisations have also run internal workshops specifically to design their strategy for institutional strengthening. The methodology used in these workshops is broadly the same as that used in the municipal workshops, as discussed later in this section.

5.4.2.3 Meetings Of The Management Group

According to some interviewees, the MG had had only four meetings up to mid-1998. As noted earlier, eight members of the MG are also participants in the collaborative planning process for the project. Meetings of the MG take place in the offices of the Planning Unit or in the offices of a member organisation. As with meetings of participants, MG members attempt to encourage discussion, negotiation and consensus-building in their meetings. The decisions eventually reached in the MG are passed on to the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit as an input into the collaborative planning for the project. One can suggest that to a large extent these meetings take a collaborative form on the basis that eight out of the eleven members of the MG are also participants in the collaborative planning process for the project (including one member representing the Planning Unit itself) and that the methodology used in their meetings is the same as that used by the Planning Unit with participants in the project meetings.

5.4.2.4 Open Meetings Of The Planning Unit

The offices and staff of the Planning Unit may be visited by any party interested in the Costa Dourada project, including different tiers of the government, the private sector or non-governmental organisations with interests at the municipal, state or national levels. Members of the Planning Unit, including its Co-ordinator General, explained that anyone with an interest in the project is welcome to come to the offices of the

Planning Unit in order to collect information about the project, to discuss the possibility of participating in the project planning, or to discuss any other issues regarding the project.

5.4.2.5 Initial General Workshop

At the start of the planning process for the Costa Dourada project, the Planning Unit organised a workshop in order to help determine the project's direction. This workshop took place in the Municipality of Maragogi, which is the leading tourist destination among the ten municipalities affected by the project. This initial workshop, which was usually referred to by members of the Planning Unit as the 'big workshop', involved a broad number of stakeholder representatives. These included members of the Planning Unit, the ten municipal governments in the project area, the area's tourist private sector (hotels, restaurants and bars), NGOs, state secretaries and a number of other organisations with an interest in the project, at the local, state and federal levels.

- According to the participants, the objectives of this big workshop were (a) to raise the awareness of stakeholders regarding the project's aims and objectives, (b) to collect general views about the project, and (c) to collect inputs from stakeholders in order to refine the strategic plan for the project. This strategic plan was designed by the federal government (EMBRATUR/AL) and the main financing organisation of the PRODETUR/AL (the Interamerican Development Bank or BID), with the participation of members of the Tourist Board of the State of Alagoas (EMATUR/AL). In the big workshop, the members of the Planning Unit explained that they intended to broaden the scope of the strategic plan. They also explained that they were interested in discussing with stakeholders the best way to plan and implement the project; which other actions, if any, should be added to the project; and also which stakeholder groups would participate in the collaborative planning process for the project; and what provisions should be made so that the decisions made in the workshop could be put into operation. According to the interviewees, the deliberations at this initial workshop were an important influence on the configuration of participants in the collaborative planning process for the project in mid-1998.

5.4.2.6 Municipal Workshops

By mid-1998, each of the ten municipalities in the Costa Dourada area had held one workshop about the project. The objectives of these municipal workshops were to collect data and information from stakeholders, including stakeholder opinions about the project. They also had the objective of identifying the actions necessary for

institutional development, for the strengthening of co-implementing organisations, and also for the development of the tourism infrastructure required to enable the municipalities to participate effectively in the Costa Dourada project. Specific objectives for each workshop included designing a plan for public services in the municipality and identifying priority projects that need to be funded or co-ordinated by PRODETUR/AL (SEPLANDES, 1998).

Stakeholder attendance in each municipality affected by the project included municipal government representatives, especially from the education and social welfare sectors. Participants from outside the public sector included local representatives from the fishing and agricultural industries, the business community, church and welfare organisations, and residents' associations. One staff member and three consultants representing PRODETUR/AL attended each workshop (Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 2000).

Prior to each workshop, information concerning the Costa Dourada project, its planning process and about the intention to run the workshop was spread widely among stakeholders in the region by PRODETUR/AL's planners and also by the representatives of each municipality. Early on in each day-long workshop the participants were asked about their expectations, and suggestions were sought on how the workshop should be conducted. A brainstorming discussion then followed, after which the participants wrote their own views on selected issues onto cards. These cards were posted onto panels according to themes. These themes were then discussed and collective decisions were made to create, merge or discard some cards, and eventually various negotiated views were established. By these means the workshops were designed to promote discussion and consensus-building among the participants. Written summaries of the workshops were then prepared for further consideration by the project planners. At the same time, the workshops involved more than a one-way consultation process as they were used also to disseminate information and to promote co-ordinated local responses to the project planning (Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 2000).

5.4.2.7 Seminars

The Planning Unit has organised a number of seminars whose access is open to any party with an interest in the Costa Dourada project. The objective of each of these seminars varies considerably and this variation tends to influence who attends them. For example, there have been seminars (a) to present and discuss the project with the

tourism private sector; (b) to discuss studies that have been commissioned for the project; (c) to report to the public at large about the development of the project and its studies; (d) to collect views and suggestions regarding specific activities being developed as part of the project planning; and (e) to get external support for the project. These seminars usually take place in a public place in Maceió, or in any of the ten municipalities in the project area but mainly in Maragogi.

This section shows that the planning process for the Costa Dourada project has a legal basis in that Alagoas's government created a specific body, the Planning Unit, with responsibilities to manage the implementation of the PRODETUR/AL, including the planning and implementation of the Costa Dourada project. In addition to playing a formal role in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project, the Planning Unit has played an informal role as co-ordinator of the tourism-induced development process of the north coast of Alagoas, based on the Costa Dourada project, by bringing together stakeholders from the local, regional and federal levels of government, the private sector, environmental and community groups in a planning process which involves both collaborative planning and consultation approaches.

Conclusion

Despite the political, economic, social and environmental legacies of the sugar cane plantations and the recent dictatorial period in Brazil (from 1964 to the mid-1980s) on the north coast of Alagoas, planning for the Costa Dourada project has involved in its planning process a broad number of parties with an interest in the project. The dictatorship had previously meant that the social movements of civilian society, such as rural workers' leagues, industrial syndicates, environmental NGOs, residents' associations and community groups, were forced into a clandestine position. The sugar cane plantations and processing factories had also shaped a regional socio-economic and political system that excluded most of the population from decision-making in creating development policies and from the benefits of economic growth. There are serious social problems in the region, such as high rates of unemployment and illiteracy, low salaries, poor labour training, environmental degradation as well as deficiencies in physical and social infrastructure.

Despite these legacies which may constrain participative planning in the region, the planners responsible for planning for the Costa Dourada project have involved a broad number of stakeholders in its planning process. On the one hand, there are regular collaborative meetings among a group of 29 stakeholders. In these meetings,

PRODETUR/AL's planners encourage discussion, negotiation and consensus-building among participants. On the other hand, the planning process for the project uses several other consultation approaches with a broad number of other stakeholders that are defined in this study as 'non-participants' in the collaborative planning process. These approaches have included other types of meetings as well as workshops and seminars. These consultation activities have fed data, information and suggestions regarding the project and its planning process to the participants in the collaborative planning meetings. All forms of stakeholder participation in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project are intended to provide inputs into the project planning and also to help prepare the organisations involved to play a role in tourism development in the region in an effective and sustainable way.

Stakeholder participation in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project includes stakeholders from the government, the private sector and NGOs with interests at the local, regional and national scales. This network of multiple players involved in the project planning appears to have the potential to provide the social and intellectual capital through which planning outcomes might be developed more for the common good than for narrow sectional interests (Ostrom, 1990; Innes, 1995; Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 2000). The chapter has shown that this participation is achieved through the use of a combination of approaches and techniques. A detailed assessment of the participation by stakeholders is contained in chapters 6, 7 and 8, and the effectiveness of the collaborative and consultative stakeholder participation in the project planning process is examined in Chapter 9.

Chapter 6: The Collaborative Planning Process

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The overall research aim is to examine stakeholder participation in regional tourism planning during an early stage of the planning process for an emergent regional tourist destination in a developing country. The study approach examines a case study, this being the planning process for Brazil's Costa Dourada project. A central focus of the study is to determine whether, and the degree to which the project planning involved collaboration, and then to examine the collaborative processes that were involved.

Despite recent progress in scientific understanding about collaboration-based tourism arrangements, most of the studies that have been undertaken are extremely narrow in scope and focus primarily on communities and other small geographical scales (Jamal and Getz, 1997; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Parker, 1999). Moreover, the vast majority concern developed nations (Selin and Myers, 1998; Timothy, 1999; Ritchie, 1999). While these studies have shown the relevance of collaboration theory in the tourism field, more research is needed to consolidate previous findings and to address issues that are still poorly understood. In particular, the details of the processes of collaboration need considerable further investigation in tourism contexts, as argued by several authors (Selin and Chavez, 1995a; Selin and Myers, 1998).

This chapter presents detailed findings on the collaborative planning process for the Costa Dourada project. These findings are based and presented in parallel on interviews and questionnaires conducted with all 29 participants involved in the project's planning. For this regional planning process, the chapter focuses on (a) identification of the range of stakeholders involved in the collaboration regarding issues relating to the planning process; (b) the identification of the methods and techniques of stakeholder participation; (c) a critical examination of the processes of stakeholder collaboration; and (d) an assessment of the factors that influenced whether stakeholders participated in the collaborative planning process.

6.2 RANGE OF STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION

This first section examines the opinions of participants in the collaborative planning process about the following issues related to the planning process:

- The objective or objectives of the organisations that participated in the planning

process.

- Whether these participants considered that their organisation was affected by the project.
- The ways in which participants were involved in the project's planning process.
- The party or parties that the participants represent that is their constituencies in their involvement in the planning process for the project.
- Whether participants consider that all parties with an interest in the project are represented in its planning process.
- How participants distinguish between participating organisations and other organisations with an interest in the project who are not involved as participants.

1) What is your organisation's main objective or objectives?

When the participants in the planning process were asked to name the objective or objectives of the organisation they represented in their involvement in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project, some respondents encapsulated the objective/objectives of their organisation in an overall phrase. Others provided two or more specific objectives. Table 6.1 presents the main objectives of each stakeholder that was represented in the planning process for the project, as named by their representative in its planning process.

The range of participating organisations in the project's collaborative planning process covers 10 local-scale, 13 regional-scale and 6 national-scale stakeholders. While there is a relatively broad spread of organisations by geographical scale, the situation is quite different concerning stakeholder type. For example, there are 26 governmental representatives (10 local, 12 regional and four national-scale), but in contrast there are only two NGOs (one regional scale and one national scale), and one national private-sector participant. Nonetheless, local-scale participants represent the municipal government who in turn constitutionally represent the interests of their community, so at least theoretically they also represent the wider interests of their community, including business and non-governmental organisations. For example, the ten municipalities involved in the project's planning have each organised at least one large project workshop which has been open to the community. The outcomes of these workshops, which were mentioned by all 29 participants, have been consolidated into reports which were passed to the project's

Table 6.1 Main objectives of the stakeholders participating in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Stakeholder	Main objective/objectives of stakeholder
Brazilian Institute for the Environment and Renewable Natural Resources (IBAMA)	To enforce the Brazilian national policy for the environment (PNMA).
Coastal Management Project (GERCO)	To promote the sustainable use of the coastal zone.
Foundation for Marine Mammals (FMM)	To protect the manatee in its habitat.
Service of the National Coastal Lands (DPU)	To preserve the beaches and adjoining lands through the disciplined use of these areas.
Department for the Development of the North East (SUDENE)	To promote the development of the north east in an integrated way; To improve the quality of life in the region; and To reduce the development disparities between the north east, the south east and the south of Brazil.
Brazilian Company of Airport Infrastructure (INFRAERO)	To operate, manage and exploit commercially the infrastructure for Brazilian airports.
Institute for the Environment (IMA)	To plan and enforce the programme for the environment for Alagoas state.
Tourist Board of the State of Alagoas (EMATUR/AL)	To promote the tourism development of Alagoas state in a disciplined and controlled way.
Department of Roads of the State of Alagoas (DER/AL)	To build and maintain the roads of Alagoas state.
Water and Sewage Company of the State of Alagoas (CASAL)	To provide quality water to 100% of the state population at affordable prices; and To meet at least 80% of the state demand for collecting, treating and disposing of sewage in a proper way.
Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL) (Co-ordinator for the Environment)	To manage the implementation process of the PRODETUR/AL; and To articulate the organisations responsible for implementing the PRODETUR/AL.
Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL) (Assessor for Project Development)	To implement the PRODETUR/AL.
Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL) (Co-ordinator for Institutional Development)	To implement the project of infrastructure for the Costa Dourada project; and To assist the state secretary of planning and development regarding official tourism planning and development.
Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL) (Co-ordinator for Transport and Roads.	To build infrastructure for tourism development in Alagoas state.
Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL) (Assessor for Legislation)	To plan and implement the PRODETUR/AL through: - contacts with affected organisations; - the state process for planning permission; - contracting consultants who design projects; - monitoring through the preparation of reports; and - formal co-operation between organisations.
Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL) (Co-ordinator for Administration and Finance)	To plan and implement the PRODETUR/AL.
Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL) (Assessor for Management of Partnerships and Marketing)	To promote the sustainable development of Alagoas state.

Table 6.1 (continued...)

Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL) (Co-ordinator General)	To constitute a multidisciplinary excellence group of planners that are able to have a vision of sustainable development for the Costa Dourada project.
Association of the Municipalities of the State of Alagoas (AMA)	To provide the mayors of Alagoas state with technical assistance and consultancy for: - institutional development; - administrative reform; and - information regarding agriculture, social action, tourism, the environment, education, health care and administration.
Municipality of Barra de Santo Antônio	To improve the quality of life of the local population through the creation of new jobs and income opportunities.
Municipality of Japaratinga	To foster and support tourism development in the municipality as a means to create new jobs and income.
Municipality of Maragogi	To co-ordinate the institutional actions of the municipality in accordance with the Brazilian Constitution, in areas such as education, health care and urban cleaning; To plan for the municipality; To improve the quality of life of the local population; To build infrastructure; and To promote the development of the municipality.
Municipality of Matriz de Camaragibe	To plan and implement actions in the municipality in accordance with the Brazilian Constitution; To plan for the development of the municipality; and To improve the quality of life of the local population.
Municipality of Paripueira	To create infrastructure so that the private sector feels confident to invest in development in the municipality, mainly in tourism.
Municipality of Passo de Camaragibe	To provide health care and education to the local population as a priority; and To provide training and information for the population regarding tourism so they can benefit from tourism development in the region.
Municipality of Porto Calvo	To provide solutions to the sewage problems of the city of Porto Calvo; and To develop a housing area with more than 1,000 houses.
Municipality of Porto de Pedras	To meet the basic needs of the local population, especially regarding health care and education; To lead the municipality to have greater importance in the economy of Alagoas state; and To create jobs, attract benefits and improve the quality of life of the local population.
Municipality of São Luiz do Quitunde	To promote the socio-economic development of the municipality.
Municipality of São Miguel dos Milagres	To promote the development of the municipality; To protect the environment; To create adequate tourist infrastructure; and To inform schools, associations and the community about the positive as well as the negative impacts of tourism.

Planning Unit. Nevertheless, the conspicuous lack of direct business representatives at the local and regional scales and of non-governmental organisations at the local scale may cause problems to the inter-organisational domain at a later collaborative stage, as there may be a conflict of interests and/or opposition to the implementation of agreements that were reached by the participants in the first stage of the collaboration. Western democracies assume that elected and appointed stakeholder

representatives will ensure a pluralistic representation of interests in planning. However, relations of power in planning structures may affect negatively the interests of less powerful or poorly represented interests as might be the case with non-governmental organisations, some of which may not be sufficiently articulated to be able to influence decision making in any significant way (Schattschneider, 1960; Reed, 1997; Hall and Jenkins, 2000a).

2) In your view, is your organisation's objective or objectives likely to be affected by the Costa Dourada project?

Probes: If yes, *in which way or ways?*
 If no, *then what is your organisation's interest in the Costa Dourada project?*

Twenty-five of the 29 respondents considered their organisations' interests were likely to be affected by the Costa Dourada project. These are 22 government participants, two NGO participants and one private-sector participant. As to the geographical scale at which these respondents' organisations largely operate, 10 are at the local scale, nine at the regional scale and six at the national scale. The 25 respondents who considered their organisations' objectives were likely to be affected by the project identified six types of positive impacts (see Table 6.2). It is significant that 10 participants perceived overall benefits to the region as a type of positive benefit for the organisation they represent, even more so when only nine of the respondents who mentioned this type of benefit operate at the regional scale. This may suggest that the region is perceived as an important planning scale. Seven respondents identified some type of collaborative advantage (Huxham, 1996) in that the project will help their organisation to advance its interests. The reference by 6 respondents to infrastructure improvement in the municipalities is closely related to the major aim of the Costa Dourada project of creating tourism infrastructure, and also evidence on its

Table 6.2 The six types of positive impacts respondents indicated their organisations would receive from the Costa Dourada project.

Types of positive impacts from the project	Number of respondents who mentioned each type of positive impact
Will lead to overall benefits to the region.	10
Will help advance their organisations' interests.	7
Will lead to an increase in infrastructure in the municipalities.	6
Has provided an opportunity for gaining planning experience.	5
Will allow their organisation to have increased access to financial resources.	3
Will lead to an improvement in integrated planning in the region.	1

own of the infrastructural problems in the project's area. Interestingly, 5 respondents identified the project as an opportunity for their organisation to gain planning experience, which may suggest the existence of positive interaction with other organisations in the planning domain.

Four respondents also identified four types of negative impacts their organisation was likely to experience as a result of the Costa Dourada project (see Table 6.3). It is interesting that far fewer negative impacts were mentioned and that fewer respondents mentioned them. Clearly most respondents are highly optimistic and positive about the project's objectives.

Table 6.3 The four types of negative impacts respondents indicated their organisations would receive from the Costa Dourada project.

Types of negative impacts from the project	Number of mentions of each type of negative impact
Impact on land use planning policies.	1
Impact on natural ecosystems.	1
Cultural impacts, with a consequent increase in crime rates and prostitution.	1
The need for the organisation to invest in staff development to cope with increased demand for policy implementation.	1

3) Please describe how you are involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

The respondents identified 15 types of stakeholder involvement in the project's planning, and these are listed in Table 6.4. These types of stakeholder involvement in the project's planning cover several domain-level planning and management functions that are relevant to collaboration theory and regional tourism planning. For example, the most mentioned (14) type of stakeholder involvement is the contribution of the representatives to the discussions about the project. This suggests a high importance attached by participants to expressing their views about the project. It is notable that 10 respondents appear to appreciate that they were operating within an inter-organisational domain when they stated that their organisation was involved in the project by contributing resources to the project's planning process. However, it is clear that the participants perceived that contributing resources to the planning process may be a way to have some influence over decision-making, a type of contribution mentioned by eight respondents. As to the relationships between single organisations and the collaborative domain, seven respondents pinpointed their involvement in the project's planning as serving as a bridge between the interests of

their organisation and those of the project. In a similar way, seven respondents identified their contribution as being devoted to articulating actions between their organisation and the Planning Unit. These two types of stakeholder involvement suggest a reasonable degree of inter-organisational domain-level interaction in the project's planning process.

Table 6.4 Types of stakeholder involvement in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Types of stakeholder involvement	Number of respondents who mentioned each type of involvement
Contributes to the discussion about the project with the other participants.	14
Makes the organisation's resources available to the project's planning process.	10
Attempts to influence the decision-making process so that the interests of the organisation are taken into consideration.	8
Works as a bridge between the aims and objectives of the project and the aims and objectives of the organisation.	7
Co-ordinates planning actions between the organisation and the Planning Unit for the project.	7
Spreads information to the other participants and any other parties with an interest in the project.	2
Substitutes for the Co-ordinator General and any other co-ordinators of the Planning Unit during their absences.	2
Assist all the other co-ordinators of the Planning Unit for the project.	2
Provides political support to the Planning Unit.	2
Represents the Planning Unit at a number of external organisations.	1
Provides legal advice to the Planning Unit regarding the fields of tourism and environment.	1
Co-ordinates actions which aim at strengthening organisations affected by the project.	1
Encourages and supports the creation of tourism development project in the municipality represented.	1
Attempts to attract new organisations to the planning process for the project and persuades current participants to remain involved in the planning process.	1
Is responsible for the overall co-ordination of actions among the participants in the planning process for the project.	1
Total number of types of stakeholder involvement named: 15	-

4) Do you represent any interested party or parties in your involvement in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probes: If yes, *which one or ones?*
 If no, *then why are you involved in the project?*

Each of the 29 interviewees affirmed they represented one stakeholder each in their involvement in the project's planning. Table 4.5 presented a list of the stakeholders involved in the project planning as well as the job title of each of their representatives in the planning process. A combined analysis of this table with Table 6.1 reveals that

the planning process for the project involves a broad range of different types of interests, showing great potential for integrating the multi-scale interests affected by the project at the regional level. For example, an analysis of the objectives of the municipalities in the light of the information provided by their representatives identifies reference to a wide breadth of interests. There is reference to the municipal constitutional responsibilities regarding actions related to education, health care, urban cleaning and planning. There is also reference to numerous other objectives of the municipalities, such as the creation of jobs, provision of labour training, improvement in the quality of life of the population, creation of infrastructure, housing development and 'sustainable' development. However, despite this wide breadth of representation potentially emerging from communities through the local government representatives, coupled with significant representation of infrastructure and official environmental interests at the regional and national scales, the lack of direct representation of business interests at the local and regional scales and of non-governmental interests at the local scale is a potential problem for the collaboration in the long term.

5) *In your view, are all parties with an interest in the Costa Dourada project represented in its planning process?*

Probes: If yes, *please explain.*
 If no, *which other interested party or parties, if any, do you think should also be represented in the planning process for the project?*
 If no, *for each interested party you have named, please explain why.*

Nineteen of the 29 participants in the planning process for the project considered that all parties with an interest in the project were represented in its planning process. This suggests that a large proportion of the participants considered that the planning process was inclusive of the relevant interest groups and affected parties. However, the remaining 10 participants, who considered that not all parties with an interest in the project were represented in its planning process, identified 20 stakeholders who in their view also ought to be represented in the project's planning. These are listed in Table 6.5. However, as the interview progressed respondents named other stakeholders who they considered also ought to be represented in the planning process. Adding these additional stakeholders to the latter list the final number of stakeholders which respondents considered also ought to be represented in the planning process amounts to 31. These appear in Table 6.6. The private sector (hotels, bars and restaurants) is the stakeholder group that was mentioned most frequently (seven times), while fishers' associations (another private-sector

Table 6.5 List of stakeholders that were not involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project but that respondents considered ought to be represented.

Number	Stakeholders that respondents thought ought to be represented	Number of respondents who mentioned the stakeholder
1	The private sector (hotels, bars and restaurants)	5
2	Fishers' associations	4
3	Communities	2
4	Church	2
5	Brazilian Association of Hoteliers (ABIH), Alagoas' section	2
6	Navy authority	2
7	Agricultural labourers' organisations	2
8	Owners of boats and rafts for tourist transportation	1
9	State Secretary of Public Security (SSP/AL)	1
10	State Secretary of Health	1
11	Brazilian Service for the Support to Small Businesses (SEBRAE)	1
12	Financial organisations	1
13	Institute for the Preservation of the Atlantic Rain Forest (IPMA)	1
14	NATO, environmental NGO	1
15	Small farm owners	1
16	Environmental NGOs	1
17	National Institute for Colonisation and Land Reform (INCRA)	1
18	Municipal legislators ('Vereadores')	1
19	Association of the Craftsmen of the Municipality of Paripueira	1
20	General employees	1

stakeholder group) were mentioned six times, and communities were mentioned five times. It is significant that the private sector emerges as the leading stakeholder group being recognised as not represented in the planning process. While there were seven specific references to hotels, bars and restaurants (the private sector for the respondents), there were clearly references to other private-sector stakeholders, such as fishers' associations, SEBRAE and financial organisations. Adding up all references to hotels, bars and restaurants with respondents' mentions of other private-sector stakeholders, there were altogether 31 mentions of the private-sector, accounting for 16 stakeholder groups or organisations that are perceived as not represented in the project's planning by participating stakeholders. It is notable that the church and fishers' associations, which usually have great involvement in discussions concerning development and social problems in the region were not represented (Boschi, 1987). Though it can be argued that some stakeholder groups may only feel the need to participate later on in a collaborative process (Post, 1978; Bucholtz, 1986), leaving out many legitimate stakeholders from an early stage may be detrimental to the political force of the agreements (Gray and Hay, 1986; Gray, 1988).

6) In your view, what distinguishes the participants who are more directly involved in planning for the Costa Dourada project from parties with an interest in the project who are not involved as participants?

Table 6.6 Final list of stakeholders that were not involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project but that respondents considered ought to be represented.

Number	Stakeholders that respondents thought ought to be represented	Number of respondents who mentioned the stakeholder
1	The private sector (hotels, bars and restaurants)	7
2	Fishers' associations	6
3	Communities	5
4	Naval authority	3
5	Environmental NGOs	2
6	State secretaries	2
7	Church	2
8	Brazilian Association of Hoteliers (ABIH), Alagoas' section	2
9	Brazilian Service for the Support to Small Businesses (SEBRAE)	2
10	Agricultural labourers' organisations	2
11	Municipal legislators	2
12	Financial organisations	2
13	Brazilian Association of Travel Agents (ABAV), Alagoas' section	1
14	Brazilian University of Alagoas (UFAL)	1
15	National Institute for Colonisation and Land Reform (INCRA)	1
16	The public judiciary	1
17	General employees	1
18	Federation of Fishers' Associations	1
19	Teotônio Vilella Foundation (state NGO)	1
20	Navy Ministry	1
21	Syndicate of Hoteliers	1
22	Brazilian Association of Sanitation Engineering (ABES)	1
23	Syndicate of Bakeries	1
24	Institute for the Preservation of the Atlantic Rain Forest (IPMA), environmental NGO	1
25	NATO, environmental NGO	1
26	Owners of boats and rafts for tourist transportation	1
27	Coach and van companies	1
28	Small farm owners	1
29	Co-ordination of Planning (COPLAN) of the State Secretary of Planning and development of the state of Alagoas (SEPLANDES/AL)	1
30	Craftsmen's associations	1
31	Association of the Craftsmen of the Municipality of Paripueira	1

The respondents identified 10 distinguishing characteristics between participants who were involved directly in the planning process for the project and other parties with an interest in the project but who were not directly involved (see Table 6.7). There is some overlap between two of the distinguishing characteristics between participants and non-participants that were mentioned by the respondents. First, the 'Non-participants are mostly from the private sector or have profit motives' and second 'Non-participants are mostly in non-governmental organisations'. Despite the partial overlap between these two distinguishing characteristics, they are reported separately because there is an important difference in the way the respondents reacted to the question. While there is a common difference between those two characteristics, that group placed the emphasis on non-participants being NGOs. Likewise, 10 respondents mentioned other distinguishing characteristics but as these were each

Table 6.7 Characteristics that respondents distinguished between participants who were involved directly in the planning process for the project and other parties with an interest in the project who were not involved in this way.

Distinguishing characteristics	Number of respondents who mentioned this characteristic
Participants are mostly from governmental organisations or have a public mission	11
Non-participants are mostly from the private sector or have profit motives	12
Non-participants are mostly in non-governmental organisations	7
Participants have technical knowledge	8
Non-participants lack technical knowledge	2
Participants have financial resources or power	4
Non-participants have less financial resources or power	3
Non-participants know the local areas better or will be affected more	5
Participants can take a broader or more objective view	4
Other distinguishing characteristic	10
Little difference between participants and non-participants	9

mentioned only once they are not considered to be as significant for this study. In addition, nine respondents stated that there was little difference between participants and non-participants.

The distinguishing characteristics mentioned more often were that participants were mostly in government or had a public mission, and that non-participants were mostly in the private sector or had profit motives. Several respondents identified the non-participants as mostly in non-government organisations. Hence, many people made distinctions around the public sector being more directly involved in the planning process and the private sector not being involved in this way. A smaller number of respondents distinguished between participants and non-participants according to the former having technical knowledge, financial resources or power, and the latter lacking these attributes. Some respondents also suggested that non-participants knew the local areas better or would be more affected by the project, which suggests that they identified non-participants with interests that were focused in the municipalities.

6.3 PARTICIPATION METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

This section examines the methods and techniques of stakeholder participation used in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

The respondents identified 11 types of methods and techniques they have used to express their views in the project's planning process. Table 6.8 presents these

methods and techniques, the number of respondents who used each type as well as the degree of effectiveness the respondents assigned to them. According to these results, the methods and techniques most widely used by far in the project's planning process are those where there is some form of face-to-face interaction between participants. This has been shown to be an important characteristic of collaboration and is a characteristic that makes it distinct from consultation. For example, when respondents were asked to indicate how they expressed their views to other participants, nearly 62% of responses referred to such methods. Likewise, the respondents assigned a higher level of effectiveness to these methods. For example, 50% of the responses indicated that the degree of effectiveness of these procedures was 'somewhat effective' and 43.5% stated that they were 'highly effective'. This means that 93.5% of references to the effectiveness of these methods fell on the 'effective' side of the scale, with 6.5% of references relating to the less effective side of the scale. The remaining 38% of references to methods used in the planning process refer to techniques such as faxes and telephone calls which do not involve face-to-face interaction. In general, these methods were considered somewhat less effective than procedures involving face-to-face interaction. For example, 37.3% of the responses indicated that the non-collective participation procedures used in the planning process were 'somewhat effective' and 29.9% stated 'highly effective'. This means that 67.2% of references to the effectiveness of these non-collective methods

Table 6.8 Methods and techniques used by the participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project, the number of times they were mentioned and the degree of effectiveness assigned to them.

Methods and techniques used	Number of respondents who used this method or technique	Highly ineffective	Somewhat ineffective	Neither ineffective nor effective	Somewhat effective	Highly effective	Don't know
Meetings with one other participant	16	-	2	-	5	8	1
Meetings with two or three participants	17	-	-	1	10	6	-
Meetings with more than three but not all participants	24	-	1	-	14	9	-
Meetings called for all participants	26	-	-	2	13	11	-
Workshops	24	-	-	-	11	13	-
Telephone conversations	26	1	3	2	11	8	1
Letters by post	10	2	2	2	3	1	-
Letters by messenger	8	-	1	1	2	3	1
Fax	19	-	2	2	9	6	-
E-mail	4	1	-	-	-	2	1
Seminars	1	-	-	-	1	-	-
	175	4	11	10	79	67	4

fell on the 'effective' side of the scale. The collective procedures of participation collected only 6 mentions as 'highly ineffective', 'somewhat ineffective' and 'neither ineffective nor effective', while the non-collective participation procedures collected 19 such mentions. Likewise, non-collective procedures were mentioned 4 times as being 'highly ineffective', while collective procedures were not mentioned in this category. Only 4 respondents used e-mail to communicate with other participants, which may suggest how little this communication technique is used in the project area, while it is taken for granted in developed countries.

Overall, more than 83% of the references to the effectiveness of the methods used by participants in the planning process fell on the 'effective' side of the scale. The remaining mentions assign 8.6% to the 'highly ineffective' and 'somewhat ineffective' categories, 5.7% to the 'neither ineffective nor effective' category, and 2.3% to the 'Don't know' category. The findings also reveal that the respondents perceived participation methods involving at least three participants as more effective than those including only one or two participants. For example, 50.3% of all the mentions of the effectiveness of the methods in Table 6.8 refer to these collective methods of participation as being either 'somewhat effective' or 'highly effective'.

6.4 COMMITMENT TO COLLABORATE

This section examines the following collaborative issues:

- Whether the participants in the planning process considered their organisations gained benefits from participation in the project's planning that they would not gain by working on their own.
- How the participants' organisations would respond if they needed to adjust their priorities in order for all participants to have some gains.
- Whether the respondents considered all participants were fully committed to working together.

10) *In your view, will working together with the other participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project enable your organisation to gain any benefit or benefits that it would not gain by working on its own?*

Probes: If yes, *please explain how you benefit from working together.*
 If yes, *please explain why you benefit from working together.*
 If no, *why not?*

All 29 respondents felt that their organisations would benefit from working together with the other participants in the project's planning process, suggesting that vested

interests did play an important part in this collaborative arrangement. This limits the scope for claims of 'altruistic' motives. The probe then asked how they benefit from working together. Table 6.9 presents the eight different ways in which the respondents considered their organisation benefits from working with the other participants. On the one hand, it is worth noting that most respondents' explanations of *how* their organisation benefits from working with other participants also implies inter-organisational domain-level benefits. For example, 9 respondents mentioned integrated planning as a benefit, 6 mentioned that their participation leads the organisation to meet the project's demands in more efficient and effective ways, and 4 respondents felt that participation helps the organisation to have a more precise vision of the problem and of the other stakeholders. All these perceptions of how a single organisation benefits from participation in the project's planning process potentially also embody awareness that the organisation may also contribute to achieving shared goals. On the other hand, the respondents' explanations of *why* their organisation benefits from working together with the other participants is more focused on organisation-based interests. An analysis of Table 6.10, which presents why respondents perceived their organisation benefits from participating in the project's planning, reveals that as many as 23 references were made to the organisation increasing its access to knowledge and expertise, political power, and financial resources, these being mentioned 14, 5 and 4 times respectively. Some

Table 6.9 Respondents' explanations of how their organisations benefit from working together with the other participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Benefits from participation	Number of respondents who mentioned each type of benefit
Leads to integrated planning by linking the organisation's interests to the interests of the other participants.	9
Leads the organisation to meet the demands of the project in a faster and technically more appropriate way.	6
Leads the organisation to get the support of the other organisations to advance its interests in the region.	4
Leads the organisation's staff to have a more accurate vision of the problems of the region and the remit of other organisations.	4
Leads to the legitimisation of the organisation's actions in relation to the project.	2
Improves the monitoring of the performance of the organisation and of tourism development in the region.	1
Leads to institutional strengthening.	1
Improves the organisation's relationship with the other participants.	1

Table 6.10 Respondents' explanations of why their organisations benefit from working together with the other participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada Project.

Why the organisations benefit	Number of respondents who mentioned each type of benefit
Provides access to the knowledge and expertise of the other organisations.	14
Increases the organisation's political power in the region.	5
Provides increased access to financial resources.	4
Provides the organisation with the opportunity for increased planning and implementation capacity in relation to the Costa Dourada project.	3
Provides the organisation with the opportunity to work together over interests that are common between the organisation and the other organisations.	2
Leads to the organisation's services being available to a broader part of the society.	1

respondents were not able to explain how and/or why their organisation would benefit from working together with the other participants, even when the probe was posed several times.

11) How would your organisation respond if it needed to adjust its priorities in order that all participants in the planning process for the project can have some gains?

All 29 respondents answered that if it was needed, their organisations would adjust their priorities so that all participants could have some gains. At least at face value, this suggests that the participants have entered the collaboration with intentions to negotiate and adjust according to the views and needs of the other participants as well as their own priorities. This general attitude is corroborated by their specific justifications. For example, three government representatives, one regional and two local scale, stated that they would adjust their priorities as long as everybody benefited from the decision. One regional-scale government respondent, explained that "if we perceive that there are benefits for everybody, we'll negotiate around the issue. We wouldn't make adjustments if they were aimed at meeting the demands of individual organisations". One national-scale government respondent supported his answer by explaining that the Brazilian public administration has changed, possibly an indirect reference to the country's return to democracy. In his view, the public administration "has become more participative, and participation implies that you will also have to respect the interests of other organisations". Recognition of the need to respect multiple interests in the planning domain was also expressed by a national-scale NGO respondent, according to whom "that's the way one should work. It isn't right for us to try and impose our views ... There are other interests". A similar point

was made by a local-scale government respondent when he stated that in his view, "the best way is the democratic one, the one of inviting other parties and talking so that nobody is offended or affected in a negative way".

Echoing a general view about changes in Brazilian public administration and preferences for more equitable and open decision-making, a Planning Unit respondent explained that "there are no pre-packed formulae to be followed. As we are in a learning process, every suggestion is very welcome ... The project can and must have adjustments". One local-scale government representative suggested that the overall planning aim is above individual interests for they "are all working for the development of the region. We intend to develop tourism in an integrated way". He explained how the municipality he represents provided support so that a road could be built in a neighbouring municipality despite his own municipality having the political power to capture the related financial resources. However, in his view, the road will bring tourists to the region, a development that will benefit his municipality as well as others. Another local-scale government respondent mentioned exchange of benefits as a strong motive to adjust one's priorities in the planning process: "at a given moment, we can provide something to another municipality and next they can help us". However, three representatives of municipal government mentioned politics as a potential obstacle to a full commitment to the collaboration. One made the point that there is competition between localities for resources. In her view, "in practice, that's very difficult to achieve [adjust one's priorities to others'] because politically each one wants to get the best from the project". However, she accepted that "nowadays you've got to work in partnership. You have to try and sit and talk, discuss to see how far you can go, reach a consensus".

3) In my view, all participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project are fully committed to working together [from the questionnaire].

[2]	[1]	[0]	[12]	[14]	[0]
Strongly	Somewhat	Neither disagree	Somewhat	Strongly	Don't
disagree	disagree	nor agree	agree	agree	know

Twelve responses fell into the 'somewhat agree' category, with 14 in the 'strongly agree' category. This means that 26 of the 29 responses were on the 'agree' side of the scale, although the numbers who claimed to 'somewhat agree' might have had some reservations about the commitment of all participants to collaborate openly and fully. But only two respondents (national-scale private sector and local-scale government) 'strongly disagreed' and one regional-scale government 'somewhat

disagreed' with the statement. Hence, the vast majority seem positive and optimistic about the participants being determined to work collaboratively.

6.5 IDENTIFICATION OF ISSUES OF CONCERN

This section examines the following collaborative issues:

- The issues that the participating organisations want to have considered in the project's planning.
- Whether the participants considered their issues or interests have been considered in the project's planning so far.

7) What is the main issue or set of issues that your organisation wants to have considered in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

A wide range of issues were mentioned by respondents. Some identified one issue, while others identified as many as six. In all, the respondents identified 28 issues that their organisations, as participants, wanted to have considered in the project's planning process. Nine out of these 28 issues were mentioned twice or more. The remaining 19 issues were mentioned only once. Table 6.11 presents these issues and also the types of stakeholders who mentioned each issue and the geographical scale at which they operate. Infrastructure was clearly the most frequent response, suggesting that for many participants the project was embraced particularly as a means to secure infrastructure. Of the 23 mentions to infrastructure, six referred to water supply, six to sewage systems, five to road building and transportation systems, two to energy supply, two to infrastructure for dealing with solid waste and two referred to infrastructure in general. It is notable that tourism infrastructure was not identified specifically, indicating that tourism development was often considered to be a means to secure broader development. Other quite prominent issues were environmental conservation (8 mentions), land use planning and development (6 mentions) and institutional development (4 mentions).

8) To date, has this issue or set of issues been considered in the planning for the project?

Probes: If yes, *which one or ones?*
 If no, *why not?*

Twenty-five of the 29 respondents felt that the issues their respective organisations wanted to have considered in the planning process had been considered. Three

Table 6.11 Issues the respondents' organisations wanted to have considered in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Issues	Number of times the issue was mentioned	Number of times the issue was mentioned by type of stakeholder	Number of times the issue was mentioned by the scale at which the stakeholder operates
Infrastructure	23	G20-P1-NGO2	N5-R8-L10
Environmental conservation	8	G8	N1-R5-L2
Land use planning and development	6	G5-NGO1	N2-R3-L1
Institutional development	4	G4	R3-L1
Sustainable development	3	G3	R3
Improvement of the quality of life of the communities	3	G3	R2-L1
Public security	2	G2	L2
Training of labour for tourism	2	G2	R1-L1
Historical and cultural heritage	2	G1-NGO1	R2
Cultural impact	1	G	L
Acquisition of logistics equipment to operate infrastructure	1	G	R
The APA dos Corais Conservation Unit	1	G	N
Staff training	1	G	R
Project viability	1	G	R
Benefits to the affected communities	1	G	R
Stakeholder participation	1	G	R
Participation of the organisation	1	G	R
Participation of the communities	1	G	R
Integration of tourism development	1	P	N
Development of a sense of region among the participants	1	G	R
Control of boat traffic on the coastal zone	1	NGO	N
Administrative advisory support to local government	1	G	L
Reduction of intra-regional socio-economic disparities	1	G	N
Revitalisation of folklore groups	1	G	N
Education	1	G	L
Community education for tourism development	1	G	L
Creation of jobs	1	G	L
Improvement of tourism services in the region	1	G	L

Type of stakeholder	Geographical scale at which stakeholder operates
G Government P Private sector N NGO	N National scale R Regional scale L Local scale

respondents did not feel the issues had been considered, and they provided different explanations as to why the issues they identified had not been considered. Table 6.12 presents these issues along with the type of stakeholder involved, the geographical scale at which they operate and explanations for why the issues were not considered. For example, the P-N respondent did not foresee the issues "being considered for future horizons of five, ten and twenty years. They [the state

Table 6.12 The issues three respondents considered had not been considered in the planning process for the project.

Issues that had not been considered in the planning process	Type of respondent	Geographical scale at which respondent operates	Explanation for why the issue had not been considered
1. Land use planning and development 2. Control of boat traffic on the coastal zone	NGO	N	1,2. There was a delay in the participative process due to changes in the state government administration. 1,2. Financial resources were still not delivered for the project.
3. APA dos Corais conservation unit	G	N	Because the APA dos Corais Conservation Unit was created only recently.
4. Integration of tourism development 5. Integration of transport system 6. Government funding for airport development	P	N	4. None offered. 5. None offered. 6. The government of Alagoas State is not used to planning for the long term.

government] are considering the current reform because it is urgent. I haven't seen any attention being given to the allocation of funding for future works in this airport, only for the current costs". In addition, one local government respondent did not know whether or not the issues the municipality wanted to have considered, namely sewage infrastructure, road building and training of labour for tourism, had actually been given any attention.

6.6 COMMON DEFINITION OF PROBLEM

This section examines the following collaborative issues:

- The main priorities of the participating organisations in the project's planning.
- Whether each participant considered there was an agreed view among the participants about the main issues to be considered in the project's planning.
- Whether respondents considered the participants shared an agreed view about the planning priorities for the project.

9) *What is your organisation's main priority or priorities in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?*

A wide range of priorities was mentioned by respondents. While some stakeholders had a priority or set of priorities at the organisation level, others placed their priorities at the local or regional levels. Table 6.13 presents the priorities of the stakeholders in

Table 6.13 Stakeholders' priorities in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Stakeholder priority	Number of respondents who mentioned this priority
Infrastructure.	5
Environmental conservation.	4
Improvement in the quality of life of the community.	2
Institutional development of the stakeholder.	1
Integrated development of the north coast of Alagoas.	1
Environmental sustainable development of the Costa Dourada project.	1
Insertion of the north region of Alagoas into the development process of that state through tourism.	1
Control of boat traffic on the coastal zone.	1
Management of the tourism centres in such a way that the risks of impacts over the manatees is reduced.	1
Control of land development on the coastal line.	1
Sustainable development of the area of the Costa Dourada project.	1
Institutional development of affected organisations, especially the co-implementing organisations.	1
Signing the contract with the Bank of the Northeast for the first loan for the project.	1
Securing the financial resources for the first tourism centre, in the Municipality of Maragogi.	1
Planning integration between the organisation and the Planning Unit.	1
Control of the positive and negative impacts of the project.	1
Development of the region.	1
Full implementation of the project.	1
Reduction of poverty in the region.	1
The expansion of the tourism industry as a means to increase <i>per capita</i> income in the municipality.	1
Understanding the full implications of the project on the municipality.	1
Placing the municipality into the regional tourism route.	1
Implementation of the strategic plan for public municipal services that was designed for the municipality.	1

the planning process for the project as well as the number of respondents who mentioned each priority. Three priorities were mentioned more than one time. These are 'Infrastructure' (five times), 'Environmental conservation' (four times), and 'Improvement in the quality of life of the community' (two times). As with earlier results, infrastructure was the most frequently mentioned organisational priority. Each of the following infrastructural aspects was mentioned once: sewage, roads, energy, water and solid waste. The diversity of the priorities might indicate the potential for conflict as the planning process develops in the long term.

1) *There is an agreed view among the participants about the main issues to be considered in the planning for the Costa Dourada project [from the questionnaire].*

[0]
Strongly
disagree

[1]
Somewhat
disagree

[0]
Neither disagree
nor agree

[13]
Somewhat
agree

[14]
Strongly
agree

[1]
Don't know

It is notable that thirteen answers fell into the 'somewhat agree' category and fourteen into the 'strongly agree' category. This means that 27 of 29 responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale and only one P-N respondent somewhat disagreed with the statement and one G-L respondent marked the 'Don't know' option. This indicates that at this stage of the planning process and in relation to the project, there was good scope for negotiation and consensus-building. Clearly, it should potentially be easier to resolve specific disputes and ease differences of opinions if there is a broadly held view that most participants generally have similar project objectives.

2) *The participants share an agreed view about the planning priorities of the project* [from the questionnaire].

[0] Strongly disagree	[1] Somewhat disagree	[0] Neither disagree nor agree	[15] Somewhat agree	[12] Strongly agree	[1] Don't know
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Similar to the previous question, fifteen answers fell into the 'somewhat agree' category and twelve into the 'strongly agree' category, so that 27 of the 29 responses are on the 'agree' side of the scale. One G-L respondent somewhat disagreed with the statement and one G-L respondent, the same respondent as in the previous question, selected the 'Don't know' option. Slightly fewer respondents strongly agreed that there was agreement about the planning priorities than respondents who felt that there was agreement about the issues that should be considered in the planning, but the difference is fairly small. Again, there appears to be reasonably good scope for negotiation and consensus-building.

6.7 DECISION-MAKING PROCEDURE

This section examines respondents' views on the following collaborative issues:

- Who decides who can participate in the project's planning.
- How it is decided who can participate in the planning.
- What procedures are used to reach decisions among the participants.

12) *Who decides who can participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?*

Twenty-one of the 29 respondents answered that the Planning Unit had decided who would participate in the project's planning process. Of these twenty-one respondents, one NGO-R respondent answered that when the decision was of a technical nature, that is when a specialist was needed for a given field of expertise, then the decision was made by the Planning Unit, but when the decision was more political in nature,

then the mayors had decided who could participate. Similarly, another G-L respondent said that the Planning Unit had chosen the participants for the planning process as a whole, but that local mayors had decided who would participate in the planning process at the local level. Among the eight respondents who did not primarily identify the Planning Unit, three named the Chief State Secretary of Planning and Development and one indicated that the decision was made by all participants. Three respondents were not sure about who made decisions about who could participate, although two of these thought it might have been the Planning Unit and one tended to favour the Chief State Secretary of Planning and Development. One G-L respondent did not know who had decided. These findings suggest that there was wide recognition of the power of the Planning Unit in deciding who would participate directly in the project planning.

13) How is it decided who participates in the planning process for the project?

Again as many as twenty-one out of 29 respondents answered that the Planning Unit had decided who could participate in the planning process, indicating that many participants were aware of this influential role for the Planning Unit. Here two of the Planning Unit staff made the point that the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit had a strong influence on the final decision. One of these two respondents stated that "the 'hammer' is always held by the Co-ordinator General, the final word is always his, despite the fact that he used to listen to us, to consult with us". However, the Planning Unit's Assessor for Legislation noted that once a decision was reached that a new stakeholder should be invited to participate, then that decision was submitted by the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit to the Chief State Secretary of Planning and Development before a final decision was made.

The respondents identified several ways in which the Planning Unit gathered information about who to participate. First, sometimes members of the Planning Unit had identified relevant stakeholders and this was on occasions accompanied by consultations with the other participants and even with non-participants in order to get agreement about their participation. Second, the Planning Unit had run workshops in which potential participants were identified. Third, the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit had drawn up a list of potential participants, and had asked other members of the Planning Unit to suggest other additions. Then, the members of the Planning Unit tried to reach consensus among themselves concerning whom to invite. Fourth, the Planning Unit had also identified potential participants on the basis of the

emergent issues and needs during the planning process. And fifth, it was mentioned that one potential participant had also been suggested by a non-participant.

Among the eight respondents who did not argue that the Planning Unit had the lead role, one respondent answered that decisions were reached through the agreement of all participants, although it was the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit who finally invited stakeholders to join the planning process. The remaining seven respondents stated that they did not know how decisions were reached on who participated. Of these seven stakeholders one was G-R, one P-N and five were G-L. This might suggest that local-level government stakeholders were not well informed about the processes and politics of decision-making in the project.

14) What procedure or procedures are used to reach decisions among the participants?

Twenty-one of the 29 respondents mentioned that project decisions were made among participants mainly through the meetings and occasional workshops. Seventeen out of these twenty-one respondents mentioned in one form or another that the approach to decision-making embraced aspects of consensus-building. A member of the Planning Unit claimed that in the meetings there was usually an open discussion among participants about issues on the agenda and decisions were reached on an accepted understanding that no one party should impose its views on the others. Another member of the Planning Unit explained that "everybody is given an opportunity to express their views and we try to reach agreed decisions via consensus". A G-L respondent similarly recalled that in the meetings "you express your view, someone else disagrees, another one joins the discussion and puts another opinion forward, that is, through expressing opinions and suggestions and by discussing them, you reach decisions". The Mayor of a participating municipality explained how the discussions had included "round tables, forums and seminars [in which we] have always tried to reach a consensus, and we've usually reached that objective". Broadly, similar general explanations about the decision-making procedure in the meetings were provided by all of the seventeen respondents.

The use of workshops was mentioned by many respondents. The workshops took place either at the Planning Unit or at a co-implementing organisation's office and, while they were usually completed in a single day, they were sometimes extended to two or three days. It was explained that in the workshops all participants were asked

to write down their views on cards, which were then sorted out according to main themes. When there were identified overlaps or conflicts of views among participants, then they discussed the issues further and they attempted to reach an agreed or consensual view. Usually, some views were excluded, others were merged and new ones emerged as a result of the discussion. A G-R respondent observed that in the workshops "everybody intervenes in everybody else's field of duty ... Decisions are made in a consensual way. In my view, that's a type of team work".

According to the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit, the major planning decisions had been made in a participative way, which meant that they would "sit, spend a whole day together, discuss actions, suggestions are made and the discussions go on through consensus-building approaches and other methods proper for participative planning. The planning wouldn't work if it wasn't participative". However, he also added that "As to the daily and less important things, it's different, decisions are made by the Planning Unit through its co-ordinators for specific technical fields, the ones who know their job more than the others". This suggests a distinction had been made between strategic decision-making which should be discussed by all parties and much more specific operational decisions which were left to individual Planning Unit staff.

The evidence so far suggests that in the meetings and workshops, the participants considered that they themselves made decisions largely based on consensus-building approaches, but there is strong evidence that the participants felt that the Planning Unit exerted considerable control over the overall decision-making process, particularly by having the last word regarding many final policy decisions. For example, a G-N respondent observed that "there is always an exchange of information, the group try to reach a consensus, but the final decision lies with the Planning Unit". This opinion was expressed by four other respondents, including two Planning Unit members. One of these explained this aspect of decision-making for the project by saying that "when all decisions have been made, we [the Planning Unit] adopt those decisions that we consider are the most correct ones". A G-N respondent also remarked that "it's up to the members of the Planning Unit to decide ... They listen to others but that's only in a consultative way ... In real participation you do make decisions, while in a consultative approach you only express opinions".

6.8 SETTING THE COLLABORATIVE AGENDA

This section examines participants' views on the following collaborative issues:

- Which participants had an input in establishing the project's planning agenda.
- Who decided which participants would have an input in establishing the project's planning agenda.
- How it was decided which issues would be included in the planning agenda.

15) Which participants have had an input in establishing the planning agenda for the Costa Dourada project?

As many as 24 of the 29 respondents mentioned that members of the Planning Unit had influenced the establishment of the planning agenda, and often they suggested this had been a very substantial input (see Table 6.14). One Planning Unit member mentioned that they had also tried more recently to involve the Planning Co-ordination of the State Secretary of Planning and Development (COPLAN/SEPLANDES) in setting the agenda. The respondent contended that this "is a result of this broadened view of the project as a programme for regional development". Four of the 29 respondents mentioned that local mayors have also had an input in establishing the planning agenda for the project. Four out of 29 respondents (three G-L and one P-N) were uncertain about who had an input in establishing the project's planning agenda. Again, this suggests that the municipal representatives may not be fully informed about how some important decisions are made about the project.

16) Who decided which participants would have an input in establishing the planning agenda for the project?

Similar to the previous question, a substantial portion, eighteen, of the 29 respondents mentioned that the Planning Unit had decided which participants would be involved in establishing the planning agenda for the project. One respondent mentioned that all the participants were involved in establishing the planning agenda. Ten respondents did not know who decided who would have an input in the planning agenda, which is perhaps because they were not involved in the early stage of the planning process when these decisions were often made.

17) How was it decided which issues would be included on the planning agenda for the project?

As discussed in Chapter 5, the main instrument marking the start of the Costa Dourada project planning was a report prepared by a consultancy firm, which sought to identify the tourist resources of the north coastal area of Alagoas state and to

establish the project's conceptual guidelines. The report *Projeto Costa Dourada - 2ª Etapa (Costa Dourada project - 2nd Phase)* (CODEAL, 1993) was generally referred to by respondents as the Conceptual Project. When respondents were asked how was it decided which issues would be included in the planning agenda, the most

Table 6.14 Participants that had an input in establishing the planning agenda for the Costa Dourada project.

Participants that had an input in establishing the planning agenda	Number of respondents who mentioned the participant
Members of the Planning Unit for the project	24
The mayors of the municipalities affected by the project	4
The Steering Committee of the Management Plan of the North Coast of Alagoas	2
All participants	1

frequent response was that participants had tended to accept the issues included in the Conceptual Project (see Table 6.15). The consultants who had prepared the Conceptual Project had established the main issues to be included in the planning agenda for the project by generally following the guidelines for the project set by the Interamerican Development Bank and the conceptualisation of the PRODETUR/NE by the federal government.

The members of the Planning Unit had understood that the Conceptual Project had laid down the main general issues to be included in the planning agenda for the project. Nevertheless, they had also concluded that there were other issues that could be incorporated into their strategy. As a member of the Planning Unit observed, they "decided to develop a personal interpretation of the project's strategy". Likewise, another member of the Planning Unit explained that "what we did was to integrate some other [issues]". A member of the Planning Unit also argued that when the Planning Unit was set up the Conceptual Project was out-dated, so the Planning Unit decided to re-examine it and to include other issues they considered in line with the vision they wanted for the project. He stated that, while the Planning Unit welcomed the Conceptual Project, they were concerned that it had been developed by a consultancy firm based in a different region of the country and they wanted to include new information and issues based on the knowledge and experience of stakeholders in the project area. Another respondent remarked "later on, the participants made suggestions that became amendments to the project's planning agenda".

Table 6.15 Approaches and sources used by members of the Planning Unit to decide which issues to include in the planning agenda for the Costa Dourada project.

Inputs into agenda setting	Number of respondents who mentioned this information source
The Conceptual Project that was designed by a consultancy firm.	7
Discussions between the Planning Unit and the other participants.	6
An initial large workshop that included participants and non-participants.	5
Discussions between members of the Planning Unit.	5
Workshops with the participants.	4
Guidelines set by the main financing organisation the Interamerican Development Bank and its representative in Brazil for the project, the Bank of the Northeast.	2
The concept of the Programme for Tourism Development of the Northeast (PRODETUR/NE).	2
Seminars with participants and non-participants.	1
Suggestions made by the Steering Committee of the Management Plan of the North Coast Alagoas to the Planning Unit.	1
Suggestions made by participants on an individual basis to the Planning Unit.	1

In order to integrate other issues and then fine-tune the planning agenda to incorporate the concerns of multiple stakeholders in the project's area, the Planning Unit resorted to the approaches included in Table 6.15. Seven of the 29 respondents did not know how the issue included in the planning agenda had been decided, perhaps again due to this being decided fairly early on in the life of the project. Also, two of these seven respondents had joined the planning for the project just a few months prior to the interview for this research.

6.9 DEALING WITH CONSTITUENCIES

This section examines respondents' views on the following collaborative issues, which are important considerations in relation to whether the stakeholder representatives operated relatively democratically in relation to their constituencies:

- Whether the participants consulted with their constituencies about progress in the project's planning.
- Whether the participants considered it important to consult with their constituencies.
- Whether the participants reported to their constituencies about planning progress.
- Whether the participants considered it important to report to their constituencies about the project's planning.

4) *I consult with my constituents before planning decisions are made concerning the Costa Dourada project* [from the questionnaire].

[1]
Strongly
disagree

[3]
Somewhat
disagree

[0]
Neither disagree
nor agree

[8]
Somewhat
agree

[17]
Strongly
agree

[0]
Don't
know

Most answers fell into the 'somewhat agree' and 'strongly agree' categories. The first of these two categories was mentioned eight times and the second category 17 times. Altogether, 25 out of 29 responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, which suggests that the representatives themselves consider that they do consult with their constituents. One G-L respondent strongly disagreed with the statement, and one G-R and two G-L respondents somewhat disagreed with the statement, indicating that four respondents were prepared to admit they were not active in this respect.

5) *It is important to consult with my constituents before planning decisions are made concerning the Costa Dourada project* [from the questionnaire].

[0]	[1]	[1]	[3]	[24]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

As many as twenty-four out of 29 respondents marked the 'strongly agree' category, which shows that at least the desirability of such consultation was widely recognised. Three respondents somewhat agreed with the statement. Altogether, 27 of the 29 responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale. Perhaps surprisingly in a democratic system, one G-L respondent somewhat disagreed with the statement and one G-N respondent neither disagreed nor agreed with the statement.

6) *I report to my constituents about the planning decisions that are made concerning the Costa Dourada project* [from the questionnaire].

[0]	[0]	[1]	[5]	[23]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

As many as 23 of the 29 respondents marked the 'strongly agree' category that they reported on decisions to their constituents, which is quite significantly more than the proportion who 'strongly agreed' that they had consulted with them prior to planning decisions being made (17 of 29). This suggests that the participants may have been more active in reporting on decisions than they were in consulting prior to decisions being reached. Arguably, the latter is far more important for wider consultation in the collaborative planning process. Five respondents somewhat agreed with the statement. Altogether, 28 out of 29 responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, which is impressive if it can be taken at face value. One G-N respondent, the same as in Question 5 above, neither disagreed nor agreed with the statement.

7) *It is important to report to my constituents about planning decisions that are made concerning the Costa Dourada project* [from the questionnaire].

[0]
Strongly
disagree

[0]
Somewhat
disagree

[0]
Neither disagree
nor agree

[2]
Somewhat
agree

[27]
Strongly
agree

[0]
Don't
know

Twenty-seven out of 29 respondents marked the 'strongly agree' category. Two respondents somewhat agreed with the statement. Therefore, all 29 responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, indicating all participants broadly agreed with at least the desirability of reporting back on decisions about the project to their constituency.

6.10 CONSIDERATION OF THE VIEWS OF ALL PARTICIPANTS

More inclusive collaborative arrangements will promote a context where the views of all participants are given consideration, including the 'weaker voices' as well as 'strong voices' (Hall, 2000a). This will be influenced by the sincerity of the participants, the extent to which they are open to the ideas and dialogues of other stakeholders, and the degree to which trust emerges (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Jamal and Getz, 1999). Hence, this section examines respondents' views on the following collaborative issues:

- Whether the respondents considered all stakeholder groups had sufficient opportunity to express their views within the project's planning process.
- Whether the respondents considered the planning process had taken fully into account the views of all stakeholders.
- Whether they considered that their own organisation had had sufficient opportunity to express its own perspectives within the project's planning process.
- Whether they considered it was likely that the other participants would take fully into account the views of their own organisation.

18) *In your view, have all municipal, state and federal level participants had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the Costa Dourada project within its planning process?*

Probes: If yes, *how was this achieved?*
If no, *which participant or participants have not had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully, and why?* [for each one]

Twenty-three of the 29 respondents considered the participants had had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project, which is a sizeable proportion. When these 23 respondents were probed to explain how that had been achieved, their explanations ranged from mentions of the participation methodology to participants' attitudes in the planning process (see Table 6.16). As many as 18

respondents mentioned discussions in planning meetings and workshops as the reason why participants had had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully. Seven of these made specific reference to the effectiveness of the approach as used in the meetings and workshops. For example, one G-R respondent observed that the workshops were open to participation by the interested parties and the approach used

Table 6.16 Explanations of how municipal, state and federal level participants had felt able to express their views fully about the Costa Dourada project within its planning process.

How the participants had felt able to express their views fully about the project	Number of respondents who mentioned each explanation
Discussions among the participants in planning meetings and workshops.	18
The members of the Planning Unit were interested in participative planning.	2
The Planning Unit made the project known to all the stakeholders that could potentially participate in its planning process.	1
The Interamerican Development Bank demands that all organisations that are potentially affected by the project be given the opportunity to express their views about the project.	1
The members of the Planning Unit are competent planners.	1
The Planning Unit made frequent visits to the municipalities to listen to stakeholders.	1

was participative and democratic. A member of the Planning Unit said that this resulted from the methods used in meetings and workshops, "which has a focus on the visualisation of ideas. The Planning Unit has all sorts of resources to make presentations and for discussing the project". An NGO-N respondent expressed surprise at the outcomes of the first workshop she had attended: "I thought it was not going to have the effectiveness that it had. I think the approach used in the workshop helped a lot". Likewise, a G-N respondent observed that "the discussion is open to all opinions in all fields. I think there are no limitations on the expression of views whatsoever". An aspect of the participation approach mentioned by several respondents was that people of various levels of expertise and training and using different forms of dialogue could get their views across. For example, a G-N respondent explained that "everybody expresses their views and we can understand all levels of speech". That was similar to the view of a G-L respondent who noted that the participation approach used "provides you with all the conditions for you to express your views in the best possible way, because there in the workshops, we [are] all equals".

Despite the generally favourable responses, five of the 29 respondents did not consider the participants had the opportunity to express their views fully in the

project's planning process. Three of these are G-R participants, and the other two are G-L participants, indicating that government sector representatives were most aware of the limitations of the project in this respect. When these five respondents were probed to name which participants have not had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully and to explain why, they did not respond even when probed to do so. Instead, each of them offered an explanation related to the planning process itself. For example, a member of the Planning Unit explained that the participation process was still being developed, that they were still creating channels so that participants could express their views, and that the meetings had perhaps not been held as frequently as necessary. Another member of the Planning Unit argued that even the direct participants had had insufficient opportunity to express their views fully, suggesting that some had participated more in the Steering Committee of the Management Plan of the North Coast which feeds the Planning Unit with its views and suggestions. Others, he elaborated, had participated more directly in the Planning Unit but only in relation to specific issues. This respondent also indicated that IMA, EMATUR, DER and CASAL had had most opportunity to express their views about the project, and that local municipal government was a very important participant because "they had the opportunity to participate in a broad number of meetings. We discussed that project with all municipal governments, component by component". The other G-R respondent who was less satisfied with the opportunities to express views was also a member of the Planning Unit. He explained the shortcomings in this way: "We restricted ourselves to a set of actions that we consider to be priorities currently. First, we [all participants] developed a general vision and now we [members of the Planning Unit] are focusing on a set of priority projects", suggesting that at a higher decision-making level, participants who are not members of the Planning Unit have less opportunity to express their views about project planning.

19) In your view, have all the participants from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project within its planning process?

Probes: If yes, *how was this achieved?*
 If no, *which participant or participants have not had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully, and why? [for each one]*

Eighteen of the 29 respondents considered the participants had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully. Similar to the previous question, when the 18 respondents were probed to explain how that had been achieved they gave explanations ranging from mentions of the participation approach to how the

participants worked in the planning process (see Table 6.17). Fourteen respondents mentioned discussions in planning meetings and workshops as the reason why participants had had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully. Seven of these made reference also to the effectiveness of the approaches used in the meetings and workshops. One G-R respondent expressed it this way: "the meetings are open, there are no all-powerful people who will impose decisions upon the others. Those

Table 6.17 Explanations of how participants from the government, the private sector and NGOs had felt able to express their views fully about the Costa Dourada project within its planning process.

How the participants had felt able to express their views fully about the project	Number of respondents who mentioned each reason
Discussions among the participants in planning meetings and workshops.	14
The members of the Planning Unit were interested in participative planning.	2
The Planning Unit made the project known to all the stakeholders that could potentially participate in its planning process.	1
Through visits to the communities.	1

who didn't express their views, those who excluded themselves, did so for personal reasons, timidity, et cetera, because everybody who is present in the meetings has the right to speak and express their views". A comment by a G-L representative conveys a similar opinion, though he felt that the process had evolved slowly and also that some stakeholders were not fully prepared to participate in a complex planning process like the Costa Dourada project: "the Planning Unit has created no obstacles to participation, but as we're still learning how to develop an integrated planning approach, we sometimes have difficulty to express certain things. There are opportunities but they're not fully there. Part of that is the result of a lack of preparation by us, of not being fully prepared to capitalise on the planning process for the project to advance some interests". This response does hint at some interests being excluded due either to lack of preparedness or the threat it might bring. This respondent added that "at workshops and meetings in which the Planning Unit is one of the partners, dialogue is open".

However, nine of the 29 respondents did not consider the participants had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully in the project's planning process. Interestingly, four of those nine respondents were members of the Planning Unit, indicating recognition of limitations in this respect being greatest among public sector stakeholders involved with facilitating the planning process. Another two of these nine respondents are G-N participants and two others are G-L participants. The last of

these nine respondents mentioned above is an NGO-N participant. When those nine respondents were asked which participant or participants did not have the opportunity to express their views fully, and why, two respondents did not respond even when probed repeatedly. The other seven respondents named three stakeholders as having insufficient opportunity to express their views fully. Private-sector interests were mentioned six times by these seven respondents. Table 6.18 presents the stakeholders these respondents considered had an inadequate chance to express

Table 6.18 Stakeholders that in the respondents' views had not had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the Costa Dourada project in its planning process.

Stakeholders that had not had the opportunity to express their views	Explanation of why the stakeholders had not had the opportunity to express their views
The private sector (hotel, bars and restaurants).	They did not get involved in the planning process for the project despite the fact that they have been invited to participate.
Governmental organisations that are not participants.	Lack of capacity to participate in the planning process.
NGOs that are not participants.	Lack of capacity to participate in the planning process.

their views, and the reasons given for this. A member of the Planning Unit highlighted the lack of capacity of non-participating organisations as an explanation: "those organisations that should participate but that are not participating currently need to go through institutional strengthening to be able to participate". Commenting on the virtual absence of the private sector from the project's planning process, another member of the Planning Unit explained that they "lack mechanisms that would lead to information exchange with them". Another explanation he provided for their absence was that "The project is located in a very complex planning environment, within the State Secretary of Planning and Development, which is an organisation that is completely fragmented and is going through a process of change. In fact, Alagoas state has been subjected to an 'institutional run-over' ... It has faced economic, financial, administrative and political problems of a very serious nature". In this respondent's view, these problems of public administration had made the private sector sceptical about the planning capacity of the state government. For example, a different member of the Planning Unit said that they invited many private-sector tourism organisations, but "they didn't get involved because they don't believe in the process and also because some of them are only interested in things that can bring immediate results".

Two out of 29 respondents (P-N/G-L) did not know whether the participants had had the opportunity to express their views fully.

20) *In your view, has the planning process for the project taken fully into consideration the views of all municipal, state and federal-level participants?*

Probes: If yes, *in which way or ways?*

If no, *which participant's or participants' views have not been taken fully into consideration, and why?* [for each one]

A fairly healthy 23 of the 29 respondents considered the project's planning process had taken fully into consideration the views of all municipal, state and federal level participants. Table 6.19 presents respondents' opinions on how participants' views had been taken into consideration, with some respondents providing more than one answer. The twenty-three respondents who answered positively all mentioned that the participants were given the opportunity to express their views in planning meetings and workshops. A number also stated that the views were discussed in an open and democratic way, and some said that the policy decisions resulted from the development of consensus among the participants. For example, a G-R respondent explained that "there are extensive discussions in the workshops. Everybody expresses their views. Some of those views are excluded through a consensus-building process". A G-N stakeholder explained about the workshops that "everybody expresses their views on cards. These cards are shown to everybody and there is a discussion of all the ideas and eventually a final decision is reached on the basis of a consensus". A G-L respondent explained that "their views are discussed and decisions are reached on the basis of a consensus. Sure, all these participants have had an influence in the decisions in some way". Similarly, an NGO-R participant observed that the planning process was "an open, democratic and participative process. There are some documents that have been written in which I have seen our views registered, documented".

Only two of the 29 respondents considered that the planning process had failed to consider the views of all municipal, state and federal level participants. Even when asked to name which participants' views had not been taken fully into consideration, they did not name them. One of them, a G-R participant, explained himself thus: "We try to listen to those actors, but I'm not going to take the responsibility of saying that that has been achieved. I think it has to be a continuous search to create situations

Table 6.19 Respondents' opinions on how the views of municipal, state and federal-level participants had been taken into consideration in the planning process for the project.

How their views had been taken fully into consideration	Number of mentions
Through the development of a consensus among the participants in discussions in the planning meetings and workshops.	18
Through the incorporation of decisions made by the participants into reports.	7
Through the incorporation of decisions made by the participants into the project.	2
Through agreements made between the Planning Unit and other participants.	1

and procedures so that participation becomes the most effective possible". The other respondent, also a Planning Unit member, explained that it was difficult to work with some of the participants because "they think they know how to do their job. So, they don't need to discuss their actions within a wider organisational context. They think that these things [discussions in the planning process] are a waste of time. They think that the important things are the physical actions. So, the main problem is one of a lack of understanding by some of the participants of a new and participative way of planning, and also their inability to see planning in the light of a new vision". Such comments may reflect a greater perception of the difficulties faced by the collaborative arrangement, which may reflect greater understanding or honesty about the complexity of the process in spite of the general feelings of optimism.

Four out of 29 respondents, these being two G-L participants, one G-R participant and one P-N participant, claimed not to know whether the views of the participants had been taken fully into consideration.

21) In your view, has the planning process for the project taken fully into consideration the views of all participants from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations?

Probes: If yes, *in which way or ways?*

If no, *which participant's or participants' views have not been taken fully into consideration, and why?* [for each one]

Twenty-one of the 29 respondents stated that the project had taken fully into consideration the views of all participants from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations (as distinct from the municipal, state and federal-level participants identified in the previous question), which is perhaps a reasonable proportion. Table 6.20 presents the ways mentioned by respondents in which these participants' views had been taken fully into consideration. As with the previous question, the respondents explained that participants had had opportunities to

Table 6.20 Respondents' opinions on how the views of government, private sector and NGO participants had been taken into consideration in the planning process for the project.

How their views were taken fully into consideration	Number of mentions
Through the development of a consensus among the participants in discussions during planning meetings and workshops.	17
Through the incorporation of decisions into reports.	7
Through the incorporation of decisions into projects.	3

express their views in the planning meetings and workshops. Again, some stated that opinions were put forward in an open and democratic way, or that the resulting decisions were based on attempts to reach a negotiated or agreed view. However, a G-L representative admitted she was unsure how decisions agreed among participants were dealt with subsequently in the planning process: "I don't know how the Planning Unit articulates these decisions with other organisations at a higher decision-making level".

Three out of 29 respondents did not consider that the project's planning process had taken fully into consideration the views of all government, private sector and non-governmental participants. Despite probing, only one of these three respondents, a G-R participant, would name an excluded stakeholder group, in this case the private sector. He explained that representatives of hotels, bars and restaurants had not participated despite having been invited to join in. Five out of 29 respondents, two G-L participants, two G-R participants and one P-N participants, did not know whether the views of these participants had been taken fully into consideration in the planning process.

22) In your view, has your organisation had sufficient opportunity to express its views fully about the Costa Dourada project to the participants involved in the planning process for the project?

Probes: If yes, *in which way or ways?*
If no, *why not?*

Twenty-two of the 29 respondents considered that their organisation had had sufficient opportunities to express their views to other participants in the planning process. This is the most direct assessment of the extent to which diverse views, opinions and prejudices were listened to respectfully as responses are most obviously based on direct experience, and a very similar number had responded positively to the previous questions about the opportunities for specific stakeholder groups. Table 6.21 shows respondents' views on the ways that they expressed their views to other

Table 6.21 The ways in which the respondents expressed their views about the Costa Dourada project to the participants involved in its planning process.

Ways in which the respondents expressed their views about the project	Number of mentions
Through participation in planning meetings.	22
Through participation in planning workshops.	17
Through presentations in seminars.	2
Through the development of integrated actions with some participants.	1

participants in the planning process. It is notable that the planning workshops were mentioned almost as often as the more regular meetings.

Seven of the 29 respondents did not feel their own organisation had had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully, with these including four G-L participants, two G-R participants and one P-N participant. This suggests that local government participants were least satisfied with the extent to which their perspectives were actually 'heard' in the discussions. Two of these respondents claimed this resulted from communication problems with some organisations. For example, the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit explained that "Our communication system in the planning for the project is still underdeveloped. We haven't been able to communicate with all participants as efficiently as we'd like to be able to. It takes time". This is perhaps a significant admission from a key facilitator of the whole initiative. Two other respondents said the Planning Unit had not invited their organisation to meetings as often as it should, with one of these, a G-L representative, arguing that "The Planning Unit may have invited more often larger municipalities which are more representative in political terms as well as in terms of finance and population". However, this respondent also said that her municipality had only recently joined the project's planning process. Another respondent claimed that his organisation was not a full participant, suggesting that despite having attended several planning meetings (and having qualified as a participant based on the study methodology) they did not consider they had the same amount of influence as other organisations on the decision-making process. Another local government respondent explained that the participants themselves have not created more opportunities to express their views due to specific political difficulties, and also some stakeholders in his municipality were less involved than they might be because they were unable to understand fully the planning process or the significance of the project: "It's not the fault of the other participants. We ourselves have not created opportunities due to political problems. For example, this is an election year and decisions at the municipal level are sort of on hold ... Also, to some extent there has been a gap

between the Planning Unit and us in the sense that sometimes information gets to us a little too late ... This is a small municipality. There are only two or three people here who have really understood the planning process for the project. Others are reluctant and you have to try and bring them together so that we can have the same way of thinking and be able to propose actions to the other participants. I cannot propose certain actions for my municipality when some important local actors do not recognise the value of our participation in the project's planning process. Then, we need to slow it down a bit. In the meantime, the project advances".

23) *In your view, are the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project likely to take fully into consideration the views of your organisation?*

Probes: If yes, *in which way or ways?*
If no, *why not?*

Like in the previous question, twenty-two of the 29 respondents considered that the participants in the planning process were likely to take fully into consideration the views of their own organisations. Table 6.22 shows that the ways in which respondents felt their views were likely to be taken into account were also very similar as earlier, with the meetings and workshops predominant.

A G-R participant took a very positive line that "the opinion of everybody is observed and is treated with the respect each of the participants deserves ... When we're together we are working toward the development of a serious and important project for Alagoas. So, the opinion of everybody is treated with respect". Most respondents spoke about their own organisation's views being given adequate consideration.

For example, a Planning Unit member argued that the other participants were able to take into account the views of the Unit because its members were technically well-prepared and able to express their views with clarity. He was satisfied that "from the contacts we've had with these actors, I believe we've been able to get the idea across, the conception that we're developing". Similarly, another Planning Unit member suggested that their views have been taken into consideration because "the Planning Unit has a lot of credibility with the other participants, and we've also been able to reach agreed decisions along the process of negotiation". Interestingly, another Planning Unit member thought that a key reason why their views had been given due attention was because the Planning Unit "has the capacity of fine-tuning their

Table 6.22 The ways in which the views of the respondents' organisations were likely to be taken fully into consideration by the participants involved in the planning process for the project.

Ways in which the views of the respondents' organisations were likely to be taken fully into consideration	Number of mentions
Through participation in planning meetings.	15
Through participation in planning workshops.	12
Through the incorporation of the organisation's interests into the decision-making process.	4
The organisation's representative is well-prepared and is able to work out ideas and put them across in a clear way.	2
The Planning Unit is interested in the organisation's information.	2

language in their dealings with the other organisations in order for them to understand our views. That's the main factor leading to their accepting our views". This is a perceptive observation about the significance of language and differing technical skills within the negotiation processes.

A local government representative explained that his municipality's views were taken into consideration because they had obvious political power: "My municipality has a lot of power. So, as an extension of that, everybody there [in the Planning Unit] has to some extent a lot of respect for my work". Another G-L respondent felt that his opinions were being considered because "we meet and discuss and agree about things, then later on I usually see those things in the documents ... They ratify our views". The importance of power was explicitly identified by a G-N representative who suggested that other organisations have taken his views into account because they need to retain support from his organisation: "My organisation's views are respected. There are a number of issues in relation to which the other participants turn to us for information. This is the case with fiscal incentives, articulation with other programmes ... Our opinion is respected despite the reduced decision-making power that we have in relation to this programme". An NGO-N representative appeared more modest in her expectations of her influence on policy decisions, arguing that her participation was itself some recognition of her organisation's stance: "the fact that we have been invited to participate is a sign of that. We've also been chosen as a member for the Management Group [Group for the Co-ordination and Follow-up of the Integrated Actions for the Sustainable Development of the North Coast of Alagoas]. And we're often invited to attend meetings and to express our views about specific issues". A G-N representative gave a specific illustration of how other organisations had taken account of her own organisation's concerns: "For example, there is the granting permission system. IMA and the municipalities have either discussed the interests of my organisation in the region or they have incorporated its interests directly into their

actions". A P-N respondent felt that his organisation's views were taken into consideration because of the way the other participants reacted to his opinions: "they listen to and discuss them and provide feed-back". One G-L respondent similarly noted that "when the meetings are run, participation is quite democratic. Our views are expressed, they are discussed and decisions are made".

Despite the generally positive responses, seven of the 29 respondents did not consider that the participants involved in the planning process were likely to take fully into consideration the views of their own organisation. Five out of these seven respondents are G-R participants (four are also Planning Unit members), one is a G-L participant and one an NGO-R participant. Hence, the regional public sector planners were perhaps surprisingly negative about the extent to which their views would be given adequate consideration. A G-R respondent, and member of the Planning Unit, noted that "they [other participants] tend to accept more easily things that are related to their interests. They tend to put aside those things they perceive will take a long time to consolidate". Another G-R representative responded that some participants were likely to listen sufficiently to his organisation's views while others were not, explaining that "some of them have an old-fashioned planning style whereby they see little outside their immediate planning area. These ones are unlikely to have a vision that encompasses the work of other organisations. Others are quite advanced. They understand and are interested in working within a new paradigm, the one of having a vision of all the other organisations affected by their action. IMA is an example of this". Hence, some regional public sector representatives appear quite concerned that some parties would be less receptive to "new ideas", to compromising on fixed positions, or possibly even to the Planning Unit's vision of "progress" to which they subscribed. In the view of a NGO-R respondent, the lack of consideration given to his organisation's views "is a normal thing due to the fact that the organisations have different perspectives on the [issues]". The influence of power differentials is also found in the comment of a G-L respondent, who implicitly noted the potential obstacle to respectful listening due to the supposed superiority of technical knowledge. This respondent explained that several participants are "specialist planners with expertise in their respective fields of knowledge. So, they are interested in their own opinions".

6.11 IMPLEMENTATION OF PLANNING DECISIONS

This study necessarily focuses on the early stages of the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. The study cannot examine in any depth the longer-term implementation of decisions made in the project. Instead, it would only consider

whether or not the participants perceived that the project's decisions were likely to be fully implemented. As a consequence, the following question was included in the participants' questionnaire:

8) *The decisions made in the planning for the Costa Dourada project are likely to be fully implemented.*

[1]	[0]	[0]	[19]	[9]	[0]
Strongly	Somewhat	Neither disagree	Somewhat	Strongly	Don't
disagree	disagree	nor agree	agree	agree	know

Similar to the responses to several previous questions, the participants were reasonably positive about the prospects of their decisions actually being implemented. For example, 28 of the 29 participants generally agreed that the project decisions would be fully implemented. This reflects the perhaps overly positive attitude of most participants concerning the project's planning process as a whole. However, it is interesting that 19 of the respondents only 'somewhat agreed' with the prospects that the decisions would be fully implemented. Despite the fact that the project planning was in an early stage, the relative caution shown by these 19 participants might be explained by the various types of participation difficulties mentioned by respondents in other questions, leading them to conclude that such difficulties may also affect the implementation work. Also, this may reflect some uncertainty about the future of a project that was conceived and is being planned in a context that is affected by socio-economic, political and administrative turbulence. Nonetheless, only one participant (G-L) actually 'strongly disagreed' that decisions would be fully implemented.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the collaborative processes involved in planning for the Costa Dourada project. The chapter assessed four broad themes. First, the range of stakeholders involved in the project's planning. Second, the methods and techniques used by participants in the project's planning process. Third, the factors that influenced whether stakeholders participated in the planning process; and, finally, the processes of collaboration used by the participants.

Tourism scholars have demonstrated the potential benefits of collaboration to advance solutions to domain-level problems (Selin, 1993; Jamal and Getz, 1997; Parker, 1999; Fyall *et al.*, 2000). However, there is some scepticism about the capacity of collaboration to advance equitable solutions when arrangements can be more inclusive of specific public and private-sector interests than the interests of

society at large (Hall, 2000a). Here, the power relations are a major issue in tourism planning (Reed, 1997; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999), in that some groups may have more control than others over the collaborative process and outcomes.

The previous chapter and results here suggest that the planning process for the Costa Dourada project illustrates a tourism problem-domain affected by turbulence, complexity and some stakeholder uncertainty (Jamal and Getz, 1995). The project aims to build regional-scale physical and social infrastructure required for the sustainable, tourism-led development of the north coast of Alagoas as a strategy to solve serious regional socio-economic problems, such as a declining sugar-cane economy, high unemployment and illiteracy rates, and deficiencies in health care and education (CODEAL, 1993; SEPLAN, 1994; SEPLANDES, 1998). In this context what has been learnt from the present findings about the collaborative planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

At the time of the fieldwork in mid-1998 the project collaborative planning process directly involved 29 stakeholders, including 10 local-scale, 13 regional-scale and six national-scale organisations. While there was a relatively broad spread of organisations by geographical scale, the situation was rather different concerning the types of participating stakeholders. For example, there were 26 governmental organisations, including 10 local, 12 regional and four national-scale organisations, but only two NGOs and one private-sector organisation. Hence, almost all the regular participants in the planning meetings were in the public sector. However, among these public-sector organisations there was a broad spread across national, regional and local spatial scales and also between the policy areas of regional development, tourism, coastal management, transport, public utilities and environment. At the regional scale there is strong representation from the different policy areas of the PRODETUR/AL.

The local-scale participants all represent the local municipal government who constitutionally represent the interests of their community, including business and non-governmental organisations. In this sense representation could be depicted as broader than it first appears. In this context too the 10 municipalities had each organised at least one large workshop open to the community, and the outcomes of these workshops had been consolidated into reports to the Planning Unit for the project. Additionally, the local representatives in the project's planning process were supposed to have regular meetings with the affected stakeholders at the local scale.

Nevertheless, there still remains a conspicuous lack of direct business representatives at local and regional scales as well as of non-governmental organisations at the local scale.

The examination of the stated objectives of each participating stakeholder does suggest that the project's collaborative planning process involved a broad range of interests, suggesting significant potential for an integration at the regional level of the multiple, multi-scale affected interests. In particular, analysis of the objectives stated by the local representatives identifies very diverse interests, including concern for education, health care, planning, job creation, training provision, improvements in the quality of life, creation of infrastructure and sustainable development. However, the lack of direct representatives of business interests at local and regional scales and of non-governmental interests at the local scale inevitably reduced the diversity of the stated objectives, and is potentially a problem for the collaboration in the long term.

The methods most widely used in the planning process involved forms of face-to-face interaction between participants, with the meetings and workshops accounting for over 61% of the mentions of methods used. Face-to-face interaction is essential for collaborative planning as it offers potential to promote discussion, negotiation and the use of consensus-building. Indeed, these features of the planning process were often mentioned. It is interesting that only four respondents mentioned the use of e-mail, a technique probably taken for granted in developed countries. Instead, the use of telephone conversations accounted for 26 out of the 175 mentions of the methods used. Overall, 83% of references to the effectiveness of the methods used by the participants fell on the 'effective' side of the scale, suggesting that there was generally a positive attitude to the effectiveness of their collective participation as a whole.

All 29 respondents stated that their organisation gained benefits from working together with the other participants in the planning process that they would not gain by working on their own. This suggests that there was some degree of perceived interdependence between the participating organisations (Wood and Gray, 1991; Jamal and Getz, 1995), and this might indicate there is good potential for the participants to work together collaboratively (Gray, 1989). Whether the participants are successful in achieving consensus-based decisions and agreements is discussed in Chapter 7. The respondents identified 14 types of perceived benefits that their organisations gained from working together in the planning process that they would not otherwise gain. The leading perceived benefits were: (a) access to the

knowledge and expertise of other organisations; (b) an increased integration of planning; (c) an increase in their own organisation's responsiveness relative to the project's demands; and (d) an increase in their own organisation's influence and power in the region.

The respondents identified 15 types of reasons for stakeholder involvement in the project planning, covering various regional, domain-level co-ordination planning and management functions. The most commonly identified were to allow stakeholders to contribute to discussions, to make each organisation's resources available to the planning process, to influence the decision-making process, to provide a bridge between each organisation's objectives and those of the project's objectives, and to secure the co-ordination of action between the organisations and the Planning Unit.

Participation processes in the project planning were highly influenced by the Planning Unit, and here decisions were made quite hierarchically. For example, 21 of the 29 participants mentioned that decisions about who could participate in the planning process were made by Planning Unit members. However, the respondents described how the Planning Unit members had consulted with other participants and, when necessary, also with non-participants before decisions were made to invite new participants. But after this consultation, the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit submitted his proposals for participants to the Chief State Secretary of Planning and Development for a final decision.

Twenty-one of the 29 participants mentioned that major decisions were made mainly in meetings and occasionally in workshops, and 17 respondents mentioned that decisions were made based on discussion and negotiation, which are basic requirements of a consensus-building approach. However, in the views of five respondents, once a decision was agreed by participants, the Planning Unit might not ultimately accept and act upon it. For example, one member of the Planning Unit suggested that its staff may have endorsed some decisions they were not fully in agreement with during the discussions as a means to avoid extended discussion and conflict, and then these decisions were ignored subsequently. A major influence on the setting of the preliminary planning agenda was that this drew substantially on a Conceptual Project undertaken by a consultancy firm, but the Planning Unit had decided to broaden the scope of this planning agenda. In doing this they consulted with several other participants and also non-participants in the planning process.

An important aspect of collaborative planning is whether participants' views are taken fully into consideration by the other participants. In this respect, it was established that most respondents felt that they had been given sufficient opportunities to express their views in the planning process, with the main exception being that the views of the private sector were poorly represented. Reference was made by respondents to the absence of governmental and non-governmental organisations who may not have the capacity to participate in the planning process. Nonetheless, over 20 of the 29 respondents considered that the views of their own organisation and also of the other participating organisations were likely to be taken fully into account in the planning process. Finally, 28 of the 29 respondents were confident that the planning decisions they had helped make were likely to be fully implemented.

The next chapter examines the degree to which collaboration and consensus had emerged by mid-1998 among the participants in the project's planning process.

Chapter 7: The Degree of Collaboration in the Planning Process

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Scholars in several research fields propose that when stakeholders appreciate their mutual interdependence in relation to a domain-level problem they may get together and work collaboratively to attempt to craft a collectively-agreed solution to the problem (Trist, 1983; Wood and Gray, 1991; Long and Arnold, 1995; Huxham, 1996). This phenomenon has also been identified in the tourism field (Selin, 1993; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Parker, 1999; Fyall *et al.*, 2000; Caffyn, 2000). However, a collaborative arrangement may not always be successful, and even when stakeholders manage to collaborate they may not succeed in establishing shared agreements. Such failures occur despite the fact that collaboration is required for the participating stakeholders to establish domain-level solutions to inter-organisational conflicts or to advance shared visions (Gray, 1989).

One key aim of this study is to evaluate the degree to which collaboration is reached in practice in the regional tourism planning process for the Costa Dourada project. This project's collaborative arrangement was mandated in that the government of Alagoas state had created a Planning Unit with the objective of organising an inter-organisational domain to plan for the project. The Alagoas' government also determined that there should be stakeholder participation in the project's planning process and made legal and administrative provisions for this to be pursued (Trist, 1983; DOE/AL, 1996a, 1996b).

This chapter will examine the detailed findings of the study concerning the degree of collaboration reached in the project's planning process. It explores the importance assigned by the participants to collaborative aspects such as giving full consideration to the views and priorities of the other participants, supporting collectively-agreed decisions and compliance with shared rules in the planning process. The discussion then progresses to assess how the key findings here relate to the concept of collaborative tourism planning at the regional level.

7.2 CONSIDERATION OF THE VIEWS OF PARTICIPANTS

This section examines the following issues:

- Whether the respondents considered it important that the planning for the Costa

Dourada project gives full consideration to the views of all participants.

- Whether in the respondents' view the participants appeared to consider it important to give full consideration to the views of all other participants.

9) *It is important that the planning process for the Costa Dourada project gives full consideration to the views of all participants involved in the planning process for the project.*

[0]	[0]	[0]	[6]	[23]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

This question examines the participants' expectations as to whether the planning process should give attention to the opinions of all the participants in this process. Perhaps unsurprisingly, all 29 answers fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, with six selecting 'somewhat agree' and as many as 23 'strongly agree'. On balance, this is a positive response which does suggest at least in theory that most participants themselves were inclined to participate in a democratic process of respectful listening and mutual consideration.

10) *It is important to give full consideration to the views of all participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.*

[1]	[0]	[0]	[7]	[21]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

This question relates to the importance placed by each respondent on themselves giving attention to the perspectives and views of the other participants in the project planning. Twenty-eight answers fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, with seven indicating they 'somewhat agreed', and 21 'strongly agreed'. However, one G-R respondent, a member of the Planning Unit, strongly disagreed with the statement, and as many as seven only 'somewhat agreed'.

11) *In my view, the other participants appear to consider it important to give full consideration to the views of all participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.*

[1]	[2]	[2]	[16]	[8]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

This question examines how the respondents perceive their views were treated by the other participants. While 24 answers fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, as many as

16 respondents 'somewhat agreed' and only eight 'strongly agreed'. It is noteworthy that the overall pattern of responses to this question was generally less positive than for the two previous questions. In addition, one G-L respondent 'strongly disagreed', one G-R respondent and one P-N respondent 'somewhat disagreed' and one G-R respondent and one G-N respondent 'neither disagreed nor agreed' with the statement. This question was deliberately phrased to encourage respondents directly to compare the 'ideal' with the 'reality', and it clearly produced a somewhat less positive response overall. These results may more accurately reflect how confident participants feel that their interests will be paid due attention in the project planning because they are based on their actual practical experience so far. The results indicate some scepticism among stakeholders that participants will be fully committed to an equitable treatment of participants' views.

7.3 CONSIDERATION OF THE PRIORITIES OF PARTICIPANTS

This section focuses on whether the respondents considered it important that the project planning gives full consideration to the preferences or priorities of all participants. It is intended to further probe the extent of commitment to the equitable treatment of the interests of all the parties involved. It recognises that negotiation will always lead to some views gaining more acceptance than others, but that this does not necessarily negate the importance of giving due consideration to the priorities of all participants.

12) It is important that the planning for the Costa Dourada project gives full consideration to the planning priorities of all participants from the municipal, state and federal levels of government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations.

[0]	[0]	[0]	[7]	[22]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

When the issue was examined in general terms, in other words, in more ideal than practical terms, all respondents agreed that it was important that the project planning gave full consideration to the participants' priorities, with as many as 22 respondents having 'strongly agreed' with this. This indicates that at least in principle there was high receptivity among participants to the idea of giving full consideration to the interests of all stakeholders included in the project's inter-organisational planning domain.

13) In my view, the other participants appear to consider it important to give full

consideration to the planning priorities of all participants from the municipal, state and federal levels of government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations.

[2]	[0]	[3]	[14]	[9]	[1]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

This question was deliberately phrased to encourage respondents directly to compare the 'ideal' with the 'reality' and the results indicate that at times they did not see acceptance by the other participants of the need to listen to the preferences of others. For example, while twenty-three answers fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, as many as 14 only 'somewhat agreed' and just nine 'strongly agreed'. In addition, one G-L and one P-N respondent 'strongly disagreed' and three G-R respondents 'neither disagreed nor agreed' with the statement, suggesting that several government officials were particularly sceptical as to whether the collaborating stakeholders gave due consideration to all interests involved in the project's planning process.

7.4 SUPPORTING COLLECTIVE DECISIONS

This section examines the following issues:

- Whether the respondents were aware of any decisions that were supported and agreed collectively by the participants but that may not be in the best interest of any of them.
- Whether the respondents considered that the participants were likely to support such decisions.

24) Are you aware of any decision or decisions that were supported and agreed collectively by the participants but may not be in the best interest of one or more participants in the planning process for the project?

Probes: If yes, *please provide details.*

If no, *in your view, do all participants appear to accept that it may be necessary for them to support decisions that are agreed collectively but may not be in their respective organisation's best interest?*

Thirteen of the 29 respondents were aware of decisions that were supported and agreed collectively by participants but that might not be in the best interest of one or more participants in the project's planning. Eleven of these 13 respondents identified one decision each. One respondent identified two decisions. The remaining respondent said he was sure there were such decisions, although he did not remember any that could be mentioned during the interview. Table 7.1 presents the

decisions that respondents identified as having been supported and agreed collectively but that may not be in the best interest of one or more participants. This table also presents the stated views on stakeholders for whom the decisions may not have been in their best interest. These findings indicate that the local government was identified 11 times out of 13 mentions of a stakeholder whose interests have been affected adversely by collective decisions in the project decision-making process. Considering the critical socio-economic problems with a claim for a rapid solution in the affected municipalities, these findings highlight the acceptance of the need for compromises and trade-offs by these and other participants in order for collaborative agreements to be reached. This may also be an indication of how dependent local government felt on other participants to advance more co-ordinated solutions to municipal development problems that might be more effective in the long

Table 7.1 Decisions that respondents identified as having been supported and agreed collectively but that may not be in the best interest of one or more participants.

Decisions that have been supported and agreed collectively by participants	Stakeholders for whom the decisions may not be in their best interest	Number of respondents who mentioned this decision
The decision to build two centres for processing and disposing the solid waste generated by the 10 municipalities affected by the project. One centre will be located in the Municipality of Porto Calvo and the other in the municipality of São Luiz do Quitunde	The mayors of these two municipalities. They thought they could sort out the solid waste problems of their respective municipalities on their own.	7
Project implementation will start in the Municipality of Maragogi, with the building of water and sewage systems.	The mayors of the other nine municipalities affected by the project. 'The other mayors complain a lot about many things being approved first for the Municipality of Maragogi at the expense of their interests' (G-L).	3
The mayors of the ten municipalities affected by the project as well as IMA should not grant permission for the development of new housing projects in the region for one year.	The private sector. 'The private sector may not like that because they are highly interested in those projects in the region' (G-R).	1
Some development projects are being designed without an Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) having been prepared.	IMA. 'I think the official environmental organisations really have to make the point that the environmental legislation has to be observed. We shouldn't subscribe to things to continue being developed without taking into consideration all aspects that should be considered in a search for sustainable development' (G-N).	1
The location of a road that is being built between the city of Barra de Santo Antônio and Morros de Camaragibe, the region where the main tourist centre of the project is to be built.	The Mayor of the Municipality of Porto Calvo. 'He wanted a location for that road that would benefit his municipality a little more' (G-L).	1

term. However, as the project develops into further stages the real test will come when very difficult decisions about resource priorities are made and also when decisions will significantly advantage and disadvantage specific stakeholders.

When the 16 out of 29 respondents who answered 'no' to Question 24 were probed as to whether in their view all participants appeared to accept that it might be necessary for them to support decisions that are agreed collectively but may not be in their respective organisation's best interest, 15 of these 16 respondents considered the participants appeared to accept that this may be necessary. The remaining respondent (G-L) answered he was not sure about that.

14) All participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project are likely to support decisions that are agreed collectively but are against their respective organisation's best interest.

[1]	[3]	[3]	[15]	[5]	[2]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

This question sought to gain opinions about the degree of commitment of all parties involved in the project planning when more difficult decisions have to be made which will adversely affect some of these partners. While 20 answers fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, as many as 15 were only 'somewhat agree' and just five said that they 'strongly agreed'. Additionally, this was the only question in the questionnaire where there were responses in all categories of the scale. One G-L respondent 'strongly disagreed' with the statement, and three respondents (2 G-R and 1 P-N) 'somewhat disagreed' with the statement. One G-L respondent, one G-R respondent and one G-N respondent 'neither disagreed nor agreed' with the statement. Finally, one G-L respondent and one NGO-R respondent marked the 'Don't know' category. This varied pattern of responses suggests there is some uncertainty and even some real scepticism about the extent to which all participants were likely to accept decisions which adversely impacted on their own interests, even if they were agreed as a collective decision.

7.5 COMPLIANCE WITH SHARED RULES

This section examines whether the respondents considered there was an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust among the participants in the planning process.

25) In your view, is there an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust among the participants when they interact with each other in the planning process for the

Probe: If no, *what are the likely consequences of this?*

As many as 27 of the 29 respondents responded positively, indicating that there was an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust among the participants when they interacted with each other in the project planning. A G-R respondent agreed, for example, that in every situation in which the participants had interacted "there has been high-level contacts of mutual respect, exchange of ideas and information, and adequate discussions regarding the various proposals". Another G-R respondent claimed that he had never experienced any situation when a very serious rift or rupture had occurred in the group during meetings. In his view "There is a high degree of respect. We've never had a situation in which someone abandoned the meeting or had to be invited to leave". In the view of another G-R participant "there is no lack of trust. These are meetings in which people, it appears to me, trust a lot in what the other participants say". A different G-R representative also asserted that with the Planning Unit: "So far, I had never seen any technical group that was so cohesive and so well-prepared". One respondent explained that even when there were major differences in view in negotiations there was still respect between the participants: "Even when there are sporadic deeper disagreements, there is mutual respect between participants during their interactions. In my view, these differences are important because they can make the decision-making process richer". The last point is interesting, as it recognises the reality that differences are inevitable and are in fact a resource which can encourage responsiveness, innovation and positive change. According to a G-N respondent, the meetings have "been very friendly. There are some conflicts, not many, and they were sorted out in a friendly way ... the meetings are good, there's always a very pleasant atmosphere".

The two respondents who did not consider there was mutual respect and trust among the participants, gave different reasons for this response. For one, a G-L respondent, "There is a lack of trust between participants. That's natural because each participant has different interests". The other respondent, a NGO-R participant, asserted that generally there was mutual respect during the interactions between participants but there was one exception in that the behaviour of one participant was causing some apprehension among the others. This respondent explained that: "There is an organisation that is developing an agenda for the APA dos Corais Conservation Unit that was too independent from the agenda of the planning for the Costa Dourada project".

7.6 AGREEMENT ABOUT A SHARED VISION FOR THE PROJECT

This section examines:

- Whether the respondents considered that the participants in the project planning had reached a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term.
- Whether the respondents considered that any such shared vision about the project was likely to be accepted by the affected non-participating stakeholders.
- Respondents' views on why there was not a wider range of participants in the planning process.

26) In your view, have the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project reached an agreement about a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term?

Probes: If yes, *what is the shared vision?*
 If yes, *what has enabled participants to reach this shared vision?*
 If no, *what has prevented participants from reaching a shared vision?*

Fifteen of the 29 respondents felt that the participants involved in the planning process had agreed a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term. However, a significant proportion of the respondents - twelve - considered the participants had not reached such a vision. Two respondents (G-R and NGO-N) did not know whether such an agreement had been reached.

When the respondents who felt participants had reached a shared vision were asked to explain what vision this was, they conceptualised it in the various ways shown in Table 7.2. Four respondents suggested that the agreed vision was of the project as a vehicle for the sustainable development of the region. One respondent who mentioned this vision argued that this mission should be salient for all participants: "Tourism has been chosen as a tool for regional development but there is much behind that. The objective is to develop the whole region economically and socially, assuring development is sustainable in the long term". Two respondents identified the vision as being a planning agreement according to which the project should be planned and implemented in an integrated way. Two other respondents interpreted the project's shared vision as being to provide Alagoas' north region with hotel projects, jobs and social services. Finally, according to two respondents the shared vision for the project is that it should create the infrastructure required for large-scale tourism development in the region. One respondent concluded that the shared vision was one of making tourism into an important economic activity in the region, and of doing so in a planned and controlled way. This was important to him as he felt the

Table 7.2 Shared vision that respondents considered was reached by the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Shared vision reached by participants	Number of respondents who mentioned the vision
The Costa Dourada project should be used as a tool for sustainable regional development.	4
The planning for, and implementation of, the project should be conducted in an integrated way.	2
The Costa Dourada project should endow the region with good hotels, high standards of education, water supply and health care and there must be jobs available in each affected municipality.	2
The Costa Dourada project should endow the region with infrastructure capable of receiving large numbers of tourists.	2
The Costa Dourada project is a means for the 10 municipalities to realise their development potential if they work together.	1
The Costa Dourada project should endow the region with a large number of projects that are implemented in a sustainable way.	1
The organisations involved in the planning for the project should implement it in such a way that it brings benefits to the whole region.	1
The Costa Dourada project should turn tourism into an important economic activity in the region, in a planned and controlled way.	1
The infrastructure that is going to be built in the region should be of a high standard so that, differently from the past, it can last.	1

north coastal area of Alagoas was going through a very difficult socio-economic crisis. He explained that "the levels of unemployment are very high in the region. Everybody understands that implementing the Costa Dourada project is the only possible solution for the unemployment problem that has developed in this region since a long time ago".

Respondents who considered that participants had reached a shared vision were asked what had enabled them to reach this vision. The stated views are presented in Table 7.3. Easily the most frequently mentioned reason was the approach used in the planning meetings and workshops. The second most common factor cited was the collaborative approach to planning that the Planning Unit had adopted. A G-L respondent highlighted how the workshops "provide an opportunity for participants to have an in-depth discussion of the issues and reach decisions that are quite legitimate". Another G-L representative thought that the methodology used in the meetings and workshops had enabled them to reach a common vision. He stated that in the discussions "it is always reinforced which are the interests and the goals. There are conflicts, but we've always been able to reach a consensus ... I think that those meetings have been the key thing to it, the main mechanism so that we could have that vision for the Costa Dourada project". A similar view was expressed by a G-R respondent when he stated that "the approach leads naturally to a legitimisation of

Table 7.3 Factors that respondents claimed enabled the participants to reach a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term.

Enabling factors	Number of respondents who mentioned the factor
The approach used in the planning meetings and workshops.	12
The collaborative planning approach that has been adopted by the Planning Unit.	3
The fact that participants perceived the Planning Unit was not biased politically.	1
The perception by participants that if they did not get involved in the planning process and work together with other participants, the region would continue being underdeveloped.	1
The knowledge that the members of the Planning Unit had about the region and its potential as well as about the interests affected by the project.	1
The knowledge that the members of the Planning Unit had about other tourism planning experiences, positive and negative, in Brazil and abroad.	1
The summing up of the professional experience of the members of the Planning Unit.	1
The interest of the planners involved in the planning for the project that the region reaches higher levels of development.	1
Participants understood that maybe this (reaching a shared vision about the project among them) is the only possible way to solve the socio-economic problems of the region.	1
The lack of development prospects for the region.	1

decisions". A G-N respondent stressed the fact that the approach used in the workshops "is very good because everybody feels free to express their views, regardless of their social status, post or knowledge". In the words of another G-R representative, "We've [the Planning Unit] been able to bring together professionals from several organisations who have much professional experience in fields of interest for the Costa Dourada". Referring to the commitment of planners to contributing to the development of the region, a Mayor considered that "the planners who are responsible for the planning for the Costa Dourada project [members of the Planning Unit] are really interested in the development of our region". In the view of another G-L representative, "the economic stagnation of the north region of Alagoas leads the local political leaders to welcome new projects that can bring benefits to the region".

The 12 respondents who felt that participants had not reached a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term were asked what had prevented them from doing this, and their responses are summarised in Table 7.4. The most common explanations (two mentions each) provided by respondents were that local government had difficulty in conceptualising the project's long-term development, the project was too recent to reach such a shared vision, and there was too much uncertainty as to whether the project will be fully implemented. One G-R respondent

stressed that government at the municipal level sometimes had a limited vision regarding the project's planning. To illustrate this, the respondent cited decisions about where and when the project's sewage systems will first be built. In the respondent's view, some mayors wanted the sewage system to be built in their municipality first, and "they are not interested in understanding how the decision about the sewage systems fits into the whole planning process". A G-N respondent said that in his view "despite the fact that everybody is interested in the sustainable development of the region, it is still early to measure whether the whole group has the same long-term vision in relation to that". A similar explanation was given by a G-R representative, who said: "The planning for the project involving a participative process way is still recent. So, it is too early for a shared vision to have emerged". Another G-R respondent, a member of the Planning Unit, explained that it was very difficult to reach a shared vision due to the complexity of the problems in the region. In his view "the socio-economic reality of most of the municipalities is quite complex. You are in a type of reality which consists of a set of objective demands in the short term. There are cities that don't have sufficient water supply, these municipalities don't have a sewerage system, there are cities that dispose of their solid waste by the roads ... So, the level of complexity is very high".

The Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit identified various problems that had prevented the Planning Unit from securing a shared vision for the project. First, he said this was affected by "the planning process for the project in a participative way being still recent". He also pointed out that there had been "a considerable lack of financial resources. So, it's difficult for us to plan and implement the project with wider participation and discussion". He also indicated that "there have been communication difficulties between the participants. We [the Planning Unit] have not been able to contact the participants as much as we'd like to". Finally, he identified administrative problems presently faced by the government of Alagoas as one more justification for difficulties in gaining a shared vision for the project. He explained that "the planning process for the project is led by the state government and the government has recently lost much of its credibility. We in the Planning Unit have the credibility of a few participants, those ones who know that we're doing serious work".

In a similar way, a G-N representative identified political problems as a factor that may have prevented a shared vision from having been reached. According to him: "there have been a lot of fluctuations in the planning process for the project due to political changes in the public administration. We all know that the political struggle in

Table 7.4 Explanations offered by respondents as to why the participants had not reached a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term.

Respondents' explanations	Number of respondents who mentioned the explanation
The local governments involved in the planning process have difficulty in conceptualising the project development in the long term.	2
The planning process for the project in a participative way is recent. So, it is still too early for a shared vision to have developed.	2
There is too much uncertainty as to whether the project will be implemented fully.	2
There may be a lack of knowledge of how to plan tourism in the long term.	1
The Planning Unit may not have been able to get their vision across to local governments.	1
Despite the fact that everybody is interested in a sustainable type of development for the region, it is still early to measure whether the whole group has the same long-term vision in relation to that concept.	1
There are too many interests involved in the planning for the project.	1
In Alagoas state, everybody is dependent upon the government. So, reaching any type of political agreement is a very difficult task.	1
The Mayors of some municipalities do not see tourism the way the Planning Unit see it.	1
The socio-economic reality of most of the municipalities is quite complex.	1
There is a considerable lack of resources and that does not allow the Planning Unit to speed up the planning process.	1
There have been communication problems between participants.	1
The planning process is led by the state government, and the state government has experienced a loss of credibility recently due to economic, administrative and political problems.	— 1
There have been many fluctuations in the planning process for the project due to political changes in the administrative structure of the state government.	1
Many participants have still not been able to understand the full implications of the project, mainly mayors.	1

Alagoas is quite intense. For example, when the Chief State Secretary of Planning is replaced by another one, the new Secretary may have a different vision. It takes quite a while for him to understand the vision that may have been developed previously for the project ". A G-L respondent noted that some participants did not believe the project would be fully implemented, "despite the fact that they understand that the Costa Dourada project is politically, socially and economically the salvation of Alagoas state". Likewise, an NGO-R respondent pointed out that there is too much uncertainty among the participants regarding the future of the project. He wondered whether they were going to find "in fifteen years' time the industry implemented, infrastructure, and institutional development fully developed. Is it going to create jobs and income? I don't have the slightest idea about the answer to these questions". A G-N respondent referred to a lack of tourism planning expertise to explain their failure to develop a shared vision: "Maybe this is a result of our lack of knowledge on how to plan tourism in the long term".

27) *In your view, is it likely that the participants' shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term will also be shared by all parties with an interest in the project that are not involved as participants in the planning process for the project?*

Probe: *What makes you say that?*

This question sought to ascertain whether the participants in the planning process felt that all affected stakeholders were likely to agree with the participants' own shared view of how the project should develop in the long term. The question was only put to the 15 respondents who considered the participants involved in the planning process for the project had indeed achieved a shared vision. As many as 12 out of these 15 respondents considered it was likely that the participants' shared vision would be shared by all parties with an interest in the project, including those not involved in the planning process. Table 7.5 presents the reasons why respondents considered the shared vision was likely also to be shared by interested non-participants. Two respondents argued that their own acquaintance with non-participants led them to believe they shared a very similar vision for the project. A G-L representative explained that in his contacts with non-participants in his municipality "I've perceived that their vision of the project is the same vision as that of the participants". A G-R participant strongly believed in the capacity of the Planning Unit to convince non-participants to come to accept the participants' shared vision for the project: "The convincing power of these people [members of the Planning Unit] is amazing ... I don't have any doubts whatsoever. It's even very easy for this group to convince any other parties to accept this vision of the future". A member of the Planning Unit (G-R) explained that the contacts that they have made with non-participants may assist them to come to accept the shared vision. He explained that "in addition to involving a number of parties in a direct way, the planning process for the project has also involved in the municipal workshops a broad representation of parties that are interested in the project. That will lead to their accepting the vision developed and shared by the participants". Another G-R representative agreed that acceptance of the shared vision will come as the Planning Unit had disseminated information widely to stakeholders in the region, and because he felt the Planning Unit "will continue their policy of keeping the people of the region informed about the project and related developments". A G-L representative remarked that "non-participants also have an interest that the project is developed", a possible indirect reference to the expectations of the municipalities that the project will bring them benefits. For example, a G-N respondent justified her answer by pointing out that the project will lead to improvements in the infrastructure in the municipalities. A G-L representative

Table 7.5 Explanations offered by respondents as to why non-participants were likely to share the project vision of the participants.

Respondents' explanations	Number of respondents who mentioned the reason
The respondent had had contacts with interested parties that are non-participants and felt the vision about the project shared among participants was similar to the vision of non-participants.	2
Participants have the power to convince non-participants.	1
The planning process for the project involved a broad range of parties with an interest in the project in the municipal workshops.	1
Non-participants are interested in the implementation of the project.	1
The project will lead to an improvement in the infrastructure in the municipalities.	1
The respondent felt he had been a good representative of his municipality.	1
The planning process for the project will continue to keep people in the region informed about the project and related developments.	1
The parties who are not happy about the planning for the project have the opportunity to join the planning process and express their views.	1
The region of the Costa Dourada project is very poor. Non-participants are likely to accept the vision because the project will lead to new development in the region.	1

made reference to the expectations among stakeholders in general in the municipalities that the project will boost the region economically. He explained that "the interest to solve the region's socio-economic problems is above any antagonisms. Both participants and non-participants share the same type of vision". This is similar to the views of another G-L representative who explained that "The vision that the participants have reached will be accepted by non-participants because that vision means new prospects for the development of the region".

Only three of the 15 respondents who considered the participants had reached a shared vision believed that it was unlikely that their shared vision would also be shared by all other affected parties. Two of these four respondents, both G-R, considered that every stakeholder had different views. One of them explained this by arguing that "each party that is not a participant has views about the project that are different from the views of the participants, and also different from the views of the other non-participants". The other respondent contended that "there will be times when interested parties will feel their interests have been affected negatively, mainly within the private sector". The third respondent (G-L) felt the shared vision might not be more widely held as he was unsure whether the interests of non-participants had been considered in the project's planning.

28) In your view, why is not a wider range of parties with an interest in the project involved as participants in the planning process for the project?

When the respondents were asked why a wider range of the interested parties were not involved as participants in the project planning, 25 of them provided specific explanations, and sometimes more than one explanation. These are categorised into 13 different types of responses in Table 7.6. Four of the 29 respondents (3 G-L participants and 1 G-R participant) stated that they did not know why a wider range of interested parties had not participated in the project planning, which again suggests that some municipal representatives appear not to be well informed about key issues in the project's collaborative planning.

The explanation most frequently given as to why the project did not involve a wider range of stakeholders in its collaborative planning process (mentioned by 6 respondents) was that many affected parties may not be interested in participating, for as a G-N respondent explained "They have been invited to participate but they didn't turn up". In the view of this respondent, any interested party may get involved for "The planning process for the project is quite open to include those organisations that are interested in participating". Table 7.6 provides other similar comments which illustrate the explanation above. Another frequent explanation (mentioned by 5 respondents) given as to why the project's inter-organisational domain was not broader in its range of participants related to difficulties that might be involved in managing a larger group of participants. For example, a G-L respondent contended that "If the planning process involved too wide a representation of interested parties, it would be difficult for the Planning Unit to have a control over the planning outcomes". It is interesting how this quote also highlights the Planning Unit's authority in the problem domain and acceptance of its power over the project's planning. An explanation given by five respondents refers to the project's socio-cultural context. One such explanation refers to the wider context of the project, with a G-L respondent contending that "there is a tradition of centralisation of development planning by the Brazilian government". He added that most of Brazil's economic plans "were created and implemented in a top-bottom manner, imposed by the state. They are not concerned with integrating the interests of organisations of the civilian society into the planning process". Referring more to the regional context of the project, a G-L respondent argued that there was "a lack of participative culture in Alagoas state. In a sense, ABIH, ABAV and similar organisations are relatively embryonic in terms of participation in Alagoas state". Four respondents claimed that the participants that were involved were sufficient to meet the demands of the current stage of project development, with a G-R respondent explaining that "There may be activities at a later stage that will require hearing other organisations.

Table 7.6 Explanations offered by respondents as to why a wider range of parties with an interest in the project were not involved as participants in its planning process.

Explanation offered by respondents	Specific comments	Number of respondents who offered the explanation	Type and geographical scale at which organisation operates
There are organisations that have been invited but did not join the project planning.	<p>"Some organisations have been invited but did not turn up e.g. travel agents, airlines, hoteliers and the navy authority" (G-R).</p> <p>"There are stakeholders that have been invited to participate but didn't turn up. There may be wider participation later because those that are currently participating function as a multiplying influence. They help others understand what in fact the Costa Dourada project is" (G-R).</p> <p>"Maybe it's due to a lack of interest on the part of other organisations. They have been invited to participate but they didn't turn up. The planning process for the project is quite open to include those organisations that are interested in participating" (G-N).</p> <p>"That's because they are not interested. In those meetings we have attended we decided that other organisations should be invited but in the following meetings we realised that those organisations didn't turn up".</p>	6	1G-L/ 3G-R/2G-N
It would be difficult to manage a bigger group due to the methodology that is being used in the planning meetings and workshops.	<p>"It would be very difficult to involve a broader number of organisations. It is already very complicated to work with the ones that have been involved so far" (G-R).</p> <p>"It's difficult and unnecessary to work with too large a group of people. For example, if you put three, four or five environment specialists to work together with different views, it's fine. Is there any use in bringing ten of them together? We'd be investing resources that could be invested elsewhere" (G-L).</p> <p>"If the planning process involved too wide a representation of interested parties, it would be difficult for the Planning Unit to have a control over the planning outcomes" (G-L).</p>	5	2G-L/1G-R/2G-N

Table 7.6 (continued...)

Due to the lack of a culture of participative planning in Alagoas state.	<p>"The participation of the government and the private sector in the planning of projects affecting those two spheres of interest is still difficult in Brazil. There are problems of accountability, relationships, et cetera" (G-R).</p> <p>"I think we are used to working that way, believing that we, our organisations, know more than the others. We have decision-making power in our hands, power itself. That's cultural isn't it?" (G-R).</p> <p>"Due to a lack of participative culture in Alagoas state. In a general sense, ABIH, ABAV and similar organisations are relatively embryonic in terms of participation in Alagoas state. They want benefits for their respective associations but they fail to see that they can get these benefits through their interaction with other organisations. For example, hotels want the promotion of the destination but they aren't concerned, with obvious exceptions, with local problems, such as holes in the streets, landless people and pick-pockets" (G-L).</p> <p>"Because there is a tradition of centralisation of development planning by the Brazilian government. Most of our major economic plans were created and implemented in a top-bottom manner, imposed by the state. They are not concerned with integrating the interests of organisations of the civilian society into the planning process" (G-L).</p>	5	2G-L/3G-R
The collection of participants is sufficient to meet the demands of the current stage of project planning and implementation.	<p>"The current collection of participants is sufficient for planning the project. I think that this group encompasses all the areas affected by the project. Putting more people there just for the sake of it would be dangerous" (G-R).</p> <p>"There may be activities at a later stage that will require hearing other organisations" (G-R).</p> <p>"As it becomes necessary, others will be invited" (G-L).</p>	4	1G-L/2G-R/NGO-R
Possibly due to the Planning Unit not knowing about other stakeholders who could also participate.	"There was an extensive work aimed at identifying the multiple actors that should be involved in the planning process" (G-R).	2	G-R

Table 7.6 (continued...)

The current collection of participants is sufficient to meet the demands of the organisation financing the project.	"We've chosen the participants so as to meet the demands of BID [Interamerican Development Bank] and the Bank of the Northeast. The group has been sized up in order to meet the demands of the actions".	1	G-R
The participative planning approach for the project is still unfolding.	"It will take time for others to get involved".	1	NGO-N
Maybe it is a mistake of the planning approach that has been adopted for the project.	"It's a result perhaps of a mistake of the planning approach. There are other organisations that should also have been invited to participate".	1	G-R
Some interested parties are interested in the infrastructure the project will build. These interested parties will join the planning process at a later stage.	"As a consequence, the private sector will participate more directly later".	1	G-R
In Alagoas state, the private sector wait for the — government to take the lead. Once the government has invested in a project, the private sector will follow suit.	"The private sector waits for the government to take the lead. The private sector doesn't invest if the government itself doesn't invest. Once the government knows that the private sector acts that way, the government won't invite them to express their views. The government works more on its own".	1	P-N
Some organisations are not sufficiently organised to participate.	"There is a consensus that we must broaden the participation scope as much as possible. However, to do that requires that others have a minimum level of organisation".	1	G-R
Widening the participation would create too much demand on the Planning Unit that would not be met. The planning for the project would then lose credibility.	"We must be careful to choose only those partners we can realistically work with".	1	G-R
Due to a lack of credibility on the part of the private sector and non-governmental organisations regarding governmental initiatives during the recent history of Alagoas state.	"So, governmental initiatives are not able to mobilise the private sector and non-governmental organisation".	1	G-L

Conclusion

This chapter has examined whether the stakeholders involved in the planning for the Costa Dourada project were successful in collaborating with each other and whether

this allowed them to reach a collectively-agreed vision for the future of the project's problem domain.

The study identified an interesting divergence in respondents' opinions concerning the importance of the principle of giving full consideration to the views and priorities of all participants in the planning process and how they felt this had worked in practical terms. In principle there was strong recognition among respondents of the desirability of giving due attention to the views of all participants. For example, 98.9% of responses in this respect were positive, with 75.9% of them being 'strongly agree'. When these issues were examined based on whether the respondents considered the other participants also appeared in practice to consider it important, the percentage of positive answers also remained high, with over 81% of responses falling on the 'agree' side of the scale, but the percentage of 'strongly agree' responses fell to just over 29% (compared to 75.9%).

An important indication of collaborative success is whether the participants are prepared to support collective decisions which are against their best interest. The respondents identified five such decisions so far in the Costa Dourada collaboration. As presented in table 7.1, one of these decisions was thought to benefit eight municipalities while being against the best interest of the other two municipalities. A second decision benefited the municipality of Maragogi to the detriment of the other nine municipalities. Another decision related to some development actions being exempted from a requirement for an Environmental Impact Statement, with this being in the best interest of the private sector and against IMA's concerns for environmental conservation. Also, there was the suggestion by a respondent that the chosen route for a project road benefited private land-owners to the detriment of one municipality. The other decision restricted housing development in the project area for one year, with this being seen as against the best interest of private-sector developers (although they were not directly represented in the project's planning process). The questionnaire suggests that 20 of the 29 respondents were positive that such collective decisions were likely to be supported subsequently in the project planning, although as many as 15 of them only 'somewhat agreed'. This suggests that even when stakeholders appreciate that there is mutual dependence on each other in relation to a domain-level problem, as is the case for the Costa Dourada project, the processes of sharing decision-making and of power in practical terms are still difficult tasks.

Importantly, 27 of the 29 respondents felt that there was an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust among the participants in their interaction in the planning process. Again this finding suggests there was recognition of a high degree of stakeholder inter-dependence in the project's problem domain and also adjustment to working with others. This is reflected in most respondents apparently being receptive to the need to listen to the multiple interests represented in the Costa Dourada collaboration. Generally, the participants felt that there would be support for decisions even if they might have adverse consequences for the best interests of individuals and that they were also able to maintain mutual respect and trust in the decision-making process.

Quite a high proportion of the stakeholders involved in the Costa Dourada collaboration felt that they had not reached a long-term shared vision for the project, this being the view of 12 of the 29 participating stakeholders. These 12 respondents also provided as many as 15 different explanations as to why such a vision had not been reached. For example, two respondents contended that the collaborative approach to the project's planning process was still too recent for a shared vision to have been achieved. Perhaps more telling is the explanation provided by a member of the Planning Unit, who argued that it was very difficult to reach a shared vision for the project as the region has so many complex socio-economic problems. In addition, in the view of the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit, a key facilitator of the project's collaboration, the current administrative crisis affecting the state's public administration had led to the government losing much of its credibility. These socio-economic and administrative problems are clearly related to issues in the project's context, as discussed in Chapter 5.

While many respondents felt a shared vision had been established for the project, they conceptualised this 'shared vision' in as many as nine different ways, but with a moderate overlap in views about what this vision was. Table 7.2 shows that among the fifteen respondents who believed a 'shared' vision had been established, there were common elements that frequently recurred in the nine visions. These recurring elements are that:

- the project should lead to regional/municipal development,
- the project should lead to sustainable regional development,
- project planning should be conducted in an integrated way, and that
- the project should endow the region with high-standard infrastructure.

Hence, these fifteen participants had high expectations that the project could result in first-class basic infrastructure which may serve as a basis for more sustainable regional tourism development. The presence of these common elements in the discourses of the 15 participating stakeholders might encourage the suggestion that a common vision for the project is in the process of being developed.

The findings in this chapter provide evidence that the stakeholders involved in the Costa Dourada collaboration have been successful to quite a large degree in collaborating in the project's domain-level planning process. The key evidence is that some participants had supported collective decisions that were against their individual best interest, and that 27 of the 29 participants felt there was mutual respect and trust between the collaborating stakeholders. Despite this, there is a more mixed view about whether a shared vision for the project had been established, though there are indications that such a vision might be emerging.

More generally, the study up to this point has revealed that the Planning Unit succeeded in involving as many as 29 stakeholders in discussions, negotiation and consensus-building in their attempt to reach a collective vision for the future of the Costa Dourada project. Nevertheless, it has also been shown that, while the convener was successful in securing a fairly broad spread of local, regional and national-level government stakeholders in the project's planning, only one private-sector stakeholder and two NGOs were involved. The respondents offered 13 different types of explanations as to why a wider range of interested parties were not involved in its planning process. However, four such explanations accounted for 67% of the mentions of reasons why involvement in the project's inter-organisational planning domain was limited to 29 stakeholders. Two of these explanations were probably more social or political in nature. Hence, six respondents explained that some organisations did not join the planning process despite having been invited to do so, and five respondents suggested that some stakeholders did not participate because of a lack of a culture of participative planning in Alagoas. The other two explanations were of a more technical nature. Five respondents suggested that the practice of consensus-building would be a difficult task if the group was too large, and four respondents felt the 29 participants were sufficient for the current stage of project planning. However, these are the views of respondents who are among the stakeholders who control the project planning. Parties who have an interest in the

project but who are not involved directly in its planning process might have different explanations as to why they remained outside this process.

The next chapter examines views about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process held by stakeholders who were not involved as direct participants in the project planning.

Chapter 8: The Views of Non-Participating Stakeholders

8.1 INTRODUCTION

A central focus of this study is to examine views about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process held by stakeholders who were not involved as participants in the project's collaborative planning.

Collaboration-based research usually relies on documentary sources and occasionally on information collected from the stakeholders involved as direct participants in the collaborative arrangements. Such an approach is coherent theoretically and it helps to explain the collaborative antecedents, the processes of collaboration involved and related collaborative outcomes. However, Wood and Gray's (1991:155) suggested criteria for identifying which stakeholders might participate in a collaboration illustrates that such criteria are inevitably rather fluid (see Chapter 2, page 52). Based on these criteria, several different sets of organisations may be involved in addressing a specific problem domain. Furthermore, in addition to the stakeholders who are eventually convened to address a problem domain, other stakeholders may legitimately attempt to join the collaborative process out of their own initiative or else may decide to drop out of it or even to avoid it altogether.

As discussed in Chapter 2, sections 2.3 and 2.4, planning activity is largely influenced by the values, ideologies and interests of the stakeholders involved. Hence, relying almost exclusively on the views of participants and on other information sources related to the collaboration is likely to miss out on important issues regarding a collaboration's problem domain. Consequently, an examination of the views of stakeholders who were not involved directly in a collaborative arrangement - where the resulting outcomes may affect these stakeholders in a direct way - may provide useful information to understand the political and planning dynamics of the problem domain. This is crucial when considering the likelihood that non-participants will support or oppose collaborative outcomes. It is also necessary in order to assess the extent to which the planning process has been an approach which can enhance the sustainability of regional tourism development, which is a key objective of the Costa Dourada project.

This chapter presents detailed findings concerning how non-participants viewed the Costa Dourada project and its planning process. These findings, together with the analysis of the project's socio-economic and political context (see Chapter 5), and information about the project and its planning collected from stakeholders that were involved directly in the project planning (see Chapter 6) are used in Chapter 9 to examine the study's research questions. Findings in this chapter are based on the interviews and questionnaires conducted with all 38 non-collaborating stakeholders included in the study's sample. Fifteen inter-related issues are examined in this chapter, and in summary these issues concern (a) the objectives of the non-participants; (b) whether these non-participants were represented in the planning for the Costa Dourada project; (c) which issues these non-participants wanted to have considered in the project planning; (d) how non-participants viewed the project planning; and (e) whether non-participants considered their organisation had the right and capacity to participate in the planning process.

8.2 RANGE OF STAKEHOLDERS WITH AN INTEREST IN THE PROJECT

This section examines the following issues:

- The objective or objectives of non-participants.
- Whether non-participants considered that their organisation was affected by the project.
- The ways in which the non-participants' organisations were involved in the project planning.

1) What is your organisation's main objective or objectives?

Some non-participants encapsulated the objective or objectives of their organisation in an overall phrase. Others provided two or more objectives. Table 8.1 presents the main objectives of the 38 non-participating organisations included in the study sample, as named by their respective representatives. These 38 stakeholders cover a broad number of different types of interests affected by the Costa Dourada project. For example, there are 13 government, 20 private-sector and five non-governmental organisations, of which 15 operate at the local geographical scale, 14 at the regional scale and nine at the national scale.

These stakeholders include three key infrastructure organisations, namely the Port Authority of Maceió, CEAL and TELASA which are likely to play an important role in the Costa Dourada project. For example, the Port of Maceió functions as a gateway

Table 8.1 Main objective/objectives of non-participating organisations.

Stakeholder	Main objective/objectives of stakeholder
Brazilian Tourist Board (EMBRATUR)	To plan tourism for Brazil in a strategic way. To plan and implement the marketing policy of Brazil, in the country and abroad.
Federal University of Alagoas (UFAL)	To develop professionals at a superior level. To develop research. To provide advisory support to other organisations (extension work).
Bank of the Northeast (BN)	To work for the sustainable development of the Northeast.
Brazilian Port Authority (Port of Maceió)	To implement policies for the import, export and storage of products in the Port of Maceió.
Secretary of Tourism of Alagoas (SETUR/AL)	To foster the development of tourism in Alagoas. To support the creation of partnerships between SETUR/AL and the private sector. To educate municipalities regarding the problems and benefits of tourism. To create tourism development actions also in inland regions. To develop participative tourism management between the state and municipalities, collaborating with local government so that they become fully prepared to manage tourism on their own.
State Secretary of Public Security (SSP/AL)	To provide security for the population. To investigate crimes and identify who has committed them.
Department of traffic of Alagoas (DETRAN/AL)	To police, guide and patrol traffic in the urban areas of Alagoas.
Energy Company of Alagoas (CEAL)	To meet the demand for energy in Alagoas.
Telecommunications Company of Alagoas (TELASA)	To provide telecommunication services in Alagoas.
Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Paripueira	To work together with the municipal executive and identify development strategies for the municipality. To create municipal laws. To monitor the conduct of the municipal executive.
Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Barra de Santo Antônio	To regulate the municipal executive regarding their use of public financial resources, investments and general conduct. To protect public assets. To represent the population of the municipality regarding their rights and needs.
Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Maragogi	To regulate the municipal executive regarding its duties.
Hotel Salinas	To exploit tourism and make a profit. To contribute to the socio-economic development of the region.
Hotel Praia Dourada	To offer jobs. To support the development of the Municipality of Maragogi.
Hotel Bitingui	To exploit the tourist market by supplying accommodation.
Hotel Captain Nicolas	To bring tourists to the region from other Brazilian regions and from abroad. To care for the environment in relation to their hotel.
Pousada Olho d'Água	To provide accommodation services to the community. To provide accommodation services to tourists visiting the region.
Chalés Costa Dourada	To make a profit.
Restaurante Frutos do Mar	To provide food to tourists.
Association of the Craftsmen of the Municipality of Paripueira	To provide for the financial and social well-being of members. To protect members' markets.

Table 8.1 (continued...)

Commercial Association of the Municipality of Paripueira	To unite local businesses and to lobby the local government for more infrastructure and tourism development initiatives.
Federation of the Fishers' Associations of Alagoas	To bring together as many fishermen as possible and to demonstrate that if they get together they can enhance their position more effectively. To fight for the protection of the environment (rivers, lagoons and the coastal sea). To influence public organisations so they care for the environment.
Brazilian Service for the Support to Small Businesses (SEBRAE)	To enhance the interests of small businesses in Alagoas in the following respects: - consultancy; - training; - design of projects to capture financial resources and to ensure economic feasibility; - exterior commerce, and the - promotion of business access to fairs and information on new technologies and suppliers.
Aeroturismo (travel agency and tourist operator)	To provide travel services (tickets, excursions, currency exchange and tourist reception)
Transcontinental (travel agency and tourist operator)	To provide professional, client-centred services to tourists, aimed at offering a quality service.
Brazilian Association of Travel Agents (ABAV), Alagoas' section	To integrate the association and to add value to its associates. To market a product that gives clients a quality experience.
Brazilian Association of Hoteliers (ABIH), Alagoas' section	To co-ordinate the work of hoteliers. To gather as many hotels as possible in association in Maceió; To improve tourism in Alagoas.
Brazilian Association of Event Organisers (ABEOC), Alagoas' section	To promote actions that benefit members. To create partnerships so that members can improve their status, exchange information and keep up-dated regarding legislation. To improve the quality of services for members. To bring together Alagoas' members with members in other Brazilian states and in other organisations abroad. To represent members in technical discussions with organisations whose activities have an interface with tourism.
Brazilian Association of Tourism Writers and Journalists (ABRAJET), Alagoas' section	To develop tourism in Alagoas by bringing its natural, cultural and historical resources to the attention of the rest of Brazil and abroad.
VARIG (airline)	To transport passengers and cargo. To develop the destinations at which they operate.
VASP (airline)	To market cheap air fares and at the same time maintain the quality of services. To ensure that people who have not been able to afford to travel by plane will begin to do so. To keep VASP as a profitable company.
TAM (airline)	To increase their flight frequency to Alagoas state.
Residents' Association of Ponta do Mangue, Municipality of Maragogi	To capture financial resources for the development and expansion of small businesses in the community.
Residents' Association of the Municipality of Japaratinga	To provide support to the community regarding housing, water and energy supplies, health care and jobs.
Mulheres Barra Forte, women's association of the Municipality of Barra de Santo Antônio	To ensure that Barra de Santo Antônio is an organised city, has an attractive cityscape and sound environmental conditions. To gain access to the media (radio and TV stations) and to the Mayor to express and discuss their views and obtain results.

Table 8.1 (continued...)

Union of the Municipal Legislators of Alagoas (UVEAL)	To bring together the 1,100 municipal legislators of Alagoas and strengthen the links between them.
MOVIDA, environmental NGO	To fight for the environment. To fight for human rights.
Institute for the Preservation of the Atlantic Rain Forest (IPMA), environmental NGO	To preserve the biosphere of the Atlantic Rain Forest in Alagoas state.

to the region and it increasingly receives cruise ships. In its turn, CEAL is the company responsible for providing energy to the project area. In a similar way, TELASA is responsible for building and operating the telecommunications infrastructure in Alagoas' north coast. The study sample also involves the BN whose mission includes "work for the sustainable development of the Northeast" and, as pointed out by its representative, it is the intermediary financing organisation between the Interamerican Development Bank and the state government. The sample also includes key official tourist organisations, namely EMBRATUR, which is responsible for the country's strategic tourism planning, and SETUR/AL, whose objectives include supporting the creation of partnerships with the private sector and fostering collaborative actions between state and municipal stakeholders in order for the local government to be fully prepared to manage tourism development.

Other stakeholders which are equally important for the project were also interviewed. For example, SSP/AL and DETRAN/AL were questioned about their views about the project concerning respectively public security and road traffic in the project's urban areas. Additionally, the interviews captured the views of a broad spectrum of private-sector stakeholders, including small, medium and large accommodation units, a restaurant, and craftsmen and commercial associations located in the project region. Furthermore, other central tourism-related organisations were also examined for their views about the project, and these included ABAV (travel agents), ABIH (hoteliers) and ABEOC (event organisers), and also three of the four main airlines operating in the project area, namely VARIG, VASP and TAM.

Views about the project were also examined for five key NGOs. These included three local-scale resident's associations, one of which (Mulheres Barra Forte) was formed entirely by women. The other two are environmental NGOs, one of which (IPMA) is interested in the preservation of the remnants of the Atlantic Rain Forest and its associated ecosystems in the region. The other is Alagoas leading environmental NGO (MOVIDA) which dates back to dictatorial times and is interested in

environmental protection and human rights. Opinions about the project among local legislators were also deemed to be important for this study because they are responsible among other things for passing municipal-level legislation aimed at regulating tourism development locally. Hence, the Presidents of the Municipal Legislative Assemblies of three project municipalities were interviewed. These interests and others included in the study's sample are illustrative of the numerous project-related interests that were not represented directly in the project's planning.

2) *In your view, is your organisation's objective or objectives likely to be affected by the Costa Dourada project?*

Probes: If yes, *in which way or ways?*
 If no, *then what is your organisation's interest in the Costa Dourada project?*

All 38 non-participants considered that their organisation's objectives were likely to be affected by the project, indicating that non-participants were fairly aware of the nature of the project. Non-participants cited four types of perceived positive impacts (see Table 8.2). Thirty-three of the 38 mentions of a positive impact were focused on the individual organisation rather than on more collective benefits. Perhaps, this may be explained by the fact that these stakeholders were not exposed to the collaborative 'dialogues' which might have helped them to appreciate many other interests also affected by the project. As is typical in the early stages of a tourist destination development cycle (Cooper *et al.*, 1998), the stakeholders had very high expectations about the benefits from tourism development, and they had difficulty in perceiving the potential adverse impacts.

Only three non-participants identified negative impacts that were likely to be caused to their organisation by the project. Two of these three non-participants (NGO-R/P-R) felt that the project would lead to negative impacts on the environment. The other non-participant (G-R) felt the project would cause an increase in crime rates.

Table 8.2 The four types of positive impacts respondents indicated their organisations were likely to receive from the Costa Dourada project.

Types of positive impacts	Number of respondents who mentioned the type of positive impact
Helps advance their organisations' interests.	24
Leads to an increased demand for their organisations' services.	9
Leads to overall benefits to the region.	3
Leads to an improvement to the quality of the environment in the region.	2

3) Please describe how you are involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

As many as 30 of the 38 non-participants responded that their organisation was not involved in the project planning. The remaining 8 non-participants stated that their organisation was involved in the planning process, with some saying they were involved in more than one way. Table 8.3 reveals that among non-participants it is the government and NGO stakeholder groups that were more active in the project planning, especially local-scale organisations. Five non-participants attended meetings with members of the Planning Unit and two non-participants attended a local workshop. This confirms other information provided by respondents suggesting that the Planning Unit listens to non-participants who want to express their views about the project, and that there were non-participating parties who were aware of the project and who worked with it in various ways. These included working with participating local government and municipal representatives, attending project activities such as the municipal workshops, and working with the participating environmental organisations.

Table 8.3 Types of non-participating stakeholder involvement in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Types of involvement	Number of respondents who mentioned this type of involvement	Number of times this type of involvement was mentioned by type of stakeholder	Number of times this type of involvement was mentioned by the scale at which the stakeholder operates
Has attended meetings with members of the Planning Unit.	5	G3-P2	N2-R1-L2
Works with the municipal executive to discuss ways of capturing benefits for the municipality.	2	G1-NGO1	L
Attended a local workshop.	2	G-NGO	R-L
Provides infrastructure support to the Planning Unit in the municipality when asked for.	1	P	L
Co-ordinates local action to support tourists who visit the municipality.	1	G	L
Attends meetings with the representative of the municipality who works with the Planning Unit.	1	NGO	L
Works with governmental environmental organisations.	1	NGO	L
Expresses their views about the project at the State Council for Environmental Protection (CEPRAM), in which they have a seat.	1	NGO	R

8.3 STAKEHOLDER REPRESENTATION IN THE PLANNING PROCESS

This section examines the following issues:

- Whether non-participants were represented in the project planning.
- Whether non-participants considered that all parties with an interest in the project were represented in its planning process.

4) Does anyone represent your organisation in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probes: If yes, *who*?
If yes, *in which way or ways*?
If no, *why*?

As many as 31 non-participants stated that they had no representatives in the project planning. The seven non-participants who argued they were represented in the project planning appear in Table 8.4. Information in this table suggests that only one of these seven non-participants considered themselves to be represented by a collaborating stakeholder in the project's planning process, namely ABIH who considered themselves to be represented by EMATUR.

The seven non-participants who considered that their organisation was represented in the project planning identified various ways in which their organisation was represented (see Table 8.5). This table indicates the types of local, regional and national-scale stakeholders who, despite not being involved directly in the Costa

Table 8.4 Non-participating organisations which considered they had a representative in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Organisation	Type of organisation and geographical scale at which it operates	Organisation's representative in the planning process for the project
Bank of the Northeast (BN)	G-N	There is no fixed representative. A representative is appointed according to the specific issue to be discussed.
Telecommunications Company of Alagoas (TELASA)	G-R	The respondent.
Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Maragogi	G-L	The respondent.
Brazilian Association of Hoteliers (ABIH), Alagoas' section	P-N	The Tourist Board of Alagoas (EMATUR/AL).
Hotel Salinas	P-L	The respondent.
Hotel Captain Nicolas	P-L	The respondent. Additionally, a consultant who works for the hotel is appointed when necessary.
Residents' Association of Ponta do Mangue, Municipality of Maragogi	NGO-L	The respondent.

Table 8.5 Ways in which the non-participating organisations are represented in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Organisations	Ways in which the organisation is represented
Bank of the Northeast (BN)	Depending on the issue being discussed in a meeting or other planning activity, the bank mobilises an appropriate consultant. Sometimes the respondent himself is the representative.
Telecommunications Company of Alagoas (TELASA)	By attending meetings with members of the Planning Unit for the project, occasionally.
Legislative Assembly of the Municipality of Maragogi	The respondent is a member of the municipal tourism council. As such, he has participated in a number of meetings at the municipal level.
Brazilian Association of Hoteliers (ABIH), Alagoas' section	ABIH is a member of Tourist Board of Alagoas (EMATUR/AL). This way, ABIH is represented indirectly by EMATUR which is a participant in the planning process for the project.
Hotel Salinas	Through contacts with the local government. Through contacts with members of the Planning Unit for the project. By attending seminars.
Hotel Captain Nicolas	They have a consultant who keeps in regular contact with the Planning Unit for the project.
Residents' Association of Ponta do Mangue, Municipality of Maragogi	By attending meetings and workshops when he is invited. By expressing their views to the municipal government.

Dourada collaboration, were nonetheless active in the project's problem domain. It also indicates the existence of direct contacts between non-participants and participants through meetings with local government and the Planning Unit and by non-participants attending seminars and workshops. This provides support to the participants' contention that the project did listen to the views of stakeholders who were not included in the collaborative planning but who were interested in expressing their views. However, there is the suggestion that with the exception of ABIH which might be represented by EMATUR in the project's collaborative arrangements, the other six organisations were represented only in non-collaborative activities. Hence they may have had little influence on decision-making.

When the 31 non-participants who considered their organisation was not represented in the Costa Dourada collaborative planning were asked why they were not represented, 17 of them explained that their organisation had not been invited. The remaining 14 non-participants presented 12 types of explanation (see Table 8.6).

Four non-participants, three of which were NGOs, explained that their members were not interested in the organisation's participation. Two non-participants offered an explanation which was also suggested by the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit about this issue, namely there were communication deficiencies between the

Table 8.6 Explanations why the non-participating organisation was not represented in the project planning.

Explanation	Number of respondents who mentioned this explanation	Type of organisations and geographical scale at which it operates
Members were not interested in the participation of their organisation.	4	P-L/2NGO-R/NGO-L
The organisation itself did not try to get involved in the project planning.	2	P-L
Due to communication deficiencies between the Planning Unit and organisations affected by the project.	2	G-N/P-L
Public sector officials did not attach the necessary value to their organisation's activities.	1	G-L
The members of the Planning Unit appeared to behave as if they did not depend on the municipal legislators to implement the project.	1	G-L
The planning process for the project was possibly too bureaucratic.	1	P-L
Due to the planning culture of the country which does not involve organisations affected by planning outcomes.	1	P-L
The state government considered themselves to be self-sufficient.	1	P-R
Some participants may perceive the participation of the organisation as a threat to their power in the planning process for the project.	1	P-N
The planning meetings for the project are not productive.	1	P-N
The organisation had been closed for two years recently.	1	G-R
Don't know	2	P-R

Planning Unit and non-participants. It is interesting that five private sector organisations offered explanations, which may be indicative of why there was not a wider involvement of private sector organisations in the project planning. For example, there was the suggestion that the project was bureaucratic, meetings were not productive and that the country had a culture of centralised planning. While these explanations appear to be linked to the country's recent history, two non-participants accepted that their own organisation itself did not take the initiative to participate.

5) In your view, are all parties with an interest in the Costa Dourada project represented in its planning process?

Probes: If yes, *please explain.*
If no, *which other interested party or parties, if any, do you think should also be represented in the planning process for the project?*
If no, *for each interested party you have mentioned, please explain why.*

Twelve of the 38 non-participants considered that all parties with an interest in the Costa Dourada project were represented in its planning process, and they offered six

different explanations to justify this position (see Table 8.7). One P-L non-participant was unable to explain this position. As many as five non-participants suggested that parties interested in the project were represented by municipal government, which may indicate that some municipal representatives directly involved in project planning had been fairly active locally. The other five explanations reflect an acceptance that the participants had much authority and legitimacy to plan for the project. For example, two non-participants argued that the participants represented all interests in the region. It was also mentioned that the participants were knowledgeable about problems in the project area and that the set of collaborating stakeholders was sufficient to plan for the project at its current stage. Furthermore, one respondent claimed that the parties who wanted to participate in the project planning were already involved in it, apparently suggesting that the planning was open to those who wanted to participate in it.

However, in sharp contrast with these views, as many as 25 of the 38 non-participants did not consider that all parties with an interest in the project were represented in its planning, and they named 34 stakeholders who should also be represented (see Table 8.8). In addition, as the interview progressed these and other non-participants named 21 other such stakeholders. Adding these 21 stakeholders to the 34 stakeholders listed in Table 8.8, the number of organisations that non-participants considered were not currently represented in the Costa Dourada project's planning but who ought to be amounted to 55 stakeholders. Table 8.9 presents a consolidated list of these stakeholders.

Table 8.7 Explanations why non-participants felt all parties with an interest in the Costa Dourada project were represented in its planning process.

Explanation	Number of respondents who mentioned this explanation
Interested parties are represented by municipal government.	5
Participants represent all the interests in the region.	2
The organisations that are interested in the project are the ones that are participating.	1
All infrastructure fields are represented. The Costa Dourada project aims to build infrastructure.	1
Participants are organisations that are knowledgeable about the problems of the region.	1
The collection of participants is sufficient for the current stage of planning for the project.	1

Table 8.8 Initial list of stakeholders that were not involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project but that respondents considered ought to be represented.

Number	Stakeholders	Number of respondents who mentioned this stakeholder
1	The private sector (hotels, bars and restaurants)	6
2	Communities	4
3	Energy Company of Alagoas (CEAL)	4
4	Brazilian Association of Travel Agents (ABAV), Alagoas' section	4
5	Brazilian University of Alagoas (UFAL)	3
6	Brazilian Association of Hoteliers (ABIH), Alagoas' section	3
7	Maceió Convention and Visitors Bureau (MCVB)	3
8	State-level legislators (Deputies)	2
9	The Public Judiciary	2
10	State Secretary of Public Security (SSP/AL)	2
11	NGOs in general	2
12	Brazilian Association of Event Organisers (ABEOC), Alagoas' section	2
13	National Service for Commerce (SENAC), Alagoas' section	2
14	Syndicate of the Tourist Companies of Alagoas (SINDETUR/AL)	2
15	Local commercial associations	2
16	Syndicate of Hoteliers of Alagoas	2
17	Telecommunications Company of Alagoas (TELASA)	2
18	Municipal legislators ('Vereadores')	1
19	State Secretary of Education	1
20	State Secretary of Health	1
21	Fishers' associations	1
22	National Department of Roads and Traffic (DNER)	1
23	Municipal NGOs	1
24	Health care organisations	1
25	Environmental NGOs	1
26	Association of Hoteliers of the Municipality of Maragogi	1
27	Brazilian Association of Tourist Writers and Journalists (ABRAJET)	1
28	Syndicate of Food and Drinks Suppliers of Alagoas	1
29	Brazilian Service for the Support to Small Businesses (SEBRAE), Alagoas' section	1
30	Social Service of Commerce (SESC), Alagoas' section	1
31	National Service for Industry Labour Training (SENAI)	1
32	Government of the Municipality of Maceió	1
33	Craftsmen's Associations	1
34	Agricultural labourers' organisations	1

Table 8.9 Consolidated list of stakeholders that were not involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project but that non-participants considered ought to be represented.

Number	Stakeholders	Number of respondents who mentioned this stakeholder
1	The private sector (hotels, bars and restaurants)	7
2	Communities	6
3	Energy Company of Alagoas (CEAL)	6
4	Brazilian University of Alagoas (UFAL)	4
5	Municipal legislators ('Vereadores')	4
6	Brazilian Association of Travel Agents (ABAV), Alagoas' section	4
7	Brazilian Association of Hoteliers (ABIH), Alagoas' section	4
8	Telecommunications Company of Alagoas (TELASA)	4

Table 8.9 (continued...)

9	Local commercial associations	3
10	Maceió Convention and Visitors Bureau (MCVB)	3
11	Syndicate of Hoteliers of Alagoas	3
12	State Secretary of Public Security (SSP/AL)	3
13	Secretary of Tourism of Alagoas (SETUR/AL)	2
14	Institute for the Preservation of the Atlantic Rain Forest (IPMA), environmental NGO	2
15	Municipal NGOs	2
16	NGOs in general	2
17	Fishers' associations	2
18	Craftsmen's associations	2
19	Brazilian Association of Event Organisers (ABEOC), Alagoas' section	2
20	Brazilian Association of Tourist Writers and Journalists (ABRAJET), Alagoas' section	2
21	National Service for Commerce (SENAC), Alagoas' section	2
22	Syndicate of the Tourist Companies of Alagoas (SINDETUR/AL)	2
23	The Public Judiciary	2
24	State-level legislators (Deputies)	2
25	NATO, environmental NGO	1
26	Church	1
27	Environmental NGOs	1
28	MOVIDA, environmental NGO	1
29	Union of the Municipal Legislators of Alagoas (UVEAL)	1
30	Health care organisations	1
31	Association of Hoteliers of the Municipality of Maragogi	1
32	Syndicate of Food and Drinks Suppliers of Alagoas	1
33	Brazilian Service for the Support to Small Businesses (SEBRAE), Alagoas' section	1
34	Folklore groups	1
35	Department of Traffic of Alagoas (DETRAN/AL)	1
36	Hotel Captain Nicolas	1
37	Mulheres Barra Forte (community NGO of the Municipality of Barra de Santo Antônio)	1
38	State Secretary of Education	1
39	State Secretary of Sports	1
40	State Secretary of Health	1
41	Government of the Municipality of Maceió	1
42	Regional Council of Engineering and Architecture (CREA/AL)	1
43	Regional Council of Accountancy (CRC)	1
44	Regional Council of Administration (CRA)	1
45	Pacto Alagoas, non-governmental organisation formed by leaders of the private sector	1
46	Agricultural labourers' organisations	1
47	Bank of the Northeast (BN)	1
48	Federation of the Industries of Alagoas	1
49	National Department of Roads Traffic (DNER)	1
50	The Mail	1
51	Social Service of Commerce (SESC), Alagoas' section	1
52	National Service for Industry Labour Training (SENAI)	1
53	Brazilian Tourist Board (EMBRATUR)	1
54	Ilmar Caldas (individual, expert in tourism)	1
55	Antônio Noya (individual, expert in tourism)	1

It is paradoxical that some key stakeholders identified in Table 8.9 were not involved directly in the project's collaboration, given that the central aim of the Costa Dourada project is to build physical and social infrastructure for the sustainable tourism development of Alagoas' north coast. However, it may well be impractical to include

in a collaborative planning process all of these 55 non-participants. Adding the 55 stakeholders to the current participants, the project's planning domain would then include 84 participants. To provide the planning infrastructure and logistics to a group of this size, and to listen to all of them in a meaningful way using consensus-building approaches would be a difficult, if not impossible, task, especially in a planning context that suffers from scarce financial resources. However, as Gray (1989) contends, the non-involvement of key stakeholders in a collaboration may weaken the problem definition and limit the power of the agreements. In this sense, it is surprising that EMBRATUR (Brazil's tourist board) and SETUR/AL (Alagoas' state secretary of tourism) were not directly involved in the project planning. Similarly, the following three key infrastructure organisations were not participating: CEAL (energy), TELASA (telecommunications) and the National Department of Road Traffic (DNER). Also absent were key tourist-related stakeholder groups, such as hoteliers (ABIH), travels agents (ABAV) and event organisers (ABEOC). Considering that there was only one business organisation involved directly in the project planning, it was perhaps not surprising that private-sector organisations were the type of stakeholder most frequently mentioned by respondents as not represented but who ought to be, with these accounting for 31 of the 56 mentions.

One of the 38 non-participants did not know whether all parties with an interest in the Costa Dourada project were represented in its planning process.

8.4 IDENTIFICATION OF ISSUES OF CONCERN

This section examines the following issues:

- What were the issues the non-participating organisations wanted to have considered in the project planning.
- Whether the non-participants considered their issues of interest had been considered in the project planning.

6) What is the main issue or set of issues that your organisation wants to have considered in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

The non-participants identified 42 issues that their organisations wanted to have considered in the project planning. Table 8.10 presents these issues, together with the type of the stakeholders who mentioned each issue and the geographical scale at which the stakeholder operates. Infrastructure was by far the most prominent issue, having been mentioned by 23 non-participants. This accounts for over 60% of the 38

respondents and it represents 27.4% of the 84 mentions of an issue of concern. Environmental conservation came in second place, having been mentioned by seven respondents. In third place there were four issues: labour training for the tourist industry, stakeholder participation in the project planning, health care, and explanation about the nature of the project and the implications of its implementation, each being named by three respondents.

It is interesting that 15 of the 23 non-participants who identified infrastructure as an issue of concern were private-sector organisations, and 14 of the 23 were local-scale stakeholders. This highlights the private-sector interest in investment in tourism development in the municipalities, which may be realised when the infrastructure is built. This also indicates that the Costa Dourada had great potential to eventually interest the private sector and hence to give a boost to the region's economy, this being an important step forward to creating a more satisfactory future for the project's domain. Another interesting finding was that among the seven non-respondents who identified environmental conservation as an issue of concern, most of them (four of seven respondents) were private-sector stakeholders. This suggests at least in principle some concern for infrastructure development coupled with the protection of the environment.

Table 8.10 Issues that non-participants wanted to have considered in the project's planning process.

Issue	Number of respondents who mentioned this issue	Number of respondents who mentioned this issue by type of stakeholder	Number of respondents who mentioned this issue by geographical scale at which the stakeholder operates
Infrastructure	23	G3-P15-NGO5	N6-R3-L14
Environmental conservation	7	G2-P4-NGO1	N3-R3-L1
Labour training for the tourism industry	3	G1-P1-NGO1	R1-L2
Stakeholder participation	3	G1-P1-NGO1	N2-R1
Health care	3	P2-NGO1	N1-L2
Explanation about the nature of the project and the implications of its implementation	3	G1-P1-NGO1	N1-R2
Schooling for the communities	2	P	R1-L1
Sustainable development	2	G	N1-R1
Service quality	2	G1-P1	N
Tourist orientation	2	G1-P1	N
Building of hotels in the municipality	2	G1-P1	N1-L1
Participation of communities	2	P1-NGO1	R1-L1
Improvement in the quality of life of residents	2	P	R1-L1

Table 8.10 (continued...)

Design of a management plan for the coral reef of the region	1	NGO	R
Historical aspects of the region	1	NGO	R
Environmental education	1	P	L
Macro-zoning of the region	1	G	R
Participation approach	1	G	R
Location of development actions of projects	1	G	R
Preservation of fishers' sites (Residences & equipment houses)	1	P	R
Creation of jobs	1	NGO	L
Securing jobs for residents	1	G	L
Regional development through tourism	1	G	R
Equitable benefits to all interested parties	1	G	L
Traffic control	1	G	R
The social problems of the region	1	P	L
Project implementation	1	G	L
Financial support for craftsmen	1	P	L
Technological support for craftsmen	1	P	L
Project marketing	1	P	L
Monitoring of the use of the financial resources allocated for the project	1	P	L
Financial support to the private sector	1	P	L
Housing	1	NGO	L
Access to computers and software	1	NGO	L
Organisation of events	1	P	N
Building of police stations and refurbishment of existing ones	1	G	R
Increase in the number of military and plain-clothes policemen in the region	1	G	R
Education of the population for project implementation	1	P	L
Education of the communities to deal with increased traffic flow	1	G	R
Participation of the private sector	1	P	N
Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) of development actions of the project	1	NGO	R

Type of stakeholder	Geographical scale at which stakeholder operates
G Government P Private sector NGO Non-governmental organisation	N National R Regional L Local

7) As far as you are aware, to date has this issue or set of issues been considered in the planning for the project?

Probes: If yes, which one or ones?
If no, why not?

A reasonable healthy 17 out of the 38 non-participants considered that the issues their organisations wanted to have considered in the project planning had been considered. More precisely, 14 of these 17 non-participants considered that all their issues of concern had been considered, while the remaining three non-participants considered that only some issues had been considered. However, a worrying number of non-participants, namely eleven, did not feel that their issues of concern had been considered. Perhaps surprisingly, this suggests a reasonably high level of awareness among these 38 stakeholders who were not direct participants in the project planning about decisions that had been made in this planning. But then as many as 10 non-participants did not know whether the issues of concern to their organisation had been considered.

Five of the 11 non-participants who considered the issues their organisation wanted to have considered in the project planning had not been considered were unable to explain why. The remaining six non-participants gave the explanations shown in Table 8.11. One non-participant offered two explanations.

From a political perspective, Table 8.11 indicates that the explanations offered by the L, R and N non-participants appear to be fairly neutral. Somewhat differently, one P-L stakeholder suggested a mismatch of interests between the participating stakeholders and his organisation. Similarly, the other P-L non-participant suggested that competition might have been the reason why their interests had not been considered

Table 8.11 Explanations why some non-participants considered that the issues their organisations wanted to have considered in the planning for the project had not been considered.

Explanation	Number of respondents who mentioned this explanation	Type and geographical scale at which respondent's organisation operates
The Planning Unit was not aware of the need to consider the issues.	1	G-N
Due to a lack of financial resources on the part of the state government.	1	G-R
He is not participating in the planning process for the project, so he cannot explain why.	1	G-L
Possibly due to a lack of interest in the issues on the part of the Planning Unit.	1	P-L
Possibly due to a fear of competition.	1	P-L
Because the Costa Dourada project is one of the most authoritarian things that have been done in Alagoas.	1	NGO-R
It is a result of a culture that is in favour of economic growth at all costs.	1	NGO-R

in the project planning. The two explanations offered by the NGO-R non-participant indicate extreme political differences between this stakeholder's organisation and the inter-organisational domain involved in the project planning. Given that the Costa Dourada collaboration is led by the state government, the position taken by this stakeholder may reflect the history of litigation during the dictatorial times between the environmental movement in Alagoas and the state and federal governments, as discussed in Chapter 5.

8.5 COMMON DEFINITION OF PROBLEM

This section examines the main priorities that non-participants wanted to have considered in the project planning.

8) What would your organisation like the Costa Dourada project to have as its main priority or priorities?

This question identified 34 issues that the non-participants wanted the project to have as its main priority (see Table 8.12). Twenty-eight of the 38 non-participants indicated that infrastructure was the major priority that their organisation wanted the Costa Dourada project to have. In second place, labour training for the tourist industry and environmental conservation were named by six non-participants each as a major priority. In third place were health care, schooling for the communities and improvement in the quality of life of the population, each cited by four non-participants.

This high interest among non-participants in infrastructure development does relate to the project's domain-level problem. For example, infrastructure was also the main issue of concern and priority number one among participating stakeholders. Additionally, it is interesting that at the same time the non-participants were interested in infrastructure, they were also interested in issues that are intrinsically related to sustainability. For example, while there was a concern with training labour for the tourist industry, there was also the desire that project implementation would observe environmental issues and that it led to improved health care, better school provision and improvement in the quality of life of the population. Again, there is an overlap here with the main issues participants wanted to have considered in the project planning. For example, the participants' second and third main priorities were environmental conservation and improvement in the quality of life of the community. These overlaps might suggest that the project's collaborative planning was perceived

by non-participants to also represent indirectly the interests of a substantial number of non-participating interested parties. Hence, it could be argued that the collaborative outcomes were likely to be supported by a broad number of parties interested in the project but who were not involved directly in its planning process.

Table 8.12 Priorities that the non-participants wanted the Costa Dourada project to have in its planning process.

Priority	Number of respondents who mentioned this priority
Infrastructure.	28
Labour training for the tourist industry.	6
Environmental conservation.	6
Health care.	4
Schooling for the communities.	4
Improvement in the quality of life of the population.	4
The continuity of the project, that is, that it does not stop with the implementation of infrastructure. It must have a link with the private sector.	2
Education of the community for tourism development.	2
Creation of jobs.	2
Project planning and implementation that takes fully into consideration the interests of the affected communities.	1
A system of traffic control for the region.	1
Tourist orientation.	1
Protection of the local culture.	1
Creation of tourist events.	1
Creation of tourist attractions.	1
Fiscal incentives for hotel groups.	1
Building of hotels.	1
The building of an airport in the region (in the Municipality of Maragögi).	1
Housing for local residents.	1
Public security.	1
Creation of a police station specialised in tourism.	1
Creation of an integrated communication system for the police that covers the whole region.	1
Total service quality of the tourist industry.	1
Use of tourism as tool for the development of the region.	1
Raising awareness of the affected parties regarding the positive and negative impacts of tourism.	1
Continuous revision of GERCO's macro-zoning for the region.	1

8.6 COMMITMENT TO COLLABORATE

This section examines whether non-respondents considered that their organisation would gain benefits from participation in the Costa Dourada's planning process that they would not get by working independently.

9) In your view, would working together with the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project enable your organisation to gain any benefit or benefits that it would not gain by working on its own? [The participants were identified on the list I showed you earlier. Do you want to see it again?]

- Probes: If yes, *please explain how your organisation would benefit from working together with the participants involved in the planning process for the project.*
- If yes, *please explain why your organisation would benefit from working together with the participants involved in the planning process for the project.*
- If no, *why not?*

A substantial 31 of the 38 non-participants considered that their organisation would benefit from working together with the participants. Non-participants named 11 ways *how* their organisation would have such gains (see Table 8.13). Despite feeling that their organisation would benefit from participation, two non-participants failed to explain how this would happen.

Clearly, advancing one's individual interests in the region was the type of benefit most non-participants considered their organisation would gain from working together with participants. This perceived benefit was mentioned by 18 non-participants, this representing 62% of the mentions of a type of benefit. Table 8.13 also indicates that there were only five mentions of their organisation having individual benefits by helping to develop collective gains, a type of benefit mentioned many more times by participants (19 times).

Table 8.14 shows *why* non-participants considered that their organisation would

Table 8.13 Non-participants' explanation of how their organisation would benefit from working together with participants in the project planning.

Participation	Number of respondents who mentioned this benefit
Would provide access to the planning for the project, giving their organisations an opportunity to advance their interests in the region.	18
Would give the organisation an opportunity to make inputs into the planning process which could lead to benefits for the project as a whole.	2
Would lead the organisation to become fully aware of what the Costa Dourada project actually is.	2
Would lead the organisation to make decisions more fully aware of the problems of the municipality.	1
Would make the organisation more widely known.	1
Might lead the organisation to have less costs associated with the project by helping prevent conceptual errors.	1
Would lead the organisation's staff to have a more accurate vision of the problems of the region and the remit of other organisations.	1
Leads the organisation to meet the demands of the project in a faster and technically more appropriate way.	1
Would lead to the legitimisation of the organisation's actions in relation to the project.	1
Would help in monitoring the planning and implementation of the project and ensure it is targeted on sustainable tourism development.	1

benefit from participation in the project planning, indicating that as many as 10 non-participants considered that participation would provide their organisation with access to the knowledge and expertise of other organisations. The second type of benefit most frequently mentioned (by eight non-participants) was that participation would provide an opportunity for their organisation to work over problems that they shared with other organisations. The third most frequently mentioned benefit was that their organisation would increase its access to financial resources, this being mentioned by six non-participants. These findings indicate a primacy of self-interest over more collective types of benefits. For example, while only eight non-participants mentioned benefits deriving from working through shared interests with the participants, there were 15 mentions of individual benefits, namely increased access to the knowledge and expertise of other organisations and to financial resources. In addition, there were three mentions of the organisation having access to planning arenas whose decisions affected the organisation and one respondent mentioned that participation would increase the organisation's political influence in the region. Despite feeling the organisation would benefit from participation, three respondents failed to explain why.

Only six of the 38 respondents considered that their organisation would not benefit from working together with participants (see Table 8.15). Three private-sector non-participants explained that their organisation did not feel dependent on the participants to advance their interests in the region. Another respondent felt their organisation would not benefit from collaborating because it would lose its freedom to relate to other stakeholders independently. However, theoretically collaborating stakeholders do not lose their autonomy to relate to non-participants. The two last explanations presented in Table 8.15 suggest that the two organisations may not have felt dependent on participants to advance their interests in the region.

Table 8.14 Non-participants' explanation of why their organisation would benefit from working together with participants in the project planning.

Participation	Number of respondents who mentioned this type of benefit
Would provide access to the knowledge and expertise of other organisations.	10
Would provide the organisation with the opportunity to work together over interests that are common between the organisation and other organisations.	8
Would provide increased access to financial resources.	6
Would provide direct access to planning arenas whose decisions affect the organisation.	3
Would increase the organisation's political power in the region.	1

Table 8.15 Non-participants' explanations why their organisation would not benefit from working together with participants in the project planning.

In the respondents' view, there would be no benefits because	Number of respondents who mentioned this explanation
The organisation had independent ways to advance its interests.	3
The organisation would lose its freedom of relating to other organisations on its own.	1
The organisation's interests were spread over the whole state and not only on the municipalities affected by the project.	1
The organisation was interested in general guidelines for tourism development and not in the planning of individual projects.	1

Finally, one non-participant did not know whether their organisation would benefit from working together with the participants.

8.7 DECISION-MAKING PROCEDURE

This section examines from the perspective of non-participants who decided who could participate in the project planning and how this decision was made.

10) In your view, who decides who can participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

As many as 20 of the 38 non-participants did not know who decided who could participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. The remaining 18 non-participants identified nine such decision-makers (see Table 8.16). Some non-participants named more than one decision-maker. As many as 16 of the 21 mentions indicate that in the view of non-participants the state government decided who could participate in the project planning, including the Planning Unit which was named by eight non-participants. Again these findings illustrate a recognition of the leadership of the state government in the project planning. It also indicates awareness among at least nine non-participants that the Planning Unit was the project's domain organiser.

11) In your view, how is it decided who participates in the planning process for the project?

Twenty-seven of the 38 non-participants did not know how it was decided who could participate in the project's planning process. The remaining 11 non-participants suggested five ways in which such decisions were made, with some non-participants

Table 8.16 Non-participants' views on who decided who could participate in the project planning.

Decision-maker	Number of respondents who mentioned this decision-maker
The Planning Unit	8
The state government	6
The Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit	1
The Chief State Secretary of Planning and Development	1
The World Bank	1
The Interamerican Development Bank	1
Participants	1
The municipal governments	1
The private sector	1

suggesting more than one decision-making procedure (see Table 8.17). All 16 mentions of how stakeholders were chosen to participate in the project planning referred to the state government, including eight non-participants suggesting that this decision was made by the Planning Unit. This again highlights that the Planning Unit was seen by many non-participants as the organisation spear-heading the project's planning process.

Table 8.17 Non-participants' views on ways in which it was decided who could participate in the Costa Dourada's planning process.

Ways in which decisions were made	Number of mentions
Members of the Planning Unit identified stakeholders who could potentially participate. Then they discussed and reached a decision regarding who to invite.	8
The government identified and invited individuals who had technical planning capacity.	3
The state government identified and invited organisations that had to do with the project planning.	2
The state government identified and invited organisations whose functions would be affected by the project.	2
The municipal governments made suggestions to the Planning Unit of stakeholders they considered should participate.	1

8.8 PARTICIPATION METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

This section examines the methods that non-participants used to express their views to participants.

Non-participants identified 10 types of methods that non-participants used to express their views to participants. Table 8.18 presents these methods, the number of non-participants who used each method as well as the degree of effectiveness they assigned to them. The results here are similar to those in Chapter 6, when collaborating stakeholders identified the methods they had used in the project

Table 8.18 Methods and techniques used by non-participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project to express their views about the project to participants in its planning.

Methods and techniques used	Number of respondents who use this method or technique	Highly ineffective	Somewhat ineffective	Neither ineffective nor effective	Somewhat effective	Highly effective	Don't know
Meetings with one other participant	8	1	-	-	4	3	-
Meetings with two or three participants	8	-	-	-	5	3	-
Meeting with more than three but not all participants	8	-	-	-	7	1	-
Meetings called for all participants	7	-	-	-	4	3	-
Workshops	11	-	-	-	6	4	1
Telephone conversations	5	-	1	-	2	2	-
Letters by post	2	-	1	-	1	-	-
Letters by messenger	1	-	-	-	1	-	-
Fax	1	-	-	1	-	-	-
E-mail	1	-	-	-	1	-	-
Seminars	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	52	1	2	1	31	16	1

planning, with the methods most widely used by non-participants also being those where there was face-to-face interaction between stakeholders. Nearly 81% of non-participants mentioned that they used such methods, and they assigned a higher level of effectiveness to these methods. For example, 62% of the responses were that these procedures were 'somewhat effective' and over 33% were that they were 'highly effective'. This means that more than 95% of references to the effectiveness of these methods fell on the 'effective' end of the scale. The remaining 19.2% of the mentions of methods used by non-participants related to means such as faxes, posted letters and telephone calls which do not involve face-to-face interaction. Overall, just over 90% of references to the effectiveness of the methods used by non-participants were on the 'effective' end of the scale.

These results support the earlier findings that the project used various types of non-collaborative participation approaches. For example, it shows that 11 non-participants attended at least one planning workshop. It also indicates that at least seven non-participants attended each of the following types of meetings: 'meetings with one other participant', 'meetings with two or three participants', 'meetings with more than three but not all participants' and 'meetings called for all participants'. It should be remembered that these stakeholders did not qualify as direct participants in the project planning according to the methodology used to establish the sample of the collaborating stakeholders (see section 4.6.1).

The questionnaire data revealed that eight of the non-participants who had had an input into the project planning were private-sector organisations. One such organisation (ABEOC) used five methods, another (Hotel Salinas) used four methods, another hotel (Captain Nicolas) used three methods and the remaining four stakeholders used only one method each. Six of the non-participants having an input into the project planning were governmental organisations. These non-participants used a broader number of methods. For example, one organisation (BN) used eight methods, UFAL and SETUR used six methods each, UVEAL used four methods and the other two used one method each. Four of the five NGOs in the sample of non-participants had used some method. For example, IPMA used six methods and the remaining three NGOs used one method each. Among the organisations who did not have any input into the planning process there were 13 private-sector and six governmental organisations and one NGO. This information shows that governmental non-participating organisations used a broader range of methods than the other non-participants. Among non-participants who did not have any input into the project's planning, as many as 13 were private-sector stakeholders, a substantial number.

8.9 DEALING WITH CONSTITUENCIES

This section examines the following issues:

- Whether collaborating stakeholders consulted with and reported to non-participants.
- Whether non-participants consulted with and reported to their constituencies concerning the project.
- Whether the non-participants considered it important to consult with and report to their constituencies concerning the project.

1) In my view, the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project consult with my organisation before planning decisions are made concerning the project.

[25]	[5]	[0]	[3]	[4]	[1]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

Thirty of the 38 responses fell on the 'disagree' side of the scale, 25 'strongly disagree' and five 'somewhat disagree'. Only seven responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, being four 'strongly agree' and three 'somewhat agree'. One respondent marked the 'don't know' category. Despite 30 respondents having disagreed with the statement, it is important that seven non-participants were consulted by the participants as to some extent this confirms the findings discussed in Chapters 5 and

6, where documents and participants identified consultation with non-participants as one way used in the project planning to hear the views of non-participants.

2) *In my view, the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project report to my organisation about the planning decisions that are made concerning the project.*

[21]	[8]	[1]	[7]	[0]	[1]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

Twenty-nine responses fell on the 'disagree' side of the scale, with 21 'strongly disagree' and eight 'somewhat disagree'. Seven responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, all seven 'somewhat agree'. One respondent marked the 'neither disagree nor agree' category and one respondent marked the 'don't know' category. Similarly to the previous question, this indicates that the participants had reported to seven of the non-participants about project decisions.

3) *I consult with my constituents concerning the Costa Dourada project.*

[9]	[1]	[5]	[10]	[13]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

Twenty-three responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, with 13 non-participants having 'strongly agreed' and 10 having 'somewhat agreed'. Ten responses fell on the 'disagree' side of the scale, being nine 'strongly disagree' and one 'somewhat disagree'. Five non-participants marked the 'neither disagree nor agree' category. These findings suggest that quite a substantial number of non-participants were aware of and may have been active in relation to the Costa Dourada project and its planning.

4) *It is important to consult with my constituents concerning the Costa Dourada project.*

[1]	[1]	[1]	[3]	[32]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

Thirty-five responses fell on the 'agree' end of the scale, being 32 'strongly agree' and three 'somewhat agree'. Two responses fell on the 'disagree' end of the scale, being one 'somewhat disagree' and one 'strongly disagree'. One respondent marked the 'neither disagree nor agree' category. Similar to the results for this issue among collaborating stakeholders, almost all respondents (35 of 38 in this case) considered it

important to consult with their constituencies about the project, at least as an ideal. However, there were gaps between this ideal and the reality, with a smaller number of respondents (23) claiming to have put the ideal into practice by consulting with their constituencies.

5) *I report to my constituents about the planning decisions that are made concerning the Costa Dourada project which come to my attention.*

[2]	[2]	[4]	[12]	[18]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

Thirty responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, being 18 'strongly agree' and 12 'somewhat agree'. Four responses fell on the 'disagree' side of the scale, being two 'somewhat disagree' and two 'strongly disagree'. Four respondents marked the 'neither disagree nor agree' category. As was found for the participants, a larger number of non-participants reported about the project to their constituencies than consulted with them. Nevertheless, it is still notable that as many as 30 stakeholders not involved directly in the project planning claimed to report to their constituencies about the planning decisions that came to their attention, indicating a high level of interest in the project and its planning among non-participants.

6) *It is important to report to my constituents about the planning decisions that are made concerning the Costa Dourada project which come to my attention.*

[0]	[1]	[0]	[2]	[35]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

As many as 37 responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, being 35 'strongly agree' and two 'somewhat agree'. One respondent marked the 'somewhat disagree' category. Hence, idealistically 37 of the 38 respondents considered it important to report to their constituencies about project decisions, but this was more than the number of respondents (30) who suggested they reported to their constituencies in practice.

8.10 CONSIDERATION OF THE VIEWS OF ALL PARTIES WITH AN INTEREST IN THE PROJECT

This section examines the following issues:

- Whether the non-participants considered that all local, state and federal stakeholders from the government, private sector and non-governmental

organisations were likely to have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project.

- Whether the non-participants considered that the views of all stakeholders listed above were likely to be taken fully into consideration by participants.
- Whether the non-participants considered that their organisation had had sufficient opportunity to express its views fully about the project to participants.
- Whether the non-participants considered that the participants were likely to take fully into consideration the views of the respondents' organisation.

12) In your view, is it likely that all municipal, state and federal level parties with an interest in the Costa Dourada project will have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project to the participants in its planning process?

Probes: If yes, *how might this be achieved?*

If no, *which interested party or parties are unlikely to have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully, and why?* [for each one]

Twenty-five of the 38 non-participants considered that it was likely that all local, state and federal-level stakeholders would have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project to participants. These 25 non-participants suggested several ways in which this could be achieved (see Table 8.19). Thirteen non-participants suggested that interested parties could attend project planning meetings. Altogether, there were 18 mentions (nearly 53% of all mentions) of participation methods which would involve stakeholders directly in discussions with participants (meetings, workshops and seminars), again perhaps indicating a preference for collective participation approaches. Eight non-participants suggested that the planning should create participation mechanisms, including consultative approaches. Three non-participants suggested that interested parties themselves should find ways to get involved in the project planning.

Eleven of the 38 non-participants did not consider that all municipal, state and federal-level stakeholders were likely to have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project to participants. The organisations that non-participants considered were not likely to have such an opportunity appear in Table 8.20. Communities were named six times and among these there were specific references to small local businesses and to fishers. This suggests that some non-participants felt that the local communities were under-represented despite each municipality having an official municipal representative in the project's collaborative planning. Environmental NGOs were mentioned by three non-participants, suggesting that some non-participants

Table 8.19 Suggestions offered by non-participants on how parties interested in the Costa Dourada project could express their views fully about the project to participants.

Ways in which interested parties might express their views fully	Number of respondents who mentioned this way
Through planning meetings open to all interested parties.	13
Through consultation with interested parties.	8
Through seminars with interested parties.	3
By interested parties getting organised and getting involved in the project's planning process.	3
Through workshops with interested parties.	2
Through the participation in the planning process for the project of one representative of each municipality affected by the project.	2
By choosing people who are capable and who know a great deal about the Costa Dourada project, the region and its problems.	1
The mayors of the region should invite interested parties to participate.	1
By developing a process to raise the awareness of interested parties concerning the need for them to work together in the project's planning.	1

Table 8.20 Stakeholders that non-participants considered were not likely to have the opportunity to express their views fully about the project to the participants.

Stakeholder	Number of respondents who mentioned this stakeholder
Communities	6
Environmental NGOs	3
Organisations that are not sufficiently articulate to have access to the project planning	2
Tourists	1
The private sector	1
Small organisations	1
Scientific community	1
Port authority	1

were concerned about the environmental impacts of the project. It also suggests that some non-participants felt that environmental stakeholders may not have the power to make themselves represented in the project planning. Two non-participants indirectly identified power issues by suggesting that organisations that were not sufficiently organised were unlikely to be able to express their views about the project to participants.

Two of the 38 non-participants did not know whether interested parties were likely to have the opportunity to express their views fully to participants about the project planning.

13) In your view, is it likely that all parties from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations with an interest in the Costa Dourada project will have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project to the

participants in its planning process?

Probes: If yes, *how might this be achieved?*

If no, *which interested party or parties are unlikely to have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully, and why? [for each one]*

An encouraging 26 of the 38 non-participants considered that all parties from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations were likely to have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project to the participants. These 26 non-participants made similar comments as appeared in Table 8.19, which again suggests that the project domain's stakeholders preferred collective participation methods, though a good proportion of these stakeholders appeared willing to express their views through consultative approaches.

However, 10 of the 38 non-participants did not consider that all government, private-sector and non-governmental organisations were likely to have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project to participants, and the organisations they named appear in Table 8.21. Six non-participants felt that municipal government, including the local communities they included, were unlikely to have the opportunity to express their views fully to participants. This suggests either a lack of awareness that the project planning did include official local representation or else a lack of confidence that municipal government would indeed represent local interests. Again, environmental NGOs were among the main stakeholders that non-participants considered would not have the opportunity to express their views. This might also suggest that non-participants perceived some sort of antagonism between the government - who leads the project planning - and the environmental NGOs in Alagoas state. These two stakeholder groups used to have highly adversarial relations during the recent dictatorship and this historical legacy might still affect the politics of the region (see Chapter 5).

Two non-participants (NGO-R/G-L) contended that the Planning Unit did not consult with the local government and the communities. In the view of a G-L non-participant, "local government are unlikely to express their views about the project because the state and federal-level government are more powerful than local government". An NGO-R non-participant contended that the municipal government, communities, NGOs and the scientific community were unlikely to have the opportunity to express their views fully because "the state government have a fear that these interested parties may question the project planning guidelines. The private sector are afraid

Table 8.21 Stakeholders that non-participants considered were not likely to have the opportunity to express their views fully about the project to the participants.

Stakeholder	Number of respondents who mentioned this stakeholder
Municipal government, including local communities	6
Environmental NGOS	4
The private sector	1
Organisations that are not sufficiently articulate	1
Small organisations	1
The scientific community	1

they may have less profit from the project if these organisations participated". This adds support to the argument that the relations between environmental NGOs and the government, and also in relation to the private sector, are still fairly adversarial in Alagoas state. This would represent an obstacle for environmental NGO participation in government-led tourism planning in the project area.

In response to both Questions 12 and 13, local government, communities and environmental NGOs were the stakeholder groups identified as unlikely to have the opportunity to express their views fully to participants. This suggests that some non-participants perceived a cleavage between these stakeholder groups and the state government, with the former having little power in the project's problem domain and the state government having considerable influence on the project planning. Again, this may be rooted in the legacy of authoritarian planning during Brazil's recent dictatorship when the central government largely determined the country's development policies, and the state governments and regional representatives of the military implemented them.

Two of the 38 non-participants did not know whether the parties mentioned in the question were likely to have the opportunity to express their views fully about the project to the participants.

14) In your view, is it likely that the views of all parties at the municipal, state and federal levels with an interest in the Costa Dourada project will be taken fully into consideration by the participants in the planning process for the project?

Probes: If yes, *in which way or ways?*

If no, *which interested party or parties are unlikely to have their views taken fully into consideration, and why? [for each one]*

Twenty-three of the 38 non-participants considered that the views of all interested parties at the different spatial scales - municipal, state and federal - were likely to be taken fully into consideration by the participants. Table 8.22 presents how these non-participants suggested this could be achieved. The fact that 10 respondents suggested that once non-participants had the opportunity to express their views then these views would be taken into consideration suggests that these respondents placed much confidence in the participants' willingness to consider the views of a broad range of non-participating stakeholders. This interpretation could also be made of the eight respondents who considered it likely that participants would give full consideration to the views of non-participants. Considering the political nature of planning, the two main groups of responses in Table 8.22 perhaps indicate a lack of critical awareness among these non-participants of the difficulties of project planning. Indeed, three of the 23 respondents who responded positively to Question 14 were unable to suggest how the views of non-participants were likely to be taken fully into consideration by participants, even when probed repeatedly.

However, six of the 38 non-participants responded negatively to Question 14. Table 8.23 presents the stakeholders whose views they considered unlikely to be taken fully into consideration. One of these six non-participants was unable to name any interested parties in this category.

Table 8.22 Non-participants' views on how the views of all parties with an interest in the project at the municipal, state and federal levels were likely to be taken fully into consideration.

How stakeholder views were likely to be taken fully into consideration	Number of mentions
By interested parties expressing their views to participants.	10
By participants making decisions on the basis of the views expressed by interested parties.	8
By participants actually implementing decisions.	2

Table 8.23 Stakeholders whose views the non-participants considered were unlikely to be taken fully into consideration by participants.

Stakeholder	Number of mentions
Municipal government	2
Small organisations	1
Environmental NGOs	1
Those organisations that are not sufficiently organised	1

Four of the 38 non-participants considered that it was possible that the views of all parties with an interest in the project would be taken fully into consideration, but they were unable to elaborate on their response.

Finally, five of the 38 non-participants did not know whether the views of all interested parties were likely to be taken fully into consideration.

15) In your view, is it likely that the views of all parties from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations with an interest in the project will be taken fully into consideration by the participants in the planning process for the project?

Probes: If yes, *in which way or ways?*

If no, *which interested party or parties are unlikely to have their views taken fully into consideration, and why? [for each one]*

Twenty-one of the 38 non-participants considered that the views of all interested parties from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations were likely to be taken fully into consideration by participants. Respondents' suggestions of how this could be achieved are roughly the same as the responses to Question 14.

However, nine of the 38 non-participants responded negatively to Question 15. Table 8.24 presents the stakeholders whose views these non-participants considered were unlikely to be taken fully into consideration. One of these nine respondents was unable to name any interested party. Again, the municipal government was the main stakeholder group identified, this group being mentioned by four respondents, and two specifically mentioned small organisations.

Three of the 38 non-participants considered it possible that the views of all parties from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations

Table 8. 24 Stakeholders whose views non-participants considered were unlikely to be taken fully into consideration by participants.

Stakeholder	Number of respondents who mentioned this stakeholder
Municipal government	4
Small organisations	2
Those organisations that are not sufficiently articulate	1
NGOs	1
Environmental NGOs	1
The private sector	1

interested in the project would be taken fully into consideration by participants, although they were unable to elaborate on this.

Five non-participants did not know whether the views of all parties with an interest in the project were likely to be taken fully into consideration.

16) In your view, has your organisation had sufficient opportunity to express its views fully about the Costa Dourada project to the participants involved in the planning process for the project?

Probes: If yes, *in which way or ways?*
If no, *why not?*

A very substantial 34 of the 38 non-participants considered that their organisation had not had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the Costa Dourada project to the participants. This indicates a level of discontent with the consultation process so far, which may cause problems in the future. When these respondents were asked why, 20 of them responded simply that they had not been invited to participate. The remaining 14 non-participants offered quite a range of explanations (see Table 8.25).

The explanation offered by four non-participants that there were communication deficiencies between the Planning Unit and interested parties had been admitted by

Table 8.25 Explanations offered by non-participants as to why their organisation had not had sufficient opportunity to express their views to participants.

Explanation	Number of respondents who mentioned this explanation
Not invited to participate.	20
There were communication deficiencies between the Planning Unit and interested parties.	4
National and state levels of government as well as the private sector failed to recognise the intrinsic value of their stakeholder group (local legislators).	1
The organisation had participated mainly at the local level.	1
Governmental organisations only trust their own technical knowledge.	1
The organisation was originally from another state and because of that it was ignored by local participants.	1
Members were not interested in the participation of the organisation.	1
The organisation was not interested in participating.	1
The representative for the municipality where the organisation operates did not participate in the project's planning in an effective way.	1
The organisation had been closed for two years until recently.	1
The organisation has only participated in an indirect way.	1
The organisation only got information about the Costa Dourada project directly from the market.	1

the Unit's Co-ordinator General. Again, the response of a local legislator indicates a perceived cleavage between local government and state and federal governments. One respondent indicated that he participated indirectly and another said that he participated locally, which suggests that the local representative in the project planning must have been active in the municipality in listening to the local constituencies. Another respondent contended that the local representative did not participate in the project planning effectively, which perhaps indicates a more critical view of the project planning.

Four of the 38 non-participants considered that their organisation had had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project to participants. These respondents indicated they had attended meetings and public seminars that had been called by the Planning Unit. This lends additional support to the contention by members of the Planning Unit that the project's collaborative planning also drew on consultation with non-participants.

17) *In your view, are the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project likely to take fully into consideration the views of your organisation?*

Probes: If yes, *in which way or ways*
If no, *why not?*

As many as 25 of the 38 non-participants considered that their organisation's views were likely to be taken fully into consideration by participants. These 25 non-participants offered several different explanations in support of their response (see Table 8.26). The explanation offered by 14 non-participants that their organisation's views were likely to be given full consideration when they expressed them and discussed them with participants again suggests that participants were open to listening to other interested parties not involved directly in the project planning. This interpretation also applies to the eight non-participants who explained that their views were likely to be given consideration by participants in the decision-making process.

Less positively, 11 of the 38 non-participants considered that their organisation's views were unlikely to be taken fully into consideration by participants. Table 8.27 presents the explanations these non-participants offered in support of their response. Six felt that participants were not interested in non-participant's views, perhaps indicating differences between their organisation's interests and participants' interests.

Table 8.26 Explanations offered by non-participants of how their organisation's views were likely to be taken fully into consideration by the participants.

Explanation	Number of mentions
By participants listening to and discussing the views expressed by interested parties.	14
By participants taking into account the views of interested parties in the decision-making process.	8
By the government actually implementing decisions.	3
By using the reports the organisation sends to the Planning Unit.	1
When the organisation expresses its views through the media and creates a political problem.	1

Four non-participants explained that, as their organisation was not involved in the project planning, their views were unlikely to be taken fully into consideration by participants. Two respondents were sceptical of the value of participation because they felt that the project decisions had already been made.

Table 8.27 Explanations offered by non-participants of why their organisation's views were unlikely to be taken fully into consideration by the participants.

Explanation	Number of mentions
Participants are not interested in the organisation's views.	6
The organisation is not a participant in the planning process.	4
The decisions regarding the project have already been made.	2
They have had just a few opportunities to participate.	1
The communication between the Planning Unit and the organisation is deficient.	1
Participants do not know the organisation well.	1

Two of the 38 non-participants did not know whether their organisation's views were likely to be taken fully into consideration by participants.

8.11 IMPLEMENTATION OF PLANNING OUTCOMES

This section examines whether non-participants considered the decisions made in the Costa Dourada's planning process were likely to be fully implemented.

7) The decisions made in the planning for the Costa Dourada project are likely to be fully implemented.

[3] Strongly disagree	[4] Somewhat disagree	[2] Neither disagree nor agree	[18] Somewhat agree	[10] Strongly agree	[1] Don't know
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A positive finding is that 28 of the 38 responses fell on the 'agree' edge of the scale, with 18 having 'somewhat agreed' and 10 'strongly agreed' that project decisions were likely to be fully implemented. This suggests that these 28 non-participants have trust

in this aspect of the planning approach, although they might simply be hoping that the project will be fully implemented as it will benefit their organisation. However, there were also three respondents who 'strongly disagreed' and four who 'somewhat disagreed' with the statement, suggesting that quite a few non-participants were sceptical about whether project decisions will be implemented.

Two non-participants 'neither disagreed nor agreed' with the statement, and one non-participant marked the 'don't know' category.

8.12 ACCEPTANCE OF THE NEED TO GIVE FULL CONSIDERATION TO THE VIEWS OF ALL PARTIES WITH AN INTEREST IN THE PROJECT

This section examines the following issues:

- Whether non-participants considered it important for the project to give full consideration to the views of all parties with an interest in the project.
- Whether non-participants considered that the participants appeared to consider it important to give full consideration to the views of all parties with an interest in the project.

8) *It is important that the planning for the Costa Dourada project gives full consideration to the views of all parties with an interest in the project.*

[1]	[1]	[0]	[5]	[31]	[0]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

Perhaps not surprisingly, thirty-six responses fell on the 'agree' end of the scale, with 31 respondents having 'strongly agreed' and five 'somewhat agreed'. These findings suggest a desire among most non-participants that their interests are taken into consideration by the participants. Two responses fell on the 'disagree' end of the scale, being one 'somewhat disagree' and one 'strongly disagree'.

9) *In my view, the participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project appear to consider it important to give full consideration to the views of all parties with an interest in the project.*

[3]	[6]	[5]	[7]	[13]	[4]
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

Twenty responses fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, with 13 respondents having 'strongly agreed' and seven 'somewhat agreed' that the participants appeared to consider it important to give full consideration to the views of all interested parties. It

is notable that as many as 20 of the 38 stakeholders not directly involved in the project planning felt that participants were interested in the views of non-participants. This suggests both confidence in the planning approach adopted by the Planning Unit and an awareness about the project and its planning. However, there were still nine responses on the 'disagree' end of the scale, with six respondents having 'somewhat disagreed' and three 'strongly disagreed'. Five respondents marked the 'neither disagree nor agree' category and four respondents marked the 'don't know' category. Hence, a substantial minority were quite sceptical about the openness of participants to listen to their views.

8.13 ACCEPTANCE OF THE NEED TO GIVE FULL CONSIDERATION TO THE PLANNING PRIORITIES OF ALL PARTIES WITH AN INTEREST IN THE PROJECT

This section examines whether non-participants considered it important for the project planning to give full consideration to the priorities of all governmental, private-sector and non-governmental organisations with interests at the local, state and national geographical scales.

10) It is important that the planning for the Costa Dourada project gives full consideration to the planning priorities of all parties from the municipal, state and federal levels of government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations with an interest in the project.

[1] Strongly disagree	[1] Somewhat disagree	[0] Neither disagree nor agree	[6] Somewhat agree	[30] Strongly agree	[0] Don't know
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Again, perhaps not surprisingly, 36 of the 38 responses were on the 'agree' end of the scale, with 30 non-participants having 'strongly agreed' and six having 'somewhat agreed' it was important for the planning to fully consider the priorities of all parties with an interest in the project at local, state and national geographical scales. Similarly to responses to Question 8 in section 8.12, these findings suggest a desire among most non-participants that their priorities are taken into consideration by participants. Two responses fell on the 'disagree' end of the scale, being one 'somewhat disagree' and one 'strongly disagree'.

8.14 REACHING AGREEMENT ABOUT A SHARED VISION OF PROJECT DEVELOPMENT

This section examines the following issues:

- Whether non-participants considered it likely that the participants would reach an

agreement about a shared vision for the project.

- Whether non-participants considered the participants' shared vision would be accepted by all parties with an interest in the project.

18) In your view, is it likely that the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project will reach an agreement about a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term

Probe: *What makes you say that?*

Twenty-eight of the 38 non-participants considered that the participants were likely to reach an agreement about a shared vision for the project, and these 28 offered eight different explanations for their views (see Table 8.28). Ten non-participants argued that because the participants had common interests they were likely to reach a consensus about the future of the problem domain. Another nine non-participants argued that the participants were committed to reaching a shared project vision. These two types of explanation imply confidence among many non-participants that the stakeholders directly involved in the project planning were genuinely seeking a shared and more satisfactory future for their problem domain.

Three non-participants explained that participants were likely to reach a shared vision for the project because local government in the affected municipalities was involved directly in the project planning. Here it is important to remember that it is largely in the municipalities that the project will be implanted, and that local government is the constitutional representatives of the municipalities.

By contrast, eight of the 38 non-participants did not consider that participants were likely to reach an agreement about a shared vision for the project, and they offered various explanations in support of their response. Five non-participants argued that

Table 8.28 Explanations of why non-participants considered that the participants were likely to reach an agreement about a shared vision for the Costa Dourada project.

Explanation	Number of respondents who offered this explanation
Participants have common interests.	10
Participants are committed to reaching a consensus about the project.	9
Municipal governments are participating.	3
The project will bring development to the region.	2
Participants are technically very capable people.	1
Participants know the region well.	1
The approach that is used in planning meetings and workshops.	1
Participants have already reached a shared vision for the project.	1

there should be conflict between participants as this is normal and reflects differences in interests. One non-participant contended that agreement would not be reached as not all participants were involved in the project planning from the start. Another non-participant suggested that the state government was not genuinely interested in changing the *status quo*. Finally, one respondent highlighted that democratic planning was still incipient in Alagoas.

Two of the 38 non-participants did not know whether the participants were likely to reach a shared vision for the project.

19) *In your view, is it likely that the participants' shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term will also be shared by all parties with an interest in the project?*

Probe: *What makes you say that?*

Seventeen of the 28 non-participants who considered that the participants were likely to reach a shared vision for the project also felt that this shared vision would be shared by all parties with an interest in the project who were not participating directly in the project planning. These 17 non-participants offered several explanations in support of their response (see Table 8.29). As many as twelve of them argued that interested parties were likely to accept the participants' view for the project because it will bring benefits to other stakeholders, even if they were not involved directly in the project planning. This response again is an indication of the high expectations that many non-participants had that the Costa Dourada would boost the region's socio-economy. Three non-participants argued that participants had consulted with non-participants, once again indicating that the Planning Unit had used consultative participation approaches.

Table 8.29 Explanations of why non-participants considered that the participants' shared vision of the project would be shared by other parties with an interest in the project who were not direct participants in the project planning.

Explanation	Number of respondents who offered this explanation
Interested parties have expectations that the project will bring them benefits.	12
Participants have consulted with interested parties.	3
Interested parties who are not direct participants do not have the power to act against the shared vision.	1
Participants will be able to convince interested parties about the shared vision.	1

By contrast, 11 of the 28 non-participants who considered that participants were likely to reach a shared vision for the project did not consider that this shared vision would also be shared by all parties with an interest in the project who were not direct participants in the planning. Seven of these eleven non-participants contended that non-participants were not consulted about the project, which suggests that some stakeholders were not well-informed about the project's planning approach or felt it had not been sufficiently inclusive. Five non-participants argued that decisions may be against the best interests of some non-participants. One non-participant shared both these two explanations. Hence, there was quite a large number of non-participants who were unconvinced that all affected parties would agree on a shared project vision.

8.15 RIGHT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PLANNING PROCESS FOR THE PROJECT

This section examines the following issues:

- Whether non-participants considered that their organisation had the right to participate in the Costa Dourada's planning process.
- How non-participants distinguished between organisations with an interest in the project who were not involved as participants in its planning and organisations who were participants.

20) In your view, does your organisation have the right to participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probe: *Please explain.*

As many as 33 of the 38 non-participants considered that their organisation had the right to participate in the project planning, and they offered several explanations for this (see Table 8.30). Some respondents offered more than one explanation. It is notable that 23 non-participants argued that their organisation had the right to participate in the project planning simply because they were affected by the project. According to collaboration theory (Gray, 1989) and also the sustainability concept (WCED, 1987), this is a basic criterion for a stakeholder to have participation legitimacy. Given that the project aims to provide infrastructure for tourism development, seven non-participants contended that their right to participate derived from their organisation being an important part of the region's tourist industry. Additionally, four non-participants considered that their organisation could help in attaining the project's objectives.

Table 8.30 Explanations of why non-participants considered that their organisation had the right to participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

Explanation	Number of respondents who offered this explanation
The organisation's interests in the region will be affected by the project.	23
The organisation is an important part of the tourist industry in the region.	7
The organisation could help the project to attain its objectives.	4
The organisation wanted to express its views about the project.	3

Only four of the 38 non-participants did not consider that their organisation had the right to participate in the project planning, although they had difficulty in elaborating on their response even after several probes. Finally, one of the 38 non-participants did not know whether their organisation should have had the right to participate.

21) In your view, what distinguishes parties with an interest in the project from the participants who are more directly involved in planning for the project?

The non-participants identified 10 distinguishing characteristics between parties with an interest in the project but who were not involved in a direct way in the planning and the participants (see Table 8.31). Some non-participants identified more than one distinguishing characteristic, and there is a large 'other' category because of the diversity of responses.

Non-participating stakeholders often considered that participants were mostly from the government or had a public mission, they were responsible for building infrastructure

Table 8.31 Characteristics that respondents distinguished between parties with an interest in the project who were not involved in the project's planning process and stakeholders who were directly involved in it.

Distinguishing characteristics	Number of respondents who mentioned this characteristic
Participants are mostly from government organisations or have a public mission.	7
Non-participants are mostly from the private sector or have profit motives.	5
Non-participants are mostly in non-governmental organisations.	3
Participants are responsible for building infrastructure.	7
Non-participants will invest later.	4
Participants have technical knowledge.	5
Non-participants lack technical knowledge.	4
Participants have financial resources or power.	7
Non-participants have less financial resources or power.	3
Non-participants know the local areas better or will be affected more.	6
Other distinguishing characteristic.	21
Little difference between participants and non-participants.	7

and they had financial resources or power. Distinguishing characteristics often assigned to non-participants were that they were mostly from the private sector or had profit motives, they lacked technical knowledge, resources or power, and they will invest later on in the project. Some non-participants highlighted how many participants were infrastructure-related organisations. Several respondents felt that non-participants knew the local areas better or will be more affected by the project, which suggests that they identified non-participants with interests located in the municipalities.

It is interesting that seven of the 38 non-participants considered that there was little difference between participants and non-participants, this view having also been expressed by nine of the participants. Presumably, there was acceptance among these 15 stakeholders that the number of legitimate stakeholders who currently were not involved in the project planning, but who could do so, could be much broader than the 29 stakeholders currently involved.

8.16 CAPACITY TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PLANNING PROCESS FOR THE PROJECT

This section examines whether non-participants considered their organisation had the necessary resources and skills to participate in the project planning.

22) In your view, does your organisation have the necessary resources to participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probe: *Please explain.*

A substantial 32 of the 38 non-participants considered that their organisation had the necessary resources to participate in the project planning. These 32 non-participants cited several types of such resources, with some respondents citing more than one resource type (see Table 8.32). Twenty-six of these 32 non-participants argued their organisation had human resources, including marketing expertise and training for the tourist industry. In the view of eleven non-participants, their organisation had information which was relevant to the project planning. Additionally, according to seven non-participants, their organisation could provide infrastructure to assist the project planning, such as transportation, various types of laboratories and computing facilities. Financial resources were mentioned by four non-participants and one non-participant argued that their organisation could provide political support for the project.

Table 8.32 Resources that non-participants' organisations had which could justify their participation in the project planning.

Resource	Number of respondents who cited this resource
Human resources.	26
Information relevant to the project.	11
Infrastructure for project planning.	7
Financial resources.	4
Political support for the project.	1

However, six of the 38 non-participants did not consider that their organisation had the necessary resources to participate in the project planning.

23) In your view, does your organisation have the necessary skills to participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probe: *Please explain.*

An even more substantial 35 of the 38 non-participants considered that their organisation had the necessary skills to participate in the project planning. Table 8.33 presents the explanations offered by these 35 non-participants in support of their response. One non-participant offered more than one explanation. Fourteen argued that their organisation's staff had expertise which was useful for the Costa Dourada project. Similarly, 12 argued that they knew tourism well because they were part of the tourist industry. Hence, it could be suggested that tourism expertise and information among non-participating stakeholders who operate in the Costa Dourada area would be invaluable for enhancing the problem definition and also for the project planning in order to craft solutions that are more appropriate for the region's tourism problems. Seven non-participants contended that their staff were capable of discussing the project, thus suggesting that they might be well informed about tourism in the region or that they have expertise about the tourism industry.

Table 8.33 Skills non-participants' organisations had which could justify their participation in the project's planning process.

The organisation:	Number of respondents who offered this explanation
Had staff specialised in planning fields and expertise that were relevant to the project.	14
Was part of the tourism industry and knew this field well.	12
Had members who were capable of discussing about the project with participants.	7
Had the capacity to mobilise a broad number of organisations.	2
Had members who had a very good understanding of the physical and cultural resources of the region.	1

Only three of the 38 non-participants did not consider that their organisation had the necessary skills to participate in the project planning. One of these three non-participants (NGO-L: residents' association) explained that there was a wide cultural gap between the members of their organisation and the stakeholders involved as participants in the planning process. Another non-participant explained that the organisation did not have the skills to plan for infrastructure. The remaining non-participant was unable to provide an explanation.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the views about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process among stakeholders who were not directly involved in the project planning. As argued in the chapter's introduction, this represents an innovative research approach because the study of collaborative arrangements in the tourism field tends to rely almost exclusively on documentary sources and on the views of stakeholders involved as participants in a partnership. This approach was valuable because it helped further understanding of the political and planning dynamics of the Costa Dourada problem domain. The key findings in this chapter are discussed in section 9.4.

Chapter 9: Analysis and Conclusion

9.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the findings concerning the three main research questions explained in chapters 1 and 3. These are:

- (1) What are the participation processes involved in the collaborative planning process for the Costa Dourada project, if any?
- (2) To what extent does collaboration emerge in the planning process for the project?
- (3) How do non-participating stakeholders view the project and its planning process?

Additionally, this chapter examines the factors that influenced the stakeholders' decisions about whether or not to participate in the Costa Dourada collaborative planning process. Next, there is an analysis of the extent to which the project planning process promoted sustainable development and also of the relevance of this study to the development of sustainable tourism perspectives on collaborative planning. Then, there is a discussion of the stages of the collaborative process in tourism planning. In section 9.8 the study builds on previous research and on the findings of this research to develop a conceptual model of the collaborative processes in regional tourism planning. The main contributions of the study for tourism planning theory are then discussed. This is followed by consideration of future research directions.

9.2 THE PARTICIPATION PROCESSES INVOLVED IN THE COSTA DOURADA PROJECT

The first research question relates to the processes of collaboration used in the planning for the Costa Dourada project. The discussion which follows evaluates the initiation of the planning process, the range of participating stakeholders in the collaborative planning, the use of non-collaborative forms of participation in support of the collaborative planning, the issues of concern for the participating stakeholders and their priorities, the decision-making procedures involved in the project planning, and also whether or not the collaborating stakeholders consulted with and reported to their constituencies about the project.

9.2.1 Strategies for Stakeholder Participation in the Project's Planning

This study has shown that the planning for the Costa Dourada project used two distinct but inter-connected strategies of stakeholder participation. The first participation strategy involved a core group of stakeholders in a collaborative planning process. This is discussed in the following section (9.2.2.1). The second participation strategy involved both collaborating and numerous non-collaborating stakeholders in six specific activities with differing objectives, including the objective of consulting very widely. These diverse activities were integral to the project's overall planning process, and they are analysed in section 9.2.2.2. Despite being inter-connected, these two participation strategies are analysed separately because there is an important conceptual difference between them, in that the former involved collaborative planning processes and the latter consisted of other forms of participation, and notably consultative planning.

9.2.1.1 The Collaborative Planning Process and the Range of Stakeholders Involved

It has been shown that the Planning Unit convened 29 stakeholders who often attended the project planning meetings. The Planning Unit's convening mandate had been issued by the state government, but the Unit was fairly successful in convincing local and national public sector organisations to work with state-level organisations in the project's planning. However, the Planning Unit was not successful in getting private-sector and non-governmental organisations to join in the collaborative arrangements in any significant way. Almost all the regular participants in the project's collaboration were in the public sector. On the other hand, among these public-sector organisations there was a broad spread across national, regional and local spatial scales and also between the policy areas of regional development, tourism, coastal management, transport, public utilities and environment. At the regional scale there was also strong representation from the different policy areas of the PRODETUR/AL, and at the local scale there were representatives with environmental, health and tourism interests. The only collaborating organisations not wholly in the public sector were a public-private sector utility company, an NGO linking the local municipal authorities, and an environmental NGO. However, according to Brazil's political system, the municipal government is charged with representing the wide range of interests in their community, including business, residents and other non-governmental organisations. Consequently, the representation of each of the ten affected municipal governments in the project planning meant there was potential for

them to articulate more diverse local interests than at first sight might appear to be the case.

The political and administrative crisis affecting Alagoas has led the state government to lose much of its planning capacity. Despite this, the Planning Unit has enjoyed a virtually unchallenged authority among the participating stakeholders and, as is discussed later, also among private sector and non-governmental stakeholders more generally. The importance of a powerful and legitimate convener for the success of collaborative planning has been identified by other researchers (Gray, 1989; Parker, 1999). In addition to convening the collaboration, the Planning Unit staff were the key facilitators of the project's collaborative planning. Furthermore, the Planning Unit played the role of regional-level convener or referent organisation by regulating the planning process on the basis of common values, by appreciating emergent trends and issues and by providing the infrastructure necessary for the collaboration, these being characteristics of successful referent organisations, as described by Trist (1983).

A strong point in the Costa Dourada collaboration as far as regional tourism planning is concerned is that it was able regularly to bring together local, regional and national-scale public interests in planning meetings and also workshops. This provided an excellent opportunity for the project planning to integrate at the regional level the multiple policies operating at these three geographical scales. As discussed in Chapter 2 (section 2.2), various scholars (Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994a; Komilis, 1994) contend that such a regional approach to tourism planning is a key to making crucial connections and facilitating co-ordination between the multiple interests affected by regional tourism development. Additionally, Tosun and Jenkins (1996) point out that this approach can lead to a decentralisation in tourism planning through the federal government sharing decision-making power with local and regional-level stakeholders.

It is surprising, however, that some key government organisations in the problem domain were not involved in the collaborative planning. For example, EMBRATUR (the national tourist board) and SETUR/AL (the Secretary of Tourism of Alagoas) were not participants. Similarly, the participants did not include TELASA (telecommunications), CEAL (energy) and the Port Authority, which are strategic infrastructural organisations in the region. In addition, numerous private-sector organisations did not participate in the collaboration. Thus, it is not surprising that private-sector stakeholders accounted for 31 of the 56 mentions of non-participating

stakeholders that participating respondents considered ought to be involved in the project's collaborative process (see Table 6.6). This also suggests that many stakeholders may appreciate the likely necessity for the participation of the private sector in the project's planning process.

The fact that the Planning Unit failed to involve some problem-domain strategic public tourism interests and infrastructure organisations in the project's collaborative planning process represents a potential problem for the project. Having attracted only one private-sector and two non-governmental organisations may also add to the problem. Gray (1989) argues that powerful legitimate stakeholders who are not involved in a collaboration may block the negotiations at varying stages or else lobby against the eventual implementation of agreements. Similarly, Fox (1982:402) argues that "parties that stay out are implicitly challenging the effort as it begins". One resulting potential obstacle was highlighted by a private-sector, non-participating stakeholder, who contended that the private sector may not agree with the type and the location of the infrastructure that will emerge from the project's planning. Also, excluding EMBRATUR, SETUR/AL, TELASA, CEAL and the Port Authority may prevent the project from mobilising and incorporating key strategic information and expertise which may be crucial for a better appreciation of the relevant issues. This is likely to have reduced the collaboration's capacity to define the problems and hence eventually to reach effective approaches to tackling them.

9.2.1.2 Other Participation Approaches Used in the Planning Process

The Alagoas government instructed the facilitators of the project planning to listen to the parties who were interested in the project, but no specific guidelines were provided on how to achieve this. The Planning Unit, as the convener or referent organisation of the Costa Dourada collaboration, was strongly placed to decide which participation approach to use in the project planning. As a result, in addition to using collaborative planning, the Planning Unit encouraged and often implemented five other forms of stakeholder participation which were linked to the overall project planning. Furthermore, despite not being in control of the meetings of the Management Group (MG), the Planning Unit used the outcomes of the MG meetings as inputs into the project's planning process. These forms of participation, which supported the collaborative planning, are now discussed.

Initial general workshop: This workshop was organised at the start of the project's collaborative planning process. It included *problem setting* and *direction setting*

objectives. This workshop meant that a broad number of local and regional stakeholders were able to help widen the scope of the original strategic plan that had been designed for the project by the federal government, the Interamerican Development Bank and EMATUR/AL, and it suggests that the state government was concerned to share decision-making power with other stakeholder groups in the early planning of responses to the project's problem domain. While this was a one-off workshop and hence not a fully collaborative process, the participation methodology used did allow for a meaningful incorporation of multiple interests in developing the project's early strategic approach, with the methodology involving in-depth discussion, negotiation and consensus-building among the participants. The workshop functioned as a detailed consultation approach as it had the objective of collecting information and stakeholder views about the project. Furthermore, the workshop was used to raise stakeholder awareness about the project, its planning process and its objectives. This workshop had a significant, long-lasting impact on participants, who frequently referred to it as a positive and valuable feature of the project's planning process.

Municipal workshops: The overall participation approach used in these workshops was quite democratic and the decision-making procedure encouraged negotiation and consensus-building among participants. Again, however, they were one-off occasions in each municipality, and they also involved only a few Planning Unit staff and other key stakeholder representatives, so they were not a fully collaborative process. Planning Unit staff and the municipal representatives involved in the project's collaborative planning used these workshops to spread information about the project in each municipal area, having invited numerous local-level interested parties to attend the workshops. Other key aims were to develop a series of municipal plans of the public services required by the Costa Dourada project, to identify actions necessary for the institutional development and strengthening of municipal government as project co-implementing organisations, and to encourage co-ordinated local actions in support of the project. As with the initial general workshop, the municipal workshops had the additional objective of collecting information and stakeholder views about the project. In the interviews the collaborating respondents, and especially Planning Unit members and municipal representatives, often highlighted the importance of the municipal workshops, whose implementation was the result of an agreement made by the collaborating organisations.

Meetings of the co-implementing organisations: The co-implementing organisations were all also collaborating stakeholders, these being the ten municipal authorities

affected by the project and EMATUR, DER/AL, CASAL and IMA/AL. The agendas of the meetings of the co-implementing organisations mainly included issues about their response to project planning demands, about the institutional strengthening of their own organisations so they were better able to implement collective decisions made in the project's collaboration, and about feed-back to key staff in their organisations about project progress. These meetings were led by their own representative to the project collaboration. They often also included participation by a consultant or member of the Planning Unit, providing the Planning Unit with another means to influence project implementation and to strengthen their links with other organisations involved in the domain-level collaborative work.

Open access and open meetings in the Planning Unit: The Planning Unit offices were open to visits by anyone interested in the project, including stakeholders who were not participating directly in the project planning. For example, the researcher was granted free access to the Planning Unit, and this involved 16 visits to observe meetings and other planning activities. The open meetings held in the Planning Unit usually involved members of the Planning Unit, other collaborating stakeholders (including the municipal representatives in the project planning), and project consultants. The agendas usually covered four main activities: information exchange between Planning Unit members and other participants and project consultants; discussions about the implementation of decisions made earlier in the project planning; and provision of feedback from the Co-ordinator General of the Unit about the project and project-related developments to the other participants.

Public seminars: Based on direct observation by the researcher and on the interviews, these public seminars were attended mainly by members of the Planning Unit, other participating stakeholders, and by consultants for the project and academics, although in principle they were open to anyone interested in the project. They were based on presentations concerning project issues and on various studies that had been commissioned by the Planning Unit, and also on discussion with the audience. The interviews with stakeholders involved in the collaborative planning suggest that the seminars were also used to report to the public about project progress and to collect opinions and suggestions. However, the seminars were used for the collecting of views in an informal and *ad hoc* way, with the seminars somewhat incidentally being used to build external support for the project and to deal with constituencies.

Meetings of the Management Group (MG): The MG meetings mainly involved supervision and guidance of the design and implementation of the Management Plan for the North Coast. Work on this plan was itself led by the Coastal Management Project (GERCO), this being a collaborating stakeholder in the Costa Dourada project. Respondents indicated that the MG meetings also involved negotiation and consensus-building approaches in order to reach decisions and these were then passed to the Planning Unit as suggestions for planning priorities in the Costa Dourada project. The MG was further linked to the project's collaborative planning as seven of the organisations represented at the MG were also collaborating stakeholders (Planning Unit, IMA/AL, DPU, IBAMA, SUDENE, AMA and FMM). In theory, this link between the MG and the Costa Dourada referent organisation could provide an excellent opportunity for increased co-ordination between the project planning outcomes and the overall development of the north coast. In practice, however, the MG was overshadowed by the Planning Unit, which took over most of the MG's responsibilities, so much so that up until mid-1998 the MG had had only four meetings. In the end, the Planning Unit is the organisation which has exerted greater co-ordination of the development process of the north coast. Two factors appear to have contributed to this. The first was the authority and legitimacy that the Planning Unit enjoyed in relation to the project's problem domain. The second factor was that each municipality had a representative in the collaborative planning process. So, in a way these municipal representatives had a dual role. On the one hand, they represented their municipality in the collaborative planning process for the project and, on the other, they represented the Planning Unit locally and were in a position to articulate multiple government, private sector and non-governmental interests at the municipal level. Had the MG been more powerful and met more frequently, this would have helped to increase the co-ordination of the overall development of the region, especially because GERCO's Management Plan for the North Coast, whose actions the MG was supposed to supervise, articulates several federal policies, such as those for urban development, transport and environmental conservation.

Importantly, these other participation approaches provided the collaborating stakeholders with further opportunities to pursue the objectives of the project's collaborative work as well as their own objectives. For example, the initial general workshop, which was attended by several collaborating stakeholders, including the ten municipalities affected by the project, also involved local hotels, restaurants and bars, NGOs, state secretaries and a number of other organisations with an interest in the project, at the local, state and federal levels. The Planning Unit organised this

workshop with the purpose of determining the project's direction. This included identifying stakeholders to participate in the project's collaborative planning and to identify issues to be included in its agenda. Additionally, it also had the objective of raising awareness of stakeholders about the project, collecting general views about the project, and gathering inputs from stakeholders in order to refine the strategic plan for the project.

The open meetings of the Planning Unit included discussions regarding the institutional development and strengthening of collaborating organisations, these being structuring activities. The municipal workshops were led by project consultants, a Planning Unit member and the appropriate municipal representative in the collaborative planning, and they focused primarily on 'structuring' the organisation of municipal government for project implementation. However, they also helped in the 'dealing with constituencies' as they involved many municipal stakeholders who were not involved directly in the collaborative planning. Of the participants in the municipal workshops, 74% were involved in municipal government and 23.4% represented other stakeholder groups, including fishing, other businesses, rural workers, church and welfare organisations, and residents' associations. The municipal workshops are discussed in detail in Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell (2000). The workshops were also used to a minor extent as an *ad hoc* consultation strategy for the project collaboration. The public seminars, which were different from the workshops, varied in their scope and activities (see Chapter 5), but they also involved the collaborative activities of 'dealing with constituencies' and 'building external support' for the project.

This analysis has shown that participation approaches were used by the collaborating stakeholders other than collaborative ones among the direct participants. These approaches were used to pursue the following collaborative activities: 'identification of stakeholders', 'agenda setting', 'dealing with constituencies', 'building external support' and 'structuring'. In addition, some of these non-collaborative forms of participation in the project planning were also used very substantially for *ad hoc* consultation purposes. By linking these activities to the collaborative planning process and by consulting more widely with non-collaborating stakeholders, the Planning Unit was able to strengthen its authority, legitimacy and, consequently, its power, in the project's problem domain. Hence, the Unit gained considerable credibility in the context of a crisis where many stakeholders had lost confidence in the state government's planning capacity. For example, this allowed the Planning Unit largely

to take over the MG's regional inter-organisational co-ordination responsibilities concerning the sustainable development of Alagoas' north coast.

9.2.2 Methods of Participation in the Project's Planning

Collaborating stakeholders

In addition to attending meetings and workshops, the collaborating stakeholders also used seminars, telephone conversations, letters by post and messenger, fax and e-mail to communicate their views to each other about the planning issues. However, according to the respondents, the most important participation methods were those that involved some form of interaction between several participants at one time and which furthered the collective discussion and negotiation about the project, these being meetings and workshops. This was a key characteristic of the planning process and was distinct from the consultative approaches used. When the collaborating stakeholders were asked to indicate how they expressed their views to other participants, nearly 62% of responses referred to such collective methods, and they also attributed a higher level of effectiveness to these methods than to others. For example, 50% of the responses indicated that these procedures were 'somewhat effective' and 43.5% indicated they were 'highly effective'. Hence, as many as 93.5% of the references to the effectiveness of these methods were on the 'effective' side of the scale. The data suggest that the participating stakeholders perceived the participation methods involving at least three participants as more effective than those including only one or two participants. Indeed, more than 83% of references to the effectiveness of the participation techniques as a whole used by collaborating stakeholders fell on the 'effective' end of the scale. In sum, it appears that the collaborative approaches adopted in the project planning did involve direct interactions between the participants and that they considered that the participation methods as a whole were broadly effective.

The participation approaches used in the Costa Dourada project largely correspond to the types of participation in Arnstein's (1975) and Pretty's (1995) typologies of participation that are related to a greater degree of stakeholder control over decision-making. The study also indicates that the project's planning process used a combination of participation approaches to attain its specific objectives, a strategy that is advocated by Simmons (1994) and Marien and Pizam (1997). Strategic project issues were usually addressed by participants in their collaborative meetings and workshops. In addition, the participants used seminars, local workshops and meetings with non-participants to achieve other project-related activities. These non-

collaborative participation approaches provided important opportunities for collaborating stakeholders to deal with their constituencies and to build external support for the project.

Non-collaborating stakeholders

As many as 25 of the 38 non-collaborating stakeholders included in the study sample had participated in some planning activity with either one or more of the collaborating stakeholders. For example, 11 of the non-participants attended one or more workshops. In addition, there were eight mentions of non-participants attending meetings with one participant, eight mentions of them attending meetings with two or three participants, eight mentions of them attending meetings with more than three but not all participants, and seven mentions of them attending meetings called for all participants. Five non-participants were also in contact with participants by telephone and two had sent them letters by post. Finally, one non-participant sent letters to participants by messenger, one used fax, and one used e-mail.

The methods most widely used by non-participants to express their views to participants in the project's collaborative planning were those that involved direct interaction with them. Nearly 81% of all the mentions of a method used by non-participants referred to meetings and workshops. The non-participants, like participants, assigned a higher level of effectiveness to these participation methods. For example, 62% of the responses indicated that these procedures were 'somewhat effective' and over 33% considered them to be 'highly effective'. This means that more than 95% of references to the effectiveness of these methods fell on the 'agree' side of the scale. Other methods used by non-participants to express their views to participants in the project planning included faxes, letters and telephone calls. Overall, 90% of references to the effectiveness of all the methods also fell on the 'effective' end of the scale.

As with participants in the project planning, the non-participating stakeholders preferred the more collective participation involved in meetings and workshops, by comparison with letters, telephone, fax and e-mail. While the latter are important participation techniques, the former are favoured as they involve direct discussion with other stakeholders. However, it is important to recognise that the consultative forms of participation approaches used in the Costa Dourada project planning involved a much broader range of stakeholders in the discussions concerning project-related issues, and indirectly they may well have affected the decision-making. For example,

the municipal workshops involved 235 stakeholders in developing local-scale co-ordinated responses to the Costa Dourada project's planning and implementation (Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 2000), and the public seminars involved numerous interested parties in discussions about the project studies. Altogether, the non-collaborative participation meetings and workshops involved literally hundreds of stakeholders who were not involved directly in the project's planning process.

9.2.3 Types of Stakeholder Involvement in the Collaborative Planning Process

Thirteen of the 15 ways in which the collaborating stakeholders were involved in the project planning (see Table 6.4) concerned domain-related activities. Interestingly, four of these thirteen activities accounted for 63% of all types of involvement mentioned by the collaborating stakeholders. These consisted of discussions about the project, the contribution of resources to the planning effort, work so that their own organisation stayed focused on objectives in common with the project objectives, and co-ordination of the planning actions of their own organisation with those of the Planning Unit. The other nine domain-related activities accounted for 22% of the mentions of types of stakeholder involvement in the project planning by the collaborating stakeholders. These activities included spreading information about the project among participants and non-participants, co-ordinating actions in order to strengthen the organisations affected by the project, attempting to persuade participants to remain involved in the planning process, and encouraging new stakeholders to join the collaborative arrangements. Hence, only 15% of the mentions of types of stakeholder involvement directly related to their own organisation attempting to obtain benefits as distinct from domain-related benefits.

These findings indicate a high level of stakeholder commitment to the Costa Dourada project's collaborative planning for domain-level benefits. This commitment suggests that the participants are more likely to be successful in the long term in collaborating with each other and that they might eventually reach a shared vision for the project.

9.2.4 Priorities of the Participating Stakeholders in the Collaborative Planning

While at the start of a collaborative process the participating stakeholders may have many different concerns, it is possible that through discussion and negotiation these stakeholders will develop a shared appreciation of the issues. The more overlap there is in their concerns, the more likely it is that these stakeholders will achieve a consensual vision for the future of the domain. With the Costa Dourada project, the participants in the collaborative planning process often named infrastructure as the

main issue that their organisation wanted to have considered in the project planning. This issue accounted for 32% of the mentions of issues that they wanted to have considered. It was mentioned by 20 of the 26 government participating organisations, and also by the only private-sector and the two non-governmental organisations involved as participants in the project planning. The other leading issues of concern named by the participants were: environmental conservation (8 mentions), land use planning and development (6 mentions), institutional development (4 mentions), sustainable development (3 mentions), and improvement in the quality of life of the population (3 mentions). As many as 25 of the 29 participants (over 86%) considered that the project planning had paid attention to the issues of concern of their own organisation.

There was a clear correspondence between the participating stakeholders' main issues of concern and the priorities they sought for the project planning. For example, their three main priorities for the project in order of importance were: infrastructure, environmental conservation, and improvement in the quality of life of the community; while the two most prominent issues of concern in order of importance were also infrastructure and environmental conservation. Improvement in the quality of life of the community was also among their six main issues of concern. This association between their main concerns and their priorities for the project planning probably provided the participants with important common ground for them to work together to build a collective view about the future of the problem domain. Hence, 27 of the 29 participating stakeholders felt that they had an agreed view about the main issues to be considered in the project planning (14 respondents having 'strongly agreed' and 13 'somewhat agreed'). Similarly, 27 of the participants considered that they shared an agreed view about the planning priorities for the project (15 respondents having 'somewhat agreed' and 12 'strongly agreed').

9.2.5 Adjusting Priorities to a Shared View of the Domain

In the interviews all 29 participants indicated that they accepted that if necessary they would adjust their own organisation's priorities in order to secure collective gains. This response is supported by the questionnaire results, in which nearly 90% of participants either 'strongly agreed' (14 respondents) or 'somewhat agreed' (12 respondents) that all participants were fully committed to working together. This seems to indicate that the participants appreciated their domain-level inter-dependence in the planning process; otherwise, they might have felt it would be more advantageous to act independently. Again, these findings suggest that the Costa

Dourada collaboration has a fairly sound basis to achieve a good degree of consensus around negotiated solutions. Accepting the need to adjust one's priorities as a recognition of other legitimate interests in the planning domain may indicate there were strong collaborative rather than competitive tendencies among the participants in the project's planning. This interpretation is corroborated by the findings concerning the ways in which participants were involved in the collaborative planning process, as discussed in section 9.2.3, with the participants involved predominantly in activities that potentially could lead to collective benefits.

9.2.6 Decision-Making Processes in the Collaborative Planning

According to the collaborating stakeholders, meetings and workshops were the two main methods or contexts where they were involved in making decisions about the project. According to 17 of the 29 participants, the process of strategic decision-making included some sort of consensus-building procedures, while less important operational decisions were made by individual Planning Unit staff members. Meetings involving participating stakeholders were more frequent than workshops, but the latter appear to have involved a higher degree of negotiation, consensus-building and due consideration to participants' views. The workshops seem to have worked as a particularly potent method for the development of shared views about the project.

According to 21 of the 29 participants, decision-making concerning who could participate in the project planning was made largely by the Planning Unit. Among the eight respondents who did not primarily identify the Planning Unit, three named the Chief State Secretary of Planning and Development. Only one participant said that decisions on who could participate were made by all the participants. However, the Planning Unit used several information-gathering strategies before deciding who to invite into the collaborative arrangements. These included wider consultation with participants and non-participants, the identification of potential participants in workshops and on the basis of emerging issues, and listening to suggestions made by a non-participant. The fact that five local government respondents did not know how this type of decision was made suggests that the Planning Unit may not have consulted with the local government as often as it may have done with the other participants.

It is clear that collaborating stakeholders were involved in much negotiation and consensus-building in relation to decisions about strategic project issues. Similarly, the Planning Unit members used consultation and other information-gathering

strategies in order to establish who should participate in the project's collaborative planning. However, the Planning Unit had considerable control over the overall decision-making process, particularly by having the last word regarding who could participate in the collaborative planning and about many other policy decisions. This situation was both recognised and accepted by most participants. The referent organisation having such a strong influence on the decision-making processes could potentially be a problem, but this does not appear to have been the case with the Costa Dourada's Planning Unit. Perhaps this was because the Planning Unit also sought to be fairly inclusive of the collective interests of the participating stakeholders. It is also important to remember that the project's problem domain was affected by political and administrative crises which had led the state government to lose most of its planning capacity and hence credibility. By contrast, the Planning Unit members were often seen by the other participating stakeholders as technically competent, serious, fairly unbiased and fully committed to a participative approach to the project planning. In this context of the political, administrative and planning crises affecting Alagoas, the Planning Unit and the participative planning processes it had adopted had become perceived as authoritative and legitimate approaches to the project planning.

9.2.7 Agenda Setting Processes in the Collaborative Planning

The collaborative process of agenda setting is normally a delicate task. Stakeholders who feel that the agenda does not reflect their interests may well lose their commitment to the discussions and negotiation. Again, this study indicates that members of the Planning Unit had a substantial influence in establishing the project's planning agenda, this having been mentioned by 24 of the 29 participants. The next most frequently mentioned stakeholder group having had an influence on the agenda setting were the local Mayors, although they were mentioned by only four participants. In a similar way, most participants identified the Planning Unit as the major decision-maker concerning who could have an input in agenda setting, highlighting once again the power of the referent organisation over the project decision-making.

Agenda setting usually involves intense and sometimes heated debate around multiple interests as each collaborating stakeholder wants their interests to be reflected in the planning agenda. However, there does not appear to have been much dispute over agenda setting for the Costa Dourada collaboration. Here the project's antecedents appear to have reduced the potential for conflict. When the collaborative arrangements for the Costa Dourada were started much prior work had

been completed already for the problem setting stage. Studies had previously been commissioned by the state government to assess the tourism potential of the north coast of Alagoas. The consultancy firm which undertook the work had put forward a preliminary agenda of major issues to be addressed in the project planning. Importantly, this preliminary planning agenda covered the four major issues of concern that the participating stakeholders also wanted to have considered in the project planning. In order of importance, these are: infrastructure, environmental conservation, land use planning and development, and institutional development. Together these four issues accounted for nearly 57% of the 72 mentions of issues of concern for respondents. This substantial overlap between the preliminary project planning agenda and the issues of concern for the participating stakeholders appears to have significantly lessened the potential for conflict over agenda setting.

This research also revealed that at the start of the planning process the Planning Unit members were not fully happy about the preliminary planning agenda contained in the consultants' report. The members were concerned that the consultancy firm was from a different region, and they also considered it would be important to obtain input into the project planning agenda from stakeholders in the project area. This led the Planning Unit to organise the initial general workshop for the project in the Municipality of Maragogi in order to hear the views of a broader range of stakeholders about the planning agenda. As a result of this workshop, the identification of major issues in the preliminary planning agenda was legitimised and other issues were added to the agenda, a major one being the decision to run a municipal workshop in each municipality. The use of municipal workshops was much welcomed by the municipal public administration of the municipalities because these workshops helped them to address various local social problems, led to a greater acceptance and involvement of municipal government in the project planning and helped to confer considerable power on municipal government in project planning at the local level.

9.2.8 Dealing with Constituencies Related to the Project's Problem Domain

The study has indicated that most participants in the Costa Dourada's collaborative planning both consulted with (25 of the 29 participants) and reported to their constituencies about progress in the project's planning (28 of the 29 participants). This indicates that some participants were more active in reporting back after decisions had been made than they were in initially consulting with them to hear their opinions. Three participants only 'somewhat agreed' and one 'strongly disagreed' that they consulted with their constituencies about planning decisions, and this might

reflect the legacy of authoritarian planning practices in the region during the period of political dictatorship. According to collaboration theory, collaborative planning outcomes and implementation work are likely to be more successful if the participants actively consult with and report to their constituencies about decisions. But for the Costa Dourada project the limited consultation with their constituencies by a few participants appears not have been too critical for the success of the collaborative arrangement. Certainly, at the time of the fieldwork there were high expectations among all participants that the project will provide both large-scale physical infrastructure and institutional development in the project area. These outputs are much desired in the region and the constituencies are probably unlikely to oppose planning policies which are intended to realise this desired future, despite four of the 29 participants apparently not being fully accountable to their constituencies.

9.3 THE EXTENT TO WHICH COLLABORATION EMERGES IN THE PLANNING PROCESS

The second research question for this study considers the degree to which there were collaborative relations in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. The study findings related to this issue are drawn substantially from the views of the participating stakeholders about whether their opinions and priorities were given full consideration in the planning process, whether they supported the collective decisions and complied with the shared rules, and whether they had reached a shared vision for the project.

All the participants considered it was important for the project planning to give full consideration to the views of all participants, with as many as 23 of the 29 respondents having 'strongly agreed' with this notion. As many as 21 of the participants also 'strongly agreed' and seven 'somewhat agreed' that they themselves ought to give full consideration to the views of all participating stakeholders. While two fewer respondents 'strongly agreed' and one Planning Unit member 'strongly disagreed' with the statement, there were still 28 responses on the 'agree' side of the scale. However, when the question was rephrased to ask whether in their view the other participants appeared also to consider it important to give full consideration to the views of all participants, the responses were less positive. While 24 answers fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, as many as 16 'somewhat agreed' and only eight 'strongly agreed'. In addition, one participant 'strongly disagreed' with the statement, two 'somewhat disagreed' and two 'neither disagreed not agreed'. This suggests that 19 of the participants based on their actual experiences so far felt that their views had

not been fully considered by the other participants. To some extent this contradicts the often positive views of the participants about stakeholder participation in the project planning.

There were similar responses in relation to the participants' priorities in the project's planning, and this again suggests that some of the participants may not have been fully committed to giving equitable treatment to the priorities of all the parties involved. Hence, every participant agreed that the project planning ought to consider the priorities of all participants, with 22 respondents having 'strongly agreed' and seven 'somewhat agreed'. However, the participants were less positive when asked whether the other participants also appeared to consider this issue to be important. While 23 answers fell on the 'agree' side of the scale, as many as 14 'somewhat agreed' and only nine 'strongly agreed'. In addition, two participants 'strongly disagreed', three 'neither disagreed nor agreed' and one 'didn't know'. This may suggest that 16 participants were not fully happy about the way priorities were treated by other participants and again this clashes somewhat with their other often positive views about the project planning.

Why did some participants have positive overall feelings about the project, while also holding negative views? There may be two factors here. The first is that most stakeholders considered that their participation in the planning meant their own organisation had access to more resources, that it promoted more integrated planning and faster and more appropriate stakeholder responses to project policies, and also that it led to their organisation becoming politically more influential in relation to the project's problem domain. The second factor relates to the extent to which complete agreement is perhaps unnecessary and perhaps even undesirable in collaborative planning. It is often argued that planning is a highly political activity, and that tourism policy-making "involves the *values* of individuals, groups and organisations in the struggle for *power* through human interaction relative to the decision" (Hall and Jenkins, 1995:33; Henning, 1974; Reed, 1997; Robinson, 1999). Certainly, different values, ideologies and interests affected the collaborative planning process for the Costa Dourada project. But Bryson and Crosby (1992) contend that a consensus in collaborative planning does not mean that every stakeholder will or should agree fully about each and every decision. In this context, Gray (1989) contends that while collaborative-based decisions may to some extent be against the best interest of individual organisations, such decisions may be perceived by participants to be representative of the collective interests of stakeholders in the planning domain.

Indeed, in order for a collaborative arrangement to be successful the participating stakeholders may need to support decisions that are agreed collectively but are against their best interest. This issue was examined in both the interview and the questionnaire. Twelve of the 29 participants identified five collectively-crafted decisions that in their view were against the best interest of specific participating stakeholders. Seven participants mentioned the decision to build waste processing plants in two of the ten municipalities in order to serve the whole project area. The two municipalities may have seen these waste plants as potentially negative for their own tourism development but a benefit to the other eight municipalities by reducing their waste problems and also requiring them to have a plant 'in their own backyard'. Similarly, three of the participants identified the decision to build the first sewerage system in the Municipality of Maragogi as being against the best interest of the other nine municipalities. In fact, the participants often complained about planning decisions benefiting Maragogi more and sooner than the other municipalities. Similarly, one participant argued that the decision made by the ten project municipalities and by IMA/AL not to grant permission for urban development in the region for a year was against the best interest of the private sector, although it should be noted that private-sector organisations concerned with this issue were not directly involved in the project planning. One participant also suggested that the agreement that some developments would not require an early environmental impact assessment was against the best interest of IMA/AL's, the state's environmental agency. Finally, one participant considered that the location of a road being built between Barra de Santo Antonio and the area where the tourist centre of Camaragibe is to be built as being against the best interest of the Municipality of Porto Calvo (Figure 5.1). There is some evidence that private land owners in the region may have influenced the decision-making so that the location of the road benefited their interests.

In order to examine this sensitive issue from different perspectives, a related question was asked in the questionnaire. Fifteen of the 29 participants 'somewhat agreed' and only five 'strongly agreed', that all the participants were likely to support collective decisions that were against their respective best interest. In addition, one participant 'strongly disagreed', three 'somewhat disagreed' and three 'neither disagreed nor agreed' with the statement. Two participants didn't know whether the participants were likely to support such decisions. The responses suggest that a significant proportion of the participants may not be prepared to support collective decisions that are against their best interest. This may become a critical issue as the project develops over future years, especially as the participants will then be required to

decide about other difficult issues, such as about allocating scarce resources unevenly according to previously agreed priorities, and also as a result of the unequal power of the different participants.

These findings highlight the potential value of collaborative approaches to regional tourism planning in developing and in newly industrialised countries like Brazil. For example, while some of these countries have achieved reasonable technological and scientific development, their often huge socio-economic problems present their governments and other stakeholder groups with development challenges that are beyond their capacity to solve on their own. This present study suggests that some participants in the collaborative planning for the Costa Dourada project considered they were unlikely to support collective agreements that might be against their best interest, but it also indicates that in practice five such agreements had been reached by mid-1998. Furthermore, one of these agreements (a road) was already being implemented by that time. So far, the participants in the Costa Dourada planning have supported major decisions which to some extent were against the best interest of other participants, including their own. It appears that so far they found the project more satisfactory than other alternatives as a means to address the region's difficult socio-economic problems. Many of the participants also felt that their direct involvement in the project planning would benefit their organisation through access to the knowledge and expertise of the other participants and through access to increased collective financial resources. Such perceived benefits were probably important in encouraging the participants to support collective decisions that may have been against their best interest.

In order to participate in collaborative discussion and negotiation, the stakeholders need to abide by shared rules. Without this, the participants may fail to develop mutual respect and trust, which are essential ingredients for collaborative decision-making. Twenty-seven of the 29 participants considered there was mutual respect and trust among the participants in the project planning, despite numerous respondents being aware of and having highlighted differences between them. In fact, at least one respondent even argued that such differences are important because they make the decision-making process more dynamic. This respondent was a Mayor who had brought some innovative thinking to municipal government in the project area, as discussed in Chapter 5. The participants acknowledged there had been conflicts between themselves during their discussions, but they stated that these problems have not been sufficiently serious to stop them working together. For

example, some participants stated that there had never been any situations where a stakeholder had abandoned a meeting or had to be invited to leave a meeting. Despite most respondents suggesting that they respected and trusted each other in their dealings in the planning process, two of them did not subscribe to this view. One of these stated that the lack of mutual trust was natural because they represented different interests, and another argued that one participating stakeholder was developing an agenda that was too different to their collaborative agenda. The point was made that this issue was serious enough to have already created some apprehension among the participants, especially the Planning Unit staff.

To what extent had the collaborative planning led to the emergence of a shared vision for the project? Despite most participants often having a positive attitude to the project planning, only 15 of the 29 considered that they had reached an agreed vision for the project at that point (mid-1998). Furthermore, as discussed in detail in Chapter 7, even these 15 respondents presented the project's 'shared vision' in nine different ways, the most salient vision being that the project should be used as a tool for sustainable regional development. In fact, the analysis of these nine project visions suggests that the participants have not so far reached a collective understanding of how the project should develop. However, there were recurring elements, suggesting that a vision for the project may be in the process of being developed, with this possibly being as a means to provide high-quality infrastructure which serves as a basis for the sustainable tourism-based development of the Alagoas' north coast. This interpretation does accord with the views of Planning Unit members but not fully so with the views of some local government representatives. This might suggest there are variations in the capacities of the stakeholders to grasp the scope and long-term objectives of such a complex tourist project whose main aims extend far beyond the realm of tourism. The project documents indicate that the project is intended to use tourism as a tool for sustainable regional development.

The 15 participants who believed the participants had come to a common vision for the project offered 10 different broad explanations for how this had been achieved. Twelve respondents mentioned that the planning meetings and workshops enabled them to develop shared understanding about the project, and three had referred more broadly to the overall approach involving collaboration and consultation, that had been used by the Planning Unit. Further analysis of the 10 different broad explanations of how a common vision was achieved (Table 7.3) suggests some common elements, and these common elements may be of wider interest for advocates of collaborative

regional tourism planning. Table 9.1 suggests there were three features which significantly strengthened the collaborative planning for the Costa Dourada project. First, stakeholder participation in the planning had involved negotiation and consensus-building approaches to decision-making. These are the central *modus*

Table 9.1 Common elements among participants' explanations that may be of wider interest for advocates of collaborative regional tourism planning.

Enabling element	Number of times the element was mentioned	Analysis
Stakeholder participation approach	15	This often relates to the view that the Planning Unit has involved the participants in decision-making in meaningful ways. For example, 17 respondents suggested that the project planning meetings and workshops had involved negotiation and consensus-building procedures.
Legitimacy of the convener	4	Four respondents indicated that they assigned high legitimacy to the convener, this being the Planning Unit. Each of the four respondents mentioned one of the following attributes of the Planning Unit staff: they are not biased politically, they know the project area very well, they have knowledge about other tourism planning experiences in Brazil and abroad, and they have good professional experience. Informal conversation with participants suggest that, if the Planning Unit was not recognised by the participants as having such high legitimacy, then the financial, political and administrative turbulence affecting Alagoas and its government might have led most participants to drop out of the project planning.
Recognition of the need for stakeholders to work together to secure regional development	4	Four respondents indicated that the participants appreciated that if they did not participate in the project planning then the development of the area would continue to be less than satisfactory. Stakeholder appreciation about the importance of their joint efforts to develop the region indicates there is growing understanding of the degree of stakeholder inter-dependence.

operandi of collaborative arrangements as opposed to consultative approaches, where stakeholders do not have direct participation in domain-level decision-making (Gray, 1989). Second, the Planning Unit was seen as a legitimate convener given its perceived lack of bias and the knowledge and professional experience of its staff relevant to the purposes of the project. This provided the Planning Unit with what Gray (1989:124; Parker, 1999) calls the "power to organize". And, third, the participants recognised the leverage of their inter-dependence, accepting that they needed to work together to improve the region's prospects.

Twelve of the fifteen participants who considered they had reached a shared vision for the project additionally felt that the non-participating stakeholders were likely to

accept the participants' shared vision. There was one common element in the nine broad explanations put forward as to why non-participants were likely to accept the participants' 'shared vision', this being that they would recognise that the project potentially could significantly enhance the region's development prospects. Despite this, three of the fifteen respondents did not consider that non-participants will accept the project vision which they felt was shared by the participants. The main explanation offered was that the non-participants may have views about the project that differ from those of the participants' and that the project outcomes subsequently may conflict with their best interests.

The 12 respondents who did not feel that at that point (mid-1998) the participants had reached a shared vision for the project offered 15 different explanations for this. Further analysis of these explanations indicates there were three main themes or broad explanations, as identified in Table 9.2, and these themes may be of wider interest for advocates of collaborative regional tourism planning. Two of these broad explanations relate to the project's planning process. The first broad explanation was that the financial, political and administrative turbulence in Alagoas and the lack of credibility of the state government may have lessened the stakeholders' commitment to developing a shared vision for the project. Second, the immediate pressures on local government placed by the serious socio-economic problems which demand prompt solutions may have led the municipal authorities to be reluctant to appreciate the project's long-term conceptualisation and development. And, third, the collaborative approach to project planning was still recent. Thus, participants may not have had sufficient time to have reached a shared vision for the project, a process which may take considerable time.

Table 9.2 Participants' broad explanations of why they had not reached a shared vision for the project that may be of wider interest for advocates of collaborative regional tourism planning.

Broad explanation	Number of times the explanation was mentioned	Analysis
Lack of credibility of the state government due to financial, political and administrative crises	4	Alagoas state has suffered severe financial, political and administrative turbulence some years before and during the project. The Planning Unit staff appear to have a high degree of credibility in the domain. However, the state government is not considered competent to overcome the turbulences it faces or to be able to implement the planning outcomes in an effective and efficient way. This appears to have lessened the motivation of participants to reach a shared vision for the project. They may consider that it demands too much work in the context of so much uncertainty.
Municipal government has difficulty in understanding the project fully	4	Some municipalities may have failed to understand the need for the participants to develop a shared vision for the project, given that the complex socio-economic problems affecting communities in the area demand urgent solutions. Some of them want their needs to be met in the short term and this conflicts with the need for long-term discussion, negotiation and consensus-building in order to develop a vision that benefits municipalities more equally.
The participative approach to project planning is recent	3	There are official documents referring to the Costa Dourada project that date back to 1993. However, the planning for the project was only institutionalised in 1996, when the Planning Unit was created to implement the PRODETUR/AL. Data collection was conducted two years after the creation of the Planning Unit. Some key respondents suggested that they had been working in a participative way on the project for less than two years, which is not enough time for a shared vision to have evolved.

9.4 HOW NON-PARTICIPANTS VIEWED THE PROJECT AND ITS PLANNING PROCESS

The third research question underpinning this study relates to the views about the Costa Dourada project and its planning process held by stakeholders who were not involved as direct participants in the planning. Such a systematic examination of the views of non-participants in relation to collaborative planning has not previously been reported in the tourism literature. This discussion examines the views of the 38 non-participating stakeholders interviewed for this study. This assessment proved very useful to understand the boundaries of the project's problem domain, and also to further consider the validity of the data collected from participants. Finally, examination of how non-participants viewed the project sheds light on whether the stakeholders not directly involved in the project planning were likely to support the planning outcomes.

All 38 non-participants considered that their organisation's interests were likely to be affected by the project, with generally high expectations that the project would benefit their organisation. For example, 24 of the 38 non-participants considered that the project was likely to help their organisation to advance their interests in the project area, and nine respondents felt it would lead to an increase in demand for their organisation's services. In contrast, only three respondents considered that the project would affect their organisation negatively, with two feeling it would have adverse environmental impacts, and one believing it would increase crime rates in the region. Several commentators have argued that high expectations about tourism's positive effects are common in the early stages of a tourist destination development cycle (Cooper *et al.*, 1998).

Eight of the 38 non-participants stated that in fact they had been involved in the project planning in some way. Five of these stated that they had attended meetings with members of the Planning Unit, two claimed to have met with local government representatives to discuss issues related to the project, and two said they had attended local workshops. These findings confirm the participants' suggestion that the project planning had included consultative approaches with non-collaborating stakeholders. Additionally, these findings suggest that there may be many other affected stakeholders who, despite not being involved in the project's collaborative arrangements, knew about the project planning and had responded to the consultative activities.

However, 31 of the 38 non-participants felt they were not represented in the project planning, with 17 contending they had not been invited to participate in it. In this context, the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit had explained that they had not invited more stakeholders into the collaborative planning process due to their lack of financial resources for major project activities and a related fear of losing credibility with some key stakeholders (notably private sector stakeholders) who could make an important contribution to the project planning later on when more resources were available. This illustrates how financial scarcity can significantly limit the scope for collaborative tourism planning in developing countries and elsewhere.

As many as 25 of the 38 non-participants considered there were stakeholders who were not represented directly in the project planning but who ought to be, and they named 55 such stakeholders. It is interesting that 31 of the 55 were private sector stakeholders, reflecting the fact that the private sector was virtually absent from the

planning. It also suggests some fairly precise and accurate knowledge among a broad number of non-participants about the project planning. This suggests that quite a significant number of non-collaborating organisations were either in contact with participants or had obtained project information through other sources, and it might even suggest there were also high expectations of the project among non-participants.

Approximately 65% of the 55 stakeholders that the non-participants considered were not direct participants in the project planning but ought to be, were included in the study's sample of non-participants. This demonstrates the strength of the snow-balling and other purposive types of sampling used in this study, and it supports the contention that the information concerning non-participating stakeholders was generally collected from relevant sources.

The most prominent issue non-participants wanted the project planning to consider was infrastructure, which was mentioned by 23 of the 38 non-participants (over 60%). This was followed by environmental issues, being identified by seven non-participants. Similarly, 28 of the 38 non-participants (over 73%) wanted the planning to have infrastructure as its priority. In second place were environmental conservation and labour training for the tourist industry, each being named by six respondents. The leading issues and priorities are very similar to those of the participants in the planning process. In fact, other sources suggest the project's major aim is the construction of infrastructure in order to attract tourist investment and hence to boost the regional economy and some sustainable development. Possibly the key to this strong relationship between project strategy and the interests of both participating and non-participating stakeholders was the initial consultants' assessment of the tourism potential of the project area. Indeed, both Acerenza (1985) and Gunn (1994a) recommend such assessments as an antecedent to regional tourism planning, and this finding is important for both the theory and practice of sustainable regional tourism planning. There are at least two ways in which the consultants' assessment benefited the Costa Dourada project. First, it speeded up problem definition, thus providing a solid basis for the direction-setting stage of the project, and, second, it increased the likelihood the project outcomes would be supported by a broad range of non-participating stakeholders. Gaining substantial political support in this way for the collaborative planning is important for sustainable regional development (Gray, 1989; Drake, 1991; Marien and Pizam, 1997).

As many as 20 of the 38 non-participants did not know who decided who could participate in the project planning or how the decision was made. However, eight non-participants suggested that this decision was made by the Planning Unit, indicating that they recognised that the Planning Unit had adopted a convening role and that the state government was leading the planning process for the area's tourism development. These eight stakeholders were not involved directly in the project planning, suggesting either that the participants had disseminated this information quite widely in the region, that the media actively covered the project's work, or that these eight non-participants had themselves sought this information on the project planning. Such relationships between non-participants and participants had not been examined previously in the context of other collaborative tourist arrangements.

Seven of the 38 non-participants commented that the participants in the project planning both consulted with and reported to their organisation about the project. This finding tends to confirm the view of many participants that the project planning sought to involve non-participants through consultation. Indeed, most non-participants were fairly positive that local, state and national stakeholders, including those from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations, who were not directly involved in the project planning would have the opportunity to express their views about the project to participants. The mostly positive views about the project planning were reflected in 28 non-participants believing that decisions made in the project planning were likely to be fully implemented, although this may also reflect their concern that the project is successful so that its perceived benefits can be realised.

As many as 28 of the 38 non-participants also felt that the participants were likely to reach a common vision for the project, again a generally positive view. Furthermore, 17 of them considered that this common vision would also be shared by non-participants. The most frequent explanation offered in support of this view (12 respondents) was that the non-participating organisations had expectations that the project would bring them benefits.

In this context, it is perhaps not surprising that 33 non-participants considered that their organisation had the right to participate in the project planning, with 23 of them arguing that this was appropriate because their organisation would be affected by the project. Non-participants may feel that direct participation in the project planning might offer their organisation a greater opportunity to gain benefits for themselves

from the project. Nearly all non-participants also contended that they had sufficient resources and skills to be able to participate in the project planning. Among the relevant resources they identified were human resources and information, mentioned by 26 and 11 respondents, respectively. In a region where the building of infrastructure is almost the sole responsibility of the public sector, it is perhaps unsurprising that only four respondents specifically mentioned having sufficient financial resources to join the project planning. However, several non-participants identified that they had relevant planning skills, with 14 mentioning that their organisation had staff with planning skills, and 12 indicating that they were part of the tourism industry and knew about tourism industry issues.

The study has gained a much broader understanding of the project problem domain by its examination of the views of stakeholders who were not involved directly in the project planning. For example, this approach has indicated that most non-participants saw the planning convener as having legitimate authority to organise the project domain, and that most of them believed that the planning outcomes were likely to be fully implemented. As many as 17 of the 38 non-participants thought that the project would reach a shared vision and that this would be shared by non-participants. Such findings suggest there is considerable potential support for the project decisions among non-participants. This examination of the views of non-participants has also enhanced the understanding and validity of data collected from participants, such as by confirming that the project planning used wider consultative approaches in support of its collaborative work.

9.5 FACTORS INFLUENCING STAKEHOLDERS' DECISIONS ABOUT WHETHER OR NOT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE COLLABORATIVE PLANNING

One of the objectives of this study is to examine the factors that influenced whether stakeholders from the government, the private sector, non-governmental organisations and communities, with interests at the local, regional or national scales, participated in the collaborative regional tourism planning process.

According to collaboration theory, stakeholders are likely to collaborate only when they perceive that a solution to a domain-level problem depends on the interested parties working together to deal with this shared problem. However, the decisions of stakeholders about whether or not to join in a collaborative arrangement may be motivated by several other more specific reasons. These reasons can include a need to have access to external resources, a desire to influence the domain's institutional

environment, or a desire to achieve legitimacy in order to pursue an organisation's domain-related objectives.

In the Costa Dourada project, 14 of the 29 participants indicated that participation in the project planning enabled their organisation to gain access to the knowledge and expertise of other participants. In addition, nine participants felt that participation increased their organisation's political power, and four of them claimed that through participation in the project planning their organisation gained increased access to financial resources, all of which, in turn, may help them to advance their interests in relation to the project (Tables 6.9 and 6.10). These benefits accounted for approximately 47% of all benefits by participants. This does suggest that many participants perceived the involvement of their organisation in the collaborative planning as a way of gaining individual benefits from the project. However, in the process the participants became engaged in predominantly domain-level planning activities that also led to more general, collective benefits, as discussed in section 9.2.3.

Interestingly, 15 respondents (over 26% of the 57 times that a benefit was named) argued that their organisation benefited from participation by it being able to achieve integrated planning and by it being able to meet project demands more quickly and in technically more appropriate ways. This suggests that these 15 participants were aware of the domain-level focus of the project and that they considered that their organisation benefited from helping advance collective interests. These findings suggest that in a planning context plagued by a scarcity of resources, the stakeholders may perceive that such integrated, participative planning is a useful strategy to overcome their deficiencies in expertise, information and financial resources and to achieve their aims more rapidly.

Numerous participants argued that various private sector stakeholders had been invited to participate in the collaborative planning, but that unfortunately only one such stakeholder had joined them. The participants, and especially Planning Unit staff, often contended that the financial, political and administrative turbulence affecting Alagoas' public administration was the main reason for the non-participation of the private sector. For example, a key government respondent explained that the department of the State Secretary of Planning and Development, where the Planning Unit is located, was completely fragmented and disorganised as a result of the financial, political and administrative turbulence of recent years. According to another

key government participant, this had led the private sector to become sceptical about the state government's capacity to plan effectively for the project.

Other explanations were offered by the participants to explain why the project had failed to involve more stakeholders in its planning process. According to five participants, it would be difficult to manage a larger group of participants in meetings and workshops, which again illustrates the importance that they attributed to these participation methods. Five of them argued that wider participation in the project planning was difficult to achieve due to the lack of a culture of participative planning in Alagoas. These respondents identified problems such as: (a) the difficulties of government/private-sector partnership work in Brazil due to problems of accountability; (b) the difficulty some organisations have in sharing decision-making power with other organisations; (c) the problem that many private-sector tourism organisations are focused only on their own interests, and some businesses are only interested in development that brings immediate results; and (d) the handicap for development planning in Brazil due to a legacy of centralisation. This last point might help explain why four participants felt the present number of participants was sufficient to plan for the project at the current stage, with three of these respondents being government stakeholders.

The examination of the project's regional context showed that the financial, political and administrative crisis in Alagoas represented a high level of turbulence in the problem domain. However, while some interpretations of collaboration theory would suggest that this would encourage private sector and NGO participation in the project planning, in fact it appears to have discouraged their involvement. On the other hand, this turbulence was the major driving force for government organisations to collaborate. Thus, turbulence on its own was not enough to motivate all types of stakeholders to participate in the project's collaborative planning. The main explanation offered by participants as to why the project planning had involved only two NGOs was that, like some non-participating governmental organisations, the NGOs lacked the capacity to participate and that they needed to go through institutional strengthening to be able to join the planning process. However, an examination of secondary data suggests that many environmental NGOs may have decided not to be involved in the project planning due to a legacy of confrontation with governmental planning and development organisations during the recent dictatorship, and this legacy may still be an influence despite the country's return to democracy in the mid-1980s. In Alagoas, the term NGO is almost always used in official

development and planning circles as a synonym for 'environmental NGO'. In addition, for the smaller, less powerful NGOs, especially at the community level, there was also the obstacle of the physical distance involved in travelling to the project planning meetings and workshops, which usually took place in Maceió, the capital city of Alagoas, which is located outside the project area. Travelling regularly to Maceió to attend project planning activities may well be beyond the financial capacity of these NGOs, as suggested in the interview with the president of a non-participating residents' association. In fact, the Planning Unit did encourage the participation of small local NGOs in the municipal workshops. However, it is most unlikely that the Planning Unit members have attempted to strengthen these non-governmental organisations in a direct way in order for them to be in a position to participate in the project's collaborative planning with the same degree of involvement as the current 29 participants.

9.6 THE PROJECT PLANNING AS AN APPROACH TO SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

As explained in Chapter 1, one of the objectives of this study is to assess the extent to which the tourism planning for the Costa Dourada project helped to promote sustainable regional development. This assessment is based largely on an examination of the collaborative and consultative approaches to stakeholder participation used in the project planning and also on the views of interested parties who were participants and non-participants in the project planning. It is beyond the scope of this study to evaluate whether the project outcomes in terms of development on the ground actually enhanced the region's prospects for more sustainable development.

Two key issues in the discussion of sustainability in tourism planning are (a) whether stakeholders who were involved in this planning are representative of the many stakeholders affected by the development proposal, and (b) the extent to which the approach to stakeholder participation used in the planning process is likely to promote due consideration of all stakeholder interests. The greater or lesser degree to which stakeholder views are taken into consideration in tourism planning decision-making will affect the potential to meet the equity requirements of sustainable development and also its requirements to consider the range of cultural, social, political, economic and environmental impacts of tourism (WCED, 1987). According to Wahab and Pigram (1998:283), sustainable tourism requires that "the planning, development and operation of tourism should be cross-sectional and integrated, involving various

government departments, public and private sector companies, community groups and experts, thus providing the widest possible safe guards for success".

Arguably, the project planning involved a broad number of stakeholders. This interpretation may be appropriate in the context of a country that returned to democracy only in the mid-1980s, and where more inclusive or participatory approaches to planning are a relatively recent development. Actually, some participants noted that the Costa Dourada project was unusual in the degree to which it sought to involve diverse stakeholders in the planning process. PRODETUR's use of planning meetings and workshops involved stakeholders with varied economic, cultural, social, environmental, and political interests. For example, the public sector representatives who often attended the planning meetings and workshops were involved in a broad spread of policy areas, such as regional development, transport, tourism, coastal management, and the environment.

Inputs were also encouraged from representatives focused at different geographical scales, notably the municipal and state scales. This was sought through both collaborative and consultative approaches, using a combination of meetings, workshops and seminars. For example, each municipality had a representative in the collaborative planning meetings and workshops and there was a workshop in each municipality. Community involvement can help to improve the sustainability of tourism development (Cooper, 1995). Indeed, Haywood (1988:105) contends that "Healthy, thriving communities are the touchstone for a successful tourism industry". In regional-scale planning initiatives such as this project it is particularly important to involve stakeholders from different geographical levels of the policy hierarchy (local, state, regional and national) as well as the various interests at each of these levels of governance. The network of multiple players involved in planning for the Costa Dourada project had potential to provide the social and intellectual capital through which planning outcomes might be developed more for the common good than for narrow sectional interests (Ostrom, 1991; Innes, 1995). Similarly, it provided some possibility that the varied issues of sustainable development would be included in decision-making aimed at creating a shared development vision for the project region.

However, there were significant gaps in the representation in the project planning of the stakeholders affected by the project. In particular, the stakeholders who often attended the collaborative planning meetings and workshops were almost all in the public sector, and local public sector employees were in the majority in the workshops.

The interviews with stakeholder representatives revealed that many of them perceived there was very strong public sector involvement in the project planning and relatively weak commercial sector involvement. Some of those interviewed hoped that the private sector would become more involved once the public sector had led the way by developing the initial infrastructure.

Poor private-sector representation in the project planning is potentially a problem for the project objectives of sustainable development. For example, Inskeep (1994:240) argues that with tourism development "Public-private sector coordination is an essential ingredient in successful implementation". Business organisations might have been reluctant to participate because of suspicions about strategic planning and committees. Also, some government projects in Brazil have suffered from intense political competition, problems of control and accountability in the bureaucracy, scarcity of funding and other resources, and corruption (Morah, 1996). Additionally, the commercial sector might have been reluctant because of the serious turbulence affecting the government of Alagoas during the 1990s, which may have generated much uncertainty about the future of the project among private-sector stakeholders.

However, examination of the views about the project among non-participants provided important information about whether the private sector are likely to support the project planning outcomes. The findings suggest that the private sector are likely to support the decisions related to the construction of physical and social infrastructure, as this infrastructure provides good opportunities subsequently for private-sector investment in tourism. Both the state and local governments hold high expectations that increased tourism development will boost area's economy. Hence, there is potentially a high degree of political support for the project.

There was also scope for greater participation in the project planning by non-governmental interests, notably by environmental NGOs. A number of interviewees considered that both NGOs and community groups were poorly represented. While environmental concerns have become more prominent in Alagoas in recent years, some parties affected by the project still regard environmental conservation as a low priority because of pressures for rapid economic development. Medeiros de Araujo and Power (1993:299-300) argue that "This attitude is deeply rooted in the cultural heritage of Alagoas, where a kind of ruling class has been accustomed to imposing its point of view through the control of public opinion". The present findings show that some people were largely concerned about economic development and new

community amenities, with little mention being made of the long-term environmental impacts. Tosun and Jenkins (1996:109; Edgell, 1990; Williams and Gill, 1994; Green, 1995) suggest that "The struggle to overcome extreme conditions of poverty are the main source of many environmental problems in developing countries ... some countries or regions have no choice but to opt to develop tourism for immediate economic benefits at the expense of sociocultural and environmental impacts".

However, in practice collaborative planning must be limited to a relatively small number of stakeholders so that it is manageable and in order to sustain a productive dialogue and increase the likelihood of building trust and consensus (Williams *et al.*, 1998). The involvement of large numbers of participants may turn the planning into a lengthy process in which satisfactory outcomes are difficult to achieve. In this sense, some interviewees argued that it was important to keep the number of participants to a manageable size. Actually, it is very difficult to make definitive overall statements about whether the range of stakeholders involved in the planning process was representative of the stakeholders affected by a project. Similarly, Gray (1996) contends that research is still needed to determine what would be the most appropriate number of stakeholders participating in a collaborative arrangement. Yuksel *et al.* (1999) raise the question as to how does one decide what is an appropriate balance between stakeholders with interests focused at local, regional and national geographical scales, particularly in the broader context of sustainable development? Similarly, what is an appropriate balance between stakeholders whose concerns are focused on economic and environmental issues? Similar questions are raised by Wolfe (1979:38): "The questions now being addressed are: how much participation, by whom, and in what ways? What is the appropriate decision-making balance between the public, an agency, and political representativeness? What, indeed, is the appropriate public: all interested citizens, or only those with some vested interest?".

This examination of the Costa Dourada planning approach does not provide definitive answers to these questions, but it is valuable in that it emphasises the importance of using diverse, inter-connected approaches to participation in regional tourism planning. A strength of the Costa Dourada planning was the combined use made of collaborative arrangements among a core group of 29 stakeholders and of other means to obtain inputs from a broad range of other domain stakeholders. Possibly, the most innovative strategy was the encouragement given to participation of

collaborating and non-collaborating stakeholders also in the six planning activities discussed in section 9.2.1.2. This procedure brought participants three benefits:

- *Firstly*, it allowed participants to consult with literally hundreds of other parties with an interest in the project and then gain substantial extra information relevant into the collaborative planning process. This certainly broadened the participants appreciation of the full extent of the boundaries (interests and issues) of the problem domain.
- *Secondly*, in general terms, it gave participants an invaluable opportunity to pursue the following collaborative activities: 'identification of stakeholders', 'agenda setting', 'dealing with constituencies', 'building external support' for the project and 'structuring', as discussed in section 9.7.
- *Thirdly*, by allowing participants to interact with a large number of parties with an interest in the project, important opportunities were provided for enhancing project integration with multiple other stakeholders and thus also for increasing domain co-ordination.

Hence, it is argued that by (a) using both collaboration and consultation, (b) using consultative approaches for gaining broader external support for the project outcomes, and (c) pursuing increased domain integration and co-ordination, especially across the local state and federal levels of government, the Costa Dourada project used an approach to stakeholder participation that is likely to significantly enhance the political, social, economic and environmental sustainability of the project. However, there is doubt whether cultural issues were likely to have been given the same level of consideration as the other four dimensions of sustainability. Nonetheless, there are important lessons here for other tourism projects in developing countries which are intended to promote more sustainable forms of development.

9.7 STAGES OF THE COLLABORATIVE PROCESS

This section evaluates the tourism planning process for the Costa Dourada project in relation to ideas about the collaborative planning process consisting of a number of relatively distinct stages. Some researchers suggest that collaborative tourism planning arrangements evolve out of contexts consisting of a number of environmental circumstances that are termed pre-conditions (Gray, 1989) or *antecedents* (Selin and Chavez, 1995; Fyall, 2000). The collaborative arrangements then develop through five inter-connected stages, namely *initiation*, *problem-setting*,

direction-setting, structuring and implementation). It is often argued that each of these five stages involves a distinct group of collaborative processes, although it is sometimes suggested that they overlap (Trist, 1983; McCann, 1983; Gray, 1996). For example, when collaborative agreements are implemented they are likely to change the condition of the problem domain and hence they will affect the antecedent environmental circumstances that led the stakeholders to collaborate. This may affect the issues which are emphasised in the collaboration and may also raise new issues of concern among the collaborating stakeholders. As a result, new agreements may be required to adjust the planning priorities. This exemplifies the cyclical and dynamic nature of collaborative arrangements. These stages, including the much less frequently used antecedents stage and the notion of overlaps between them are incorporated in the model. The elements of these stages are now discussed.

9.7.1 Antecedents

The Costa Dourada project evolved out of a clear set of antecedents, with the project area being affected in particular by a tourism crisis. In the mid-1980s tourism gradually intensified in the region from a very low base and it was seen by government as an important tool for the region's socio-economic development. However, the region lacked the physical and social infrastructure and also the institutional base required for further tourism development. In this context of crisis, the multiple stakeholders appreciated the area's tourist potential but neither the municipal, state or federal government nor any other stakeholder group were in a position to make significant inroads into the problem by acting on their own. Another example of a tourism-related crisis influencing collaborative arrangements is provided in Bramwell and Sharman's (1999) study of the Hope Valley in Britain's Peak District. Here the stakeholders faced the dilemma that they wished to preserve the business and jobs benefits brought by tourism, but there was also increasing concern about tourism pressures on the environment, such as from traffic congestion, parking problems and reduced privacy (CVAC, 1993). This motivated several stakeholders to collaborate in an attempt to develop a visitor management plan for the area.

However, the tourism crisis affecting the Costa Dourada area took place within a broader situation of socio-economic and political turbulence, a situation which is not fully explained or accounted for in previous models of collaborative tourism planning, such as in Selin and Chavez's (1995) model. The society and economy in the Costa Dourada project area has long been dependent on sugar cane plantations. The decline in this industry, together with the high concentration of wealth historically

associated with this economic activity, have meant that the region now faces severe problems, such as high unemployment, seasonal jobs, low salaries, sewage and solid waste pollution, poor health care, deficient educational provision and endemic disease. Additionally, the region faces serious political and administrative instability which has affected both municipal and state government throughout the 1990s. The specific tourism crisis combined with the wider socio-economic and political turbulence has dominated the project's problem domain. In turbulent fields, multiple organisations act independently in many directions and they "produce unanticipated and dissonant consequences in the overall environment they share" (Trist, 1983). This is quite often similar in regional tourism domains in developing countries, and this needs to be given full consideration in generic models of collaborative tourism planning.

This context of crisis and turbulence led the government of Alagoas state to commission studies to assess the region's tourism potential. These studies resulted in a consultancy firm putting forward a preliminary conceptual proposal for the Costa Dourada project (CODEAL, 1993). Hence, the antecedents of the Costa Dourada collaboration were strongly influenced by the government perception of the region's tourism potential which led to the commissioning of related studies, which in turn resulted in a conceptual approach to the project. Another key antecedent of the project was the creation by the state government of the Programme for Tourism Development of the State of Alagoas (PRODETUR/AL), itself based on federal tourism policies, with the Costa Dourada project being the first large-scale tourism initiative within the PRODETUR/AL.

However, it is unlikely that the planning for the project would have embraced collaborative arrangements in any substantial way without the influence of existing networks. For example, a Planning Unit respondent pointed out that IMA/AL was "already a modern organisation" in that it had prior experience of working through partnership arrangements. This is illustrative of a general increasing use of partnership arrangements in Alagoas, as has been discussed in the study. The existence of organisations in the problem domain with a profile similar to IMA/AL's, such as IBAMA, AMA and FMM, represented another essential pre-condition or antecedent as they represented key organisations in the project planning. The influence of similar existing networks on the start of collaborative arrangements elsewhere have occasionally been reported by other researchers (Selin and Beason,

1991; Fyall *et al.*, 2000), and it is proposed that they should be considered in any generic model of collaborative tourism planning.

Another key antecedent to collaborative tourism arrangements is a prior common vision. This can be illustrated by Fyall *et al.*'s (2000:99) discussion of the Waterways consortium in the UK (Chapter 2, section 2.6.5), where the relevant stakeholders shared "the desire to more effectively compete in the international marketplace". The importance of a prior common vision is also illustrated by Getz and Jamal (1994) in their study of Canmore, Alberta (Canada) where widespread concern for the preservation of the natural environment in the face of rapid tourism growth, and a stated public mission to increase the quality of life for Canmore residents, encouraged diverse collaborative work which sought to develop planning guidelines in the Canmore area. In the case of the Costa Dourada project, there was a prior shared understanding among key organisations in the state government that stakeholder participation and also tourism development were fundamental for the sustainable development of the Alagoas' north coast, and this had an important influence on the project planning. For example, there was a common vision for the key stakeholders that the regional planning should involve local government, national government organisations, the private sector, and non-governmental stakeholders.

A further key antecedent for the Costa Dourada project was the leadership of the state government in the creation of the programme PRODETUR/AL. This programme established the institutional base through which financial resources could be captured from outside the problem domain for both the project design and the implementation work. Additionally, it required a public mandate for the initiation of the collaborative planning process, this being facilitated by the Chief State Secretary of SEPLANDES who set up the Planning Unit. The first task of the Planning Unit within the PRODETUR/AL was to convene a set of organisations to work together to plan for the Costa Dourada project. This public mandate provided the Planning Unit with the required legitimacy to convene the Costa Dourada collaborative process. Hence, models of collaborative tourism planning need to give consideration to leadership and mandate issues in relation to the antecedents to any partnership working.

9.7.2 Initiation

The collaborative planning process for the Costa Dourada project included an initiation stage or phase. This involved the state government making several

administrative and planning decisions, which were directly affected by the project's antecedents. The most prominent antecedent leading to the initiation of the Costa Dourada collaboration was the leadership of the Alagoas government through the commissioning of an assessment of tourism potential in the project area (CODEAL, 1993; SEPLAN, 1994). Another objective of this assessment was to establish a sound base for tourism planning in order to avoid tourism-related problems, such as landscape erosion, urban sprawl, infrastructural overload and an over-emphasis on economic growth, which are frequent negative consequences of inappropriate tourism planning (Murphy, 1985; Edgell, 1990; Green, 1995). Gunn (1994a:114; Acerenza, 1985) argues that such an early assessment is crucial to regional tourism planning so that tourism is integrated with other regional interests and so that the potential for "cooperation and collaboration" relationships is identified at the outset.

The initiation of the Costa Dourada collaboration was also affected by a recognition by state governmental organisations that the project needed to develop through a process that avoided the organisational conflicts that had occurred previously here and elsewhere in Brazil. The early project documents set out the goal of involving various stakeholders in its planning process, with this being seen as a requirement for the sustainable development of the north coast of Alagoas. According to Gray (1989:55), when collaboration results from a desire to build a shared vision, then the "...stakeholders may initially be more willing to convene to look into some joint activity. That is, they may have a greater readiness to collaborate than stakeholders starting from an overt conflict". As discussed in this chapter and in Chapter 5, there was a common vision among key public-sector stakeholders of the need to involve multiple stakeholders in the project planning for the Costa Dourada project, and this was a significant influence on the collaborative planning process.

The corner-stone of the initiation phase of the collaborative planning for the Costa Dourada project process was the creation of the Planning Unit in May 1996, which itself was based on a public mandate that the Planning Unit should organise the project domain. In addition to providing legal authorisation for planning for the project, the government also provided much of the administrative infrastructure for the collaborative planning to start. This government leadership was fundamental for stakeholder participation in the project planning. For example, the early project documents recommended that the Planning Unit should involve stakeholders from the local, regional and state levels of government, as well as from both the private sector and non-governmental organisations, in the planning process for the project and that

this should involve a partnership approach. In principle, this provided a basis for the inclusion of all relevant stakeholders in the project planning.

The legal policy context and framework which promoted broad participation in the project planning were important because collaborative planning can include only the more powerful stakeholders (Wood and Gray, 1991; Reed, 1997; Hall, 1999). However, the policy and legal context to the Costa Dourada approach encouraged an appreciation of the links between tourism and the rest of the economy and society, and it did so from the outset in the *initiation* phase (Komilis, 1994; Hunter, 1995). The involvement of government, private-sector and non-governmental organisations in a regional tourism planning process was likely to enhance understanding of the linkages between tourism and other related policy fields. Numerous authors contend that integration and co-ordination are essential in tourism planning, but the tourism planning literature actually provides few detailed examples of the integration of tourism with other policy areas and broad social-economic interests, particularly at a regional scale (Heeley, 1981; Lee, 1987; Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994a, 1994b; Hunter, 1995; Hall and Page, 1999).

The state government provided stakeholders with clear institutional and geographical frameworks to address the project's problem domain. For example, the planning reports and other documents made it clear that the project covered the whole north coastal region of Alagoas. It was also recommended that the ten municipalities affected by the project should be directly involved in the project planning. Hence, the Planning Unit became the focus for planning and for the involvement of region-wide stakeholders. This was a critical factor in the relative success of the project's collaborative planning process. Parker (1999) suggests that the lack of such a strongly focused institutional structure (Trist, 1983) was a main cause of the failure of the collaborative tourism planning on the island of Bonaire which sought to reconcile environmental and commercial sustainability.

Although the *initiation* phase of the Costa Dourada partnership was not based on prescribed procedures on how the stakeholders should engage in the project planning, the Planning Unit did have the legitimacy required to convene such a large-scale and complex planning initiative.

9.7.3 Problem-Setting

The second stage in the collaborative process identified for this tourism-based regional partnership is termed the problem-setting stage. This stage involved the identification of the regional domain-level problem, and it included such key issues as the identification and development of the role of convener, the recognition of mutual interdependence, the identification of affected stakeholders, the recognition of the legitimacy of stakeholders, the development of a commitment to collaborate, and the emergence of a common definition of the problem (McCann, 1983; Gray, 1989; Selin and Chavez, 1995; Fyall *et al.*, 2000).

The identity and role of the convener is an important element of the problem-setting collaborative stage. The Costa Dourada project convener, the Planning Unit, was established from the start of the collaborative process, with the twin objectives of convening the project planning (Gray, 1989) and playing the role of domain referent organisation (Trist, 1983). The Planning Unit had the mandated authority to identify the stakeholders who were relevant to the project and to persuade them to work together in the project planning. In practice, however, a mandate of the type secured by the Planning Unit is usually not necessarily enough to convince the relevant stakeholders to collaborate. Gray (1989) argues that it is essential that the other stakeholders believe the convener has legitimate authority to organise the domain. In this sense, it has been shown that the Planning Unit was generally seen by the eventual participants as being technically competent and politically unbiased, a view that was also shared by most non-participants. The convener of the Costa Dourada project was also relatively successful in 'envisioning' a process to organise a collective response to the problem domain. The demonstration of vision and of organising capacity increased the Planning Unit's legitimacy among the other stakeholders, who came to see the project planning process as a potential means to advance their own interests in the project domain.

A key task for sustainable regional tourism planning is the identification of stakeholder groups to involve in the partnership approach. There might be a consensus, for example, that the legitimate stakeholders may include organisations operating at the local, regional and federal geographical scales (WTO, 1980; Pearce, 1989; Hall, 1991; Komilis, 1994). The legitimate stakeholders may also include infrastructure organisations, hoteliers, travel agents and tourist attraction operators in the private sector, and governmental planners and managers in policy areas such as tourism, transport, promotion and health care (WTO, 1994; Gunn, 1994a; Getz and Jamal, 1994; Alipour, 1996; Hall, 1999). There may also be some acceptance that the

participation of environmental and other types of NGOs, and of the local communities affected by the proposals would be appropriate. It might be considered appropriate for such stakeholders to be involved as this might enhance the sustainability prospects of a regional tourism project (WCED, 1987; Drake, 1991; Roberts, 1995; Joppe, 1996; Marien and Pizam, 1997; Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 2000).

In practice, however, there may not be agreement about a "fair" representation of organisations from the many stakeholder groups that might be involved in sustainable planning process for regional tourism development. One reason why participation may be limited is that each stakeholder often decides autonomously whether or not to join in a partnership arrangement. For example, some powerful stakeholders may decide it is not to their advantage to work in collaboration with others and they may prefer to pursue their own objectives by working independently. Other stakeholders may have a history of confrontation with public institutions and they may be reluctant to work with stakeholders they have opposed in the past. In addition, some stakeholders may not trust governmental organisations that are seriously affected by economic, political and administrative instabilities. Ultimately, there are no safeguards to ensure that collaborative processes involve a "fair" representation of stakeholders that is considered appropriate for sustainable regional tourism planning (Gray, 1989; Wood and Gray, 1991). This is illustrated by the Costa Dourada partnership, which failed to involve the private sector and NGOs to any significant degree, and also by Getz and Jamal's (1994) study of Canmore in the Canadian province of Alberta, where groups entirely opposed to tourism growth made it difficult for collaborative planning to include key relevant stakeholders.

When stakeholders realise that the problems of regional development depend on a collaborative response, they are much more likely to collaborate. Local, state and federal organisations in the public sector that were affected by the Costa Dourada project did recognise their interdependence and this led to their involvement in the project planning. In a large country like Brazil central planning is geographically too distant from state and local realities, and a centralised approach would have faced difficulties in motivating state and municipal stakeholders to get involved in regional tourism planning. In Chapter 5 it was shown that in addition to the geographical distances, the Costa Dourada region has a unique environmental, socio-economic and political context. A diverse range of stakeholders came to perceive that the regional planning approach adopted by the Costa Dourada project could serve their collective interests. Their involvement in and commitment to its planning process

provides an empirical illustration which supports the suggestion that regional-scale tourism planning can help to integrate issues emerging from multiple geographical scales (Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994a; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996).

At the end of the problem-setting stage the participants had already achieved a quite well developed understanding of the boundaries of the Costa Dourada problem domain. Again, this was greatly influenced by a project antecedent, namely the consultancy work that assessed the area's tourism potential. The consultancy report clearly identified the major obstacles to increased investment in tourism development in the area (SEPLAN, 1994). The partnership participants also recognised that in addition to physical infrastructure the project area also needed social infrastructure, that is, the institutional base required for long-term sustainable regional tourism development. Trist (1983) argues that it is only after the problem-setting phase has been successfully completed that participants can have a full understanding of the dimensions of the domain, and ideally they can then be in a position to start the direction-setting stage of collaborative work. However, establishing the character of the problem may not be achieved satisfactorily during the problem-setting stage, and this may be a key issue in subsequent stages. For example, Parker (1999:88) points out that "On Bonaire, ... consensus on the nature of the domain was never really achieved during problem-setting. Interestingly, it was only during direction-setting that real progress was made, a fact that may lead us to speculate that a groups' movement from one phase to the next does not necessarily require prior closure during the earlier phase" (McCann, 1983; Gray, 1996).

From the very start the Costa Dourada collaborative process developed within a fairly structured planning domain (Trist, 1983). The position of the Planning Unit as the convener and referent organisation early in the planning process provided the problem-setting stage with a highly institutionalised structure, and this is probably a virtue in an extremely turbulent regional domain. In contrast to the Costa Dourada partnership, the diffuse networked nature (Trist, 1983) of Bonaire's collaboration is identified by Parker (1999) as a severe shortcoming because the stakeholder relations remained informal and *ad hoc*, and it was difficult to address relevant issues in a co-ordinated way, especially at critical moments. The clear institutional focus for planning for the Costa Dourada project seems to have helped attract local, regional and national government organisations, thus providing an invaluable opportunity for

the vertical integration of interests operating at three geographical scales which affected the region (Hall, 2000a).

The perception of most stakeholders that they had a shared problem and that there was a legitimate convener bringing them together may not be sufficient to motivate these stakeholders to commit themselves fully to collaborative planning. In fact in the Costa Dourada partnership the stakeholders perceived additional influences encouraging them to work together. For example, the tourism industry crisis and the socio-economic and political turbulence in the project area had failed to serve their interests, and they also had an expectation that collaboration would produce positive outcomes. There was also an understanding that they would be able to reach an agreement that was fair to the parties concerned. In addition, there was a perception among most participating stakeholders that the other participants were committed to the project planning. Previous research reviewed by Gray (1989) suggest that all these four circumstances are likely to enhance stakeholder commitment to a collaboration (Schermerhorn, 1975; Gray, 1985; Saunders, 1985).

Another positive issue in the Costa Dourada collaboration which may also be important for collaboration in other regional tourist destinations was the involvement in the project planning of the key stakeholders with authority to implement the planning outcomes. This is very likely to increase the probability that agreements will be implemented (Bingham, 1986), and perceptions of this are likely to enhance stakeholder commitment to collaborative work. The Costa Dourada *initiation* stage involved recommendations on which stakeholders should be directly involved in the project planning, and it also established that the stakeholders responsible for implementing planning outcomes should also be involved from the start in the collaborative planning. Hence, the institutionalisation of planning decisions started very early in the planning process. This also indicates a concern right at the start of the collaborative process with the *structuring* of the planning domain, in a preparation for the implementation work. This is also indicative of the extensive overlap of the project's collaborative planning stages, extending the claims made by McCann (1983) and Gray (1989) that there are some overlaps.

Another important agreement in the *initiation* stage that assisted in the *problem-setting* stage was the decision that the ten municipal governments should be included in the collaborative arrangements. The involvement of the ten municipalities might

help to promote sustainable development by the spatial distribution of planning outcomes being more equitable and harmonious (Timothy, 1998). Their involvement had the potential to increase their self-reliance and their awareness of the issues, and it was important for more equitable trade-offs between the municipalities and for achieving a greater degree of consensus and of shared ownership of decisions (Warner, 1997). An important consequence of bringing local and national stakeholders together in the project planning was that this helped to bridge the distance between municipal and federal government by allowing them to look jointly at relevant project issues. This led to planning outcomes that were more likely to be balanced and which may help to serve the common interests of those involved rather than narrow sectional interests (Ostrom, 1990; Innes, 1995; Selin, 1999).

The shared work of a diverse range of relevant stakeholders has important implications for sustainability. If there is also decision-making based on consensus-building, then such collaborative arrangements can help to legitimise planning outcomes. The resulting decisions potentially can benefit from a wider sense of ownership. This is very important in the context of developing countries where projects developed by external consultants who are not involved in project implementation tend to go unimplemented, leading to a waste of scarce resources. In large developing countries there is also usually a large gap between planning by local and by federal governments. Hence, the position occupied by the state or regional government between local communities and central government is invaluable for the integration of multiple interests into a vision for sustainable regional development. The regional approach can attempt to mediate between local development problems and aspirations and the country's development priorities.

A weakness of the Costa Dourada partnership was its inability to persuade the private sector and a broader number of environmental NGOs to join the project planning. This meant that important information, expertise and political power related to these key stakeholder groups may not have been sufficiently articulated within the project planning. The eventual participation of the private sector and of more environmental NGOs may help to prevent conflicts later on during the implementation work. What these findings suggest for models of collaborative planning in tourism is that in a context of political and public administrative turbulence, the private sector may be sceptical of the capacity of government to address complex tourism domains, particularly in an emergent regional tourist destination in a developing country. In such a context, private-sector stakeholders may wait for eventual positive planning

signs and for their interests to be sufficiently developed in the planning cycle to justify their participation (Post, 1978; Bucholtz, 1986). This situation was clearly indicated by both the participants and non-participants in the Costa Dourada project. Furthermore, in countries with a recent history of dictatorship it may be difficult for environmental NGOs, which are used to opposing dictatorial development policies, to work together with the government in order to plan for large-scale tourism projects, despite their potential for negative environmental, cultural and socio-economic impacts (Viola, 1987; Vieira, 1995).

A particularly important contribution of the case study of the Costa Dourada project is that it illustrates the potential use of consultative participation approaches in support of a collaborative planning process). By consulting with hundreds of non-collaborating stakeholders, including private-sector and non-governmental organisations, the participants in the project planning were likely to have expanded their understanding of the project problem domain. This consultative approach may partially also have made up for the very limited participation by the private sector and NGOs in the project's collaborative planning. This is discussed further in the direction-setting stage.

9.7.4 Direction-Setting

When the problem-setting stage has developed sufficiently the collaborating stakeholders may have reached a shared understanding of the boundaries of their problem domain. The crafting of a shared direction for the future of the problem domain is the major aim of the direction-setting stage. This stage involves stakeholders in the establishment of ground rules, agenda setting, joint information searches, exploring options and reaching agreements about a direction for action (McCann, 1983; Gray, 1989; Selin and Chavez, 1995; Fyall *et al.*, 2000).

At the start of the direction-setting stage the participants benefited from having a good picture of the boundaries of the project's problem domain and also valuable inputs into the planning agenda from the project consultants. At this stage the Planning Unit substantially changed the project planning, a change which led to the integration of collaborative with consultative approaches to stakeholder participation. Because the Planning Unit members were not fully happy about the consultants' input and because they considered it important to listen to other domain stakeholders, they decided to consult with non-participating stakeholders about the planning issues. In

order to attain this objective, the Planning Unit organised a three-day domain-level workshop in a project municipality - Maragogi. This initial large workshop involved both collaborating stakeholders and numerous other government, private-sector and non-governmental organisations operating at the local, regional and national geographical scales. In addition to consulting with non-participants about other project-related issues, workshop attendees discussed the preliminary collaborative agenda, agreed to include new issues in it, and agreed on a strategy which included further use of consultation in the project planning.

This initial direction-setting workshop represented an important shift within the overall strategy of the PRODETUR for tourism development in Alagoas. This shift meant a move from a spontaneous approach to tourism growth (Medeiros de Araujo and Power, 1993) to a co-ordinated planning approach. It also involved an appreciation of the existence of multiple project-related interests and acceptance that a common vision for the project could be crafted based on these multiple interests. Thus, implicit in the decision to organise this initial workshop was also an acceptance that knowledge and value could be constituted through interaction between the stakeholders affected by the project (Latour, 1987; Shotter, 1993; Healey, 1997). This workshop involved intensive discussion, negotiation and consensus-building approaches, and it served to consolidate the ground rules for the project planning and to disseminate them in the ten municipalities. According to the Planning Unit members, the methodology used in the collaborative planning meetings and workshops had been in use in the region in the context of environmental planning related to IMA/AL and GERCO. The participation and the moderation approaches used in the project meetings and workshops are discussed in Brose (1993a; 1993b).

As discussed previously, a collaboration that evolves from a common vision is likely to establish its domain boundaries more easily than a collaboration that aims to address a situation of conflict (Trist, 1983; Gray, 1989). The Costa Dourada collaboration is illustrative of a strong region-wide aspiration for tourism development. The government's initiative in using consultants to assess both previous tourism development and the tourism potential of the region (Gunn, 1994a; Acerenza, 1985) was seen as a vehicle for the realisation of this aspiration. This assessment appears to have been a critical factor in the success of both the problem-setting and direction-setting stages of the project planning. Because the preliminary planning agenda closely matched the interests of both participating and non-participating stakeholders, it was possible to avoid too much tension between, for example, conservation and

development interests, which is a common conflict in developing countries (Jenkins, 1980).

It is argued here that securing this type of common ground right at the outset of direction-setting is likely to enhance the success of a regional tourism project because it saves precious planning time and it is likely to increase the participants' sense of common purpose and, consequently, commitment to the planning work. For example, in a study about a sustainable tourism initiative in the Arctic, Mason *et al.* (2000) suggest that the lack of a clear direction and context at the early project stages was a serious problem which negatively affected the consultative and negotiation processes. In this sense, it is interesting that while the collaborative process of establishing a consensus about the relevant problem-domain issues may well extend into the direction-setting stage (Parker, 1999), in the Costa Dourada collaboration such a consensus had been substantially achieved in the problem-setting stage, mainly as a result of project antecedents, as discussed previously. So, when the project direction-setting stage started considerable work had already been done on the project planning agenda.

The project direction-setting activities involved the 29 participants in regular meetings and workshops which were based on discussion, negotiation and consensus-building approaches. The direct interaction between multiple stakeholders in negotiation and consensus-building approaches is relevant for project sustainability because decisions reached through such processes are likely to include a high degree of collective ownership (Gray, 1989). These processes of participation may also lead to the social production of legitimacy around project issues through the communicative interaction among stakeholders (Lawrence *et al.*, 1997). Also, the use made of negotiation and consensus-building approaches in the Costa Dourada planning legitimised the decision-making process. This is likely to have increased the support of the participants and their constituencies for the decisions, reinforced stakeholder accountability, and enhanced the political acceptability of the project outcomes (Drake, 1991; Long, 1993; Marien and Pizam, 1997).

Additionally, as discussed in Chapters 5 and 8, and in Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell (2000), the project's collaborative direction-setting work was closely linked to consultative approaches with a large number of domain stakeholders. It is suggested that by consulting with hundreds of non-collaborating stakeholders through meetings,

workshops and seminars, the participants were in a good position to develop a broad understanding of domain interests and issues which were not involved directly in the collaborative planning process. This means that the collaborative planning was connected to a network of non-collaborating organisations, a development that is likely to enhance the responsiveness of non-participants to the collaborative outcomes. For example, in their study of policy development for sustainable tourism in the Arctic, Mason *et al.*, (2000) found that having meetings open to whoever wanted to discuss their views and encouraging such discussion in the meetings was important for the success of the partnership. Ritchie's (1999) study of Interest Based Negotiation (IBN) in Banff National Park, in Canada, also suggests the benefits of using a combination of participation approaches, in this case a core group of stakeholders using IBN approaches who consulted more widely with their respective constituencies using consultative approaches (Haywood, 1988; Keogh, 1990; Simmons, 1994). More generally, Bryson and Roering (1987) suggest that the use of consultative approaches to support collaborative arrangements may help participants to identify strategies to secure management or political outcomes that are more widely accepted (Bryson and Roering, 1987; Finn, 1996).

Such a planning approach is in sharp contrast to normative tourism planning models (Inskeep (1991) where usually little attention is given to stakeholder participation or to the decision-making processes involved. A strength of collaboration is that it is a dynamic process in which stakeholders can focus their attention on issues such as the legitimacy of participants, the crafting of a shared vision for the future of their domain, consensus-building decision-making and the gradual institutionalisation of the collaborative outcomes. There is less emphasis on the final 'tourism plan'. Also, it is a process that emerges from a shared appreciation that the current status of the common domain is less than satisfactory and from a recognition that working together to reach agreements can help to build a collectively desired future. So, instead of external decisions being made by one stakeholder group, collaborative outcomes evolve internally from stakeholder interdependence and collective effort to address the problems.

An important factor for the sustainability of the Costa Dourada strategy was that its objective of developing tourist infrastructure had the broader purpose of addressing the region's socio-economic problems. Awareness of this purpose by the 10 municipal governments affected by the project and their inclusion as direct participants in the project planning produced an implicit urgency and a claim for the

immediate attention of local government (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997). The Planning Unit's responsiveness to local public interest during the direction-setting stage appears to have increased the municipal government commitment to the project's collaborative planning. Hence, it is suggested that the Costa Dourada project planning represents an important example of integrated tourism planning, this being defined as an "*interactive or collaborative* approach which requires participation and interaction between the various levels of ... governance and between the responsible organisation and the stakeholders in the planning process to realise horizontal and vertical partnerships within the planning process" (Hall, 2000a:146; Hall and McArthur, 1998). In this way, the project planning provided an effective tool for co-ordination between the local, state and federal-level stakeholders. This was favoured by the intrinsic inter-dependence between the state and local governments. There was a situation in which the latter were in great need of infrastructure and tourism investment to help them address their socio-economic problems, and the former needed the support of local government in order to implement the project fully.

It is also important to note that the Costa Dourada planning process was often affected by domain difficulties which led to substantial delays to activities throughout the planning process, but more seriously in the direction-setting stage. According to the Co-ordinator General of the project's Planning Unit, there were times when not all 29 participants had the same level of involvement in the planning process due to the lack of financial resources and also because of state-level political turbulence, which generated uncertainty about the continuity of the project. He explained that, despite the Unit members having agreed that it was necessary to broaden the number of participating stakeholders, they kept it to the 29 participants for fear that the Planning Unit might lose credibility with other key organisations. Such organisations, he argued, could be invited later on when more financial resources were available. The impact of similar broad domain difficulties on collaborative planning are illustrated by the island of Bonaire, where collaborative planning was aborted at the end of the direction-setting stage due to a downturn in estimated tourist arrivals and its associated economic uncertainty (Parker, 1999). Both cases highlight the fragile nature of collaborative arrangements, which can be influenced at any stage by both internal and external developments.

9.7.5 Structuring

The collaborative process includes a structuring stage, where the main aim is the establishment of a collectively agreed system to manage stakeholder interactions in the partnership. This stage involves the stakeholders in formalising their relationships, assigning roles and responsibilities, elaborating the tasks and designing monitoring systems (McCann, 1983; Gray, 1989; Selin and Chavez, 1995).

Previous research identifies some variability in the collaborative stages that follow direction-setting. For example, while McCann (1983) and Selin and Chavez (1995) identify a distinct structuring stage, in Gray's (1989) model the direction-setting stage is followed by an implementation stage, within which structuring activities are included. However, the Costa Dourada collaboration does appear to have involved a distinct structuring stage. For example, it was agreed early on in the problem-setting stage that IMA/AL, EMATUR, DER/AL, CASAL and the ten municipalities would be responsible for implementing most of the project planning outcomes.

The Costa Dourada partnership was perhaps more likely to involve a distinct group of structuring activities because it is situated in a poor region of a developing country and as such it suffers from considerable deficiencies in its organisational base. This contrasts with some problem domains where the prior existence of organisational arrangements means that the collaborative outcomes can be implemented by collaborating stakeholders as soon as they are agreed (Gray, 1989). The implementation of the Costa Dourada planning outcomes will require some substantial organisational changes, especially organisational strengthening in the ten project municipalities. In consequence, it was agreed that some stakeholders will need to go through a process of institutional development and strengthening.

Decisions were made very early in the planning process about which organisations would implement the partnership outcomes and negotiations about implementation responsibilities have continued well into the problem-setting, direction-setting and implementation stages. This continuing process illustrates how there was a much higher degree of overlap between the collaborative stages than has previously been suggested by other researchers (McCann, 1983; Gray (1989). It also shows the flexible nature of collaboration, with collaborative arrangements often being adjusted to changing circumstances. This also contrasts with some normative tourism planning models (Inskeep, 1991), which as a consequence may be of comparatively less relevance to developing countries.

The formalisation of inter-organisational relationships in the project planning domain was much influenced by the official mandate given to the Planning Unit in the Costa Dourada partnership. As the Planning Unit started its convening activities it was accepted that in addition to being the convening organisation, the Planning Unit would also play the role of referent organisation (Trist, 1983), that is, the organisation responsible for managing the overall order of the planning domain (Gray, 1989) and for regulating the planning process and the negotiation in the planning process (McCann, 1983). While referent organisations usually emerge as the domain becomes increasingly institutionalised (McCann, 1983) and partnerships start to yield their outcomes, the Planning Unit was established also as the domain referent organisation at the start of the problem-setting stage. This was encouraged by the Planning Unit members being generally seen both by other participants and by non-participants as being relatively competent, relatively unbiased and legitimate domain organisers.

The Costa Dourada planning involved both participants and consultants in differing tasks. For example, the organisation of local workshops was conducted mainly by the consultants but it usually also included the participation of a Planning Unit member and always the respective municipal representative involved in the collaborative planning. The commissioning and supervision of the consultancy work was the responsibility of Planning Unit members. In addition, the overall co-ordination of the planning process was the responsibility of the Co-ordinator General of the Planning Unit. However, the co-ordination of planning activities at the municipal level was the responsibility of the local representatives.

An important aspect of the Costa Dourada structuring activities which may have wider relevance for sustainable regional tourism development was the decision to develop and strengthen many organisations in the domain. While this decision was aimed at preparing these organisations for the implementation work, the resulting institutional development process is enhancing the planning and management capacity of municipal government more generally and hence it is opening new prospects for socio-economic development in the municipalities.

9.7.6 Implementation

Finally, the collaborative process in regional tourism planning includes an implementation stage, when the main aim is to put into practice the shared planning agreements. This stage involves stakeholders in dealing with constituencies, building

external support and monitoring stakeholder compliance with the agreements (Gray, 1989).

The data for this study was collected in mid-1998, approximately only two years after the collaborative planning process had started, so some agreements which had been reached had yet to be implemented. However, there was sufficient implementation work on the ground to demonstrate that the project included an *implementation* stage. For example, a road which was part of the project was being built to link the town of Barra de Santo Antônio to the area where the project Tourist Centre of Camaragibe was to be built (see Figure 5.1). By the end of June 1998 there was already some institutional strengthening of some project implementing organisations, as had been agreed as part of the *structuring* activities. This strengthening included running workshops for the staff of some organisations and organisational restructuring. For example, the DER/AL had created an internal department in order to co-ordinate their actions with the Planning Unit concerning the Costa Dourada project. The staff workshops were usually organised by the organisation's representative involved in the project collaborative planning and they were often monitored by a Planning Unit member.

The study findings suggest that most participants in the Costa Dourada planning both consulted with and reported to their constituencies about decisions made about the project, which suggests some degree of accountability in the participants' dealing with their constituencies. In addition, the use of consultative approaches in the project planning provided the participants with important opportunities to build external support for the project, an approach that is relevant to sustainable regional tourism planning elsewhere.

9.8 A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE COLLABORATIVE PROCESS IN REGIONAL TOURISM PLANNING

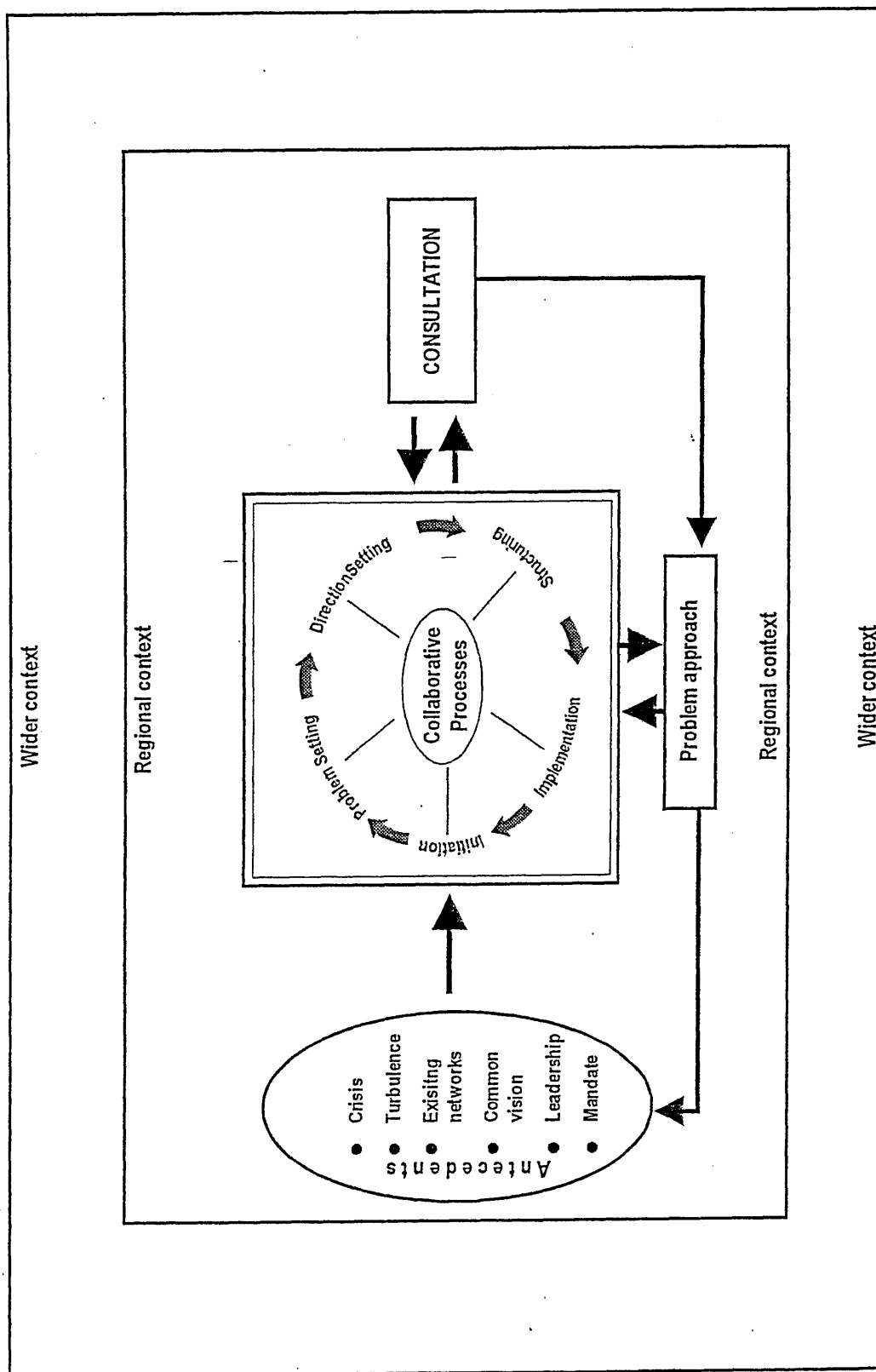
The results suggest that the approach to regional tourism planning adopted in the Costa Dourada project encouraged a reasonably co-ordinated response from a broad range of stakeholders whose interests were largely focused either at the local, state and national geographical scales. The regional planning process adopted by the project helped the federal government to share power and decision-making with state and local governments. Participants in the collaborative planning were engaged in negotiation, shared decision-making and consensus building and most were broadly supportive of the project aims, decision-making, and decisions. However, some

participants had significant concerns, such as about the extent to which everyone's views were taken into account. The way in which collaborative and consultative approaches to participation were combined was relatively successful in helping to identify key stakeholders and issues, in raising awareness about the project and building external support for the project. The range of participants in the project planning was also likely to promote consideration of many of the issues of sustainable development, although there was only limited involvement of environmental groups and of private sector interests.

The previous section examined the stages of the collaborative process as experienced in the Costa Dourada project. A generic conceptual model is now presented (Figure 9.1) which focuses on the collaborative process within a regional tourism planning context. It incorporates the general collaborative stages already identified. The model has been developed through deductive work, based on relevant academic literature about collaborative working, regional tourism planning, stakeholder participation in tourism planning and tourism planning for sustainable development (which were reviewed in Chapter 2), and the detailed inductive work undertaken in this study of the Costa Dourada project. The model is intended to provide a framework for researchers to interpret critically collaborative arrangements for tourism planning, and also a framework that will help guide the practitioner in the development of collaborative tourism planning for regional development. Hence, it is intended to have value for researchers and for policy-makers and planners.

Given the origins of the model in a study of a poor region in Brazil, the model might have particular relevance in other emergent tourist destinations in developing countries. For example, the prominence given to antecedents might partly reflect the considerable difficulties faced by the planning process in developing countries where there is often weak institutional development, cronyism and very limited resources. The model uses collaborative ideas from other researchers (McCann, 1983; Gray, 1989; Selin and Chavez, 1995), but extends these based on the particular circumstances involved in regional tourism planning, and on the important conceptual findings from the study of the Costa Dourada project. Within the model there is an integration of collaborative and consultative approaches to tourism planning, and these approaches and the relations between them have been examined in detail in this study. It is proposed that collaborative planning should also involve consultative approaches in order to broaden understanding of the problem domain, to widen participation, to deal with constituencies, to build external support, and to increase the

Figure 9.1 The Collaborative Process in Regional Tourism Planning.



chances that consideration will be given to the diverse concerns of sustainable development. In addition, the model relates to collaborative and consultative processes to the specific planning antecedents, to the regional context, and to the broader socio-economic, environmental and political milieu.

Considerable prominence is given to the influences of the broad social, economic, environmental and political contexts to the collaborative planning process, with these influences coming from national and especially regional arenas. Again, these contexts and their influence on the planning process have been examined at great depth in the evaluation of the Costa Dourada project. Additionally, consideration of the regional and wider contexts, including the present social, economic, environmental and political conditions and their future condition as a result of the tourism planning decisions, is essential for the development of forms of tourism which promote sustainable development.

The model is also based on the proposition that the stages of the collaborative planning process substantially overlap and that this overlapping and the dynamic, iterative links between the stages are more substantial than is indicated by McCann (1983) and Gray (1989). In the Costa Dourada project, for example, the structuring stage started very early in the planning process, and it overlapped with the problem-setting, direction-setting and implementation stages. Other examples of such overlaps and of the cyclical and dynamic nature of collaborative arrangements were discussed earlier in this chapter. Hence, the model shows the stages of initiation, problem-setting, direction-setting, structuring and implementation as broadly sequential but inter-connected and cyclical.

The planning response, or problem approach, in the model results from the collaborative and consultative processes with stakeholders affected by the regional planning domain, with all of these being influenced by the regional and national context. The implementation of the problem approach in turn alters the planning antecedents and hence the collaborative planning process, which may also be affected by wider changes in the problem domain. In these ways the model is responsive, dynamic and evolutionary.

9.9 THE MAIN CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY FOR TOURISM PLANNING THEORY

So far this chapter has reported on the study findings in relation to the three key research questions and related research objectives which run through the study, and it has devised a conceptual model of the collaborative process in regional tourism planning. The intention now is to highlight just a few of the main ways in which the study may be seen to have contributed to the development of improved theoretical understandings of tourism planning, and in particular of collaborative tourism planning approaches.

The study was based on the Costa Dourada case and hence some of its implications have particular relevance to the situation of emergent destinations in developing countries, although it should always be noted that particular circumstances in each country and region are unique and highly contingent.

1. Problem domain turbulence is likely to be a key factor influencing collaborative tourism planning.

Socio-economic and political turbulence substantially affected the Costa Dourada planning process in many ways. For instance, it encouraged the public sector stakeholders to work together in the collaborative planning arrangements as they saw that the project provided them with the means to reduce some of this turbulence. They felt that it would help them to overcome their limited resources, to work with a relatively effective organisation in a context where they had lost confidence in other agencies, and to secure an integrated and co-ordinated planning approach. However, in this turbulent context the private sector stakeholders remained sceptical about the public sector's capacity to lead the project planning effectively. This turbulence also encouraged the Planning Unit to involve a range of stakeholders in the project planning, but it also appears to have discouraged them from seeking wider private sector involvement as they felt they would become frustrated by the effects of the turbulent environment on the level of resources and speed of the project. Instead, they claimed they will involve the private sector later in the project when more infrastructure is in place and there are clearer investment opportunities for them. Previous discussions of collaboration theory have not shown how turbulence can at the same time both encourage and discourage the collaborative participation of different stakeholder groups.

The effects of turbulence on the Costa Dourada project may also be seen in the influence of Brazil's legacy from the period of dictatorship. The history of past antagonistic relations between the government and environmental NGOs may still be

discouraging NGO involvement in the government-led planning arrangements for the project. Such political considerations may be a key antecedent in other contexts in developing countries, and it illustrates the importance of antecedents within generic models of collaborative tourism planning.

2. Tourism planning at the regional geographical scale can help federal governments to share power and decision-making and can assist in the co-ordination of the planning activities of local government.

The Costa Dourada project shows that it is possible for regional tourism planning to help to bridge the distance between federal and municipal government and can promote both vertical and horizontal integration in the planning process. It also illustrates that it is possible for regional planning to assist the federal government to decentralise its activities and to strengthen the co-ordination of planning activities between local areas. Both of these objectives may be particularly important in other developing countries, where local government is often fairly weak in its organisational capacity and in its level of resourcing.

3. There may be considerable potential value in combining collaborative with consultative approaches in tourism planning.

Collaborative planning in tourist destinations is seen in this study as involving direct dialogue among the participating stakeholders, including the public sector planners, and this has the potential to lead to negotiation, shared decision-making and consensus-building about planning goals and actions. Much collaborative planning is made in working groups with a fairly small number of individuals, who often are representatives of organisations or stakeholder groups, and these often meet quite regularly. However, participation in tourism planning in tourist destinations can be limited to consultative approaches, which largely involve collecting the opinions of stakeholders in order to provide fuller information for public sector planners. Although this consultative opinion gathering can be combined with information dissemination and even some discussion, consultative approaches usually involve little direct or regular negotiation or consensus-building with the range of key policy-making stakeholders. However, some forms of participation can combine elements of both, and efforts can be made to use a variety of participation methods in a deliberate attempt to combine them.

This study identified several advantages for the Costa Dourada project from its use of both collaborative and consultative approaches to stakeholder participation. For

example, the use of a range of consultative methods helped the Planning Unit to identify the key stakeholders and the main issues in the region to include in the collaborative planning process, it raised awareness of many stakeholders about the decisions which resulted from the collaborative planning, and it helped to build external support for these decisions.

While some other authors (Keogh, 1990; Simmons, 1994; Marien and Pizam, 1997) assert that tourism planning would benefit from using a combination of participation methods, there is very little research on how best to integrate the diverse approaches to participation as well as the various more specific participation methods. One important contribution of this study is that it examined how both collaborative and consultative approaches as well as a range of specific methods have been integrated in one context, and it has explored the resulting strengths and weaknesses. This has wider relevance, while also recognising that the findings are context-specific.

4. There may be considerable potential value in having early leadership of the collaborative tourism planning process from an influential, competent and legitimate convenor.

This study suggests that the lead taken early in the Costa Dourada planning process by the Planning Unit as the project convenor was important to the relative success of the planning process. The role of the Planning Unit needs to be seen in the context of considerable political and institutional turbulence in Alagoas state, with fragmented state planning structures and a related scepticism about the government's planning capacity. The Planning Unit quickly established itself as more credible than other state planning organisations, and it was seen as professionally and technically competent, serious, relatively unbiased and committed to fairly wide participation in the project planning. It also had a clear mandate and also access to considerable external financial resources. From the early stages of the planning process the Planning Unit was also relatively successful at 'envisioning' a process to organise a collective response to the planning issues and also at putting this into practice. Hence, the convenor of the Costa Dourada project quickly established its quite widely perceived political legitimacy and 'power to organise', and it was shown how the quite wide acceptance of the convenor has enhanced the progress of the project.

5. There may be considerable potential value in having general workshops open to all interest parties very early in the tourism planning process.

General workshops open to all parties affected by a tourism plan can help to identify issues to include in the planning agenda, to begin to engage non-participants in the issues which will be dealt with in collaborative planning arrangements, to raise awareness, and to begin to deal with constituencies. These workshops might be assisted by consultants who can undertake detailed reviews of the tourism position and potential of the destination and can report their findings to the workshop.

6. Assessments of the range of stakeholders participating in tourism planning potentially have direct relevance for the prospects that the planning will promote sustainable development.

As discussed in section 9.6, there was a relatively broad array of stakeholders involved in the Costa Dourada planning, and this was likely to have raised awareness of the varied issues of sustainable development, these being social, cultural, economic, environmental and political, and of the need for integration and co-ordination for sustainability. For example, the public sector representatives in the collaborative planning were involved in a broad spread of policy areas, such as regional development, transport, tourism, coastal management, and the environment. However, significant gaps in stakeholder representation were also identified, and it was shown how these could reduce, for example, the attention paid to the project's adverse environmental impacts. One related issue for many developing countries is the need for the institutional strengthening of some community and environmental organisations before they can participate easily in collaborative planning arrangements.

7. Stakeholder assessments can have considerable potential value in the general field of tourism planning.

This study has shown that stakeholder assessments have considerable potential value for academic assessments of tourism planning approaches and also for tourism planners. The stakeholder assessment used here can help both researchers and planners to identify the interests, groups and individuals that are stakeholders in planning exercises, as well as their values, interests and relative power. The identification of the 'universe' of stakeholders is particularly important for inclusive collaborative approaches to planning, such as the development of partnerships. Healy also argues (1997,271) that such "stakeholder analysis needs to be conducted in an explicit, dynamic and revisable way, as stakeholders may change over time in their concerns". The findings of the present stakeholder analysis could be of assistance to planners involved in the Costa Dourada project. For example, the

information about the under-representation of certain stakeholder groups could be used for 'stakeholder targeting' in order to broaden stakeholder representation in project meetings. In addition, stakeholder assessment could assist planners in the planning for other similar tourism project within the PRODETUR/AL and in other Brazilian states included in the Programme for Tourism Development of the Northeast (PRODETUR/NE).

Snowballing was also demonstrated by this study to be a valuable technique to identify the stakeholders affected by tourism planning, in this case the Costa Dourada project. The technique involved asking both participants and non-participants in the collaborating planning about their perceptions of which parties were relevant to the tourism planning domain. The named parties were then asked to identify other relevant parties, and this process stopped when few new stakeholders were mentioned regularly.

8. Examination of the views of non-participants in collaborative planning can achieve an improved understanding of the problem domain.

Previous studies of collaborative arrangements in tourism have relied almost exclusively on documentary sources and occasionally on the views of the stakeholders directly involved in the collaborative activities. This study has also examined the views of non-participants about the collaborative planning, which has had two important benefits. First, it has helped to increase understanding of the project's problem domain and of its planning process. For example, it revealed that there was considerable coincidence between the project priorities of both participants and non-participants, indicating there was a greater chance that the planning outcomes will be supported by a wide range of non-participants. It also suggested that most non-participants believed that the collaborating stakeholders were likely to give full consideration to the views of all affected stakeholders. Second, by examining the views of non-participants it was possible to further assess the validity of the data collected from the participants, observation of the planning meetings and the project documents.

9. A generic conceptual model is proposed of the collaborative process in regional tourism planning.

This model (Figure 9.1) was developed from an examination of the Costa Dourada project but has been designed as a generic model with wider relevance, although given its origins it might have most relevance in other emergent tourist destinations in

developing countries. This new model integrates the collaborative and consultative approaches to tourism planning and relates these to the antecedents, the regional context and the broader socio-economic, environmental and political milieu. The antecedents are given much emphasis in the model as are the regional and national contexts to a regional tourism plan, these being factors which are given little prominence in most generic collaboration models (Selin and Chavez, 1995; Fyall et al., 2000). For example, in the case of the Costa Dourada project the region's sugar cane plantations encouraged the emergence of serious socio-economic and political problems, which have substantially affected the political and institutional context to the project planning.

The model also indicates that the stages of collaborative planning substantially overlap and that this overlapping and the dynamic, iterative links between the stages are more significant than is suggested by McCann (1983) and Gray (1989). For example, the project structuring stage started very early in the planning process, and it overlapped with the problem-setting and direction-setting and implementation. In addition, in the model the collaborative stages are all continually influenced by the project antecedents, by the consultative processes and by the emerging problem approach. Recognition of these overlaps may encourage greater flexibility and responsiveness in the way collaborative planning is applied in practice. One example is that this study suggests that it may well be advantageous to start to consider the responsibilities for implementation early in the planning process so that the relevant stakeholders can gradually start to put into place, or to institutionalise, their own arrangements for their implementation work.

The model in Figure 9.1 can also be evaluated in other contexts using the detailed conceptual framework which was developed in Chapter 3. It is contended that this framework has general relevance beyond this study in other regional tourism planning situations. It was developed from literature on collaboration theory, stakeholder participation in tourism planning, regional tourism planning and sustainable tourism planning.

9.10 FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study suggests a number of new directions for future research in the field of tourism planning. For example, the study has contributed to understanding of the potential integration of consultative approaches with collaborative tourism planning. Hence, it would be valuable to undertake other focused and systematic studies of how

these two aspects of tourism planning are integrated in other circumstances and also to evaluate whether or not the integration is successful. Similarly, this study was innovative in showing there are potential benefits for tourism planning of examining views about a partnership among the stakeholders affected by the partnership but who are not directly involved in it. Investigations of the views of non-participants could usefully be applied to other case studies as this could increase understanding of the political dynamics of tourism problem domains, of tourism partnerships and of the implications of these partnerships for sustainable development.

Another promising opportunity for future research relates to the use of the snowballing technique to identify the stakeholders affected by a tourism partnership who also might participate within it. This technique can be very useful for tourism policy makers and professionals who usually rely on personal knowledge or political factors when deciding which stakeholders may be relevant to involve in collaborative planning arrangements. Further case studies could also help researchers to develop typologies of tourism partnerships based on the extent to which they are inclusive of all affected interests, and then to relate such typologies to the relative effectiveness of partnerships in securing implementation.

This study suggested that assessments of the range of stakeholders involved in tourism planning have direct relevance for understanding whether tourism planning is likely to enhance sustainable development. Hence, future research could investigate whether or not more inclusive tourism partnerships actually do lead to more sustainable forms of tourism development. Such an investigation could be conducted based on the views of stakeholders directly affected by the developments and also on a range of other sustainability indicators or measures.

Finally, the model of the collaborative process in regional tourism planning that is advanced in this study could be evaluated in the context of tourism planning in other states in Brazil linked to the Programme for Tourism Development of the Northeast (PRODETUR/NE). More generally, the model could also be applied to other developing countries with socio-economic and political contexts that are similar and dissimilar to those in Alagoas. The case study of collaborative planning examined here was relatively successful and it would be equally instructive to assess the model in cases where partnerships have broken up or failed in practice to have secured much tangible change. In some developing countries the practice of highly centralised decision-making continues far more strongly and local government is

perhaps even weaker than in Alagoas, and it would be valuable to apply the model in those contexts. It is also contended that the model is sufficiently generic that it may well also have applicability in the developed world. The model would also benefit from the evaluation of other partnerships which have reached a more advanced stage of development than the Costa Dourada project, which was examined approximately only two years after the start of the collaborative planning process. Hence, the model needs examining in a range of circumstances in order to determine its relevance and applicability in different contexts and to consider why some cases may depart from it. This is important to advance understanding of the processes of collaboration in regional tourism planning.

9.11 SOME LIMITATIONS

This study generated data which were considered to be sufficiently diverse and of sufficient quality to provide an effective and robust examination of the research questions. Inevitably, some aspects of the study were examined in more depth than others, and there were other limitations.

One limitation relates to the approach adopted in the implementation of the interviews and questionnaires. Because in practice it was decided to ask the respondents to fill out a questionnaire immediately following the completion of an interview, there may have been some 'spill over' effect from the interview to the questionnaire. It was possible that the respondents may have been influenced in their questionnaire responses by the nature of the interview questions and by their responses to them. If this is the case it would be a limitation because the use of interviews and questionnaires in the study had triangulation as one objective, this being facilitated by examining some issues from different perspectives and using different survey techniques. Any 'spill over' from the interview into the questionnaire would clearly have reduced the benefits of this triangulation.

A second limitation of the study arises from the very limited direct participation of the private sector in the collaborative planning process for the Costa Dourada project. The study suggests that there was a predominantly optimistic view of the Costa Dourada project among the stakeholders involved in its planning. However, had the project planning involved private-sector stakeholders in a much more significant way, then this may have meant that the process of reaching domain-level collaborative agreements would have been more difficult and more contentious. As a result, the collaborative planning involved in the Costa Dourada project might have been less

successful and the stakeholders might have faced many more difficulties in developing shared working and decisions. This perhaps limits the wider lessons from the study, as it is an objective of most partnership arrangements to include significant and active private sector participation.

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Interview schedule for the examination of collaboration among the stakeholders involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project

- 1) What is your organisation's main objective or objectives?
- 2) In your view, is your organisation's objective or objectives likely to be affected by the Costa Dourada project?

Probes: If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, then what is your organisation's interest in the Costa Dourada project?

- 3) Please describe how you are involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.
- 4) Do you represent any interested party or parties in your involvement in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probes: If yes, which one or ones?

If no, then why are you involved in the project?

- 5) In your view, are all parties with an interest in the Costa Dourada project represented in its planning process?

Probes: If yes, please explain.

If no, which other interested party or parties, if any, do you think should be represented in the planning process for the project?

If no, for each interested party you have named, please explain why.

- 6) In your view, what distinguishes the participants who are more directly involved in planning for the Costa Dourada project from parties with an interest in the project who are not involved as participants?
- 7) What is the main issue or set of issues that your organisation wants to have considered in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

8) To date, has this issue or set of issues been considered in the planning for the project?

Probes: If yes, which one or ones?

If no, why not?

9) What is your organisation's main priority or priorities in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

10) In your view, will working together with the other participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project enable your organisation to gain any benefit or benefits that it would not gain by working on its own?

Probes: If yes, please explain how you benefit from working together.

If yes, please explain why you benefit from working together.

If no, why not?

11) How would your organisation respond if it needed to adjust its priorities in order that all participants in the planning process for the project can have some gains?

12) Who decides who can participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

13) How is it decided who participates in the planning process for the project?

14) What procedure or procedures are used to reach decisions among the participants?

15) Which participants have had an input in establishing the planning agenda for the Costa Dourada project?

16) Who decided which participants would have an input in establishing the planning agenda for the project?

17) How was it decided which issues would be included on the planning agenda for the project?

- 18) In your view, have all municipal, state and federal level participants had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the Costa Dourada project within its planning process?

Probes: If yes, how was this achieved?

If no, which participant or participants have not had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully, and why? [for each one]

- 19) In your view, have all the participants from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project within its planning process?

Probes: If yes, how was this achieved?

If no, which participant or participants have not had sufficient opportunity to express their views fully, and why? [for each one]

- 20) In your view, has the planning process for the project taken fully into consideration the views of all municipal, state and federal level participants?

Probes: If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, which participant's or participants' views have not been taken fully into consideration, and why? [for each one]

- 21) In your view, has the planning process for the project taken fully into consideration the views of all participants from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations?

Probes: If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, which participant's or participants' views have not been taken fully into consideration, and why? [for each one]

- 22) In your view, has your organisation had sufficient opportunity to express its views fully about the Costa Dourada project to the participants involved in the planning process for the project?

Probes: If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, why not?

- 23) In your view, are the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project likely to take fully into consideration the views of your organisation?

Probes: If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, why not?

- 24) Are you aware of any decision or decisions that were supported and agreed collectively by the participants but may not be in the best interest of one or more participants in the planning process for the project?

Probes: If yes, please provide details.

If no, in your view, do all participants appear to accept that it may be necessary for them to support decisions that are agreed collectively but may not be in their respective organisation's best interest?

- 25) In your view, is there an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust among the participants when they interact with each other in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probe: If no, what are the likely consequences of this?

- 26) In your view, have the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project reached an agreement about a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term?

Probes: If yes, what is the shared vision?

If yes, what has enabled participants to reach this shared vision?

If no, what has prevented participants from reaching a shared vision?

- 27) In your view, is it likely that the participants' shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term will also be shared by all parties with an interest in the project that are not involved as participants in the planning process for the project?

Probe: What makes you say that?

- 28) In your view, why is not a wider range of parties with an interest in the project involved as participants in the planning process for the project?

Appendix II

Non-Participants' Interview Schedule

Interview schedule for the examination of the views of a sample of stakeholders with an interest in the Costa Dourada project who were not direct participants in the collaborative planning process for the project

- 1) What is your organisation's main objective or objectives?
- 2) In your view, is your organisation's objective or objectives likely to be affected by the Costa Dourada project?

Probe: If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, then what is your organisations's interest in the Costa Dourada project?

- 3) Please describe how you are involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.
- 4) Does anyone represent your organisation in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probes: If yes, who?

If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, why not?

- 5) In your view, are all parties with an interest in the Costa Dourada project represented in its planning process?

Probes: If yes, please explain.

If no, which other interested party or parties, if any, do you think should also be represented in the planning process for the project?

If no, for each interested party you have named, please explain why.

- 6) What is the main issue or set of issues that your organisation wants to have considered in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

- 7) As far as you are aware, to date has this issue or set of issues been considered in the planning for the project?

Probes: If yes, which one or ones?

If no, why not?

- 8) What would your organisation like the Costa Dourada project to have as its main priority or priorities?

- 9) In your view, would working together with the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project enable your organisation to gain any benefit or benefits that it would not gain by working on its own? [The participants were identified on the list I showed you earlier. Do you want to see it again?]

Probes: If yes, please explain how your organisation would benefit from working together with the participants involved in the planning process for the project.

If yes, please explain why your organisation would benefit from working together with the participants involved in the planning process for the project.

If no, why not?

- 10) In your view, who decides who can participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

- 11) In your view, how is it decided who participates in the planning process for the project?

- 12) In your view, is it likely that all municipal, state and federal level parties with an interest in the Costa Dourada project will have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project to the participants in its planning process?

Probes: If yes, how might this be achieved?

If no, which interested party or parties are unlikely to have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully, and why? [for each one]

- 13) In your view, is it likely that all parties from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations with an interest in the Costa Dourada project will have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully about the project to the participants in its planning process?

Probes: If yes, how might this be achieved?

If no, which interested party or parties are unlikely to have sufficient opportunity to express their views fully, and why? [for each one]

- 14) In your view, is it likely that the views of all parties at the municipal, state and federal levels with an interest in the Costa Dourada project will be taken fully into consideration by the participants in the planning process for the project?

Probes: If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, which interested party or parties are unlikely to have their views taken fully into consideration, and why? [for each one]

- 15) In your view, is it likely that the views of all parties from the government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations with an interest in the project will be taken fully into consideration by the participants in the planning process for the project?

Probes: If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, which interested party or parties are unlikely to have their views taken fully into consideration, and why? [for each one]

- 16) In your view, has your organisation had sufficient opportunity to express its views fully about the Costa Dourada project to the participants involved in the planning process for the project?

Probes: If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, why not?

- 17) In your view, are the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project likely to take fully into consideration the views of your organisation?

Probes: If yes, in which way or ways?

If no, why not?

- 18) In your view, is it likely that the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project will reach an agreement about a shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term?

Probe: What makes you say that?

- 19) In your view, is it likely that the participants' shared vision of how the project should develop in the long term will also be shared by all parties with an interest in the project?

Probe: What makes you say that?

- 20) In your view, does your organisation have the right to participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probe: Please explain.

- 21) In your view, what distinguishes parties with an interest in the project from the participants who are more directly involved in planning for the project?

- 22) In your view, does your organisation have the necessary resources to participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probe: Please explain.

- 23) In your view, does your organisation have the necessary skills to participate in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project?

Probe: Please explain.

Survey about the Planning Process for the Costa Dourada project

All replies will be treated *confidentially*. Please answer every question.

Throughout this questionnaire the word *participants* refers to those directly involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. A list of participants is attached.

SECTION A

This section is designed to find out your views about the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

The following statements concern the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. For each statement, please mark [X] one option that most closely matches your view.

1. There is an agreed view among the participants about the main issues to be considered in the planning for the Costa Dourada project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

2. The participants share an agreed view about the planning priorities of the project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

3. In my view, all participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project are fully committed to working together.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

4. I consult with my constituents before planning decisions are made concerning the Costa Dourada project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

5. It is important to consult with my constituents before planning decisions are made concerning the Costa Dourada project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

6. I report to my constituents about the planning decisions that are made concerning the Costa Dourada project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

7. It is important to report to my constituents about the planning decisions that are made concerning the Costa Dourada project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

8. The decisions made in the planning for the Costa Dourada project are likely to be fully implemented.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

9. It is important that the planning process for the Costa Dourada project gives full consideration to the views of all participants involved in the planning process for the project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

10. It is important to give full consideration to the views of all participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

11. In my view, the other participants appear to consider it important to give full consideration to the views of all participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

12. It is important that the planning for the Costa Dourada project gives full consideration to the planning priorities of all participants from the municipal, state and federal levels of government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations.

<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither disagree nor agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
--	--	---	---	---	-------------------------------------

13. In my view, the other participants appear to consider it important to give full consideration to the planning priorities of all participants from the municipal, state and federal levels of government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations.

<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither disagree nor agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
--	--	---	---	---	-------------------------------------

14. All participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project are likely to support decisions that are agreed collectively but are against their respective organisation's best interest.

<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither disagree nor agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
--	--	---	---	---	-------------------------------------

SECTION B

This section is designed to find out the methods or techniques used by your organisation to communicate its views about the Costa Dourada project to the other participants.

Listed bellow are some methods and techniques used to communicate views. First, in the left-hand column, please mark [X] each method or technique used to communicate your organisation's views to the other participants about the Costa Dourada project. Second, for each method or technique that you have marked, please also mark one box on the right-hand side indicating the degree to which, in your view, it has been effective.

Whether method or technique is used

Degree to which it has been effective

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|--|---|---|-------------------------------------|
| 15. <input type="checkbox"/> Meetings with one other participant | <input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective | <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective | <input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective | <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective | <input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't know |
| 16. <input type="checkbox"/> Meetings with two or three participants | <input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective | <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective | <input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective | <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective | <input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't know |

**Whether method or
technique is used**

Degree to which it has been effective

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---------------------------|-----------------------------|--|---------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| 17. [] Meetings with more than three but not all participants | []
Highly ineffective | []
Somewhat ineffective | []
Neither ineffective nor effective | []
Somewhat effective | []
Highly effective | []
Don't know |
| 18. [] Meetings called for all participants | []
Highly ineffective | []
Somewhat ineffective | []
Neither ineffective nor effective | []
Somewhat effective | []
Highly effective | []
Don't know |
| 19. [] Workshops | []
Highly ineffective | []
Somewhat ineffective | []
Neither ineffective nor effective | []
Somewhat effective | []
Highly effective | []
Don't know |
| 20. [] Telephone conversations | []
Highly ineffective | []
Somewhat ineffective | []
Neither ineffective nor effective | []
Somewhat effective | []
Highly effective | []
Don't know |
| 21. [] Letters by post | []
Highly ineffective | []
Somewhat ineffective | []
Neither ineffective nor effective | []
Somewhat effective | []
Highly effective | []
Don't know |
| 22. [] Letters by messenger | []
Highly ineffective | []
Somewhat ineffective | []
Neither ineffective nor effective | []
Somewhat effective | []
Highly effective | []
Don't know |
| 23. [] Fax | []
Highly ineffective | []
Somewhat ineffective | []
Neither ineffective nor effective | []
Somewhat effective | []
Highly effective | []
Don't know |
| 24. [] E-mail | []
Highly ineffective | []
Somewhat ineffective | []
Neither ineffective nor effective | []
Somewhat effective | []
Highly effective | []
Don't know |

25. Other(s), (please specify, and indicate the degree to which each has been effective):

.....

.....

.....

Name:

Job title:

Telephone number:

Fax number:

Date of completion of questionnaire:

Thank you very much for your co-operation with this study.

Appendix IV

Non-Participants' Questionnaire

Survey about the planning process for the Costa Dourada project

All replies will be treated *confidentially*. Please answer every question.

Throughout this questionnaire the word *participants* refers to those directly involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. A list of participants is attached.

SECTION A

This section is designed to find out your views about the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

The following statements concern the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. For each statement, please mark [X] one option that most closely matches your view.

1. In my view, the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project consult with my organisation before planning decisions are made concerning the project.

<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither disagree nor agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
--	--	---	---	---	-------------------------------------

2. In my view, the participants involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project report to my organisation about the planning decisions that are made concerning the project.

<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither disagree nor agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
--	--	---	---	---	-------------------------------------

3. I consult with my constituents concerning the Costa Dourada project.

<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither disagree nor agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
--	--	---	---	---	-------------------------------------

4. It is important to consult with my constituents concerning the Costa Dourada project.

<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat disagree	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither disagree nor agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly agree	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
--	--	---	---	---	-------------------------------------

5. I report to my constituents about the planning decisions that are made concerning the Costa Dourada project which come to my attention.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

6. It is important to report to my constituents about the planning decisions that are made concerning the Costa Dourada project which come to my attention.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

7. The decisions made in the planning for the Costa Dourada project are likely to be fully implemented.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

8. It is important that the planning for the Costa Dourada project gives full consideration to the views of all parties with an interest in the project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

9. In my view, the participants in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project appear to consider it important to give full consideration to the views of all parties with an interest in the project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

10. It is important that the planning for the Costa Dourada project gives full consideration to the planning priorities of all parties from the municipal, state and federal levels of government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations with an interest in the project.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Don't know

SECTION B

This section is designed to find out the methods or techniques used by your organisation to communicate its views about the Costa Dourada project to the participants in its planning process.

Listed below are some methods or techniques used to communicate views. First, in the left-hand column, please mark [X] each method or technique used to communicate your organisation's views about the Costa Dourada project to the participants involved in its planning process. Second, for each method or technique that you have marked, please also mark one box on the right-hand side indicating the degree to which, in your view, it has been effective.

<u>Whether method or technique is used</u>	<u>Degree to which it has been effective</u>					
11. <input type="checkbox"/> Meetings with one participant	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
12. <input type="checkbox"/> Meetings with two or three participants	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
13. <input type="checkbox"/> Meetings with more than three but not all participants	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
14. <input type="checkbox"/> Meetings called for all participants	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
15. <input type="checkbox"/> Workshops	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
16. <input type="checkbox"/> Telephone conversations	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
17. <input type="checkbox"/> Letters by post	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
18. <input type="checkbox"/> Letters by messenger	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
19. <input type="checkbox"/> Fax	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know
20. <input type="checkbox"/> E-mail	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat ineffective	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither ineffective nor effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Highly effective	<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know

21. Other(s), (please specify, and indicate the degree to which each has been effective):

.....

.....

.....

Name:

Job title:

Telephone number:

Fax number:

Date of completion of questionnaire:

Thank you very much for your co-operation with this study.

Universidade Federal de Alagoas (UFAL)
Sheffield Hallam University (Inglaterra)

Research on tourism planning for the Costa Dourada Project

Rua Clementino do Monte, 133 - Farol
57055-190 Maceió, AL

XXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXX

Maceió, xx xxxx 1998

Dear ...

I am a lecturer in the Department of Geography and the Environment of the Universidade Federal de Alagoas (UFAL). At present I am conducting research on tourism planning for a PhD thesis at Sheffield Hallam University, England.

The research examines the participation of organisations and other interested parties from government, the private sector and NGOs in tourism planning for the Costa Dourada Project. The research will evaluate how the views of parties at local, state and national levels with an interest in the Costa Dourada Project are integrated within the regional tourism planning process.

I would be very grateful if you would agree to be interviewed in relation to this research. The objective of the interview would be to discuss your organisation's views about the planning process for the Costa Dourada Project. Your views will be invaluable for the PhD research programme.

I can assure you that opinions expressed in the interview will be treated confidentially, and will be used only for the purpose of academic research and would not be used in any other way.

I will contact you in the near future to discuss the interview with you and, if you are in agreement, to arrange an appointment at a time and place most convenient for you.

Thank you very much in anticipation of your assistance with this research.

Yours sincerely,

Lindemberg Medeiros de Araujo

Universidade Federal de Alagoas (UFAL)
Sheffield Hallam University (Inglaterra)

Research on tourism planning for the Costa Dourada project

Rua Clementino do Monte, 133 - Farol
570055-190 Maceió, AL

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

Maceió, xx xxxx 1998

Dear ...

I am a lecturer in the Department of Geography and the Environment of the Universidade Federal de Alagoas (UFAL). At present I am conducting research on tourism planning for a PhD thesis at Sheffield Hallam University, England.

The research examines the participation of organisations and other interested parties from government, the private sector and NGOs in tourism planning for the Costa Dourada project. The research will evaluate how the views of parties at local, state and national levels with an interest in the Costa Dourada project are integrated within the regional tourism planning process. A list is attached of the participants most directly involved in the planning process for the Costa Dourada project.

I would be very grateful if you would agree to be interviewed in relation to this research. The objective of the interview would be to discuss your organisation's views about the planning process for the Costa Dourada project. Your views will be invaluable for the PhD research programme.

I can assure you that opinions expressed in the interview will be treated confidentially, and will be used only for the purpose of academic research and would not be used in any other way.

I will contact you in the near future to discuss the interview with you and, if you are in agreement, to arrange an appointment at a time and place most convenient for you.

Thank you very much in anticipation of your assistance with this research.

Yours sincerely,

Lindemberg Medeiros de Araujo