A COLLABORATIVE APPROACH TOWARDS TOURISM PLANNING:

A VIEW OF CUSCO, PERU

Andrea Martinez Bertramini

MSc in Tourism Management and Planning

Bournemouth University

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the extent to which the collaborative planning approach is being implemented in Peruvian tourism development. For the purpose of the investigation the research uses the tourist destination of Cusco as a case study.

The objectives of the research are to explore the vision of stakeholders towards tourism development, their input in Cusco tourism planning as well as their attitudes towards coordination and collaboration. It also seeks to discover the main factors that act as inhibitors or facilitators of collaboration processes in Cusco tourism. Eleven interviews were undertaken with representatives of tourism public and private sector at national, regional and local level.

From the analysis of the main findings it appears that the collaborative planning approach is not being implemented in Cusco tourism. The results shows that the preconditions reviewed in the literature as core elements of a collaborative planning approach are not present in Cusco tourism planning. Factors as perception of interdependency among stakeholders, the use a strategic planning process, feelings of trust among the tourism stakeholders and others are not forming yet part of the tourism planning process in Cusco.

Centralisation and limited regional decision-making power, cultural paradigms and limited budget of regional a local authorities as well as lack of trained people in the public sector are among the main barriers to collaboration identified in this study.

Although Cusco tourism is not undertaking a collaborative approach towards tourism planning the study reveals that in recent years the government has been implementing several initiatives and policies that aim to encourage cooperative relationships among tourism actors. It also has been observed that among Cusco stakeholders there is recognition about the benefits that this form of planning may bring to the tourism development process.
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<tr>
<td>CANATUR</td>
<td>National Chamber of Tourism</td>
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<td>COPESCO</td>
<td>Special Commission for the Coordination and Supervision of Tourist and Cultural Plan Peru - UNESCO</td>
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<tr>
<td>CTAR</td>
<td>Transitory Council of Regional Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>DRITINCI</td>
<td>Regional Directorate of Industry, Tourism and International Trade</td>
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<tr>
<td>INC</td>
<td>National Institute of Culture</td>
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<td>INRENA</td>
<td>National Institute of Natural Resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>MITINCI</td>
<td>Ministry of Industry, Tourism, Integration and International Trade</td>
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<td>MTCVC</td>
<td>Ministry of Transport, Communication, Housing and Construction</td>
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Cooperation, collaboration and coordination must foster, not destroy, individual creativity and innovation in development to meet new needs" (Gunn, 1994:15)

1.1 Overall Aim

Despite tourism’s importance for the economy over the last five decades; scholars, governments and development institutions have increasingly criticised tourism for its negative economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts on host destinations. These consequences have been mostly attributed to development of tourism as an unplanned activity (Pearce, 1989; Inskeep, 1991; Mathieson and Wall, 1992; Gunn, 1994; Hall, 2000).

These critics have been useful in beginning to build awareness of the negative outcomes of myopic development planning approaches as well as developing a more comprehensive planning approach that takes into consideration the many factors that influence tourism development. Contemporary planning approaches such as sustainable development, system approach, integrated planning, community-based tourism and others, seek to sustain tourism as a vehicle for socio-cultural and economic development (Tosun and Jenkins, 1998).

Among the contemporary planning approaches that have emerged in recent years, the collaborative planning approach appears as a way to overcome the recognised fragmented nature of tourism development. It attempts to become an effective tool to solve the many problems that arise when there is a lack of understanding and linkages between the multiple parties involved in tourism.
Chapter 2

Collaboration and partnership between the public and private sector are not new in developed countries where they have been extensively used in agriculture, health and recently in tourism. However, in developing countries, participation in policy-making is a new concept that needs to be researched and analysed on a different basis since in these nations, democratic participation is less visible.

Taking into consideration the above arguments, the purpose of this research is to determine the extent to which the collaborative planning approach is being implemented in a developing nation, as Peru, as an effective tool for tourism development. It also seeks to explore particular considerations that should be addressed in the Peruvian context in order to successfully adapt this model.

1.2 Research area of study

This research is focused on the study of collaborative planning and how this approach can contribute to develop tourism in a sustainable basis. The study will concentrate on the Peruvian experience, particularly on the region of Cusco, its more famous tourist destination.

This study is based on the analysis of recent literature about tourism planning, collaboration theory, process and mechanisms. It also examines different forms of coordination, collaboration and partnerships in Peruvian tourism and their effects on tourism development.
1.3 Research objectives

The objectives of the study are:

1. to identify the vision of stakeholders of Peruvian tourism development;
2. to examine the extent of collaboration and coordination among stakeholders;
3. to evaluate the input from interest groups in the tourism planning process at different levels: national, regional and local;
4. to explore the attitudes of the different tourism actors towards participation in tourism planning;
5. to discover the main factors that act as inhibitors and facilitators of participation in tourism planning
6. to determine the measures that should be implemented in order to promote a collaborative planning approach.

1.4 Research methodology

The research objectives are fulfilled by the following procedures:

- **A critical review of secondary data** This study presents an extensive review of literature related to the concept of tourism planning and its contemporary approaches; it particularly focuses on the collaborative tourism planning approach. It also covers literature related strategic planning and stakeholder theory. It will also review the processes of coordination and collaboration among stakeholders in Peru and the region of Cusco.

- **Qualitative research** In June and July 2000 in-depth, semi-structured interviews with key informants from the Peruvian tourism public and private sector were conducted to understand the extent to which stakeholders are involved in tourism planning and development to explore their experience regarding collaboration. Their attitudes towards joint participation in tourism were also examined.
1.5 Dissertation structure

This dissertation will be presented according to the following structure:

Chapter 1  This chapter introduces the subject of the research and the general research area. It also identifies the aims and objectives of the study, the research process and the dissertation structure.

Chapter 2  This chapter contains a review of the literature, which covers the theoretical framework of the research. It presents an exhaustive analysis of the most relevant and recent studies regarding tourism planning, its design and implementation process. It will also include an in-depth review of the interactive approaches toward tourism planning, which involve collaborative decision-making and co-operative relationships among stakeholders.

Chapter 3  An overall revision of tourism planning and development in Peru and particularly in Cusco will be presented. This chapter will analyse the process of tourism planning and policy-making at different levels of the polities. Coordination and collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning and development will be critically examined.

Chapter 4  This chapter presents the methodology used. It explains the rationale for its use and the limitations of the research methods. Constraints that influenced the outcomes of the fieldwork are also analysed.

Chapter 5  In this chapter the major findings and analysis of the survey results are presented. An analysis of the primary and secondary data collected from the field will be displayed in four parts: involvement of stakeholders in planning; coordination and collaboration; vision of the respondent organisation towards tourism development; and inhibitors and facilitators of participation.
Chapter 6  This chapter offers conclusions and recommendations. It includes an analysis of all major findings related to the set objectives. Finally, this chapter offers suggestions for further research and recommendations for Peruvian tourism policy-makers.
CHAPTER 2

TOURISM PLANNING, INTERDEPENDENCIES AND COLLABORATION

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to offer a critical review of the relevant literature regarding tourism planning process and its paradigms. The literature is extensive and a number of key themes can be identified. This chapter begins with an exploration of tourism planning and its role in tourism development. Planning evolution and contemporary approaches are then examined, followed by an analysis of strategic tourism planning and stakeholder theory where the tourism planning process and roles of public and private sector are addressed. Finally, the importance of coordination in tourism planning and the theoretical framework of a collaborative planning approach to tourism are discussed.

2.1 Theoretical Perspectives on Tourism Planning

2.1.1 Definitions and Conceptualisation of Tourism Planning

The definition, scope and implications of planning are complex and ambiguous. However, most of the authors in the literature recognise it as a dynamic process of organising the future in order to achieve certain objectives (Inskeep, 1991; Cooper et al, 1998; Hall, 2000).

Planning is also conceptualised as an interrelated process of policy implementation: “tourism planning is a kind of the decision-making and policy-making; however, it deals with a set of interdependent and systematically related decisions rather than individual
decisions. Therefore, planning is only one part of an overall ‘planning-decision-action-process’” (Hall, 2000: 7).

In tourism, the need for planning appeared as a consequence of the recognition of tourism as an important contributing factor to environmental, economic and social damage to most of the destinations where tourism has been developed.

Murphy (1985: 156) defines tourism planning as “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”.

Most scholars of tourism planning have identified it as a process that seeks to minimise potential negative impacts, maximise economic returns to the destination and promote a positive response from the local community towards tourism development (Getz, 1987; Pearce, 1989; Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994; Hall, 2000).

Tourism has been developed during the last four or five decades in most areas of the world as an unplanned activity (Pearce, 1989; Inskeep, 1991; Mathieson and Wall, 1992; Tosun and Jenkins, 1998, Hall, 2000). However, tourism planning is a dynamic, complex and evolving process influenced by multiple factors. Tosun and Jenkins (1998) identified five stages in the evolution of tourism planning that are not separate and distinctive but are continuos and have evolved over time:

- Unplanned tourism development;
- Beginning of partly supply oriented tourism planning;
- Entirely supply oriented tourism planning;
- Market or demand oriented tourism development planning;
- Contemporary planning approach.

The evolution of tourism planning has undergone a variety of changes, from narrow concerns with physical planning and promotion to a more balanced form of planning that
takes into account the need for greater community involvement and environmental awareness (Murphy, 1985; Pearce, 1989; Inskeep, 1991).

Hall (2000: 15) has recognised ecotourism, sustainability and environmental planning as the major influences for these new and wider approaches towards tourism planning activity and has depicted the present stage of tourism planning as follows:

"Tourism planning does not just refer specifically to tourism development and promotion, although these are certainly important. Tourism must be integrated within the wider planning processes in order to promote certain goals of economic, social and environmental enhancement or maximisation that may be achieved through appropriate tourism development".

Finally, tourism planning can take multiple forms (e.g. development, infrastructure, land and resource use, organisation, human resource, promotion and marketing); structures (e.g. government, quasi-government and non-government organisations); scales (international transnational, national, regional, local site and sectoral) and over different times scales (for development, implementation, evaluation and satisfactory fulfilment of planning objectives) (Hall, 1994 and Hall, 2000).

2.1.2 The Importance of Tourism Planning

"Tourism will only flourish given the appropriate conditions" (Mathieson and Wall, 1992: 45). In this short phrase, Mathieson and Wall portray the idea that tourism is not an activity that can be developed in the absence of planning. The conditions for tourism development on a sustainable basis must be created and recreated in a systematic and integrated manner. Regarding the role of tourism planning process most scholars argue that completely unplanned tourism development would almost certainly lead to the degradation of the physical and social resource base upon which tourism depends (Pearce, 1989; Inskeep, 1991; Gunn, 1994; Hall, 2000).
Demands for tourism planning and government involvement in the development process are typically a response to the negative effects of tourism development, particularly at the local level. Planning must be exercised to avoid negative social environmental, and economic impacts and reach the positives objectives desired (Gunn, 1994; Hall, 2000).

Another reason to undertake planning for tourism is great competition in the tourist marketplace. This has led destinations to introduce planning processes in order to improve different aspects of attractions, facilities and infrastructure, either to retain their attractiveness or at least to extend their product life cycle (Inskeep, 1991; Hall, 2000).

The recognised fragmented nature of tourism has been consistently argued by many scholars and institutions as the main reason to undertake tourism planning. For Gunn (1994), one of the challenges of today’s planning is involving nearly every public agency and every organisation that composes the supply side of tourism. Murphy (1985) points out that the divisions in tourism are artificial and conceal the importance of sectoral and spatial linkages, they fail to acknowledge the overlap of physical, social and economic forces that influence a destination. Inskeep (1991) argues that planning and project development coordination are particularly necessary to ensure that all elements involving tourism are developed in an integrated manner to serve tourism as well as general needs.

Another argument frequently utilised as a motive for undertaking tourism planning is the relative newness of the tourism industry in many countries, particularly in developing countries, where governments and the private sector have little or no experience in how to develop tourism properly (Inskeep, 1991 and WTO, 1994).

The following statement embraces the main features of what tourism planning should be depicting it as a political, integrated and inclusive process:

"Planning assists in determining who wins and who loses in the tourism development process. It also assists in contributing to more sustainable forms of tourism in which economic, environmental and social goals are seen to be in balance
and in which there is a greater equity of outcomes for stakeholders in tourism, which means not just the developers, tourist industry and the tourist but also the wider community whose destination is being consumed” (Hall, 2000: 15).

2.1.3 Approaches to Tourism Planning

Nowadays, the need for tourism planning is largely accepted, but the most effective form and method of planning remain a controversial as reflected in the evolution of tourism planning approaches, which have changed through time in order to meet the new demands that have been placed on the tourism industry.

Getz (1987) identified four traditions to tourism planning: ‘boosterism’, the economic tradition, the physical/spatial approach and the community-oriented approach, none of which are mutually exclusive. In recent years, a fifth approach has been added: the sustainable approach (Page and Thorn, 1997).

Boosterism recognised as ‘unplanned tourism development era’ by Tosun and Jenkins (1998), has been described not really as one form of planning but as an attitude to tourism development as inherently good and of automatic benefit to the destination (Page and Thorn, 1997; Hall, 2000).

This approach has been the dominant tradition since mass tourism began and is characterised by its disregard for the potential negative impacts of tourism.

The economic tradition sees tourism as an industry which can be used as a tool by governments to achieve certain objectives of economic growth, employment generation and regional development trough the provision of financial incentives, research, marketing and promotional aid (Hall, 2000). Regarding this tradition, Burns (1999) points out that the economic study of the industry has failed to make the connection between tourism’s economic benefit in general terms (usually gross income) and its potential as a development
tool focused on local level rather than at a macro economic level. Under this tradition economic goals are given priority over social and ecological issues.

*The physical/spatial approach.* Sees tourism as having an ecological base, therefore, with a need for development to be based upon spatial patterns that would minimise the negative impacts of tourism on the physical environment. Within this framework are the related issues of physical and social carrying capacities, environmental thresholds, and limits to or acceptable rates of change. Like previous traditions, this approach fails to pay attention to the social and cultural aspects of a destination (Hall, 2000).

*The Community oriented approach* is an important paradigm in tourism planning that has been emphasised for many years in the literature (Murphy, 1985, 1988; Haywood, 1988; Prentice, 1993; Simmons 1994; Pearce, P. et al, 1997). It suggests that the community involvement of individuals within a tourism-oriented community in the decision-making and implementation process with reference to major manifestations of political and socio-economic activities (Pearce, P. et al, 1997). This approach is based on the concept that planning is for the residents of an area, and they should be given the opportunity to participate and decide what type of future community they want to live in (Murphy, 1985; Inskeep, 1991).

Under this tradition, the development of a destination community is seen as a core component of the tourism product (Murphy, 1985,1988; Simmons, 1994, Woodley, 1999). Under this approach an examination of the social impacts became to be regarded as essential, not only from a ethical point of view of the need for community involvement in decision-making processes but also because without it, tourism development may become increasingly difficult (Hall, 2000).

One of the major difficulties in implementing a community approach to tourism planning is the structure of the government. The centralised nature of systems of governance leads to difficulties in ensuring that tourism policies at different levels of government are coordinated and that decisions and policies at one level do not conflict with decisions at
another (Tosun and Jenkins, 1998; Hall, 2000). Getz and Jamal (1994) argue that the community approach does not offer the mechanisms by which the complex and conflicting issues facing a community can be solved.

The Sustainable approach is based on the concept of sustainable development which has a primary objective of providing lasting and secure livelihoods, which minimises resource depletion, environmental degradation, cultural disturbance and social instability (Inskeep, 1991; Hall, 2000). From the tourism perspective, it emphasises a form of tourism development that is particularly sensitive to the long-term good of the natural and socio-cultural resources, while still realising economic benefits for the host destination (Timothy, 1998 and Page and Thorn, 1997). The focus of the sustainability discussion is that tourism must plan and manage all resources in such a way that can fulfil economic, social, and aesthetic needs while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems (Timothy, 1998 and Tosun and Jenkins, 1998).

There are many contradictions within both the concept of sustainable development and the nature of tourism. Regarding this issue Hall (2000) notes that sustainability implies an infinite time horizon, whereas practical decision-making calls for the adoption of finite horizons. According to Milne (1998) sustainable development comprises the contradictory ideas that economic growth is fundamental and its benefits can be available for all and at the same time produces environment degradation that is damaging to all.

Although the sustainable development concept has often been criticised for its contradictory goals that may never be met, most scholars agree on its usefulness as a focal point around which different tourism concepts are being reorganised.

In order to achieve sustainability, it is important to reconceptualise tourism planning and development as a political process within which the multiple stakeholders representing the community, industry and environmental interests can aim for common objectives. Systematic and integrative strategic planning, based on collaborative framework, is recognised nowadays as a precondition for sustainable development (Inskeep, 1991; Gunn,
1994; Getz and Jamal, 1994; Hall, 2000). Dutton and Hall, 1989 recognise the following preconditions for achieving sustainability: cooperation, industry coordination, consumer awareness of sustainable and non-sustainable options, strategic planning and commitment to sustainable objectives (Page and Thorn, 1997).

Regarding the difficulties of realising sustainability in developing countries Tosun and Jenkins (1998) argue that the need for long term planning for the tourism sector and the immediate and short-term needs of these countries are placed makes the concept of sustainability difficult.

Within the sustainable tradition, a series of other contemporary approaches have been developed in order to incorporate sustainable development principles into planning and operations. Ideologies such as the systems approach, the integrated approach, strategic tourism planning, collaborative or interactive tourism planing have incorporated new concepts and a more holistic and realistic vision of the role of tourism development in the society. These approaches which influence each other have contributed to the development of a more flexible and systematic tourism planning process.

The system approach based on Leiper's tourism system recognises tourism as a system with three basic components; these are tourists, geographical elements (travelling generation region, tourist destination region and transit routes) and the tourism industry (Cooper et al, 1998).

The system approach is incremental, this implies that the plan evolves over time relying on constant monitoring and revisions before proceeding to the next stage. This flexibility allows for management to be linked with planning, permitting adjustments to changing circumstances (Murphy, 1985 and Inskeep, 1991).

In general, the system approach has the advantage of taking a holistic view and examines, defines and integrates different angles from an overall perspective (Murphy, 1985 and Tosun and Jenkins, 1998).
The integrative approach advocates that all development sectors and supporting facilities and services are interrelated and linked with the natural environment and society of the area (Inskeep, 1991). Butler (1999) notes that the integration of tourism development implies that tourism is being added to a set of existing activities and processes in a particular destination. Regarding this issue Tosun and Jenkins (1998) and Butler (1999) recognise two implications that must be taken into account. One is internal integration, which refers to integration of the various components of the tourism sector ('intra-relationships'). Second is external integration which implies the integration of the tourism sector into the macro system ('inter-relationships') including socio-cultural, economic, political, environmental factors, and the international tourism distribution system itself.

Integrative planning would assist in the equitable distribution of the benefits and costs of tourism development, while concentrating on ameliorating relationships and understanding between stakeholders. It may also assist in agreement on planning objectives and goals.

In order to achieve successful integrative tourism development, collaboration between the multiple parties influencing tourism development must exist (Gunn, 1994; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Brohman, 1996; Timothy, 1998; Butler, 1999). In a collaborative or interactive approach towards tourism planning, the emphasis is on planning 'with' rather than planning 'for' stakeholders (Gunn, 1994 and Hall, 2000).

Participation by multiple stakeholders reinforces the complex nature of tourism destination products, taking into consideration the varied social, cultural, environmental, economic and political opinions of stakeholders. Under this approach, continuing stakeholder involvement means that planning can respond on a continuous basis to stakeholder perspectives on tourism issues and on plan implementation (Yuksel, et al 1999).

According to Getz and Jamal (1994) and Hall (2000) Strategic planning process is designed to allow the organisation to adapt and change regarding the internal and external forces of the environment.
Strategic planning always has an organisational focus. In the case of destination planning, an organisation will be responsible for the development, evaluation and implementation of the plan.

At the destination level strategic tourism planning is facilitated by greater involvement of host communities in the decision-making process what emphasises the process of continuous improvement through monitoring and feedback (Haywood, 1988, Gunn, 1994).

In the case of sustainable tourism planning, ‘strategy’ is the use of adequate visitor management, marketing, management and planning practices to achieve three basic strategic goals: conservation of tourism the resource value, enhancing the experiences of visitors and maximising the economic, social and environmental returns to stakeholders in the community (Hall, 2000).

2.1.4 Scales of tourism planning

Public planning for tourism occurs on different scales (national, regional and local). Tourism planning can be used to implement policy and to achieve objectives as well as to formulate policy. However, this is a difficult task given the structure of government and series of problems can arise between different layers of administration, particularly regarding coordination and implementation of policies. The various levels of tourism planning and its implications are described in the following sections.

2.1.4.1 Tourism Planning at National Level

At national level, tourism planning is mainly concerned with the following issues:

- tourism policy,
- marketing strategies,
- taxation structure,
- investment policies,
- legislation,
- infrastructure development,
- transport systems and organisations,

Planning for tourism on a national scale should consider broader national development goals and objectives. By doing this, tourism goals can be articulated and planners can have guidance as to what overall goals should be pursued through the development of tourism (Pearce, 1989).

The WTO (1994) states that tourism planning at national level makes possible the coordinated development of the numerous elements of the tourism sector, establishes the guidelines and standards for preparing detailed local or site plans in a consistent manner and provides a framework for coordination between public and private sectors.

Despite the benefits previously mentioned, Hall (2000: 136) notes that “the conduct of a plan does not by itself guarantee appropriate outcomes for stakeholder, particularly as issues of implementation and the policy-action relationship need to be addressed”.

Regarding planning for tourism on a national scale in developing countries, Tosun (1998) states that a highly centralised planning approach (frequently practised in developing countries) is usually the cause of unsustainable development as it is beyond planners at national level prepare comprehensive, flexible and implementable plans that take into account the multiple peculiarities and factors influencing the development of every tourism destination in different regions of the country.
2.1.4.2 Tourism Planning at Regional Level

Regional tourism development planning is a set of activities that deals with the development of tourism at regional or sub-national level (Inskeep, 1991 and Cooper et al, 1998).

Planning at regional level tends to be much more detailed and specific than planning for development at national level. It can vary significantly from region to region, although the level of specificity at national and regional level depends on the size of the country or region (Inskeep, 1991; Tosun and Jenkins, 1996 and Cooper et al, 1998).

It is not possible to consider regional development planning as an isolated and independent issue. It cannot serve a positive function in the society and economy if it is not correlated with social and economic development at local and national levels. Regional planning must be considered in the scope of national development planning and its objectives must be in harmony with the national development goals (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996 and Cooper et al, 1998).

For Gunn (1994) planning at regional level is even more comprehensive than at the destination and site level. He points out, that at regional level, there are many more resource areas involved, a greater number of political jurisdictions and the time periods of accomplishment are much longer. Tosun and Jenkins (1996) note that comprehensive tourism planning at sub-national level may not be possible in every country, particularly in developing countries, which mostly do not have sufficient experts with the appropriate training.

A regional planning approach is particularly important since tourism development requires coordination between different elements of the tourism system and between the public and private sector that cannot be accomplished via a central planning approach.
2.1.4.3 Tourism Planning at Local Level

Tourism planning at local level adopts diverse forms. Most of the activities at this level are related to physical organisation of tourism resources, physical development and visitor management. However, in recent years local planning authorities have increasingly started to include in their local programmes concerns over the social and environmental impacts of tourism.

Local-level tourism planning is extremely important since it is at this level where tourism development takes place. According to Hall (1994) national tourism policies and the effectiveness of national tourism organisations cannot be successful in terms of either their formulation or implementation in isolation from the local arena (Hall, 1994).

Within the implementation of a collaborative approach towards tourism planning, the local level is the great significance since this approach calls for participation and interaction between all levels of government (including the local) and between the responsible local planning organisation and the stakeholders.

2.2 Strategic Tourism Planning and Stakeholder Theory

2.2.1 Strategic Tourism Planning

Strategic planning is a planning procedure that is being increasingly recognised in the contemporary tourism literature as a significant tool in the achievement of sustainable tourism (Haywood, 1988; Ritchie, 1993; Getz and Jamal, 1994; Page and Thorn, 1997). “Strategic planning is the process by which organisations effectively adapt to their environment over time by integrating planning and management in a single process and seeks to deal with the questions of:
Chapter 2

- where are we now? – check (monitor and evaluate)
- where do we want to get to? – plan
- how do we get there? – action” (Hall, 2000: 75).

The outcome of a strategic planning process is a strategic plan in the form of a document which guides future directions and actions. The difference between a strategic plan and a non-strategic plan is that the former is under continuous improvement due to its link with management and operational decision-making.

Strategic planning is an inclusive process which means that those responsible for implementing the plan are also those who participated in its formulation. This feature of strategic planning increases the ‘ownership’ of the plan and, hence, effective implementation will be significantly increased (Hall and Mc Arthur, 1996 and Delta Partners, 1997).

As it can be seen in figure 2.1, the strategic planning process is hierarchically designed from a vision or mission statement, through to goals, objectives and action statements. This structure reflects the various levels of the planning system within planning problems are ‘solved’. This process is surrounded by the environment, which includes factors such as institutional arrangements, institutional culture, stakeholder values and attitude as well as broader economic, political and social trends (ibid.).

Despite the structure strategic planning process adopts (see figure number 2.1), it is important to bear in mind that this process does not occur in a linear way. Strategic planning supposes a series of adjustments and changes among all the components. One of the most difficult steps in the process is that of the setting objectives; usually this process
will confront the stakeholder with multiple debates that should finish with a consensus about the future direction of the organisation.
Figure 2.1 Strategic Tourism Process
Source: Adopted from Hall, 2000.
Mission, goal and objective formulation is therefore a critical element of strategic tourism planning. The mission statement describes what the organisation is trying to achieve in the long-term. Goals emphasise long-range aims of the organisation. Objectives are measurable goals; specific regarding magnitude, time and responsibility (Hall and Mc Arthur, 1996 and Delta Partners, 1997). The setting of goals and objectives embraces the selection of indicators, which evaluate the success in meeting the objectives.

The selection of goals and objectives, targets and indicators is not an easy task. Regarding its complexities Hall (2000:81) states:

"The problem emerges of seeking to integrate individual programmes into a coherent plan. This operates not only at the level of what is contained within the planning document but also with respect to organisational structures and values held by those who are responsible for both formulation and implementation of planning strategies. Indeed, as noted earlier, the process itself, by which different interested parties, groups and individuals come together to communicate different options and possibilities, is as important as what the plan eventually looks like."

Strategic analysis is another important part of the process and is concerning with understanding factors that influence and will influence the success/failure levels of the organisation. Hall and Mc Arthur, 1996 argue that strategic analysis combines different types of analysis such as environmental, resource and aspirations analysis. The latter is particularly significant because it is used to understand who are the stakeholders influencing or seeking to influence an organisation and why.
2.2.2 Review of Stakeholder Theory

The coordination between the multiple interests that influence tourism planning brings about the need to explore the concept of the ‘stakeholder’. The stakeholder theory, pioneered by Freeman (1984), suggests that an organisation is characterised by its relationships with various groups and individuals including employees, customers, suppliers, governments, and members of the communities. According to Freeman, “a stakeholder in an organisation is (by definition) any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation’s objectives” (1984:46).

This theory advocates that each stakeholder group has a right to be treated as an end in itself and not as means to some other end. Under this philosophy, the entire purpose of the firm becomes the coordination of stakeholder interests (Sautter and Leisen, 1999).

According to Freeman (1984) and organisation that effectively manages its stakeholders must understand the following key concepts:

- identification of the stakeholders and their perceived interests;
- the processes necessary to manage the relationships between stakeholders and the organisation;
- management of a set of transactions (to balance the interests) among the organisation and its stakeholders.

Sautter and Leisen (1999) point out that it is necessary to make a distinction between a stakeholder’s role and a group. Any person or entity identified as a member of a particular group often shares or serves in multiple roles within the larger macroenvironment. Tourism planners must take into account the interests of the different stakeholders groups as defined by the roles they serve with regard to the particular development initiative. They also argue
that as congruency across stakeholder orientation increases, so does the likelihood of collaboration and compromise.

Stakeholder audits are one mechanism which can assist planners in identifying the interests, groups and individuals that are stakeholders in the tourism planning process as well as help in understanding and confronting the complex web of relationships that surround tourism planning and management (Roberts and King, 1989).

Healey (1997) argues that identification of stakeholders needs to be conducted in an explicit, dynamic and revisable way, as stakeholders may change over time in their concerns.

Regarding the negative effects of an inappropriate identification of stakeholders Medeiros and Bramwell (1999) and Healey (1997) state that if the collaborating stakeholders are not representatives, then some needs might not be articulated and related planning activities could be ignored, moreover, stakeholders who are excluded might reject the resulting planning proposals.

Depending on the scale of analysis and the issue being examined, the number of stakeholders that an organisation has to contend with may be extremely large. Figure number 2.2 shows a tourism stakeholder map which contains the most common interests that may be present in tourism planning.
The particular importance of the identification of stakeholder, due to its influence on tourism policy-making, is the concept of 'interest groups'. According to Hall and Jenkins (1995), an interest group is defined as any association or organisation which makes a claim, either directly or indirectly, on government so as to influence public policy without itself being willing to exercise the formal powers of governments (Matthews, 1980). Although individuals are clearly important in tourism development, planning and policy, network and collaborative approaches have tended to focus on the organisational dimensions of development (Hall, 1999).

Stakeholders in groups or as individuals do not only hold different values, perspectives and attitudes towards tourism planning but they also have different powers regarding their capacity to make their views and interests prevail over the interests held by other participants. A clear example of this inequality can be appreciated in a series of studies
about the role of interest groups in tourism, which suggest that business groups tend to
dominate the policy process to the exclusion or detriment of other interests (Hall, 1999).

Warner (1997) identifies the following benefits of stakeholder involvement:

- potential to increase the self-reliance of stakeholders and their awareness of the issues,
- facilitate more equitable trade-offs between stakeholders with competing interests,
- promote decisions that enjoy a greater degree of consensus and shared ownership.

To these, Bramwell and Lane (1993) would add that participation by multiple stakeholders
with differing interests and perspectives might encourage more consideration of the varied
social, cultural, environmental, economic and political issues influencing sustainable
development.

2.2.3 The Role of Stakeholders: Government and Interest groups

- The Government in Tourism Planning

Undoubtedly one of the most relevant stakeholders in the development of tourism is
government. In most countries government helps to shape the economy framework for the
tourism industry, helps in the provision of infrastructure and educational requirements for
tourism, establishes the regulatory environment in which business operates, and takes an
active role in promotion and marketing.

Multiple reasons have been argued for government intervention in tourism, the most
frequently mentioned is the potential of tourism to diversify and contribute to national and
regional economies through employment and income generation (Jenkins, 1994; Burns, 1999 and Hall, 2000). In developing countries, the scarcity of resources, lack of expertise, and limited involvement in tourism by the private sector as well as the relative newness of tourism are among the main reasons for government involvement in tourism (Jenkins, 1994).

Although government’s role in tourism is predominant, it has not remained static. Tourism has been influenced by changes in political philosophy in its wider policy environment. Due to the dominant ideological trend in Western societies in the 1980’s and 1990’s to deregulate the market and reduce the extent of government involvement, tourism has experienced a dramatic shift from a traditional public administration model to a corporatist model, which stresses efficiency, investment returns, the role of the market, and relations with stakeholders. This change has brought about, on the one hand, a demand for less government intervention in the market and to allow industries to develop without government subsidy while, on the other hand, industry interests groups seek to have government policy developed in their favour, including funding for promotion. This policy issue has been resolved through the transformation of national and regional tourist organisation (a) to reduce their planning, policy and development roles and increase their marketing and promotion functions and (b) to engage in a greater range of partnership network and collaborative relationships with stakeholders. This has therefore led to increased emphasis on governance through network structures as a new process of governing (Hall, 1999 and Hall, 2000).

The emphasis by government on partnership with the industry is also related to the evolution of management theory. For example, strategic planning now puts considerable emphasis on relations with stakeholders as a part of the planning process while the emergence of theories of collaboration and network development highlights the importance of the links to be made between stakeholders in the processes of mediation, promotion and regional development (Hall, 1999).
Although the role of the government has decreased, Jenkins (1994) emphasises that government is still responsible for the overall acceptability of the type of tourism that is developed. It also has a social responsibility to ensure that the benefits of tourism are not gained to the detriment of social, cultural and environmental standards.

The activity of government in tourism encompasses a variety of roles. The forerunner to the WTO, the International Union of Travel Organisations (IUOTO) 1974 identified five issues of public sector involvement in tourism: coordination, planning, legislation and regulation, entrepreneur, and stimulation. To this Hall (2000) adds a social tourism role and a role of interest protection. The following table portrays the main features of each role.
Table 2.1: Government Roles in Tourism

1. **Coordination:** Coordination is necessary within and between the different levels of government in order to avoid duplication of resources and to develop effective tourism strategies.

2. **Planning:** In most countries tourism planning exists as a component of public-sector and occurs in different forms, through different institutions and at different levels.

3. **Legislation and regulation:** Government involvement in this area ranges from authority on passport and visa matters, through environmental and labour relations policy. However, substantial issues for tourism often emerge because of the extent to which tourism policy needs to be integrated with other policy sectors.

4. **Entrepreneur:** Governments have had a long history of involvement in promoting tourism through bureaus, marketing ventures, development of transport networks and the provision of loans to private industry. However, this role is decreasing and less government intervention is being sought. This has brought about the development of public-private partnerships.

5. **Stimulation:** It is the action that government can take to stimulate tourism development. Governments can stimulate tourism in three ways: financial incentives, sponsoring research in tourism and marketing and promotion.

6. **Social role:** Social tourism involves the extension of the benefits of holidays to economically marginal groups, such as the unemployed, single parent family, handicapped and others.

7. **Interest protector:** Under this role the government as a tourism planner serves as an arbiter between competing interests. This involves the protection through public tourism planning of the interests of the wider community rather than just short-term sectoral tourism interests.

Source: Adapted from Hall, 1994 and Hall, 2000.
• The Role of Interest Groups

The role of interests groups is essential to the discussion of tourism’s collaboration processes. Hall and Jenkins (1995) state that interest groups are an integral component of the tourism policy-making process, and of institutional arrangements in general. Moreover, they claim that one of the major problems when examining the role of interest groups in tourism policy-making process is deciding what the appropriate relationship between an interest group and government should be which gives rise to questions about the extent to which policy processes lead to decisions in the ‘public interest’ rather than simply a deal between politicians and sectional interests.

Equality of access is essential in assessing how far some groups have been able to influence the policy-making process to their advantage. However, changes in the organisation and institutionalisation of other interest groups have provoked a greater influence of them in policy settings (e.g. environmental groups). It is likely that the continued growth of non-producer groups interest in tourism will further lead to reduced business influence in some areas of tourism policy-making (Hall and Jenkins, 1995).

2.3 Managing interdependence: Coordination and Collaboration in Tourism Planning

2.3.1 Coordination: The first step

The need for coordination in the tourism field has been recognised in the contemporary literature of tourism as extremely important (De Kadt, 1979; Murphy, 1985; Hall, 1994; Roberts and Simpson, 1999; Hall, 2000). The fragmented nature of tourism is advocated as the main reason for coordination. This ‘fragmentation’ is reflected by the lack of single authorities responsible for tourism development, which has meant that local authorities and
private sector have often been confused by the tourism development and planning process. Furthermore, the diverse structure of the industry has meant that coordination of the various components of the planning process has been extremely difficult (Roberts and Simpson, 1999 and Hall, 2000).

Spann (1979:411) defines coordination as “the problem of relating units or decisions so that they fit in with one another, are not cross-purposes, and operate in ways that are reasonable consistent and coherent”.

Coordination of tourism occurs both horizontally, e.g. between different government agencies, which may have responsibilities for various related tourism activities at the same level of governance (i.e. national parks, tourism promotion, transport), and vertically, e.g. between different levels of government (local, regional, national).

In order to differentiate the terms coordination and cooperation Mulford and Rogers, 1982 explain that while coordination refers to formal institutionalised relationships among existing networks of organisations, interests and/or individuals, cooperation is characterised by informal trade-offs and by attempts to constitute reciprocity in the absence of rules.

Spann (1979) identifies two different types of coordination: administrative coordination and policy coordination. The need for administrative coordination occurs where there has been agreement on aims, objectives and policies between the parties that have to be coordinated but the mechanism for coordination is not decided or there are inconsistencies in implementation. The necessity of policy coordination appears when there is conflict over the objectives of the policy that has to be coordinated and implemented.

De Kadt (1979) pointed out that coordination between different government agencies is limited because the different nature of authorities’ original training leads to different perceptions of what problems are important in the world.
Among the benefits that coordination can bring about Timothy (1998) recognises:

- efficiency through a better allocation of economic resources on development project.
- elimination of some overlap of services and parallel planning which will improve the efficiency in terms of time and money.
- integration of planning between different regions, since trans-boundary cooperation can mitigate the negative impacts on both sides of a border.

Despite these benefits, coordination does not by itself solve the problem of the fragmented nature of tourism. The problem of bringing various stakeholders and interests together is an issue of establishing effective collaborative processes.

### 2.3.2 Review of Collaboration Theory

The globalisation phenomenon increasingly developed during the 1990’s is bringing about the need to develop collaborative mechanisms different from the hierarchically structured forms of the traditional organisation. These new organisational forms, called “problemsolving” networks, attempt to solve complex social issues that have not been adequately addressed by traditional institutions (Jamal and Getz, 1995). Healey (1997) states that in order to achieve their social, economic and environmental agendas the stakeholders have a shared interest in finding forms of governance, which enable discussion among multiple stakeholders and their network. This leads to an interest in the design of institutional processes that facilitate collaboration. Furthermore, Roberts and Simpson (1999) observe this change as a necessary corrective to free-market ideology, providing a platform for the articulation of needs by a number of groups in the interests of consensus.

Healey (1998) noted that these new collaborative approaches are being mainly developed in Europe and US in both the discourse and in the evolution of practices. Therefore, there is a need to explore this phenomenon in developing countries where increased knowledge of networking activity and network formation among key stakeholders is necessary.
In the tourism field, it has become quite clear to governments, tourism managers, planners, and academics that no one individual organisation can determine the future of the tourism industry. These emerging partnerships can be described as situations where there is a pooling or sharing of resources (information, money, labour, etc) among two or more tourism stakeholders to solve a problem or create an opportunity that neither can address individually (Selin and Chavez, 1995 after Selin, 1999).

However, notions of collaboration, coordination and partnership are separate, though closely related ideas within the emerging network paradigm. Networks refer to the development of linkages between actors (individuals or organisations) where linkages become more formalised towards maintaining mutual interests. Mandell, 1999 recognises a continuum of such collaborative efforts as follows;

- linkages or interactive contacts between two or more actors;
- intermittent coordination or mutual adjustment of the policies and procedures of two or more actors to accomplish some objective;
- ad-hoc or temporary task force activity among actors to accomplish a purpose or purposes;
- permanent and/or regular coordination between two or more actors through a formal arrangement (e.g. a council or partnership) to engage in limited activity to achieve a purpose or purposes;
- a coalition where interdependent and strategic actions are taken, but where purposes are narrow in scope;
- A collective or network structure where there is a broad mission and joint and strategically interdependent action.
2.3.2.1 Definition and Conceptualisation of the Collaboration Theory

Collaboration is a process of joint-decision-making involving key stakeholders of a problem to search for resolving conflicts and advancing sharing visions (Gray, 1989 and Hall, 2000).

Jamal and Getz, 1995 define collaboration for community-based tourism as a process of joint decision-making among autonomous, key stakeholders of an inter-organisational domain to manage issues related to the planning and development of the domain.

One of the preconditions that Jamal and Getz (1995) recognise as prerequisite for the use of collaborative approach is that of a destination where fragmented and independent planning decisions by different tourism organisations are conducive to power struggles over resources. Regarding other relevant conditions they recognise the following:

- perceived interdependence among stakeholders;
- involvement of stakeholders;
- methods for finding common grounds for facilitating consensus and for implementing the collaboration results.

Friedmann (1992) states that in order to built trust, confidence and mutual understanding across the fractures which divide the stakeholders, different forms of dialogue, collective learning and consensus-building are required. Moreover, Bramwell and Lane (1999) claim that an understanding of time scales and cultural paradigms emerge as a central issue when establishing collaborative processes. Finally, Selin (1999) notes that monitoring is essential to ensure that the outcomes of tourism partnerships are truly sustainable and equitable in the distribution of benefits and costs.

As it can be seen in table 2.2, collaboration is a highly dynamic process characterised by three stages: problem setting, direction setting and implementation. It also comprises a number of elements:
- stakeholders are interdependent;
- solutions emerge by dealing constructively with differences;
- joint ownership of decisions is involved;
- stakeholders need to assume collective responsibility for the future direction of the domain;
- collaboration is an emergent process (Gray, 1989).
### Table 2.2: The Collaborative Process

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Stages and Propositions</th>
<th>Facilitating Conditions</th>
<th>Actions/Steps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Stage I.** Problem-Setting | ➢ Recognition of interdependence  
➢ identification of a required number of stakeholders  
➢ perceptions of legitimacy among stakeholders  
➢ legitimate/skilled convener  
➢ positive beliefs about outcomes  
➢ shared access power  
➢ mandate (external or internal)  
➢ adequate resources to convene and enable collaboration process. | ➢ Define purpose and domain  
➢ identify convener  
➢ convene stakeholders  
➢ define problems/issues to resolve  
➢ identify and legitimize stakeholders  
➢ build commitment to collaborate by raising awareness of independence  
➢ balancing power differences  
➢ addressing stakeholders concerns  
➢ ensuring adequate resources available to allow collaboration to proceed with key stakeholders present. |
| **Stage II.** Direction-Setting | ➢ Coincidence of values  
➢ Dispersion of power among stakeholders. | ➢ Collect and share information  
➢ appreciate shared values, enhance perceived interdependence  
➢ ensure power distributed among several stakeholders  
➢ establish rules and agenda for direction setting  
➢ organise subgroups if required  
➢ list alternatives  
➢ discuss various options  
➢ select appropriate solutions  
➢ arrive at shared vision or plan/strategy through consensus |
| **Stage III.** Implementation | ➢ High degree of ongoing interdependence  
➢ external mandates  
➢ redistribution of power  
➢ influencing the contextual environment. | ➢ Discuss means of implementing and monitoring solutions, shared vision, plan or strategy  
➢ select suitable structure for institutionalising process  
➢ assign goals and tasks  
➢ monitor ongoing process and ensure compliance to collaboration decisions. |

Propositions applicable:
- P1, P2, P3, P4, P5
- P1, P2, P3, P6

Source: Adopted from Jamal and Getz, 1995
2.3.2.2 Benefits of Collaboration

Many benefits can be derived from collaboration, one of the most important being a cost-effective solution to regional challenges by pooling resources and avoiding the cost of resolving adversarial conflicts among stakeholders in the long-term (Reid, 1987 after Selin and Beason, 1991; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Healey, 1998; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999).

Politically, the collaboration process is more legitimate and equitable than conventional approaches since it promotes sharing power and participation. It is a process where opinions, perspectives and recommendations of non-industry stakeholders are just as legitimate as those of the planner or ‘expert’ (Healey, 1997; Hall, 1999; Bramwell and Lane, 1999; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Hall, 2000).

Furthermore, collaboration ‘adds value’ to the ongoing flow of policy-making since the parties who are affected by the tourism issues may bring their knowledge, attitudes and other capacities to the process. Working together may bring about creative synergy and mutual learning (Healey, 1997 and Bramwell and Lane, 1999).

The inclusiveness of collaborative approaches may therefore help in dealing with some of the key problems of implementation such as conflicts between policies and values or interests within the implementation structure (Hall, 2000).
Table 2.3 shows a list of benefits of collaboration identified by Gray (1989)

**Table 2.3: Benefits of Collaboration Process**

- Broad comprehensive analysis of the domain improves the quality of the solutions.
- Response capability is more diversified.
- It is useful for reopening deadlocked negotiations.
- The risk of impasse is minimised.
- The process ensures that each stakeholder’s interests are considered in any agreement.
- Parties retain ownership of the solution.
- Parties most familiar with the problem, not their agents, invent the solutions.
- Participation enhances acceptance of solution and willingness to implement it.
- The potential to discover novel, innovative solutions is enhanced.
- Relations between the stakeholders improve.
- Cost associated with other methods is avoided.
- Mechanisms for coordinating future actions among the stakeholders can be established.

Source: Gray, 1989:21

**2.3.2.3 Criticisms to the Collaboration Theory**

The major criticism to the collaboration theory is based on the assumption that a collaborative process can overcome power imbalances just by involving all the stakeholders in a process that meet their needs. Thus, this implication ignores the existence of systemic constraints – such as the distribution of government power and of resource flows- which shape the evolution of such practices (Reed, 1997, Yuksel et al, 1999).

Organisations and policy actors occupy different positions and carry different weight within networks, they also differ with respect to resource dependencies, which leads to differences in their relative power to influence policy processes (Reed, 1997; Healey, 1998 and Hall, 1999). Healey (1998:15) points out: “A key theme underlying this level of discussion is the extent to which collaborative processes merely end up being conversations among elites, new forms of an old corporatism, as oppose to real attempts to consider and involve multiple stakeholders”.

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Reed (1997) argues that given the differences between the participants, theories of collaboration must incorporate power relations as an explanatory variable that demonstrates why collaboration efforts succeed or fail, rather than as an instrumental variable that suggest how power can be balanced or convened.

Finally, in a criticism to Jamal and Getz about their study of the collaboration theory Reed (1997) argues that they address the issue of power and authority by including legitimate stakeholders and identifying a suitable convenor at an early stage in the collaborative planning process. They also state that where power is not initially equal, a local authority might be suitable convenor. However, Reed expresses that these propositions do not explain why, how and under what conditions, those with power would be willing to distribute it to others.

### 2.3.3 Stakeholder Identification and Legitimisation

A critical and complex step in problem setting within the collaborative process is that of identifying and legitimising the participant stakeholders. The complexities of this task are evident given the fact that each stakeholder often has different aims and objectives, unequal powers, varying administrative structures and cultures, and different levels of understanding and acceptance of the mutual benefits of collaboration (Roberts and Simpson, 1999).

The issue of legitimacy of participating stakeholders is particularly important within tourism planning where the possibilities for collaboration are diminished due to the existence of multiple and varied organisations who often hold widely different viewpoints and strong vested interests. Regarding emergent tourism setting, where interests are not collectively organised, the identification of legitimate stakeholders may itself be a contestable task (Reed, 1997).

According to Gray (1985) a legitimate stakeholder is one who has the right and capacity to participate in the process; a stakeholder who is impacted by the action of other stakeholders has a right to be involved in order to moderate those impacts. But who must also have the
resources and skills to participate (Jamal and Getz, 1995). However for Healey (1997) the concept of stakeholder is much broader. It acts as net to ‘capture’ the articulate and the silent, the powerful and the powerless, those within a territorial political community and those beyond its boundaries.

Among the different kinds of relationships that are significant to become involved in collaborative planning arrangements, Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell, 1999 identify the following:

- the economic or political power of the stakeholder;
- the perceived legitimacy of the claims of the different stakeholders;
- the urgency of the claims made for different stakeholders.

The identification and legitimisation of participant stakeholders is not only an issue related to the position or interest of the stakeholders but also to their willingness to participate in the process.

Finally, it is important to observe that the identification and legitimisation are activities carried out by the facilitator of the collaboration process, who will undertake this task under his or her perspective about who are the ones with a legitimate interest in the problem.

At this point, the role of the convenor is essential in establishing, legitimising and guiding the collaborative alliance. Gray (1989) and Wood and Gray (1991) suggest that the convenor/planner must:

- have the ability to identify stakeholders and then induce them to participate
- have legitimacy among stakeholders
- be perceived by stakeholders as having a fair and even-handed approach to the planning problem
- appreciate the value of collaboration and possess interpersonal and communication skills
• be responsive to the needs of stakeholders
• be trusted.

2.3.4 Evaluation Factors of Collaborative Tourism Planning

Most scholars establish a group of conditions, factors or propositions in order to predict the success of a collaborative process, which can assist as a valuable guide for the development of a collaborative approach. The success of the process will depend not only on formal structures on which they are established, but also on the motivations, personalities and perceived roles of the participating stakeholders. One of the most important challenges is building sincerity and trust between the actors.

An important condition to undertake a collaborative process is the recognition among the key stakeholders that they are sharing a problem and they need each other to solve it. Therefore, they should perceive themselves as interdependent (Waddock and Bannister, 1991; Jamal and Getz, 1995; OECD, 1997 and Bramwell and Sharman, 1999).

The perception of positive benefits is the second factor that should be taken into account when establishing a collaboration effort (ibid.). Regarding this issue Selin and Beason (1999) state that altruism has little to do with interaction among stakeholders. Rather, organisations interact when self-interest is perceived to be advanced.

Another condition that has been often mentioned in the literature as for a successful collaborative process is that a joint formulation of aims and objectives on desired tourism development. Healey (1998) emphasises that stakeholders who think differently is anticipated that will act differently. Therefore, it is important to develop planning frameworks at the start when stakeholders conceive their strategies and projects rather than much later in the process.
The following table illustrates a list of conditions or factors that should be taken into account as predictors for a successful collaboration process:

Table 2.4: Conditions for a Successful Collaboration Process

- recognition of a high degree of interdependence in planning and managing the domain
- recognition of individual and or mutual benefits to be derived from the process
- perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented
- the involvement in the process of local government plus other public organisations as well as private sector and residents
- the presence of a convenor is required in order to initiate and facilitate collaboration
- the joint formulation of vision, mission and objectives on desired tourism development
- trust among the participants
- representatives of a interest group need to have adequate power to make decisions for their organisations
- stakeholders need to feel that they add value to the process
- power needs to be balanced among stakeholders
- feedback to participants is important
- strong leadership is required for an ongoing process.

Source: Derived from Waddock and Bannister, 1991 and Jamal and Getz, 1995

Bramwell and Sharman (1999) propose a series of factors that can be considered in order to evaluate collaborative policy-making, grouped into three categories: scope of collaboration, intensity of the collaboration, degree to which consensus emerges.
Table 2.5: Evaluation factors for collaborative policy-making

<table>
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<th>Scope of collaboration</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The extent to which the range of participating stakeholders is representative of all relevant stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The extent to which relevant stakeholders see there are positive benefits to entice their participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Whether the collaboration includes a facilitator and the stakeholders responsible for the implementation process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The extent to which there is initial agreement among participants about the general intent of the collaboration process</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intensity of the collaboration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The extent to which participants accept that collaboration is likely to produce qualitative different outcomes and they are likely to have to modify their own approach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• When and how the relevant stakeholders are involved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Amount of information that stakeholders group receive about the process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The degree to which the dialog reflects openness, honesty, tolerant and respectful speaking and listening, confidence and trust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The extent to which the participants come to understand, respect and learn from each others’ different interests, forms of knowledge, systems of meaning, values, and attitudes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The degree of control over decision-making process exerted by the facilitator.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree to which consensus emerges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Whether participants who are building consensus also accept they may only reach a “partial consensus”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The extent to which consensus and “ownership” emerge across the inequalities between stakeholders or reflect these inequalities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The extent to which stakeholders accept that there are systematic constraints on what is feasible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Whether the stakeholders appear willing to implement the resulting policies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Derived from Bramwell and Sharman, 1999.

Regarding the evaluation of a particular area it is important to consider that some political cultures provide much more fertile ground for a collaborative approach than others. The institutional histories of some places have allowed a store of ‘institutional capital’ to build up, which encourages horizontal consensus seeking (Healey, 1997).
2.3.5 Constraints and Facilitators of the Collaboration Process

The Factors that facilitate or inhibit collaborative processes in tourism need to be identified through empirical research due to the particular conditions of every tourism destination. The result of these studies will indicate under which circumstances collaboration can be used as a process to resolve problems and realise “shared visions”.

The influences upon collaboration are varied. For example, it has been suggested that collaboration can be stimulated or inhibited not only by competitive or market forces but also by institutional forces such as legal action and social norms (Jamal and Getz, 1995). The amount of tourism activity and the social and cultural acceptance of collaboration also influence the success or failure of a collaborative approach.

- **Constraints to collaboration**

An exploration of constraints to collaboration is useful since it can guide government, planners and facilitators in their decisions towards facilitating collaborative processes.

Some of the most important inhibitors to collaboration are the ones mentioned by Selin et al., (1997); Milne, (1998); Butler, (1999) and Timothy, (1999) in their studies of community involvement and collaboration:

- Cultural and political traditions that favour centralisation of the authority.
- Poor economic conditions that mean residents of low socio-economic status are not interested in becoming involved in tourism planning.
- Insufficient public funding at the lower administrative levels which increases dependence on government.
- Lack of expertise and training of tourism planning authorities.
- Perceptions of organisations as independent.
- Competition, or the degree to which organisations strive for the same resources.
- Lack of awareness of differing ideologies.
- Lack of commitment by participants.
- Politicisation of collaborative initiatives.
- Little experience in the tourism industry and knowledge of its dynamics.
- Lack of desire by authorities to undertake long-term planning due to short-term political interests.
- Generation of expectations that far exceed eventual outcomes.
- Lack of consensus on specific structures and processes, particularly in situations involving organisations (public and private) concurrent with non organisational stakeholders i.e. individuals, informal lobby groups, etc.

**Facilitators of collaboration**

There exist a range of policies that can facilitate the implementation of a collaborative process, which aim to remove the barriers mentioned above. Regarding this issue, Gray (1986) notes that initial interventions in a collaborative process should probably focus on:

- heightening awareness among stakeholders of their interdependence on one another and/or
- building the power of relatively weak stakeholders.

Regarding the first proposition, Selin and Beason (1991) identify that the degree to which the participant organisations know the goals of other organisations predispose participants toward cooperation since they are more aware of their common problems.

Related to the second proposition, Jamal and Getz (1995) notes that a way to correct power imbalances is constituted by giving increased power to the relatively weak stakeholders in order to influence decision-making.
Chapter 2

Conclusion

This chapter has shown that planning for tourism is a complex activity that requires a holistic perception of all the linked social, economic and environmental factors that influence tourism development. This interconnectedness calls for the implementation of a collaborative approach in which those who affect and are affected by the outcomes of tourism, the 'stakeholders', actively seek a mutually determine solution to tourism problems.

However, the development a collaborative approach to tourism planning requires the existence of multiple conditions and factors that must be evaluated and foster in order to implement such approach.

Finally, it is important to bear in mind that the collaborative approach described in this study, have emerged and being refined in the context of the developed countries, therefore, its applicability to developing countries contexts must be object of more detailed studies.
CHAPTER 3

CUSCO TOURISM PLANNING PROCESS AND DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will show an overview of tourism planning and development in Peru, followed by an analysis of Cusco tourism development in a national and regional context. It will also offer critical thoughts about various tourism bodies and governmental agencies, which are involved in Peruvian and Cusco tourism development and their inter-relationship. Finally, general issues regarding coordination processes and stakeholder roles in Cusco will be examined.

3.1 An Overview of Tourism Planning and Development in Peru

3.1.1 The Status and importance of tourism

Between 1960 and 1990, Peruvian tourism was institutionally structured along similar lines to other industries in that it was state-led, using foreign investment to fund state enterprises in an effort to mix economic growth with social justice. However, this mode of development collapsed with the debt crisis of the 1980’s which brought about terrorism and economic instability (Desforges, 2000). This situation changed at the beginning of the 1990’s after a series of policies by Fujimori’s first governmental period. The stabilisation of the Peruvian economy was achieved through the adoption of market-based economic policies of a neo-liberal type; this implied strict fiscal and monetary policies to reduce state spending, which led to cutbacks in state departments and the privatisation, among others, of
the national hotel chain and airline. The improvement of security conditions, alongside free market policies and recovered international credibility, has significantly contributed to attracting foreign investment back to Peru (Peruvian Tourism Master Plan, 1999\textsuperscript{1} and Desforges, 2000).

These have resulted in favourable economic conditions from 1993. The inflation rate, which reached a level of 7481\% in 1990, decreased to 5.3\% in 1999 and GDP grew 7.4\% in 1997. International reserves exceeded 10 billion dollars and the trade deficit has been decreasing over the last three years. However, employment is still a persistent problem (Peruvian Tourism Master Plan, 1999 and www.peruonline.com).

As part of these major changes in the last decade, Peruvian tourism has undergone an accelerated growth (see figure 3.1). International arrivals more than trebled between 1992 and 1999 and income from tourism increased from $300 million in 1992 to $ 1003 million in 1999. Foreign exchange generated by the tourism sector compared to exports grew from 6.2\% in 1985 to 11.9\% in 1997. Tourism has created just in the last year 350,000 jobs, which represented 2.4\% of the total employed population (Peruvian Tourism Master Plan, 1999 and El Comercio, 2000).

\footnote{For the purpose of this study "The Master Plan Study on National Tourism Development in the Republic of Peru" will be referred as "Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999".}
Figure 3.1: International Tourists Arrivals 1990-1999
Source: MITINCI, 2000

The main strategies for promoting increasing productivity in the tourism sector were similar to other sectors. The boundaries between the state and the private sector were radically adjusted. The state was no longer to play the ‘entrepreneurial’ role it had played in Peru’s post-war development strategy. The remaining role for the state is coordinating the circulation of knowledge about the Peruvian tourist product (Desforges, 2000).

However, Desforges (2000) notes that it is unlikely that government institutional changes are the only reason for the growth of tourism in Peru. He states that the country, like many others throughout the world, is reaping the rewards of an increased demand for adventure travel and ecotourism. He asserts that the neo-liberal government’s development strategy may prove problematic in several ways, including the lack of the ability on the part of the reduced state to take initiatives necessary for the country to cope with a tourism boom. Among the problems that Peruvian tourism faces, he mentions the concentration of tourists
flows in few regions and an inability to manage physical impacts as well as to assist in redistributing wealth (Casado, 1998 and Desforges, 2000).

- **Peruvian Tourist Resources**

Peru has a variety of natural and cultural attributes and it is recognised as a destination with enormous tourist potential. It is a country with major varieties in climate and life zone, therefore, it has a biodiversity that offers extraordinary possibilities for the development of ecotourism. The scenery in most cases is ideal for adventure tourism. Moreover, there are considerable resources for the development of health tourism, esoteric tourism as well as gastronomic tourism. Additionally, Peru offers a considerable amount of important archaeological sites, which makes it an attractive historical and cultural destination (Rijalba and Barrio de Mendoza, 1999).

These attractions constitute the major strength for tourism development. The main tourist circuit in Peru is located in the southern part of the country and it has as a focal point Cusco. This circuit also includes the cities of Puno and Arequipa to which Madre de Dios has been recently added due to its attractions (e.g. Tambopata-Candamo, Manu) and proximity to Cusco. The second circuit comprises Lima (capital) and the neighbouring cities of Ica and Huaraz that can be easily reached by bus. The third circuit is located in the Amazona being Iquitos City the principal destination. Its major attractions are the Amazona River and the natural reserve of Pacaya-Samiria. Finally, a relatively new circuit that connects the coast with the north-eastern part of the country must be mentioned. It begins in the north coast in cities of Chiclayo and Trujillo and continues to the Amazonas department where the recently discovered archaeological site of Kuelap is located (ibid.)

- **SWOT Analysis of Peruvian Tourism**

Peru has an extensive number of natural and cultural resources. However, it also has multiple problems that will have to be overcome in order to achieve broader benefits from tourism.
The following table shows a SWOT analysis that depicts the current situation of Peruvian tourism.
Table 3.1: SWOT Analysis of Peruvian Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. A Tourist attraction with the ability to provoke for itself considerable international tourists flows (Machu Picchu).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A range of unique natural and cultural resources that could be developed and offered to the international market (see appendix 1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. International tourists perceive the host communities and tourism industry as welcoming and warmth.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Among the multiple cultures that flourished in Peru, only the Inca culture has market awareness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Lack of service quality and trained manpower.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Lack of a definite image from the marketing and promotional point of view and insufficient budget for promotion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Minimum participation of tourist host communities in terms of economic linkages and conservation of natural and cultural resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Tourism administration is distributed among several organisations and there is no organisation or mechanism that rules over tourism-related agencies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Poor supporting tourism infrastructure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The potential demand with a cultural motivation from long-haul market, that constitutes the main tourism demand to Peru, may be not very large.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. An increased motivation in demand side for cultural and natural destinations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Perception from tourists that Peru has numerous attractions brings about the opportunity of longer stays and in some cases more than one visit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Opportunities to develop the short-haul market due to its closeness to Chile and MERCOSUR countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Peru has the opportunity to develop beach resort tourism in the northern part of the country.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Security and safety problems, if they remain unsolved, could deter tourists to travel to Peru.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Risk of over exploitation and depletion of natural and cultural resources may take place if it fails to establish a socio-economic system, in which tourism would benefit local communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Competition from Eastern Europe and Asian markets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Lack of planning and appropriate visitor management of natural and historical resources to satisfy a growing demand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Rijalba and Barrio de Mendoza, 1999 and Tourism Master Plan, 1999
Chapter 3

As it can be seen, the challenges that Peru will have to face are numerous. However the most important will be to find its particular responses to make tourism an effective tool for sustainable development where the benefits of tourism accrue for a broader part of the population.

3.1.2 National Tourism Planning

In Peru, tourism activity is under the jurisdiction of Ministry of Industry, Integration and International Trade (MITINCI). However, the promotion of the country to foreign countries is undertaken by the Commission for the Promotion of Peru (PROMPERU). Additionally, there are other governmental institutions involved in tourism policy whose roles will be detailed later on this chapter.

The functions of MITINCI especially related to tourism policy and planning are under the jurisdiction of the Vice Ministry of Tourism (See appendix 1). These functions are specified as follows:

- Formulate, manage, supervise and evaluate the tourism policy.
- Formulate the national plans of development by sectors.
- Establish the normative frame for the development of tourist activities.
- Propose the norms and policies to protect the environment and the natural resources.
- Guide and supervise the regional authorities according to the regulation (Decree, 25831).

At regional level, MITINCI has representatives in every department of the country. These bodies called Regional Directorate of Industry, Tourism and International Trade (DRITINCI) are under the administration of a higher regional body, the Transitory Council of Regional Administration (CTAR), whose president is nominated by the President of the Republic to govern the department (See appendix 1). One of the major problems faced by the DRITINCI's is that MITINCI uses them mainly for the collection of information to
manage national tourism matters, therefore they suffer from a lack of budget and, consequently, executing power (Peruvian Tourism Master Plan, 1999).

Although the law that establishes DRITINCIS's functions states one of its main objectives as contributing to the decentralisation of the country and to integrated regional development, regional tourism planning is still characterised by a top-down process, where decision-making is highly centralised. In this context, regional agencies have little power over decision-making. Additionally, the lack of national and regional tourism strategies and a shared vision regarding tourism development make coordination and cooperation within the tourist public sector difficult.

However, recent years have seen some efforts towards the establishment of a common vision and a more comprehensive style of planning. The enactment of the law for the Development of Tourist Activities in June 1998; the creation of a joint-body for the coordination of the public and private sector (National Commission of Tourism) and; the recent development of a Tourism Master Plan are among the initiatives that may indicate the beginning of a change in the direction of Peruvian tourism development.

Although these policies may be seen as an increased concern by the government for tourism activity, they have often been criticised as insufficient and superficial to address the multiple problems that Peruvian tourism encounters. Among the difficulties that remain to be resolved are:

- Clear identification of the public and private sector role in tourism development.
- Validation and dissemination of Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999 among tourism actors.
- Elaboration of an educational and training programme for the development of tourism manpower.
- Establishment of a monitoring system regarding tourism economic, social and cultural impacts (Barrio de Mendoza et al 2000).
3.2 Cusco Tourism Planning and Development

3.2.1 Cusco Tourism in National Context

The department of Cusco, upon which this study is based, has historically been considered the most important Peruvian tourist destination, mainly due to its historical and cultural significance as the centre of the Inca Culture. It offers a range of archaeological monuments, the archaeological complex of Machu Picchu and Cusco City (World Cultural Heritages of Humankind) being its main attractions. According to the International Tourist Profile (1999) eighty percent of international tourists who arrive in Peru visit Cusco.

Cusco is part of the most popular Peruvian tourist circuit ("the southern circuit") which comprises the cities of Ica, Arequipa, Cusco and Puno. The Peruvian Tourism Master Plan (1999) has recognised these cities as part of a broader tourist region and has designated them a Priority Tourism Development Zone (PTDZ).

Location

Cusco is located in the south-eastern highland of the country (See figure 3.2). The capital city of the Cusco department is Cusco, which is at an altitude of about 3,399 above sea level. The annual average temperature is 11 degrees, which tends to decrease at night (Peruvian, Tourism Master Plan, 1999).
Figure 3.2: Map of Cusco
Source: www.infoperu.com

**Socioeconomic Conditions**

Cusco had a population of 1,117,311 in 1997, accounting for 4.6% of the national population and ranking 7th in Peru. About half of the total population live in urban areas. The average population density is 15.4 persons per square kilometre.

The gross regional domestic product per capita (GRDP) was $1,085 in 1996, ranking 15th in the country. The annual increase rate of GRDP is 7.3%. The service sector is the major industry accounting for 32% of the GRDP in 1996. The construction sector comes second (13.6%), followed for agriculture and the commercial sector (13.5%) (Ibid.).

**Tourism**

Visitor arrivals were over 460,000 in 1996, domestic visitors accounting for 53% and foreigners 47%. The annual trend of visitor arrivals is increasing, especially for the international market. The average length of stay and the room occupancy rate were at their peak level in 1995 (Ibid.).
Cusco is the department with the biggest amount of cultural tourism attractions; the plan of Tourism Cusco Development of the Inca Region indicates that from a total of 243 attractions 124 are of cultural type.

The state of conservation of tourism resources in Cusco is qualified as ‘regular’ by the MITINCI’s inventory. However, due to the special attention that the state pays to the city of Cusco and Macchu Picchu, they have been qualified as ‘good’ in the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999.

3.2.2 Tourism Planning Process and Development in Cusco

Tourism Planning and development in Cusco have been characterised since the late 1960’s for great state involvement and an emphasis on physical development. The first evidence of government’s intervention in Cusco tourism development dates back to 1965 with the elaboration of the COPESCO plan. When Peru asked UNESCO for help with restoring the archaeological site of Machu Picchu. Simultaneously the Organisation of American States funded the investigation of Peru’s tourism potential. The result was the Plan for Integral Development of the Cusco-Puno Zone (Villena Lescano, 1993). From 1974 the plan has led to the construction of roads, airports, transport and energy links, as well as the development of tourist sites (Desforges, 2000).

This approach that considered tourism as a tool for economic development in Cusco brought about during 1970’s and 1980’s two clear and extreme positions that generated extensive political and academic debates. On the one hand, there were those who viewed tourism as threat to the traditions and preservation of the local culture as well as an activity that would increase differences between those with access to tourism and those without. On the other hand, there were those who considered tourism development as a tool for economic growth of the region. However, after a considerable decrease in tourism as result of the crisis during the 1980’s, these extreme positions have started to reconcile around the idea that tourism may bring development under particular conditions.
Although the COPESCO plan has considerably contributed to development of tourism in Cusco, especially regarding infrastructure for the host community and conservation of historical sites, it has not completely addressed critical issues for the integrated development of the area.

Cusco Tourism faces multiple problems the most important being the following:

- concentration of tourists flows around Machu Picchu and Cusco City,
- lack of a shared vision and objectives regarding tourism development,
- insufficient intergovernmental coordination,
- lack of quality service,
- poor community participation.

In order to address these issues, PROMPERU and The European Union under the “Integrated Programme for Development in the Tourism Sector of Peru” have undertaken a series of pilot projects (called “Al Tur”), which aim to diversify and improve the quality of the Cusco tourist product, while promoting community participation and the conservation of both local resources and cultural identity (PROMPERU, 1999).

Although these initiatives, which involved a range of local and regional stakeholders, can be seen as a milestone for more integrated and sustainable forms of tourism development in Cusco, this form of planning has not yet been integrated into a regional strategy. Moreover, their effectiveness has been negatively affected by their short-term duration, lack of monitoring of the results as well as problems in promotion and distribution. Related to the importance of monitoring Selin (1999) notes that monitoring is vital to ensure that the outcomes of these kind of partnerships are truly sustainable and equitable in the distribution of benefits and costs.

3.3 Coordination and Collaboration in Peruvian Tourism Development

3.3.1 Government Involvement in Tourism Planning and Development
Peruvian tourism administration is characterised by the multiplicity of agencies involved in tourism development. Although the prime government agency responsible for tourism is The Vice-Ministry of Tourism in MITINCI, tourism development and planning are undertaken by several government agencies and institutions (See figure 3.3). Tourism promotion is, along with investment promotion, the responsibility of PROMPERU, which is under the Council of Ministers. Development of tourist infrastructure is in charge of the Ministry of Presidency, while planning of infrastructure and regional development is the responsibility of the Ministry of Transport, Communication, Housing and Construction (MTCVC). Archaeological sites are managed by the National Institute of Culture (INC) which is under the Ministry of Education while natural areas such as National Parks, National Reserves, and National Sanctuaries are managed by the National Institute of Natural Resources (INRENA) which is under the Ministry of Agriculture. Tourist Police (POLTUR) falls under the Ministry of Interior. Moreover, regional governments, municipalities and other autonomous organisations intervene in tourism development.

Figure 3.3: Tourism-related ministries and organisations
Source: Adapted from Peruvian Master Plan, 1999
Rijalba and Barrio de Mendoza (1999) state that due to the multiple public actors in Peruvian tourism, overlapping and lack of coordination frequently arise. They also note that under the current situation, coordination is particularly complex since there is neither superior organisation nor mechanism that rules over tourism-related agencies and institutions.

There are a variety of situations where poor coordination in tourism public sector can be appreciated, however this has been especially notorious regarding the actions of INC and INRENA which undertake the tasks of preservation of cultural heritage and natural areas respectively. The decisions made by these organisations have often brought about conflicts among tourism public sector, which has perceived their actions as barriers for tourism development (Rijalba and Barrio de Mendoza, 1999). To improve coordination, the government has recently enacted the decree 002-2000-ITINCI, which forces INC and INRENA to coordinate their plans and actions with MITINCI it also creates a “Coordination Technique Committee” for this purpose.

From the point of view of tourism infrastructure, the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan (1999) argues that MITINCI, MTCVC and the Ministry of Presidency should collaborate on infrastructure planning and implementation, which will serve tourism as well as residents, industry and other sectors. To be efficient and effective, tourism infrastructure should be planned and developed in coordination with the existing infrastructure development plan.

Aside from the current administrative structure of tourism, the cross-sectoral nature of tourism calls for coordination among tourist-related organisations. The Peruvian Tourism Master Plan (1999) suggests the creation of a national coordinating mechanism called the Sub-council of Tourism Affairs within the Council of Ministers. Members of the Sub-council should be the ministers that have tourism-related Vice-ministries, sections or institutes and the representatives of these tourism-related organisations. This Sub-council, which would be led by the minister of MITINCI, will coordinate with the Ministries to guide tourism development. In addition, the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan (1999) proposes
changes in the current institutional structure at regional level in order to decentralise the tourism planning process.

Regarding tourism planning at local level, the involvement of department and district municipalities is very limited. The responsibilities given by the laws in matters of tourism and conservation to the municipal institution do not correspond to their limited budgets (Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999).

3.3.2 Intergovernmental Relationships in Cusco Tourism

As a reflection of the situation at national level, the Cusco tourism administrations is characterised by a range of diverse and disperse institutions and organisations which intervene in tourism development. Although the Regional Directorate of Industry, Tourism and International Trade (DRITINCI) is the competent authority to guide tourist activity in the region, it does have neither the power nor a mechanism to rule over the numerous tourism-related agencies. Additionally, there are a number of projects being carried out that involve national, regional and local authorities, which in several cases are developing their activities over the same area and with similar objectives.

The following tables illustrate the variety of public authorities that at different levels participate in Cusco Tourism Development.
Table 3.2: Cusco Public Authorities with Tourism-related Functions

- Regional Directorate of Industry, Tourism and International Trade
- Regional Directorate of National Institute of Culture
- Regional Directorate of Institute of Natural Resources
- Tourism Police (POLTUR- Cusco)
- Tourist Protection Service (SPT) of INDECOPI and PROMPERU
- Municipality of Cusco
- Ministry of Presidency
- MTCVC
- District municipalities
- Tourism Attorney

Table 3.3: Cusco Plans and Regional Projects related to Tourism Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project</th>
<th>Involved Authorities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Management of Urban-Regional investments in Cusco Region</td>
<td>General Directorate of Urban Development of MTC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Master Plan Project for the Historic Sanctuary of Machu Picchu (1995)</td>
<td>DRIT-Cusco, MTC, INRENA, INC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Integral Plan of Inka Region (1998)</td>
<td>COPESCO of the Ministry of Presidency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Strategic Study for Tourism Investment (1996)</td>
<td>Arthur D. Little under COPESCO of the Ministry of Presidency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Al Tur 98’</td>
<td>Tourism Programme European Union - PROMPERU</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999
3.3.3 Stakeholders in Cusco Tourism

Interest groups and individuals involved in Cusco tourism have been growing according to tourism development. However, currently their participation in tourism planning could be considered as limited. Additionally, although there is a range of associations representing different tourism-related activities, in most of the cases their representativeness is not significant.

Regarding other interest groups, recent years have seen an increased number of Non-Governmental Organisations related to tourism, environment and others activities linked to tourism.

The following lists illustrate tourism stakeholders in Cusco:

**Business Associations**

- Cusco’s Regional Chamber of Tourism (CARTUC)
- Travel Agencies Association – Cusco AATC
- Chamber of Hotels of Cusco
- Bars, Pubs, Karaoke Association
- Tourist’s Transport Association
- Canoeing Agencies Association
- Tourist Guide Association
- Chamber of Commerce
- Association of Adventure Tourism and Ecotourism (APTAE-Cusco)

**Universities and Educational Institutions**

- Universidad Nacional de Antonio de Abad del Cusco
- CENFOTUR Cusco
- Universidad Andina
Non Governmental Organisations

- Guaman Poma de Ayala

Local Community
In Cusco there is a significant group of residents who play an important role in the tourism economy being linked with tourism activities directly or indirectly, as is evident in the vast commercial sector and in the production of tourism goods and handicrafts. However, residents in general do not intervene in tourism planning.

Regarding the possibilities of involving residents in tourism planning, the tourism master plan 1999 states that there has been a traditional community-based-aid system in local communities, which indicates that local people would readily accept participatory development.

Conclusion
Although Peruvian tourism has been growing in recent years and the major causes of tourism decrease during the 1980’s and early 1990’s have been overcome, there is a range of old and new challenges that the Peruvian private and public sector will have to address in order to transform Peru into a successful tourism destination. Among those problems that Cusco particularly faces as a tourist destination and which are reflections of the national context are: a lack of coordination within the public sector and between the public and private sector, a lack of diversification of the tourist product, a highly centralised tourism planning process, and insufficient participation of the host community in tourism development.
CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to report on the methodology adopted to achieve the objectives of this research. It will show the rationale for the methodology selection as well as its limitations and relative merits. The methodological strategy comprises the following procedures:

- A critical and extensive review of secondary data.
- Qualitative research carried out through semi-structured in-depth interviews.
- A case study selection and development.

As part of the development of qualitative research, this chapter will also undertake a discussion about the sampling procedures adopted as well as the method selected in order to analyse qualitative data.

4.1 Research Design

4.1.1 A Qualitative Approach

The selection of a research method is largely determined by the nature of the research question (Creswell, 1998). In a qualitative study, the research question is often targeted towards providing 'answers' to the issues being addressed; it usually starts with a 'how' or a 'what' so that the initial advances into the topic describe what is going on. While in
contrast a quantitative research attempts to answer questions that ask ‘why’ and seek a comparison of groups or a relation between variables, with the intent of establishing an association, relationship, or cause and effect (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994 and Creswell, 1998).

In this study, the research problem is mainly concerned with an understanding of issues related to coordination and collaboration processes in Peruvian tourism planning. The research objectives seek to explore what is being done regarding collaboration in tourism planning and how this process is being undertaken by government officials, private sector and other interest groups. Thus, a qualitative research design within an exploratory approach has been considered the most appropriate in order to fulfil the objectives of the study.

The political nature of the research question (tourism policy-making) in this study constitutes another reason to select a qualitative approach. Ritchie and Spencer (1994) state that in policy research the output needs to be appropriately targeted towards providing ‘answers’ in the form of greater illumination or understanding of the issues under study.

4.1.2 An Exploratory Design

An exploratory research approach is suitable to clarify concepts, this means when the variables cannot be easily identified, theories are not available to explain behaviour of participants and need to be developed (Creswell, 1998). In such situations, extensive preliminary work needs to be carried out to gain familiarity with the problem. Therefore, an exploratory design for the purpose of this research will ensure insight into the problem area, increase awareness and develop familiarity with the possible problems that are linked to the implementation of a collaborative approach towards tourism planning in Peruvian tourism.
4.1.3 Case Study

In order to facilitate the understanding of the issues, a case study based on the most popular Peruvian tourism destination (Cusco) was chosen and developed as a part of the research strategy.

A case study is an exploration of a case over time through detailed, in depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context such as observation, interviews, audio-visual material, documents and reports. The context of the case involves situating the case within its setting, which may be a physical setting, or the social, historical, and/or economic setting for the case (Creswell, 1998).

The use of a case study for the purpose of this research had both an instrumental purpose and an intrinsic value. The focus on Cusco as tourism destination to analyse coordination and collaboration processes in tourism planning is both because of the uniqueness that Cusco represents for Peruvian tourism and at the same time, because the issues observed can be used instrumentally to illustrate problems regarding networking formation in Peruvian tourism. Regarding the distinction between an instrumental and an intrinsic case study and the difficulties of making a clear delimitation between their boundaries, Denzin and Lincoln (1998) argue that the choice of case is made because it is expected to advance our understanding of a special interest.

Cusco has a variety of characteristics that influenced selecting it as a case study:

- It has been one of the most popular Peruvian tourist destinations since 1970’s.
- The variety of cultural, natural and historical resources makes it a destination with a great tourism potential.
- Currently there is an increasing awareness among different stakeholders about the importance of tourism and the need to develop a more diversified and sustainable tourist product.
• There are multiple national, regional and local authorities involved in tourism development.

The above features of Cusco tourism are useful for an exploration of different perspectives on coordination and collaboration processes, since the amount of people directly or indirectly link to tourism are considerably large and diverse. Additionally, none of the rest of the tourist places considered at the beginning of this research clearly presented the characteristics of a ‘fragmented destination’ that Jamal and Getz (1995) recognised as a prerequisite for the use of a collaborative approach. It is a destination where fragmented and independent planning decisions by different tourism organisations are conducive to power struggles over resources.

Although observation has not been applied for the study of this case, the researcher’s previous experience in Cusco’s tourism public sector during four years played an important role in the evaluation of the data gathered through other techniques.

4.2 Research Methods

For the purpose of this study two research methods were used:

• Semi-structured interviews.
• Secondary data collection.

4.2.1 Semi-structured interview

4.2.1.1 Semi-structured interview: Justification of Use and Definition

As it has been noted in the literature review, successful collaboration in tourism largely depends on the perceptions and attitudes of stakeholders towards joint-decision processes. Therefore, there is a need to explore stakeholders’ views, opinions and experiences towards issues such as coordination, perceptions of interdependency, trust, shared visions that are
considered by academics as preconditions for collaboration. These characteristics of the questions being explored led the researcher to opt for semi-structured, in-depth interviews as the main qualitative gathering data technique.

Furthermore, Arksey and Knight (1999) note that semi-structured interview is usually used in qualitative work, where there is a need to obtain information about people's views, opinions, ideas and experiences. Although semi-structured interviews are intended to gain responses to predetermined questions, these do not contain fixed categories for responses, which allows the interviewer to improvise follow-up questions and to explore meanings and areas of interest that emerge. They also state that interviews are far better than questionnaires since they help to learn about the informant’s perspectives and about what matters to them. Regarding the effectiveness of interviews when analysing tourism matters, Yuksel et al (1999) point that they are useful in providing insights into how people think about complex issues in a tourist destination.

4.2.1.2 The Sampling Process

For the purpose of this research, sampling was an exercise of judgement, which balanced practical concerns such as time, money, and access with the research focus. Two important principles were used:

- Try to get a sample that allows the researcher to have a view of all relevant perspectives (what is relevant is closely related to the research focus).
- To increase the sample size, or the size of sub-samples that represent different perspectives.

Interviews were arranged with people in each stakeholder group (government, private sector, non-governmental organisations and consultants), so that they were broadly representative and the opinions expressed may be generalised to the stakeholder group. However, it was the researcher’s opinion and her experience in the tourism field, that
decided how many stakeholder groups to include and how many to sample from each group.

This allowed each participant to have their views heard equally, although the influence of each participant may depend on how many others are included from their stakeholder group (Yuksel et al, 1999).

The first selection of interviewees targeted those in positions that made them good 'key-informants'. These first contacts provided the researcher with names of others key-informants within a particular stakeholder group. This method of recruitment is known as 'snowballing' and it is one of the most useful techniques of sampling where small groups are the focus (Clark et al, 1998).

From a review of national and local sources, four broad stakeholder groups were identified as directly affected by Cusco tourism development. The range of stakeholder group was constrained by the need to interview a reasonable number of individuals in each group within tight resource limits. The stakeholder groups, and the number of interviews conducted for each, are shown in the following table:

Table 4.1 Composition of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>National Level</th>
<th>Regional Level</th>
<th>Local Level</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public Sector</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism Industry</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Non-Governmental</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consultants</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two officials from central, regional and local government were selected in order to reflect variations between local, regional and central government perspectives.
As can be seen, the number of participants is small due to the costs associated with this technique, especially in terms of generating and analysing qualitative data (Mason, 1996). However, a relatively small sample is considered valid when undertaking qualitative research where the intention is to explore meanings, and generalisation is not the researcher’s main goal. Arksey and Knight, (1999) argue that validity is enhanced by a sample that fits the purpose of the research and in the cases of preliminary work such as this study, opportunity samples and ‘snowballing’ are acceptable.

4.2.1.3 Conducting the Interviews

Fieldwork for this study took place during June and July 2000 in Lima and Cusco, Peru. Key-informant interviews were conducted with a mix of planning officials, private tourism sector positions and private planning consultants. The interviews included open-ended questions, which were designed to address the collaboration principles discussed in chapter 2 (see appendix 2).

Although most of the interviews were undertaken using a face-to-face procedure, due to time constraints and the fact that the researcher was not residing in the area under study, three interviews were undertaken by e-mail, using a loosely structured questionnaire with open-ended questions. Additionally, for the previously mentioned reasons, one telephone interview was carried out. All the interviews were conducted in Spanish.

The interviews sought opinions on four issues:

1. Vision of the institution regarding tourism development,
2. Coordination and collaboration among stakeholders,
3. Input from interests groups in tourism planning,
4. Constraints to and facilitators of collaboration in tourism.

Questions were open-ended in order to gain more spontaneous opinions and to avoid the potential bias from restricting responses to the researcher’s own fixed categories. The
respondents were contacted in advance (via e-mail or letter) to arrange a convenient time for an interview, to give them a list of interview themes, and to assure them about confidentiality. Face-to-face interviews took place at their place of work, were tape-recorded and lasted between 30 minutes and 1 hour.

4.2.1.4 Interview Limitations

- High costs were associated with this method partly because interview length and analysis are time consuming, and partly because the author was not resident in the study area and the expenses derived from telephone calls and courier service were considerable. As a consequence, the number of participants interviewed was rather small.

- Although interviews using open-ended format reduce constraints on the opinions expressed, these responses were more difficult to categorise and interpret. This problem particularly arises when interviewees jumped from one question to another or addressed issues that were not relevant to the study.

- Another problem was the difficulty of identifying the stakeholder groups to interview. Although at local level there were multiple actors involved in tourism, either they were not part of a group that represented their interests or the group’s representativeness was not significant.

- Due to resource constraints, a researcher’s assistant undertook the face-to-face interview which brought about limitations regarding the possibility for the researcher to pose follow-up questions as well to perceive feelings derived from ‘body language’. This meant a major effort from the researcher at the time of transcribing the tapes, since tone of the voice and silence had to be carefully considered in the interpretation. However, the limitations of this procedure were lessened due to fact that the researcher’s assistant was a local professional in tourism with five years experience;
which allowed a better interview process as a consequence of the assistant’s better understanding of both the research theme and the idiosyncrasy of interviewees.

- Another issue linked to the interviews via e-mail was the short answers that the interviewees offered in their written responses. However, this problem could be overcome through follow-up questions using e-mail communication.

- Finally it is relevant to mention that the researcher’s previous experience in the Peruvian tourism public sector served both as a limitation and an advantage; a limitation since the interviewees might have seen her as part of the government, which could have acted as a constraint to openness, especially on the part of the private sector. At the same time, the researcher’s previous status was useful for first contact and access to governmental officials and national tourism associations.

4.2.2 Secondary Data Collection

4.2.2.1 Secondary Data Collection: Justification of Use, Definition and Process

Secondary data collection was carried out for two reasons, first to build the theoretical framework under which the research problem was analysed and second, to gain familiarity with the characteristics of the selected setting.

The choice of secondary data collection was based on the need to establish what work has been undertaken in the particular subject and to draw any potential links between the findings of the research and existing sources of information on the topic.

In conducting secondary research, it is possible to come across data which are not necessarily relevant for the research (Veal, 1997). However, secondary sources can often provide valuable answers to certain questions in a far more cost-effective way than primary data.
Secondary data have been collected and analysed by others as opposed to primary data, which are new data to be collected during the proposed research (Clark et al, 1998; Veal, 1997). During the research, qualitative (articles in journals, press, literature, etc) and quantitative (statistical data) secondary data were used as sources of information. Some of the advantages of using this research method were the easy access to the data, the relatively low cost of obtaining vast amounts of information and the permanence and availability of the data (Denscombe, 1998).

For the purpose of this study, secondary data were collected from an extensive revision of academic and non-academic sources. Academic sources were composed of books related to tourism planning, tourism policy-making, sustainable tourism and collaboration processes; as well as tourism academic journals the most frequently consulted being: Annals of Tourism Research, Tourism Management and Journal of Sustainable Tourism.

In addition to the theoretical secondary data collection, formal and informal government-planning documents were consulted to understand the issues related to tourism planning. Goals, objectives, and policies, as well as the ways and extent to which coordination and collaboration have been, and are being, considered in the official documents were examined.

4.2.2.2 Secondary Data Limitations

Regarding limitations of secondary data, it is important to emphasise that in order to avoid bias and therefore preserve the reliability of the study, the researcher had to carefully evaluate the credibility of the sources and the procedures used to generate the original data. In addition, the extensive amount of theoretical information related to tourism planning and participation processes required long hours of reading and detailed organisation of data.
4.3 Analysing Qualitative Data

4.3.1 ‘Framework’ Approach for Analysing Qualitative Data

Material collected through qualitative methods is invariably unstructured and unwieldy. Therefore, there is a need to provide some coherence and structure to this cumbersome data set while retaining a hold of the original accounts and observations (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994). Qualitative data analysis is about detection, and the tasks of defining, categorising, theorising, explaining, exploring and mapping are fundamental to the analyst’s role. The methods used for qualitative analysis therefore need to facilitate such detection, and to be of a form which allows certain functions to be performed.

For the purpose of this research, the analysis of the interviews undertaken for meaning, salience and connections followed the ‘framework’ approach developed by Ritchie and Spencer (1994). This approach, which has been developed especially for the development of applied policy research, involves a systematic process with five analytical steps:

- familiarisation,
- identifying a thematic framework,
- indexing (applying the thematic framework or index to the interviews),
- charting (rearranging individual data from the transcripts according to appropriate thematic references),
- and mapping and interpretation (identifying key characteristics of the data and interpreting the data set as a whole).

This approach assisted in the analysis of the interviews, which focused on broad commonalities in stakeholder views rather than individual differences between and within stakeholder groups. Attention was concentrated on the broad clusters of attitudes, which linked or divided stakeholder groups.
It is important to emphasise that the features of the ‘framework’ approach, especially within the familiarisation stage, favoured this research process. Under this approach, familiarisation is vital since it involves immersion in the data: listening to tapes, reading transcripts and studying reports and documents. This stage allowed a more holistic view of the problem, especially given the fact that the researcher did not undertake direct observation.

4.3.2 Limitations of Data Analysis

During the analysis and interpretation of the data, two main limitations arose: first, translation of the transcripts was lengthy and exhausting as the researcher attempted to stick closely to interviewees' responses; second, the inexperience of the researcher made the stages of indexing and charting difficult and significantly time-consuming.

4.4 Overall Limitations of the Research Process

In order to correctly evaluate the results of this study, it is important to mention the main limitations of the research process:

- Time constraints have been an important limitation of the study since a longer research period would have allowed a greater amount of primary and secondary data collection. Interviews with others relevant stakeholder groups, such as residents and the academic community, would have added depth to the study. Moreover, a greater amount of time would have assisted in appreciating changes in the fieldwork over time, which would have given a clearer picture of the evolution of networking formation in Cusco. Finally, more time would have permitted the use of more than one case study in order to better illustrate the Peruvian situation.

- Another limitation of the research is constituted by the limited budget assigned for the research project. Money constraints did not allow the researcher to travel to the area upon which this study is based and therefore to undertake the interviews personally and
use observation as an additional research method. Face-to-face interviews and direct observation would have facilitated the analysis of the data and added richness to the diverse aspects of the research focus.

- The lack of secondary data on the tourism planning process in Peru and in Cusco acted as a constraint to the study, since it was difficult to explore the antecedents related to this issue and therefore to better assess the changes in the evolution of Peruvian tourism planning over time.

- Finally, the refusal of some key-stakeholders to participate in the interviews did not allow the researcher to access some valuable information related to local collaborative planning experiences in Cusco.

**Conclusion**

The development of a methodological strategy in order to achieve the research objectives was a difficult process that comprised different stages and combined resource limitations with the need to preserve the research focus.

While the choice of data collection techniques was a relatively straightforward process, their implementation brought about multiple issues such as problems in translation, how to sample and how to organise extensive secondary data.

Finally, it is important to note that although the research procedures have been explained in this chapter, their effectiveness and development can be assessed throughout the entire research project.
CHAPTER 5

MAIN FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the information gathered through the interviews is presented and analysed. Data are clustered into two broad groups, public sector and private sector. This differentiation is based on the need to explore the similarities and differences in perspectives, between those that regulate, guide and assist the tourism development process and the rest of the tourism stakeholders that undertake tourism activities. The findings will be cross-analysed within the public sector at national, regional and local level and between public sector and tourism industry. This type of analysis will allow exploration of the interorganisational relationships in the Peruvian tourism arena and level of evolution towards a collaborative planning approach.

The analysis is based on eleven interviews carried out with key-informants from the Peruvian tourism public and private sector, during June and July 2000 (See appendix 2). The interview is structured in four sections with a total of 8 questions. The duration of each interview was between 30 minutes and 1 hour.

This chapter has been organised in four sections, based on the four main objectives that the qualitative research intended to address:

- to identify the vision of stakeholders of Peruvian tourism development;
- to examine the extent of collaboration and coordination among tourism stakeholders;


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- to evaluate the input from the private sector and other interest groups in the tourism planning process;
- to discover the main factors that act as constraints to and facilitators of coordination and collaboration in tourism development.

Finally, for the purpose of the analysis, interviewees' opinions and perspectives are complemented and compared with official information and planning documents concerning tourism development in Cusco.

5.1 Vision of Peruvian Tourism Development

As it has been stated in the literature review, one of the most important factors for developing a collaborative approach in tourism planning is the existence of a shared vision. This will allow the stakeholders to act in a coordinate manner and direct their effort towards a common aim (Healey, 1998).

Collaboration is about realising shared visions; therefore, the starting point of the exploration process should look at the extent to which a vision is shared by the multiple actors involved in Peruvian tourism development.

5.1.1 Public Sector Vision Towards Peruvian Tourism Development

National level

The interviews revealed that respondents at this level share a similar vision of Peruvian tourism development. Respondent A (Head of Vice-Ministry of Tourism) and B (Head of Tourist Information Bureau) offered visions with a common element: “to make the Peruvian tourist product competitive”. Respondent B additionally referred to “the sustainability of the Peruvian tourist product” as a complementary element. However, in the examination of the documents provided by respondent A, “the sustainability of the tourist product” is also included in the description of his organisation’s vision. The fact that the latter element was not mentioned by interviewee A, might show that even though there is a
formal shared vision at national level, there is not yet total awareness about it among the public leaders who have to guide the process of its realisation. This lack of awareness may be rooted in the fact that interviewee A’s current actions in the government are mainly focused on ameliorating the competitiveness of the Peruvian product through its diversification and improvement of quality service, which were emphasised throughout the interview.

Regional Level

At regional level, the national vision previously described was not replicated. At this level, the public sector provided less clear and very broad responses. Interviewee C (Regional Director of Tourism) and D (Director of Executive Office of Tourist Pass) mentioned that they see tourism “as the main tool for economic development of the region”. It is relevant to note that the interviewees, in both cases, recognised tourism as the most important factor for development of the region, but they argued that it was not the sole activity that should be encouraged in order to achieve development.

Although the vision of both regional authorities were similar, it might be qualified as broad and incomplete since they did not mention which particular elements of tourism development in the region may transform tourism into an effective development instrument.

Local level

At local level, two different situations were found. While interviewee E (Mayor of Municipality of Machu Picchu), provided quite a clear picture of the future of his area; interviewee F (Head of Tourism Direction- Municipality of Cusco), argued that she sees tourism as a vehicle for the economic development without providing any elements about how tourism could contribute to the regional development.

Regarding respondent E, his institution envisions tourism as “an instrument to provide the village with higher quality of life through an organised and attractive urban development, which will simultaneously become an effective tool to make tourists to spend longer stays
in the area”. As can be observed this vision matches, in a more harmonic manner, the elements found in the vision provided at the national level, which highlighted “competitiveness” (attractive urban development for tourism activity) and “sustainability” (better quality of life for local residents) as the most significant factors of the national tourism development vision.

5.1.2 The Vision of the Tourism Industry

At national level, the analysis of the interview held with the head of the Tourist Operators’ Association (respondent G) showed that in a partial way, the tourism industry, is possibly embracing the vision depicted by the public administration, related to the need to make the Peruvian tourist product more competitive. Even though the interviewee did not use the phrase “competitiveness of the Peruvian tourist product”, he referred to a vision where the tourist product is more diversified, with improved infrastructure and quality service, which are the elements that the government representatives mentioned as necessary for achieving competitiveness.

At regional level, the interviews revealed that in Cusco, the private sector, as in the case of the regional public administration, has not yet developed a clear vision of the future of Cusco tourism. In this case, both interviewees, H (Head of Chamber of Commerce) and I (Head of Hotels’ Association), did not provide the interviewer with a vision statement. However, during the interview they mentioned that one of the problems of Cusco tourism was “the poor quality service”, which could be identified as a degree of awareness of one of the factors that makes Cusco a uncompetitive and therefore a problem that must be solved to achieve tourism development.
5.2 Coordination and Collaboration among stakeholders

5.2.1 Coordination and Collaboration between Public Sector and Tourism Industry

All respondents under this category, at all levels, stated that coordination and collaboration were important elements to achieve tourism development. The following phrases reflect most of the opinions: “It is clear for us that the tourism development of this area needs everybody’s collaboration” (respondent E) and “We (private and public sector) should work together with a unique aim, otherwise we will never achieve anything”.

Despite of the above recognition, the interviewees viewed the lack of communication between public and private sectors and the multiplicity of independent public tourism-related agencies as the major problems to be resolved in achieving tourism growth. This issue was especially emphasised at regional level. For example, one of the regional authorities (interviewee D) argued, “Here, there is a total lack of communication between public and private sector, every one follows its own path”. Respondent F stated: “There is a divorce between public and private sector”.

Although all respondents identified the need to coordinate and collaborate in order to accrue greater benefits from tourism; it was not clear what the negative consequences of poor communication are among the multiple private and public organisations. None of the respondents mentioned the possible disadvantages that this lack of interaction implies for tourism development.

It can be observed that coordination and collaboration efforts between the government and the private sector and other interest groups have emerged, in most cases, during the last five years and with the aim to address particular problems. Regarding the features of this relationship, interviewee K (Head of a Cusco’s Non-Governmental Organisation) stated that “coordination has been undertaken by multiple organisations and it has always had different levels of attention depending on the personal and sporadic concerns of the heads of these institutions towards this issue”.

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Table 5.1 summarises the current situation of coordination and collaboration between tourism private sector and public administration in Cusco. This table also links the description provided by respondents with the continuum of collaborative efforts developed by Mandell (1999). Networks refer to the development of linkages between actors where linkages become more formalised towards maintaining mutual interests.
Table 5.1: Coordination and Collaboration Efforts between Public-Private Sector.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mandell’s continuum of collaborative efforts</th>
<th>Public-Private coordination</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Linkages or interactive contacts between two or more actors</td>
<td>There is not a formal joint-body. “Coordination is undertaken in an informal way to address specific issues” (respondent C).</td>
<td>Regional and local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Intermittent coordination of the policies and procedures of two or more actors</td>
<td>Non-existent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ad-hoc or temporary task force activity among actors to accomplish a purpose or purposes.</td>
<td>Non-existent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Permanent and/or regular coordination between two or more actors through a formal arrangement to engaged in limited activity to achieve purpose or purposes.</td>
<td>There is a formal tourism council created in 1998. <strong>Members:</strong> MITINCI and Tourism Industry Associations <strong>Effectiveness:</strong> Limited</td>
<td>National</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A coalition where interdependent and strategic actions are taken, but where purposes are narrow in scope.</td>
<td>“There is a joint-body (Management Unit) created as a result of the master plan for the conservation of Machu Picchu” (respondent E) <strong>Members:</strong> Private and public sector from all levels <strong>Effectiveness:</strong> It cannot be appreciated because it has been recently created.</td>
<td>National Regional and Local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A collective or network structure where there is a broad mission and joint strategically interdependent action</td>
<td>Non-existent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Less formal Links | Less formal Links | More formal Links
• Regional Level

The above table illustrates that in general, in Cusco, coordination and collaboration are undertaken in a very loose manner and for particular purposes. The interviews revealed that a common perception among government officials is that the tourism industry in Cusco has not yet organised its interests, which limits the coordination task. One interviewee (C) argued: "There are not groups or associations with enough representativeness, we (public administration) are encouraging them to form groups in order to have valid channels of communication". On the contrary, respondent H (President of Cusco's Chamber of Commerce) argued that "the government is always trying to go far away from the industry not to commit with the problems of private sector". Regarding the perception of the private sector of the effectiveness of joint-bodies, respondent K noted that these initiatives, generally carried out by the tourism regional authority, have often ended up as "fruitless meetings".

• National Level

National level showed a closer relationship between government and tourism industry. Respondents from both groups described the relationship as good and identified the "National Tourism Council" as the formal channel for coordination. However, they also recognised that the effectiveness of this forum was limited. On the one hand, a leader of the private sector (respondent G) stated that this problem was mainly due to a lack of enough power from the Vice-Ministry of tourism regarding some specific matters. On the other hand, interviewee A, representative of the government at national level, argued as a main cause the poor private sector initiatives.

• Management Unit of Machu Picchu Master Plan

Although the situation described above shows in general terms what is being done towards coordination and collaboration at national and regional level, one of the interviewees pointed out a particular case in Cusco where these activities are being carried out in a more
comprehensive manner. The recently created Management Unit of Machu Picchu Master Plan is a joint-body composed for the organisations that formulated the Machu Picchu Master Plan which aims for the preservation of the Machu Picchu archaeological complex. This unit has the mission to achieve the objectives set in the mentioned plan and is composed of organisations from the private and public sector at all levels. The features of this body reflect a singular case in Cusco, where a strategic planning process within a collaborative approach is being carried out. This experience comprises some of the elements described in the literature as core characteristics of the strategic planning process:

✓ There is a strategic plan (Hall, 2000).
✓ Those responsible for the implementation of the plan are also those who participated in its formulation (Hall and Mc Arthur, 1996).
✓ Vision, Mission and objectives have been clearly set (Hall and Mc Arthur, 1996).

However, the effectiveness of this body can not be yet assessed due to its recently creation.

Future actions regarding coordination and collaboration between private and public sector

Currently and under the objectives of the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999, the government is developing a series of policies in order to encourage the creation of coordination joint-bodies at regional level. These organisations will aim to assist in the implementation of the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999 and address the problems derived from the poor interaction between government and tourism industry. Regarding this issue in Cusco, one of the interviewees mentioned the creation in the near future of a “commission of coordination”, formed by regional private sector associations and led by the tourism regional authority (DRITINCI).
5.2.2 Coordination and Collaboration within the Public Sector

According to the interviews, linkages within the public sector are mainly informal and have the purpose of solving particular tourism problems. The analysis of the responses also revealed that the initiative of coordination usually belongs to the tourism regional or local authorities, which usually undertake multiple coordination meetings with different public agencies. However, two cases in Cusco tourism were emphasised by the interviewees as positive experiences regarding interorganisational relationships in the public sector. One is the municipal initiative of “Oficina Ejecutiva del Boleto Turistico” (executive office of “Tourist pass”), which involves the participation of three public organisations and the Cusco Church. This office manages the sales of a tourist “pass” to visit 14 archaeological monuments and their conservation. The second public joint-body is “La Comision de Defensa al Turista” (protection tourist commission) which is led by the regional tourism authority (DRITINCI) and is formed by five different public sector organisations. This group coordinates control tasks regarding tourists’ safety and security and quality standards of tourism businesses.

Additionally, one of the regional authorities mentioned the creation of a “Commission of Coordination” (similar to the one created for the coordination with the tourism industry) composed of the regional public authorities with tourism-related functions and led by DRITINCI.

Table 5.2 portrays the main findings regarding the relationships within the public sector (tourism-related agencies) and links the results with Mandell’s model, related to the formation of networks between two or more actors.
Table 5.2: Coordination and Collaboration Efforts within the Public Sector (tourism-related agencies)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mandell’s continuum of collaborative efforts</th>
<th>Public sector coordination</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linkages or interactive contacts between two or more actors</td>
<td>“We use informal channels of coordination, which are usually more effective than the formal ones” (respondent A)</td>
<td>National</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermittent coordination of the policies and procedures of two or more actors</td>
<td>There is a Multi-sector Commission for tourist protection. Members: Tourism Attorney, Tourism Police, Municipal Police, Health Regional Department, and DRITINCI. Effectiveness “we have managed to use a unique procedure to undertake the control of tourism businesses”</td>
<td>Regional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ad-hoc or temporary task force activity among actors to accomplish a purpose or purposes.</td>
<td>Every authority carries out varied coordination efforts with different sectors in order to undertake specific tasks. For example interviewee F mentioned four different regular meetings with members of the public sector to address specific tourism issues.</td>
<td>Regional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent and/or regular coordination between two or more actors through a formal arrangement to engaged in limited activity to achieve purpose or purposes.</td>
<td>“Executive Office of Tourist Pass” is a joint-body that manages the sales of a tourist “pass” to visit 14 archaeological monuments and their conservation. Members: INC, DRITINCI, and Municipality of Cusco and Cusco’s Church.</td>
<td>Regional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A coalition where interdependent and strategic actions are taken, but where purposes are narrow in scope.</td>
<td>Non-existent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A collective or network structure where there is a broad mission and joint strategically interdependent action</td>
<td>Non-existent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3 Input from Interest Groups in the Tourism Planning Process

In order to explore the extent to which the private sector and other interest groups participate in tourism planning, this section is divided into two elements:

- Input from private sector and other interest groups in the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan, 1999 and;

- Collaborative experiences of tourism planning in Cusco.

5.3.1 Input from Private Sector and other Interest Groups in the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan, 1999

- Public Sector Perspective

The public sector, especially at national and regional level, asserted that there was an important participation from the private sector and other interest groups in the design and implementation of the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan, 1999. The interviewees emphasised that the design of the plan comprised the development of tourist region zones, therefore, the decentralisation of decision-making is an element that has been considered in the implementation of the plan.

Regarding this issue, the head of the Vice-Ministry of Tourism (respondent A) recognised that the only way to ensure the sustainability of the Peruvian tourist product is through the participation of the host communities: “The community must be involved in tourism development in different ways. If the people do not perceive the benefits derived from tourism, this will fail. They should feel that they participate and at the same time that receive the benefits from this involvement.”
• Private Sector and other Interest Groups’ Perspective

At national level, the private sector recognised their participation in the design of the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan, 1999. The representative of the Tour Operators’ Association (APOTUR) stated that they consider the plan to be valuable and as a good starting point.

Respondent J (private tourism consultant) pointed out that, generally, the private sector has an advisory role in its relationship with government, however, he also recognised that there is poor monitoring of the joint-decisions reached in coordination meetings.

On the contrary, from the regional point, all the interviewees affirmed that they had not been involved as a group in the design of the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999. The following statement of interviewee K (Head of a Cusco’s Non-governmental organisation) reveals a common perspective among the respondents: “Regarding the elaboration of the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999, the government did not consult in an organised manner the local institutions or private sector associations. We know there has been participation of some individuals, but we do not know under which criteria these people were selected”.

5.3.2 Collaborative Experiences in Tourism Planning in Cusco

• Public Sector Perspective

At both national and regional level, the public officials shared the common opinion that there is a need to involve stakeholders in tourism planning. Respondent D noted, “if we aimed for the same goals, we would achieve tourism development”. Moreover, interviewees pointed to the following potential benefits of interactive planning:

• benefits of tourism would be extended to the broader community;
Chapter 5

Main Findings and Analysis of Interviews Results

- the planning process would be enriched with different ideas, opinions and perspectives;
- the sustainability of the tourist product would be ensured.

Among the barriers for involving multiple parties in tourism planning, the respondents observed:

- poor budget to undertake this type of planning;
- lack of decision-making power on the part of regional and local authorities ("planning decisions are centralised" - respondent C);
- lack of trained people to lead joint-decision making processes.

Although at national and regional level, the interviews showed that the current public administration is aware of the benefits of collaborative tourism planning, the "real life" experiences mentioned were few. One respondent (B) pointed to the most relevant effort towards collaborative planning in Cusco, the "Al Tur" project undertaken by PROMPERU and the European Community. This initiative emphasises the joint participation of the local communities and some public and private organisations. Respondent B also noted that although Al Tur has been a valuable experience, the government should provide more resources to implement a monitoring system to ensure the sustainability of the tourist product developed under this scheme.

- Private Sector and other Interest Groups’ Perspective

The interviews held with the representative of the National Chamber of Tourism revealed that at this level, the tourism industry considers as a priority the involvement of the community in regional and local tourism planning. However, the respondent could not cite any example related to this issue. He identified a lack of resources, limited decision-making and training as the major barriers to the development of a collaborative approach towards tourism planning in Peru.
In Cusco, the involvement of the multiple tourism actors in tourism planning seems to be limited. None of the interviewees could provide the interviewer with specific examples where collaborative tourism planning processes are carried out. Respondent K stated that “since 1998 when COPESCO plan started to undertake tourism planning activities, a series of coordination meetings have taken place, however, the results of these efforts cannot yet be appreciated”.

5.4 Constraints to and Facilitators of Collaboration in Tourism

5.4.1 Constraints to Collaboration

5.4.1.1 Public Sector

- Cultural barriers

One of the most common perceptions among interviewees in the public sector group was that cultural barriers deter coordination and collaboration processes and make communication difficult. This reference to “cultural barriers” addressed two different issues:

1. Cusco has a conservative society that does not easily welcome change;

2. The need among public and private sector’s leaders to gain power and public recognition makes coordination and collaboration between stakeholders difficult.

1. Conservative society

Respondents stated that the community tends to view authority as responsible for development process, not the broader community. Additionally, the interviewees expressed that Cusco is a conservative society that resists change. Respondent E argued: “Whenever there is a initiative regarding tourism development there is an immediate counteraction from the different private and public organisations.”
2. Need for public recognition

Some of the interviewees at national and regional level pointed out that in some cases, intervention in tourism development from different public and private institutions is rooted more in the need of their leaders to gain public recognition than to collaborate with the development process. This makes leaders concentrate their attention on struggles to achieve power and notoriety rather than on joint decision-making processes.

- Lack of a shared vision

Respondents at regional and national level recognised that even though nowadays there is a much clear idea among tourism stakeholders about how Cusco tourism should be, there is not yet a completely shared vision of tourism development, which leads the stakeholders in different directions making coordination unease.

- Centralisation and limited decision-making power

This barrier was raised at regional level; respondents feel that their organisations have not got enough power in decision-making, which often makes the implementation of joint decisions impossible. Interviewee C noted that, “decision-making is too centralised, there are several problems that could be solved if we had more power”. He also mentioned that the problem was not only a lack of decision-making power of the tourism regional authority but also of the other tourism-related public institutions such as INC, INRENA, which makes it difficult to put into practice the decisions reached in coordination meetings. Moreover, the respondents argued that financial limitations at lower administrative levels increase dependence on the central government.
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• **Lack of trained people in the public sector**

At national level, the interviews revealed that another possible barrier to collaborative processes in tourism is constituted by the lack of public officials with enough skills to undertake joint decision-making processes. Interviewee B noted that the low salaries in the public sector deter professionals with expertise and appropriate skills to work in public administration.

• **Limited budget of regional and local public institutions**

The regional public authorities mentioned that the limited budget assigned to regional and local institutions acts as a constraint to coordination processes, which are considered expensive in terms of money and time.

• **Lack of clear roles**

Another inhibitor to the coordination and of collaboration identified by the interviewees is the presence in the tourism sector of multiple public agencies with overlapping and unclear roles. Most of the respondents agreed that there are some public agencies with tourism-related functions that perceive themselves as independents and attempt to preserve their decision-making power towards some issues having little consideration to the goals and strategies of tourism public administration. This makes coordination and collaboration hard to achieve and negatively affects the outcome of the national tourism strategy. Interviewee A argued that, “there are some institutions’ representatives that are not interested in collaborate, because they consider their institutions as the only ones with the authority to decide on some matters. They do not want to coordinate because they think that these processes will reduce their authority on particular issues”.

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5.4.1.2 Private Sector

- **Multiplicity of public agencies with tourism-related functions**

There is a shared opinion in the private sector that there are too many public organisations involved in tourism decision-making, which sends out a series of contradictory messages to the stakeholders. This barrier is closely linked to the one mentioned by the public sector regarding lack of clear roles and competencies within the multiple public agencies.

- **Short-term objectives due to political constraints**

At regional level, respondent K stated that due to the short-term nature of the political functions of public officials, the coordination initiatives and decisions taken in meetings often are not accomplished: “Changes of public officials as consequence of elections or changes of the heads at national and regional levels, makes coordination and collaboration a sporadic and fruitless process”.

- **Poor information about tourism policies and actions by the government**

Poor information from the government regarding tourism development was considered by some of the interviewees as an important inhibitor to coordination in tourism planning. They argued that this lack of information often results in conflicts between the public and private sector, since the latter does not understand the rationale of some of the decisions taken by the former.

- **Slow decision-making process and implementation of decisions**

Respondent H (head of Cusco’s Chamber of Commerce) noted that the slow pace of the decision-making process and of the decisions reached in coordination meetings acts as a major inhibitor to collaboration.
• **Absence of a long-term strategy towards joint-decision making processes**

The lack of a long-term strategy for joint decision-making processes provokes a lack of trust in government initiatives regarding coordination and collaboration in tourism planning.

• **Lack of an organisation to lead and articulate collaborative planning efforts.**

The lack of an organisation with enough power and legitimacy to undertake the coordination task was identified by most of the interviewees as a constraint to collaboration. This might show a lack of leadership by the regional tourism authority, which may affect the outcome of its initiatives regarding collaboration.

### 5.4.2 Facilitators of Collaboration

#### 5.4.2.1 Public sector

• **Participation of the wider community in tourism development**

Particularly at regional and local level, the respondents emphasised that in order to undertake successful collaboration in tourism, the involvement of the communities where tourist attractions are located is necessary. They also pointed out a need to develop economic linkages between the residents and tourism; one of the interviewees (C) expressed that “the locals in general perceive that the ones who benefit from tourism are "outsiders", that is why they do not want to collaborate with tourism development”.

This issue is also linked to the need to develop “awareness campaigns” about tourism development among residents, which is important to developing an adequate environment for coordination and collaboration.
• Development of strategic partnerships

One of the respondents (E) at local level, identified the need of developing strategic partnerships between the public and private sector and among the private sector groups in order to accrue greater benefits from tourism.

• Clear definition of public institution roles regarding tourism decision making

As a response to the lack of clarity regarding the roles of the multiple public agencies with tourism-related functions, the interviewees noted that there is a need to redefine the roles and limits to the decision making power of these organisations. Respondent B emphasised the need to share a vision and goals that lead to the creation of a plan where responsibilities are clearly defined.

• Development of indicators in order to measure results of collaborative efforts

The development of a mechanism to measure the results of joint decision-making processes was pointed out by respondent B as a facilitator of collaborative efforts. None of the other interviewees mentioned a monitoring system or the development of indicators to feedback collaboration processes. This lack of awareness of a core element of strategic planning may show that strategic planning is not being developed at regional and local level.

5.4.2.2 Private sector

• Unification of public institutions with tourism related functions

There is a common opinion among respondents that the unification of public institutions with tourism-related roles would favour coordination. Respondents at national level stated that, for example, PROMPERU (Commission for the promotion of Peru) should not be the responsibility of the Council of Ministers but of the MITINCI.
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- An organisation to lead tourism collaboration

In Cusco, the private sector representatives interviewed agreed that a collaborative tourism planning process would be easier if they identified an authority with enough power and resources to undertake the planning process. At regional level the DRITINCI is the authority created to lead the planning process however, the opinions stated by the private sector might show a lack of recognition of this institution by stakeholders as a facilitator or convenor in the collaborative tourism planning process.

Conclusion

This chapter has illustrated the most relevant characteristics of the relationships between public and private sector regarding tourism planning activity in Peru, particularly in the area of Cusco. The issues chosen for analysis were composed of: Vision of tourism development among tourism stakeholders, coordination and collaboration between the multiple parties involved in tourism, input from the tourism industry and other interest groups in tourism planning; and constraints to and facilitators of collaboration and coordination.

The analysis of the data gathered through the interviews showed that the process of networking formation does not take place in a systematic and linear way. Moreover, the process of advancing common interest depends on a myriad of factors and circumstances that are complex and difficult to determine.

Peru, and in particular Cusco, has started to recognise the importance of collaboration and coordination in tourism development, however, the varied constraints to the implementation of collaborative process are difficult to overcome. The most important conclusions of the data analysed in this chapter will be covered in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

INTRODUCTION

This study has reviewed collaborative planning theory to assess the extent to which Peruvian tourism is using this approach as an effective tool for tourism development. It has also sought to explore the elements that may foster or inhibit the development of this approach using the Peruvian tourist destination of Cusco as a case study.

In this chapter, the main conclusions will be drawn linking the analysis of the main findings and the literature reviewed. It will also illustrate the major limitations of the research that will assist in the evaluation of the results. Additionally, it will provide recommendations for the Peruvian public and private sector as well as for those who wish to undertake further research on this topic. Finally, the implications of this study for the development of Peruvian tourism planning will be discussed.

6.1 Evaluation of the application of a collaborative planning approach

6.1.1 Factors to Assess Collaboration in Tourism Planning in Cusco

Although collaboration in tourism planning is an emergent process that does not take place in a linear and systematic way (Hall, 2000), there are a group of factors that can be used to assess the extent to which a collaborative planning process is being applied. The presence of these factors are intimately linked to the development of networks where linkages are more or less formalised towards maintaining common interests (Mandell, 1999).
Elements such as recognition of interdependence among stakeholders, feelings of trust, joint formulation of aims and objectives and others are essential in a collaborative planning approach (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Healey, 1998; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999). However, from the analysis of the main findings, it appears that Cusco tourism planning is in the first stages of networking formation and therefore collaborative tourism planning is not yet taking place.

**Recognition of interdependence among stakeholders**

One of the most important conditions for developing collaboration in tourism planning is the recognition among stakeholders that they are sharing a problem and they need each other to solve it (Waddock and Banister, 1991; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999). The main findings showed that although most of the interviewed stakeholders recognised the need for collaboration, their current actions are undertaken in most cases in a sectoral manner, and coordination takes place in a loose and informal way rather than as part of a strategic planning process. Moreover, multiple public institutions with tourism-related functions seem to view collaboration processes as a threat to their decision-making power rather than a way to pool resources to solve problems.

**Trust**

One of the most significant barriers to the development of a collaborative approach in Cusco tourism planning might be the lack of trust, on the part of most of the stakeholders in the outcomes of collaborative efforts.

Trust is one of the basic elements of understanding cooperation and conflict among stakeholders in the tourism planning process and although it is a future-oriented concept, it is based on past performance (Hall, 2000). Past experiences of coordination and collaboration processes in Cusco tourism seem not to have been successful enough to build up a bond of confidence among tourism actors. Most of the stakeholders from the private and public sector stated that collaborative efforts are constrained by the following factors:
first, lack of decision-making power of the regional authority, which makes the implementation of joint decisions difficult; second, the absence of a long-term and serious approach towards collaboration by the regional tourism authority; third, the lack of a shared vision and goals for tourism development among the multiple parties that participate in tourism.

The fact that there are few consolidated tourism associations and a considerable number of business are not associated may be considered as another signal of a lack of trust from tourism private sector in traditional institutions to solve tourism issues and advance common visions.

**Strategic planning process**

From the analysis, it appears that tourism planning is not carried out using a strategic planning procedure. A strategic planning framework is essential for the implementation of a collaborative planning approach, since this allow the joint formulation of a vision, mission and objectives, which increases the “ownership” of the plan and therefore its effective implementation (Hall and Mc Arthur, 1996). Additionally, a strategic planning process comprises a monitoring system that assists in the ongoing improvement of the plan.

The study revealed that although the policies and guidelines for Cusco development have been established in the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999 with the involvement of a group of local stakeholders, there is no joint-body that manages and monitors the implementation process.

Furthermore, regarding the involvement of local stakeholders in the design of the national plan, the results show that local groups felt excluded from this process. This might reveal the lack of an appropriate stakeholder audit, which is a vital element of a strategic planning process since it favours the acceptability of the plan and therefore its effective implementation.
Finally, the absence of a clear common vision for Cusco tourism development among the interviewed stakeholders may also illustrate the non-application of a strategic planning process.

The government as a convenor or facilitator of the collaborative process

The Peruvian tourism public administration has undergone a series of changes that imply a reduction in the extent of government involvement in tourism development as "entrepreneur" to emphasise its promoting and coordinating roles. However, it seems that it has not yet fully addressed its new role as convenor or facilitator of network formation. Hall (2000) states that under a collaborative approach, the role of the public tourism planner is to assist in the development and maintenance of networks.

The main findings showed that among Cusco tourism stakeholders there is a common perception that government decision-making is still highly centralised, which is reflected in a regional authority without sufficient power to undertake decision-making and implement joint-decisions. As a consequence, public and private groups do not recognise the regional tourism authority as the legitimate organisation to establish and guide a collaborative alliance.

Cultural ground for joint decision-making processes

One of the most difficult barriers to overcome in order to develop a collaborative tourism planning approach in Cusco is possibly constituted by cultural issues. Healey (1997) notes that there are some political cultures that provide much more fertile ground for a collaborative approach than others. The Peruvian case does not easily encourage horizontal consensus.
Evaluation of the data revealed that Cusco tourism stakeholders may hold the strong opinion that tourism development and planning is a function that must be exerted by the authority, this means, where the public authority must make the decisions. Moreover, there is a perception that since they do not carry enough decision-making power, their ideas will not be taken into account.

6.1.2 Cusco Tourism Stage in the Evolution of Networking Formation

Although the above conclusions show that Cusco tourism is not undertaking a collaborative approach towards tourism planning, there are a series of policies and initiatives that, during the last seven years, government has been implementing in order to favour cooperative relationships among tourism actors.

It is observed in the analysis of the interviews that there is a general recognition by the private and public sector of the benefits that coordination and collaboration may bring to the tourism development process. This perception might show the need among stakeholders to find forms of governance which enable them to discuss their interests and achieve their agendas (Healey, 1997).

Alongside the above positive perception of the joint-decision making processes, a new regulatory framework has been enacted by the government, which encourages coordination among public agencies and promotes the creation of joint bodies.

Furthermore, a group of initiatives in Cusco tourism could be described as positive and effective experiences of coordination and collaboration. Joint bodies such the Management Unit for Macchu Pichu Master Plan, The Executive Office of Tourist Pass and The Tourist Protection Commission are proving to be effective in solving tourism development problems and realising the goals pursued by the organisations involved.
Finally, the Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999 also can be seen as a useful tool in the development of a more comprehensive form of tourism planning, proposing the creation of tourism regions and joint decision-making bodies. Therefore, it has a more decentralised vision of tourism development and encourages more participative forms of decision-making.

The mentioned changes that have emerged as a consequence of an increased tourism activity in Peru may be qualified as the first steps towards more sustainable forms of tourism development in the Peruvian arena. However, to develop this approach within the Peruvian tourism development process will require a considerable transformation of the parameters of the current system and practices. This transformation will depend on the ability of the tourism actors to overcome the multiple constraints to collaboration, their commitment towards this form of planning and above all the capacity of the institutions and interest groups to transform collaboration into an ongoing learning process.

6.2 Recommendations for Tourism Policy-makers

Although this study is only a first attempt at exploring the development of networks in Peruvian tourism, a group of recommendations can be offered to Peruvian policy-makers and tourism industry in order to create the adequate conditions for the establishment of a collaborative planning approach. The following recommendations aim to reassess the role of the government and interest groups regarding governance in tourism domains and to encourage the development of networks in Peruvian tourism development.

- There is a need to increase awareness among tourism stakeholders about the opportunities that the creation of networks may bring to the tourism development process. This could be done through the dissemination of information on the positive experiences of collaboration and on the common problems and aims held by the different organisations in tourism. These actions will lead to a greater sense of
interdependence between tourism actors, which is a vital element for the implementation of a collaborative approach.

- To strengthen the power of local and regional government will allow regional and local organisations to influence tourism decision-making and to therefore be recognised as legitimate convenors of the collaborative process. This recommendation includes the creation of national, regional and local joint bodies where the role of the tourism authority to guide and facilitate joint decision-making and networks formation.

- It is also important to encourage cooperation within industries through industry associations and to improve existing networks between private and public sector agencies involved in research and development, education and training.

- A better understanding of cultural paradigms of Peruvian host destinations could assist in establishing a collaborative approach, since this is an emergent process where shared knowledge and understanding leads to opportunities for creative synergy and development of the capacity among stakeholders to work together.

- There is a need to establish a strategic framework for tourism planning. A strategic planning procedure will set a direction through mission, goal and objective formulation. The use of strategic planning will also permit the integration of individual programmes into a coherent plan and to establish indicators in order to evaluate the fulfilment of the objectives set. A legal framework that establishes a strategic planning process could favour the implementation of this recommendation.

- The promotion and encouragement of economic linkages between residents and tourism development constitutes another condition that must be created in Cusco tourism in
order to foster participation. A programme of incentives for the creation of local and regional business should be considered.

- The establishment of a collaborative approach to tourism planning requires training and education of the official planners and tourism authorities in order to develop their skills and knowledge about managing processes of multiparty strategic consensus building and argumentation.

6.3 Limitations of the Research and Recommendations for Further Research

6.3.1 Limitations of the Research

This study has attempted to cover the main aspects that entail the relationships among tourism stakeholders in Cusco in order to evaluate coordination and collaboration in tourism planning. However, in order to correctly assess the outcomes of this study the following limitations must be taken into account:

- The aim of this research could have been better achieved through an in-depth study of particular cases in Cusco where the collaborative approach is being undertaken, which would have provided more detailed information related to the factors that particularly influence the failure or success of this type of approach in Peru.

- The generalisation of the results of the present study may be constrained by the fact that it did not explore the situation of coordination and collaboration in other tourist regions in Peru.
The fact that the research did not include interviews with all the relevant stakeholders of Cusco tourism may have acted as a limitation in the analysis of the case study, since not all the relevant points of view could be taken into consideration.

A more detailed investigation of official documents regarding the planning process at regional level would have assisted in assessing the decision-making power of regional authorities.

Since the stakeholder groups play a significant role in the collaborative approach it would have been valuable to set a specific objective to evaluate the role of the tourism associations in the tourism development process. This examination would have provided important information about what factors may encourage or deter networking formation.

6.3.2 Recommendations for Further Research

There is a significant need in Peruvian tourism to undertake research that assists and guides decision-makers and the tourism industry towards the achievement of sustainable tourism in Peru. The following recommendations aim to be helpful advice for further research into the study of coordination and collaboration processes in Peruvian tourism development.

In-depth exploration of particular successful and unsuccessful cases of coordination and collaboration could be useful in determining the main factors that affect success and failure of the process in a particular setting. This exploration could be done over the time, which will help to determine how the external environment affects these processes.
• The concomitant use of two or more case studies in different tourism regions in Peru could help to create a more general overview of this topic in Peruvian tourism and compare the factors that influence the formation of networks in the country.

• Interviews with additional groups of stakeholders such as residents, academic community and individuals businesspersons could be helpful in the exploration of perspectives, ideas and experiences of key-stakeholders of joint-decision making processes. This broader exploration will also allow a better understanding of the cultural paradigms that surround this topic.

• A deeper exploration of the tourism associations role in Peru could be useful to evaluate the factors that encourage or deter their formation and to determine how they can contribute to the development of a collaborative planning approach.

• Finally, a triangulation of research methods such as surveys of residents and tourism businesspersons, interviews with stakeholder groups and direct observation, could help to enhance the validity of findings of further research.

6.4 Implications of the study

As a consequence of the sustained growth of tourist arrivals during the last six years, the Peruvian government has been undertaking a series of policies to foster tourism development. The Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999 and the establishment of a new legal framework for tourism activity are among the main changes that reflect the renewed importance of tourism for the achievement of national goals.

In this context, the present study argues that there are several preconditions that should be present in order to achieve tourism development on a sustainable basis. The goals set in the
Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999 may not be achieved unless the government reassesses its role, particularly at regional level in order to become the facilitator of an integrated and collaborative tourism planning process.
Appendices

APENDIX 1
Map of Peru
Organisation Chart of Regional Directorate of Industry and Tourism

Transitory Council of Regional Administration
CTAR

Regional Directorate of Industry,
Tourism and International Trade-
DRITINCI

Technical and Administrative
Office

Direction of Industry,
Handicraft and International
Trade

Direction of Tourism

Zone Offices
Organisation Chart of MITINCI

Ministry of Industry, Tourism, Integration and International

- General Office of Internal Inspection
- General secretary
- CENFOTUR
- INDECOPI
- CONAFRAN

- Public Relations Office
- Attorney's Office
- General Advisor's Office
- Special Project Registration

Vice-Ministry of Industry

Vice-Ministry of Tourism

National Bureau of Tourism

- Regulation Department
- Regulation and Tourism Policy Section

Vice-Ministry of Integration and Foreign Trade

- Tourism Development and Facility Department
- Promotion Section
- Infrastructure and Tourist's Service Section
APPENDIX 2
Questionnaire-English version

Interview Protocol – Government/Public Sector

I am conducting exploratory research into the role of stakeholders on tourism development, particularly, on tourism planning. The key objective of this research is to identify the extent to which stakeholders are actually involved in tourism in Cusco (Peru) and their influence in tourism development. Because little is known about this very important topic, your help will be greatly appreciated. Of course your answers will be totally confidential and not revealed to any other person within this, or any other organisation.

I  Vision

1. What is your organisational Vision related to Peruvian/Cusquean tourism development?

II Co-ordination and collaboration among stakeholders

2. One of your department functions is coordination. How do you undertake co-ordination and co-operation with different public sector departments e.g. National Institute of Culture, National Institute of Natural Resources, Ministry of Transport and Communications, etc; the different levels of government (National, Regional and Local); NGO’s and Communities?

Prompts:

• Who was in charge of the co-ordination?
• How often were the meetings?
• Who was involved?
• What kind of contribution they have offered?
• Are there any joint-bodies for tourism development at National/Regional/Local level?
• What was the agenda on meetings?
• What was the result or were there decisions taken?
• Whether the result of the meeting will be followed by action?
• Is there any mechanism for monitoring these results?

III Input from interests groups in tourism planning

3. Do you know any particular case where the community and other stakeholders have been involved in tourism planning?

4. What do you think about their effectiveness?
5. Which degree of local participation in decision-making in tourism planning you consider exist in Peru or Cusco?

IV Constraints and facilitators for collaboration

6. Which do you think are the most important constraints for coordination and collaboration in Peruvian tourism development, particularly on planning process?

7. Do you have any suggestion as to how these constraints can be overcome?

8. Which do you think are the main characteristics of the Peruvian/Cusquean society that could foster participation in tourism?

9. Finally, would you like to make any additional comment, concerning this topic that has not been covered in this interview?
Interview Protocol – Private Sector & NGO/Consultants

I am conducting exploratory research into the role of stakeholders on tourism development, particularly, on tourism planning. The key objective of this research is to identify the extent to which stakeholders are actually involved in tourism in Cusco (Peru) and their influence in tourism development. Because little is known about this very important topic, your help will be greatly appreciated. Of course your answers will be totally confidential and not revealed to any other person within this, or any other organisation.

I  Vision

1. What is your organisational Vision related to Peruvian/Cusquean tourism development?

II  Co-ordination and collaboration among stakeholders

2. One of the government functions is that of coordination with private sector. Could you tell us about your experience in this sense?

Prompts:

- Have you ever been invited to attend a co-ordination meeting by the government?
- Who was responsible for co-ordination?
- How often were the meetings held?
- Who was involved?
- What was your contribution to these meetings?
- What was the agenda of the meetings?
- What was the result of the meetings or were there decisions taken?
- Whether the result of the meeting will be followed by action?
- Is there any mechanism for monitoring these results?
- Do you know about any joint bodies for tourism development in Cusco or at national level?

III  Input from interests groups in tourism planning

3. Have your organisation ever been consulted by the government on tourism planning?

Prompts:

- In which stage of the planning process were you consulted?
- Which kind of contribution you provided?
Appendices

- Within which type of mechanism have you been consulted? e.g. survey, workshop, committee, etc.
- Were your opinions taken into consideration?

4. Were your organisation consulted during the elaboration of Peruvian Tourism Master Plan 1999? If yes, in which form were you consulted?

IV Constraints and facilitators for collaboration

5. Which do you think are the most important constraints for co-ordination and cooperation in Peruvian tourism development, particularly on planning process?

6. Do you have any suggestion as to how these constraints can be overcome?

7. Which do you think are the main characteristics of the Peruvian/Cusquean society that could foster participation in tourism?

8. Finally, would you like to make any additional comment, concerning this topic that has not been covered in this interview?
Questionnaire-Spanish version

Protocolo de Entrevista – Gobierno/Sector Publico

Como es de su conocimiento estoy conduciendo una investigación exploratoria a fin de identificar el grado de participación y colaboración en el desarrollo turístico Cusqueño, especialmente en planeamiento turístico. Debido a que existe muy poca investigación respecto a este tema, su colaboración es muy valiosa. Por supuesto, sus respuestas son totalmente confidenciales y no serán reveladas a ninguna otra persona en esta u otra organización.

I Visión

1. ¿Podría decirnos cual es la visión de su organización en relación con el desarrollo turístico Peruano/Cusqueño?

II Coordinación y colaboración entre sectores y grupos de interés

2. Una de las funciones del área a su cargo es la de coordinación. En este sentido, podría decirnos como lleva a cabo las tareas de cooperación y coordinación con distintos sectores p.e. INC, INRENA, Ministerio de Transportes y Comunicaciones, etc; con los diferentes niveles de gobierno (Nacional (DNT), Regional (DRIT) y Local); ONGs y comunidades?

Prompts:

- ¿Quién estuvo a cargo de la coordinación?
- ¿Con que frecuencia fueron las reuniones?
- ¿Que otras personas u organismos estuvieron involucrados?
- ¿Cuál fue la contribución hecha por los participantes?
- ¿Existen comisiones u otra clase de foro conjunto creado para tratar temas de desarrollo turístico a nivel nacional/regional/local?
- ¿Cuál fue la agenda de las reuniones?
- ¿Cuál fue el resultado, se tomaron decisiones?
- ¿Se tomaron acciones con relación al resultado de las reuniones?
- ¿Existe algún mecanismo de seguimiento con relación a las decisiones o acciones tomadas?

III Participación por parte de grupos de interés en planeamiento turístico

3. ¿Conoce de algún caso específico en el cual la comunidad y otros grupos de interés hayan estado involucrados en planeamiento turístico?

4. ¿Que piensa de la efectividad de estos casos?
5. ¿ Que grado de participación en toma de decisiones considera usted que existe en el Perú o Cusco con relación a planeamiento turístico?

IV Barreras y facilitadores de la colaboración

6. ¿ Cuáles considera que son las mayores barreras para la coordinación y cooperación en el desarrollo del turismo peruano, especialmente con relación a los procesos de planeamiento?

7. ¿ Tiene alguna sugerencia acerca de cómo estas barreras podrían ser derribadas?

8. ¿ Cuáles considera (si es que considera que existen) son las más importantes características de la sociedad Peruana/ Cusqueña que podrían facilitar los procesos de participación en turismo?

9. ¿ Quisiera hacer algún comentario final respecto a este tema que se haya tocado en la entrevista?
Protocolo de Entrevista – Sector Privado/ONG/Consultores

Como es de su conocimiento estoy conduciendo una investigación exploratoria a fin de identificar el grado de participación y colaboración en el desarrollo turístico Cusqueño, especialmente en planeamiento turístico. Debido a que existe muy poca investigación respecto a este tema, su colaboración es muy valiosa. Por supuesto, sus respuestas son totalmente confidenciales y no serán reveladas a ninguna otra persona en esta u otra organización.

I Visión

1. ¿Podría decírnos cual es la visión de su organización en relación con el desarrollo turístico Peruano/Cusqueño?

II Coordinación y colaboración entre sectores y grupos de interés

2. Una de las funciones del gobierno es la de coordinación con el sector privado. ¿Podría decírnos cual es su experiencia al respecto?

Prompts:

• ¿Ha sido alguna vez invitado a asistir a alguna reunión de coordinación con el gobierno?
• ¿Quién fue responsable de la coordinación?
  • ¿Con qué frecuencia fueron las reuniones?
  • ¿Que otras personas u organismos estuvieron involucrados?
  • ¿Cuál fue su contribución en estas reuniones?
  • ¿Cuál fue la agenda de las reuniones?
  • ¿Cuál fue el resultado, se tomaron decisiones?
  • ¿Se tomaran acciones con relación al resultado de las reuniones?
  • ¿Existe algún mecanismo de seguimiento con relación a las decisiones o acciones tomadas?
• ¿Conoce usted de alguna comisión u organismo conformado por distintos sectores con relación al desarrollo turístico de Cusco o en el ámbito nacional?

III Participación por parte de grupos de interés en planeamiento turístico

3. ¿Ha sido su organización alguna vez consultada por el gobierno con relación a temas de planeamiento turístico?
Prompts:

- ¿En qué etapa del proceso de planeamiento fue consultado?
- ¿Cuál fue su contribución en el proceso de planeamiento?
- ¿A través de qué tipo de mecanismo fue consultado? p.e encuesta, grupo de trabajo, comité, etc.
- ¿Fueron sus opiniones tomadas en cuenta?

4. ¿Fue su organización consultada durante la elaboración del Plan Maestro de Turismo 1999? Si así es, en qué forma fue consultado?

IV Barreras y facilitadores de la colaboración

5. ¿Cuáles considera que son las mayores barreras para la coordinación y cooperación en el desarrollo del turismo peruano, especialmente con relación a los procesos de planeamiento?

6. ¿Tiene alguna sugerencia acerca de cómo estas barreras podrían ser derribadas?

7. ¿Cuáles considera (si es que considera que existen) son las más importantes características de la sociedad Peruana/ Cusqueña que podrían facilitar los procesos de participación en turismo?

8. Quisiera hacer algún comentario final respecto a este tema que se haya tocado en la entrevista?
LIST OF INTERVIEWEES

Interviewee A  
Vice Ministry of Tourism-Peru

Interviewee B  
Head of Tourist Information Bureau (Promperu)

Interviewee C  
Regional Director of Tourism (Cusco)

Interviewee D  
Director of Executive Office of Tourist Pass-Cusco

Interviewee E  
Mayor of Municipality of Machu Picchu-Cusco

Interviewee F  
Head of Tourism Direction-Municipality of Cusco

Interviewee G  
Head of Tourist Operators’ Association

Interviewee H  
Head of Chamber of Commerce of Cusco

Interviewee I  
Head of Hotels’ Association-Cusco

Interviewee J  
Private Tourism Consultant

Interviewee K  
Head of Non-Governmental Organisation-Cusco
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63. Plan piloto marketing y desarrollo turistico del departamento de Cusco (1999)


