

**STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION AND THE ROLE OF LOCAL  
GOVERNMENT IN LOCAL ENVIRONMENTAL  
SUSTAINABILITY PROGRAMS: LEGITIMACY,  
SOCIAL CAPITAL, AND POLITICAL TRUST**

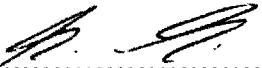
**Pornphan Hemaphan**

**A Dissertation Submitted in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy (Development Administration)  
School of Public Administration  
National Institute of Development Administration  
2016**


**STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION AND THE ROLE OF LOCAL  
GOVERNMENT IN LOCAL ENVIRONMENTAL  
SUSTAINABILITY PROGRAMS: LEGITIMACY,  
SOCIAL CAPITAL, AND POLITICAL TRUST**


**Pornphan Hemaphan**  
**School of Public Administration**


---

Associate Professor..........Major Advisor  
(Chandra-nuj Mahakanjana, Ph.D.)

The Examining Committee Approved This Dissertation Submitted in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Development  
Administration).

Associate Professor..........Committee Chairperson  
(Tippawan Lorsuwannarat, Ph.D.)

Associate Professor..........Committee  
(Chandra-nuj Mahakanjana, Ph.D.)

Assistant Professor..........Committee  
(Srisompob Jitpiromsri, Ph.D.)

Assistant Professor..........Dean  
(Pairote Pathranarakul, Ph.D.)

March 2017

## ABSTRACT

<b>Title of Dissertation</b>	Stakeholder Participation and the Role of Local Government in Local Environmental Sustainability Programs: Legitimacy, Social Capital, and Political Trust
<b>Author</b>	Miss Pornphan Hemaphan
<b>Degree</b>	Doctor of Philosophy (Development Administration)
<b>Year</b>	2016

---

An extensive literature on local environmental sustainability has addressed the importance of governments more broadly, and local governments particularly, in terms of playing a leading role in managing and safeguarding local environmental resources. Nonetheless, there has been very little theoretically-inspired or empirical research that has investigated how local governments should perform the role. Therefore, the major objective of the present study is to explore the role of local government, with respect to stakeholder participation, in local environmental sustainability programs. An integration of stakeholder salience and institutional theories in a way not previously seen in the prior literature provides a logical explanation not only of the cases being studied—Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city, but also of the development of conceptual framework for systematic understanding the relationship between the participation of key stakeholders and the role of local government in local environmental sustainability programs.

Given the context of local government, the qualitative approach based on the principles of constructivism was employed for this present study. In achieving the objectives of the study, in-depth, semi-structured interviews with local government representatives and a sample of key stakeholders from the two local governments were used along with other sources of evidence. The results significantly revealed that social capital, political trust, and legitimacy were the key sources explaining the

causal relationship of the participation of key stakeholders and the role of local government in local environmental sustainability programs. Based on this key finding, some considerations should be primarily addressed. First, it was found that there is the relationship between social capital and political trust in the presence of government trustworthiness. Secondly, there is a direct effect of social capital on information accessibility. Lastly, organizational legitimacy entails the relationship between the key stakeholders' participation and the role of local government in local environmental sustainability programs. Not only to support the central thesis of stakeholder theory that underline the importance of managerial decisions, the findings also refine the theory of stakeholder salience in terms of specifying the condition that explains the way local governments exhibit their roles in order to maintain and enhance their legitimacy. As a result, this study can grapple with the issue of organizational dominance over self-serving compliance, which has been a slighted topic in institutional analysis, including encouraging local governments to redefine their role in building a trustworthy local government that, in turn, has a high likelihood of enhancing political trust, cultivating social capital, and strengthening civil society for moving towards local environmental sustainability goals.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my advisor, Dr. Chandranuj Mahakanjana, for her generous guidance and suggestions during the whole incredible journey of this dissertation. Furthermore, I am indebted to the NIDA for the Ph.D. scholarship grant from the Graduate School of Public Administration. Additionally, my admiration and respect go to Dr. Tippawan Lorsuwannarat, who provided support for my scholarship and took part as the dissertation committee chairperson. Without her constructive recommendations, along with the suggestions of Dr. Srisompob Jitpiomsri, the useful analytical results pertaining to the research findings would not have been possible. Meanwhile, I owe a big debt of gratitude to my former supervisor, Dr. Wiboon Boonyatharokul, who first encouraged me to pursue my doctoral degree at NIDA and continuously provided all kinds of support to me during this tough time.

There is no doubt that I am thoroughly grateful to my parents, and especially a heartfelt thank you goes to my father, who had accompanied me for the field data collection, provided his driving support, and entertained me when I was feeling blue. This reminds me that my completion of this degree cannot even be compared to their unconditional love given to me. Additionally, I am thankful to my dear friends who were beside me throughout my academic career: Dr. Ajay Thapa, Dr. Apichart Thananan, and Dr. Pimsiri Pootrakul, for their kind support during the study.

My special thanks and appreciation are extended to all of my interviewees at the two local governments being studied: Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city. Specifically, my gratitude goes to the mayor of the stated local governments; namely Mr. Narongchai and Mr. Ittipon Khunpluem. Lastly, I would like to express my deep appreciation to Mr. Thaweepong Wichaidit, the former manager of DASATA Area-III, and Pattaya Watchdog group members for their cordial collaboration in giving interviews and focus group discussion.

Pornphan Hemaphan

February 2017

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<b>Page</b>
<b>ABSTRACT</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b>	<b>vi</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b>	<b>ix</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b>	<b>x</b>
<b>ABBREVIATIONS</b>	<b>xi</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Statement of Problem	3
1.3 Objectives of the Study	7
1.4 Research Questions	7
1.5 Scope of the Study	8
1.6 Significance of the Study	8
1.7 Limitations of the Study	9
1.8 Definition of Key Terms	10
<b>CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW</b>	<b>11</b>
2.1 Theoretical Framework of the Study	11
2.2 Sustainability	14
2.3 Stakeholder Participation	25
2.4 The Role of Local Governments in Local Environmental Sustainability	47
2.5 Application of the Institutional Approach for Exploring the Role of Local Government	52
2.6 Concluding Remarks	56

<b>CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b>	<b>58</b>
3.1 Research Design	58
3.2 Research Method	61
3.3 Unit of Analysis	67
3.4 Data Collection and Methods	69
3.5 Measurement of Validity and Reliability	74
3.6 Data Analysis	75
<b>CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH FINDINGS</b>	<b>76</b>
4.1 Overview of the Case Studies	76
4.2 Outstanding Programs in Relation to Local Environmental Sustainability	90
4.3 Determination of Key Stakeholders in Local Environmental Sustainability Programs	120
4.4 The Relationships between Local Governments and Stakeholders	133
4.5 Key Factors Affecting Stakeholder Participation in the Programs Related to Local Environmental Sustainability	148
4.6 The Role of Local Governments with Respect to Stakeholder Participation in Local Environmental Sustainability Programs	167
<b>CHAPTER 5 DISSUCSION, IMPLICATION, AND CONCLUSION</b>	<b>177</b>
5.1 Discussion of the Key Findings	177
5.2 Implication of the Research Findings	213
5.3 Conclusion	223
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>	<b>227</b>
<b>APPENDICES</b>	<b>268</b>
Appendix A Comparison Table of East Coast Provinces of Thailand	269
Appendix B Interview Questions	270
Appendix C Case Study Protocol of the Local Environmental Sustainability Programs of Saensuk Municipality	272

and Pattaya City

**BIOGRAPHY**

**279**

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Tables</b>	<b>Page</b>
2.1 Key Guiding Principles of Local Environmental Sustainability and Relevant Issues	23
2.2 Application of the Aspects of Stakeholder Theory to Local Environmental Sustainability	34
2.3 Global Experiences of Local Environmental Conservation Policy	51
2.4 Types of Organization Legitimacy	55
3.1 Paradigm, Perspectives, and Group of Related Paradigms	59
3.2 Strengths and Weaknesses of Case Study Method	63
3.3 Key Informants of Saensuk Municipality and Pattaya City	69
3.4 Key Features of Semi-Structured and Unstructured Interviews	72
4.1 Tourism Statistics for Pattaya City and Saensuk Municipality from 2009 to 2011	82
4.2 Five Measures of Pattaya Maritime Safety	105
4.3 Alternatives to the Thappraya Royal Park Construction Project	118
5.1 Identification of Key Stakeholders by Stakeholder Groups in Local Government	179

## LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figures</b>	<b>Page</b>
2.1 Three Dimensions of Sustainability	18
2.2 Stakeholder Typology	27
2.3 Tourism Stakeholder Map	35
3.1 Basic Types of Case Study Design	64
3.2 Location Map of Saensuk Municipality and Pattaya City	66
4.1 Pattaya City Administration under the Pattaya City Administration Act of 1978 (B.E. 2521)	79
4.2 Strong Mayoral System	80
5.1 The Conceptual Framework of the Relationship between the Participation of Key Stakeholders and the Role of Local Government in Local Environmental Sustainability Programs	204

## ABBREVIATIONS

### Abbreviations

### Equivalence

CCGs	Cooperative Community Groups
DASTA	Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration
DMCR	Department of Marine and Coastal Resources
DoLA	Department of Local Administration
IAP2	The International Association for Public Participation
ICM	Integrated Coastal Management
LGUs	Local Government Units
MICE	Meetings, Incentives, Conference, and Exhibitions
MOI	Ministry of Interior
MoTS	Ministry of Tourism and Sports
NCPO	National Council for Peace and Order
NDC	The National Decentralization Committee
NESDB	National Economic and Social Development Board
NRE	Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment
PAO	Provincial Administration Organization
PASTA	The Plan of Action for Sustainable Tourism Development
PBTA	Pattaya Business and Tourism Association
PEMSEA	The Partnerships in the Environmental Management for the Seas of East Asia
SDS-SEA	Sustainable Development Strategy for the Seas of East Asia
TAT	Tourism Authority of Thailand
TCEB	Thailand Convention and Exhibition Bureau
UNEP	The United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCAP	The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

UNESCO

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and  
Cultural

UNWTO

The United Nations World Tourism Organization

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background of the Study

Tourism is now becoming a crucial industry in the Southeast Asia region as well as in other parts of the world because it can generate huge foreign currency earnings for the host country. As a result of tourism, the economic growth of Thailand, Singapore, Malaysia, Vietnam, Cambodia, and other countries has substantially leapt forward as compared to other less favored tourist destinations. Over the decades, the travel and tourism industry has enjoyed continued growth and has played a vital role in the fastest growing economic sectors in the world, accounting for 10% of the global gross domestic product (GDP) in 2014 as reported by the World Travel and Tourism (2015).

Thailand as a newly-industrialized country still depends heavily on the export of manufacturing products, in particular, from the top two: automobiles and accessories, and computer and accessories, which have accounted for an average of 35-40% of the national GDP. However, travel and tourism generated 19.3% of Thailand's GDP in 2014 and its benefits have spread to more people and the larger community. Even though the number of tourists visiting Thailand may not be comparable to the 50 to 80 million people annually visiting France, the United States, Spain, or China, the growth of the tourism industry in Thailand is impressive. Since 2009, the international tourists visiting Thailand have been dramatically increasing every year at a rate of 12% to 20% in 2015. Notably, in 2015 Thailand hosted nearly 30 million international tourists, or more than 20.91% higher than the 24.81 million that visited in 2014, and contributed THB 2.21 trillion to the Thai economy (Pairat Temphairojana, 2016). It is internationally known that Thailand has a wide variety of historical sites, a vibrant and friendly culture, marine and beach resources, as well as scenic countryside beauty nationwide. Particularly, Thailand has the largest number of

beach destinations compared to other Southeast Asian countries (Ministry of Tourism and Sports, 2011). These advantages have influenced the decision making of international tourists in selecting Thailand for their holiday destination and accounted for 47% of the total tourists Thailand received in 2012.

Historically, Thailand has consistently promoted tourism since the Sixth National Economic and Social Development Plan (1987-1991), resulting in a substantial boost in tourism revenue, from THB 50,000 million in 1987 to THB 123,135 million in 1992 (Harun, 2012: 90). Since then Thailand has become one of the best known international tourist destinations in the region and at the top of people's wish list. It has been well-recognized that the government policy and the plan developed by the National Economic and Social Development Board (hereafter, NESDB) were the major contributors to the country's tourism development. However, recent statistics have indicated that Thailand's tourism competitiveness has been declining (The World Economic Forum, 2013) as the result of the deterioration of natural resource-based attractions, such as marine ecosystems, beaches, and coastal resources. Many popular attractions have been destroyed, polluted, or encroached on by local people, tour operators, and business investors. In order to reverse the down trend of Thai tourism competitiveness, the NESDB in its Eleventh Development Plan, implemented during 2012-2016, put forward the sustainable development efforts and a people-centered approach to well-balanced development. Such efforts require that all stakeholders—the local government, public agencies, as well as the private sector—play a more critical role in managing their resources, aiming at achieving local environment sustainability goals from the grassroots level up.

The contradictory results of increasing international tourists visiting Thailand and the decrease in the country's tourism competitiveness have raised questions about the effectiveness of the country's tourism management. As tourism continues to grow exponentially, the urgent need to manage the destination effectively in a sustainable manner becomes a crucial consideration. Although there are many stakeholders involved in the increase of local environmental sustainability, each local government that has direct responsibility for preserving common-pool resources in its jurisdiction plays a critical role in collectively managing and advocating the participation of a wide array of stakeholders to achieve the shared goal. Therefore, the quest for finding

out how local environmental issues can be sustainably managed rests with the local governments in terms of clearly identifying their roles with respect to stakeholder participation.

Without the leading role of local government organizations, where the legitimacy of the functions and processes are originally put in place, along with the active participation of stakeholders, the natural wealth and social heritage of the tourist destinations will definitely be degraded and, as a result, the local people and stakeholders themselves will suffer the loss more than the tourists, who can return to their home countries without any responsibility for or awareness of the impacts they have created. Therefore, it is now time that all local governments take the necessary actions to promote local environmental sustainability in their localities.

## **1.2 Statement of Problem**

Realizing the significance of tourism development for Thailand's tourism industry, two distinctive tourist destinations were selected for this study as explained in the following.

### **1.2.1 Pattaya City**

Although Pattaya city has been a world renowned tourist destination and have achieved rapid economic growth, there are many problems defaming its good image, as can be seen in the newspapers and the 2011 report of Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau (Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau, 2011). These problems are briefly indicated as follows.

1.2.1.1 Public Safety Problem: Over the past few years there has been much news reported on the negative impacts of fast-growing tourism development in Pattaya city, especially regarding the issue maritime safety, which was seriously criticized in 2013 as a consequence of the statistics of 234 victims involved and 20 tourists died in boats accidents. Moreover, a survey study of the Pattaya city Administration regarding public safety in the city in 2013 indicated that the issue of public safety has become one of the most concerns by both private and local household sectors (Pattaya City Administration, 2013). As a negative consequence

affecting the overall tourism industry of the country, maritime security measures were also discussed at the national level in 2013 in order to find appropriate solutions for the problem, to prevent future accidents, and to bring back tourists' confidence and revisitation.

1.2.1.2 Public Beach Encroachment Problem: The length of the coastline of Pattaya city is about 21 kilometers, accounting for 67% of the total coastline of Chonburi province; however, there are only few beaches that attract visitors and tourists to spend their leisure time; namely, Pattaya and Jomtien beaches. Along 2.9 km. of the length of Pattaya beach that appeals to the convenience-oriented preferences of visitors and nightlife lovers, there are numerous restaurants, shopping areas, and night attractions running from North Pattaya south to the Walking Street. On the other hand, the 5.9 km. length of Jomtien beach is home to high-rise condominiums, beachside hotels, bungalow complexes, and bars and restaurants, including the watersports of jet skiing and parasailing. Adhering to the attractiveness of the two beaches, numbers of local people have realized business opportunities there and have become beachfront entrepreneurs, particularly regarding beach chairs and umbrellas operators whose businesses occupy almost 50% of the beach space according to the 2014 report of Pattaya city. Over the past several years, there have been repeated reports in the mass media about beach space encroachment and relevant issues, such as overpricing of food (Vittaya Yoondorn, 2013), and the untidiness of beach chairs and umbrellas (Beach Vendors and Local Retailers, August 21 and 23, 2014, Interview), including dishonest rental practices and scams regarding unfounded damage claims made by dodgy rental agencies.

1.2.1.3 Environmental Degradation Problem: For over decades, much of the literature and many publications have criticized the deterioration of the environmental quality of Pattaya city, such as poor Pattaya sea water (Chaiyot Yongcharoenchai, 2016) and the solid waste problem on Larn Island (Pattaya Today, 2016) as a consequence of rapid tourism development and the expansion of residential areas. Empirically, it is evident that there has been a dramatic change of land use in Pattaya city, particularly in the aspects of residential and commercial areas. According to a study of the Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration (DASTA) regarding the characteristics of land use in Pattaya city, it was indicated

that the trends of land use characteristics in the city are mainly for residential and commercial purposes due to their proportions increasing at an average of 65% in 2007 as compared to 1997. Owing to the 2003 Pattaya city Planning, the city considered itself as a high-density area for residential and/or commercial development. Although such development can help increase local economic viability, as a greater number of tourism-related businesses have been created in the city, many unresolved issues related to environmental degradation are, from time to time, raised by local residents, for example, dirtiness and loss of greenery and the neglect of city officials, according to field interviews with local people and retailers (Local People and Retailers, June 9, 2013, Interview).

### **1.2.2 Saensuk Municipality**

Unlike Pattaya city, Bang Saen beach of Saensuk municipality has confronted fewer adverse problems. The modernity and full-fledged night-life entertainment as well as all-inclusive tour programs are not their main interest of domestic tourists as compared to the friendly beachside atmosphere and delicious sea food cuisine. Although Saensuk municipality has continuously developed Bang Saen beach to cater to the increasing number of both domestic and international tourists, there have been some local concerns about the following problems.

1.2.2.1 Coastal Erosion Problem: Over the past decades, people became aware of the coastal erosion problem at the national and local government levels in association with the Krungthep Turakij newspaper report, which stated that “Along total length of 183 km. Thailand's eastern coastline, 25.14 km. had been eroded in which 5.51 meters eroded every year” (Chanjira Pongrai, 2013: 15). Additionally, an interview with the mayor of Saensuk municipality indicated that coastal erosion is one of the most critical problems of the municipality because the problem has affected not only households but also the tourism industry as a consequence of the erosion of Bang Saen beach. Further, the beach erosion has brought waste to Saensuk city, evidenced by several tons of waste per day that comes from the sea to the seashore during the monsoon season (The Mayor of Saensuk Municipality, June 13, 2014, Interview).

1.2.2.2 Decline of Blue Swimming Crab Population: It is a well-known fact that Saensuk municipality has been developed from a small fishing village where the local economy depended upon catching fish and harvesting seafood. Admittedly, one of the most economically significant marine resources of Chonburi Province and key source of livelihood for local fishers is the blue swimming crab; however, there was a continued decline of its population after the late 1990s as consequences of overharvesting of both the gravid (pregnant) crabs as well as the environmental degradation arising from the coastal developments. According to a publication of Partnerships in Environmental Management for the Seas of East Asia (PEMSEA) indicated that the harvest of the blue swimming crab from the Gulf of Thailand reached a peak of 37,281 tons in 1998, from 18,708 tons in 1985, resulting in the continuous decline of the crab population after the late 1990s. Therefore, the significant decrease in the population of blue swimming crabs has become a critical problem for many local governments in the province, including Saensuk municipality, because its consequence directly affects the local fishers and threatens the loss of their livelihood associated with the crab trade.

1.2.2.3 Hazardous Waste Problem: The hazardous waste problem traditionally found along Bang Saen beach is related to the polystyrene food containers from hundreds of beach stalls along the beach, comprised of more than 2,000 beach operators, because of their ease in use. This has resulted in a lot of hazardous waste found on the beach according to the 2012 report of Saensuk municipality, indicating that polystyrene food containers and plastic packaging represent more than 80% of the total waste collected from the Bang Saen beach (Saensuk Municipality, 2012b). At that time, the hazardous waste problem, particularly caused by polystyrene containers, was among one of the most critical issues, not only of Saensuk municipality, as it produces a negative image for a tourist destination city, but also for the Saensuk people, of whom more than 90% of the total community have reported their concern about the waste problem in the municipal meeting of Saensuk municipality held on July 3, 2014.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

This study was designed in order to create a more comprehensive view of the sustainable tourism development of local governments, based on five objectives as follows:

- 1) To determine the key stakeholders in the programs related to local environmental sustainability of local governments
- 2) To illustrate the mechanisms that facilitate the connection between local governments and stakeholders in executing local environmental sustainability programs
- 3) To identify the key factors affecting the participation of various stakeholder groups in local environmental sustainability programs
- 4) To explore the role of local governments in responding to the pressures and expectations of various stakeholder groups in terms of local environmental sustainability
- 5) To propose a conceptual framework explaining the relationship between the participation of key stakeholders and the role of local government in local environmental sustainability programs

### **1.4 Research Questions**

Adhering to the above-mentioned objectives of this study, the five research questions are indicated as follows:

- Question 1: Who are the key stakeholders in the programs related to the local environmental sustainability programs of local governments?
- Question 2: To what extent is the participation of stakeholders acknowledged by local governments?
- Question 3: What are the key factors affecting the participation of various stakeholder groups in local environmental sustainability programs?

Question 4: How do the local governments respond to the competing demands and pressures from different groups of stakeholders in terms of local environmental sustainability?

Question 5: To what extent is the participation of key stakeholders related to the role of local government in local environmental sustainability programs?

### **1.5 Scope of the Study**

The study focuses on the role of two local governments, namely Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city with respect to stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs. Based on the concept of sustainability, this study aims to purposefully investigate how stakeholders participate and what factors influence their participation, including how local governments respond to their demands, in achieving local environmental sustainability goals. Given this context, this study explores not only the role of local government pertaining to local environmental sustainability, but includes how the local government collaborates with the key stakeholders in maintaining its organizational interests over competing demands of stakeholders. With the benefits and costs that tourism creates, and the issue of power and democratic beliefs underpinning the notion of stakeholder participation, the challenge rests on local governments to respond to the conflicting demands of stakeholders. However, it should be noted that there is little sustainability literature that has identified or investigated the role of local governments with respect to stakeholder participation in executing local environmental sustainability programs.

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The significance of research themes in relation to local environmental sustainability is, in fact, important to governments more broadly, and local government specifically, in assuming responsibility for driving local environmental sustainability effort. Each local government itself has statutory functions to comply

with according to their mandates in managing tourism and environmental resources. However, those functions are not sufficient in today's world, where global challenges and technological advancement affect Thailand's tourism industry. To date, the roles and responsibilities of the local government in driving local environmental sustainability have not been well defined, and these have been confounded by issues surrounding the practical implementation of the concept. Therefore, local governments need to adopt rules and practices coupled with such external forces, including the demands and expectations of a wide array of stakeholders. In the meantime, the guiding principles of environmental sustainability place a great deal of emphasis on the leading role of the local government for conserving its natural resources with balanced benefits for all stakeholders.

Towards this end, this study aims to provide an analytical framework to explore the role of local governments with respect to stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs. Rather than merely emphasizing the local government's role, the study also attempts to identify the factors affecting stakeholder participation and the condition under which the participation of key stakeholder and the role of local government can be causally related. As such, the study can provide insights into what local governments need to do in order to further improve or develop the participation of stakeholders, at the same time, maintain its organizational interests. Consequently, the key findings of this study are expected to lay the groundwork for other local governments where tourism and environmental viability contribute to significant benefits, especially for those where local environmental sustainability is put at the forefront of their local development agenda.

### **1.7 Limitations of the Study**

The design of this study was carefully prepared; however, it is not without limitations. This study used the two cases of Pattaya city and Saensuk municipality to examine and discover the role of local government with respect to stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs. Due to their being outstanding tourist destinations located close to Bangkok, and because both are categorized in "Active beach tourism provinces" according to the Ministry of

Tourisms and Sports, the two localities were selected as the cases for study. Consequently, the results may be more applicable to the local governments grouped in the same category of tourism than other types of tourism clusters, such as cultural-based tourism provinces, event-based tourism provinces, etc.

Additionally, it should be noted that each source of evidence for the data collection, namely the documentation, in-depth interviews, direct and non-participant observations, and focus group discussion employed in this study, have its own weaknesses. Therefore, the study utilized multiple sources of evidence in order to avoid subjectivity in arriving at sound explanations and findings.

## **1.8 Definition of Key Terms**

There are some key terms frequently mentioned in the chapters, illustrated as follows:

**1) Key Stakeholders** refer to any group or individual that has, at least, the power and legitimacy attributes to be directly involved in the local government decision-making process.

**2) Local Environmental Sustainability Programs** refer the local government's programs that place a great deal of emphasis on biodiversity conservation and the carrying capacity of the ecosystem to continue providing positive impacts on social and economic viability.

**3) Relevant Stakeholders** refer to any group or individual that has one or more attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency, but is only indirectly involved in the local government decision-making process.

**4) The Role of Local Government** refers the organizational response of Saensuk municipality or Pattaya city to the pressures and/or demands of multiple stakeholders.

**5) Stakeholder Participation** refers to the extent to which different groups of stakeholders, categorized by their attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency, participate in programs related to local environmental sustainability.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter aims to provide insight into the main published work, empirical study, and the literature concerning sustainability, stakeholder participation, and the role of local government pertaining to local environmental sustainability. First, the term “sustainability” is discussed along with “sustainable development” in terms of definitions, convergences and differences, and the guiding principles underlying local environmental sustainability. Next, the approach for the stakeholder analysis is presented to provide the basis for identifying the typology of the stakeholders. Additionally, the key factors affecting the participation of stakeholders are also reviewed to reveal some of the essential components that can motivate stakeholder participation. Knowing the typology of stakeholder groups and the factors affecting their participation are insufficient to explore the role of an organization in responding to the needs and expectations of multiple stakeholders, so organizational legitimacy is thereby illustrated in the last part of this chapter in order to deliver comprehensive input for understanding the reasons why local governments respond to each stakeholder group the way they do.

#### **2.1 Theoretical Framework of the Study**

The amount of sustainability literature has pointed out the relationship of strategic management, planning in particular, and stakeholder participation through the process of sustainable development (i.e., Gunn, 1994; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2013). Notably, stakeholder participation has become a requisite element of the sustainable planning approach since the emergence of Local Agenda 21 (LA21), proposed by at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in 1992 as a global plan for the desired actions for

achieving sustainability goals. For many countries, LA21 challenges the role of local authorities to adopt policy goals that contain not only sustainable development but also collaborative processes of local communities' involvement in addressing their own sustainable futures. In Thailand, LA21 was begun in 2000 as a pilot project of the first four municipalities, namely Korat, Trang, Lamphum, and Bangkok, to receive assistance from international agencies and the central government for implementing the pilot program. The linkage between sustainable development and stakeholder participation can be traced back to the notable publication of R. Edward Freeman in 1984 entitled "Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach." Notably, stakeholder theory is rooted in the field of strategic management. In his book, Freeman (1984) dedicates two chapters to stakeholder management strategies. Later, the stakeholder theory grew into organization theory, such as institutional theory, resource dependence theory, population ecology theory, and so on. However, the fruitful contribution of Mitchell, Agle, and Wood to the theory of stakeholder salience in 1997 added to the substantial development of stakeholder theory with a model of stakeholder salience that identifies stakeholders based on their possession of one or more of three attributes: power, legitimacy, and urgency. The model offers an explanation of "the degree to which managers give priority to competing stakeholder claims" (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997: 854). Owing to the objectives of this study, the study therefore rests on the following theories:

- 1) Institutional theory
- 2) Theory of stakeholder salience

The study employs institutional theory based on the assumption that organizations (local governments) are open systems that interact with their institutional environments, comprised not only of state requirements or regulatory frameworks, but also the demands and expectations of a myriad of stakeholders. The central thesis of the institutional approach to organizational analysis rests on managing and enhancing of organizational legitimacy through the relationships within institutional environment that are infused with values, beliefs, and norms. Consequently, an organization is a product of the common understanding and shared interpretations of the acceptable norms of collective activity (Suddaby, Elsbach, Greenwood, Meyer, and Zilber, 2010). By conforming to such prevailing norms,

Oliver (1990) pointed out that organizations can increase their legitimacy. The early works on institutional theory indicated that organizations are constrained by the collective norms and beliefs of a socially-constructed system which limited organizations to initiate their choice to exhibit or “non-choice behavior” in the context of taken-for-granted norms and beliefs. However, the new institutionalism such as that of Oliver (1991) suggests that organizations can respond to the environment in a different way depending on the formulation of strategic actions, varying from conforming to resistance, whereas Suchman (1995) pointed out a variety of organizational responses are dependent upon the typology of organizational legitimacy, which rests on three primary forms of pragmatic, normative, and cognitive legitimacy.

In this light, there is opposition between old and new institutionalism as regards the ways in which organizational response is structured. In other words, the old institutionalism emphasizes non-choice behavior, while the latter focuses on the capacity of the organization to strategically respond to institutional pressures and expectations, such as the stakeholder’s claims. Additionally, there is a growing amount of stakeholder literature on organizations’ actions and responses in order to gain stakeholder support (Laplume, Sonpar, and Litz, 2008). Supportively, Donaldson and Preston (1995: 67) pointed out in their fourth central thesis of stakeholder theory that “the stakeholder theory is managerial in the broad sense as it does not simply explain only descriptive and instrumental values but included also stakeholder management.” By bridging the institutional theory and the theory of stakeholder salience, this study can further refine stakeholder theory to specify how and under what circumstances an organization can and should respond to various stakeholder groups in association with organizational legitimacy. Through the analytical analysis of legitimacy, the study can contribute to the insights into explaining how local governments maintain their dominant positions or respond to resistance during periods of uncertainty. This latter contribution will supplement the institutional approach to organizational analysis, which has been largely criticized for paying too little attention to explaining how an organization acquires and maintains its power and own organizational self-interests.

## **2.2 Sustainability**

This part of the study aims to provide a broad understanding of the concept of sustainability—its evolution and definitions, including the distinction between sustainability and sustainable development. Next, the dimensions of sustainability along with the guiding principles of local environmental sustainability are reviewed in order to lay the groundwork for understanding and operationalizing the concept of local environmental sustainability at the local level, as the main theme of this study.

### **2.2.1 Overview of Sustainability: Its Origins and Definitions**

The term “sustainability” originally came from the Latin word “sustainer” as a combination of the words “tenere” and “sus,” which refer to “hold” and “up,” respectively. The American Heritage College Dictionary (2004: 1390) defines sustainability as “the capability of being sustained.” Over the past decades, the ideas of sustainability evolved as a consequence of the United Nations (UN) Conference on the Human Environment held in Stockholm in 1972, where the conflicts between the environment and development were first acknowledged. Hence, the conference created the first significant movement to discuss sustainability at the global level in order to synthesize economic development and environmental preservation. Therefore, it can be inferred that the concept of sustainability is derived from the consideration of the possibility of environmental viability at the rate in which new natural resources are formed for continuance of the ecosystem and improvement of the quality of life for all people, both in the present and the future. Though the environmental dimension has been most considered, other relevant dimensions also came into consideration in light of the sustainability concept. For example, Osorio, Lobato, and Castillo (2005) pointed out that the sustainability concept came to assume an environmentally-relevant dimension, in which other criteria—economic, social, and cultural dimensions—came to be gradually considered. Over the past decades, sustainability has become increasingly of interest not only in scholarly and public policy debates but also in various fields of development. Along with its historical development, the sustainability concept was applied to emphasize the importance of

the aspects regarding the conservation and maintenance of natural systems in pursuit of a better quality of life.

Although there no simple, universally-accepted definition of sustainability exists, many scholars have identified the term in terms of its applicability to the context in which it is being used. For example, Pretty (2008: 447), who adopted the sustainability concept in agriculture, defined sustainability as “the need to develop agricultural technologies and practices that do not have adverse effects on environmental goods and services, are accessible to and effective for farmers, and lead to improvements in food productivity.” Additionally, when the concept is adopted in the business arena in terms of “corporate sustainability,” it refers to the capability of a business organization in gaining a long-term competitive advantage given the importance of risk management, customer and stakeholder requirements, as well as the consideration of the environmental impact. Embedded in the indicated definitions of sustainability, it is notable that there is concern not only for the environmental dimension but also the social and economic dimensions. Therefore, some scholars see sustainability as a paradigm or world-view for thinking about the future in which three dimensions—the environment, society, and the economy—are considerably balanced in pursuit of improved quality of life (i.e., Mosher and College, 2010; Schwarz-Herion and Omran, 2015). However, with the absence of an agreed definition, sustainability is generally examined in association with sustainable development; another contested concept initiated by the United Nations (UN) organization as an integrated approach to sustainability, and in terms of the multidimensional approach, sheds light on the key dimensions of environmental, social, and economic sustainability (Omann, 2004). The following sections will further explain this contested concept.

### **2.2.2 Sustainable Development and Sustainability: Convergences and Differences**

There have been many discussions on the concept and difference between sustainability and sustainable development, whether they are similar or ideologically related to each other. Though these two terms are normally used interchangeably, the discussions and debates about the two concepts and their contending position can be

widely found in much of the literature. Consequently, it was essential to address the distinction between sustainability and sustainable development for this study.

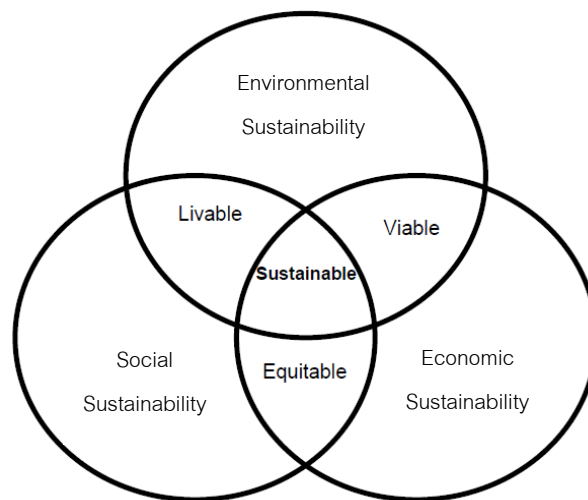
Sustainable development is a buzzword in the development paradigm (Hunter, 1997) that has appeared in diverse disciplines, such as the environment, agriculture, rural development projects, tourism, etc. Since the 1972 UN Conference, the concept of sustainable development was subsequently addressed in “Our Common Future,” a report published by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) of the United Nations in 1987. It is also called the Brundtland Report, named after the Norwegian Prime Minister, Gro Harlem Brundtland, who chaired the Commission at that time. Since then, it has become a widely-adopted definition of sustainable development as “the development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (UNWCED, 1987: 8). It is becoming clear that sustainability and sustainable development address the integration of economic, social, cultural, political, and ecological aspects (Gallopín, Funtowicz, O'Connor, and Ravetz, 2001; Gallopín, 2003 and Kates, Parris and Leiserowitz, 2005), though the two concepts are similarly derived from environmental concern. Based on the 1987 definition of sustainable development, a second similar perspective was found—intergenerational equity. As previously stated, sustainability pursues the improvement of the life-support system of humankind. Thus, it is understood that the sustainability goal is a pervasive benefit across the generations. While sustainable development emphasizes the right of each generation to inherit the same diversity of various kinds of resources, enjoyed by previous generations and used by the present generation, and to equitably access the use and benefits of such resources for future generations, sustainability pays more attention to a holistic way of thinking that respects the earth and all beings (Mosher and College, 2010). In this regard, it can be assumed that sustainability and sustainable have a similar focus pertaining to the benefits of every generation.

However, many arguments have addressed the differences regarding the disciplinary perspectives and challenges. The differences of these two are widely explained by the systems approach, where connectedness, relationships, and context are fundamental attributes (Bossel, 1999; Hediger, 1999; Gallopín, 2003). Based on the systems approach, sustainability is considered as a living system that is open to

exchanging resources and sharing information with its external environment, which is important to its functioning. In this regard, sustainability is not a static state, but it can change over time depending not only upon the changing environment (Proops, Faber, Manstetten, and Jöst, 1996) or input variables, but also upon the outputs of interest of the system considered (Gallopín, 2003). Therefore, sustainability can be considered as a multidimensional concept according to Omann (2004). Although interpretations might vary, sustainability is generally addressed in three broad dimensions: economic, social, and environmental. Consequently, some scholars, such as Harris (2003), have raised questions about equalizing objectives and assessing success or failure. According to Hediger (1999), it is impossible that these objectives can be fully achieved at the same time, and therefore trade-offs across various objectives are inescapable. However, the prioritized objectives toward sustainability goals can vary from place to place since the current problems found in one place may differ from others. In this regard, sustainability is seen as a multidimensional and normative concept based on managerial judgment (Omann, 2004). Instead of reliance on a single parameter, Omann (2004) and Cinelli, Coles, and Kirwan (2014) suggested that a multi-criteria approach is an alternative to evaluating sustainability in favor of sustainable development and is applicable to any types of organization. Therefore, in order to evaluate sustainability, we should understand each dimension of sustainability as a long-term goal through the process of sustainable development. Similarly, the study of Mebratu (1998) suggested that sustainability refers to the capacity to maintain something in a continuous state, while sustainable development involves integrative processes that seek to maintain a complex system over a long period of time. As such, one of the fundamental differences between sustainability and sustainable development is found in such a way that sustainable development serves as the processes or means for achieving sustainability, which is regarded as the goal or end of the sustainable development process. For instance, agricultural sustainability is an overarching goal for ensuring that agricultural activities can continue to provide long-term benefits to the entire society through the sustainable adaptation of agricultural technologies and practices, such as non-chemical fertilizers and the optimal use of water resources. This is consistent with an argument of Diesendorf (2000: 21): “sustainability can be seen as the goal or endpoint of a process

called sustainable development.” This difference, in turn, provides another fundamental difference—that sustainable development can complement sustainability through its process of reconciling social, cultural, and economic aspects along with environmental consideration.

Based on the above-indicated convergences and differences, the relationships of sustainability and sustainable development are most commonly explained and presented in a simple Venn diagram in which sustainable development is the process concerning three overlapping dimensions of sustainability, as shown in Figure 2.1. The overlapping of the three circles implies the interaction of the three dimensions reflecting economic, social, and environmental concerns. The core of mainstream sustainability thinking has become the idea of three pillars of sustainable development, focusing on the balance between the dimensions of sustainability (Adams, 2006; Tanguay, Rajaonson, and Therrien, 2013).



**Figure 2.1** Three Dimensions of Sustainability

Owing to the significance of the three dimensions of sustainability, the following sections aim to identify the key dimensions and intertwining relationships between them, including their interrelationship with sustainable development.

### **2.2.3 Dimensions of Sustainability**

Since the late 1980s, the concepts of sustainability and sustainable development have been commonplace. Although they are apparently similar, their conceptual foundations differ significantly, as previously explained. Based on their multidimensional concept that reflects multiple objectives at once (Omann, 2004), the three sustainability dimensions are somewhat similar to the pillars of sustainable development but with different implications—establishing a suitable balance among the three pillars of sustainable development to achieve sustainability, as follows.

#### **2.2.3.1 Economic Sustainability**

This dimension of sustainability concerns the relationships between the thriving business arena and considerations of both social and environmental viability (Giovannoni and Fabietti, 2013). As many scholars have indicated that the sustainability concept was derived from an imbalance between economic development and environmental degradation after the industrial revolution (i.e., Du Pisani, 2006), economic sustainability has been increasingly important in business discourse. Given the depletion of natural resources as a consequence of business activities and the key consideration of the sustainability concept, modern corporations are required to move towards a state in which they consume natural resources at a rate below either the natural reproduction or the development of substitutes, as to not cause emissions beyond the capacity of the natural systems or engage in activities that degrade eco-system services (Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002). This requirement is consistent with the definition of economic sustainability by the United Nations Environment Programme and the World Tourism Organization (UNEP and WTO) (2005: 9) as “generating prosperity at different levels of society and addressing the cost effectiveness of all economic activity.” Based on these requirements and definitions, it should be noted that economic sustainability encompasses not only the issue of eco-efficiency but also socio-sufficiency. From the business perspective, eco-efficiency refers to business management that aims at minimizing ecological damage while maximizing the efficiency of the production process of a given firm. On the other hand, socio-sufficiency focuses on the relationship of the firm and society in accord with its definition: “minimizing negative or maximizing positive social impacts in relation to the value added” (Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002: 136).

Along with the interpretive differences among sustainability dimensions, economic sustainability, as an important means to pursuing economic growth, is likely to outweigh social and environmental sustainability, which is more focused on improving one's quality of life and conserving natural resources, respectively. For example, a study of Beder (2002) pointed out the conflict between economic sustainability and environmental problems. In his discussion, he further suggested that sustainable development should go beyond the notion of monetary benefits but rather emphasize a new form of social decision-making that is based on the premise of the ethical and political dimensions. Further, Basiago (1999: 155) gave a possible rationale for such imbalanced conflict: "development theory has focused on matters of economic underdevelopment and poverty alleviation in developing countries, and was late in responding to unprecedented threats to the global environment." Therefore, there has been increasing attention to encompass other dimensions of sustainability along with the major concern of the environmental dimension.

#### 2.2.3.2 Social Sustainability

Although the sustainability concept was further redefined within the sustainable development debate, social aspects were not ignored. According to the 1987 most-cited definition of sustainable development addressed by WECD, it was seen that there is an effort to reconcile the needs of present and future generations. Taking into account the definition of UNEP and WTO (2005: 9) regarding social sustainability, it refers to "respecting human rights and equal opportunities for all in society." Based on this definition, it is clearly seen that intergenerational equity, a common similarity between sustainability and sustainable development, is a key issue of social sustainability. Similarly, Giovannoni and Fabietti (2013) further explained that social sustainability focuses on intergeneration equity in such a way that it gives attention to the key determinants of social equity, such as social justice, disruptive justice, and equality of conditions. In this regard, it can be said that social sustainability highlights the impotence of the entire society, particularly local communities, in maintaining their life support system, respecting each other regardless of nationality, and avoiding any form of exploitation.

Since 1992, there have been many more international conferences addressing a broader perspective of sustainable development. Among the significant conferences, the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg, South Africa called for attention to measuring the improvement of people's lives because an imbalance was found from the widespread implementation of conventional development (Adams, 2006). However, the concept of sustainable development and sustainability remains vague and the implementation heavily focuses on environmental issues (Drexhage and Murphy, 2010). Therefore, the 2002 WSSD contributed to a major shift from the environmental to the social and economic development dimensions because the sustainability concept is actually intended to encompass not only ecological concerns but also social and economic aspects. More importantly, the concept of social sustainability became concrete when the United Nations Conference on Environmental and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil was organized in 1992. The conference was also popularly known as the Rio Summit or the Earth Summit and much interest was paid to the importance of both social and environmental concerns and the political commitment to sustainable development.

#### 2.2.3.3 Environmental Sustainability

The emerging discourses regarding the concept of sustainability generally underline environmental sustainability dimension, which focuses on the relationships between humans and nature. Although the sustainability concept is considered to be multidimensional, environmental sustainability issue has been often addressed over the past decades because it was first introduced to respond to the environmental problems of that time. A number of sustainability studies based on an environmental point of view have been widely published until now. Owing to the historical development of environmental sustainability, it should be noted that there are two significant steps from which the concept was derived. First, the emergence of the UN Conference on the Human Environment and the report of the WCED entitled "Our Common Future" during the 1970s and 1980s. Further, Giovannoni and Fabietti (2013: 24) also supported the key step of the 1972 UN conference, saying that "the conference led to the development of 26 principles, most of which addressed environmental concerns; in particular, by relying on the concept of carrying capacity."

Since that time, environmental sustainability has been a growing concern on a global scale, particularly in 1992 when the Rio Summit was organized and produced a global action plan for sustainable development. This is considered as the second significant step of the development of the sustainability concept. The Summit adopted the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development and Local Agenda 21 (LA21). According to the Rio Declaration, the priorities for sustainable development were set out according to three broad pillars: 1) economic development, 2) environmental protection, and 3) social equity. These pillars imply a substantial change in moving sustainable development to the core international development debate and the wider spectrum of environmental issues that shed some light on biodiversity and resource depletion, including climate change (Adams, 2006). In addition to the clarification of the pillars of sustainable development, the LA21 was considered as a significant output of the Summit that clearly addressed the local governments' role in carrying out environmental sustainability-related projects at the local level. The LA21 highlights the most important role of local government in achieving the local sustainability goals, with backing from the larger communities and multiple stakeholders. According to the UNEP (2003: 8), LA21 is "an approach through which a local community defines a sustainable development strategy and an action program to be implemented." In order to successfully adopt LA21, the local authority is the most important initiator both in terms of introducing a comprehensive strategy that links to LA21 and in terms of providing strong leadership in promoting a participatory approach at the local level.

Regarding the definition of environmental sustainability, Goodland (1995: 3) simply refers to it as "the maintenance of natural capital." Additionally, UNEP and WTO (2005: 9) further expanded the definition in more detail as "conserving and managing resources, especially those that are not renewable, or are precious in terms of life support." In this context, it can be seen that certain actions are required for achieving not only environmental but also social and economic viability, such as the minimization of air, land, and water pollution, including the conservation of biological diversity. As Morelli (2011: 1) pointed out in his study, "environmental sustainability is the maintenance of natural capital and is a concept apart from, but connected to, both social and economic sustainability." Consequently,

local environmental sustainability programs, as a major context of this present study, refer to “the development programs of the local government in ensuring the long-term viability of natural resources in the locality, which in turn, improve local economic viability and local well-being.” Within the context of local environmental sustainability, the framework of LA21 thereby advocates ensuring that local environmental sustainability programs address key issues related to the environment, but linked to economic and social dimensions in both the short and long term. Additionally, it provides a framework for, and gives legitimacy to, the participation of a wide array of stakeholders in local the decision-making process pertaining to local environmental viability.

#### **2.2.4 Guiding Principles of Local Environmental Sustainability**

The historical development, and the convergences and differences of sustainability and sustainable development, including the sustainability dimensions proposed in the preceding sections, do provide a general understanding of sustainability but do not include guidance for clarifying the major context of this study, in which a number of local government programs are prevailing in each locality. As a result, this section aims to provide some guiding principles for the context of local environmental sustainability. Following Morelli (2011), the key guiding principles of local environmental sustainability are summarized in Table 2.1. In the meantime, the relevant issues are listed in accord with the sustainability literature regarding the indicated key guiding principles.

**Table 2.1** Key Guiding Principles of Local Environmental Sustainability and Relevant Issues

<b>Key Guiding Principles of Local Environmental Sustainability</b>	<b>Relevant Issues</b>
Societal needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Relationships of social conditions (i.e., poverty) and the appropriate levels of natural resource exploitation (Ruttan, 1991)</li> <li>▪ Development of a “sustainable community” in which quality of life and standards of living can improve without</li> </ul>

**Table 2.1** (Continued)

<b>Key Guiding Principles of Local Environmental Sustainability</b>	<b>Relevant Issues</b>
Conservation of biodiversity	<p>depletion of the natural systems on which the community depends (Corzine and Jackson, 2006)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Conservation and sustainable use of marine resources, oceans, and seas (Roberts and Brink, 2010)</li> <li>▪ Sustainable coastal fishery management (Pomeroy, 1995)</li> <li>▪ Conservation and sustainable use of marine resources, oceans, and seas (Roberts and Brink, 2010)</li> <li>▪ Sustainable coastal fishery management (Pomeroy, 1995)</li> <li>▪ Design for Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM) for sustainable tourism development (UNEP, 2009)</li> </ul>
Regenerative capacity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Carrying capacity of the ecosystem through the “limit of growth” or development with a concern for the balance between substitutability and consumption of natural resources (del Monte-Luma, Brook, Zetina-Rejón, and Cruz-Escalona, 2004)</li> <li>▪ Adaptation of the sustainable development approach for coastal management (Turner, Lorenzoni, Beaumont, Bateman, Langford, and McDonald, 1998)</li> </ul>
Reuse and recycle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Design and deliver green product innovation for the creation of ecologically-sustainable companies (Dangelico and Pujari, 2010)</li> <li>▪ Community participation in municipal solid waste management (Srivastava, Kulahreshtha, Mohanty, Pushpangadan, and Singh, 2005)</li> </ul>
Constraints of non-renewable resources and waste generation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ The link between sustainable development and nonrenewable resources as an integral component of sustainability (Shield, 1998)</li> <li>▪ The challenges of creating appropriate law enforcement for environmental sustainability (Dernbach and Mint, 2011)</li> </ul>

**Source:** Modified from Morelli, 2011.

With a major attempt to explore the role of the local government with respect to stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs, the programs outlined in this study will shed some light on one or more of these key guiding principles.

## **2.3 Stakeholder Participation**

This section aims to pinpoint the thesis of stakeholder participation in relation to local environmental sustainability. First, the definitions of stakeholder are reviewed in order to offer an understanding of the key actors in this study. Secondly, the criterion for classifying stakeholder groups, based on their three distinctive attributes, offers an analytical tool for identifying stakeholder typology. Finally different aspects of stakeholder theory are reviewed so as to address a variety of aspects in the realm of stakeholder literature. Lastly, the dilemma of conflicting interests among stakeholder groups brings management attention to the possible problem of managing stakeholder participation in practice and how to handle that problem. At the end of this section, some of the key factors affecting the participation of stakeholders are examined in order to provide insights into the factors that can influence their participation in local environmental sustainability programs.

### **2.3.1 Definition of Stakeholders**

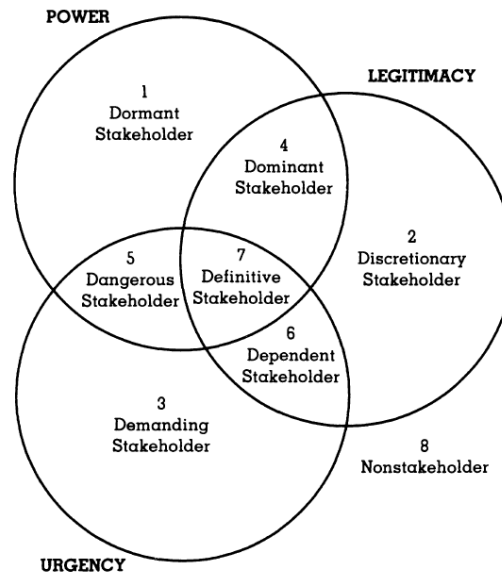
It has been widely recognized that the success of sustainable tourism development is highly related to the participation of stakeholders in the management process (Byrd, 2007). Therefore, the identification of stakeholders, varying in domain, must be addressed at the first step in order to recognize their interests and the role pertaining to the success of any development plans or initiatives.

The concept of stakeholder participation has its roots in the business management and public administration literature (Byrd, 2007). Notably, a stakeholder theory was originally introduced in 1984 by Edward R. Freeman in his book, *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*. Since that time, Freeman has been recognized as the first pioneer to precisely address the stakeholder framework. Similarly, Laplume, Sonpar, and Litz (2008) summarized that interest in stakeholder theory took

root in the field of strategic management, and then grew into organization theory (e.g. Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997, proposed the three relationship attributes of stakeholder theory—power, legitimacy, and urgency—which shed light on agency theory, resource dependence theory, transaction cost theory, as well as institutional and population ecology theories) and business ethics. More recently, stakeholder participation has begun to enter the debate and discourse on sustainable development (e.g. Steurer, Langer, Konrad, and Martinuzzi, 2005, examined how the so-called sustainable development and stakeholder management concepts are interrelated in practice). Even though there has been much stakeholder theory literature and research developed in various fields, the most popular definition of “stakeholder” is based on Freeman’s (1984: 46) now-classic definition: “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of organizations’ objectives.” Based on this definition, it can be inferred that the stakeholder can be in the form of a group or individual that has legitimate organizational interests in the achievement of the organization's objectives.

According to Mitchell et al. (1997) the definitions of stakeholders differ according to whether they take a broad or narrow view. Further, Laplume et al. (2008) viewed that a narrow view of stakeholder identification focuses on those that yield power over firms or take on risk while a broad view includes the powerless and even nonhuman entities. According to the following definitions of the stakeholder, it is assumed that the attribute of stakeholder theory is not mere “power.” Empirically, Mitchell et al. (1997) synthesized that firm managers do pay attention to certain kinds of stakeholders in order to achieve certain ends. In their analysis, a wide range of stakeholders were categorized into eight different groups depending on their cumulative attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency (see also Figure 2.2). Amongst the three attributes of the stakeholder, Mitchell et al. (1997: 863) indicated that “power and legitimacy are necessarily core attributes of a comprehensive stakeholder identification model.” According to stakeholder typology, definitive stakeholder is the most important stakeholder group for a firm and is of most concern because they have all kinds of stakeholder attributes. Similarly, Parent and Deephouse (2007) found that power has the most effect on salience, followed by urgency and legitimacy. Since that time, there have been a number of competing typologies

proposed for categorizing stakeholders (e.g. Frooman, 1999; Friedman and Miles, 2002).



**Figure 2.2** Stakeholder Typology

**Source:** Mitchell et al., 1997: 874.

In this regard, it can be inferred that Freeman’s definition provides broad perspective of stakeholder, which focuses on the individual or group of both those that “can affect” (existence of power) the organization’s achievement and that are “affected by” (no matter whether they have power or not, but have legitimacy claims) the achievement of the organization’s objectives. Given this importance, Mitchell et al. (1997) concluded that scholars that attempt to narrow the definition of the stakeholders emphasize the claim’s legitimacy; in contrast, scholars that favor a broad definition emphasize the stakeholder’s power to influence the firm’s behavior, whether or not there are legitimate claims. In summary, it is clear that no single stakeholder theory offers systematic answers to identify stakeholders that really count or explains the degree of attention paid to them by firm managers. Therefore, in order to identify stakeholder groups, this study attempts to examine not only the relative absence or presence of all or some of the stakeholders’ attributes—power, legitimacy, and/ or urgency—but also to investigate the institutionalization process as an

important mechanism that links stakeholder-organization (local government) relations.

Since Freeman's 1984 landmark work, there have been many attempts to address the definition of the stakeholder by business management scholars such as Hill and Jones (1992), Clarkson (1994, 1995), Donaldson and Preston (1995), Stoney and Winstanley (2001), and so forth. Generally, the definitions of the stakeholders and their salience are mostly discussed in much of the stakeholder literature; however, Laplume et al. (2008) pointed out that there are four other major themes in stakeholder theory; namely, stakeholder actions and responses, firm actions and response, firm performance, and theory debates. Regarding my own conclusion, stakeholder can be regarded as any group or individual that has influence on the achievement of sustainable tourism development in its locality. Further, key stakeholders are defined here as any stakeholders that can directly affect or be affected by the achievement of programs related to local environmental sustainability and need to be involved in the local government decision-making procedure. No matter what their ability is to affect or to be affected by the achievement of local government's objectives, relevant stakeholders refer to those that are not necessarily involved in the local government decision-making procedure.

In public administration, stakeholder participation can be found in the early ideas of citizen participation and public involvement, wherein the issue of power and democratic beliefs are a central thesis. These thesis call attention to a focus on exercising public power in order that collective action or decision can be built. Therefore, the public administration literature focuses on the idea that stakeholders have to be involved, and that involvement should be equal no matter the stakeholders' level of power (Byrd and Gustke, 2011). In the context of tourism, much of the literature and scholars have also affirmed that stakeholder participation is essential to the success of tourism development in a community (Murphy, 1983; Gunn, 1994; De Lopez, 2001; Davis and Morais, 2004; Byrd, Cárdenas, and Greenwood, 2008; Byrd and Gustke, 2011). UNEP and WTO (2005: 11) indicated that a necessary requirement of sustainable tourism development is "the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building." Since the emergence of LA21 in 1992, all local

governments have been encouraged to consult with their communities and to develop a vision and plan of action for the future of their locality in association with local needs and interests (Carter and Darlow, 1997) so as to increase trust in policy makers amongst local residents (King, Feltey, and Susel, 1998) and to strengthen a democratic society (Curry, 2001). In this regard, stakeholder participation means the extent to which different groups of stakeholder participate as a part of local government decision-making procedures regarding local environmental sustainability.

### **2.3.2 Categories of Stakeholder Identification**

Typically, stakeholders have been classified in two broad ways (Gomes, 2006). For example, Savage, Nix, Whitehead, and Bliar (1991) stated that stakeholders could be classified as primary or secondary. Generally, the primary stakeholders are those that have formal and economic relationships with the organization. In contrast, secondary stakeholders refer to those that have an indirect influence on or are influenced by an organization's operations. This broad stakeholder classification is widely applied to various empirical works and domains due to its ease of application.

Owing to the significance of the notable stakeholder salience theory of Mitchell et al. (1997), they proposed a model based on the three relationship attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency for identifying stakeholder salience. By combining both narrow and broad definitions of stakeholder, they provided insight into how a wide array of stakeholders can be classified into group depending upon three relationship attributes as follows.

#### **2.3.2.1 Power**

According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978: 3), power refers to “the ability of those that possess power to bring about the outcomes they desire.” It is similar to the definition of power stated by Mintzberg (1983: 4) that “it is the capacity to effect or affect organizational outcomes.”

According to Etzioni (1964), the categorization of power in the organizational setting is based on the type of resource used to exercise power: 1) coercive power, based on the physical resources or means of force, violence, or restraint; 2) utilitarian power, based on the acquisition of materials or financial

resources upon which a given organization is dependent for continuing its survival; and 3) normative power, based on the symbolic resources derived from laws, regulatory requirements, including higher ranks, to directly control the lower ranks. However, Hardy (1996) further suggested that power stems from resources, processes, meaning, and the system. In her analysis, she explains that the first dimension of power is derived from the ownership of resources—people that own certain kinds of key resources on which others depend are more likely to influence or control others regarding the desired behavior according to their will. In this regard, Mintzberg (1983: 24) articulated that resources can be in the form of physical resources, technical skill, or a body of knowledge that is critical to the organization. The second dimension of power is the decision-making process. It is the power of those that have domination over such processes and ability to coerce others by applying or not applying procedures of the organizational decision-making process. The third dimension is regarded as the power embedded in the mind of beholders which is thereby related to social and class mechanisms, and Hardy used the phrase “status quo” in explaining this kind of power. Nonetheless, it should be noted that various kinds of power are exercised in an organization. Additionally, the fourth dimension of power is related to the power that resides in an organizational system that everyone takes for granted. This kind of power lies in the unconscious acceptance of all organizational members, such as organizational values, traditions, beliefs.

By examining the definition and category of power, it can be assumed that power originally emerged from various sources and resulted in many forms. No matter how power emerged, those with more power in a society can influence or disrupt the organization or others. Therefore, stakeholders that possess power attributes are important and should receive managerial attention when conflicting interests arise. Supporting this view, Daake and Anthony (2000) indicated that the assessment of relative power levels of the stakeholder is useful not only for stakeholders in understanding their roles and responsibilities in the process of planning and implementing strategy, but also for the top management in integrating the interests of stakeholders that possess a high level of power attributes in the planning process.

### 2.3.2.2 Legitimacy

In reality, some stakeholders have a stake to claim due to their legitimacy, but are not powerful enough to gain their needs regarding particular issues. In this regard, Mitchell et al. (1997) further suggested that this stakeholder attribute is critical to a stakeholder's identification and they insisted that only actors that have this legitimate attribute can be regarded as proper stakeholders (Gomes, 2006). This is the attribute that the narrow definition of stakeholder scholars, particularly those seeking a normative aspect for stakeholder theory.

Although much work has been done on explaining organizational legitimacy, the concept of stakeholder legitimacy has received less attention (Parent and Deephouse, 2007; Santana, 2012). According to Suchman (1995: 574) legitimacy can be defined as "a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions." In his analysis, he further described legitimacy as socially constructed in that it "reflects a congruence between the behaviors of the legitimated entity and the shared beliefs of some social group." (p.573). In order to apply the concept of legitimacy to stakeholder theory, it reflects, to some extent, the normative aspect of stakeholder theory in such a way that it is related to managerial or organizational attention to determine the stakeholders that have a legitimate stake in the organization. According to Phillips (2003), legitimate stakeholders are distinguished between normatively and derivatively legitimate stakeholders. The first type of legitimate stakeholder refers to those whose stakeholder status is derived from their moral obligation, which may arise out of legal contracts. On the other hand, those whose stakeholder status is derived from the ability to affect the organization no matter if they owe legal contracts or moral obligations is considered as derivatively legitimate stakeholder. Instead of examining stakeholder legitimacy according to the types of their legitimacy, Santana (2012) pointed out the key elements of stakeholder legitimacy; namely, being a legitimate entity, having a legitimate claim, and behaving in a legitimate way. Although stakeholder legitimacy can be examined in various perspectives, it is socially constructed by management or managerial attention, and Mitchell et al. (1997) emphasized that the absence of stakeholder legitimacy can cause a stakeholder to

move from one to other types. In this regard, stakeholder legitimacy is focused on in this study in order to examine how a wide array of stakeholders are managerially involved in the local decision-making process of the programs related to local environmental sustainability.

#### 2.3.2.3 Urgency

Mitchell et al. (1997) proposed that the stakeholder attribute of “urgency” helps move the model of stakeholder-manager relationships from static to dynamic due to time-sensitivity interplaying. Even though urgency has various meanings, in terms of stakeholder theory it can be seen as a result of time sensitivity and criticality in which the relationship or claim between the stakeholder and manager is salient. Based on these two elements of urgency, they further explained that 1) time sensitivity is the degree to which managerial delay in attending to a claim or relationship is unacceptable to the stakeholder, and 2) criticality is the importance of the claim or the relationship to the stakeholder. Similarly, Hill and Jones (1992) proposed a stakeholder-agency theory in which an organization’s managers are agents for all the stakeholders involved in the organization’s decision-making process. Given the importance of their proposition, it illustrates a method of explaining the role of the manager and of understanding the relationship between stakeholders and managers that have to reconcile the conflicting interests among multiple stakeholders by making strategic decisions and allocating adequate resources. Thus, it gives way to management or decision-maker to carry out and provide immediate attention to what stakeholders claim as “urgency.” It should be noted that one element (time sensitivity or criticality) is necessary for urgency, but is not sufficient to identify a stakeholder’s claim or the manager’s relationship (Mitchell et al., 1997). Apart from managerial attention to urgency, it was clearly indicated that the existence of the organization-stakeholders relationship can help reduce the transaction costs between the organization and resource holders (e.g. Hill and Jones, 2001), which are considered here as stakeholders.

In conclusion, stakeholder salience theory provides insight into identifying who are the stakeholders of the organization, based on their three relationship attributes of power, legitimacy, urgency. As one of the major purposes of this study in identifying the typology of stakeholders, the study employed stakeholder salience

theory to classify a wide array of stakeholders involved in programs related to local environmental sustainability in different groups of stakeholder depending on their attributes. As mentioned earlier, each group of stakeholder has a different level of salience for the organization in association with their attributes. By analyzing the typology of the stakeholder, it implicitly reveals managerial attention in prioritizing stakeholders to whom local governments are given most priority in working towards local environmental sustainability and how their relationship with local governments is maintained. Supportively, it has been widely recognized that the work of Mitchell et al. (1997) contributed to streams of strategic stakeholder theory (Frooman, 1999) and the relationships between stakeholders and managerial decision making (Friedman and Miles, 2002; Gomes, 2006). According to Jones and Wicks (1999), managerial decision making is one of the essential premises of stakeholder theory.

### **2.3.3 Aspects of Stakeholder Theory**

“The stakeholder theory of the corporation: concepts, evidence, and implications” is a notable work that justified the aspects of stakeholder theory proposed by Donaldson and Preston in 1995. The study contributed the most substantial fundamental basis underpinning stakeholder theory, based on a philosophical ground, which has been cited in more than five-thousand works. The three aspects of stakeholder theory were developed to provide a clear-cut understanding of how stakeholder theory can interplay in an organization arena, namely, descriptive/empirical, instrumental, and normative aspects.

Each aspect has its own characteristics to explain the state of affairs of an organization and its stakeholders and the three aspects are nested with each other (Donaldson and Preston, 1995: 74). Given the context of sustainable tourism development, Byrd (2007) also explained how these three aspects of stakeholder theory were put into practice. By integrating stakeholder salience and institutional theories, this study encompasses the three aspects of stakeholder theory, as summarized in Table 2.2. According to Donaldson and Preston (1995), the normative aspect can be regarded as a philosophical guideline for the operation and management of the corporation, and therefore it is the fundamental core dominating the other two aspects of stakeholder theory. Based on the normative ground, the main rationale

behind stakeholder participation in any organization's activity is stakeholders' rights (Byrd, 2007). This reflects the intrinsic value of the stakeholders—the internal drives in themselves, rather than predictive (of the instrumental aspect) or descriptive (of descriptive aspect). In this regard, stakeholders that affect or that are affected by the programs related to local environmental sustainability need to participate in the local decision-making process along with their local authorities to determine the direction of the programs.

**Table 2.2** Application of the Aspects of Stakeholder Theory to Local Environmental Sustainability

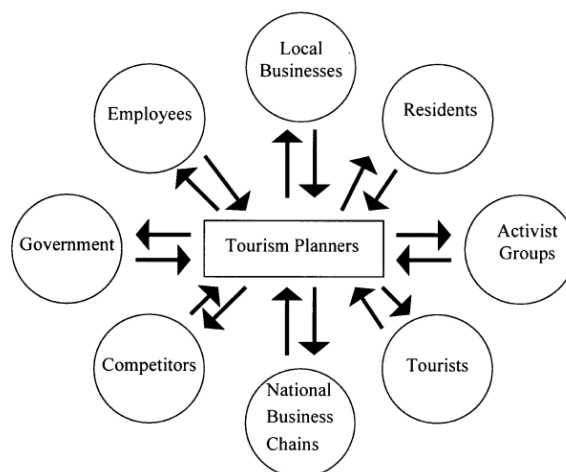
<b>Aspect</b>	<b>Value-Driven</b>	<b>Explanation</b>
Descriptive	Descriptive	To describe the current situation regarding local environmental sustainability of local governments being studied, the vision and development strategies that are related to the development and management of local environment in sustainable ways, and the programs in relation to local environmental sustainability
Instrumental	Predictive	To examine the mechanisms that facilitate the connection between the local government and stakeholders in managing local environmental sustainability programs
Normative	Intrinsic	To determine key and relevant stakeholders based on their stakeholder attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency

**Source:** Modified from Byrd, 2007.

Since the 1992 Earth Summit, public (stakeholder) participation has become something of a prerequisite and critical for sustainable natural resource management (Ghai and Vivian, 1992; Heyzer, Riker, and Quizon, 1995). However, Johnson (1997) argued that the theoretical relationship between sustainable development and public participation is far from clear and creates confusion about the conditions in which individuals can take part in collective decisions. Regarding the sustainable development concept, it implies that consideration should be given to each stakeholder group without favoring one particular group over others. This is a key

reason why some literature and research studies have acknowledged the collective dilemmas of conflicting interests among stakeholder groups. For example, Brett (1996) argued that a shortcoming of the participatory approach is the conflict between overstating benefits and understating the costs of inviting individuals to have a voice in pursuit of collective action. Further, he suggested that a sound cost-benefit analysis is possible when participatory processes are effectively associated with managerial autonomy, appropriate incentives, sanction and hierarchies.

Since the 1984 notable work of Freeman, the stakeholder model has been graphically structured to depict the relationship between the corporation (organization) and those that have a stake. Later, the model was refined by many scholars of various domains, including tourism. For example, Sautter and Leisen (1999) also adopted Freeman's model to develop a stakeholder map for the tourism development initiative, as shown in Figure 2.3. Also, they pointed out that the implementation of stakeholder management requires careful planning based on a strategic orientation—the management process to develop the direction in which an organization wants to go for the long-term success of sustainable tourism development (see also Figure 2.3).



**Figure 2.3** Tourism Stakeholder Map

**Source:** Sautter and Leisen, 1999: 316.

Additionally, Mayers and Vermeulen (2005: 2) affirmed that “stakeholder influence mapping is a tool to examine and visually display the relative influence that different individuals and groups have over decision-making.” When the stakeholder influence mapping had been done, Derrick and Nash (2012) found that there were five main stakeholders in Aviemore, Australia; namely, the government, local residents, the private sector, the tourist board, and tourists. With the past stakeholder conflict between local residents and the private sector (resort business in particular) of Aviemore, the results suggested that more communication and community involvement in the decision making of a large-scale resort were essential for solving the problem and improving the resort-community relationship.

#### **2.3.4 Dilemmas of Conflicting Interests among Stakeholders**

As earlier discussed, sustainable development can be considered as an on-going process, one that requires the essential component of stakeholder participation towards local environmental sustainability. This is the reason why the participation of multiple stakeholders is taken into account for any study regarding sustainable development. According to Gallopín (2003), ‘tourism’ can be considered as a natural capital or common pool resource. As a result, Ostrom (1990) pointed out that such resource is likely to face with the tragedy of the commons, a problem that occurs when shared environmental resources are overused and eventually depleted due to the nature of open-access resources. Ostrom (1990) further explained that common pool dilemmas arise when the rules that exists are either designed or implemented ineffectively, resulting in negative externalities of natural resources—adverse behaviors in exploiting the use of resources.

Given the importance of possible conflicting interests among stakeholders in pursuit of local environmental sustainability, consideration should be given to each stakeholder group without favoring one particular group over others. In other words, collective thinking and working should be created among stakeholder groups in the local government decision-making process. The importance and relationship between stakeholder participation and sustainable development has been addressed in some empirical studies, such as that of Ayuso, Rodríguez, García-Castro, and Ariño (2011),

who found that the engagement of internal and external stakeholder has a positive impact on a company's sustainable innovation orientation.

As previously stated, the notion of stakeholder participation emerged in the public administration discipline when issues of an imbalance in power and democratic beliefs central debate. Therefore, there has been a variety of literature and empirical evidence that have contributed to resolving the dilemmas of conflicting interests among stakeholders; some have conceptualized sound guidelines for preventing such dilemmas. For example, Bramwell and Sharman (1999) attempted to determine a framework that assessed whether local collaborative arrangements can reduce the power imbalances among stakeholders at Hope Valley in Britain's Park District National Park in the United Kingdom. Similarly, a survey research conducted by Wang et al. (2004) on residents' attitudes toward the tourism impacts on society, the economy, and the environment in the ancient village resorts of Xidi and Hong villages in China developed a model of the tourism stakeholder in order to ensure that the goal of sustainable development in the two villages was met without local conflicts. A number of prior studies have revealed that collective action in natural resource management efforts can minimize or resolve conflicting interests among stakeholders (i.e., Ratner, Meinzen-Dick, May, Haglund, 2013; Ratner, Mam, and Halpern, 2014).

### **2.3.5 Key Factors Affecting the Participation of Stakeholders**

The meaningful and effective engagement of citizens and other actors, including stakeholders in public the decision-making process, is one of the key issues facing public organizations (Stern and Fineberg, 1996), because there are many stakeholder involved depending on the characteristics of the public project being studied. Determining the factors affecting stakeholder participation is useful in that it challenges governments at all levels, particularly the local government, to take into account the determinants of stakeholder participation if collective stakeholder participation is to be an essential element in policymaking and implementation (Leach, Pelkey, and Sabateir, 2002), especially in natural resource management (Wondolleck and Yaffee, 2000). To date, there have been a number of empirical studies on collaborative stakeholder participation and some have explored the factors that influence their participation in local tourism development programs (i.e.,

Thawilwadee Bureekul, 2000; Michael, 2009; Wei, Xueyi, Yali, and Xinggui, 2012) while some have addressed the barriers to stakeholder participation in tourism development (i.e., Mustapha, Azman, and Ibrahim, 2013; Kim, Park, and Phandanouvong, 2014). As the present research objective is to identify the key factors affecting the participation of multiple stakeholders in local environmental sustainability programs, the possible factors are reviewed as follows.

#### 2.3.5.1 Government Policy Network

Policy network is an important factor in inducing the participation of government agencies, although Beach, Brown, and Keast (2008: 2) suggested that “the membership in policy network tends to be restricted due to the hierarchical control maintained over the policy agenda and processes.” In the broad sense, policy networks seek to bring together a range of separate but interdependent organizations whose contributions are mutually dependent on each other in pursuit of common goals. Admittedly, the concept of policy networks has some roots in earlier theories of interorganizational relations (Klijn, 1996), which focus on the relationship between organizations. Based on the premise that organizations are dependent for their survival on resources that other organizations possess, interorganizational relationships emerged. As the main unit of analysis for this study, local governments inevitably ignore the policy initiative determined by the higher authorities at both provincial and national levels. Consistent with the study of Oliver (1990) on the determinants of interorganizational relationships, she pointed out that “necessity” is one of the critical contingencies of relationship formation. In her analysis, necessity is defined as legal or regulatory requirements, including mandates from higher authorities such as upper-level government agencies, legislation, and the like. In very uncertain situations like those where a lack of resources is apparent, interorganizational relations are formed and working rules are created in the interorganizational field so as to maintain its predictability and stability (Leblebici and Salancik, 1982). Therefore, the compliance of a subordinate organization to the dictates of higher authorities reflects, to some extent, an organizational attempt to secure the necessary resource flow and exchanges. Significantly, there is growing empirical evidence that policy networks can influence not only the participation of public organizations but also that of private and civil society organizations for

achieving shared objectives/agenda. For example, McAllister, McCrea, and Lubell (2014) indicated that the collaborative interactions between stakeholders in the region of South East Queensland of Australia were a consequence of policy networks for regional climate change planning. Similarly, Bull (2008) found that the participation of key public officials and business representatives in Free Trade Negotiations in Chile was influenced by policy networks through the personal relationships of the public and private sectors, rather than exchange relations in which private and state actors are connected by the exchange of goods and/or information.

#### 2.3.5.2 Social Capital

During the last twenty years, social capital has rapidly become established in social research (Castiglione, Van Deth, and Wolleb, 2008) and empirical studies on civic society that mainly emphasize the importance of social relationships and networks. Because the notion of social capital rests on the everyday activities of individual experiences and their social interactions in a larger sphere like the community, associations, and institutions, Field (2008) concluded that the idea of social capital encompasses the links between the micro-level and meso-level. Taking into account the foundational contributors to the concept of social capital, there are three scholars that have been frequently cited though their concepts are somewhat similar. First is Pierre Bourdieu—a European Marxist sociologists who is interested in the persistence of social class and inequality. In his analysis, Bourdieu lays his main concern on social hierarchy in which each social group is generally rooted in economic capital but distinguished from one another by the combination of other types of capital, such as cultural or social capital, in order to gain direct access to economic resources. Concerning social capital, Bouedieu defines it as “the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition.” (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). According to Bourdieu’s definition, it makes clear that social capital is composed of two elements: first, social relationship itself that allows individuals to claim access to resources possessed by their associates, and second, the amount of quality of those resources (Portes, 1998). However, Bourdieu’s view of social capital has been criticized by some scholars as there is a little space for collective action (Portes, 1998; Field, 2008;

Tzanakis, 2013) because social capital, in his viewpoint, is considered as an asset used by elite groups to maintain their superiority by virtue of participation in groups rather than the action taken together for achieving a common objective.

The second scholar on social capital is James S. Coleman—an American sociologist that further refined the social capital concept in a more understandable way than that of Bourdieu. Their underlying premises are somewhat similar in that social capital was seen to emerge from the attempt to explain the relationships between social inequality and academic achievement. Nonetheless, they Bourdieu and Coleman have a different focal point in explaining the concept of social capital (Tzanakis, 2013). For Coleman (1988) social capital is comprised of aspect of social structure and action, according to his definition of social capital found in his publication “Social capital in the creation of human capital” in 1988. The following is a passage from that book:

A variety of different entities, with two elements in common: they all consist of some aspect of social structures, and they facilitate certain actions of actors—whether persons or corporate actors—within the structure (Coleman, 1988: S98).

According to his definition, it can be clearly seen that Coleman certainly views social capital as a capital asset for the individual but that it is built up of social structure resources (Field, 2008). Additionally, Coleman further defined his social capital’s definition in his later book in 1994 “Foundations of social theory” by including “the extent of obligations held (reciprocity expectations and group enforcement of norms)” and “the level of trustworthiness” as crucial elements generating social capital (Portes, 1998; Field, 2008). In this regard, social capital in Coleman’s view is derived from the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness among group members that prevail within a given social structure to explain how members as social actors behave in the way they do.

More importantly, the most commonly-cited definition of social capital was contributed by the third scholar, Robert Putnam, in the publication of his landmark study “Making democracy work” in 1993, which received a great deal of

influence from the theoretical framework developed by Coleman. In Putnam's analysis, drawing on two decades of empirical data collection to explain the differences between regional administrations in the north and south of Italy, Putnam significantly concluded that the relatively successful institutional performance of the northern regions was due to the mutual interrelationship between government and civil society. Owing to the fact that his background lies in political science, the early works of Putnam is based on his fieldwork in Italy and mostly focused on the role of civil engagement in generating political stability and economic prosperity (Field, 2008). Based on his work in Italy, the concept of social capital defined by Putnam shed some light on civic engagement as a key source of social capital in accord with his definition, as stated in the following:

Social capital refers to features of social organization such as trust, norms and networks, which can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating coordinated actions (Putnam, 1993: 167).

Admittedly, Putnam's definition of social capital had changed little over the 1990s, such as his refinement in the 1995 "Bowling Alone" when he switched his focus to his native United States to examine Americans' declining social capital. In this work, social capital was defined as "the features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit." (Putnam, 1995: 67). In order to compare his definitions of social capital from 1993 to 1995, it is notable that the three primary elements had not changed since 1993. They are social networks, norms of reciprocity, and trust. The three key elements of social capital included the core interests of Coleman and Bourdieu. Therefore, these key elements are used in this study as components of social capital. More importantly, Putnam's 1995 work added some refinement to prior work by introducing a distinction between two basic forms of social capital: bridging (or inclusive) and bonding (or exclusive) social capital, where the former tends to bring together people across diverse social structures while the latter maintains the homogeneity of close ties.

Over decades, there has been a reasonably large number of empirical studies on social capital that have examined it as a source of stakeholder participation in sustainable public goods and services. For example, Lam (1996) found that the joint efforts between government officials and community-based irrigation associations in Taiwan were a success due to the well-designed institutional arrangements and existence of social capital among farmer groups. The arrangement draws attention to the role of government officials in determining bureaucratic rules and the authority of irrigation associations. In the meantime, the participation of farmers as water users and irrigation associations as juristic entities formed and owned by farmer members were effectively reinforced by social capital bonding within groups, bridging with the officials to achieve mutual benefits. Supportively, Rudd (2000) significantly indicated that social capital is like a social driving force, articulating social interaction, social norms, and the institutionalization of rules that can influence collective action among groups of individuals to improve the production and provision of public goods, as with environmental preservation. Additionally, Rainey, Robinson, Allen, and Christy (2003) insisted that social capital can be seen as one of the three critical capitals of sustainable community development in the recent global economy, where competition is exponential, along with human capital and public capital in terms of infrastructure development.

#### 2.3.5.3 Political Trust

Although trust is defined in multiple ways, one of the most often-cited definition of the term comes from Levi and Stoker (2000: 476), who determined that “trust is relational; it involves an individual making herself vulnerable to another individual, group, or institution that has the capacity to do her harm or to betray her.” To some extent, trust is considered as a complex interpersonal and organizational construct (Kramer and Tyler, 1995; Duck, 1997). More importantly, trust in general has two main variants: social and political trust (Blind, 2006; Focht and Tranchtenberg, 2005). Taking into account political trust as the purpose of this section, it is widely noted that political trust is not at all closely related to social trust (Levi and Stoker, 2000; Newton, 2001; Blind, 2006). Similar to the relationship between social trust and social capital, political trust has the same theoretical relationship to political capital (Newton, 2001) which French (2011: 219) defined as

“the resource which political actors deploy to structure the incentives of other actors in society.” In order to examine political trust, Blind (2006) articulated that there were two main categories; namely organizational political trust and individual political trust. In his explanation, he illustrated that organizational political trust involves the issue-oriented perspective, in which citizens make their judgments based on their satisfaction with policy alternatives, while individual political trust involves a person-oriented perspective, whether approval or disapproval of their political leaders. Consequently, it should also be noted that both organizational and individual political trust are determined by credible policymaking (Blind, 2006) because credibility is a source of political capital (Van Zuydam, 2014) and the level of the public’s voice in the government (Fitzgeralds and Wolak, 2016). For the present purpose, political trust refers to the judgment of citizenry regarding the trustworthiness of the local governments, as institutions, and local political leaders, particularly the chief executive of the local governments being studied.

Over the years, there has been a number of studies that examined how political trust influences public participation. Generally, the literature contains two different claims: one claim is a positive relationship between political trust and participation. In other words, the higher the degree of political trust, the greater is the likelihood of public participation in government. For example, Finifter (1970) found that political alienation, which represents citizens’ attitudes toward dysfunction or the incapability of their political system, can discourage their political participation in government. Further, Fennema and Tillie (1999) found a correlation between political participation and the political trust of four ethnic groups in Amsterdam. On the other hand, the second claim argues that distrust in government, not trust, can stimulate public participation. This latter claim was articulated first by Gamson (1971: 48), who claimed that political distrust can stimulate political activity in accord with an often-cited passage: “a combination of high political efficacy and low political trust is the optimum combination for mobilization—a belief that influence is both possible and necessary.” Generally, political efficacy is generally defined as the beliefs of citizens as political actors in terms of influencing the political process. Therefore, the concept of political efficacy has played a prominent role in the studies on political behavior and political socialization (Schulz, 2005) and subsequently was classified into two

dimensions—internal and external political efficacy. Following the early works on political efficacy, internal political efficacy refers to the beliefs about one's own competence in understanding and participating effectively in politics, while external political efficacy is defined as the beliefs about the responsiveness of governmental authorities and institutions to citizens' demands (Balch, 1974; Coleman and Davis, 1976; Kahne and Westheimer, 2006).

#### 2.3.5.4 Perceived Benefits from Participation

Owing to the importance of government policy networks which explained earlier, the policy networks provide room for government institutions to favor particular stakeholders involved in the network. An existence of stakeholder participation, at least, represents the outcome of the policymaking process which is governed by democratic principles toward participatory and transparent governance. Admittedly, policy networks consist not only of public organizations, but also individuals that are bound together by personal relationships and are either directly involved in the formulation of policy or have the opportunity to influence it in important ways (Teichman, 2001). In policy networks, the policy-making process is not merely created to aggregate resources but is structured to take advantage of the fact that each participating sector brings different resources to the forefront (White, Reinicke, and Benner, 2000) for achieving policy goals in mutually-beneficial ways. Consequently, it has been widely found in a number of empirical studies that perceived future benefits are a major source of participation of the business sector. For example, Schneider (2004) significantly revealed that a first important prerequisite for business participation in trade negotiations in Latin America was their perceiving some short and medium-term benefits for their business operation. However, it can be noted that the process of public-private interaction related to trade negotiations is likely to reflect the interests of business associations as a whole through indirect representation, rather than individual business leaders. As Bull (2008) further indicated that trade associations have a more powerful influence on public policy in the current complex global economic environment than individual businesspersons because the associations occupy not only a competitive advantage but also technical expertise for meaningful participation in strengthening the capacity of, for example, Chile's government bureaucracy. In the context of environmental

conservation, it is notable that economic benefit is at the forefront of the sources of stakeholder participation, whether they are in business or not. A number of prior studies have indicated that economic benefits are a prerequisite condition to stimulating the participation of a larger community. For example, Aref and Redzuan (2009) found that economic and environmental impacts have the most significant relationship with the level of local community leaders' efforts in building the capacity of tourism development in the communities of Shiraz, Iran. However, the level of their participation was positively correlated with the level of perceived economic benefits as well. Similarly, Akarapong Untong, Mingsarn Kaosa-ard, Ramos, Korawan Sangkakorn, and Rey-Maqueira (2010) significantly revealed that the economic impact of tourism, such as local employment opportunities and income generation, was the main factor influencing local resident support for tourism development, though the magnitude of influence varies according to the tourism destination being studied in Thailand: Phuket, Chiang Mai, Pattaya, and Pai.

#### 2.3.5.5 Information Accessibility

The right to information is a fundamental human right enshrined in the regulatory framework and relevant laws in many countries, particularly in the democratic countries, and has become a critical component of the broader right to freedom of expression. Therefore, access to information is important because it is the first step to facilitate the public's right to know and ultimately helps build an informed society. According to Hértier (2003), "access" implies two possibilities; namely, passive and active possibility. Passive possibility refers to the possibility of obtaining information about on-going decision-making processes and the persons involved in a decision-making body. On the other hand, active possibility illustrates the possibility of transmitting information, and even demands, to a political or administrative decision-making body. In order to access information, communication channels are equally important to the two possibilities of information accessibility because they provide a way for information to flow from senders to receivers in either horizontal or vertical dimensions or where messaging strategies are maximized.

Admittedly, communication channels can be found in a variety of forms and directions. For example, downward communication from the decision-maker in the policy-making body reflects the process in which information is delivered in a

processed form through the decision-making structure of the respective decision-making body, which may take various forms, such as government mandates and formal letters. By contrast, upward communication helps provide information, complaints, and grievances of the lower level decision-making body to the higher authorities. In my point of view, information accessibility is important to social capital formation in such a way that it helps connect people in the social networks to share information and societal understanding through horizontal communication, which in turn permits them to extend the positive feelings derived out of their civic engagement in the local community and its voluntary activities. Therefore, informal communication channels such as everyday talks and face-to-face contact with members of the community in a given civic association are the most important communication channels in creating social capital, to the extent that it allows members to get to know each other better in personal terms and to share experiences along with feelings with each other. Through frequent interactions and participating on a voluntary basis, social trust is probably built among the members of voluntary or community organizations through their collective action and reciprocal norms. As can be seen in a number of empirical studies, social trust is a key link between social capital and successful collective action (e.g., Ostrom and Ahn, 2003, 2007) and can be considered as an outcome of the forms of social capital (Torsvik, 2000). More importantly, a prior study of Ostrom and Ahn (2007) indicated that social capital is a major determinant of collective social behavior and outcomes. This, in turn, contributes to accessibility to broad resources of information and knowledge (Adler and Kwon, 2002). In addition to the relationships between information accessibility and social capital, access to information is also linked to political trust in such a way that it can promote transparency in the policy-making process through either passive or active possibilities, resembling the work of Prabhakarana, Naira, and Ramachandranb (2014), who proposed that access to information is one of various means that significantly implies a transparent process for gaining public confidence in any development proposal for tourism planning. In tourism context, there have been a large number of prior studies indicated that lack of information made available to the local people of tourist destination is one of the most important barriers to public participation in tourism development (i.e., Blake, 1999; Tosun, 2000).

## **2.4 The Role of Local Governments in Local Environmental Sustainability**

This part of the present study aims to point out the reasons why local environmental sustainability should be the integral responsibility of local governments. Next, the traditional roles of local government in the context of environmental sustainability are reviewed in order to address the reason why local governments should expand their roles and responsibilities concerning environmental exploitation. Additionally, an overview of global experiences regarding the role of local government in local environmental sustainability aims to provide insight into what critical issues many local governments have so far experienced in managing the environmental sustainability initiatives and programs in their localities. More importantly, the underlying rationale of the thesis of the present study is explained at the end of this part in order to lay the groundwork for exploring the role of local government with respect to stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs.

### **2.4.1 Why Should Local Governments Be Concerned about Environmental Sustainability?**

Ever since the renowned definition of sustainable development in the Brundtland report, and the later consolidation of its meaning in the 1992 Earth Summit, sustainability has been a constant feature of local development policy at all territorial levels (Torres-Delgado and Palomeque, 2012). Consequently, many international organizations and publications have addressed the crucial role of the local government in the development and management of the environment and in making it more sustainable (Carter and Darlow, 1997; De Lacy, Battig, Moore, and Noakes, 2002; Byrd, 2003; UNEP and WTO, 2005; Vecchione, 2010).

With 1,035 million international arrivals worldwide recorded in 2012, accounting for US\$ 1,075 billion in international tourism receipts, tourism is a major global activity and source of employment (1 in 11 jobs) (UNWTO, 2013). This dynamism has significantly made tourism become a key contributor to socio-economic progress worldwide. As is widely known, tourism development brings both benefits and costs to the host countries, particularly in terms of environmental

degradation. The arrival of tourists is, in fact, likely to cause an increase of consumption of natural resources, some of which are non-renewable resources such as scenic beauty, which cannot be replaced if they are destroyed. This is one of the reasons why the concept of sustainable development ought to be applied for the long-term sustainability of the local environment—a way to maximize the benefits and opportunities but where costs and weaknesses are minimized. Essentially, it is the responsibility of government more broadly, and specifically local government, to strategically manage tourism, as a common pool resources, to ensure that local benefits outweigh disadvantages. Many studies have recognized the leading role of local governments in achieving local environmental sustainability, as summarized in the following.

1) During the past decades, there has been a shift of the local government's role, from that of direct service provider to environmentally and socially-oriented practices (Buckingham and Theobald, 2003).

2) In the policy realm where there are many influential actors, local government plays the most important role in adopting and delivering the principles of sustainability at the local level (Brokaj and Murati, 2014).

3) Common pool resource management is found in the realm of decentralization in natural resources management (DNRM), focusing the role of local government in managing local resources while reducing the central government's responsibility in setting policy goals and ensuring policy implementation through overall resource mobilization and cross-sector coordination (The World Bank, 1993)

4) Because there are no statutory services to take responsibility for managing common-pool resources such as tourism, governments must thereby intervene to avoid market failure or negative externalities (UNEP and WTO, 2005; Torres-Delgado and Palomeque, 2012), particularly negative social and environmental impacts that need to be regulated and managed at national or local levels (UNESCAP, 2001b).

The above-indicated reasons explicitly explain why local governments should play a critical role in local environmental sustainability in today's world. With the increase in devolved responsibility in determining the long-term sustainability of their localities, stakeholders' participation is becoming an increasingly essential component

of the successful implementation of the local environmental sustainability of the local government.

#### **2.4.2 Traditional Roles of the Local Government in Environmental Sustainability**

Much of the sustainability literature and many research papers have discussed the role of local governments engaged in dealing with environmental issues; however, the discussions of their role are very context specific. Among the most common institutional factors that determine local government involvement in local environmental conservation are legislative frameworks and regulations. In this regard, environmental conservation and protection have become one of the statutory duties of local government supported by the Local Administration Act. Traditionally, local government authorities were responsible for undertaking land-use planning and regulating development applications. In post LA21, the local government has expanded the role from servicing and infrastructure provision to encompassing the challenging responsibility of achieving sustainability goals through a sustainable development approach. With this expansion, Hunter (1997) emphasized that no approach to sustainable development is impossible without the presence of strong local authority planning and development control.

An examination of the traditional role of local government reveals that local government has traditionally exhibited the role of “facilitator” according to its institutional arrangement of laws, regulations, and standard procedures, including top-down directives from supra-governmental bodies. These traditional roles are likely to be fragmented and to be a function of different departments and government agencies at the local level. Over the last decades, the primary role of managing local environment had been in the hands of the private sector, as a key player in making use of natural resources for a profit-maximizing strategy. At that time, the public sector played a significant role in measuring only the output of the natural resources use in terms of economic growth and benefits, particularly revenue generation. This was due to the ease of the economic impact measurement, compared to socio-cultural and environmental impacts. As such, the important decisions about environmental sustainability had been traditionally taken by private enterprises rather than

government agencies, resulting in environmental exploitation, or the use of natural resources for economic growth, which had a negative impact on people, society, and the ecosystems.

### **2.4.3 Global Experiences Regarding the Role of Local Government in Local Environmental Sustainability**

In the post-Brundtland era, local governments in particular have been under closer scrutiny in terms of their roles in driving the sustainable development agenda (Ruhanen, 2013) as a result of economic maldevelopment, which has caused environmental degradation not only on a global scale but also in the locality. In this regard, the role of the local government has been criticized for its shortcomings in terms of dealing with local environmental problems, but very little empirical research has directly explored and discussed what the role of the local government should be. However, with the absence of agreed roles of local government in the context of local environmental sustainability, there have been many studies recently concerning the critical issues in local environmental sustainability that have paved the way for local government authority to successfully achieve environmental sustainability goals in the locality, as shown in Table 2.3.

In the present complex world, local governments cannot exhibit merely conventional roles and statutory functions in compliance with their legislative mandates. The role of the local government, with backing from stakeholder participation, has become important in democratic societies, particularly in the context of government decentralization. In such a context, Zhang (2012) explained that the full participation of all stakeholders, particularly the active engagement of the private sector, is also needed in protecting environmental degradation along with China's local governments. Additionally, a number of scholars and empirical evidence have addressed the importance of stakeholder participation as a key success factor for achieving local environmental sustainability, especially in the context of tourism development (Gunn, 1994; Timothy, 1998, 1999; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Simpson, 2001; Buckingham and Theobald, 2003; Ruhanen, 2013).

**Table 2.3** Global Experiences of Local Environmental Conservation Policy

<b>Author</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>Critical considerations</b>
Falleth and Hovik (2009)	Norway	Decentralization is the most significant factor influencing the transfer of natural conservation management from the central to local government. The essence of decentralization is to facilitate wider local participation and to provide room for local councils in redefining environmental conservation policy in accord with local needs and interests.
Macnaghten and Jacobs (1997)	Lancashire County, England	The perceived untrustworthiness of both central and local governments is the most significant determinant of the failure of governments in both promoting public participation and achieving sustainability goals. Additionally, the study indicated that the perceived trust in public information regarding local sustainability initiatives is highly dependent on the trustworthiness of the institutions providing them.
Dollery and Kortt (2014)	New South Wales local government, Australia	The Lake Macquarie city council sustainable neighbourhood program, one of the local sustainability programs of the New South Wales local government, was considered as the most successful model of local environmental sustainability resulting from the existence of the legislative framework and local community participation.
Brokaj and Murati (2014)	Vlora city, Albania	In achieving sustainable tourism development, key stakeholders, namely the local government, tourism enterprises, and the local community, are required to understand their role and responsibilities, including being aware of the benefits of sustainable tourism practices.
Ishaya and Abaje (2008)	Jema'a local government area of Kaduna State, Nigeria	Local awareness among indigenous people regarding climate change is revealed as an important factor affecting their crop cultivation practices and techniques. As a result, they are able

**Table 2.3** (Continued)

<b>Author</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>Critical considerations</b>
Ruhanen (2013)	Five local government authorities in Queensland, Australia	not only to cultivate different varieties of crops but also shorten the growing season in the area. Issues regarding power struggles, tokenistic public participation, and the strong influence of the local government authority were found to be hindering factors regarding sustainable tourism development.

**Source:** Compiled by the author

In recent years, there has been a vast number of works indicating that a number of different forms of stakeholder participation, such as creating a network of youth for sustainable tourism development (Sirimonbhorn Thipsingh, 2015), empowering the local community regarding tourism development (Sutawa, 2012), or building cross-sector partnerships (Ng, Chia, Ho, and Ramachandran, 2017), can contribute to the success of local environmental sustainability.

## **2.5 Application of the Institutional Approach for Exploring the Role of Local Government**

As mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, the study employs two main theories: institutional and stakeholder salience, to achieve its major purpose in exploring the role of local government with respect to stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs.

According to Scott (1995: 33), institution is defined as “a cognitive, normative and regulatory structures and activities that provide stability and meaning for social behavior.” Based on his viewpoint, an institution represents a social pattern infused with cultures, structures, and taken-for-granted rules of social interaction. In the meantime, Jepperson (1991: 145) describes an institution is a “social pattern that reveals a particular reproduction process.” Owing to the latter definition of an

institution, it shows that social patterns can adaptively change over time through a particular process which many institutional theorists (i.e., Selznick, 1957; Scott, 1987; Jepperson, 1991; Zucker, 1991) term “institutionalization,” referring to a process that happens to the organization over time (Selznick, 1957). Significantly, Zucker’s (1991) definition of institutionalization is more fruitful for providing insights into the existence of the institutional environment embedded in the value-infusing process, according to her illustration of institutionalization as “a process by which individual actors transmit what is socially defined as real and, at the same time, as a variable of how much an action can be considered right in a given social reality.” (Zucker, 1991: 85). For this study, a wide array of stakeholders is considered as individual actors prevailing in the institutional environment of local government. Therefore, their existence is of importance in explaining why an organization is expected to conform to the collective norms and beliefs of key stakeholders in order to survive, as Zucker (1987) indicated that organizational persistence is a motive for organizational behavior. Equally important, Powell (1991) further explained that institutionalization is a process that accommodates a set of institutionalized beliefs, leading organizations to operate within the same field to become assimilated and to adopt similar forms. This understanding holds the central premise of institutional isomorphism theory, where Meyer and Rowan (1977: 340) explained that “many formal organizational structures arise as reflections of rationalized institutional rules.” DiMaggio and Powell (1983: 149) termed such a process institutional isomorphism, referring to “the process of homogenization,” which can occur through three main types of institutional isomorphism: coercive, mimetic, and normative, as follows.

### **2.5.1 Coercive Isomorphism**

This kind of institutional isomorphism results from either formal or informal pressure exerted by other organizations upon which the focal organization is dependent and by the cultural expectations from society. The best known example of this mechanism is the action of the government on organizations, through laws, norms, and demands that affect many aspects of an organization’s behaviors and structure.

### **2.5.2 Mimetic Isomorphism**

This isomorphism directly results from organizational uncertainty, such as goal ambiguity and scarcity of resources that pressure the organizations to mimic another successful organization's structure in the organizational field in order to reduce its uncertainty or to enhance its legitimacy. When seeing the success of other organizations in the same field/business, organizations tend to exhibit mimetic behavior by modeling themselves on the successful organization.

### **2.5.3 Normative Isomorphism**

This isomorphism is primarily derived from the pressured brought about by professions or the professional community. The most renowned examples of these normative pressures are professional associations and educational institutions.

According to institutional theorists, the motives for organizational behavior come from uncertainty and legitimacy, which Suchman (1995: 574) defined as “a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions.” Based on this definition, it can be inferred that legitimacy plays a critical role in explaining the somewhat different behavioral dynamics of an organization in response to pressures of institutional constituents, which are defined here as stakeholders. As Scott (1992) pointed out the institutional constituents that exert pressures and expectations are comprised of not only the state and professions, but also interest groups and public opinions. For achieving the major purpose of this study, the exploration of the role of local government must be supplemented by a combination of institutional and stakeholder salience theories. Without an understanding of the context of stakeholders, the thrust of institutional theory is impossibly achieved in explaining how the organizations, which defined here as local government, respond to each group of stakeholder the way they do. Rather than viewing organizational responses as efforts to manage dependencies or reduce transaction costs, Davis and Powell (1992: 363) pinpointed that “institutionalists see organizational action as legitimacy-enhancing response to structure of relationships within organizational environments.” According to Meyer and Scott (1983: 201), organizational legitimacy refers to “the extent to which the array of established

cultural accounts provide explanations for its existence, functioning, jurisdiction, and lack of deny alternative.” Suchman (1995) further explained that organizational legitimacy consists of three typologies, moral, pragmatic, and cognitive legitimacy, which are differentiated according to their underlying dynamic behavior, as shown in Table 2.4.

**Table 2.4** Types of Organization Legitimacy

<b>Type</b>	<b>Key Definition</b>	<b>Relationship with Stakeholders as Institutional Constituents</b>
Moral Legitimacy	Organization reflects acceptable and desirable norms, standards, and values	Organization focuses on moral judgments about output/results, procedures and technologies, structures, leaders and personnel
Pragmatic Legitimacy	Organization fulfills needs and interests of its stakeholders and constituents	Organization exchanges goods and services that stakeholders want, and receives support and legitimacy
Cognitive Legitimacy	Organization pursues goals and activities that fit with society’s understanding of what is appropriate, proper, and desirable	Organization “makes sense” and/or is “taken-for-granted” according to socially-constructed realities

**Source:** Modified from Brinkerhoff, 2005: 4.

By bridging the efforts of stakeholder salience and institutional theories into the context of local government, the study aims to highlight organizational response (the role of local government) to the demands and expectations of various groups of stakeholders found in a number of local government program being studied. By examining the relationship between institutionalization, which is exerted by individual actors or stakeholders, and organizational legitimacy, which is derived from the intentionality of organizational actors, the study can make a significant contribution to exploring the role of local government, with backing from stakeholder participation, in local environmental sustainability programs.

## 2.6 Concluding Remarks

An extensive review of the literature was undertaken in this chapter in order to explain the key issues relating to the research process, ranging from the idea of sustainability and stakeholder participation to the theoretical contribution of the institutional perspectives in exploring the role of local government, with respect to stakeholder, in local environmental sustainability programs.

With very limited ideas and prior studies, the chapter began with an illustration of the integration of the two major theories, stakeholder salience and institutional theories, used in the present study. Secondly, an overview of sustainability in terms of its definition, dimensions, and guiding principles aimed at providing a broad understanding of the major scope of this study—local environmental sustainability. Furthermore, the distinction of sustainability and sustainable development was discussed in order that some convergences and differences of the two contested concepts could be drawn in order to examine their relevance in pursuit of local environmental sustainability goals. Thirdly, the concept of stakeholder participation was investigated concerning the extent to which the participation of stakeholders would make local governments informed of their roles in achieving local environmental sustainability. By adopting stakeholder salience theory, the ideas of stakeholder identification were found to be significantly important to the study in categorizing a wide array of individual stakeholders into groups whose members shared common stakeholders' attributes in terms of power, legitimacy, and urgency. Rather than identifying what types of stakeholders actually exist, the study expected to distinguish the key and relevant stakeholders in the local government in order to investigate how the local governments exhibit their response to each of them. As such, the review of the aspects of stakeholders was therefore important in as it explains the extent to which the results of the present study encompass all aspects of stakeholder theory, particularly the normative aspect, which places a great deal of emphasis on managerial behavior with respect to each group of stakeholder. Notwithstanding the fact that local government authority cannot have sole responsibility for conserving and safeguarding natural resources without the support

from stakeholders, the review of the key factors affecting the participation of stakeholders is crucial work in the realm of stakeholder participation.

With adherence to the major contribution of this study, the role of local governments in local environmental sustainability was also examined in terms of its significance. Moreover, the global experiences regarding the role of local government in local environmental sustainability demonstrated how the idea had been put into practice and what might be the critical issues concerning the achievement of local environmental sustainability. The concerns raised here suggest that there is no “cookbook” approach that works at all time. Therefore, the application of the institutional approach for exploring the role of local government, presented in the last section of this chapter, is expected to be a useful approach to addressing the way in which the concept of stakeholder participation and the role of local government can be causally related to each other. Understanding what types of institutional pressures are exerted by stakeholders, which the notion institutionalization facilitates, and why local governments respond to them in the way they do, which the notion of legitimacy clarifies, sets the stage for such causality.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This chapter explains the process for carrying out all the research questions for this research project. Generally, this chapter includes the research design, the research methods, the unit of analysis, data collection and analysis, validity and reliability, and the data analysis. Additionally, the research paradigms for the research design are discussed in order to provide an understanding of the research approach employed in this study. Therefore, the following explanations pave the way for both achieving the research objectives and answering the research questions.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

The study used the qualitative approach for conducting the research. It is therefore better to begin with a distinction of the qualitative from the quantitative approaches as the fairly standard method of introducing qualitative research. According to Creswell (1994: 24), a qualitative study is defined as “an inquiry process of understanding a social or human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants, and conducted in a natural setting.” On the other hand, Holliday (2002) broadly pointed out the differences between these two approaches—that quantitative research concerns counting whereas qualitative research focuses on the areas of social life.

Taking into account the differences between the two research approaches, many scholars argue that it is an oversimplification to distinguish them according to two paradigms by emphasizing data (numeric and non-numeric data) instead of foundational beliefs and assumptions (Yin, 2009). Considering underlying beliefs and assumptions, qualitative research draws attention to an understanding of the concept of a “paradigm,” which Yin (2009: 8) defines as “a comprehensive belief system, world views, or framework that guides research and practice in the field.” With regard

to paradigms of qualitative research, Holliday (2007) explained that there are two major paradigms: naturalism and progressivism, in which different perspectives and a range of related paradigms are detailed, as shown in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1** Paradigm, Perspectives, and Groups of Related Paradigms

<b>Paradigm</b>	<b>Perspectives</b>	<b>Group of Related Paradigms</b>
1. Naturalist Qualitative	1.1 Reality is still quite plain to see	Postpositivism, Realism
	1.2 Deeper social reality needs qualitative inquiry	
	1.3 Probable truth is supported by extensive, substantiated record of real settings;	
	1.4 Researchers must not interfere with real settings	
2. Progressive Qualitative	2.1 Reality and science are socially constructed	Critical Theory, Constructivism, Postmodernism, Feminism
	2.2 Researchers are part of research settings	
	2.3 Investigate must be in reflexive, self-critical, creative dialogue	
	2.4 Aims to problematize, reveal hidden realities, indicate discussions	

**Source:** Adapted from Holliday, 2002.

Owing to a significance of above-indicated two paradigms of qualitative research, Holliday (2002) further described that naturalist qualitative is a more traditional paradigm and resembles “postpositivism” in the sense that reality is seen as relatively straightforward and researchers can get to know the reality of the setting by “being there” long enough and ensuring “authenticity” by focusing on what “local characters” say in interviews, personal accounts, and conversations. As such, Holliday (2013: 167) pointed out that “postpositivism has thus not allowed the recognition for the presence and impact of the researcher on the setting or community which is being studied.” In contrast, progressivism argues that there is no “there” until it has been constructed (Gubrium and Holstein, 1997). Similarly, Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) stated that progressive qualitative researchers portray people as “constructing”

the social world while researchers also themselves construct the social world through their interpretations of it. Therefore, researchers should take part in the setting being studied.

Given the importance of these two qualitative paradigms and the research questions of this study, the study employed the paradigm of progressivism based on the principles of constructivism. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (1994) explained that the constructivist approach has the intention of understanding the world of human experience. In order to understand situations taking place in certain settings, researchers are likely to rely upon the participants' views of situation being studied (Creswell, 2003). Further, Creswell (2003: 9) pointed out that "constructivists do not generally begin with a theory (as with postpositivists) rather they generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meaning." However, as Holliday (2002) addressed the idea of "reflexive investigation and self-critical creative dialogue" due to the difficulty in avoiding the subjectivity of researchers in interpreting results. Furthermore, Healy and Perry (2000) pinpointed that regardless of any types of scientific paradigms, there are included with these elements the following: 1) ontology (what is "reality"), 2) epistemology (how do you "know" about something), and 3) methodology (how do you go about "finding" it). For constructivism, the reality (ontology) is therefore "relativism"—local and specific constructed realities, and researchers can understand and explain a complex reality (epistemology) by taking part in the community being studied (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Healy and Perry, 2000). Rather than viewing the reality as taken to exist, constructivists view all of reality and knowledge as "constructed" by convention, social experience, and human perception. As such Lauckner, Paterson, and Krupa (2012: 6) also affirmed that "qualitative research based on the principles of constructivism "aims to elicit and understand how research participants construct their individual and shared meaning around the phenomenon of interest."

The aim of this study is to explore the role of local government, with respect to stakeholder participation, in local environmental sustainability programs. Therefore, it is essential to first review the data regarding the existing problems in relation to local environmental sustainability in order to understand the setting being studied. Secondly, the in-depth interviews with local government representatives and

a sample of key stakeholders are equally important to allow the researcher not only to examine how the programs were proposed and implemented in the locality but also to determine the stakeholders in each program. More importantly, a variety of data collection techniques are expected to be employed to elicit the stakeholders' viewpoints regarding their participation in aforementioned programs, particularly during local government decision-making process. In order to be in a reflective and transparent process, the interview with key informants will be recorded, memorized, and transcribed into written documents prior to and during data collection and analysis. As Mills, Bonner, and Francis (2006) advocated that memos written during the research process is essentially a reflective process for researcher to further analyze and make meaning of the data.

### **3.2 Research Method**

The study used case study as the research method. Recognized as a tool in many social science studies, the role of the case study method in research has become more prominent with issues of education, sociology, and community-based problems such as poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, drug addiction (Zainal, 2007) and sustainable tourism development (Ruhanen, 2013). In defining case study as a research method, Yin (2009) suggested that the most important condition for differentiating case study among the various research methods is to classify the type of research question being asked. Further, Yin points out that there are four distinctive characteristics of the case study method as follows:

- 1) Focusing on “how” and “why” questions as the main research questions for investigating the setting being studied
- 2) Examining a contemporary set of events concerning what is happening in the real setting, rather than looking at history. Hence, a full variety of evidence (i.e. documents, interviews, and observations) is essential for the case study method
- 3) A case is a bounded entity but the boundaries are not clear between phenomenon and context

4) No control of behavioral events. A rationale for using the case study method is to investigate the phenomenon in which comprehensive understanding of the event under study is derived and determined by the investigator

Moreover, Feagin, Orum, and Sjoberg (1991) suggested that the case study is best suited to considering how a holistic characteristic and in-depth investigation of empirical events are needed. Therefore, case study has been seen as a methodological tool applicable to three types of research: descriptive, explorative, and explanatory (Fisher and Ziviani, 2004). These three types of case study method are similar to what Tellis (1997), Creswell (1998), and Yin (2012) explained about the applications of case study research. Briefly, descriptive case study describes interventions or illustrates certain topics in an evaluation; exploratory case study explores situations where there is no single outcome; and explanatory case study explains causal relationships.

Adhering to the four research questions of this study, they primarily involve “why” and “how” questions in order to have a holistic understanding of the relationships between local government and a wide range of stakeholders in local environmental sustainability programs. As previously reviewed, collaboration among different stakeholders is necessary for the success of local environmental sustainability programs, and it was therefore an inevitable task to integrate stakeholder participation in this study. Therefore, the third research question in relation to the factors affecting participation of stakeholders is derived so as to pave the way for boosting participatory approach to local government. Additionally, the in-depth investigation of empirical events rests on exploring how the local government responds to competing demands of stakeholders in terms of local environmental sustainability, as shown in the fourth research question. Meanwhile, to what extent is the participation of the key stakeholders related to the role of local government in local environmental sustainability programs is further examined in order to address the key sources explaining the causal relationship between stakeholder participation and the role of local government. Due to a very limited knowledge and research addressing the role of local government with respect to stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs, the research method of this study is mainly exploratory case study.

As previously stated, this study focuses on contemporary events rather than conventional historical phenomena because it examines what is actually going on at the two local government authorities in relation to local environmental sustainability programs, not about what had been done in the past. However, it was relatively difficult for the key informants to respond to the questions being asked in total honesty regarding their real-life context because there are many interventions of socially-constructed systems and meaning built upon the premise of the social construction of reality. For example, their close interactions with local governments may have caused their subjective answers. Therefore, the interviews with some stakeholders whom local government officials purposively recommended for researcher are likely to reflect subjectivity in expressing their opinions about the local government's programs being asked. Nevertheless, there are no research methods without strengths or weaknesses. In applying case study method for this study, the study aims to utilize the strengths while being aware of the weaknesses of case study as briefly summarized in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2** Strengths and Weaknesses of the Case Study Method

<b>Strengths</b>	<b>Weaknesses</b>
1. Provide holistic and in-depth understanding of behavioral conditions and real-life contexts	
2. Use the multiple sources of evidence for analyzing the findings	1. Lack of rigor of case study research due to subjectivity in making conclusions and findings
3. Aim to analytical generalizability from inductive reasoning, not deductive explanation	2. Provide little basis for scientific generalization due to a small number of subjects/ cases being studied
4. Be able to deal with a full variety of evidence	3. Time consuming in reviewing a corpus of data for analyzing the results
5. Ease in doing valid and a high-quality case study by checking the data from the internet or telephone	

**Source:** Modified from Yin, 2009, 2012; Zainal, 2007.

In responding to the weakness of case study method, this study was thereby designed for multiple case studies with embedded units (Type 4 of Figure 3.1). Generally, the multiple-case design is more difficult to implement than a single-case design, but the ensuring data can provide greater confidence in the findings and offer substantial analytical benefits (Yin, 2009, 2012) as well as an understanding of the similarities and differences between the cases (Baxter and Jack, 2008).

		Number of case studied	
		Single	Multiple
Number of data sources/ units of analysis	Holistic	<b>Type 1</b> “Holistic single-case study”	<b>Type 2</b> “Holistic multiple-case study”
	Embedded	<b>Type 3</b> “Single case study with embedded units”	<b>Type 4</b> “Multiple case studies with embedded units”

**Figure 3.1** Basic Types of Case Study Design

**Source:** Modified from Yin, 2002, 2012; Baxter and Jack, 2008.

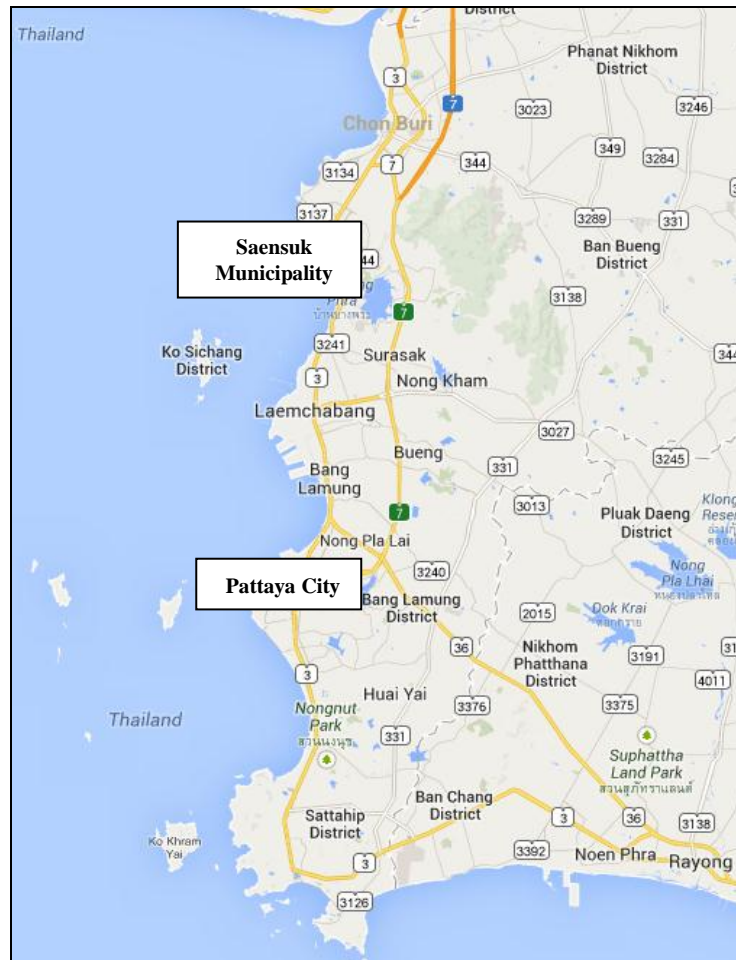
In conducting case study method, Yin (2012) suggested that two parameters of case studies designs are essential to be considered by researchers—number of case studied and of unit of analysis, as shown in Figure 3.1. For this study, multiple case studies were employed in which two local governments selected. Additionally, the use of three programs related to the local environmental sustainability in each case study of local governments allows for more diverse cases in order to offer a better explanation and conclusion of the local governments’ role. In the meantime, two units of analysis were analyzed, as embedded units for data collection, in order to embrace a broad understanding of the role of local government and participation of stakeholder in the setting being studied. The execution of each local government’s program involves not only local government authorities but also stakeholders. Therefore, the

use of embedded units of analysis is crucial since stakeholders can be a critical source of information about how the programs were executed in real settings.

### **Identifying the “Case”**

Since the themes of sustainable development efforts and a people-centered approach were placed at the forefront of the Eleventh Development Plan of NESDB (2012-2016), numerous local government nationwide have adopted the themes into practice in various domains, including local environmental sustainability. Since 2011, the Board of National Tourism Policy of Thailand and the Thai cabinet have agreed upon clustering Thai tourism development into 8 clusters in order to develop the tourism management and development plan in association with the distinctive characteristics of each cluster in an integrated manner, as follows: 1) the historic Lanna culture (comprising seven provinces in the upper northern region); 2) the world heritage sites adjoining eco-tourism sites (comprising eight provinces in the lower northern region); 3) northeastern civilization (comprising six provinces in the lower northeastern region); 4) the Mekong lifestyle (comprising of six provinces along Mekong river); 5) the lifestyle of the central region (comprising of thirteen provinces in the central plain); 6) the active beach (comprising of four provinces in the eastern coast); 7) the royal coast (comprising of four provinces in the upper southern coast); and 8) the amazing two coastal sites (comprising of four provinces in the lower southern coast).

According to Holliday (2002), there are five criteria for defining the research setting, as follows: 1) the setting must have a sense of boundedness; 2) the setting should provide a variety of relevant or interconnected data; 3) there should be sufficient richness; 4) the setting should be sufficiently small, and 5) there should be access for the researcher to take part in the setting. In this sense, to reduce subjectivity in selecting Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city for this study, as shown in figure 3.2, the Holliday’s five criteria were utilized in the present study as detailed below.



**Figure 3.2** Location Map of Saensuk Municipality and Pattaya City

1) Sense of boundedness in terms of place. Take into account of the tourism cluster that generates huge income to Thai economy, however, is most likely to encounter environmental degradation; the “active beach” tourism cluster is purposefully selected. According to the Department of Thai Tourism, the “active beach” tourism cluster mainly consists of four eastern provinces, namely Chonburi, Rayong, Chanthaburi, and Trat. Amongst these four provinces in this tourism cluster, Chonburi province has been ranked a top tourist destination in the eastern region of Thailand in terms of the number of tourist arrivals and tourism revenue for years. (see also Appendix A).

2) Similarly geographical typology and sufficiently small for doing research. The two tourism destinations have same common types of tourism—coastal

tourism, as the UNEP (2009: 2) indicates that coastal tourism is based on “a unique resource combination at the interface of land and sea offering amenities such as water, beaches, scenic beauty, rich terrestrial and marine biodiversity, diversified cultural and historical heritage, healthy food and, usually, good infrastructure.” According to this definition, Pattaya city and Saensuk municipality are categorized in the same common type of tourism.

3) Availability of interconnected data to access. At the two tourism destinations, sustainable tourism development initiatives have been clearly put in place and stakeholder participation is one of the requirements in moving toward such initiatives found in the policy statement of the two local governments.

For the above-mentioned reasons, Pattaya city and Saensuk municipality were eligible to be the object of the case study on local environmental sustainability with regard to stakeholder participation. Ruhanen (2013) indicated that the case study’s eligibility for research is based on identifying destinations that are ranked highest against the evaluation items. Owing to a significance of the tourism revenue generated by the two tourism destination, it can be assumed that Pattaya city and Saensuk municipality are outstanding tourism destinations among the east coast provinces of Thailand where local environmental sustainability initiatives are being addressed. According to Yin (2009), the rationale for the use of multiple case studies design is for “replication logic” to predict similar or contrasting results. In this regard, Yin further pointed out that a few cases (2 or 3) would be for predicting similar results or so-called “literal replications”, while more cases (4 to 6) could produce contrasting results but for predictable reasons or so-called “theoretical replications.” Therefore, with the two cases selected for this study, some literal replications were expected to be found although both cases have different target groups of tourists.

### **3.3 Unit of Analysis**

In order to explore the role of local government with respect to stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability, the main unit of analysis was at the organization level (the two local governments as a whole). As with the embedded case design, it was also related to other subunits of analysis: stakeholders that had been

involved in the local government decision-making process of the programs related to local environmental sustainability as detailed below.

1) Main unit of analysis: local government representatives (mayor, deputy mayor, and government officials)

2) Subunit of analysis: stakeholders

Regarding the sample of stakeholders, the study utilized the snowball sampling method to identify the potential informants engaged in the programs related to local environmental sustainability through the recommendations of local government representatives. At the same time, potential informants were also identified by the researcher through the analysis of local development strategies and policy documents available at the two local governments. According to Babbie (2014: 188) snowball sampling is “a nonprobability sampling method, often employed in field research, whereby each person interviewed may be asked to suggest additional people for interviewing.”

As it is difficult to identify the stakeholders when the researcher first enters the real setting (the two tourism destinations), the researcher was therefore given suggestions from the local government officials with regard to their stakeholders that usually are involved in the local government decision-making process of the programs related to local environmental sustainability. However, Ruhanen (2013) has pointed out that there are limitations to this snowball sampling method in the sense that it may exclude stakeholders whose perceptions and viewpoints do not align with the dominant stakeholder groups, as they are unlikely to be recommended. Considering this limitation, snowball sampling was carried out until it eventually resulted in an acceptable saturation for each of the case studies. Also, some opponents of the programs being studied were also interviewed and the focus group discussion was conducted so as to gather contrasting viewpoints about the programs. Taken together, there were 19 and 28 key informants in Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city, respectively, interviewed as shown in Table 3.3.

**Table 3.3** Key Informants of Saensuk Municipality and Pattaya City

Key Informant		Local Government		
		Saensuk Municipality	Pattaya City	
Local Government	Local Executives	1	3	
Representatives	Local Government Officials	3	3	
Stakeholders	Civil Society	3	2	
	Organization	Cooperative Community	3	2
		Group Representatives	3	2
		Civic Group Representatives	-	7
	Non-Governmental Organization	4	4	
Local	Beach Vendors	-	3	
Operators	Boat Operators	2	-	
Public Sector	Educators	-	2	
Organization	Relevant Government Agencies	3	2	
Local Residents				
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>19</b>	<b>28</b>	

### 3.4 Data Collection Methods

The data collection process for case studies is more complex than that used in other research methods. Therefore, this study employed two principles of data collection, suggested by Yin (2014), in order to assure the construct validity and reliability of the evidence. The two principles are explained as follows.

#### 3.4.1 Triangulating from Multiple Sources of Evidence

The data collection was done according to the qualitative approach using three phases ranging from February 2014 to August 2015. As the constructivism paradigm of qualitative approach was adopted for this study, it is essential to collect the data from various sources in order to understand how the local government performs the role with respect to stakeholder participation. The central concern of the constructivism paradigm is to understand human experiences, social meanings, and

values, at a holistic level by way of induction where the researcher constructs and reconstructs meaning in the data in relation to the research questions. Due to the nature of this case study method, the investigation was triangulated using multiple sources of evidence, namely, documentation, direct observation, in-depth semi-structured interviews, and non-participant observation as follows.

The first phase of this research study involved identifying and analyzing current publicly-available local environmental sustainability policy for each of the two local governments in order to examine the extent to which the notion of local environmental sustainability sheds light on their programs and activities. Therefore, the first phase was mainly based on documentation for further consideration in the following phrases. According to Yin (2009: 103), “the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources.” Further, Yin (2012) pointed out that examining through documentation is an unobtrusive method which does not mean “creating” the results but rather making inferences from documents. Therefore, news clippings and other articles that appeared in the mass media such as television and newspapers were included in the investigation in order to gain a better understanding of why sustainable tourism development is important to the two local governments and what programs are related.

The second phase of this research study involves involved in-depth, semi-structured interviews with local government representatives, particularly the mayor, and a sample of stakeholders that were involved in local government decision-making process of programs related to local environmental sustainability programs, such as cooperative community group (CCG) leaders, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), educators, local operators, and representatives of local associations. The interviews aimed to examine the perception of local governments, triangulated with the insights of key stakeholders, as shown in Appendix B. The interviews and discussions with those two units of analysis were focused broadly around the following:

- 1) Rationales of the programs pertaining to local environmental sustainability
- 2) Communication mechanisms between local governments and stakeholders

3) Context of stakeholder participation (i.e., their resources contributing to the projects being studied, types of participation, and relationship mechanisms that make their participation acknowledged by the local governments)

Additionally, the study also attempted to find out some of the emerging factors affecting stakeholder participation from the interviews with key stakeholders, which was analyzed by coding the factors involved for further analysis (see also Appendix C). As Basit (2003: 143) indicated, coding is “one of the significant steps taken during analysis to organize and make sense of textual data.” In the meanwhile, the focus group discussion method was employed with some opponents of the programs being studied in order to obtain data regarding their perceptions, opinions, and attitudes towards the overall performance of their concerned local governments. The semi-structured questions were asked in an interactive group setting where the participants were free to talk with other group members. During the process, the researcher both took note and recorded the key points for further analysis. With a limited time, the focus group method has many advantages, such as encouraging participation from those that are reluctant to be interviewed on their own, and identifying the group norms and cultural values of the participating members (Kitzinger, 1995).

Owing to the significance of the constructivism paradigm adopted in this study, in-depth interviewing was the main method for collecting the data because it provides rich and in-depth information about the experiences of individuals or groups (DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree, 2006), including allowing the researcher as an interviewer to deeply explore the respondents’ feeling, attitudes, and perspectives on the subject being studied (Guion, Diehl, and McDonald, 2002; Yin, 2014). According to DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006), the in-depth interviews are classified in three groups according to the nature of interviewing questions: unstructured, semi-structured, and structured interviews. The unstructured interview mainly contains open-ended questions whereas semi-structured interview comprises of both open- and close-ended questions. On the other hand, structured interview is similar to questionnaire survey in such a way that it contains only close-ended questions. For this study, semi-structured interviews were utilized because they were deemed to be open, allowing respondents the freedom to answer the questions and to provide new ideas to be brought up during the interview than could have been achieved with

structured interviews. However, predetermined open-ended questions are important to semi-structured interviews even if other questions may emerge from the dialogue between the interviewer and interviewees. Unlike unstructured interviews where the questions emerge from conversation during interviewing process, which requires a sophisticated expert, these predetermined questions help the researcher focus the interview on major themes to be explored in the study at hand (rationales of the programs, stakeholder participation, factors affecting their participation, including local government's responses to competing demands of stakeholders) from eliciting detailed narratives and discourses from the key informants. In doing so effectively, semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to gain in-depth knowledge of the subject under study and this makes it relatively easy to document the findings (Almedom, Blumenthal, and Manderson, 1997). Additionally, the key features of semi-structured and unstructured interviews have been distinguished by DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006) and are presented in Table 3.4.

**Table 3.4** Key Features of Semi-Structured and Unstructured Interviews

<b>Semi-Structured Interviews</b>	<b>Unstructured Interviews</b>
1. Scheduled in advance at a designated time	1. Guided conversations
2. Location normally outside everyday events	2. Originate from ethnographic and anthropological traditions
3. Organized around a set of predetermined questions	3. Key informants are selected
4. Other questions emerge from dialogue	4. Interviewer elicits information about the meaning of behaviors; interactions, artifacts and rituals—with questions emerging as the investigator learns about the setting.
5. Usually last for 30 minutes to several hours.	

**Source:** DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree, 2006.

The third phase of this research study involved the direct observations and non-participant observation of certain aspects related to local environmental sustainability programs in order to observe what had been taking place at the real

setting. As previously indicated, case study method focuses on contemporary events. Therefore, site visits to every program area were employed in this study in order to understand the contextual setting and relevant conditions of the programs being studied. Further, non-participant observation was utilized in order to provide insight into the interpersonal behavior and motives of the interactions between the local government and stakeholders in the observed situations. In this regard, the researcher attended civic meetings in which both local governments and a wide array of stakeholders were collectively involved so as to identify the key stakeholders to whom each local government gives priority regarding their demands and expectations.

### **3.4.2 Creating a Case Study Database and Case Study Protocol**

This principle is advantage to systematically organize the collected data in a meaningful way. When the data are collected from multiple sources to explain the same phenomenon, those data may be scattered in different themes and this makes it difficult for the researcher to analyze and report the case, especially for multiple cases. In this regard, Yin (2009) suggested that developing a case study database would help researchers deal with and utilize the data in a meaningful way, and this can be done in various ways, with field notes and case study documents, for example.

For this study, my own field notes, which mainly resulted from the triangulation method, were the main source of the case study database. During the in-depth interviews with the key informants, both with the two local government representatives and the stakeholders, the key points were handwritten and conversations were recorded during the interviews using a voice recorder device. After that, the data were transcribed into a narrative form and stored in electronic files in order that the key issues emerged from the interviews could be extracted into written documents and retrieved whenever necessary. After all of the data from the interviews were collected, the case study protocol was derived by linking the case study questions to the protocol topics in order to assure clear cross-referencing with the methodological procedures and the resulting evidences, as shown in Appendix C.

### **3.5 Measurement of Validity and Reliability**

In conducting a research project, it is essential that validity and reliability of the research findings are properly measured in consistent with the research method being employed. Conventionally, validity refers to the extent to which a research project adequately measures what it aims to measure, whereas reliability refers to the consistency of the data collection methods or instruments in such a way that whether the same results yield if applied the same instruments. In order to carry out a good-quality case study research, validity and reliability were tested as details below.

#### **3.5.1 Construct Validity**

Construct validity means identifying correct operational measures for the concept being studied by means of numerous sources of data collection at each step of the data collection (Yin, 2009). In this study, data triangulation from different sources of information, namely documentation, in-depth interviews, and focus group discussions, including direct and non-participant observations, was employed to assure construct validity.

#### **3.5.2 Reliability**

Generally, case study research has a shortcoming in testing reliability due to a lack of performing reliability checking, but rather jumps into reporting the case and making a final conclusion after collecting the data. In avoiding this shortcoming, Yin (2009) suggested that a reliability test for case study research can be done in two ways—using a case study protocol and/or developing a case study database which is normally performed during the data collection phase. In this regard, this study utilized case study protocol, as shown in Appendix C, to examine the key findings that emerged in each of the local government programs. Through linking the research questions with the protocol topics, it can be seen that each key finding in the protocol topic can be compared across both the programs of each local government and the cases being studied (Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city). In essence, the case study protocol helps minimize the error and biases in making conclusion of the present study.

### **3.6 Data Analysis**

Owing to a significance of exploratory case study like the present study, formulation of valid hypotheses is not necessary prior to the study due to a lack of detailed preliminary research on this matter. Therefore, this study intended to utilize cross-case synthesis as the analytical technique for analyzing the qualitative data without converting them to numeric format. According to Yin (2014), the technique of cross-case synthesis is especially relevant if a case study consists of at least two cases so that the findings are likely to be more robust. For this study, the use of cross-case synthesis explored the similar patterns in terms of stakeholder identification, mechanisms that facilitate their interaction with the local government, including key factors affecting their participation in local environmental sustainability programs. The use of case study protocol, as shown in Appendix C, is meaningful sources to compare and contrast the scope of stakeholder participation found in each of several programs of each local government being studied. With the similar patterns found in each of the themes of stakeholder participation, the study can therefore develop literal replications from within-case (each local government) analysis, such as identification of key and relevant stakeholders and determination of key factors affecting their participation. Furthermore, the results of each case study will be compared so as to address the inter-group (two local governments) similarities and differences. With adherence to the similar results across the two cases, the study can propose a conceptual framework explaining the causal relationship between the participation of key stakeholders and the role of local government in environmental sustainability programs. The framework is therefore aimed at providing some analytical generalizability from inductive reasoning derived from the key findings of the present study.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESEARCH FINDINGS**

This chapter aims to address the research questions of this study. With an attempt to explore the role of local government with respect to stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs, the study draws attention to the two local governments—Saensuk municipality and the Pattaya city where tourism industry is the most income-generating sector and, at the same time, where the effort of local environmental sustainability has been anchored as one of the local government commitments to the larger community.

Consequently, this chapter begins with an overview of the case studies and illustration of the current situation considering the local environmental sustainability of the two local governments. Second, the identification of stakeholders is analyzed to identify whom the local governments really give priority. To acknowledge the participation of any stakeholder, there must be some linkages that connect them with their respective local government, which is illustrated in the third part of this chapter. Fourth, the key factors affecting the participation of stakeholders are identified to provide important insights into what local governments need to consider if their participation is essential for the success of conserving environmental resources. Ultimately, the role of the local government in responding to the demands of stakeholders is significantly revealed at the end of this chapter to explore how local governments overcome the competing demands of stakeholders and to what extent the local governments can maintain their organizational interests and legitimacy

#### **4.1 Overview of the Case Studies**

In order to provide an understanding of the context being studied, this part aims to provide a brief overview of Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city regarding their characteristics and significance in contributing to the tourism industry, as well as

the current situation of both local governments in terms of vision and local development strategies. Further, the outstanding programs in relation to local environmental sustainability are illustrated in order to provide insights into the importance of how the programs could tackle the current environmental problems in which stakeholders are involved.

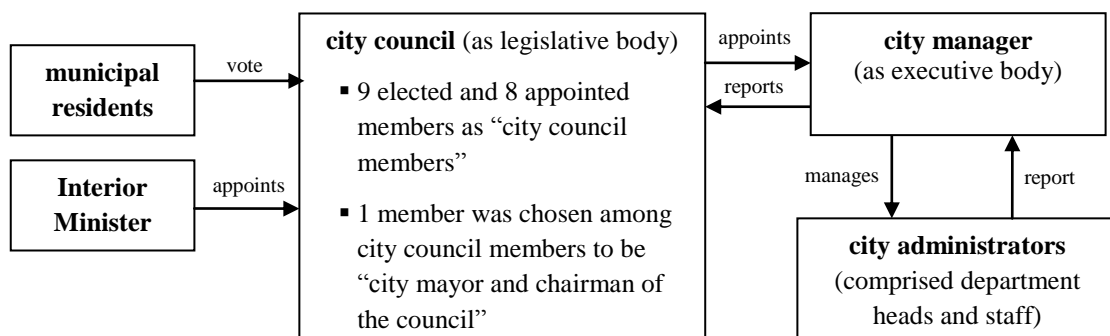
#### **4.1.1 Brief History of Saensuk Municipality and Pattaya City**

Around 100 kilometers from Bangkok in the eastern region of Thailand there is a popular beach among domestic tourists named “Bang Saen Beach,” under the jurisdiction of Saensuk municipality (formerly called “Sukhapiban Saensuk”) of Chonburi Province. Given its advantage of being close to Bangkok, Bang Saen beach is one of the popular beach resorts among many Thais when one is searching for a quiet retreat or to spend one’s holidays with delicious seafood cuisine along the beach away from busy Bangkok. Historically, Saensuk municipality was a small fishing village and was first developed as an area for seaside recreation for high-ranking public servants and delegations of King Rama IV in 1859. Significantly, the major transformation of the beach area was found during the government of Field Marshal Plaek Pibulsongkram in 1943 when he officially declared and opened up Bang Saen beach to be a public recreation area. In those days, the area was developed in many ways, for example, in terms of road construction and public utilities. During that time, the beach area served as the residence of Plaek Pibulsongkram and as a seaside resort for Thai high-ranking government officials. In 1988, substantial development was begun when Sukapiban (sanitary district in English) Saensuk was administratively upgraded into “thesaban” (municipality in English) Saensuk and the first mayor was locally elected. Before being upgrading to a municipality, Sukhapiban Saensuk was looked after by the village headman, the so-called “Kamnan.” Therefore, the first mayor of Saensuk municipality was “Kamnan Poh” or Mr. Somchai Khunpluem, who had been a village headman of Sukhapiban Saensuk for many years. At the time, Kamnan Poh announced rebuilding for the improvement of Saensuk city as a popular beach destination after the long-time exploitation of physical and environment conditions by the military dictators and servicemen. During his 12 years as mayor of Saensuk municipality, Kamnan Poh transformed Bang Saen beach to be a lively

tourist destination equipped with various modern facilities and amenities. In 1993, Bang Saen beach became widely known among the Thais when the beach was awarded as a “tourist destination city” by the Tourism Authority of Thailand. With adherence to the long-standing effort to rebuild Saensuk city, Kamnan Poh and his network have been able to gain favor from the Saensuk people until today. Also, many of the people believe that “Saensuk city can continue its growth providing that the network of Kamnan Poh still exists.” Since the regime of Kamnan Poh, Saensuk city has been developed in order to maintain its growth of tourism.

However, when talking about beach destinations in Thailand, one of the top-five destinations that international tourists would think of is Pattaya city, the coastal tourist city located in Chonburi province, the same province in which Bang Saen beach is located. Pattaya city is located around 50 Kilometers south of Bang Saen beach. Historically, Pattaya city was only a small and quiet fishing village. It became first known among the American soldiers as their place for “rest and recreation” during the Vietnam War where the US battleships and airplane carriers anchored in the bay, allowing the crews to land as a retreat before returning to the battlefield again. The mass visit of the soldiers offered business opportunities to local businessmen to extract dollars by offering night-life entertainment that flourished and rapidly expanded during the war. After the end of the Vietnam War in 1975, the American soldiers disappeared, but the well-known night-life entertainment remained and the Americans were soon replaced by tourists from other Western countries who heard about the place. The new arrival of Western tourists revitalized and nourished Pattaya to be one of the world’s renowned night-life entertainment destinations until now. Due to its popularity and job opportunities, there have been substantially increasing numbers of tourists and migrated workers to serve the tourist industry in Pattaya city. As a result, hotels and residential and commercial buildings mushroomed without proper planning and control. In order to cope with such pace of tourism development, the government decided to upgrade Sakhapiban Naklua to “Pattaya city” as a special local administration equivalent to a city-level municipality in 1978. Since that time, Pattaya city had adopted a “council-manager form of government,” comprised of legislative and executive bodies in accord with the Pattaya City Administration Act of 1978 (B.E. 2521), as shown in Figure 4.1. The legislative body

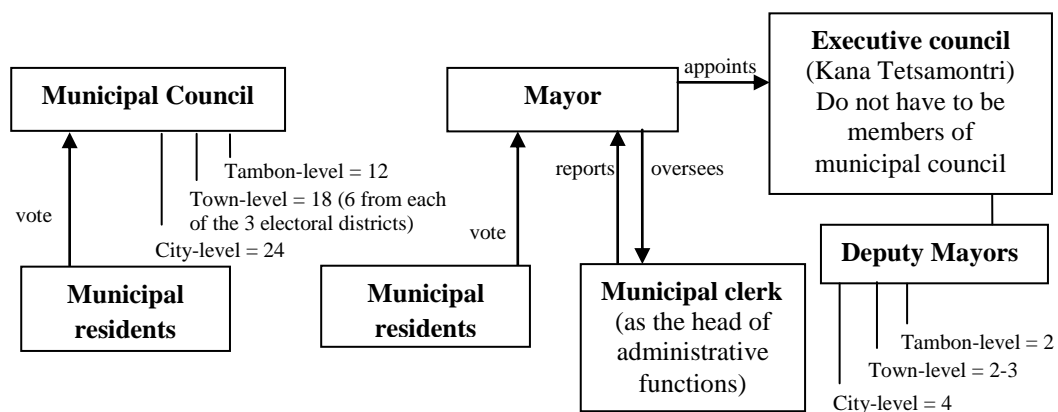
was commonly called “city council,” consisting of 17 members, of which 9 were directly elected by municipal residents and 8 members were appointed by the Interior Minister. The city council acts as a governing or legislative body responsible for the legislative function of the municipality, such as establishing policy and passing local ordinances. Due to the city council having authority to approve the municipal budget and develop an overall vision on behalf of municipal residents, one city council member is elected among the members to be the Pattaya mayor and chairman of the city council. On the other hand, the executive body is headed by the “Pattaya manger,” a professionally-trained manager who is hired by the city council to manage the administrative responsibilities, hiring city staff, for example. As a result, the city manager is supervised by and reports to the city council. Under this form of government, the city council has strongly-centralized power influencing both the city manager and the city mayor.



**Figure 4.1** Pattaya City Administration under the Pattaya City Administration Act of 1978 (B.E. 2521)

However, the council-manager form of Pattaya city administration was discontinued when the Thailand Constitution and the Decentralization Act were promulgated in 1997 and in 1999, respectively. These promulgations had subsequently caused amendments to many relevant Acts, including the Municipality Act of 2000, which was amended in accord with the 1997 Constitutional’s requirement. During that time all local governments in Thailand were required to allow for the direct election of representatives (Chandra-nuj Mahakanjana, 2004). Additionally, the 2000 Municipality Act was a major turning point for all municipal

governments in Thailand in terms of adopting the new directly-elected mayor system. Consequently, the Pattaya city administration shifted from council-city manager to a “strong mayor system,” in accord with the Pattaya City Administration Act of 2000, where both legislative and executive bodies were directly elected locally, as shown in Figure 4.2. The figure shows that the local executive body of Pattaya city consists of an elected mayor and 4 Deputy Mayors that are appointed by the mayor. The mayor along with his Deputy Mayors are eligible to hold the mayorship for no more than two consecutive four-year terms. Under this system, the mayor is responsible for preparing and administrating the budget, and can appoint and dismiss all department heads without anybody’s approval due to his total administrative authority. Additionally, the mayor has the authority to appoint the department heads, who are supervised by a municipal clerk. That is why the mayor oversees the municipal clerk, who is a government official.



**Figure 4.2** Strong Mayoral System

**Source:** Adapted from Chandra-nuj Mahakanjana, 2004: 106.

In the meantime, the local legislative body, comprising municipal councilors that are also from local public elections, is responsible for approving or denying the municipal budget proposed by the mayor as well as for inquiring the mayor about policies and the administration. Although the municipal councilors have such responsibilities, they can neither vote no confidence in nor unseat the mayor. Consequently, this system is considered to strengthen mayoral executive powers. This kind of mayoral system has been adopted by all municipal governments in Thailand

since 2000, including Pattaya city and Saensuk municipality. With the differences in terms of local revenues and the size of the population, Saensuk municipality is considered as a town-level municipality, not a city-level municipality like Pattaya city.

Owing to the significance of the special local special administration, Pattaya city has more budget sources than other kinds of municipal governments. Pattaya city has been able to directly acquire the budget from the Bureau of the Budget of the Ministry of Finance in a way similar to that of the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration (BMA), another special local administration in Thailand. This source of budget acquisition has helped Pattaya city to be more flexible in utilizing its budget, which is approximately more than 1.5 billion baht, directly allocated to Pattaya city every year. With this budget flexibility, Pattaya city generally provides some financial support for organizing certain activities or programs in relation to the development strategies of the city, particularly those that promote local tourism development, as evidenced by a statement of the Pattaya city's mayor: "The city normally provides a subsidy of 2 million baht to a local business association for organizing any tourism promotional activity in the city." Therefore, there are a variety of tourism promotional activities organized throughout the year, some of which are regularly-scheduled activities, such as Pattaya Countdown, Pattaya Music Festival, and Pattaya Grand Sale.

#### **4.1.2 Tourism Industry of Saensuk Municipality and Pattaya City**

It is notable that the two local governments are located in the same province, Chonburi. The province is one of 7 eastern provinces of Thailand and covers the total area of 4,363 square kilometers. With adherence to its significance in terms of tourism, Chonburi is the nearest seaside province from Bangkok with abundant natural resources, particularly delightful beaches, regional delicacies, and fresh seafood. In this regard, tourism has generated a huge income for the province, as evidenced by the number of 10.82 million visitor arrivals to the province in 2011, which so far has generated 94.85 billion baht in revenue. Considering the areas where the tourists have mostly visited and where the tourism revenue has mostly been generated in Chonburi province, there are only two tourist destinations found to be

important: Pattaya city and Bang Saen beach of Saensuk municipality, as shown in Table 4.1.

In 2012, it was reported that there were 1.81 million visitor arrivals to Bang Saen beach, which contributed 5.92 billion baht in revenue, though a great majority of them were domestic visitors, as shown in Table 4.1. In the meantime, there were almost 10 million visitor arrivals to Pattaya city and more than two thirds were international visitors. With this enormous influx of both domestic and international visitors to Pattaya city, Pattaya's tourism industry generated 95.91 billion baht in revenue for the city in 2012.

**Table 4.1** Tourism Statistics for Pattaya City and Saensuk Municipality from 2009 to 2011

Items	Pattaya City			Saensuk Municipality		
	2010	2011	2012	2010	2011	2012
<b>Total Revenue from Visitors</b> (billion baht)	73.74	87.85	95.91	5.38	7.00	5.92
Thais	13.36	17.45	17.45	4.53	6.24	5.13
Foreigners	60.38	70.40	78.46	0.85	0.76	0.79
<b>Number of Visitors</b> (million people)	8.31	8.99	9.41	1.75	1.83	1.81
Thais	2.95	2.81	2.73	1.60	1.72	1.70
Foreigners	5.36	6.18	6.68	0.15	0.11	0.11
<b>Average Length of Stay</b> (days)	3.17	3.29	3.19	2.49	2.83	2.56
Thais	2.37	3.06	2.74	2.42	2.78	2.49
Foreigners	3.50	3.37	3.35	2.97	3.24	3.15
<b>Average Tourist spending</b> (baht/persons/day)	3,071	3,238	3,356	1,839	2,295	2,150
Thais	2,385	2,585	2,663	1,764	2,266	2,088
Foreigners	3,265	3,442	3,556	2,284	2,514	2,547

**Source:** Department of Tourism, 2015.

Although there has been an increase of tourist numbers and revenue over the years, it was recently reported that Pattaya's tourism industry is vulnerable to a downturn because a number of negative issues have been raised not only by tourists

but also local people and business operators. According to the 2011 report of the Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau, it was clearly found that the issues of environmental destruction and public safety were of most concern on the part of the civil society and business sectors, accounting for 33.7% and 31.04% of total respondents regarding the two indicated issues (Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau, 2011), respectively. On the other hand the destruction of coastal areas and natural resources in Saensuk city was among the most critical issues among both domestic and international tourists from 2009 to 2011, according to the 2011 statistics of the Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Tourism and Sports. In essence, Pattaya city and Saensuk municipality have attempted to introduce many local development programs in pursuit of local environmental sustainability.

#### **4.1.3 Local Environmental Sustainability of Saensuk Municipality**

In Saensuk, effort of local environmental sustainability is clearly stated and proclaimed in the 2014 policy statement document (Division of Technical Services and Planning of Saensuk Municipality, 2014) as follows:

Saensuk municipality is a pleasant town to live, surrounded by an abundant of sustainably beautiful tourist attractions, preservation of natural resources and environment friendly atmosphere that creates local prosperity and strengthens community well-being upon which good governance depends.

Through the above-indicated vision, it is evident that the vision sheds light on three broad dimensions of sustainability; namely the social, economic, and environmental dimension. Moreover, in cascading the vision down to the development strategy, there are four major development strategies that the Saensuk municipality takes into account as follows:

- 1) Strategy of social development and quality of life
- 2) Strategy of tourism promotion and economic development
- 3) Strategy of natural resources, environment, and integrated coastal management

#### 4) Strategy of good governance

Focusing on “local environmental sustainability,” it is one of sustainability goals through the means of sustainable tourism development. In order to clarify what “sustainable tourism development” actually means for Saensuk municipality, Mr. Narongchai Khunpluem, or locally-called “Nayok Tui,” the current mayor since 2011, further pointed out the holistic view of development that opens up various kinds of development activities and opportunities for the local people to meet their own needs and better livelihood, according to the following statement (The Mayor of Saensuk Municipality, May 15, 2015, Interview):

Sustainable tourism development refers to a holistic approach of development consisting of the three dimensions of social, environment, and economic opportunities for the local people. Regardless of such opportunities for the local people, tourism development is nowhere to be sustained.

For over decades, the municipality has developed the tourism industry in a sustainable manner in accord with the changing environments and interests of the local people, evidenced by the following statement (The Municipal Clerk of Saensuk Municipality, March 11, 2014, Interview):

Sustainable development is a fundamental basis of our tourism development endeavor to mutually meet the needs and interests of local people.

As the development of the tourism industry is the most concerned issue for the municipality to strengthen the local economy and to improve the livelihoods of local people whose work is mostly dependent upon the growth of local tourism, Saensuk municipality has initiated many local environmental sustainability programs in the locality. It is widely accepted that Saensuk’s tourism has been developed since the regime of “Khamnan Poh”. Since then huge development and investment to rehabilitate both land and beaches have been anchored to the area and Bang Saen

beach has been a famous beach destination for the Thai people. As shown in the statistics of the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), the growth of the tourism industry in Bang Saen beach has been constantly scaled up during the last few years, evidenced by an increase of both the number of visitors and tourism revenue. Moreover, the influx of international visitors provides room for the municipality to improve the quality of their tourism standards and activities to serve the needs of tourists and visitors who love staying along the quiet beach (The Mayor of Saensuk Municipality, February 12, 2014, Interview). However, it is noted that rapid tourism development is like two sides of one coin—it brings along local economic prosperity on the one hand but, on the other hand, at the expense of the current generation to encounter different kinds of environmental and societal problem, as indicated in the Chapter 1. As shown in Table 4.1, the recent statistics show that the number of international tourists visiting Bang Saen beach has continued to increase until now and even significantly jumped in 2011 as a result of the initiation of the current mayor in launching many tourism campaigns to urgently develop the tourism industry along with ensuring tourists' safety while walking along the beach, such as CCTV installations, English teaching courses for beach operators, enforcement of new trading policies for beach vendors, and the like. In order to be a top-listed tourism destination in the province, Nayok Tui has constantly made his best effort to improve tourism amenities and to offer a wide variety of tourism activities so as to keep the visitors satisfied, as can be seen in the following statement (The Mayor of Saensuk Municipality, February 12, 2014, Interview):

Though majority of our visitors is Thais but I have continuously developed our services and facility standards to serve the B+ domestic and international visitors. Presently, we have good hotels and amenities with international standard, such as beach lightings, beach lifeguard, etc.

In order to link the mayor's own preference with his internationally-known tourism destination vision, there are number of sports activities annually organized all year round, for example, Bang Saen Bike Week and Bang Saen Water Sports.

Additionally, there are a number of tourism promotional programs targeted to attract domestic tourists and local people such as the Wai Lai Festival—the unique water splashing or Songkarn festival of the sea people in the eastern region of Thailand organized in mid-April, the Bang Saen Hippy Festival—one of the famous music and fair events organized in February in which the attendances are encouraged to wear 60s-70s hippie and disco costumes.

#### **4.1.4 Local Environmental Sustainability of Pattaya City**

During last few years before Mr. Itthipol Khunpluem or locally called “Nayok Tik” came into power, much of the literature and many newspapers indicated that there were a lot of negative impacts of the city’s fast-growing tourism development that motivated the local authorities to consider if the prospects of tourism were playing a significant role in their local economic prosperity. For example, the tourist’s safety (Banrung Amnatcharoenrit, 2012), the growing drug and crime problems (Wechsler, 2008), including environmental degradation (Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau, 2011), are among the three most critical issues in the sustainable tourism development of Pattaya city. Similarly, Police Captain Prajakpong Suriya of the Chonburi Provincial Transactional Crime Suppression Center (TNCC) stated in the Bangkok Post newspaper on February 26, 2012 that “Pattaya is a popular foreign criminal base because it is the hub for not only tourists but also expatriates” (Piyaporn Wongruang, 2012). Although the current mayor seized the problems, some are beyond the authorities and duties of Pattaya city due to the limitations of governing laws and administrative regulations of different related agencies (The Pattaya City’s Mayor, June 13, 2014, Interview.). Therefore, in order to mitigate and solve those problems, including engaging collaboration with other public agencies, Pattaya city has officially requested the Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration (or briefly called “DASTA”), a public organization set up by a 2003 Royal Decree, under supervision of Office of the Prime Minister. In 2008, Pattaya city and adjoining areas were formally announced to be among the six designated areas for sustainable tourism development that DASTA looks after. Since that time, Pattaya City has been under supervision of the DASTA Area-III that responsible for promoting sustainable tourism development in Pattaya city and six municipal governments—Pong, Na

JomtEAN, Bang Lamung, Takhian Tai, Huai-Yai, Nong Prue Municipality, including the three sub-district administrative organizations of Khao Mai Khaew, Nong-Pla Lai, and Na JomtEAN. In collaboration with DASTA Area-III, the mayor publicized a new tourism development phase for Pattaya city as a “world-class tourist destination city”—a marketing campaign aiming to restore the good image of Pattaya city, boosting tourist confidence, building a social security scheme for both visitors and Pattaya citizens in relation to the 10-year master plan of DASTA; the “Greenovative tourism plan”—a 10-year master plan to change the seaside resort’s image of Pattaya city from a sex and nightlife center to a green and sustainable tourism destination. Mr. Taweebhong Wichadit, managing director of the DASTA Area-III in 2014, envisioned tourism carrying capacity of the city as stated in the following (The Managing Director of DASTA Area-III, June 16, 2014, Interview):

The areas had the potential to retain its status as a world-class tourism city and welcome more families if developed in the right direction.

Consequently, Nayok Tik later proclaimed his development agenda, “Balancing the city towards sustainable development” (“Pattaya Somdoon Soo Pattaya YangYeun” in Thai), referring to balancing the 4 aspects of development, namely the economy, the society, the environment, and the culture in order to prepare for the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), when he was officially declared to be Pattaya city’s mayor for his second term in 2012. Taking into account “greenovative” tourism, the Pattaya city’s mayor also emphasized the importance of local environmental sustainability: “Our key strength of tourism is beautiful coastal scenery, and we thereby pay a lot of attention to environmental conservation.” Associated with DASTA’s approach and agenda for sustainable tourism administration, which focuses on building the community’s capacity for tourism development for the AEC era, the mayor anticipated the great advantage of local-governmental synergy to carry out some limitations in development of tourism as seen in the following statement in a 2012 policy statement document of Pattaya city:

To sustainably develop our tourism sector, we need synergy of all adjoining local authorities. In the meantime, collaborative partnership with several public agencies can help reduce limits of governing Pattaya city.

As DASTA plays the major role as the coordinating unit between the local administration and other public agencies, it has in many cases brought together collaborative partnerships from various public agencies and local governments to work towards the shared goal of sustainable tourism development. Therefore, Nayok Tik has put his best effort into transforming Pattaya's image of as a sin city to a world-class tourism city underpinned with the approach of sustainable tourism development along with a collaborative partnership with other local authorities and public agencies in achieving the 10-year master plan of DASTA. An interview with Pattaya city's mayor revealed that he pays most of their attention to the tourism image: "Pattaya city has its own reputation, just like a brand, so we have to do much care with our city's image" (The Pattaya City's Mayor, June 13, 2014, Interview) Therefore, Nayok Tik classified the city's vision into 3 phases of development, aimed at achieving its 10-year master plan and creating its positive image as a world-class greenovative tourism city in accordance with DASTA's approach. Presently, Pattaya city is running the 2<sup>nd</sup>-phase vision of the 10-year master plan which focuses on the capability of the Pattaya city to respond to the new challenges and opportunities of regional and global contexts, the AEC in particular, according to the following statement:

Pattaya city is an internationally known as a world-class tourist destination where variety of activities on land, sea and coastal area are available and as a hub of economy, commerce and meeting based on well-planned city planning, zoning, and modern infrastructure development for improving quality of life, social safety, sound environment, and transparent system.

Similarly, the mayor also emphasized the importance of tourism carrying capacity of the city in the long run to serve the ever-increasing growth of Pattaya city's tourism industry to attract the arrivals of either domestic or foreign investment according to the following statement (The Pattaya City's Mayor, June 13, 2014, Interview):

We cannot do like other municipal government because Pattaya city has its own brand and exponential growth rate—doubling time than of the country. We pay much attention to development of tourism amenities for carrying our tourism capacity.

Based on the reviewed literature and news regarding the development projects of Pattaya city, it is also evident that the city emphasizes the infrastructure construction projects and tourist amenities to serve the demands of tourists—the automated car parking at Bali Hai pier, for example. Apart from partnering with DASTA to help formulate the 10-year master plan and strategic direction of Pattaya city as well as bringing in government subsidy, Pattaya city has also partnered with other state agencies to constantly search for new opportunities in the tourism sector, such as the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), a state enterprise established in 1960 to be especially responsible for the promotion of tourism, to position the city as a “world-class sports destination city” where varieties of both on-land and water sport activities are critical factors attracting the interest of international tourists, resembling the 2<sup>nd</sup> vision aiming at the diversification of tourism activities. According to Mrs. Kobkarn Wattanavrangkul, Minister of Tourism and Sports of Thailand (MoTS), Pattaya city is the most suitable city for such diversification because of its strengths in location, infrastructure development, as well as hotel amenities (Prachachart Turakij, 2014). With the constant support from the TAT of the Pattaya Office, wide varieties of tourism promotional campaigns have been publicly advertised through various communication channels all year round in order to attract more visitors. Among all of the activities that the TAT has promoted, most are sports and entertainment events, such as Pattaya long boat racing, beach football cup, Pattaya international music festival, etc.

Additionally, the above-stated vision sheds some light on positioning of the city as “a hub of economy, commerce and meeting.” Therefore, Nayok Tik has proclaimed the “MICE strategy,” targeting groups of meetings, incentive tours, conferencing, and exhibitions, as the city flagship for its fast-growing local economic development in 2015. In this regard, Pattaya city has partnered with the Thailand Convention and Exhibition Bureau (TCEB), a public organization established by Royal Decree in 2002 and tasked with promoting and developing business events nationwide, to position the city as one of the major MICE destination cities in Thailand. Consequently, in many cases Pattaya city officials have closely cooperated with tourism associations at both the regional and provincial levels, such as the Thai Hotels Association (THA) and the Pattaya Business and Tourism Association (PBTA) to proactively offer marketing tools for global tourism market, tourism trade shows and road shows, in particular. For example, Pattaya city officials in partnership with the TCEB and businessmen mutually organized road shows in China and Vietnam in order to promote Pattaya city as a MICE Destination.

## **4.2 Outstanding Programs in Relation to Local Environmental Sustainability**

Owing to the significance of the major problems regarding local environment sustainability issues, both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city have implemented a number of local development programs and projects to sort out the existing problems. Therefore, three outstanding programs related to the local environment sustainability were purposefully selected from each local government. The illustration of the selected programs was deemed to be important as case studies to provide a better understanding not only of how the programs are being implemented with respect to stakeholder participation, but also how local governments exhibit their roles in responding to the competing demands of stakeholders.

#### **4.2.1 Programs Related to the Local Environmental Sustainability of Saensuk Municipality**

It is notable that most of the problems found in the jurisdiction of Saensuk municipality were related to vulnerabilities to the environment in terms of degradation of the blue swimming crab population, hazards concerning the solid waste volume, as well as some negative impacts of coastal erosion on social well-being. Therefore, three projects consisting of integrated coastal erosion management, the blue swimming crab conservation, and Bang Saen NO foam, are illustrated as follows.

##### **4.2.1.1 Integrated Coastal Erosion Management Project (ICM)**

Amongst the twenty-four communities under the jurisdiction of the Saensuk municipality, five local communities comprising more 500 households have been negatively affected by coastal erosion; namely Wonnapa (formerly known as Bang Saen-Lang), Bang Saen-Bon, Laem Tan, Bang Sib-Hmun, and Khao Sammuk. Out of these indicated communities, the Wonnapa community has had the most severe effect, indicated by the rate of land erosion at 5.51 meters per year, while the other communities have typically eroded less than that. As a consequence of the land erosion and coastal degradation, Saensuk municipality has signed a partnership agreement with the Department of Marine and Coastal Resources (DMCR) in implementing ICM based on the principle of the Partnerships in Environmental Management for the Seas of East Asia (PEMSEA), an intergovernmental organization operating in East Asia to foster and sustain healthy and resilient oceans, coasts, communities, and economic across region since 2003. One of the major focuses of PEMSEA is to strengthen the capability of local government organizations in alleviating the coastal erosion problem and improving the resilience and natural defense of the coastal and marine ecosystem while allowing local tourism development to continue to move ahead. Regarding the prominent uniqueness of being the center of coastal tourism and economic development in the eastern region of Thailand, but at the expense of negative consequence, such as unregulated coastal development and ever-increasing urbanized areas in the past few decades, Chonburi province was qualifiedly selected as one of the demonstration projects for ICM implementation. To align the project implementation with a regional mechanism for coastal and ocean governance in the Seas of East Asia in a participatory manner, in

which Chonburi province was selected as a project site of the PEMSEA at the national level, Saensuk municipality is therefore obligated to adopt the ICM implementation. An interview with the mayor showed that he has a strong commitment to ICM implementation and has attempted to implement the project in an objective manner, as seen in the following statement (The Pattaya City's Mayor, June 13, 2014, Interview):

I informed the Panya consultant to provide alternative to implementation of ICM program based on the conduct of scientific studies and examples of best practice.

Owing to a significance of PEMSEA's principles, stakeholder participation at all levels, particularly provincial and local levels, is the most critical requirement for the policy formulation for marine resource conservation in the province. In the beginning phase, the Chonburi ICM network chaired by Mr. Sonthaya Khunpluem, the former Minister of Tourism and Sports, officially signed a memorandum of agreement (MOA) to participate in the policy formulation process (known as "Chonburi Declaration on Scaling-Up of ICM Implementation") in late 2007.

At that time, the 24 local government units (LGUs) covering the entire 157-km. coastline of the province were entitled to be a part of the ICM network. Additionally, the ICM Provincial Coordinating Committee, comprised of Mr. Sonthaya himself, the Chonburi Provincial Governor, the Chief Executive of Chonburi Provincial Administrative Organization (PAO), and the mayor of Sriracha municipality, was set up as the highest policy body for the Chonburi ICM network for scaling up the achievements of the sustainable development strategy for the Seas of East Asia (called "SDS-SEA"). Due to a lack of coordination among the LGUs in the ICM network (ASTV Manager Online, 2011), the provincial-level leading LGU was later changed from Sriracha to Saensuk municipality in 2013.

After the Saensuk municipality became the leading local government authority in the ICM Network, some positive results have been found in its project formulation, for example, more budget and participatory approaches in the decision-making process, though problems with financial shortages and coordinating across the

LGUs were found when the project was led by the Sriracha municipality. Evidently, the project has been executed in partnerships with not only public and international institutions, but also local communities. A number of participatory methods were employed in the local decision-making process, for example, public hearings and referendums, including civic consensus, in sorting out appropriate alternatives to the construction of a seawall. These participatory methods are clearly defined as among the requirements for the project being implemented in order to ensure catalytic support from cross-sector collaboration and the development of the ICM network.

Notably, new hope was found among the local communities when the central government prioritized this problem as an “urgent agenda” in late 2013 because in the past 50 years, it was reported that the 830 km. coastline has been eroded covering almost 20,000 sq.km of land areas and the loss of THB 100 billion (Dailynews Online, 2013). Therefore, the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (NRE) was assigned to take direct responsibility to minimize the adverse impacts on ecology and marine resources. Aiming to encourage LGUs to adopt a practical framework and process for sustainable development, Saensuk municipality was formally selected by the Ministry of NRE in late 2013 as a demonstration project area in solving the coastal erosion problem at both local and regional levels, aiming to achieve the following objectives:

- 1) To maintain community folkways regarding seashore fishing and cultivation
- 2) To encourage the participation of stakeholders in making decisions on their preference for the sea breakwater construction
- 3) To contribute to the development of a regional coordinating mechanism for the implementation of SDS-SEA

Consequently, the kick-off program at the local level was begun in late 2013 along approximately 4.5 km. of coastline under the jurisdiction of the municipality. Regarding its vital role as the leading local government in implementing the ICM project, the municipality has collaborated with upper-level public agencies, consulting firm, and communities that have been affected by coastal erosion in sorting out this societal problem that is of ecological, social, and economic significance.

Therefore, stakeholder participation was found in three phases through different forms of participation and participatory methods as follows.

**Phase 1:** The municipality conducted a civic forum and public hearing on September 22, 2013 for receiving testimony from the community at large on the issue of coastal erosion. In the forum, only the local communities affected by the erosion were allowed to participate in dialogues with the municipal officials so that the information could be gathered from the proper stakeholder groups. Therefore, a variety of deliberative techniques were utilized to come up with a sound conclusion. First, the forum began with a panel discussion of some key government officials at that time, such as the Minister of Culture (Mr. Sonthaya Khunpluem), the Minister of Natural Resources and Environment (Mr. Vichet Kasemthongsri), and the Director General of DMCR (Mr. Noppon Srisuk), together with Saensuk municipality's mayor regarding the existing coastal erosion problem identified at the national level and the rationale for selecting Saensuk municipality as a demonstration project area for ICM implementation. Second, public deliberation was presented through a video presentation showing some locally-known community leaders that were affected by the problem. Third, public discourse was employed in order to receive testimony of the affected community members where comments and suggestions mostly came from the leaders of the cooperative community group (CCG). During the two-hour deliberation, video tapes were employed to record how the community members were concerned about the coastal erosion problem and its consequences on their living so as to write a summary report submitted to the provincial governor as well as the ICM Provincial Coordinating Committee.

**Phase 2:** A summary report of prior public deliberation and alternatives to sea breakwater construction were presented at the public meeting on May 15, 2014 at the municipality's conference hall. The local communities were informed about participating in the meetings through varieties of communication channels, such as formal letters sent to community leaders, radio transmissions, local television, etc. The meeting was aimed to make a consensus on the decisions among the proposed four alternatives to the sea breakwater construction they preferred, namely, beach nourishment, groins, offshore breakwater, and headland breakwater.

During the meeting chaired by the mayor, the representatives of the Panya consulting firm, a private consulting firm that commonly cooperates with the NRE in EIA and feasibility studies on coastal erosion problem, presented both the possible advantages and disadvantages of each alternative through Power-Point presentation. Based on multi-criteria analysis, each alternative was theoretically analyzed and weighed according to 9 relative items, which included public participation in order to determine the overall preferences among the proposed alternatives. Of all possible alternatives, the fourth type, the headland breakwater or the so-called “T-shaped” type, had the highest rating score, meaning that it was the most favorable alternative both from subjective and objective aspects.

Furthermore, the municipality conducted open discourse on the floor, after the presentation, and all stakeholders were required to express their ideas. The consulting representatives participated in the public meetings in order to answer any questions and to clarify the project to the local people. Additionally, some representatives from the Ministry and DMCR participated in collecting the opinions of local stakeholders and observing how the participation was being implemented. Through non-participant observation, the local community members were informally separated into two main groups depending on their severity problem ratings; high- and low-severe groups. By such group separation, it was likely that there were two major alternatives (out of four) selected by the two groups: offshore and headland breakwaters. After interviewing some of the CCG leaders that participated in the meeting, they suggested that the mixed type of sea breakwaters was a sound solution for them in accordance with the statement that “Each alternative is suitable for different location and communities, depending on characteristics of our occupation” (The Saensuk’s CCG Leaders, May 15, 2015, Interview). Evidently, the first alternative of the offshore breakwater was informally proposed mostly by the Wonnapa community members where the most severe impact of erosion was found. On the other hand, the headland breakwater was the most selected for areas where the vulnerability of beach tourism was being considered, such as the Laem Tan, Bang Sib-Hmun community, because it is the location where holidaymakers normally spend their time.

At the end of the meeting, all of the community members that participated in the meeting were required to select their favored alternative by marking on a whiteboard, which was put in front of the meeting room. Although many of them neither had ideas about the presented alternatives nor had decided the best one in their minds, the community members were asked for their selection. Meanwhile, the attitude surveys were distributed to the participants, and they were required to submit them to the municipal officials before leaving the meeting room. The survey sheet was divided into three sections—general information about the respondents, attitude toward the ICM project, and satisfaction regarding project recognition.

**Phase 3:** Four months after the second phase, the third phase was organized and chaired by the Saensuk municipality's mayor so that the participants could make informed decisions on the final alternative to the sea breakwater construction. Approximately 150 stakeholders attended the two-hour civic meeting. Almost 75% of them were CCG leaders and local residents as well as environmentalists, while another 25% were representatives from the DMCR and municipal council members that had direct responsibility for supervising and developing better living conditions in their constituencies. The meeting began with a 15-minute video presentation of the overall coastal erosion problem along with an interview with some of the local representatives regarding the problem. Next, the technical presentations were presented by an engineering expert from the Panya consulting firm regarding the application of a multiple criteria analysis of the sea breakwater construction and the layout of locations where the sea breakwater was potentially to be constructed. In the meeting, the mayor normally responded to questions from the floor. After the presentations, an expert from the consulting firm suddenly summarized that the fourth alternative—the headland breakwater—was appropriately selected to solve the problem throughout Saensuk city according to the affirmation of the mayor, who stated in the meeting that “the fourth alternative is relatively modern and provides valuable benefits to the local people at large, especially those in tourism industry.” This was consistent with the statement of the NRE Minister in late 2014 (Dailynews Online, 2014):

Resolving coastal erosion problem should be done in new dimension wherein problem is solved, and at the same time, increased of local competitive advantage in terms of quality of life, economic, and social well-being of the people whom lives in.

Although the fourth alternative was technically prioritized as the most effective in preventing coastal erosion, compared to others, but it was compensated by the most expensive construction cost of approximately 700 million baht. With the limitation of a municipal budget and political instability, the final decision making was heavily based on the agreement of the upper-level and provincial-level government agencies, particularly the DMCR and the Chonburi provincial governor. During the public meetings, the mayor always emphasized the importance of the participation of the multiagency and cross-sector Chonburi ICM Coordination Committee as a common framework to facilitate partnership building, generate stakeholder support, minimize adverse impacts on ecosystems, and effectively resolve multiple coastal and marine use conflicts, including ensuring the sustainable development of the coastline in Chonburi.

#### 4.2.1.2 Blue Swimming Crab Conservation Program

Notably, the first success of the blue swimming crab conservation program was initiated by Mr. Chatchai Thimkrajang, the mayor of Sriracha municipality and the first chairman of the Chonburi fishery associations. Based on his long experience in conserving crabs, the Sriracha municipality's mayor had partnered in various civic groups, namely local fisher groups, some schools in Sriracha city, and Kasetsart University, in the implementation of crab condominiums or more popularly, the "crab condo" program in his jurisdiction. Innovatively, the crab condo is a designed structure resembling a stack of baskets constructed vertically and is submerged in the sea near the coast. It was assumed to be a nursery for gravid crabs where the crabs are individually separated for efficiency in feeding. At that time, the report of PEMSEA indicated that Sriracha municipality was able to house 1,600 gravid female crabs and it was estimated that 1.6 billion eggs would be released for hatching.

Since the success of Sriracha municipality's crab condo, the program has been incorporated in the local developments and budget plans of other local governments along the coastline of Chonburi province. Therefore, a crab conservation program was introduced in Saensuk municipality in 2013 as a part of the Province of Chonburi ICM program, using funds from municipal budgets and private sector partners. Initially, the crab conservation program of Saensuk municipality replicated the crab condo model demonstrated by Sriracha municipality by submerging crab condo consisting of stacked trays in the sea, near the coast, to facilitate regular maintenance. At that time, the municipality received support from Bangkok Sea Life Ocean World—a private company that has established the largest sea life aquarium in Southeast Asia—to provide plastic baskets for the construction of the crab condo.

Unlike Sriracha municipality, Saensuk municipality had difficulty replicating the crab condo operation due to strong wave actions there. Instead of submerging a stack of crab baskets in the sea, Saensuk municipality modified its crab conservation program to the construction of onshore nurseries to nurture the gravid crabs until their eggs could be released, resulting in the name the “Crab Bank Conservation” project. The project is aimed not only to increase the crab population as in Sriracha municipality, but also to reduce the loss of juvenile blue crabs. For the modified technique to suit local circumstances, the municipality got support from the Premier Marketing Co., Ltd.—a private firm that manufactures various kinds of dried seafood snacks—for the provision of some buckets and equipment for construction of an onshore nursery shelter. Therefore, Saensuk's crab conservation was eventually carried out by using 10 buckets containing seawater that was continuously oxygenated using an air pump established onshore.

According to the rationale of the program, the Saensuk municipality aims not only to increase the blue swimming crab population but also to engage the participation of local fisheries and communities in marine conservation efforts through increasing public awareness and educating people about environmentally-friendly fishery practices in accordance with the following objectives:

- 1) To conserve the blue swimming crab in sustainable ways for creating a viable local economy

2) To raise blue crab populations through ecosystem-based fisheries for the entire society

3) To promote public awareness of coastal and marine resource conservation

Taking into account the project implementation, the municipality has partnered with local fisher groups and entrepreneurs, including communities, upon which the crab culture economically depends, in setting up the project location. Finally, the Wonnapa or Bang Saen-Lang community where most of the community members are small-scale fisheries located in the southernmost part of Saensuk's jurisdiction, was purposively selected to be a demonstration area. The community has an advantage in developing a crab conservation area in terms of the hands-on experience of local fisheries, according to a following statement of a CCG leader of Wonnapa community:

I am willing to participate in the crab bank program because my community is fishery-based community and most of my community members are fishers and entrepreneurs, including myself.

Saensuk municipality's crab bank project has been implemented from 2011 until now and can be divided into 2 phases: project formulation and implementation. Owing to the significance of project formulation, a number of stakeholders participated in finding out the suitable approaches of blue swimming crab conservation. During the formulation phase, Sriracha municipality was an influential stakeholder as it was the initiator and a successful local government in terms of the crab conservation program in Chonburi province. At the time of the project initiation, Sriracha municipality had collectively partnered with many civic groups pertaining to achieving the stated objectives. Therefore, the same groups that provided various kind of support to the Sriracha municipality had helped Saensuk municipality further implement the crab bank project; namely, the Sriracha Fisheries Research Station, under the provision of Kasetsart University, which provided technical support and knowledge on how to conserve the blue swimming crab population for local fishers, including monitoring and evaluating the changes

associated with conservation initiatives as well as water quality. Besides the participation of academic institutions, collaboration with local fishery associations created substantial public awareness of blue swimming crab and marine conservation among the local fishers, particularly those in Wonnapa community, as evidenced in the following statement (A CCG Leader of Wonnapa Community, March 11, 2014, Interview):

Participation of external groups, like Kasetsart university and fisheries association, reminds us to be aware of environmental and marine resource degradation arising from coastal developments and overharvesting of both gravid and young crabs.

After the model for crab conservation program was finally decided in consultation with Kasetsart University, Saensuk municipality introduced the program to the entire society and has encouraged the participation of local fishers and communities in the program as main implementers since then. Of all community members participating in the formulation phase, most were from CCGs having direct responsibility for supervising community issues, and some of them had their own businesses related to small-scale fisheries and aquaculture, such as green mussel and blue swimming crab cultures.

In spite of the fact that there were varieties of stakeholders that participated in the development of the project, the crab bank project was later designed according to two schemes during the implementation phase: management- and knowledge-sharing schemes. In the management scheme, the CCG of Wonnapa community comprising 8 committees and a community leader were presumably in charge of the “crab bank project management team” and supervising the overall project and reporting the progress to the municipality. Given the context of this locally- and self-managed team, they regulated themselves through collective norm. For example, they have their own rule to punish any members with a fine of 20,000 baht for any members that catch gravid blue crabs (The President of the Crab Bank Project Management Team, March 11, 2014, Interview). Taking into account the knowledge-sharing scheme, partnerships have been developed with some schools in

the province to develop an outdoor learning curriculum that emphasizes the relationship between the sustainability of marine environment and local livelihood.

Through partnerships with the Sriracha Fisheries Research Station, Saensuk municipality is able to build a collaborative network with private firms for achieving the stated objectives. For example, the Premier Marketing Public Co., Ltd., in cooperation with Kasetsart University collaborated with the municipality in organizing a half-day program entitled “Taro Safe the Earth” for the local schoolchildren as a part of its corporate social responsibility (CSR) activity, aiming to create public awareness of marine and coastal resources conservation by proving environmentally-friendly activities, such as waste collection, marine fish home building, and a coral reef rehabilitation demonstration.

A year after the project was implemented, it was found that there was a 94% of crab population increase in Saensuk city (Thai Post Online, 2012), resulting from the partnership effort of a wide range of stakeholders to protect and conserve this economically-significant marine resource along with determining sustainable fishery practices for the current and next generation. Notably, the crab bank project has achieved not only the objective to increase the blue swimming crab population, but also to develop local capacity and pride in the program for those involved in the project, as evidenced in the following statement (The President of the Crab Bank Project Management Team, September 10, 2014, Interview):

I am always a local speaker to share our hands-on experience and practices of carb bank project to other interested communities in the province.

#### 4.2.1.3 Bang Saen NO Foam Program

In Saensuk, the solid waste problem has been the most prioritized problem for a few years. This is consistent with the report of the Ministry of Tourism and Sports from 2008 to 2011, indicated that cleanliness problem was widely addressed in Saensuk city due to the inadequacy of garbage bins and the large amount of waste found along the Bang Saen beach. Based on the number of more than 2,000 beach vendors and beach operators registered with the municipality, they were the

main producer of hazardous waste, such as foam and plastic packaging, because it is easy to use and is widely available in the market. In 2012, the municipality further reported that “foam and plastic packaging are more than 80% of total solid waste collected from the Bang Saen beach” (Saensuk Municipality, 2012b). Additionally, the mayor indicated that the heavy metal toxicity that comes from foam food packaging was the most common cause of death among local beach operators (Burapha University, 2014).

In order to mitigate the hazardous problem and unsustainable practices of local beach vendors that negatively affect environmental sustainability, the Bang Saen NO foam program was initiated by the Saensuk municipality’s mayor in 2012. With his long tenure as the mayor, Nayok Tui fully understands that the lack of local awareness and understanding of the dangers of heavy metal toxicity and how it affects people’s health are among the root causes of the problem. Consequently, Nayok Tui himself initiated the Bang Saen NO Foam program in late 2012 in order to increase public awareness and to educate local beach vendors on the dangers of foam food packaging, according to the following objectives:

- 1) To ban the use of foam packaging among local vendors along the Bang Saen beach
- 2) To promote permanent reductions in the use of foam packaging and to provide knowledge of alternative packaging materials to beach vendors, including tourist
- 3) To limit the use of foam packaging and to provide sustainable alternatives for beach vendors

Similar to the crab bank conservation, the Bang Saen NO foam program has been done in 3 stages; namely, project formulation, implementation, and evaluation. During the formulation stage, Burapha University was the key stakeholder for conducting focus group with representatives of beach vendors as well as providing alternatives to the use of foam packaging. After a few months of doing research on alternative packaging materials, the educators from Burapha University recommended cartons made from bagasse—a by-product of sugarcane production—to the local executives and municipal officials. Notably, the participation of the university provided great benefits to the municipality in terms of research contributions and an

increase of public awareness in order to prevent local resistance to the change in their traditional practices in accord with the following statement: (The Municipal Clerk of Saensuk Municipality, March 11, 2014, Interview):

The municipality always collaborates with the academic institutions, like Burapha University, especially when our municipal programs are affected to local folkways or changing local practices.

After the program was completely formulated and an alternative was selected, many following campaigns were launched to promote program implementation and local recognition, such as local parades on September 22, 2012 along the Bang Saen beach. The parades consisted of a wide range of civic groups, namely local executives, the 9 groups of local vendors, community members, Burapha University, and relevant government agencies, as well as private firms. Further, a panel discussion on the innovation of eco-friendly food packaging was organized by private firms, consisting of Biodegradable Packaging Environment PLC., the Thai Bioplastics Industry Association, and SCG Network Management Co., Ltd., in promoting the use of eco-friendly packaging materials. In the first year of the program implementation, the municipality indirectly encouraged local beach vendors to participate in the program by reducing annual licensing fees for those that followed this practice and enacted a municipal law in the following year. One year after implementation, the result was satisfactory, evidenced by an 80% reduction in the amount of solid waste and social understanding of sustainable practices. With its initial goal of a 30% reduction, the Bang Saen NO foam program became one of the most impressive local environmental sustainability programs that the mayor proudly presented. In order to promote the success of the Bang Saen NO foam program, the municipality set up the banner “Welcome to NO foam beach” on the road heading to Bang Saen beach. The banner reflects the endeavor of Saensuk municipality to preserve an environmentally-friendly tourism environment in the locality.

Owing to the significance of the program’s achievement initiated Nayok Tui to fix the hazardous waste problem in a sustainable manner, the NO foam program has been expanded to cover the areas where foam packaging is widely used,

such as Burapha University. Through signing a mutual agreement to reduce the use of foam packaging inside the university campus on July 28, 2014, Burapha University has partnered with the municipality to transfer knowledge of the danger of foam packing to the food retailers on the campus, including constantly providing innovative solutions for developing environmentally-friendly packaging to society at large.

## **4.2.2 Programs Related to the Local Environmental Sustainability**

### **Pattaya City**

Owing to the on-going vision pertaining to the local environmental sustainability of Pattaya city, it is evident that the city mainly emphasizes the programs that not only conserve environmental viability, but also increase its tourism image as a mean to continued growth and economic prosperity.

#### **4.2.2.1 Pattaya Maritime Safety Program**

Following many fatal boating accidents off the coast of Pattaya which happened to both international and domestic tourists, it was indicated that tragic deaths had been constantly reported over last five years. Consequently, maritime safety has become one of the most critical public safety issues affecting the tourism industry in the city. Moreover, there has been much criticism in the mass media and social networks of the globalized world claiming weak law enforcement at the local level and ignorance of city officials as among the root causes of the problems that affect the sustainability of tourism development in Pattaya. Although the problem involves extensive collaboration of public and private agencies, much criticism is given of the city where fatal accidents have taken place, affirmed by the statement that “Whenever the issues raised, people always claim the City where it happened, but we have no sole authority” (The Pattaya City’s Mayor, June 13, 2014, Interview).

The issue of maritime safety in Pattaya was seriously raised again in 2013 after two massive accidents involving speedboat collisions unexpectedly occurred within a few months—one in April and another in November. The tragic accident in April involved avoidable deaths, where 18 South Koreans were injured; however, 7 tourists were killed by a speedboat accident in the November accident. Therefore, it was reported that 11 tourists had been killed by speedboat off the Coast of Larn Island and dozens injured in more than a half-dozen boat-related tragedies

(Phasakorn Channgam, 2013b) on the highly-trafficked route between Pattaya beach and Larn Island in 2013. Throughout the record of maritime safety in Pattaya, the year 2013 became the worst year for boating accidents which involved 234 tourists.

Owing to the significance of the two brutal accidents that took place in 2013, issues related to maritime safety measures have been discussed by a wide range of stakeholders from all levels of government at the national, provincial, and local levels, including the private sector and boat operators, in order to raise maritime safety measures in Pattaya Bay and around Larn Island. For instance, the president of the PBTA, Mr. Sinchai Wattanasartsathorn, stated at a public hearing with Pattaya officials that “If Pattaya does not take safety issue seriously, the city will become just a place that, once upon a time, used to be visited by large number of tourists” (Phasakorn Channgam, 2013b). At that time, the PBTA’s president also criticized the neglect of the relevant government officials in implementing and enforcing laws on boat operators as well as the proposed 7 demands to improve marine safety in late 2013, ranging from drug tests for boat captains to safety training to directing regulatory agencies to take their job seriously.

As a consequence, the Marine Department, under the Transport Ministry, came into play as the main government agency responsible for maritime safety and all licenses regarding the ownership and operation of boats throughout the country. The Marine Department has put in place the issues at the highest concern and later officially hosted the “Maritime safety program,” determining the 5 measures to uplift marine security and safety in order to reduce marine accidents, as shown in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2** Five Measures of Pattaya Maritime Safety

<b>Phase</b>	<b>Measures</b>	<b>Sub-Project</b>
Urgent	1. Marine zoning	1.1 Area specification of sea activities 1.2 Vessel traffic and sea lane 1.3 Buoys placement

**Table 4.2** (Continued)

<b>Phase</b>	<b>Measures</b>	<b>Sub-Project</b>
Medium-term	2. Partnerships with public and private organizations and sectors	2.1 Transferring of marine authority to Chonburi province and Pattaya city
		2.2 Networking of emergency and security units
	3. Building of public awareness	3.1 Raising public awareness of marine safety to boat captains and crews 3.2 Public campaign of marine safety
Long-term	4. Legal reform	4.1 Expanding insurance coverage for any injury of boating passengers together with captain and crews
		4.2 Standardizing seaworthiness and safety equipment on vessel
		4.3 Specifying required knowledge and abilities of boat operators
		4.4 Providing ID card for boat captains
	5. Monitoring of marine traffic and sea lane	5.1 Establishing vessel traffic control
		5.2 Installing CCTVs
		5.3 Installing equipment to regulate boat speed control
		5.4 Supplying off-shore patrol vessel

By considering the tourism revenue contributing to the country and the potential negative impacts on the tourism industry, Pattaya was selected as first pilot project of its implementation, the so-called “Pattaya model,” in April 2014, covering the areas between Pattaya Bay and Larn Island. However, with a shortage of budget and staff, the Marine Department was a co-host with Pattaya in implementing the program.

Consequently, the participation of multiple stakeholder groups was first found on April 2014 when the Pattaya Marine Department visited the city and convened a meeting with some Pattaya city officials and boating operators to give

them information about the 5 measures of the Pattaya model and new safety regulations that were going to be implemented in the city. During the meeting, a few boat operators raised the issue of checking passenger loads and the problem of overlapping boat parking in south Pattaya to the Director of the Pattaya Marine Department, as a part of the recent causes of the fatal boat accidents. To respond to such a claim, the Director asked for an additional budget for hiring a few more staff members to the Pattaya City Deputy Mayor, Ronakit Ekasingh, due to the shortage of officials from the Pattaya Marine Department.

Taking into account the measurement, it has been divided into 3 phases—urgent, medium, and long term, reflecting different kinds of considerations. Above all, the transferring of marine authority has become the first priority the city so as to engage stakeholder participation and to have more authority to enforce the regulations (A Coordinating Committee of the Pattaya Model, May 21, 2014, Interview). Owing to the significance of the concentration of authority, the Marine Department formally transferred marine authority to the provincial-level government officials, namely the Chonburi Provincial Governor, district officers, Pattaya city's Mayor, and Pattaya municipal police, as well as security officers that have a higher ranking than level 3, by amendment of the Act on Navigation in Thai Waters, B.E. 2456 (1913) on July 2013. The amendment aims to supervise and impose a fine for boating misbehavior, except the suspension or revocation of boating licenses, which remains the authority of the Marine Department. This has become the foremost authority on marine affairs given to relevant officers at both provincial and local government levels. A few months after the marine authority was transferred to the city, two groups of a steering committee and a coordinating committee were formulated, according to provincial order, in order to move forward the program implementation and to engage relevant stakeholders to increase public awareness of marine safety in association with Chonburi Provincial Order 5056/ B.E. 2557 (2014). According to provincial order, a group of 7-steering committee, chaired by the Chonburi Provincial Governor, is responsible for achievement of the program and engaging and maintaining stakeholder participation. The steering committee consists of the Chonburi Provincial Governor, a Chonburi Vice Governor, a representative from the First Naval Area Command, the President of the PBTA, the President of

THA, the President of Chonburi Attraction Club, and the Director of Chonburi Provincial Tourism and Sports

However, the implementation was undertaken by a group of 25 coordinating committees, chaired by the Vice-Governor of Chonburi. The coordinating committee consists of a Chonburi Vice Governor, the Chonburi Deputy Governor, Pattaya city's mayor, the Banglamung District Officer, 4 superintendents from 4 police stations in the province, 3 police inspectors, Director of Pattaya Marine Department, 4 officials from Chonburi Tourism and Sports Office, 2 Directors of Pattaya City and Buanglamuang hospitals, the Director of Bangkok-Pattaya hospital, the President of Sawangboriboon Foundation, a municipal police, 3 officers of Tourist Assistance Center. These two groups of committees were gathered to form an integrated outreach partnership model in order that different kinds of resources could be wholly gathered to achieve the mutually-shared goal: raising the marine safety in the city, as well as shared objectives as follows:

- 1) To build a good image of public safety and ensure the confidence of both international and domestic tourists
- 2) To educate and provide training on tourists' emergency preparedness
- 3) To develop the capacity of relevant staff workers and promote cross-sector collaboration for maritime safety in the locality

In spite of the fact that the "Pattaya model" was hosted by the Marine Department, most of the projects regarding measures of the marine zone were implemented with the budget of Pattaya city, as evidenced by the following statement (Director of the Pattaya Marine Department, May 22, 2015, Interview):

My department already subsidized 400 million baht for beach nourishment project along a 2.7-km. stretch of Pattaya's coastline; the Pattaya city thereby should utilize its own budget to work out on maritime safety program.

Among the three sub-projects in the urgent phase, the first two projects were considered a low-cost expenditure; namely, area specification for sea activities

and vessel traffic and sea lane projects. Therefore, both projects were done before the buoy placement project, which required a minimum investment of 20 million baht. In parallel with the implementation of the projects during the urgent phase, public awareness campaigns on marine safety for boat captains and crews were executed in partnership with DASTA Area-III through providing boat safety training and educating boat captains and crews on boating safety practices. Regarding the long-term phase, the Pattaya Deputy Mayor further addressed the importance of financial support from the central government as the Pattaya model conforms to the government policy of raising the marine safety to ensure the tourists' confidence, resulting in direct benefits to the city and the local community, according to the following statement (A Pattaya Deputy Mayor, August 22, 2015, Interview):

The program has been executed in association with the government policy. To get long-term results, many things must be changed and introduced and that require some central grants.

Limits of budget and staff are issues of the utmost concern for the stakeholders in the public sector; however, consistency in the adoption and implementation of the program as well as strict enforcement of rules and regulations are of critical concern of a civil society organization like the PBTA in accord with a statement shown in Krungthep Turakij (2014):

The integration of collaborative partnership in the program is the most essential challenging to accomplish a mutual goal of uplifting maritime safety, however, consistency of implementation and strict enforcement should be critically considered by city officials.

#### 4.2.2.2 Pattaya City Beach Clean-Up

The beautifully curving fine white sand beach and clear water of Pattaya beach, together with a great variety of activities, have made Pattaya a “must beach” to visit for many holidaymakers. Among the beaches in Pattaya, there are only a few where sun worshippers allow their bodies to relax with beers and where tourists enjoy

their nightlife: Pattaya and Jomtien beaches. With an influx of tourist arrivals to the two beach areas, a number of local people have perceived their economic return from its scenic beauty and have had businesses along the seashore for over decades, particularly the beach chair and umbrella rental business. Based on the 2008 report, there were 119 beach chair and umbrella operators on Pattaya beach and double that on Jomtien beach, which covers a public space of 4.47 kilometers or more than 50% of the total beach area. Nonetheless, many negative criticisms regarding advantages taken from visitors and tourists have recently appeared in various media, resembling the report of the Pattaya city call center, which indicated that the complaints regarding taking advantage of tourists, such as jacking up beach chairs rentals during festival events, were among the most frequent complaint found in 2012-2014.

For years, there have been a number of city orders imposed on the arrangement of beach businesses, but many were found to be ineffective due to the discontinuity of enforcement. Police Major Chirawat Sukontasatg who took over as a member of acting committee of several beach clean-up programs, stated the following (The Head of the Pattaya City Law Enforcement Department, May 22, 2015, Interview):

The city has implemented many city orders to regulate beach business since 1998; however, the last two city orders are likely to be most effective.

Taking into account the two prior city orders, the 2003 and 2008 versions, imposed on beach rental business operators, it is evident that many specifications regarding the beach chair business were addressed in the 2003 city order, for example, a 7m x 7m size rental space, allowing not more than 40 lounge chairs for 35 umbrellas and not more than 10 swimming tubes available for rent, business operation times from 07:00 to 18:30 hrs., and the prohibition of cooking. The 2008 city order was outstanding in that a number of provincial-level government agencies, chaired by the Deputy Provincial Governor of Chonburi, were involved in sorting out the problem and clarifying the rules governing the operation of legal beach businesses. Due to the expansion of beach encroachment, for which more than 50% of

public beach space was occupied by 376 operators reported in 2008, the first formal registration was enforced in order to control the rapid expansion of beach operators in the same year. By doing so, it was empirically found that some beach operators owned more than one beach business plot, which was consistent with the report of the ASTV manager online that indicated that some beach operators owned up to 9 plots (ASTV Manager Online, 2008). Consequently, the first Pattaya city beach clean-up committee was formed in 2008, aiming to respond to the issue and to control the proportion of beach chairs by 50% of total beach space, including a maximum of 3 beach business plots for each operator (The Head of the Pattaya City Law Enforcement Department, May 22, 2015, Interview).

However, the progress was found to be an enforcement failure because the new rule of 2008 was ineffective, as evidenced by the opening of more than 50% of the total public beach areas for beach chair and umbrella operators, and the restriction on beach business plots was found to reduce the size of each plot rather than the quantity. Regarding this failure, the Pattaya Deputy Mayor Ronnakit Ekasingh further admitted the failure of the prior city orders regarding beach clean-up in the Bangkok Post newspaper on August 31, 2014 (Chaiyot Yongcharoenchai, 2014):

Since law regulating the beaches came into effect for over a decade, the situation had swung out of control and none of beach chair operators strictly follow our rules.

Not so long after that, the 2014 Pattaya beach clean-up was resumed when there was a negative issue affecting Pattaya city's tourism image that appeared on the Internet, showing a video clip of a Cambodian employee of a beach operator on the Nuan beach of Larn Island kicking sand on a sitting Russian female tourist in order to drive her away from his beach operation area. This video clip was widely criticized and negatively affected the tourism image of Pattaya city. Therefore, a group of local tourism associations, led by the PBTA's president, raised the issue to Pattaya city on September 8, 2014 and suggested the Pattaya Deputy Mayor to utilize the chance of Thailand's military regime, under the National Council for Peace and

Order (NCPO), to rearrange the beach in a military-friendly, orderly line with the rest of free sand available for tourists (Kom Chad Luek Online, 2014) similar to what they initially did in Phuket and Hua Hin. In order to respond to the demands of the PBTA and to prevent the military from stepping in, Pattaya city collaborated with Chonburi Province to bring a number of representatives from different sectors, namely, the public, private, and civil society sector, to set up a group of 27 steering committees with full commitment to a common shared goal—returning the natural charm and allowing visitors to enjoy its beauty without hindrance—on September 15, 2014. After that, the procedure of beach chair arrangement for the Pattaya and Jomtien beaches was formally introduced and stakeholder participation was engaged at various stages of the program implementation.

In formulating the project, a wide range of stakeholders was called to a meeting on September 11, 2014 at the Pattaya City Hall. The meeting was chaired by the deputy provincial governor together with the Pattaya Deputy Mayor, and military representatives from the 14<sup>th</sup> Military Circle of Chonburi District, aiming to give informed and a clarified understanding of the beach clean-up program to beach chair and umbrella operators on both Pattaya and Jomtien beaches. Although they were the main implementers, not more than a half of the total beach chair and umbrella operators participated in the meeting, which lasted 3 hours. Regarding those that participated, most of them recognized the positive impacts of the beach clean-up program; however, some were afraid of losing their jobs. For example, Mr. Dum, a beach chair operator in front of a large shopping mall, appeared in the Bangkok Post Sunday (Chaiyot Yongcharoenchai, 2014), stating the following:

I am scared the NCP will come and clean up the beach like they did to Phuket and Hua Hin. I have no back-up plan; this is the only career I have.

Regarding the implementation process, three groups of committees, namely the steering, acting, and monitoring committee, were established by provincial order no. 4379/ 2557 (B.E.), 4510/ 2557 (B.E.) and 162/ 2558 (B.E.), respectively, so as to put forward the achievement of the program. It is notable that one representative

from both local tourism associations and the military was included in the group of 27 steering committees, chaired by the Deputy Governor, and a majority of the steering committees were comprised of Pattaya city officials, accounting for 55% of the total number, followed by provincial government agencies, such as the district officer, the Pattaya Marine Department, and the Pattaya Tourism Authority. Amongst the three committees, the steering committee was the most important group because the solution and overall implementation were to be determined by them.

Additionally, those that actually brought a defined solution into practice were regarded as the acting committee, consisting of various government officials and local volunteers that gathered to collect the field data by both interview and questionnaire survey with beach chair and umbrella operators regarding their beach business concession. The interviews aimed to gather preliminary information about the existing business status, for example, ownership status, years of business establishment, and the actual size of the beach plot. Based on the large number of local beach operators, the acting committee was divided into 10 groups, where 15 were government officials and local volunteers in each group. Notably, the 10 different groups were led by 8 Deputy District officers and 2 provincial government officials from Provincial Disaster Prevention and Mitigation as well as the Chief of Provincial Security Affairs. Besides the steering and acting committee, two other equal groups of 6 government officials were formed as monitoring committees to undertake the control, supervision, and monitoring of the implementation of the acting committees of the two beaches, including preparing an interim report for the Pattaya city's mayor. Similar to the two other committees, a greater number of monitoring committees included city officials, followed by those from provincial government agencies.

Presently, there is more public beach space available for visitors and tourists on Pattaya and Jomtien beach, namely 60.23% and 58.06% respectively. Through the partnership scheme, the operations of 14 beach chair and umbrella operators were terminated due to a lack pre-existing registration conditions of 2008, according to an initial requirement determined by the steering committee. Those of qualified status were required to reduce their existing beach plots so as to provide more public space available for tourists to enjoy their leisure along the beaches. At the

same time, the city officials also provided mitigating measures for operators that were found to be unqualified but had no other alternative jobs by evacuating them to the end point of the beach plot operation. As a result, 13 operators could continue their occupation. Owing to the significance of the present enforcement, many details were similar to previous ones, such as the prohibition of on-site cooking and specified operating hours, except “Wednesday-off”—the item that was imposed on every beach chair and umbrella operator to have a regular day off on Wednesday, aiming to freely open the public beach for both visitors and tourists. By so doing, a large number (over 70%) of visitors were satisfied with the 2014 regulations because there was more beach space available to them (Pattaya City Administration, 2015). On the other hand, dissatisfaction was clearly found among the beach operators, for 2 main reasons—the loss of economic benefits and the lack of sufficient communication from city officials. For example, a 54 year-old beach operator who owned 2 beach plots on Pattaya beach for decades stated the following (A Beach Operator, May 23, 2015, Interview):

Most of us always agree to what the city asked for, i.e. beach clean-up. However, the problems were sometimes raised because of no clarification was provided to us.

Besides the claim of the lack of communication with local people, a speedboat rental operator on Jomtien beach also indicated the discontinuity of program implementation as among the root causes of the failure to enforce any city regulations, including prior beach operation regulations, according to the following statement (A Speed Boat Operator, May 23, 2015, Interview):

Although the Pattaya city has implemented various kinds of program to improve city tourism industry, discontinuity of the implementation has made many failures.

The 2014 regulation was imposed a few years ago; however, there were many incidents showing that some beach operators violated the regulation, such as

allowing tourists and visitors to drag their deckchairs and sit out of the prohibited area, over-placement deckchairs, etc.

#### 4.2.2.3 Land Development Project of Thappraya Royal Park

Although most of the land areas in Pattaya have been transformed to commercial and high-density residential areas, some areas have remained that are restricted for residential and agricultural purposes, such as Thappraya hill located in central Pattaya. For the purpose of undertaking any government project in these restricted areas, the process of EIA and public participation is a preliminary requirement in accord with the Royal Gazette (or so-called “Ratchakichanuneksa”) on land development of Pattaya city.

With adherence to the current tourism development vision, a “world-class tourist destination,” and the tourism campaign “PATTAYA City...Definitely More” proclaimed by Nayok Tik, the Thappraya Royal Park construction project was introduced so as to transform a wasteland area of 45 hectares of both Thappraya and PraYai hills (or “Khao” in Thai), located in south Pattaya, to be an ecological tourist attraction and public park for both tourists and local people as a mean of generating more income for the inbound tourism industry. Through the initiative of the current Pattaya city’s mayor, the proposed construction project was first introduced to the public on May 2014 in association with the tourism promotional strategies of the central and provincial governments, according to the following statement (A Pattaya Deputy Mayor, May 22, 2015, Interview):

One of the primary responsibilities for both Chonburi province and Pattaya city is to maintain existing tourist attractions, at the same time, to develop the new one.

Owing to the importance of the project area, it was considered to be of local and cultural significance because there are some locally-important places situated on each hill, namely, the “Luang Phor Yhai” Buddha image on Pra Yai hill and the monument of the Father of Thai Navy, Kromluang Chumphonkhetudomsak on Thappraya hill. Besides concerns about local sensitivity, the project was also constrained by a huge financial investment that forced Pattaya city to specify the

project in either a 3- or 5-year local development plan (Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau, 2014). In compliance with the regulations of the Office of the Prime Minister on undertaking state projects, the process of public consultation was employed as a mechanism to sort out a preferred alternative for the local community and to determine an operational framework before actual project implementation.

In the beginning of the public consultation process, the Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau as the host organization assigned by the mayor, invited all 42 CCG leaders, by formal letter and phone call, to join a public meeting. The meeting was gathered not only CCG leaders and the city executives and officials, but also other relevant stakeholders, namely, provincial-level government agencies, non-government organization (NGO), local media, including consultancy team of the Feel Green Design Co., Ltd which won the 6 million baht city contract for the 10-month feasibility study of Thappraya Royal Park project. The three-hour civic meeting was held on the morning of November 11, 2014 to gather 96 stakeholders at the Winter Ballroom of the Seasons Pattaya Hotel. Presiding over the first meeting, the city's mayor gave a brief presentation regarding the rationale of the project and significant contribution of the public participation process. At the same time, the mayor also expressed his concerns about the conservation of mountain greenery and was committed to utilizing the best use of the natural resources with a sound management approach throughout the project lifecycle (ASTV Manager Online, 2014b), resembling the great concern of most local residents regarding environmental degradation (Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau, 2015a). After the 30-minute presentation of the mayor, a representative of the consultancy team supportively clarified the potential benefits of the project in terms of the economic, social and environmental dimensions, such as better infrastructure development and job opportunities for local residents. The result showed that 63.79% of local respondents agreed that land transformation could expand the tourism capacity of the city and increase the economic benefits; however, much consideration was given to how the project was to be implemented and maintained, particularly regarding the aspects of project consistency and transparency.

Three months after the first civic meeting, the second meeting was held at Pattaya City Hall and 83 stakeholders participated. Similar to the first meeting, the

meeting was chaired by the mayor in the afternoon of February 2, 2015 and lasted for 2.30 hours. At that particular time, the meeting aimed to consult and get feedback from local residents regarding the project, particularly on its possible benefits and impacts. Apparently, 45.45% of the total local residents realized the positive benefits of the project, such as promoting the tourism industry and rebuilding the tourism image of the city. Nonetheless, the adverse impacts on the environment and local identity were of most concern, accounting for 75% of total respondents. Furthermore, some had also raised and criticized lot of unsolved issues regarding Pattaya city in the meeting, for example, the construction of a view-blocking Waterfront condominium project and boat parking in Bali Hai Pier of south Pattaya. As a consequence, most of the local residents that participated in the meeting were reluctant to allow other massive projects to be constructed in the city. For example, an NGO representative (Pattaya Watchdog Group's Facebook, 2015a) raised the legal issue of pollution control to the city officials and consultancy team in the following:

According to the National Environment Quality Act B.E. 2535 (1992), Pattaya city is a designated area for pollution control so any project that has negative impact on environment should be rejected.

Not long after that, the third civic meeting was called to survey and determine the most favorable alternatives to the land development project of Thappraya Royal Park on February 27, 2015 at Pattaya City Hall for 3 hours. The third meeting became the largest in terms of public participation because 284 stakeholders participated to select a favorable alternative in the questionnaires. Significantly, a representative of an NGO named "Pattaya Watchdog" mentioned the reason for the largest participation of local stakeholders (Pattaya Watchdog, August 21, 2015, Focus Group Discussion):

There is a rumor that a large number of trees will be cut off if the project is implemented. This makes critical concerns about environment among local residents.

Before determining the final decision on alternatives to the Thappraya Royal Park construction project, three alternatives were presented by the consultancy team for an hour, showing virtual illustrations of what might be constructed on Thappraya hill, such as tram tracks, cycling routes, a One-Tambon One-Product (OTOP) center, and points for viewing the city and bay, in order to transform the underdeveloped area of Thappraya hill into what city the officials imagined as a “world-class tourist destination.” Generally, the alternatives were classified into 3 groups depending upon the complexity of the project construction, as shown in Table 4.3.

Based on the failure of key persons to show up, particularly local executives, until the end of the meeting, and the non-participation of educators when historical and cultural learning centers were proposed to be constructed, some local residents criticized the lack of consideration of the city officials of the issues. For example, an NGO representative (Pattaya Watchdog Group’s Facebook, 2015b) stated the following in the meeting:

Although public participation is encouraged by the City, there was no single educator participated in the third meeting wherein some clarification is essential to making decision on favorable alternative.

**Table 4.3** Alternatives to the Thappraya Royal Park Construction Project

<b>Alternative</b>	<b>Detailed Explanation</b>
A-I	Existing landscape improvement together with road maintenance and construction of a nature trail
A-II	Ecotourism and nature conservation, focusing on conserving a greenery area and increasing public utility through the construction of various types of tourism amenities and tourist attractions, i.e. an OTOP center, and a Pattaya historical and cultural center
A-III	Fully-developed area for tourism purposes, through land expropriation and transformation, to a large-scale tourist attraction, including an OTOP center, and a Pattaya historical and cultural center

At the end of the third meeting, all of the local stakeholders were asked to mark their favorable alternative in the questionnaires. Eventually, 155 questionnaires were submitted to the consultancy team, contributing to a response rate of 54.58%. According to the results of the questionnaire survey, the majority of the respondents (50.97%) had no opinion on the Thappraya Royal Park construction project, followed by 27.10% of respondents that agreed with the A-II alternative but largely suggested improvement of the cleanliness condition, traffic management, and public safety by provisions of street lighting and necessary tourist amenities. On the other hand, 16.13% agreed with the A-I alternative as a major reason for forestry conservation. The results were consistent with the report of the ASTV Manager Online (2015), indicating that a greater number of local residents pay most attention to the development of public utilities, such as street lighting and road safety management, rather than new construction because the project area is likely to be the “lung” of the city as it is the last green area to absorb pollutants.

Besides the questionnaire survey with those that participated in the public meeting, the consultancy firm utilized the opinion survey and individual interviews with households, CCG leaders, and Chinese tourists conducted during 13-14 and 20-21 December 2014 showing satisfactory results of the proposed project. According to the summary report submitted to Pattaya city, the opinions of 390 households and 72 CCG leaders, including 132 tourists, were surveyed. By using the method of an opinion survey with household and CCG leaders, the results apparently contrasted with those of the public hearings because a large number of household and CCG leaders agreed with the proposed project, accounting for 97% and 87.5%, respectively. Among those agreeing, they believed that a positive consequence would be pervasive after implementing the project, particularly in the economic dimension. However, much concern was addressed regarding the issues related to the consequences of the development of the environment and ecological vulnerability. In addition to the agreement of local leaders’ perspectives, the survey indicated that the majority of Chinese tourists, accounting for more than 80%, strongly agree with the proposed project. Besides the concerns of the agreeing respondents, the study found similar concerns among the opponents—ambiguity of project implementation, possible deforestation, and lack of future maintenance plans regarding cleanliness and

tidiness affairs. Similarly, a member of Pattaya Watchdog seriously complained about the following in the third public hearing (Pattaya Watchdog Group's Facebook, 2015a):

It is not worthwhile to build new infrastructure development project and tourists' amenities as long as the existing one remains poor maintenance. This makes public safety issue remain being questioned to a larger society.

Furthermore, a local beverage retailer at Khao PraYai temple where the project area will be located, stating his disagreement: "Instead of emphasizing on new construction projects, the city should first improve its mandatory roles, such as cleanliness, public safety, waste management, etc." (A Local Beverage Retailer, May 22, 2015, Interview). This was consistent with the attitude of a speedboat rental operator interviewed on May 23, 2015, claiming the following:

The city officials should pay much attention on maintaining city cleanliness and carrying out tourists' safety, rather than spend enormous budget for installation of CCTV which mostly were out of order.

However, the construction project was temporarily postponed to a later date, as the consequence of a formal letter from the Chonburi provincial governor sent to the city's mayor regarding the project postponement.

### **4.3 Determination of Key Stakeholders in Local Environmental Sustainability Programs**

This part of the present study aims to determine the key stakeholders of both local governments in terms of three relationship attributes—power, legitimacy, and urgency—found in the above-indicated programs of the local governments. The key

stakeholder groups were analytically determined by using the case study protocol (Appendix C) as detailed illustration.

#### **4.3.1 Definitive Stakeholders**

According to the preceding parts, it is notable that upper-level government agencies, namely national and provincial governments, are the definitive stakeholder group of both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city. In the meantime, local tourism business associations, the PBTA in particular, are also prominent definitive stakeholders of Pattaya.

##### **4.3.1.1 Upper-Level Government Agencies**

In Saensuk, both national and provincial governments possess the power attribute to allocate specific project-based grants for the municipality to increase the revenue capacity in tackling local problems, particularly the coastal erosion problem of more than 500 affected households. Similarly, hundreds of millions of baht would be periodically allocated to Pattaya city if the Thappraya Royal Park construction project would have passed the public referendum at a very high threshold. In regard to the legitimacy attribute, it highlights the relationship of the central-local government and the process of budget allocation from the line ministries, the Ministry of Interior to local government authorities under the Thai public administration system. Under this system, both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city are obligated to conduct public hearings and deliberations before undertaking the construction projects of state project, namely sea breakwater and Thappraya Royal Park construction projects, in order to comply with the regulations of the Office of the Prime Minister on Public Consultation, B.E. 2548 (2005), as the two construction projects are likely to cause an adverse impact on environmental quality as well as the way of life of the people in their localities. Unlike the blue swimming crab conservation, which used funds from its own municipal budget and private partners, the public consultation process is not mandatory. In addition to compliance with government regulations, the system gives room for the provincial government, especially the Governor, to monitor and to be involved in the decision-making process of any local development projects belonging to local governments, including endorsing a collaborative partnership among the public, private, and civil society sectors in the province for working toward the shared

common goal, evidenced by the case of the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs. This reflects that the Provincial Governor has referent power to exert influence on Pattaya. In the meantime, the involvement of the Governor in evaluating the opinions of local residents on the Thappraya Royal Park construction project showed how a monitoring mechanism took place between the provincial and local government to ensure the best benefits of implementing the project for the entire society.

#### 4.3.1.2 Local Tourism Associations

Besides the participation of public agencies, it was clearly found that local tourism associations in Pattaya city, particularly the PBTA—an affiliated organization comprised of more than 70 members from 9 business sectors in Pattaya aiming at promoting tourism-related businesses and creating a positive tourism image of Pattaya city (Pattaya Business and Tourism Association, 2015), became another definitive stakeholder of Pattaya. Also, the interviews with Pattaya city's mayor and Deputy Mayor showed that the PBTA and Pattaya city have a close relationship and provided mutual support when extra resources are required, such as financial, manpower, and market-access resources. Regarding the ownership of these resources, the PBTA has power to influence the decision-making process of any programs related to tourism development in the city. Further, the PBTA has been an affiliate association under the Trade Associations Act, B.E. 2509 for over decades. Since its establishment, the PBTA has been involved in a number of tourism development projects of Pattaya city in various ways, organizing joint meetings with the city executives and officials, submission of proposals regarding tourism development to the City Council, voicing concerns via local media, etc. According to the indicated programs, the president of the PBTA in many cases puts pressure on the city executives and officials when any negative issues affecting the tourism image take place in the city, such as the unpleasant incident of a Cambodian employee kicking sand on a Russian female tourist on Nuan beach on Larn Island, including a lot of fatal boating accidents caused by Jet Ski captains in 2013. These two incidents were the rationale for the urgent claims of the PBTA over the city officials regarding their ignorance in enforcing the city regulations regarding beach business operations and vessel calamities in the city, respectively. In order to respond to their urgent claims,

the city executives eventually alleviated the serious situations by collaborating with the Chonburi Provincial Government for endorsement of different committees to jointly work on both issues and to combat any local opposition to the new regulations on the operation of beach chairs and umbrellas, including the boating business. Evidently, the PBTA's president was endorsed as one of a member of the steering committee for both Pattaya maritime safety and the beach clean-up programs. Also, all 7 demands requested by the president to improve marine safety, such as drug tests for boat crews, marine safety training, etc. were finally included in the existing five measures of the "Pattaya model," indicated in Table 4.2. It can be assumed that the PBTA has gained much attention from Pattaya city to conform to the claims and demands over the issues related to either maintaining or restoring the good image of Pattaya city's tourism industry.

#### 4.3.1.3 Relevant Government Agencies

Owing to the significance of the endorsement of several committees made by the Chonburi Provincial Governor, there has been great involvement of relevant government agencies to collaboratively work in both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs. Through state regulatory and provincial endorsement, the participation of relevant government agencies in both programs has been legitimated as advocacy groups in either the form of steering or coordinating committees. By virtue of authority, the coordinating committee typically provides support to the steering committee whose members are normally chaired by the Governor. Based on the bureaucratic structure, the relevant government agencies at both the provincial and district levels commonly accede to the operational frameworks and regulations decided among the steering committee. Likewise, a member of the coordinating committee affirmed that "All implementing measures of beach clean-up program had been determined by steering committee but implemented by us" (A Coordinating Committee, May 21, 2005, Interview). Owing to the significance of their legitimacy, these government agencies have in many cases helped Pattaya city overcome staff shortages and facilitate the enforcement imposed on local beach and boat operators through their referent power derived from the provincial endorsement. For example, the case of the beach clean-up in which military was involved, the stepping-in of military officials to rearrange the Pattaya and

Jomtien beaches was the consequence of the urgent claim and suggestion of the PBTA's president in association with the intention of the local executives to avoid the use of the military. Instead of getting the military fully involved, the city decided to partner with both the Chonburi Provincial Government and the 14<sup>th</sup> Military Circle of Chonburi District to keep things under control, at the same time, responding to the demand of local tourism associations in reregulating beach businesses.

#### **4.3.2 Dominant Stakeholders**

Besides the existence of definitive stakeholders, the study found that the dominant stakeholders, whose power and legitimate rights matter to the local governments, were the greatest number of stakeholders participating in the above-indicated local environmental sustainability programs of Saensuk municipality. To compare the dominant stakeholders of the two local authorities, one common characteristic was found—they were from both the public and civil society sector, but in varying degrees of diversification. In other words, the participation of the stakeholders in the civil society sector was mostly found in the programs of Saensuk municipality, compared to those in Pattaya city.

##### **4.3.2.1 Educational and Research Institutes, and Local Fishery Associations**

Based on the best practices for the crab conservation initiatives of Sriracha municipality, the program has been replicated by many LGUs in the province, including Saensuk municipality. With a little knowledge on crab and marine conservation, Saensuk's crab conservation program was established with the supervision of Sriracha municipality in partnership with other civil society and public organizations to share their resources for implementing the program. The resources are comprised of hands-on experience with small-scale fisheries from the Chonburi fisheries association, and technical knowledge and advisory support from the Sriracha Fisheries Research Station of Kasetsart University. This reflects the fact that these stakeholders are playing a supporting role depending on their competence and expertise. Based on their help for the successful implementation of Sriracha's crab condos, these stakeholders are widely accepted by the entire society, including Saensuk municipality. Consequently, they have legitimate rights to participate in

Saensuk's crab conservation program. By possessing both power and legitimacy, these stakeholders are capable of advising and recommending how the crab conservation program should be implemented and designed considering local contexts and the capacities of local fishers. In addition to the direct benefits pertaining to the achievement of the crab conservation program, the ICM partnership facilitated the collaboration of Burapha University in executing the Bang Saen NO foam program in 2012. Interviews with the mayor and municipal officials showed that the participation of civil society organizations provided large-scale benefits to the municipality aside from the research and knowledge contribution. As is evident from both the Bang Saen No foam and crab conservation programs, the involvement of these organizations has helped Saensuk municipality reduce local resistance to changing their long-overdue practices both in catching gravid crab and in using foam food containers, including the advocated participation of private firms such as Siam Ocean World and Biodegradable Packaging Environment PLC.

Taking into account the programs that these stakeholders normally participate in, it is notable that they always provide assistance rather than pushing any serious claims on the local problems. Therefore, they are likely to play a supporting role for the municipality. For instance, an educator (An Educator of Burapha University, July 26, 2014, Interview) played a fairly important but not leading part in the university putting forward a local environmental sustainability effort as seen in the following statement:

The municipality has constantly implemented number of tourism development programs and we provide knowledge and research contribution to supplement, rather than making claims.

#### 4.3.2.2 Neighboring Local Authority

As a part of the Province of Chonburi ICM program, Saensuk municipality was bound to replicate the successful crab conservation method of its neighboring local authority—Sriracha municipality, showing one of various means in dealing with a steadily decreasing crab population in a sustainable manner through the participation of local fishers and communities. In this regard, the legitimate

relationship of Sriracha municipality with other local governments in the province is addressed through the mechanism of the ICM network. Additionally, an interview with a marine scientist from Sriracha Fisheries Research Station on July 25, 2014 showed that the success of the crab conservation method demonstrated by Sriracha municipality is widely recognized by the entire society, evidenced by an increase in the average crab carapace size and crab catch per deployment. Therefore, the crab conservation initiative was replicated to Saensuk city without any local resistance. Through the collaborative network of Sriracha municipality comprised of educational and research institutions and the Chonburi fisheries association, the program is more suitable to local circumstances and provides social understanding.

Based on the long experience of Sriracha municipality in the executing crab conservation program, the mayor has been able to use that knowledge to disseminate his practical experience and to facilitate the replication of his best practice to Saensuk municipality and other interested local government authorities, covering the entire province. Similar to the participation of educational and research institutes, Sriracha municipality regularly gives suggestions to Saensuk municipality about how to implement the program rather than fully replicating the program. As evidenced from the program, the technique of the crab condo model was later modified in accordance with local circumstances.

#### 4.3.2.3 Cooperative Community Groups (CCGs)

Notably, CCGs are one of the most important stakeholders at the community level for both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city. According to relevant regulations and laws, CCGs have emerged as a voluntary organization at the community level whose leaders come from local elections while other committee members are appointed by the leader himself, working on a voluntary basis to look after any issues regarding community well-being. As a voluntary group accepted by community members, CCG leaders accumulate community power through pooling multiple individual resources in order to improve community well-being. Therefore, CCGs have in many cases boosted the responsiveness to local demands by raising community issues to be solved by their concerned local government as well as facilitating an enabling environment for public participation in local development programs. Taking into account the formal mechanism derived from laws, CCGs

presumably have a legitimate relationship with LGUs. In Saensuk, the participation of CCGs was empirically found in all the above-indicated programs. As part of the Province of Chonburi ICM program, all of the communities in the jurisdiction of Saensuk municipality were told to participate in the ICM implementation and blue swimming crab conservation programs. In a public hearing on alternatives to the sea breakwater construction of Saensuk municipality, it was evident that CCGs are a significantly important civic group giving comments on behalf of their community members and helping to correct misunderstanding or the reluctance of local fishers that are afraid of the adverse impact of the project on their small-scale fisheries. Moreover, CCGs have brought about local engagement in marine resources and environmental conservation in blue swimming crab conservation and the Bang Saen NO foam program, respectively, through both formal and informal communication mechanisms, such as monthly civic meetings, everyday talks, mobile chat applications, etc.

Based on a loophole in the regulatory framework of the public consultation process, a loophole provides room for Pattaya city to utilize the satisfactory results of the attitude surveys of those that the city executives and officials knew and trusted. As shown in the Thappraya Royal Park construction project, the city officials employed the prior results of the attitude survey conducted with the CCG leaders and some household leaders in order to avoid the necessity of conforming to the pressures of the opponents to the project. With their close interaction with Pattaya city and legitimate rights as indirect representatives locally elected by community members, many of Pattaya's CCG leaders have in many cases supported the ideas and interests of the city executives.

#### **4.3.3 Dependent Stakeholders**

Notably, dependent stakeholders, who depend on other stakeholders for the power to carry out their will, were only found in the case of Pattaya city. This group of stakeholders was comprised of local beach and boat operators. According to the statistics for Pattaya city in 2014, there were 1,233 boats (Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau, 2015c) serving the demands of tourists. All of them were obligated to register their business with the Marine Department and pay an annual permit license fee of

2,000 baht to the Pattaya city administration, in much the same what that the 376 beach chair and umbrellas operators had to. Through the registration system, these local operators have established a legitimate relationship with the city as a rent payer and this could lead to a dependence relationship. In this regard, they are the main stakeholders that are affected by the implementation of the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs. Consequently, they normally get involved in any civic meetings related to their business operations at the Pattaya City Hall in order to become informed and to negotiate with the city executives and officials. Considering the two programs, it was evident that both types of operators either placed urgent claims or requested the city to respond to their demands regarding the issues affecting them.

Many operators have recognized the rationale of the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs. However, they still have requested the city executives, particularly the mayor, to comply with their demands, such as an enforcement delay for actual implementation of the beach clean-up program and reconsidering how vessel traffic and sea land would be determined in the maritime safety program. With their lack of power to directly pressure the decision of Pattaya city, they have in many cases voiced their demands through an indirect representative, who is a member of the Pattaya Council and chairman of the business boat club, Mr. Sanit Boonmachai, to negotiate with the city executives.

This is consistent with the ASTV Manager Online (2014a) who reported his disagreement with reorganizing beach business operation according to the following statement:

The operation of beach chairs and umbrellas business is a long-standing characteristic of Pattaya city. Such reorganizing is likely to harm them.

Significantly, the result of the interviews with local beach and boat operators along Pattaya beach in 2015 showed that they have been aware of existing tourism-related problems and have realized the standardization process of the city enforcement, but in many cases lack channels for proper communication about the

programs and substantial motivation to ensure their participation. For example, some of the non-participating operators claimed that there was a communication failure of the city officials in articulating a fundamental understanding of how the program is going to be implemented in Pattaya.

#### **4.3.4 Discretionary Stakeholders**

Discretionary stakeholders are another group of stakeholders that possess only a legitimacy attribute, but they have neither power to influence nor the urgent claim on the local government decision-making process. Based on this characteristic, the study found that local residents of both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city as well as Saensuk's local beach vendors were in this group.

##### **4.3.4.1 Local Residents**

According to the decentralization regulations and laws, local residents have the legitimate right to participate in any local development programs; however, the study found that they generally exert minimal effort—low participation and interest—in alleviating any social problems, including promoting local environmental sustainability in their locality. Based on non-participant observation in the municipal meeting, it is widely accepted that one of the most critical problems found at the community level of Saensuk is a lack of civic engagement in community meetings, accounting for 79% of total CCGs (Saensuk Municipality, 2014). Also, local residents always give their participation rights in municipal meetings to their CCG representatives to communicate their needs and interests to the local executives and officials. Therefore, the participation of local residents normally takes place through indirect participation, allowing their representatives to speak for them, verified by the following statement (A Local Resident, May 15, 2014, Interview):

I seldom attend every meeting due to my daily business and lack of time for participation but I always keep informed by community leader on what the municipality is going to do.

Although they participated, local residents are very concerned about the issues related to their everyday life in the community, such as cleanliness and

street lighting, rather than the objectives of the meeting. Similar to Pattaya city, minimal effort to engage in the public participation process of local residents has resulted in the ignorance of city officials regarding their disagreement over the proposed alternatives to Thappraya Royal Park construction project, which the city offset with the agreement of the CCG leaders and some household representatives. With their indirect participation, together with a lack of power over and urgent claims calling for immediate attention, local residents are considered as laggards that have lagged far behind the attention of local authorities.

#### 4.3.4.2 Local Beach Vendors

In Saensuk, beach vendors are classified into 9 groups depending on the characteristics of their business operation. Therefore, each of their business operations has been imposed on by different kinds of Municipal Acts and regulations since 1995. Based on this long-term enforcement of the commercial usage of public space or beaches endorsed by Saensuk municipality, local beach vendors strictly follow the pre-existing regulations of the municipality without any opposition. Through this mechanism, their legitimacy emerged not only from being rent payers but also from the regulatory framework. In this regard, all groups of local vendors along Bang Saen beach were encouraged to participate and were informed about the rationale of the Bang Saen NO foam program. Although they have neither power nor legitimate claims against the program, it is notable that the municipality has provided a number of means to prevent potential resistance to change, and at the same time, raise awareness of local vendors regarding the issues surrounding their unsustainable practice, such as using foam packaging. As evidenced from the program, a sense of ownership among the local vendors in terms of contributing to and employing environmentally-friendly practices have been created through focus group discussions on sustainable alternatives to foam packaging. With scientific knowledge shared by Burapha University as well as the involvement of private firms that produce eco-friendly packaging, local vendors agreed and complied with the new municipal regulations to use eco-friendly packaging, such as reusable and biodegradable containers that cause less damage to their lives and the environment in the long run. In the meantime, an effective local campaign through reducing annual licensing fees can motivate local vendors to be active implementers, rather than unwilling players, to put

forward the program achievement, which will result in a direct benefit for the entire society.

#### **4.3.5 Demanding Stakeholders**

Taking into account the program of Pattaya city in which non-government organizations participated, the Thappraya Royal Park construction project is notable through the participation of the Pattaya Watchdog group, a group of local people that have protested against a new condominium project named “Waterfront Suites and Residences” that destroyed the panoramic view from Pattaya city’s most popular landmark in south Pattaya. Although the Pattaya Watchdog group has neither power nor legitimacy to exert its influence on Pattaya city, they frequently make claims on the unsolved issues that have occurred in the city. Therefore, they are considered as demanding stakeholders.

Interviews with city executives and some CCG leaders showed that the Pattaya Watchdog group is regarded as an annoying group for the city as they frequently raise negative criticism and call for an immediate response of the city officials, but many issues have been found to be beyond the sole authority of the city, such as foreign mafia, the model of land use and land ownership, and the water treatment system. For example, a CCG leader gave his opinion that “Our tourism sector cannot be further developed if the Pattaya Watchdog remains dispute against tourism development initiatives of the city executives” (A Leader of CCG, August 22, 2015, Interview). In contrast to the claim of the members of Pattaya Watchdog group, the rationale for group formation derived from their consideration on the neglect and incompetence of city executives and officials, including weak law enforcement, which has become a root cause of many unsolved problems in Pattaya, as affirmed in the following statement (Pattaya Watchdog Group, August 21, 2015, Focus Group Discussion):

Our group was established in 2014 aiming to protest against neglecting practices of local authorities, as a consequence of a new condominium project near Bali Hai pier which destroy the panoramic view from Pattaya’s most popular landmark.

Additionally, the group has also enlisted help from local activists from the conservation group Ao Na-klua, which works on environmental issues along Klong Nok Yang for the past six years. The conservation group has similar memories of rampant development in Pattaya city that caused negative consequences for their community well-being, as evidenced by the following statement of a 71-year-old woman who has been living in the Naklua area in the northern Pattaya since the day she was born (Pattaya Watchdog Group, August 21, 2015, Focus Group Discussion):

In the past, Klong Nok Yang, near where I live, used to be a big canal where fishing boats came to shelter from approaching storms. Presently, the canal is now lined with houses and restaurants, resulting to its narrower...when it rains, it floods.

Owing to more than 30 years of residential tenure in Pattaya city, the two group members have similarly experienced that rapid tourism development in Pattaya city has slowly overrun the once tranquil seaside city. Based on the mutually-shared goal to reclaim the city's former image as a clean and safe tourist destination, the two groups have supported each other to monitor the city administration. As evidenced from the program, their criticisms on the accountability of Pattaya city executives and officials about neglected issues that cause the degradation of environmental conditions and cultural identity have been raised in the public hearings on the construction of the Thappraya Royal Park project. This is consistent with the focus group discussion with representatives from the Pattaya Watchdog group in 2014, it showed that they were most concerned about the destruction of the environment and historical significance, resulting in their distrust of the Pattaya city administration, which gives most priority to the commercially-focused tourism development model. For example, an active representative of the Pattaya Watchdog group stated as follows (Pattaya Watchdog Group, August 21, 2015, Focus Group Discussion):

Thappraya hill is the most revered place in Pattaya, and local fishermen normally go there to pay respect to the statue of Admiral Prince of Chumphon, before taking to the sea. Instead of looking out

the ocean, the statue is now looking directly at condominium and going to be transformed into a tourist attraction.

Due to the ad hoc group formation and uncertainty regarding their organizational structure, the Pattaya Watchdog group is neither registered as a non-governmental organization nor as a local association, resulting in the direct impact on their legitimate relationship with Pattaya city. Therefore, their claims on overdeveloped tourism development and excessive use of tourism resources have not been considered much by the city executives and officials. As evidenced from the program, their objection to the construction of the Tharppraya Royal Park project was defeated by a large local consensus of CCG leaders and household representatives.

#### **4.4 The Relationships between Local Governments and Stakeholders**

In the preceding parts, the synthesis of stakeholder salience and attributes explained the reasons why the two local governments do, in fact, have different levels of attention to each stakeholder group. Taking into account the variety of stakeholder groups, the study found that power and legitimacy were fundamentally important attributes of the key stakeholders of the local government. Although an understanding the conditions for classifying stakeholder groups is essential to distinguishing between those that have and do not have an influence over the local government decision-making process, it does not illustrate the connections that exist between local governments and stakeholder groups in achieving local environmental sustainability. Consequently, this part of the present study aims to provide insights into the examination of the major mechanisms that link the local government and stakeholders.

##### **4.4.1 Central-Local Government Relationship**

Dating back to the promulgation of the 1997 Constitution, there had been many substantial changes in the political arena and local government bureaucracy as major turning points in influencing the emergence of numerous reform efforts in Thailand, including significantly expansion of the scope of public participation by

law. At that time, the general socio-economic and political situation in Thailand had turned in favor of decentralization (Dufhues, Theesfeld, Buchenrieder, and Munkung, 2011). For the first time in Thai history, the 1997 Constitution stipulated that the state “shall decentralize powers to localities for the purpose of independence and self-determination of local affairs” (The Constitution of Kingdom of Thailand, 1997: Article 78). Similarly, Chapter IX on Local Government further states that the state “shall give autonomy to the locality in accordance with the principle of self-government according to the will of the people in the locality” (The Constitution of Kingdom of Thailand, 1997: Article 282). Furthermore, the emergence of the Decentralization Plan and Procedures Act of 1999 showed three aspects of change determining public sector reform—administrative, political, and fiscal decentralization—in order to foster the effectiveness and responsiveness of local governments in relation to local needs. Practically, these three decentralization aspects have dramatically created a new pattern of relations between national and civil society, including the restructuring of a new framework for the reform of electoral and political processes, as well as altering the process of budget allocation from the central ministers to the local government.

The administrative decentralization is the most common aspect for defining decentralization by exemplifying the transfer of authority, responsibility, and resources through the mechanism of deconcentration, devolution, or delegation from the central government to lower levels of administration. With a long history as a unitary kingdom, centralized administration has become a dominant feature of the Thai administrative culture for decades until today, though there have been a number of radical changes in the matters affecting public sector reform. The 1997 Constitution critically mandates the decentralization of government structures from the national-level line ministries, notably the Ministry of Interior, to the provincial administration by dispatching Provincial Governors and district officers to supervise and control the local governments. Under the decentralized system, local governments still remain under the control and supervision of the provincial government, headed by the Provincial Governor, who has dispatching authority from the central government: the MoI. Through the bureaucratic structure, the Governor has the authority to approve the municipal budget and to monitor whether the specified

expenditures are consistent with the national development agenda and government policy, including commanding the provincial field officers from different ministers. Consequently, some development programs of the two local governments are either directed or formulated by the central ministries as national agenda and cascaded to the provincial government for implementation and administration, as with Saensuk's ICM and the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs, for example. As a permanent civil servant appointed by the MoI to facilitate and coordinate the public programs of various government agencies of different ministries in the province, the Governor has in many cases facilitated a cross-sector partnership with relevant government agencies at the provincial level, as evidenced by the programs of Pattaya's maritime safety and beach clean-up, where the officials from different ministers combined to be a part of the program committees through enactment of a provincial mandate. Without such a mandate, it is hardly possible that a wide range of government agencies will be willing to jointly work toward the stated objectives and goals because they are, in nature, from different line ministries.

Regarding the devolution aspect, it refers to the transfer of certain administrative functions and responsibilities from the central to local government in accordance with the Determining Plan and Process of Decentralization to Local Government Organization Act, B.E. 2542 (1999). The 1999 Decentralization Plan has divided the services to be transferred into six categories, namely 1) infrastructure; 2) quality of life; 3) order and security of communities and society; 4) planning, investment promotion, and commerce and tourism; 5) natural resources and environmental protection; and 6) arts and culture, traditions, and local wisdom. Under this aspect, the local government is independent for the design of local development initiatives as long as they remain in their statutory authority enacted by laws. As evidenced by Saensuk's crab conservation and the Bang Saen NO foam programs, the programs have been incorporated into the local development and budget plans because both are under the responsibility of the municipality in the realm of natural resources and environmental protection and quality of life, respectively. However, the deconcentration aspect highlights the transfer of power from central government to lower-level central government officials, who are upwardly accountable to the central government. The deconcentrated system allows the

Governor to monitor how the local governments' budgetary plan will be spent, since he is the person in charge of the Interior Minister, approving the annual budget, local regulations, dissolving local councils, and dismissing local councilors, including other development plans of the local governments in their respective authority. Consequently, for the local development projects that require a huge budget allocation, the Provincial Governor generally plays a major role in either approving or not approving further implementation, such as the approval of Saensuk's sea breakwater construction project as a part of the Province of Chonburi ICM program, whereas the disapproval of the Thappraya Royal Park project of Pattaya city was encountered with local resistance.

Besides the administrative reform derived from the introduction of the 1997 Constitution and Decentralization, the emergence of the National Decentralization Committee (NDC) reflected fiscal reform in accordance with the decentralization principle. Prior to the promulgation of the Constitution in 1997, the central government played a crucial role in determining the budget allocations for LGUs. At present, the annual budget of all LGUs is carried out through the Department of Local Administration (DLA) in two major channels: surcharged and shared taxes along with central grant allocation, based on the revenue distribution formula designed by NDC, instead of direct allocation from the national annual budget. Under the new administrative structure, the NDC under the Prime Minister's office as a national body performs a critical role in designing a revenue transfer formula for the various types of LGUs and setting policy guidelines toward decentralization, including monitoring and evaluating the devolution of administrative functions and the impacts on local people. However, it is noted that the availability of the budget acquisition of Pattaya city is more flexible than other LGUs, including Saensuk municipality, because Pattaya city's mayor can directly defend the city budget from the Bureau of Budget, which averages 1,500 million baht typically allocated to the city each year. Additionally, the notice of NDC regarding the criteria of central grant allocation to the LGUs for delivering public services since 2009 has strengthened the authority of the Provincial Governor for approval of the central grants for civil society, and charitable and nonprofit organizations.

#### **4.4.2 Local Network Relationship**

Besides the central-local government relationship, the study found that the local network relationship was another key relationship that links the local government with a wide range of stakeholders, particularly key stakeholders. In this regard, this part of the study mainly emphasizes the relationship in place that allows Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city to acknowledge the importance of stakeholder participation.

##### **4.4.2.1 Social Interactions**

The relationship between local governments and their CCGs was identical among the two LGUs. As evidenced from the programs of Saensuk's ICM and Thappraya Royal Park of Pattaya city, CCGs are considered as the most important stakeholder at the community level, having persuasive and suggestive influence to extract compliance from community members, particularly when the local governments are facing local resistance or opposition.

Since the promulgation of the 1953 Ministerial Decree of the Ministry of Interior and the amended Municipal Act of 1953 in 2000, CCGs have had close ties with the municipal government. The two regulatory frameworks give the mayor some room for the establishment of community associations, showing the self-local governing body at the community level. Based on the critical role in formulating the community development plan, each CCG is presumed to be a civic organization where social inclusion and social networks are potentially built through collective action in solving community issues and conserving the local cultural heritage and traditions. According to the Municipal Decree of Saensuk municipality and the Pattaya City Act regarding community management, it was stipulated that a CCG was to be comprised of 9 - 15 members where each group contains a locally-elected leader having a 2-year term in performing voluntarily-specified duties. Notably, the organizational structure of each CCG resembles that of the municipal government, which is classified into 7 divisions: administration, public protection and safety, finance, social welfare, public health, social development, and education. From this viewpoint, CCGs are assumed to be of greater significance for their local government in coordinating between local officials and community members. According to the interviews with the CCG leaders of Saensuk municipality, it is notable that their

associational life as community representatives has facilitated the emergence of strong ties in the social networking interactions within and between group for information-carrying connections and collective action on municipal issues and activities. For example, a CCG leader affirmed that the local activities and festivals organized by the municipality can motivate the engagement of municipal residents as follows:

Wan Lai festival, a locally unique water splashing of the sea people in the Eastern region, organized by our municipality provides a great chance for communities to get together, enjoy merit making, and build sand castle on the beach to attract tourists.

Taking into account the rationale of the associational life among the Saensuk's CCGs, it is notable that reciprocity and emotional attachment are fundamental premises of their social network bonding with other CCGs and the municipality to improve community well-being without considering the amount of time and repayment, as evidenced by the following affirmation (A CCG Leader, March 11, 2014, Interview):

Whenever the municipality or other communities need our help, we are willing to help them because we all are a part of Saensuk city, not individual community. The mayor has done his best, why don't we share his workload?

By considering the above-mentioned statement, it is assumed that the interaction between the CCGs and the municipality is channeled through the communal relationship the responsibility for which is shared with each other's well-being without expectations of a particular repayment. In addition to their in-kind reciprocity, each CCG of Saensuk frequently organizes its monthly meeting in its own community sphere, such as schools, the house of a CCG member, for sharing information and, if any, sorting out their community's problem. In addition to the community meeting, the municipal meeting between CCGs and local executives and officials is periodically done every 3 months in order to become informed and

updated about municipal affairs, including raising urgent issues to the municipality. Therefore, the CCGs have in many cases helped the local administration and boosted the responsiveness to local demands.

On the other hand, it seems evident that the social ties between the CCGs and Pattaya city are mainly based on exchange relationships, reflecting the immediate reciprocation of benefits between each other, rather than the communal relationship. According to the interviews with some of the CCG leaders, many of them received certain benefits from the city, such as monetary support for their community activities, occupational training for women's groups, etc. Similar to the field observation, the 3-storey building of the Center for Resolution of Drug Addiction of Pattaya city was transformed to be a community store comprised of coffee, massage, and OTOP shops. Based on the 14,200 stock financing from the CCGs, the community store was started by a group of 7 leaders from different CCGs that were locally elected to be the managing committee. The store was officially opened on February 5, 2015 by the mayor. In this regard, it reveals that the city executive pay close attention to the interests of the CCGs whom the city executives and officials keep in touch with to disseminate information, particularly when public participation is required by-law, such as the construction project of the Thappraya Royal Park. Regardless of the requirement for public participation, the CCGs are likely to be less informed about current affairs, as evidenced from the interviews with CCG leaders on May 23, 2015, showing that the city provides communication channels for interacting with the CCGs; however, many of the channels were found to be ineffective as follows: "Although we can raise any community issues through either call center no. 1337 or public meeting, but both have in many cases been ineffective because certain problems remain existed."

With the lack of city meetings and effective communication channels, the interaction between the CCGs and Pattaya city is presumably regarded as a weak tie because they were allowed to participate in the programs where public participation was needed. Similarly, the limit to local participation has resulted in their lack of interest in participation in city meetings in accord with a following statement (A Local Retailer, May 20, 2015, Interview):

I seldom participate in city meeting because I did not find any usefulness. Instead of focusing on local needs, the City executives and officials pay much attention on construction of new projects.

Although it seems evident that the extent of the exchanges and interactions between the local government and CCGs in Pattaya city is a fundamental difference from what was found in the context of Saensuk municipality, the study found a significant similarity between the two local governments—that their CCG representatives, particularly the leaders, always serve as vote canvassers (or “Hua Kanaen” in Thai) for local elections. For example, a CCG leader insisted on her strong support in local elections as a vote canvasser during the interview (A CCG Leader, March 11, 2014, Interview):

After this interviewing, I am going to help Nayok Tui to canvass the vote. I want him to continue his second term as the mayor of Saensuk municipality.

Similarly, a Pattaya’s CCG leader also affirmed his political support of local elections through:

Many of us provide support on local elections which can, in turn, partial influence voting decision of community members.

#### 4.4.2.2 Local Elite Network

In Saensuk, strong social ties and communal relationships between CCGs and Saensuk municipality have evidently derived from the existing linkages of local elites and family bond with “Kamnan Poh,” who was the most influential and first-elected mayor of Saensuk municipality in 1988. Based on his 12 years in position as Saensuk’s mayor, Kamnan Poh had not only anchored a lot of huge tourism and local development programs but also made Bang Saen beach become internationally known as a renowned tourist destination city until today. Therefore, Khamnan Poh is widely recognized as a pioneer in transforming this small fishing village into a reputable tourist attraction among former local executives, CCGs, and municipal

residents. For example, the former mayor of Saensuk municipality: Mr. Sawat Hompleum, affirmed the following in this connection (Saensuk Municipality, 2010):

Khamnan Poh is the first mayor who put so much effort to develop the city and improve social well-being of the locals and there have been empirically development since then.

Similarly, a 45-year old woman working as a local small-scale fishery entrepreneur and a CCG leader addressed the importance to local network of Khamnan Poh in rebuilding the long-time exploitation of physical and environment conditions into a well-known tourist attraction in the following statement:

As long as the network of Khamnan Poh has remained in locality, we can assure our well-being and continued tourism development.

Therefore, it can be inferred that the network of Khamnan Poh has been firmly established for decades in Saensuk and has remained influential until now. Presently, his political network still exists at both provincial and national levels as his eldest son, Mr. Sonthaya Khunpluem, is the former minister, while his second son, Mr. Wittaya Khunpluem, is the Chief Executive of Chonburi PAO. Evidently, these two persons are involved in ICM implementation as policy decision makers that had authority, at that time, to approve an alternative to the sea breakwater construction of Saensuk municipality. Based on the positive results and outcomes for tourism that Khamnan Poh and his network had developed, mostly local representatives and municipal residents have strongly supported his youngest son, Mr. Narongchai Khunpluem—to continue his second term as the mayor of Saensuk municipality, evidence by the majority of voting bills (82.99%) in 2014 for his second term as the mayor.

In Pattaya city, there are strong social interactions among the local executives and other social groups, resulting from the network of Khamnan Poh, which is a symbol of local political unity of Chonburi province. In this regard, there has been solid support from the former mayors of Pattaya city when Mr. Ittipol was a

candidate for the 8<sup>th</sup> mayor in 2008; the Matichon (2008) reported that “five former Pattaya city’s mayors had helped Mr. Itthipol Khunpluem for mayoral election.” In addition to his family relationship, it is assumed that the close interactions of the current mayor with many influential social groups, such as local politicians and businessmen, have significantly supported the local political stability. For instance, the former Chairman of the Pattaya City Council, Mr. Tawit Chayawong, stated in the Poo Jatkarn Daily (2007) that “Mr. Itthipol is eligible to be the next candidate of Pattaya city’s mayor because of many years of experience in local politics and good support from different agencies and groups of people.” Similarly, the 7<sup>th</sup> Pattaya city’s mayor—Mr. Nirun Wattanasartsathorn—also recognized the capability of the current mayor in accelerating the city into a global context in accord with the statement that “The city needs internationalization and unity of local political party.” (Poo Jatkarn Daily, 2007) Following the strong political support from these local politicians, Mr. Ittipol won a decisive victory in the mayoral election for his second term as Pattaya city’s mayor in 2012, and similar results were found in the general election of the council assembly, indicating that the candidates from the Palang Chon Party won all four constituencies of Pattaya city. Based on his family relations with local elite and social networking interactions with various social groups, Mr. Ittipol was given much support to pursue any development strategies for moving forward to the overarching goal of being a world-class tourist destination city, as evidenced by the participation of tourism business associations and relevant government agencies in programs related to tourism image of the city, namely the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs.

#### 4.4.2.3 Economic Linkage with Tourism Development

The relationship between local government and the tourism business associations is evident in Pattaya city, where 90% of businesses are in the tourism sector, such as hotels, food and beverage, tour operators, and the like. Consistent with the tourism development goal of the Pattaya city’s mayor and the 10-year master plan, the city executives have put a great deal of effort into attracting more potential tourists to come to the city through offering a wide variety of promotional tourism programs and activities. Those programs and activities are mostly under the responsibility of the Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau, established in 2008, so as to function as a

marketing arm of Pattaya city. Therefore, the bureau has become an outstanding function and organizational structure that distinguishes Pattaya city from other municipal governments nationwide.

Given the importance of Pattaya city's development history, it was clearly found that the local tourism industry has been developed for many decades. Admittedly, the arrival of American soldiers during the 1960s was a major turning point of dramatic development in transforming the quiet fisherman village to a beach recreation area. Since then, the beauty of the beach and surrounding area was verbally shared from the Americans to other westerners and the city became one of the world famous tourist destinations, affecting the emergence of the hotel business in the city. In 2014, it was reported that there were 136,945 rooms available in 2,174 hotels for tourists staying in Pattaya city (BangkokBiz, 2014). Therefore, it is not surprising that Pattaya city has supported many economic stimulus activities and marketing campaigns each year, aiming to attract more travelers to the city, for example, Pattaya Grand Sales, the Colors of the East Colors of Your Life, Happy Pattaya 365 Days, as affirmed by the statement of the mayor: "If the tourism businesses grow, so does the Pattaya city" (The Pattaya City's Mayor, June 13, 2014, Interview). These tourism promotional campaigns primarily bring positive economic benefits not only to Pattaya city but also tourism businesses because a large increase in tourist numbers significantly benefits the thriving of their business. Similarly, a Deputy Mayor and a Pattaya Councilor confirmed that tourism business associations have a close and strong connection with Pattaya city, according to the following statement (A Pattaya Deputy Mayor, May 22, 2015, Interview):

It is good that our city has strong network with various tourism businesses under supervision of 2 major business associations, namely PBTA and THA.

Based on the close relationships with these tourism-related business associations, Pattaya city has continued to communicate with them and has encouraged their involvement in the decision-making process regarding the programs related to tourism development in order to realize their interests and to attest to their

commitment to such development efforts. Similarly, an interview with Pattaya city's mayor affirmed the strong ties with these associations (The Pattaya City's Mayor, June 13, 2014, Interview):

We always mutually join monthly meetings of each other, resembling to a two-way communication channel, in order to keep balancing interests.

As evidenced from the programs, representatives from tourism associations, particularly the PBTA and THA, were appointed as members of steering committee for both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs. Additionally, partnership with various public organizations specifically responsible for the promotion of tourism, such as TAT, TCEB, DASTA, have in many cases helped channel Pattaya city to get financial support through both the central government and several line ministries which deliver at the local level, as well as induce the participation of local tourism associations in the tourism promotional activities of the City, especially conducting overseas trade shows aiming to provide broad access to potential visitors and tourists to the city. This can be seen in the following affirmation (The Director of Pattaya City Tourism Promotion Bureau, June 19, 2014, Interview):

As a key tourist destination city of the country, Pattaya city usually gets financial support from relevant government agencies, such as TCEB, MoTS, to conduct overseas trade shows with private sector.

For example, the city was the host organization for inviting representatives from either the PBTA or THA to attend the world's largest tourism trade fairs annually organized in Germany, ITB Berlin in 2015, to provide global touristic offers to qualified top buyers and potential tourists. Based on regulatory mechanism determined by the National Decentralization Committee since 2009, all types of local governments can subsidize their central grants to particular kinds of organizations in their locality so as to strengthen the performance of their

organization, aligned with local development plans. Due to this legal mechanism, many civil society organizations are eligible to have a legitimate relationship with their local governments and are eligible to receive financial support for specific purposes. This is consistent with a statement of the mayor: “We provide subsidiary to registered civil society organizations and associations, not individual corporate” (The Pattaya City’s Mayor, June 13, 2014, Interview). For example, the PBTA and THA are, in fact, regarded as business organizations established under the Trade Association Act B.E. 2509 (1966), aiming to promote and uplift the standard of local business and tourism in Pattaya city as well as to maintain good tourism image of the City without engaging in politics or commercial purposes. Aside from being a partner with the city in conducting marketing campaigns abroad, the PBTA and THA, in turn, offer financial aid for particular affairs that occur in the city such as the financial aid of 100,000 baht for foreign victims that are injured by boating accidents. In this regard, it is evident that Pattaya city and tourism associations are engaged in exchange relationships with one another and they have become so highly interconnected because of economic benefits. Consequently, the participation of tourism associations in the tourism development programs of the City is basically indicated in the programs that directly affect tourist visitation or tourist satisfaction, such as the Pattaya beach clean-up, aiming to restore the tourism image of Pattaya city as well as Pattaya maritime safety, which have the objective to ensure tourists’ safety in coastal and marine tourism.

#### 4.4.2.4 Knowledge-Sharing Networks

Evidently, the participation of educational institutes and local fishery associations are widely found in the programs of Saensuk municipality through the involvement of knowledge-sharing networks, where none was found in Pattaya city. According to the above-indicated programs, these dominant stakeholders generally participate in the programs that are associated with their profession and expertise. For example, the local fishery association participated in the crab conservation program to share their hands-on experience with the crab conservation method, while the Sriracha Fisheries Research Station of Kasetsart University provided technical knowledge and advisory support on how the program should be adopted in association with local conditions. Similarly, Burapha University participated in the Bang Saen No foam

program as an academic partner to provide a research project and recommendations to the municipality on environmentally-friendly packaging as a sustainable alternative to using polyethylene, which was found to be the root cause of death of many beach vendors over the past several years. Furthermore, the mutual agreement procedure with Burapha University aiming to reduce the use of foam packaging inside the campus was another formal mechanism that developed local commitment to the environmental conservation effort and the sense of ownership among local vendors. Although these educational and research institutes play supporting roles, they have in many cases educated and enhanced knowledge as well as the awareness of local fishers and residents regarding local environmental sustainability. With their linkages with private firms, educational institutes also have enlisted help from private firms to provide financial or non-financial support for program implementation. Consequently, it is evident that the participation of these dominant stakeholders has facilitated not only community engagement for their collective action, but also the collaboration of the private sector in local environmental sustainability programs of Saensuk municipality.

#### **4.4.3 Regulatory Requirements for Public Participation**

Notably, the participation of larger communities in both the construction projects of Saensuk's ICM and Pattaya's Thappraya Royal Park has been influenced by two major regulatory requirements, namely, the Regulation of the Office of the Prime Minister on Public Consultation, B.E. 2548 (2005) and the Notification of Ministry of National Resources and Environment on the rules and procedures for conducting environmental impact assessment, B.E. 2555 (2012). The first regulatory requirement requires local governments to allow the public, NGOs, and relevant agencies affected by the projects to be informed and to express their opinions regarding the project in accordance with the public consultation procedure, as provided by law. According to section 9 of the Regulation, public consultation can be conducted via numbers of techniques, depending upon the objective to survey opinions or to consult with stakeholders. In Saensuk, it was obviously found that there were various techniques employed in consulting with the larger communities. Empirically, Saensuk municipality employed various public consultation techniques,

namely, panel discussions, public hearings, and attitude surveys, to gather local people's perspectives regarding the alternatives to the sea breakwater construction project. Taking into account the second regulatory requirement specifying the types of project or activities requiring the preparation of the EIA report, the public consultation process is a mandatory requirement for conducting feasibility study, prepared by a consulting firm which was registered by the Office of Natural Resources and Environment Planning (ONEP). It is enforced by the Ministerial order which has been effective since December 12, 1984 that the EIA report has to be prepared by the consultant firms registered with the ONEP. As a result, the results of public consultation along with the EIA report are submitted as a preliminary document to the National Environment Board and Cabinet for approval and budget allocation flow through the line Ministry—the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment—as the host government agency at the national level, which has the function of mitigating the coastal erosion problem in compliance with the priority of the national agenda.

Unlike Pattaya city, which was declared as a pollution control area and an environmentally protected area in 1992, any construction projects in the City are always scrutinized by the larger society and stakeholders—the Thappraya Royal Park construction project, for example. Because the project area is within a territory stipulated by the Notification of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment and the National Environment Board, it is required to prepare an EIA report at the same time as the feasibility study of the project. Therefore, the city contracted out the preparation of the EIA report to a group of consultants from Feel Green Design Co., Ltd. to organize the public consultation process and to prepare a feasibility study. Based on the large disagreement of the many participating stakeholders, it was evident that the city officials attempted to conceal their nonconformity by displaying the results of the opinion survey and individual interviews with CCG leaders and some household representatives in order to trim the results so that they would be more satisfying for the further EIA process. Eventually, the results of the public consultation process were more favorable even though serious confrontation between the city officials and local residents, including NGO representatives, had emerged during the public hearing process. However, the construction project was finally terminated by the Provincial Governor after the city officials had submitted the EIA

report. According to the Notification of the National Environment Board No. 1, B.E. 2535 (1992) regarding the appointment of the Expert Review Committee (ERC) for the projects within environmentally-protected areas, the Provincial Governor generally is the chairman of the ERC at the provincial level and has authority to make a final consideration for either approval or disapproval of the report or may ask for a report revision or additional information. Generally, the ERC consists of expert members that are qualified or specialized in various fields of related disciplines and authority and are legally competent to grant permission for the given project or activity under review.

#### **4.5 Key Factors Affecting Stakeholder Participation in the Programs Related to Local Environmental Sustainability**

In the foregoing parts, the study examines stakeholder salience based on three relationship attributes: power, legitimacy, and urgency. This was followed by an illustration of the relationship mechanisms that exist between the local governments and the participation of stakeholders in local environmental sustainability programs. In this part, the study aims to determine the factors affecting their participation in the above-indicated programs found in the two localities. Significantly, the study revealed not only the factors found among those that participated in the programs, but also those that were found among non-participating stakeholders so as to have insight into some of the important factors affecting the rationale for their participation and nonparticipation.

##### **4.5.1 Political Trust**

In Saensuk, it was evident that trust in the mayor was widely found among local stakeholders, comprising CCGs, local beach vendors, and local residents. Many of them have confidence that the mayor has his best interest at heart and makes appropriate policy decisions that will successfully arrive at positive outcomes for the entire society. For example, a CCG leader affirmed his credible commitment to local policy-making, which indicated his trustworthiness (A CCG Leader, March 11, 2014 and May 15, 2015, Interview):

The mayor is very active and enthusiastic to work for our communities. Based on his degree abroad and charisma of his father, he is credible leader on whom we can trust.

Interviews with local residents in 2015 showed that Khamnan Poh is widely recognized as the first pioneer that developed Bang Saen beach as a tourist destination. Since then, local development programs have continued through his network. Therefore, the current mayor, as his youngest son, can easily win the hearts and minds of most local people, no matter if they participated in the identified programs or not, according to the following indications (Local Residents, May 15, 2014, Interview):

I rely on whatever the municipality decided to do because continued development has been found in the city since Kamnan Poh's regime.

Nayok Tui always listens to our community problems; I can have either direct visit to his office or make personal call to give him informed at any time.

Based on the positive contribution of Khamnan Poh, his network has always been considered as very trustworthy from the perspectives of local residents, as evidenced by two consecutive terms of his youngest son in the mayoral election, together with vote winning for the municipal assembly of candidates from the Palang Chon Party in all three constituents. Notably, his family relationship has in many cases facilitated the inflow of central grants to the municipality, for instance, the case of the ICM program, in which the mayor's eldest brother was the Chairman and his second eldest brother was a committee member of the Province of Chonburi ICM program. Consequently, the budget in conducting the EIA report was injected by the line Ministry—Department of Marine and Coastal Resources under the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment. Additionally, the Chonburi PAO, in general, supports the Saensuk municipality in terms of implementing particular projects. Instead of simply providing financial support to the municipality, it is notable that the

Chonburi PAO has executed certain local development programs, mostly related to development of public utilities and infrastructure, by its own financing (Pattaya City Administration, 2013).

Aside from his credibility, the study found that the accountability and interpersonal relationship between the mayor and CCGs were factors influencing his trustworthiness. During the non-participant observations in the public meetings of Saensuk municipality, it was obviously notable that the mayor could answer and clarify any questions raised by the local residents and have his strong commitment to tackle unsolved issues, which were mostly related to their everyday life. Impressively, the mayor was able to recognize the names of all CCG leaders and he called upon them using unofficial words, for example, the entitlement of “Pee” (meaning “elder sister or brother” in Thai) in front of both real and nick names no matter what the person’s age was—this is to keep mental respect for their seniority. Doing so helped the mayor to become familiar and maintain connectedness with the community leaders, who have the power to solicit votes for local politicians and communicate between the municipality and the local people.

Based on his credibility, accountability, and close interpersonal relations with the community leaders, a greater number of CCG leaders and members were willing to participate in any programs that the municipality may have had, including those related to local environmental sustainability efforts. More importantly, it was evident that the trustworthiness of the mayor was not only widely dispersed in the local community, but also externally expanded to educational institutes, particularly Burapha University. There are numbers of programs and activities on which the municipality mutually collaborates with the university, especially those that aim to educate and increase public awareness, the NO foam program, for example. An interview with an educator of Burapha University in 2014 affirmed that the credibility of the mayor was a factor influencing the participation of the university in many local development programs in accord with the following statement (An Educator at Burapha University, July 26, 2014, Interview):

I have seen many good policies initiated by the mayor, Bang Saen NO foam, for example. He is very active and heartily supports many research projects contributed to local economic development.

#### **4.5.2 Political Distrust**

Unlike the participation of some civil society organizations in Pattaya city, particularly the Pattaya Watchdog group, their participation was caused by distrust in the Pattaya city administration. Based on the rumor that hundreds of trees on Khao Pra-Yai hill were to be cut and many unsolved issues existing in the city, a view-blocking condominium and the automated 360-boat mooring project at Bali Hai Pier in south Pattaya, for example, the Pattaya Watchdog group members were willing to participate in the public hearings on the proposed construction project of Thappraya Royal Park. Notably, focus group discussions with some Pattaya Watchdog group members significantly revealed their lack of trust in the Pattaya city administration derived from the limits of their access to information regarding city development projects and the unaccountable manner of the city's mayor, according to the following statement (Pattaya Watchdog Group, August 21, 2015, Focus Group Discussion):

If one of our holiest places is going to be transformed to another "World-class" tourist attraction, the mayor should be able to clearly explain to us instead of reading along his written speech.

During the public hearings, Pattaya city's mayor gave a speech according to a prior written document rather than providing a sound explanation of why this project was better than those with still unsolved problems. Consequently, there was a large disagreement among the group members and local people who participated in the meeting, as shown in the questionnaires. Also, the interviews with a few CCG leaders in 2015 showed that there were other urgent problems of concern by the larger communities than the construction project, such as cleanliness, a waste water treatment system, etc. Based on this neglect by the authorities, the credibility and accountability of the city mayor was not evident among the local people, resulting in their distrust of the city administration, though the mayor had strong political support

from the Pattaya city council members, all of whom were from the Rao Rak Pattaya Group (meaning “we love Pattaya” in Thai) under the Palang Chon Party. Furthermore, the interviews with local people indicated that the majority of Pattaya’s CCGs had paid a great deal of attention to the programs from which they were likely to receive certain benefits, instead of collectively solving community problems with their members or other social groups. Similarly, many of them were unwilling to give interviews for to outsiders, like researchers, by claiming lack of time and inconvenience. It can be inferred that they lacked of generalized or social trust, which many social capital scholars (Putnam, 1995; Boix and Posner, 1996; Stolle and Rochon, 1998) have explained as a special form of trust that goes beyond private or personalized trust and, which involves people personally known, but that makes social interactions and cooperation possible in a wider community or society as a whole.

#### **4.5.3 Social Capital in Civil Society Organizations**

In Saensuk, the study found that social capital is was thriving in the CCGs and local fishery associations. Regarding the CCGs, social capital is widely dispersed among the association leaders and members that normally contribute their time and money to municipal affairs. They always express their ideas and raise questions to the mayor in the regular venue of public meetings and during the public consultation process of the ICM program. An interview with a CCG leader showed that she always shares and posts information regarding community affairs and helps others solve problems through the social norm of reciprocity—“Being a part of Saensuk,” as affirmed in the following statement (A Leader of Saensuk’s CCG, March 11, 2013, Interview):

Although we were divided into 24 communities, but it is only a matter of sharing responsibility under the same umbrella of Saensuk municipality. We cannot leave the mayor to entirely work; we are willing to help him at our best effort.

The above-indicated statement shows that whenever any CCG needs help, other CCGs are willing to collectively provide assistance without expecting anything

immediately in return. As evidenced in the ICM program, a number of CCGs communed together for sharing their ideas about alternatives to the sea breakwater construction, regardless of the severity level of coastal erosion they are being affected in accord with a following statement: (A CCG Leader, May 15, 2014, Interview):

My Laem-Tan Community has minimal impact on coastal erosion, compared to other 3 affected communities. Still, I am willing to participate in helping other communities and my Saensuk City.

Therefore, it can be inferred that CCG members are embedded with strong ties and communal relations within their group network. Amongst their network, they always keep communicating and know each other very well. Whenever I mentioned anyone's name, they could recall his/her personal data such as residential area, current job, and the like. Furthermore, the interviews with CCG leaders and members showed that social capital is a key factor affecting their collective action in the aforementioned programs of Saensuk municipality, which highlights the significances of the norms of reciprocity, networks, and generalized trust. A communal norm of "weness" among the CCG leaders and members have helped them to collectively participate in solving other's community problems with the municipality and build a strong tie of social networking interactions with one another. Owing to the significance of social capital, the CCG members are likely to trust each other and have the willingness to help others in their social networks.

By the same token, the participation of local fishery associations in the blue swimming crab conservation program exposed how social networks create a large benefit to the entire society in preventing the loss of the economically-significant marine resources in Chonburi, which are a key source of livelihood for local fishers. As a part of the Province of Chonburi ICM program, local fishery associations have participated in sharing knowledge about the crab conservation program for many LGUs in the province, including Saensuk municipality. Based on the best practices of Sriracha municipality led by mayor Chatchai at that time, Saensuk municipality has replicated the same practices and made use of the existing network of both local fishery associations and educational institutes to promote the conservation of marine

species and to demonstrate the sharing of responsibilities for natural resource management among the local people. Through the repeated interactions of sharing knowledge and their hands-on experience with environmentally-friendly fishing practices and marine conservation, strong in-group trust has been built among the members of local fisher associations, evidenced by the indication of a 75-year-old group leader as stated in the Thai Post Online on 16 June, 2012:

By our trial and error through the support from our municipality since 2004, we are so proud that our practice: crab condo, was collectively achieved and beneficially replicated to other localities.

Consistent with interviews of the group leader that appeared in media and publications, the study found that the success of Sriracha's crab condo model resulted from both within- and between-group interaction or what Putnam (1995) defined as bonding and bridging social capital, respectively. By recognition of their perceived mutual benefits and understanding of prior problems, local fishers actively got involved in solving the problems and followed more collaborative norms in conserving marine resources, as evidenced by the following statement of the group leader:

Due to their perceived mutually benefits throughout the supply chain of crab trade, comprising of end consumer, local fishers, and crab population, members are voluntarily engaged in establishment of crab condo.

Under this type of norms, local fishers have the opportunity to gain hands-on experience and understanding through their own practices through their coalition. Therefore, the benefits of marine conservation were enhanced among group members. They have in many cases responded favorably to each other based on their social belief—"mutual dependence between nature and human beings." For example, they surrendered the caught gravid female crabs for nurturing in an enclosed tray until the eggs were released instead of selling them to the markets. Based on the standard

practice of gravid female crab replacement executed twice a month and collaborating honestly with each other, the group members realized how the program benefits their entire society and they appreciated teamwork, verified by the following statement:

Since the crab condo implemented in 2004 through networking among local fishers, I have been able to sell 5-6 kg. of crab these days which opposite to the past that 1 kg. sold per day.

In addition to bonding social capital among the group members, bridging social capital was empirically found through networking with other social groups, such as the Sriracha Fishery Research Station of Kasetsart University, which provides both advisory and technical support. Additionally, a network relationship has been built with other schools and local governments in the province so as to sustain the program in the long run by sharing knowledge schoolchildren and the community at large. As a result, it is assumed that bridging social capital has been constantly achieved through cooperative connection with other social groups in order to enlist their help and to engage local commitment to conservation efforts.

Unlike Saensuk municipality, where social capital has influenced the participation of CCGs and local fishery associations, the existence of social capital was prominently found in the two groups of the civil society sector in Pattaya city, namely, the local tourism association and Pattaya Watchdog. As evidenced by the programs, local tourism associations, particularly the PBTA, participated in the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs because the two programs have seen positive consequences regarding both the city's tourism image and tourists' confidence. Underlying its associational objectives, the PBTA has in many cases called for immediate action on any unfavorable practices destroying the city's tourism industry. With its establishment of more than 70 members from 9 different kinds of business in Pattaya city, the president of the PBTA, who was directly elected by the members for a two-year term, gained so much support in speaking out and criticizing the city administration. Through the monthly meetings of the PBTA mostly organized at the 3-star Grand Sole Hotel on the Pattaya 2nd Road in North Pattaya, the members could share, discuss, and keep up to date on the tourism situation in the city. Among

the issues brought up in the meeting, the PBTA's president frequently raised issues concerning strict law enforcement and the serious action of responsible agencies in solving any problems affecting the tourism image, such as his critique of Pattaya and police officials for failing to enforce marine-safety standards. Consequently, it led to a chronic string of boat accidents in 2013 as well as the long-denied illegal practices and structures of the beach chair and umbrella business. Based on his capability to reprove elected officials concerning the need to promote accountability, the PBTA's president has fostered more trust among the PBTA members. For example, a former Vice-President of the PBTA, who is also a leading businessman and one of the PBTA's advisory board members, affirmed his trust in the present president in the following (A Member of PBTA, May 22, 2015, Interview):

Mr. Sinchai is very brave to blast Pattaya officials for neglecting their duties and did not exert serious control to inspect and regulate any misbehavior of local operators.

Due to the accumulation of group members from varying businesses, the PBTA's president generally asked the city executive and officials about a wide range of issues related to the tourism business operation, such as lessening the city regulations regarding the ban of alcohol in the exhibition area during the 2016 Countdown, limiting the number of tourists to Larn Island, etc. Notably, the regular meeting venue of the PBTA was always broadcast in the local media, whose owners are PBTA members, namely Sophon Cable TV, Pattaya Channel, and Banglamung Cable TV. In addition to in-group interactions, it was evident that the PBTA also receives support from other tourism authorities and local tourism associations because of mutually-beneficial interactions—to restore the city's tourism image and tourist confidence. As previously mentioned, the linkages with TAT and TCEB have provided financial opportunity for a number of local tourism associations and city officials to do marketing aboard through roadshow events. In the meantime, the connection with other local tourism associations has induced collaborative partnerships to share resources for accomplishing a mutual goal—growth in the tourism industry. For example, the president of the Thai Hotels Association of Eastern

Region—Mrs. Budarik Kusolvitya, agreed with the president of the PBTA about enforcing marine-safety laws for boat operators, although she did not criticize public officials outright (Phasakorn Channgam, 2013a). Additionally, the president of the Pattaya Cultural Council—Mr. Surat Makawarakul, also agreed with the suggestion of the PBTA's president regarding seriously enforcing laws for the beach chair and umbrella operators (T-News, 2014). By networking with many social groups in the city, the claims from the leaders of local tourism associations, the PBTA in particular, are most prioritized by the city executives and officials and they have in many cases been involved in the local government decision-making process along with other government agencies. As evidenced by both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs, where many of them act as steering committee members. In this regard, it was assumed that the participation of the PBTA in the local development programs was caused by both bonding and bridging social capital.

In contrast to local tourism associations, the claims of the Pattaya Watchdog group were out of concern of the city executives and officials, though many of them had strongly criticized the neglectful authority of the city officials. Based on its non-registered legal status, the Pattaya Watchdog group has no legitimacy to influence the decision-making process of the Thappraya Royal Park construction project, although they frequently have in-group and between-group interaction with the Ao Naklua conservation group to share information and to keep each other informed about any ongoing issues taking place in the city, according to the following statement:

We rarely give informed by the city officials about tourism development program. So, we always help each other know what is going on in the City.

By sharing information and mutually beneficial interaction, generalized trust is constantly formed and induces cooperation within and between group members. As evidenced in the program, many of them participated in public hearings on the Thappraya Royal Park construction project due to a rumor of deforestation. Based on their generalized trust and similar interests in reclaiming the city's former image, all members of the Pattaya Watchdog and Ao Naklua groups that participated in public

hearings raised their strong comments and accusations regarding the neglect on the part of city officials in doing their duty.

#### **4.5.4 Government Policy Network**

This factor particularly determines the participation of stakeholders in the public sector, namely the national, provincial, and local levels of government, in the programs related to local environmental sustainability. In Saensuk, the ICM program is the most prominent program in which government agencies participate to alleviate coastal erosion problems in the jurisdiction of Saensuk municipality. As prioritized in the 11<sup>th</sup> National Economic and Social Development Plan as a national agenda, the mitigation of the coastal erosion problem is of the highest priority of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment as the line Ministry having direct responsibility for rehabilitating the environment and mitigating the coastal erosion problems in critical areas. Therefore, the line Ministry assigned its respective government agency, the DMCR, to deal with the problems in compliance with the national agenda. Due to the negative consequences of the coastal erosion problem, hundreds of households in Saensuk received serious effects in terms of land loss and the degradation of the seashore and marine resources. In 2013, Saensuk municipality was selected by the DMCR as a demonstration project area for ICM implementation. Consequently, the sea breakwater construction project was put in place as one of various means to reduce the negative impact of the coastal erosion problem on local livelihoods. Owing to the significance of national agenda, representatives from the national and provincial levels of government, the DMCR, and the Provincial Governor, respectively, participated in various phases of the public consultation process on alternatives to the sea breakwater construction. Further, the emergence of the working group “ICM Provincial Coordinating Committee” under the Chonburi Declaration on Scaling-Up of ICM Implementation established in 2003, was another critical factor to induce the participation of other relevant government agencies, as affirmed by the following statement (The Head of Policy And Planning Division of Saensuk Municipality, July 25, 2014, Interview):

The ICM program is the first program I saw a large participation of both relevant government agencies and local communities.

With the hundreds of millions of baht of construction costs for the agreed alternative to the sea breakwater constriction, the municipality is incapable of self-financing. Therefore, the municipality is very dependent on the financial resources allocated from the line Ministry. For example, the central government already subsidized 10 million baht to Saensuk municipality in the fiscal year of 2013 for the purpose of EIA preparation. Additionally, an interview with the mayor in 2014 confirmed that national and provincial levels of government agencies are influential stakeholders when any huge investment projects are undertaken. A massive construction cost causes financial dependence; however, the involvement of these government agencies has in many cases attracted the attention of local communities to participate in local development programs, triangulated by an average of 150 municipal residents attending every phase of the public consultation process of the sea breakwater construction project.

Furthermore, blue swimming crab conservation program is another municipal program in the realm of government policy on ICM implementation since the program has the positive benefits to increase an economically-significant marine resource of Chonburi province. Evidently, the advantages of the program are not merely found in the rehabilitation of degraded marine resources, but also in ensuring local economic viability because small-scale fisheries are a major occupation of the Saensuk people. Consequently, the municipality was bound to imitate the successful crab conservation model of its neighboring municipality—Sriracha municipality, which used to be a leading local government in Chonburi ICM implementation in 2007. Based on using its own funding to implement the project, the participation of Sriracha municipality was acknowledged in terms of the provision of technical and advisory support to Saensuk municipality rather than influencing the decision making regarding how the program was to be implemented. With such support from Sriracha municipality, the Saensuk crab conservation program was eventually modified to an onshore crab nursery, because of strong wave action, instead of a crab condominium submerged in the sea as in Sriracha municipality.

For Pattaya city, government policy is an influential factor affecting the participation of a wide range of relevant government agencies in the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs. Evidently, the establishment of the two programs was caused by the negative consequences of both the lack of serious action by responsible agencies on marine safety and weak law enforcement on beach businesses operating in the city. Based on numerous maritime tragedies that killed many foreign tourists in Pattaya city, the former Prime Minister Yingluck Shinawatra visited to Pattaya city and instructed local officials to boost the laws protecting tourists after a fatal ferry accident resulted in the deaths of 7 foreign tourists at the beginning of November 2013. As a result, the Marine Department launched “Pattaya Maritime Safety” to increase maritime safety and to prevent accidents involving boat transporting tourists in the sea off Pattaya and Larn Island in partnership with Pattaya city. In the meantime, the Chonburi Provincial Governor supported the city by issuing provincial mandates to command the participation of relevant government agencies and representatives from tourism business associations for uplifting the water-transport safety in the city as well as to reduce the city limitations on governing law enforcement on boat operators. Similar to the beach clean-up program, the Governor helped the city to reorganize beach businesses operations by issuing a provincial ordinance to formulate different groups of joint committees to proceed with the cleanup operation in accord with the NCPO’s policy to return happiness to the people. Therefore, the city officials resumed the latest regulations on beach business operations issued in 2008 in their attempt to find the most suitable way out for reorganization, aiming to prevent the military from stepping in. Based on the actual dismantlement of the illegal structures of the beach business operations in Phuket, the more immediate concern for Pattaya officials was the beach chair and umbrella vendors because they had recently caused many issues affecting the city’s tourism image, such as kicking sand on tourists, and the overpricing of on-site foods and services.

#### **4.5.5 The Perceived Economic Benefits or Losses of Tourism**

Evidently, the perceived economic benefits of tourism is a major factor determining the participation of the stakeholders that are embedded in the exchange

relations with Pattaya city, namely, local tourism associations and local operators, comprising beach chair and umbrella as well as boat operators. In 2013, the PBTA's president raised many issues concerning the destruction of Pattaya's tourism image and tourists' confidence, asking the city executives and officials to prevent the negative consequences in the future. As evidenced in Pattaya maritime safety, the president was the most outspoken critic of city and marine-safety officials after 11 tourists were killed and dozens injured in more than a half-dozen boat-related accidents in 2013. The decline in tourists' confidence and the city's tourism image were his most concern as it directly affected a decrease in the tourists' arrival and tourist revisit intention to Pattaya city, according to his statement in the website of Pattaya Mail (Phasakorn Channgam, 2013a):

If Pattaya continues to ignore these measures and allows more accidents to take place, I can say with absolute certainty that even the investment of tens of millions of baht in promotion and support of tourism, it won't inspire or attract tourists to vacation in Pattaya.

As a result, the PBTA and other representatives from local tourism associations were appointed by the Governor as steering committee members that provide decision making regarding priorities or the order of the course of actions. Similarly, the PBTA's president raised the issue of restructuring Pattaya and Jomtien beach to the city executives in their monthly meeting on September 8, 2014 because the ongoing public beach encroachment had negatively affected the city's tourism image. Further, the PBTA's president participated in the beach clean-up program as one of the steering committee members.

In addition to local tourism associations, the participation of local operators in the beach clean-up program mainly caused by their perceived benefits or losses of tourism. Based on the actual dismantlement in other beach destination cities where the military got involved to clean up the beach, many beach chair and umbrella operators in Pattaya cooperated with the city officials to avoid the military directly enforcing the reorganization of Pattaya and Jomtien beaches. For example, a couple beach

operators who run their beach business in front of a shopping mall along Pattaya beach on May 22, 2015 insisted that:

I have tried to incorporate with the city officials because I am afraid soon that we will not be allowed to set up any chairs or umbrellas if the military came in as happened in Phuket and Samui.

The small amount of 2,000 baht paid for a rental permit for a beach chair concession on an annual basis is not comparable to the monthly profit that beach chair and umbrella vendors gain. Since the promulgation of the 2008 city regulation on the beach business operations, local vendors have been mandated to strictly follow the stated regulations. However, some of the beach chair and umbrella operators have violated the regulations, such as transferring ownership of their concession rights to another person, onsite cooking, overcharging the rental rate during the holidays or festivals because of the huge income expected from violation, and a lack of strict rule enforcement on the operators. According to the Pattaya Mail issued on May 3, 2013, it was reported that some beach chairs operators insisted on continuing to charge what they want until they are forced not to. This is consistent with the complaints of the PBTA president about the lack of responsibility and weak law enforcement of the city officials, as seen in the following (Phasakorn Channgam, 2013a):

The blame can't be laid just on boat operators since the officials directly responsible neglected their duties and didn't serious control to inspect and regulate.

Based on their possible loss of perceived economic benefits from the implementation of both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs, many local operators participated in the programs in order to become informed about how the program will be implemented and to what extent they will receive benefits or be affected. Most of Pattaya's local operators pay the most careful attention to the economic aspect instead of the social-cultural or environmental aspect. For example, a 51-year-old beach operator who came from Sisaket Province 17 years ago to run his

beach chair concession at Pattaya Beach Road soi 11-12 stated the following (A Beach Chair and Umbrella Vendor, May 22, 2015, Interview):

The new rules have their pros and cons. It is good that the beach will look more beautiful, but the other side is the economic impact on our business.

Further, an interview with boat operators along Pattaya beach explicitly indicated that the economic loss is among the root causes of his failure to follow the stated rules on marine safety in accord with the following affirmation (Boat Operators, May 22, 2015, Interview):

We don't want to follow the new rules on vessel traffic and sea lanes as it causes more distance and time consumed from traveling between Pattaya coast and Larn Island.

Regarding their perceived economic loss, boat operators together with beach chair and umbrella operators eventually requested delayed enforcement through using both direct and representative negotiation.

#### **4.5.6 Information Accessibility**

Since the promulgation of the Constitution of Kingdom of Thailand B.E. 2550 (2007), the right to official information and freedom of expression has been enshrined for Thai people until today. As a result, there have been a number of subsequent legislations to encourage the participation of local people and stakeholders in the operation of any government project that may affect the quality of the environment, health and sanitary conditions, and the quality of life or any other material interests concerning the people or local community, such as the Rule of the Office of the Prime Minister on Public Consultation, B.E. 2548 (2005) and the Notification of Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment on the rules and procedures for EIA preparation, B.E. 2555 (2012).

Based on the stated law and regulations, the local government is required to publish official information regarding projects and organize public consultation processes before implementation of a government project, as one of the various means of showing transparency and access to information. In Saensuk, the study found that the availability of various kinds of communication channels is important evidence affecting the participation of many stakeholders, particularly those in civil society organizations. The local executives and officials always communicate with the entire community through various kinds of communication channels, such as broadcast media, written letters, mobile communication, etc., in order to enable relationships and to strengthen trust over time. An interview with the municipal clerk also indicated that the use of any channels of communication is dependent upon the characteristics of the message and the context in which it is being sent (The Municipal Clerk of Saensuk Municipality, 2014):

We use various communication channels, depending upon purpose of the meeting, to communicate with a larger community.

Notably, the ICM program showed how broadcast media communication channel like radio transmissions, loud speakers, and local cable TV is an effective communication channel intended for mass participation. Rather than the participation of a mass audience, some programs are specified to certain groups of people where other channels of communication are more suitable to ensure their understanding and clarity. For example, the municipality organized a face-to-face meeting between local vendors and educators of Burapha University in order to encourage the change of their daily practices that pollute the environment and prevent possible local resistance. Furthermore, electronic channels ranging from telephone to online instant messaging are frequently employed to keep in touch with those that closely interact with the municipality, CCG leaders for example. The electronic channels are considered as the most convenient means of communicating with others and offering real-time text transmissions to a large group of receivers. Regarding the blue swimming crab conservation program, for example, the municipal officials made a direct phone call to the CCG leader of Wonnapa community so as to keep her informed about the program

and to ask for her help in communicating with the community members, of which the majority are doing small-scale fishery and aquaculture businesses. Despite the fact that various communication channels are provided to the larger community, some stakeholders favor a particular communication channel. For example, discretionary stakeholders, comprising local residents and beach vendors, feel safe in expressing their ideas and discussing municipal affairs among themselves rather than in public meetings. As a result, local residents typically leave the right to access official information to their local representatives, CCG representatives in particular. As evidenced in a public meeting of the ICM program, the CCG leaders and members generally provided their testimonies caused by the coastal erosion problem on behalf of their community members.

Aside from varieties of communication channels that the municipality allows stakeholders to use to access certain information and to express their opinions regarding the operation of the government projects, there is another means showing the ability of stakeholders to be informed about municipal affairs: the openness of official documents. Based on secondary sources of information, it is evident that there are a number of sources open to public inspection available on the website of Saensuk municipality, such as the Municipal Act and Regulations, the annual performance report, the financial report, municipal activities and news, etc. Additionally, the municipality provides official information regarding the implementation of the three indicated programs in the online annual performance reports; namely, the project title and objectives in conjunction with the development strategy, the source and amount of the budget, and the output of the program. Therefore, anyone can access such information for the purpose of being informed about the projects and activities executed by their local government.

Similarly, it is evident that information accessibility is another factor affecting the participation of local tourism associations in the programs that are likely to regain the city's tourism image and tourists' confidence; namely, the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs. Based on the vision of the mayor to develop the city as a world-class tourist destination, local tourism associations gained a great deal of attention from the city executives and officials to help accelerate the growth of Pattaya's tourism industry. Owing to their significance, the city executives have in

many cases provided a two-way communication to encourage their participation and commitment to be a part of many local development program. As evidenced in the Pattaya maritime safety program, the PBTA president joined the city meeting on September 8, 2014 at the city hall and made an assault on marine safety issues, claiming unclear measures to promote tourists' confidence in Pattaya maritime safety. In turn, the Pattaya Deputy Mayor joined the PBTA's monthly meeting in November at the Grand Sole Hotel to listen to and receive the unsealed PBTA's list of 7 demands to improve marine safety. This is consistent with the mayor, who affirmed that two-way communication with actual interactions and feedback from local tourism associations is an important means to allow their accessibility to up-to-date information about the city, as stated in the following (The Pattaya City's Mayor, June 13, 2014, Interview):

We offer a two-way communication for local tourism associations to keep each other informed about tourism situation in the city as well as motivate their participation in particular programs.

Generally, the representatives from local tourism associations, particularly the PBTA president, always make urgent claims on any issues involving the restoration of the city's tourism image and attracting more tourists to the city, such as the redevelopment of U-Tapao Airport, which will make traveling more convenient and increase travel into the city, the limitation of the tourists to Larn Island to solve the island's garbage problem, and the like. Aside from formal meetings in which the two parties participated, it was apparent that their suggestions have been acknowledged by the city executives and officials through everyday talks, and frequent visits to the city hall, including overseas marketing events.

In addition to the two-way communication with local tourism associations, it is notable that the city always creates one-way communication with the CCGs providing that the participation of the larger community is essential to completing the fundamental framework required by law, the Thappraya Royal Park construction project, for example. Rather than gathering the feedback or opinions of the larger community, the public hearings process on the Thappraya Royal Park construction

project organized by Pattaya city aimed to provide information about the proposed project because the summary report of the feasibility study on the stated project showed that the city has attempted to conceal public disagreement by making use of the survey results conducted with the CCGs and some household leaders.

#### **4.6 The Role of Local Governments with Respect To Stakeholder Participation in Local Environmental Sustainability Programs**

This part of the present study aims to explore the role of both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city in response to the pressures and expectations of stakeholders on the above-indicated programs. By adopting institutional theory to analyze the organizational responses, it was significantly revealed that the organizations, which are defined here as the two local governments, must be responsive to a wide range of stakeholder groups since they are “institutional constituents,” forcing variant institutional pressures on local governments to comply with their expectations. This refers to the process that forces the two local governments to be similar to their stakeholders or the so-called “isomorphism process,” according to DiMaggio and Powell (1983). In order to explore the role of local government with respect to stakeholder participation, the pressures of institutional constituents are therefore mainly examined to predict the occurrence of alternative organizational responses through the isomorphism process. Owing to a significance of such process, the present study attempts to integrate stakeholder salience theory with the notion of isomorphism process in light of institutional theory. The integration of the two theories can help logically explore not only the role of the local government with respect to stakeholder participation, but also significantly reveal how the local government can maintain a dominant position over time. Consequently, the following explanation demonstrates the linkages of the isomorphism process and the relationship mechanisms between local governments and their stakeholders.

#### **4.6.1 Coercive Isomorphism, Central-Local Government Relationship, Compliance Response**

Based on the central-local government relationship, government agencies at both the provincial and national levels are legitimate stakeholders according to laws and regulations. As a result of the 1997 Constitution, it is notable that local governments are under the control and supervision of a Provincial Governor, who is actually appointed by the Interior Minister to control and supervise the local governments in various aspects, such as availability of financial resources, building cross-sector collaboration, including provision of recommendations on whether certain government projects should be implemented or not. Consequently, both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city exhibit compliance response in reaction to the expectations of government agencies at national and provincial levels. As evidenced by Saensuk's ICM program, the municipality followed the requirements of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment as well as those of the DMCR in conducting both EIA study and public consultation process regarding alternatives to the sea breakwater in order to ascertain the fundamental work of the project. Due to the possible impacts on environmental degradation and fishing community vulnerability, the preparation of the EIA report was a preliminary document with which the Governor could provide recommendations and give approval on the government project being proposed in the province. After the EIA report was reviewed and signed for approval at the provincial level, the following processes, particularly budget acquisition, revealed how the central government exerts an influence on the provision of financial resources. For example, the DMCR, as a concerned government agency responsible for mitigating the coastal erosion problem at the national level, was involved in the local government decision-making process in terms of amount of the budget that ought to be annually allocated to Saensuk municipality for construction of the proposed sea breakwater alternative. More importantly, the compliance response exhibited by Pattaya city was identical in every program in responding to the pressures of central government agencies. The compliance of city executives with the Provincial Governor on the termination of the Thappraya Royal Park project and the formulation of different groups of committees on both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs showed how the

Governor used his vertical power to insert central influence and pressure on the local government. Rather than exerting power to enforce the rules and regulations on local governments through a hierarchy, the Governor has in many cases advocated cross-sector collaboration on the part of various provincial government agencies, together with helping to reduce the limitations of governing laws and administrative regulations. For example, the Governor endorsed provincial mandates on the formulation of various groups of committees from different sectors in the Pattaya maritime safety program. Further, the Governor helped Pattaya city have more authority over the maritime safety measures by officially approving new city regulations.

In such a circumstance, it was notable that the two local governments are commonly bound to incorporate the rules and regulations defined by law, which many institutional theorists (e.g. Meyer and Rowan, 1977; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983) have identified as “coercive isomorphism,” indicating the circumstance in which the organization is compelled to adopt structures or rules. In many cases, coercive influence shed some light on the policy initiatives, such as the mitigation of the coastal erosion problem and the restoration of tourists’ confidence in marine safety standards. Instead of unconscious adherence to the habitual and customary process of the hierarchical structure pressuring the two local governments, the study found that both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city partially conformed to their higher authorities by utilizing their linkages with some stakeholders to overcome the effects of structural conformity and organizational uncertainty. Apparently, Saensuk’s ICM program shows how the mayor could make use of local government trustworthiness and political trust to convince the larger community that the T-shaped type was the most appropriate alternative to sea breakwater construction without local resistance. Similarly, the formulation of different committees, in which representatives of local tourism association took a key part in the steering committee regarding the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs, exhibited the compliance of Pattaya city to the provincial mandates and, at the same time, imported influential stakeholder whose interests would be significantly affected by any decision made or action taken.

#### **4.6.2 Mimetic Isomorphism, Collaborative Network, Imitation Response**

As part of the Chonburi ICM network, the blue swimming crab conservation program was adopted by Saensuk municipality through replication of the successful crab conservation initiative conducted by Sriracha municipality. With the former leading local government organization of the Chonburi ICM network and the success of the blue swimming crab model, Sriracha municipality facilitated technical assistance and advisory on the conservation approach with other participating local governments in the network. With a lack of knowledge and professional resources, but at the same time responsibility expanded to scale up of ICM implementation, Saensuk municipality was first to adopt the masterpiece of Sriracha municipality. In considering the response where an organization overcomes its uncertainty by mimicking the practice of other successful organizations that have encountered similar constraints, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) referred to the process of “mimetic isomorphism.” Based on the best practice for the crab conservation approach, Sriracha municipality provided not only technical assistance to Saensuk municipality, but also created a collaborative network with Chonburi fishery associations and the Sriracha Fisheries Research Station of Kasetsart University. Through this collaborative network, the Saensuk’s crab conservation program later modified its conservation approach from a crab condo submerged in the sea to an onshore crab nursery based on local circumstances. Notably, the participation of these stakeholders in the network provided invaluable benefits not only to the municipality but also the society at large. For example, the participation of the Chonburi fishery associations provided social understanding and acceptance of changing their unsustainable practices regarding the crab catch among the local fisheries. In the meantime, the Sriracha Fishery Research Station of Kasetsart University conducted monitoring and evaluation efforts in the program as well as enhanced public awareness and participation in marine conservation among the fisher groups as the main implementers. More importantly, the crab conservation program has helped to enlist local stakeholders, including fisher groups and communities, to incorporate local commitment to pursuing the program’s achievement and to develop their capacity to contribute to marine conservation efforts. As evidenced by the opportunities given to some local representatives in sharing their practical experience of crab conservation with other interested

communities, the blue swimming crab conservation program could build a sense of ownership among local communities.

#### **4.6.3 Normative Isomorphism, Local Network Relationship, Compliance or Compromise Response**

Normative pressures are another key influence causing isomorphism as a consequence of professionalism within certain organizational fields. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) defined professionalism as being interpreted by members within a particular occupation collectively determining the appropriate ways in which to act. Based on this definition, the study found that normative pressures are normally exerted by key stakeholders prevailing in local network relationships with the local governments. Notably, the local governments exhibit a variety of responses to their pressures and expectations as follows.

##### **4.6.3.1 Knowledge Sharing Network and Compliance Response**

According to the prior explanation, a knowledge sharing network was found among the dominant stakeholders of Saensuk municipality, particularly educational institutes. These educational institutes are dedicated to providing knowledge and conducting research to solve social and real world problems based on their expertise. Whenever technical expertise or research is required, it was notable that Saensuk municipality always follows the recommendations of educational institutes. For example, the municipality complied with the suggestions of Burapha University regarding the use of eco-friendly packaging materials such as bagasse or wheat straw food containers as alternatives to polystyrene foam packaging. With the great achievement in the reduction of foam packaging during the first year of program implementation, the demonstration area was expanded to cover all canteens of Burapha University through an MOA signing between the municipality and the university the following year. Interviews with the mayor and municipal officials indicated that the participation of Burapha University resulted in a variety of benefits. Not only were the research contributions to solving the social problems helpful, but the participation of educators in the municipal program helped to reduce local opposition when municipal mandates were imposed. Instead of blind adherence to the conventional approach exerted by these dominant stakeholders, the study found that

the municipality actively demonstrated and localized the program in anticipation of future benefits. For example, the blue swimming crab conservation program was expected to cause a change in local practices in crab catching among local fishers, while the use of eco-friendly packaging was anticipated among local beach vendors. As shown in the previous section, the crab conservation program and implementing arrangements were later modified to suit local circumstances as well as the practices and capacities of local fishers. In the meantime, the provision of a rental tax reduction for the beach vendors that totally changed their practices to use eco-friendly packaging food containers implicitly reflected the indirect enforcement of the municipality on limits of the use of polystyrene foam packaging. In this regard, the two programs of Saensuk municipality showed not only conformity to the collective norms of the dominant stakeholders so as to reduce organizational uncertainty, but also indicated organizational interest in achieving local environmental sustainability and local commitment among the major implementers, the local fishers and beach vendors as well as the communities, to be a part of the programs' achievement.

#### 4.6.3.2 Social Interactions and Compromise or Compliance Response

Although the social interactions with CCGs were identical in both local governments, the study found that the local governments exhibited different kinds of responses to their demands and expectations. In Saensuk, the conflicting demands of the CCGs on alternatives to the sea breakwater construction illustrated how the municipality can promote its own interests and at the same time reduce local opposition by employing a compromise response to their conflicting interests. Empirically, the municipality utilized the standardization process of a consulting firm and convinced the larger community about the benefits of the headland breakwater alternative. With adherence to the room that the central government provides for the municipality to have discretion over alternatives to the construction types, the headland breakwater, shown with the highest score in the multi-criteria analysis, was given first priority by the Saensuk municipality's mayor. Due to its major advantage in contributing to local tourism, this alternative was of most concern to the mayor, though it was considered to have the highest construction cost among the four alternatives. Based on local government trustworthiness and political trust, the CCG leaders and representatives not only finally agreed upon the headland breakwater

alternative, but also helped to communicate with their community members about the possible benefits of this alternative. Evidently, the dense web of Saensuk's CCGs facilitated collective action and affirmative backing for the municipality to achieve community support. With their significance at the community level, the results showed that the municipality provides various communication channels to keep in touch with the CCGs and to allow their accessibility to official information in order to stockpile their good will and collective action.

On the other hand, Pattaya's CCGs are, in general, encouraged to participate in the programs where public participation is legally mandated, like the Thappraya Royal Park construction project, in anticipation of their power to induce community support. According to the program, public consultation with the large community is preliminarily required by law before applying for government grants. As previously mentioned, Pattaya city officials made use of a prior attitude survey of CCG leaders and some household representatives, showing satisfactory results for submitting the summary report of public consultation on the proposed construction project of Thappraya Royal Park to the Provincial Governor. Due to the potential for the loss of decision-making discretion over the program alternative, Pattaya city eventually disguised nonconformity to local opponents behind a facade of acquiescence to the results of the survey conducted with people with whom they closely interacted. By doing so, it implicitly showed that a variety of techniques for the public consultation process on the Thappraya Royal Park construction project were employed in ceremonial pretense for the EIA study.

#### 4.6.3.3 Perceived Economic Benefits and Losses of Tourism and Compliance

As earlier illustrated, most of the participation of the stakeholders of Pattaya city is based on exchange benefits. With the tragedies of several boat accidents and illegal practices of the chair and umbrella operators, which that negatively affected the image of Pattaya city as the world-class tourist destination, Pattaya city has been pressured by various stakeholders to restore a positive city image, upper-level government and local tourism associations, in particular. Owing to the pressures of central government agencies to rebuild the tourists' confidence in maritime safety standards and the effort of the NCPO to return happiness to the

tourists by reorganizing the illegal practices of the beach businesses, the study found that Pattaya city has acceded to the central forces by accepting the demands of local tourism associations, which are normally raised by the PBTA. Due to the similar goal in driving local economic growth in the tourism sector and the mutually-perceived benefits and losses of tourism, Pattaya city has strong interconnectedness with local tourism associations through a number of communication channels provided for their accessibility to information, as well as prompt responses to their demands and interests. As shown in the two programs, many representatives of the local tourism associations were endorsed by the governor to be part of the steering committee along with higher authorities. Nonetheless, it is notable that local tourism associations and the city officials were the majority members of the steering committee for both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs. Additionally, the demands raised by the local tourism associations for uplifting the maritime safety program were eventually manipulated as city orders enforcing on boat operators while their suggestion on utilizing NCPO policy to undertake a long overdue clean-up of Pattaya and Jomtien beaches was put into practice. In this regard, it can be assumed that Pattaya city consciously conformed to the demands of the local tourism associations in anticipation of their support for resources for continued growth in the tourism industry. At the same time, local tourism associations received the benefit of having access to information regarding the promotional activities of tourism and taking part as a joint committee in many local tourism development programs.

#### **4.6.4 Regulatory Requirements of Public Participation and Organizational Responses to Relevant Stakeholders**

Owing to the significance of the regulatory requirements of public participation, other relevant stakeholders were involved in the indicated programs. However, it was evident that they were less important, compared to key stakeholders, due to the lack of the two relationship attributes of power and legitimacy. Therefore, discretionary, demanding, and dependent stakeholders were considered as relevant stakeholders found in this study. Due to the existence of a regulatory framework on public participation in local development initiatives, they were also important to local governments. In order to respond to the demands of relevant stakeholders, who

sometimes have incompatible demands with key stakeholders, it was evident that local governments tend to exhibit proactive responses to their demands and pressures, such as avoidance, defiance, and manipulation. First, it was evident that Pattaya city utilized an avoidance response to conceal organizational nonconformity in order to reduce the extent to which it was externally scrutinized by local opponents to the Thappraya Royal Park construction project; namely, the Pattaya Watchdog group and some local people. Second, the results indicated that Pattaya city had confronted the conflicting interests of dependent stakeholders, comprising boat operators and beach chair and umbrella operators, by conforming to the demands of local tourism associations on the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs, respectively. With the lack of the withholding resources necessary for Pattaya city, they have little or no power to either engage in an active relationship or to gain the attention from Pattaya city, particularly when their demands are incompatible with those of more powerful stakeholders, like the local tourism associations. Instead of exerting their power on Pattaya city, these operators were, in fact, influenced to adopt the standards mandated by the city through the utilization of provincial and city orders as a means of expressing organizational rationality on following the government rules and policies. Consequently, it is assumed that Pattaya city exhibited a defiance response in resistance to their pressures and this indirectly made them comply with the new institutionalized practices. Regarding this proactive resistance, it reflects that Pattaya city had attempted to justify its rationality by making the disruptive events appear consonant with the prevailing institutionalized structure, which defined what the city “should be” as a local government. This is unlike Saensuk municipality, where the manipulation response was utilized to respond to the demands of local operators, beach vendors, for example. Based on the partnerships with Burapha University, which the local people knew and trusted, Saensuk municipality was able to impose the new rules to enforce the limits of the use of foam packaging without any local resistance. Prior to 2012, there were neither rules nor regulations to control the use of foam food containers, which resulted in a large amount of hazardous waste along the coastline and a number of deaths among beach vendors caused by cancer. Rather than following the practice of local beach vendors in using foam food containers, the manipulative response made by Saensuk municipality revealed that the

municipality actively made use of the social networking relations opportunistically in order to shape and redefine the institutionalized norms of the local beach vendors.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSION**

This chapter provides the discussion, implications, and conclusion based on the key findings of this study. The discussion is organized in relation to the five research objectives, and findings are revealed in the realm of current academic knowledge of both stakeholder salience and institutional theories. The chapter begins by a discussion of the key findings: identification of key stakeholders and the extent to which their relationships with the local governments are acknowledged, and a determination of the factors affecting their participation. More importantly, the conceptual framework of this study is presented at the end of the chapter in order to demonstrate how the notion of stakeholder salience in terms of their attributes and factors influencing their participation allows a prediction to be made about organizational response. With major contributions to the extant knowledge on local environmental sustainability with respect to stakeholder participation and the role of local government, this chapter also presents the implications of the findings in terms of theoretical and policy contributions that may be of interest to academic researchers, policymakers, and practitioners. The limitations associated with this research study and recommendations are also provided along with the conclusion.

#### **5.1 Discussions of the Key Findings**

This part of the study aims to answer all of the research objectives through a reflection on the key findings. The five research objectives are subsequently indicated to provide a framework for a discussion of the key findings along with some empirical studies related to the issues.

### **5.1.1 To Determine the Key Stakeholders in the Programs Related to Local Environmental Sustainability of Local Governments**

In order to respond to the first research question on determining which stakeholders are the most influential and receive the bulk of the attention in regard to decision-making and influence, the study utilized the theory of stakeholder salience developed by Mitchell et al. (1997) to identify the key and relevant stakeholders based on their three relationship attributes. Owing to the typology of stakeholders, the results significantly indicated that power and legitimacy are the two important attributes of key stakeholder groups, showing their ability to influence the local government decision-making process and to make their relationship acknowledged by local governments in carrying out local environmental sustainability goals. This offers a critical consideration of the existing literature on stakeholder management, which places a great deal of attention on the power over the other two attributes of stakeholders—legitimacy and urgency. For example, a number of prior studies regarding stakeholder involvement explained “power” as the ability of the stakeholder to influence organizational decision making (Freeman and Reed, 1983) or as an antecedent of the collaborative process (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Wang and Fesenmaier, 2007; Wang and Krakover, 2008), but none of them mentioned the importance of either legitimacy or urgency, which addresses how the interaction between a given organization and stakeholders occurs. For the present study, key stakeholders are thereby defined as “any group or individual who has, at least, power and legitimacy attributes to directly involves in local government decision-making process.” Similarly, there are a number of scholars that have provided a definition of the stakeholder based on a combination of these two attributes (e.g. Savage, Nix, Whitehead, and Bliar, 1991; Hill and Jones, 1992; Brenner, 1993). Based on the aforementioned definition, the study found that key stakeholders are prevailing in definitive and dominant stakeholder groups, as shown in Table 5.1.

Taking into account the definitive stakeholders, where the three stakeholder attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency possess are perceived by local government, their diversification can be seen more strongly in Pattaya city than in the Saensuk municipality. Taking into account the similarity of the local governments studied, it was found that the participation of upper-level government agencies or

higher authorities was identical to that of definitive stakeholders. Owing to the the 1999 Decentralization Act and the 2000 Municipality Act, upper-level government agencies at both national and provincial levels have the authority to provide the two local governments with their legitimate claims and to get involved in a number of local development programs, particularly the programs associated with their direct responsibility, such as their claims for solving the coastal erosion problem in Saensuk, while uplifting maritime safety measures and restructuring the beach businesses in Pattaya city.

**Table 5.1** Identification of Key Stakeholders by Stakeholder Groups in Local Government

Stakeholder Group (Attribute)	Local Government	
	Saensuk Municipality	Pattaya City
1. Definitive (P+L+U)	1.1. Upper-Level State Agencies	1.1 Upper-Level State Agencies 1.2 Relevant Government Agencies 1.3 Local Tourism Associations
2. Dominant (P+L)	2.1 CCGs 2.2 Sriracha Municipality 2.2 Local Fishery Associations 2.3 Educational Institutes	2.1 Cooperative Community Groups (CCGs)
3. Discretionary (L)	3.1 Local Residents 3.2 Local Beach Vendors	3.1 Local Residents
4. Dependent (L+U)	-	4.1 Local Boat Operators 4.2 Local Beach Operators
5. Demanding (U)	-	5.1 Pattaya Watchdog Group

**Note:** “P” stands for attribute of power, while “L” is legitimacy, and “U” is urgency.

In this regard, it can be seen that the upper-level government agencies have vertical power derived from hierarchical authority, and as Brass (1984: 518) pointed out, “the structural analysis of individual power has seldom progressed beyond the

concept of hierarchical authority.” Based on the significance of vertical power through formal hierarchy, Astley and Sachdeva (1984) also supported the idea that power and access to opportunity are associated with formal rank. In addition to their vertical power, the results showed that these upper-level government agencies have in many cases been able to provide valuable resources/assets that are meaningful to achieving the above-indicated programs for the two local governments, such as financial resources, devolved regulatory responsibilities, including access to more resource opportunities than they would otherwise have access to. For the Saensuk municipality, it is notable that Saensuk is more dependent on financial resources from the central government in achieving any government project, as evidenced by the sea breakwater construction project. Therefore, the participation of these upper-level government agencies in giving approval to an agreed upon alternative to the sea breakwater construction project has helped Saensuk municipality reduce its financial burden. In the meantime, their participation has in many cases not only reduced the constraint of governing laws but also has built cross-sector collaboration from the relevant government agencies for Pattaya city, as shown in both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs. Consequently, it is notable that participation of the upper-level government agencies helps both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city reduce their uncertain or unpredictable environments in terms of financial burden and lack of authority.

In addition to upper-level government agencies, the results showed that local tourism business associations are another key definitive stakeholders of Pattaya city, involved in the decision-making process of many sustainable tourism development programs. These tourism associations have legitimacy to participate in and to be acknowledged by the city as an “affiliate organization,” comprised of many private businesses whose activities are related to tourism and which contribute to the promotion of tourism development in Pattaya city. In the context of their affiliation, these associations are not only socially accepted by the city but also by a myriad of government agencies as an alternative and legitimate source of local tourism development. Due to their superiority in terms of abundant financial resources and capabilities to enter the international tourism market, these tourism business associations are becoming increasingly involved in the local environmental

sustainability programs, particularly those that related to increase of the city's tourism image and tourists' confidence. Evidently, the city officials and representatives from local tourism associations have in many cases collaboratively exhibited tourism promotional activities on an international scale with regard to the city's tourism image—"a world-class tourist destination"—in Southeast Asia, particularly through trade and road shows. In this regard, it can be seen that the power of local tourism associations is derived from either their ownership or potential to access valuable resources, such as new market entry and tourism opportunities, which others are unable to supply. As illustrated in both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs, the demands of local tourism associations, led by the PBTA, were heard and immediately responded by the city through engaging them as a member of the steering committee along with other upper-level government agencies and city executives. The results indicated that their participation can help the city not only reduce bureaucratic scrutiny and the scope of regulatory mandates, but also can enhance its carrying capacity in the context of tourism. For example, their engagement in both programs has assisted the city in reducing government pressure in terms of both uplifting maritime safety standards and returning happiness to the tourists, at the same time, they help the city restore tourists' confidence and satisfaction, including rebuilding a good destination image as a "world-class tourist destination." Similarly, some previous research has acknowledged that tourists' satisfaction is one of the major antecedents of tourist revisit intention (Yuksel, 2000; Kozak, 2001; Petrick, Morais, and Norman, 2001; Li and Carr, 2004; Zhang, 2012), while some focus on the image of the tourist destination as a key factor affecting revisit intention (Chi and Qu, 2008; Mat Som, Marzuki, Yousefi and AbuKhalifeh, 2012).

Regarding another key stakeholders, the study found that the dominant stakeholder, whose attributes of power and legitimacy possesses, is considered as an important player in both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city. Regarding the similarity of dominant stakeholders among the two case studies, the study found that the CCGs were very important to both local governments. Based on legal forms and mandatory regarding community involvement in the local development programs which may have significant impacts on natural resources and environmental degradation, the CCGs have become an important source of community power. This

kind of power is defined here as the ability to pool and control community assets, such as local communities' attitude and willingness to sustain the management of environmental resources, as well as the persuasive and suggestive influence to extract compliance from their community members. As a local voluntary association empowered by the Decentralization Act, CCGs are considered to be a social institution at the community level, functioning to boost the responsiveness of their concerned local government to local demands. Therefore, they are socially accepted by larger community, have legitimate claims, and exhibit their roles on behalf of local community members. As shown in both cases, the CCGs have in many cases not only acted as messengers to convey messages (local needs) between the local government and community members, but also as leading canvassers at the community level. Based on the prior illustration, CCGs can solicit votes among their community members, particularly those that have no political candidates in their minds. Owing to their significance in providing both community support and local vote canvassing, the results showed that both local governments have attempted to establish close linkages and interconnectedness with their CCGs by giving them some community support and incentives, for instance, financial support, outing trips, and the provision of tailor-made occupational development programs. Through the support of CCGs for the aforementioned programs, it is evident that they have been able to help Saensuk municipality reduce local confrontation in determining an appropriate alternative to the sea breakwater construction project, while becoming the most influential stakeholder in the concealment of local opposition to the Thappraya Royal Park construction project of Pattaya city. Due to being classified as government projects, the two construction projects are required by law to ensure local consensus on the agreed alternative through the process of public consultation.

Furthermore, the lack of knowledge and practical experience has forced Saensuk municipality to depend upon the technical and advisory support of a civil society network, comprising Sriracha municipality, educational institutes, and local fishery associations, as evidenced by both the blue swimming crab conservation and Bang Saen NO foam programs. In this regard, it can be assumed that their power attribute is derived from their valued knowledge, expertise, and profession. A number of empirical studies have pointed out the importance of these valuable resources as

key sources underpinning the power within both individual attributes (Foucault, 1980; Beritelli and Laesser, 2011) and interorganizational networks (Cook, 1977; Ibrra, 1993; Cross and Parker, 2004). Evidently, the power residing in these dominant stakeholders of Saensuk was found in the form of interorganizational networks. The pressure of the government policy initiative on ICM has stimulated the Saensuk municipality to adopt the successful practice of Sriracha municipality regarding the crab conservation program. In the meantime, a dramatic increase in hazardous waste, particularly foam food containers, which were found to be a major cause of death among the local beach vendors, pressured the municipality to find out alternatives to this unsustainable practice. However, the lack knowledge and practical experience regarding both crab conservation and eco-friendly packaging placed Saensuk municipality in an uncertain and unpredictable environment in implementing the blue swimming crab conservation and Bang Saen NO foam programs, respectively. Therefore, the municipality has enlisted help from a civil society network in order to obtain the necessary resources, which are identified here as knowledge and practical experience, as well as to fulfill their responsibility in solving local problems. Empirically, the participation of the civil society network has not only helped the municipality reduce organizational uncertainty in the theoretical domain, but has also prevented local resistance in practice.

### **5.1.2 To Illustrate the Mechanisms That Facilitate the Connection between the Local Governments and Stakeholders in Executing Local Environmental Sustainability Programs**

In order to address the relationship mechanisms that connect the local government and diverse stakeholder groups, the study found that there were three main types of relationships that have made local governments aware of their interactions with stakeholders in working towards the achievement of the local environmental sustainability programs of the local governments.

#### **5.1.2.1 Central-Local Government Relations**

It is notable that central-local government relations are derived through a regulatory structure and government mandates, particularly since the promulgation of the 1997 Constitutional law and the Decentralization Act of 1999. It is widely

accepted that the Constitution of 1997 has brought significant changes to Thai politics, such as participatory democracy and the decline of a centralized structure of Thai public administration (Supasawad Chardchawarn, 2010). Although the structure of the Thai public administration had been separated into three-levels, namely, the central, regional, and local administration since 1991 under the Act on the Administration Organization of the State Affairs, B.E. 2534, the 1997 Constitution mainly introduced a decentralization effort and the new structure of the Thai local government in accord with section 78, suggesting that “the state shall decentralize power to localities for the purpose of independence and self-determination of local affairs” (The Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand, 1997: section 78). Therefore, the “chain of command” begins with the central government at the top, with the central ministries having the power to identify policy initiatives, and shape the budget and allocation policies that will affect all provincial and local governments. In each province, Chonburi in particular, there are two parallel structures—provincial and local administration—and the Provincial Governor is the central government agent appointed by the Interior Minister to exercise supervisory functions over both provincial- and local-level administration. Therefore, the Chonburi Provincial Governor has in many cases supervised and monitored how the government policy initiatives are implemented at the provincial and local levels. For example, all of the programs of Pattaya city show how the government policies identified by the central government, along with the influence of the Provincial Governor, have an impact on Pattaya city, resembling Saensuk municipality. As a result, this reflects the coercive influence which is often found in institutionalized environments, where governments, professional bodies, and credential associations set specific rules and standards that an organization must conform to in order to maintain its legitimacy and stability (Johnston, 2013). According to many institutional theorists (e.g. DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Davis and Powell, 1992), coercive pressure comes from government mandates or the influence of the organizations on which they are dependent. Based on this institutional mechanism, it is evident that both Pattaya city and Saensuk municipality have to comply with their requirements and procedures in order to receive support in terms of both monetary, like government grants, and non-monetary forms, such as the endorsement of provincial mandates to induce intergovernmental collaboration. With

the capacity to supply such resources necessary for achieving environmental sustainability goals of both local governments, the central government agencies at both the national and provincial levels have become important institutional constituents of both local governments for obtaining organizational stability and legitimacy.

Due to the fact that there have been a number of relevant government agencies that have participated in both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs, it significantly reveals how central government agents, particularly the Chonburi Provincial Governor, have the authority to induce cross-sector collaboration and intergovernmental relations in policy networks, referring to sets of formal and informal institutional linkages between governmental and other sectors structured around the shared interests in public policy-making and implementation (Rhodes, 2007). Instead of direct participation, the large participation of relevant government agencies in many programs of Pattaya city has resulted from provincial mandates endorsed by the Governor, who in fact has the authority to control and command the provincial field officers from all ministries. Regardless of the provincial mandates, it is hardly possible that a wide range of relevant government agencies is willing to jointly work towards the stated objectives and shared goals because they are, in nature, from different line ministers. As evidenced by the two programs, the Governor has formally set up different committees from various sectors and ministries to collaboratively work for program achievement. This is in accord with Supasawad Chardchawarn (2010), who stated that a lack of formal coordination among a variety of local government organizations is one of the weaknesses of local government administrations in Thailand because any structure of the Thai local government, comprised the Provincial Administrative Organization (PAO), the municipality, and the Sub-district Administrative Organization (SAO), has its own administrative structure separate from others, and there are no formal linkages among themselves. As shown in both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs, it is evident that the Provincial Governor is a key person in endorsing provincial mandates in formulating different groups of committee members for both programs, chaired by the Governor. Therefore, it can be seen that intergovernmental relations are established through the provincial mandates, where the Governor can dominate and lead the

committees to function in the way that he/she wants. According to section 57(5) of the Act on the Administration Organization of the State Affairs, B.E. 2534, the Governor has the authority to provide formal coordination from various sectors in the province to pursue the shared goal of either provincial development or the prevention of public calamity. Although a number of government institutions and quasi-governmental organizations have participated as committee members in the two indicated programs, the majority of steering committee members are representatives of local tourism associations, the PBTA and THA in particular. This would probably be a loophole in the regulation, allowing Pattaya city to favor particular civic groups, especially local tourism associations.

#### 5.1.2.2 Local Network Relations

Notably, local network relations shed light on four sorts of relationship formation; namely, social interactions, local elite networks, economic linkages with tourism development, and knowledge-sharing networks.

##### 1) Social Interactions

The social interactions that emerged among the CCGs illustrate the processes by which community representatives interact within their community-based networks. Evidently, CCGs are presumably significant not only in providing voluntary support to the local government and canvassing the vote for local politicians, but also in coordinating between local officials and community members through their everyday talks and face-to-face communication. As McClurg (2003) indicated, social interactions play a critical role in explaining not only political participation but also other relevant factors that predict participation, such as group membership. The result showed that CCGs and local governments were closely linked; however, it was also evident that they have different forms of social interaction: exchange and cooperation. Goffman (1959), a renowned sociologist who portrayed the importance of human social interaction, explained that social interactions is usually divided into the five forms of exchange, competition, cooperation, conflict, and coercion. In essence, the study revealed that the social interactions between the CCGs and local governments being studied were found in two different forms: exchange and cooperation. In Pattaya city, exchange relationships were seen in the linkage of Pattaya city with civil society stakeholders; namely CCGs

and local tourism associations. In the exchange relationships, benefits were given in anticipation of receiving comparable benefits in return (Clark, Mills and Powell, 1986; Mills and Clark, 1994). Clark and Mills (2011) pointed out that benefits can be either in monetary or non-monetary form. Due to the perceived loss and benefits of tourism, local tourism associations are the key stakeholders that raise the demands on implementation of both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs, while CCGs are the most powerful stakeholder in providing public opinions for the Tharppraya Royal Park construction project. Based on their power to supply the particular resources necessary for Pattaya city, such as market accessibility and community power, the demands of these key stakeholders are among the top priorities of the city. In return for their support, the result showed that Pattaya city always gives them some incentives, such as financial support for their community activities as well as occupational development programs. In contrast, Saensuk's CCGs were engaged through social cooperation, which Clark and Mills (2011) called "communal relationships," referring to the relationships where benefits are given to support one another's welfare instead of repayment. Several studies have distinguished exchange and communal relationships based on the fundamental rules that govern the giving and receiving of comparable benefits from others (Clark and Mills, 1979; Clark, Mills, and Powell, 1986); however, a recent study of Batson (1993) argued that exchange principles seem to operate in both communal and exchange relationships. Nonetheless, the study found that the social interactions between Saensuk's CCGs and the local government are based on their strong social ties and interests in the community well-being, particularly regarding the livability of the environment and social conditions. All of the programs showed that the large participation of CCG leaders and members shed some light on their consideration of both environmental and socio-cultural aspects, rather than merely focusing on economic benefits. It is widely accepted that the idea that well-being depends on multiple forms of capital and its impact on local people's quality of life, and the relationship between well-being, capital, and sustainable development as a way to better understanding the changes associated with tourism development (Macbeth, Carson, and Northcote, 2004; Andereck and Nyaupane, 2010).

## 2) Local Elite Networks

The local elite networks, for the present study, refer to any individual or group that has substantial economic resources, i.e. wealth, business ownership, and that is involved in local policy networks. Empirically, the results indicated that some local elite groups, particularly the fellows and relatives in Khamnan Poh's network and the Palang Chon Party, have in many cases domination over the policy decision-making process. As evidenced by Saensuk's ICM program, Khamnan Poh's eldest son, Sonthaya Khunpluem, was the chairperson of the Chonburi ICM network and scaled up the achievement of the DSD-SEA at national level in late 2007. Further, his second son, Wittaya Khunpluem, was endorsed as part of the ICM Provincial Coordinating Committee. However, it has been well-recognized among local people that Khamnan Poh is the first locally-elected mayor of Saensuk municipality that had rebuilt Bang Saen beach as a popular tourist destination and transformed Saensuk city into a modern, lively tourism city. Supportively, the study of Iwase (2011) also affirmed that Khamnan Poh and his local elite network were able to take possession of economic, political, and social power, and tourism became a source of those powers. Further, his status quo was gradually expanded to Pattaya city, resulting in the winning of his third son, Ittipol Khunpluem, in the Pattaya mayoral election for two consecutive terms, in 2008 and 2012. The results revealed that Mr. Ittipol has received strong support from many local politicians and the great majority of Pattaya council members were from his group of the Rao Rak Pattaya, under the Palang Chon Party. With the existence of local elite networks, the participation of some stakeholders was meaningful for both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city.

## 3) Economic Linkage with Tourism Development

The economic linkage with tourism development provides some stakeholders with room to take part in the local government decision-making process, especially in the programs related to economic benefits of tourism. Owing to the significance of tourism revenue contributing to Pattaya city, the city executives pay a great deal of attention to the interests of local tourism businesses as a key stimulus to economic viability. In order to prevent possible complaints about the favoring of individual tourism businesses, Pattaya city has encouraged them to affiliate in the form of "tourism association," where many types of businesses are entitled to be a

legal entity in pursuing Pattaya's tourism development. With the perceived economic benefits and losses of tourism, it was found that local tourism associations have been engaged in exchange relations with Pattaya city. The result showed that local tourism associations have developed tourist amenities in Pattaya city, marketed the city to international visitors and tourists, channeled more financial support, as well as created local employment through tourism development. In turn, the city executives and officials have attempted to fulfill their needs and interests by allowing them to be part of the decision-making body in many local environmental sustainability programs, such as the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs.

#### 4) Knowledge-Sharing Network

A knowledge-sharing network was widely found in Saensuk municipality, where educational institutes and local fishery associations participated in providing advice and technical support based on their profession and expertise. With adherence to the attempt of Saensuk municipality to pursue the programs' achievement, at the same time, produced social understanding and meaningful results for the larger community, and educational institutes and local fishery associations are powerful stakeholders due to their knowledge resources, as evidenced by blue swimming crab conservation and Bang Saen NO foam programs. Instead of knowledge dissemination, the results significantly revealed that the participation of these stakeholders has created meaningful benefits for the municipality, such as the reduction of local opposition to changing their unsustainable practices, the enhancement of the local awareness of environmental conservation, and the facilitation of community engagement and private collaboration.

#### 5.1.2.3 Regulatory Requirements for Public Participation

Since the promulgation of the 1997 Constitution and Decentralization Act of 1999, local government authorities must take their roles and responsibilities in regard to the will of the people in their territorial jurisdiction. Consequently, there have been many following regulatory frameworks, particularly the Regulation of the Office of the Prime Minister on Public Consultation, B.E. 2548 (2005) and the Notification of Ministry of National Resources and Environment on rules and procedures for conducting EIA, that require local government to get public approval before conducting certain local government projects. Evidently, Saensuk's ICM and

the Bang Saen NO foam programs, as well as Pattaya's Thappraya Royal Park construction project, are examples of local government projects that fundamentally require the public consultation process. As a result, there were a number of participatory techniques that the local governments employed to gather public opinion regarding the stated projects, such as public hearings, public discourse, opinion surveys, and so forth. However, the public consultation process was a fundamentally required by law because it was likely that both the Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city had predetermined the alternative to their construction projects. Especially, it was notable that Pattaya city made use of the prior results of the opinion surveys and individual interviews with CCG leaders and household representatives to conceal the large disagreement of local people on the predetermined alternative. On the other hand, Saensuk municipality had tried to convince the larger communities about the massive benefits of the headland alternative to the sea breakwater construction by utilizing a body of scientific knowledge. Additionally, Saensuk's local beach vendors, as rent payers, were legally obligated to make informed decisions regarding the municipal enforcement limiting foam food containers.

### **5.1.3 To Identify the Key Factors Affecting the Participation of Various Stakeholder Groups in Local Environmental Sustainability Programs**

In order to answer the research question regarding the key factors influencing the participation of the various stakeholder groups in the programs related to the local environmental sustainability of both local governments, the study drew attention to two broad groups of similar and dissimilar factors as follows.

#### **5.1.3.1 Similar Factors: Government Policy Network, Social Capital, and Information Accessibility**

The study found that government policy network was the most important factor influencing the participation of government agencies at all levels, as evidenced by the programs of Saensuk's ICM and Pattaya maritime safety, including the beach clean-up. In both local governments, government policy network has enabled the creation of new institutional mechanisms to support decentralization programs at the local level through various means, such as collaborative stakeholder

participation and partnership coalition among government agencies in achieving an environmental sustainability effort. Evidently, many programs were initiated at the central level; however, the proactive role rests on the lower tiers, namely provincial and local governments, to advocate diverse groups of stakeholders, including civil society, to work with one another to achieve national objectives and goals. As evidenced in the two cases, government policy network had a direct influence on the participation of government agencies consistent with the hierarchical structure. To some extent, the policy network has advocated a formal partnership coalition among relevant government agencies through the creation of different committees—steering, acting, and monitoring groups that had engaged officials from relevant officials at the provincial level in the process of planning, decision-making, and implementation, as evidenced by both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs. Additionally, government policy network has had an indirect effect on the facilitation of the civil society network that share common interests with their local governments. In Saensuk, civil society networks shed light on the programs of blue swimming crab conservation and ICM, in which dominant stakeholders, namely local fishery associations and CCGs, have cooperated in joint actions for the common purpose of either conserving significant economic marine resources or improving the community well-being, respectively. In the meantime, the civil society networks in Pattaya city was evident in both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs through the participation of local tourism associations aiming to restore the tourism image of Pattaya city. Much of the tourism literature has not clearly identified the government policy network as a key factor affecting the participation of government agencies in local environmental sustainability programs at the local level. However, the study of Thawilwadee Bureekul (2000) pointed out that government policy commitment is important as one of the institutional factors influencing public participation in the context of Thailand. In her analysis, government policy will positively respond to the demands when the problem becomes a significant public issue. Similarly, Saensuk's ICM shows that government policy has positively influenced public participation because the severity of coastal erosion problem was a large concern of the entire society. At the same time, government policy network provides larger benefits for Pattaya city because it is important not only for tackling the existing problems of boat

calamity and illegal beach business structure, but also for responding to the demands of local tourism associations as well as helping to reduce local resistance from local operators who most likely be affected by program implementation.

Another similar factor influencing the stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs is social capital. Although there is no universally agreed definition of social capital, one of its central ideas is that social networks of trust are valuable assets for social cohesion because they enable people's further corporation (Fukuyama, 2000, Putnam, 1993, 1995, 2000). This is consistent with the ideas of a renowned social capital theorist, Robert D. Putnam, who explained that social capital consists of the three elements of social networks, norms, and trust, which encourage members of a social organization to work together in pursuit of shared objectives in mutually-beneficial ways. Furthermore, Putnam (2000) pointed out in his book, *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community*, that social capital can be differentiated into the two basic forms of bonding (or exclusive) and bridging (or inclusive) social capital, which are helpful in meeting different needs. In his analysis, bonding social capital tends to reinforce exclusive identities and to maintain homogeneity, whereas bridging social capital gives importance to bringing together the collective effort of heterogeneous social groups (Field, 2008). With adherence to these two types of social capital, it was evident that bonding and bridging social capital was found in both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city. Regarding bonding social capital, the study found that effective communication and group leaders are crucial components to building strong social ties. Significantly, some informal communication channels such as face-to-face interaction and social network chatting, including civic meetings, have helped group members to band together in order to support their collective action, as evidenced by the CCGs and local fishery associations of Saensuk municipality as well as the local tourism associations and the Pattaya Watchdog group of Pattaya city. Meanwhile, being an effective group leader is reflected through the leader's capability to either create compelling reasons against unsatisfying issues or to deliver messages between local executives and their group members. For example, Saensuk's CCG leaders provided comments against alternatives to the sea breakwater construction project based on the characteristics of local circumstances, resembling the complaints of the

president of the PBTA on the city executives regarding issues that negatively affected Pattaya tourism's image, such as boat calamities and public beach encroachment. Moreover, being an effective group leader is also revealed through his/her capability to maintain social inclusion, where group members take part in the development of the larger community. For example, the case of Saensuk's blue swimming crab program showed that the local fishery association has an effective leader who is able to build bonding social capital among group members, whose livelihood depends on crab catching, through sharing knowledge about crab conservation. By engaging in group interaction dynamics and civic engagement, social trust has been built among the in-group members. This is consistent with a number of social capital studies, indicating that interaction in a group makes individual members more trusting (Brehm and Rahn, 1997; Claibourn and Martin, 2000; Van Ingen and Bekkers, 2015), but not vice versa, since Van Lange (2015) suggested that generalized trust or trust in other members of a given society is derived from their social interaction experiences and networks rather than individual attributes. In the growing literature since Putnam's original study of Italy, trust has become a common theme of social capital, which entails the willingness of individual members to jointly take risks in a social circumstance based on commonly-shared norms of reciprocity (Fukuyama, 1995). Bonding social capital is a necessary condition for collective action and building social trust; however, it is not sufficient for building a consensus among different social groups representing diverse interests, which calls attention to bridging social capital or a "radius of trust" in Fukuyama's (1995) terminology, showing the circle of people among whom cooperative norms are operative by enabling connections across homogenous borders. The recent theoretical developments suggest that social capital is deeply rooted in the formation of human bonding among close ties, which consequently empower them to protect and pursue their collective interests whenever they join any heterogeneous group of external organization (Putnam, 1993; Hawkins and Maurer, 2010). In this regard, it can be seen that bonding social capital is an important antecedent for the formation of more powerful forms of social capital, bridging social capital (Ferguson and Dickens, 1999; Warren, Thompson, and Saegert, 2001). Seemingly, bridging social capital has in many cases not only created an inclusive institutional structure of democratic and participatory organizations, but also has helped prevent local

opposition. For example, the participation of local fishery associations in Saensuk's blue swimming crab conservation program had created a collaborative network of heterogeneous groups consisted of local fishery associations and educational institutes as an inclusive institutional structure to exchange knowledge and to share experiences on the crab conservation initiative, which in turn can prevent local resistance to new practices. Similarly, the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs showed that the collaborative partnerships of the PBTA with the public and private sector have helped to increase the level of influence of local tourism associations on the decision-making process of Pattaya city regarding the two programs. In this regard, it can be inferred that bonding social capital is a significant predictor of the ability to take civic action and is prerequisite to the formation of bridging social capital, which requires making connections beyond the micro level of social interactions but has the potential to build a strong civil society through social cohesion which Stanley (2003: 8) defined as "the willingness of people in a society to cooperate with each other in the diversity of collective enterprise that members of a society must do in order to survive and prosper."

Additionally, information accessibility is another factor affecting the participation of stakeholders in both local governments. Much of the community engagement literature gives importance to information accessibility as a fundamental component for increasing public participation (Ng and Hamby, 1997; Rowe and Frewer, 2000). Although information accessibility encompasses many issues surrounding availability, accessibility, and the affordability of information, this study focuses on "accessibility," which is defined here as the stakeholder's ability to access any information regarding the local environmental sustainability programs in their locality. The findings showed that information accessibility is one of the key factors influencing the participation of the civil society stakeholders of both local governments; however, the availability of information is more widespread in Saensuk municipality than in Pattaya city. The interviews with Saensuk's local stakeholders, namely the CCG leaders, local beach vendors, and educators, also revealed that there are a variety of communication channels for accessing information regarding the local development programs. Apparently, everyone can access information not only through documentation but also through open discussion with the mayor and municipal

officials in public meetings. No matter the types of communication channels, all are effective in prompting a response by the municipality to the demands of the larger community in accord with the affirmation of a CCG leader: “If the mayor is given informed any community issues, he will take action himself or send his team to inspect” (A Saensuk’s CCG Leader, May 15, 2015, Interview). Instead of depending upon the physical presence of the mayor and his team, Saensuk municipality also employed organizations in which the local people knew about and trusted in the provision of either scientific knowledge or practical experience, such as educational institutes and local fishery associations, to disseminate information about the program rationale to the entire society, as shown in both programs—the crab conservation and Bang Saen NO foam programs. Over the last decade, there has been a growing body of literature suggesting the importance of integrating local and scientific knowledge for environmental management (e.g. Thomas and Twyman, 2004; Reed, Dougill and Taylor, 2007; Stringer and Reed, 2007; Ingram, 2008). The results indicated that the combination of local and scientific knowledge contributes to a more robust and concrete explanation of the change in localized norms and practices. In contrast, effective communication channels are prevailing in particular stakeholder groups in the case of Pattaya city. As previously illustrated, two-way communication channels are generally provided to definitive stakeholders, particularly local tourism associations, while dominant stakeholders—CCGs—are allowed to access information and participate in the programs where a public consultation process is required by law, the Thappraya Royal Park construction project for example. With a lack of access to information, there has been a huge misunderstanding about the programs’ rationale and objectives; that is, how it benefits the entire society. As evidenced in the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs, the lack of information accessibility resulted in a low level of awareness of the local community concerning the environmental and social-cultural consequences of implementing the programs. Therefore, it is not surprising that the interviews with local operators showed that there is a lack of understanding and a sense of ownership for accomplishing the program’s objectives. Additionally, the field observation showed that many local operators still break the city regulations, such as allowing tourists to drag their beach chairs beyond the operation area, and some of them complained about ineffective

communication mechanisms, that “If the city officials had clearly explained the rationale of beach clean-up program to us, we would have accepted this enforcement.” Therefore, this can be seen that information accessibility is one of the key factors influencing the participation of local stakeholders, particularly at the community level, in such a way that it helps increase local awareness and understanding of the rationale and significance of the local government programs, especially when the change in social norms is crucially required.

#### 5.1.3.2 Dissimilar Factors: Perceived Economic Benefits and Losses of Tourism and Political Trust or Distrust

Taking into account the differences in the factors influencing the participation of stakeholders in the two local governments, the perceived economic benefits and losses of tourism was found in Pattaya city, whereas trust in the mayor is significantly addressed in the context of Saensuk municipality. Many empirical studies in tourism development have indicated a positive relationship between local participation in the tourism industry and the perceived impacts, particularly regarding the economic impacts such as creating jobs and increasing income generation (e.g. Aref and Redzuan, 2009; Van Breugel, 2013; Martiza and Oni, 2014). In Pattaya, perceived economic benefits and losses of tourism were one of the factors affecting the participation of wide range of powerful stakeholder groups, namely definitive, dominant, and dependent stakeholders. Adhering to the negative impact on the city’s tourism image caused by the frequent boat calamities in 2013 and the undesirable business practice of beach chair and umbrella operators, representatives from local tourism associations have participated and become a part of joint committees for achieving the programs’ objectives. Generally, their participation was found in the local environmental sustainability programs that related to the increase in tourism capacity of Pattaya, such as tourism marketing activities and even the redevelopment of U-Tapao Airport to be a major international hub to bring more tourists directly to the eastern seaboard. Although local tourism associations are affiliated as “non-profit organizations,” it is noted that they typically pursue the common interest of economic aspects. Similarly, the economic benefits of the construction project of Thappraya Royal Park was a main consideration among the CCGs, who agreed with city executives and officials on building a new landmark and tourist attraction in the city.

According to the results of the attitude survey regarding the project, a majority of CCG leaders (87.5%) agreed that the project can yield a large economic benefit in terms of new tourist attraction. By the same token, the local economic impact of both the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs is a major concern among local operators which has directly induced their participation in the programs. Based on new emerging rules and regulations affecting their business practices, local operators generally attend the public meetings at the Pattaya City Hall in order to keep informed and to negotiate with the city officials on any losses the programs may cause. Regardless of the perceived economic benefits or losses as incentives to participate, many of them spend less time on collective activities. As some tourism practitioners (e.g. Wanhill, 1994; Liu and Wall, 2006) have pointed out, the driving force for pursuing tourism, regardless of the level of development, is the expectation of its positive economic benefits.

On the other hand, perceived economic benefits are absent in Saensuk municipality, where political trust is widely found among the dominant and discretionary stakeholders. Based on the credibility of the mayor in making appropriate policy alternatives and accountability to be particularly responsive to local constituents, it was evident that local stakeholders in any form—individual, group or community organization—living within the jurisdiction of Saensuk municipality, trust their local authorities. Also, the finding indicated that a variety of communication channels have been provided to allow for the interaction with the larger communities rather than targeting specific groups of stakeholders. The various communication channels between the municipality and the larger community have helped local authorities to become closer with local communities in expressing their ideas, accessing information, and to interact with one another, as a local beach vendor stated: “Everyone can approach to the mayor both at his office and public meetings, he is always there” (A Local Beach Vendor, February 22, 2014, Interview). In every public meeting, the mayor normally is the chairperson so that he/she can stay up-to-date on current issues concerning local development and local communities are encouraged for public deliberation on any issues that they may have with the mayor and other local executives. Therefore, it is assumed that the combination of local credibility, accountability, and effective communication mechanisms reveals how political trust is

generated among local stakeholders in Saensuk. According to many social and political theorists, political trust refers primarily to attitudes about political institutions and leaders (Newton, 1999) which is closely linked to social or generalized trust (Fitzgerald and Wolak, 2016), perhaps different sides of the same coin (Newton, 1999, 2001). According to the findings, generalized trust is derived from networks of social interactions to pursue a shared goal; on the other hands, political trust comes from the capability of the municipality to tackle community problems and to improve community well-being. Overall, the interviews with local stakeholders, namely educators, CCG leaders, and local residents, showed that political trust in Saensuk municipality hinges on the citizens' evaluation of the performance of their local government. This is consistent with some empirical studies that supported the idea that the primary roots of political trust are within the design and performance of the government (Rothstein and Stolle, 2008); for instance when civil servants are evaluated to be corrupt, people are mistrustful of the national government (Anderson and Tverdova, 2003; Chang and Chu, 2006; Morris and Klesner, 2010). Similarly, the study of Mishler and Rose (2001) on the origins of political trust addressed the idea that political and economic performance is strong determinants of political trust in post-communist societies. Unlike Pattaya city, political distrust was, in fact, revealed as a factor influencing the participation of the discretionary and demanding stakeholders. Based on their dissatisfaction with performance of city executives and officials, together with the rumor of deforestation, a large number of local residents and Pattaya Watchdog group members participated in the public hearings process of the Thappraya Royal Park construction project. This finding is consistent with the study of some political sociologists such as Gamson (1968, 1971), who stated that distrust, not trust, stimulates political participation.

#### **5.1.4 To Explore the Role of Local Governments in Responding to The Pressures and Expectations of Various Groups in Terms of Local Environmental Sustainability**

A major purpose of this study was to explore the role of local governments with respect to stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs based on institutional perspectives. Therefore, stakeholders were considered

as institutional constituents, prevailing in institutional environments which stem not from technological or material imperatives, but rather are infused with cultural norms, values, and taken-for-granted assumptions that define the way their world operates. In order to understand how organizational behaviors are developed and legitimated, Scott (1987), Oliver (1991), and Davis and Powell (1992) suggested that institutional environments must be viewed at both the macro- and micro-level because such environments are comprised not only of technical requirements for the task at hand but also institutional elements (Zucker, 1987) that come from outside the organization in the organizational field or societal sector. Similarly, Davis and Powell (1992) pointed out that the organizational field pays a great deal of attention to the totality of relevant actors and that would be useful for understanding the entire set of interactions among the actors in the organizational field. Owing to the local government context, all types of local governments were the consequence of the 1999 Decentralization Act, which underlines the importance of transferring some authority from central to local government authority in order to meet locals' needs and demands. In essence, the institutional pressures of local governments are not the only requirements of the state or higher authority, but also public opinions, stakeholder claims, and the like. Therefore, key and relevant stakeholders that exert different types of institutional pressures, namely coercive, mimetic, and normative pressure, on the Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city were examined in order to explore how the two local governments respond to such pressures. Based on examining the process of institutional isomorphism, the results showed that local governments respond to their institutional pressures in a variety of ways, as follows.

#### 5.1.4.1 Coercive Isomorphism Reflects a Compliance Response to Upper-Level Government Agencies

In response to the coercive isomorphism derived from state pressures, whose vertical power is exerted through central-local government relations, the results indicated that both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city exhibit a compliance role to react to their demands and expectations, which generally is reflected in the forms of government policy initiatives and provincial mandates. As previously illustrated, upper-level government authorities (e.g. central and provincial governments) have become key stakeholders in many programs, particularly in the case of Pattaya city.

They have in many cases facilitated both local governments to not only meet necessary legal requirements, but also help to increase organizational stability in order to cope with environmental uncertainty, such as local resistance and cross-sector collaboration to pursue environmental sustainability goals. This explicitly reflects that the functional importance of higher authorities has been prevailing in Thailand's local government system in order to either control or provide a substantial impact on policy networks. Oliver (1990) supports the idea that stability and necessity are significant determinants of interorganizational relationships. Clearly, the case of Pattaya city showed that the compliance role has facilitated the establishment of the mandated relations among relevant government agencies and the devolution of certain authority for regulating boat safety measures to keep working towards policy goals in uplifting maritime safety standards and restructuring beach businesses operations. Additionally, the compliance role of Saensuk municipality with state pressures regarding ICM implementation has mainly helped to reduce the uncertainty of financial support in relation to the sea breakwater construction project, which requires massive investment costs.

#### 5.1.4.2 Normative Isomorphism Reflects Compliance with or a Compromise Response to Key Stakeholders That are Aligned with Organizational Interests

The compliance role reveals the organizational conformity to state pressures in order to increase its stability or sustain legitimacy by complying with prevailing rules and norms of higher authorities; however, Oliver (1991) has argued that compliance is considered a more active response on account of its self-serving role in following organizational interests. As evidenced by the programs, Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city also exhibit a compliance role in responding to the demands of particular stakeholder groups that exert a normative influence over both local governments. Because normative isomorphism is associated with the culture of professionalism (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Zucker, 1987; Davis and Powell, 1992), the results showed that some social groups on whom the two local governments are dependent have exerted such influence over their local governments. In Pattaya city, the city executives played the compliance role in responding to normative pressures, whose members have attained high degrees of both power and legitimacy

attributes and have exchange relations with the city; namely, local tourism associations and CCGs. With their objectives of pursuing local environmental sustainability along with local economic growth through tourism development resembling the organizational interests of the city executives, local tourism associations have become key stakeholders that function as transactional vehicles for a myriad of purposes to Pattaya city. Based on their legitimacy and power in supplying the scarce resources necessary to Pattaya city, local tourism associations are regarded as definitive stakeholders and are closely interconnected with the city executives and officials. Therefore, representatives from local tourism associations have in many cases been officially appointed, by the Provincial Governor, to collaboratively work with the city executives and officials, including other government agencies at the decision making level. As a result, their demands are typically followed by the city executives and are put into effect as evidenced by the Pattaya maritime safety and beach clean-up programs.

Furthermore, the study found an identical result across the two local governments—that CCGs are an influential social group exerting normative pressures; however, local governments exhibit different roles in responding to their demands. For Pattaya city, it was found that it exhibits a partial compliance response in reacting to the expectations of the CCGs. The loopholes in the relevant laws and regulations that allow the process of public consultation, particularly the Rule of the Office of the Prime Minister on Public Consultation, B.E. 2548 (2005), give the city room to favor some social groups whose members are engaged in exchange relations, like the CCG. The use of a prior opinion survey of the CCG leader on the proposed construction project of Thappraya Royal Park implicitly reveals how Pattaya city can avoid the necessity of conformity by symbolic acceptance of its dominant stakeholders that have both power and legitimate claims over the project. Even though a public consultation process by means of public hearings organized by Pattaya city exists, it is assumed to be “window dressing” to meet state requirements rather than being good evidence for the city executives to have suitable decisions on the proposed project because it has no impact on the project at all. In contrast, Saensuk municipality exhibits a compromise role to achieve parity between their conflicting demands and organizational interests, as shown in the determination of an alternative to the sea breakwater construction.

Owing to the existence of political trust, the mayor was able to convince CCG leaders and committee members by articulating the positive benefits of the headland breakwater and by making a promise to construct a new wharf which presently is broken in order to exact their concessions during the decision-making process. With their concessions, CCGs have in many cases acted as representative negotiators to communicate and manage the local disputes among the local residents. In this regard, it illustrates that a compromise role is employed in the spirit of accommodating the institutional demands of community organizations whose members take action on behalf of their community members.

Another social group that exerts a normative influence over Saensuk municipality is educational institutes, particularly Burapha and Kasetsart University. Instead of a full compliance with the suggestions of educational institutes, Saensuk municipality exhibits partial conformity to the suggestions regarding the implementation of the blue swimming crab and Bang Saen NO foam programs because both projects had been modified to suit not only local circumstances but also expectations of the municipality. With social acceptance of their professional expertise, the participation of the educational institutes both provides social understanding of why the program is obviously important to local environmental sustainability and helps the municipality reduce local resistance when their traditional ways of life need to be changed.

#### 5.1.4.3 Mimetic Isomorphism Reflects an Imitation Response to the Successful Organization in Knowledge-Sharing Networks

With ambiguity regarding the implementation of the blue swimming crab conservation program, the municipality imitated the successful practices of the crab conservation approach of its neighboring municipality in ICM network, Sriracha municipality. As Oliver (1991) and Davis and Powell (1992) have suggested, uncertainty is a powerful force that encounters mimetic or imitative behavior among members of an organizational field. With its former status as the leading local government for scaling up ICM implementation in Chonburi province, Sriracha municipality has become the most influential stakeholder in sharing knowledge of crab conservation with many local government organizations in the province, including Saensuk municipality. More importantly, it was obviously found that the

participation of Sriracha municipality has encouraged Saensuk municipality to build collaborative partnerships with other organizations. As evidenced by the program, Sriracha municipality had directly brought about the participation of local fishery associations to share their practical experience with how the crab condo model can be implemented, while the participation of the Sriracha Fisheries Research Station of Kasetsart University provided scientific knowledge and technical assistance for appropriate implementation with the consideration of local circumstances. Through knowledge-sharing networks, it was notably found that the resources of consenting organizations, such as knowledge and people, were shared in order to achieve common goals in mutually-beneficial ways.

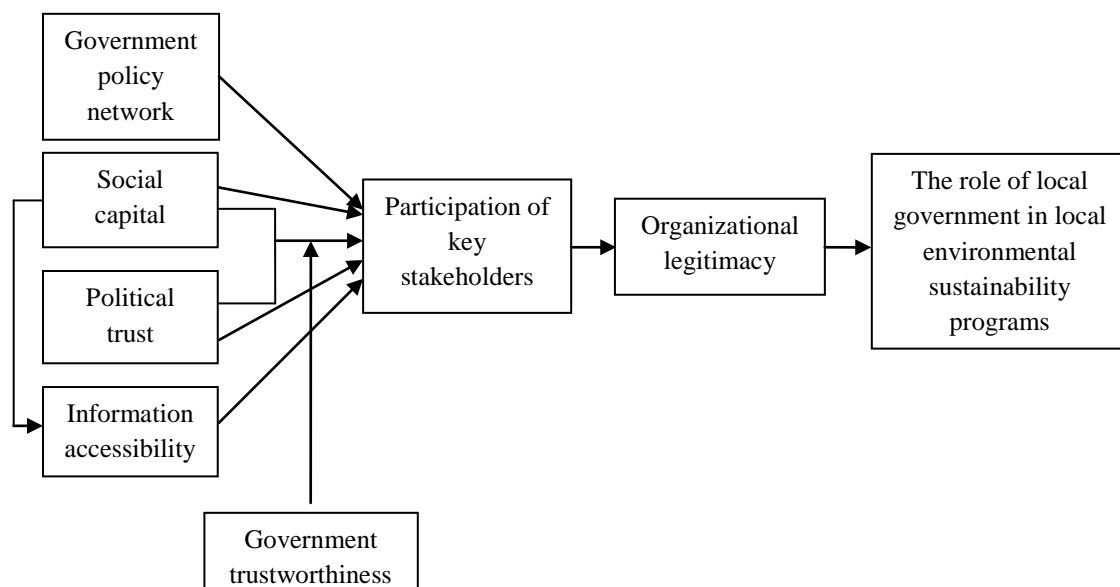
#### 5.1.4.4 A Variety of Proactive Responses are Utilized in Response To the Demands of Relevant Stakeholders

As previously illustrated, relevant stakeholders consist of those of discretionary, dependent, and demanding stakeholders. In responding to the demands of these relevant stakeholders, the study found that local governments tend to use a variety of proactive responses. Based on the degree of discrepancy between their interests and organizational goals, Pattaya city exhibits an avoidance response to either disguise the fact of public hearings, showing the large disagreement of local people and the Pattaya Watchdog group members, by concealing their nonconformity with partial compliance to dominant stakeholders (CCG leaders). As Oliver (1991) points out that avoidance is motivated by the desire to circumvent the conditions that make conforming behavior necessary. Meanwhile, Pattaya city exhibits a defiant role in resisting the institutional processes of local operators, who oppose the demands of the definitive stakeholders (local tourism associations) behind a facade of acquiescence to provincial mandates that define how the program “should be” implemented. As Oliver (1991) has explained, defiance is a more active form of resistance to institutional processes and is likely to occur when organizational interests are obviously different from external demands or when the organizations are able to convince others with their rationality. Regarding Saensuk, it was significantly found that political trust has helped the municipality to be able to exhibit a manipulative role to make regulatory enforcement possible without local resistance. As shown in the Bang Saen NO foam program, the municipality has attempted to actively influence the

change in the institutionalized norms of using foam food containers to the new practice of eco-friendly packaging by enforcement of a new municipal regulation regarding beach businesses operations. According to Oliver (1991), manipulation is the most active response to institutional pressures because it is aimed to actively influence or control the source of the pressure.

### 5.1.5 To Propose a Conceptual Framework Explaining the Relationship between the Participation of Key Stakeholders and the Role of Local Government in Local Environmental Sustainability Programs

With the integration of stakeholder salience and institutional theories, a conceptual framework that explains the relationship between the participation of key stakeholders and the role of local government in local environmental sustainability programs is proposed. The framework not only draws attention to the critical factors that influence the participation of key stakeholders in the local government context, but also provides the analytical framework used for the analysis of the linkage between the key stakeholder's participation and the role of local government in pursuit of local environmental sustainability goals, as shown in Figure 5.1.



**Figure 5.1** The Conceptual Framework of the Relationship between the Participation of Key Stakeholders and the Role of Local Government in Local Environmental Sustainability Programs

In the context of the local government, stakeholder participation is a preliminary requirement for articulating the continued persistence of local governments, that is, to respond to the locals' needs and interests. Consequently, an understanding of the factors affecting the participation of key stakeholders in local environmental sustainability programs is therefore important for local governments specifically, and governments more broadly, in a democratic society. In this regard, the conceptual framework consists of a set of critical factors that resulted from the prior research objective regarding the identification of the key factors affecting the participation of various stakeholders for addressing the factors that are relevant to the participation of key stakeholder groups—definitive and dominant stakeholders. Using institutional theory, the framework also aims to clarify how local governments respond to the varying demands of key stakeholders in the way that they do in order to sustain a relationship with them, which underlines the organizational attempt to manage legitimation. This provides a further refinement of stakeholder theory in accordance with the suggestion of Mitchell et al. (1997: 855), indicating that “the future work in stakeholder theory should specify how and under what circumstances managers can and should respond to various stakeholder groups.” The prior discussion in the present study has made it clear that the thrust of institutional perspectives rests in managing the legitimacy-enhancing responses to the structure of the relationship within the institutional environment (Davis and Powell, 1992; Suchman, 1995) and that legitimacy significantly reflects a relationship between an organization and its institutional constituents (Davis and Powell, 1992; Brinkerhoff, 2005). The proposed conceptual framework was inductively derived from the key findings of the present study which illustrates that there is a causal relationship of the participation of key stakeholders and the role of local government in local environmental sustainability programs. The Figure 5.1 places a great deal of emphasis on addressing the key sources that explain the causal relationship of the participation of key stakeholders and the role of local government in local environmental sustainability—social capital, political trust, and legitimacy. Consequently, the following considerations should be primarily addressed.

#### 5.1.5.1 The Relationship of Social Capital and Political Trust

The Figure 5.1 showed that the relationship of social capital and political trust is stronger, in the presence of government trustworthiness, in terms of the participation of key stakeholders in local environmental sustainability programs. First, this brings back to focus on the distinctions of political trust and government trustworthiness. As previously explained, political trust involves the judgment of the citizenry regarding whether political organizations and leaders are performing in accordance with the normative expectations held by the public. This articulation is consistent with Miller and Listhaug (1990: 358), who explained political trust as “a summary judgment of the citizen that the system and political incumbents are responsive and will do what is right even in the absence of constant scrutiny.” Based on the findings, the study revealed that political trust was derived from the local government’s credible commitment in terms of both making appropriate policy alternatives that yield desirable results for the entire society and keeping the promise of the mayor regarding the agreed alternatives, as shown in the case of Saensuk municipality. The findings are associated with Blind (2006) who explained that political trust comprised two dimensions of organizational and individual political trust in policy decision-making. Although the relationship between political trust and government trustworthiness are closely related, both have different concept. According to the aforementioned definitions, it can be seen that political trust is seldom unconditional; it is the citizens’ judgment given to either their local government as a whole or their political leaders. Unlike political trust, government trustworthiness emerged in a more limited sense because it highlights the citizens’ perception of what their government is doing to respond to their demands and needs. Avgerou, Ganzaroli, Poulymenakou, and Reinhard (2009: 136), explained concept of trustworthiness as “the properties through which a trusted entity (whether another person or institution) serves the interests of the truster.” Conclusively, it can be inferred that government trustworthiness relies on the citizens’ experiences regarding the performance of government whereas political trust reflects the citizens’ beliefs about trustworthiness of their government over specific dimensions of either the institution or leaders. Therefore, government trustworthiness can exist even when in the absence for political trust, but not vice versa.

Although social capital was found in both cases, the existence of political trust and government trustworthiness is a matter of concern in explaining the participation of key stakeholders in local environmental sustainability programs. With their perception of government trustworthiness, Saensuk's CCGs have in many cases helped created a compromise regarding the conflicting demands between local executives and community members. This is consistent with one of the findings in the literature on government regulations—that the more government trustworthiness is perceived by the citizens, the greater is the likelihood of citizen compliance with the demands and regulations of the government (Levi and Stoker, 2000). Significantly, the case of Saensuk municipality showed that government trustworthiness resulted not only from the transparency and accountability of the local government authority, but also from the leadership of the mayor in bridging other legitimate organizations, such as education institutes and CCGs, to be partners in executing the programs. By doing so, it created a sense of ownership in the programs in which they were involved, as shown in both the programs of the blue swimming crab conservation and Bang Saen No foam. On the other hand, the results of the present study empirically showed that in the civil society organizations whose members have social capital but in the absence of political trust and government trustworthiness, like Pattaya's local tourism associations, their participation was somewhat motivated by other factors, such as the perceived economic benefits of tourism and information accessibility. In this regard, it can be inferred that government trustworthiness functions as a moderator to influence the effect of social capital and political trust on the participation of key stakeholders, rather than meaning that social capital can readily transform itself into political trust.

#### 5.1.5.2 The Importance of Government Trustworthiness

In order to be a trustworthy government, much of the previous literature has addressed the importance of transparency and accountability as the key determinants of citizens' trust in government. For example, a study of Porumbescu (2015a) found that the transparency, through improving the public's access to government information, can promote citizens' trust in government. This is because transparency can help correct citizens' misperceptions of government performance due to a lack of information that articulates what their government does for them or how well their government is performing. Admittedly, transparency and

accountability are closely linked and mutually reinforce each other, as Fox (2007) affirmed that transparency is supposed to generate accountability through channeling information upwards and downwards. As such, transparency is a matter of information accessibility in terms of both supply-driven and demand-driven access. The instruments for a supply-driven approach in information accessibility generally entail the importance of communication tools as a crucial mechanism to keep citizens informed and so that they can interact with their political representatives. The case of Saensuk municipality significantly affirms that a variety of communication channels has allowed the local executives, particularly the mayor, to build an informed society and to boost local governments' responsiveness to local demands. Meanwhile, the ability of stakeholders to have a voice in policy-decision making reflects how local demands are heard and accessed by their local executives. Taking into account accountability, it underlines a proactive role of the local executives in answering and clarifying any ambiguity concerning local issues. As Blind (2006) pointed out, simply access to information is necessary to explain "transparency" but is not sufficient for "accountability," which must be combined with institutional answerability. In the case of Saensuk municipality, it showed that the strong leadership and answerability of the mayor in response to every question raised by the local people have supported the positive citizens' assessment of being the trustworthy local government. This is, in turn, associated with a high level of political trust among the majority of Saensuk's stakeholders. A similar result was found in a study of Blind (2006) who pointed out that a trustworthy government produces political trust, which then generate social trust or social capital. That is how the relationship of social capital and political trust is possibly emerged in the presence of government trustworthiness, although a number of prior studies have indicated that social capital is also not related to political trust (e.g., Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1993, 1995, 2000; Fukuyama, 1995).

#### 5.1.5.3 The Direct Effect of Social Capital on Information Sharing

According to the prior illustration in the study, it was evident that social trust is widely found in civic organizations where group members connect with one another and share the resources in their social networks. Therefore, social trust is considered as an outcome of collective activities, resembling the thought of Ostrom and Ahn (2003, 2007), who outlined that social trust is a key link between social

capital and successful collective action in voluntary associations. Similarly, Newton (2005) further explained that voluntary associations play a significant role in teaching trust and social understanding at the individual level and, at the same time, expanding social ties to the outside boundary of homogeneous groups. For the key stakeholders in the civil society organizations where social capital and political trust were significantly important, Saensuk's CCGs for example, it was revealed that they were not only willing to participate in local environmental sustainability programs, but also encouraged others in their social networks, particularly local residents, to participate through their informal communication and everyday talks. This is to explain how social capital has direct effect on information sharing. With their frequent interaction and regular contact in keeping each other informed about what the municipality was going to do, Saensuk's CCGs play a critical role in encouraging participation of local residents. Meanwhile, the monthly meetings with the Pattaya city executives have created the strong intra-group ties among the PBTA members resulted in their collective action in bringing complaints against the city authorities regarding the negative issues affecting the city's tourism image and the tourists' confidence.

#### 5.1.5.4 Organizational Legitimacy Entails the Relationship between the Participation of Key Stakeholders and the Role of Local Government in Local Environmental Sustainability Programs

In order to address the link between the participation of key stakeholders and the role of local government in local environmental sustainability programs, the study revealed that "organizational legitimacy" comes into play as the mediating factor that explains how local governments behave the way they do in response to the competing demands and expectations of key stakeholders. Interestingly, it is an obvious observation that patterns of organizational response exhibited to a same set of stakeholders are different when they are put in different case studies (local governments). This is because the two local governments rest on distinct types of legitimacy, resulting in a somewhat different behavioral dynamics they pursue to extract stakeholders' perceptions of trustworthy local government. Based on the findings, the results showed that cognitive legitimacy was the underlying thesis of Saensuk municipality in explaining a variety of organizational responses to its

stakeholders, whereas pragmatic legitimacy underlay the set of organizational response of Pattaya city to its stakeholders, as follows.

1) Cognitive Legitimacy as the Underlying Thesis of the  
Organizational Response of Saensuk Municipality

According to the findings, it was evident that Saensuk municipality pursues goals and activities that fit with the broad social understanding of what is appropriate, proper, and desirable, which Suchman (1995) calls “cognitive legitimacy.” Based on the programs of Saensuk municipality, it was found that the above-mentioned three programs highlighted the existing problems in relation to the needs and expectations of the entire community. For example, the ICM program reflected the severity of the coastal erosion problem, which affected the larger community, while the blue swimming crab conservation program revealed a significant decrease in the population of the blue swimming crabs, which affected the income of local fishers and has threatened the loss of their livelihood. Additionally, the Bang Saen NO foam program unveiled the danger of toxic components of food packaging materials that have become a major cause of cancer among local beach vendors. These examples illustrate how Saensuk municipality can “make sense” in achieving its cognitive legitimacy based on both comprehensibility, derived from social understanding of why the municipality is going to do it, and taken-for-grantedness. This is consistent with a study of Suchman (1995), which explained that cognitive legitimacy operates according to two variants of comprehensibility or taken-for-grantedness. Based on these two variants, the study indicated that the municipality normally exhibits a compliance response to the coercive influence exerted by upper-government agencies, as definitive stakeholders, and the normative influence exerted by educational institutes, as dominant stakeholders, in order to maintain its stability and to produce acceptable and meaningful results according to socially-constructed realities. Additionally, it was in many cases showed that the linkage formation with educational institutes provides valuable benefits to the municipality, which are not limited to the provision of knowledge resources but also enhance social understanding. For example, the partnerships with Burapha and Kasetsart University have helped the municipality not only provide the professional and knowledge resources critical to the achievement of the Bang Saen NO foam and blue swimming

crab conservation programs, but also enhance public awareness and prevent local resistance through disseminating knowledge of marine and environmental conservation to the larger community. Nonetheless, when incompatible demands with key stakeholders are likely to occur, such as conflicting demands on an alternative to the sea breakwater construction among the CCG leaders, the results showed that the municipality sought to compromise in ways that reinforced cognitive legitimacy by developing communication mechanisms that explained the rationale of the programs (connected to sense-making). The utilization of scientific and technological knowledge, presented by the consultants, provided matter-of-fact explanations for gaining local consensus on the proposed alternative, which was aligned with the mayor's interests. Additionally, the study importantly found that political trust has helped the municipality reduce environmental uncertainty, particularly when the interests of the municipality were somewhat questioned in the eyes of closely-interacting stakeholders, in order to balance their demands and organizational interests and to maintain the legitimacy of the organization. Therefore, it is assumed that political trust not only helps to reduce organizational uncertainty, but also maintains cognitive legitimacy based on comprehensibility. In addition to the coercive and normative influences on Saensuk municipality, a mimetic influence was notable in the municipality as a result of taking part in the Chonburi ICM network. Saensuk municipality eventually exhibited an imitation response to replicate the successful crab conservation approach of its dominant stakeholder, Sriracha municipality, in the network. In turn, it was evident that Sriracha municipality had created a collaborative network with educational institutes and local fishery associations to provide technical assistance to Saensuk municipality for further modification of the program.

## 2) Pragmatic Legitimacy as the Underlying Thesis of the Organizational Response of Pattaya City

Owing to the functional importance of the local government organization, Pattaya city is, in fact, obligated to comply with the higher authorities that exert a coercive influence on Pattaya city, resembling Saensuk municipality. In order to maintain its dominant position over the mandated relations with higher authorities, the results significantly revealed that Pattaya city has attempted to form exchange relationships with key stakeholders by encouraging their participation in the

programs they are affected by in order to maintain organizational interests. In turn, Pattaya city favors them by compliance with their demands and the expectations exerted through normative influence. In this regard, it can be inferred that Pattaya city adopted pragmatic legitimacy, which emerged as a function of the exchange relationships between the organization and its immediate stakeholders (Brinkerhoff, 2005) and focused on the extent to which the organization can act to serve the needs and interests of its stakeholders. This is consistent with Suchman (1995: 589), who pointed out that, in pragmatic legitimacy, “the organization must identify and attract constituents who value the sorts of exchanges that the organization is equipped to provide.”

Based on shared common interests regarding local economic viability, local tourism associations are generally encouraged to participate in local environmental sustainability programs along with the city officials. Meanwhile, the CCGs are other key stakeholders when the city encounters some difficulties regarding the public consultation process. In assuring these stakeholders that the city executives are contributing to their interests, Pattaya city often provides some communication channels and incorporates some forms of stakeholder participation in the organization’s procedures, such as the establishment of joint committees, organizing public hearings, and collecting opinion surveys. Such assurances serve to demonstrate their responsiveness in addressing the expectations and needs of those with direct self-interest in the organization, and to increase the legitimacy of the organization to that of the groups of stakeholders. However, for those whose interests are incompatible with those of the key stakeholders, namely the local operators, local residents, and the Pattaya Watchdog group members, the study found that the city is likely to exhibit resistance to or to contest conflicting demands through defiance or by avoiding their demands. For example, the Thappraya Royal Park construction project revealed that Pattaya city intended to select favorable stakeholders that valued the sorts of exchanges and engaged in close connection with the city, CCG leaders, and some household representatives in order to conceal their nonconformity with the disagreements of some of the local people and the Pattaya Watchdog group members. Such an intention reflects the city’s attempt to disguise nonconformity behind a facade of acquiescence to the opinions of the key stakeholders.

## **5.2 Implications of the Research Findings**

### **5.2.1 Theoretical Implications**

With regard to the theoretical implications, the key findings mainly shed light on the importance and further refinement of the theory of stakeholder salience and institutional theory. Therefore, the theoretical implications are situated in three main areas, as follows.

#### **5.2.1.1 Refinement of the Theory of Stakeholder Salience**

With a focus on stakeholder participation in local environmental sustainability programs, it is necessary to understand who the key and relevant stakeholders are in each local government context. Therefore, the study employed the theory of stakeholder salience, developed by Mitchell et al. (1997), to classify a wide range of stakeholders into groups based on three attributes—power, legitimacy, and urgency—in order to provide a better understanding of who and what really count for each local government. There have been a number of prior studies supporting the notion that theory of stakeholder salience provides a meaningful understanding of stakeholders' influence on the managerial decision-making in various fields of study, such as corporate social responsibility disclosure (Thijssens, Bollen, and Hassink, 1995), policy development, and service delivery (Beach, 2009). However, the results have revealed that the degree to which an organization, which is defined here as a local government, responds to competing stakeholder demands go beyond the importance of stakeholder identification and salience. It was noted in the present study that “organizational legitimacy” emerged as the key to explaining not only the relationships between local governments and their stakeholders but also addressed the rationale of local government's responses to the pressures and influences of various stakeholder groups. This reflects the further refinement of the theory of stakeholder salience in articulating how and under what circumstances an organization can and should respond to various stakeholder groups.

#### **5.2.1.2 Refinement of Institutional Theory for Organizational Analysis**

Over the last decades, institutional theory has evolved to emphasize the “legitimation or legitimization,” referring to the process that makes an organization become legitimate by conforming to norms, values, and social expectations within a

given society (Meyer and Rowan, 1977; Zucker, 1987; Brinkerhoff, 2005). That is why institutionalization is a key issue that indicates the importance of “isomorphism,” the process of making organizations in the organizational field look alike. Nonetheless, there has been an increasing number of recent studies on the institutional perspective that have criticized that an organization can exhibit the role of organizational self-interests in response to its institutional pressures and expectations (i.e., Oliver, 1991, Brinkerhoff, 2005) or what Oliver (1992) calls “deinstitutionalization or delegitimation.” In her analysis, Oliver explained that deinstitutionalization is the result of atrophy in use of certain customary practices. Owing to the significance of Figure 5.1, it is argued here that local governments can dominate institutional pressures from a wide array of stakeholder groups that force institutionalization in the forms of coercive, mimetic, and normative isomorphism. This argument is against the premise of old institutionalism, which focuses on the non-choice behavior of the organization in response to institutional pressures, whereas it supports new institutionalism, which addresses the capacity of a given organization to maintain its dominant position. Unlike institutionalization, organizational legitimacy explains that the forces are actually derived from the internality and action on the part of the organizational actors. Based on the findings, local governments maintain their dominant position over their stakeholders through building a healthy relationship with their key stakeholders, depending upon their perceived organizational legitimacy. In the case of Pattaya city, the results showed that it has attempted to produce the outputs, the continued growth of Pattaya’s tourism industry, that some key stakeholders value, and in return those stakeholders proffer their support, such as being joint committee members for certain programs and the provision of greater tourism opportunity in international markets for the city. As a result, Pattaya city normally exhibits a compliance response to particular stakeholder groups that engage in exchange relations while resisting those that do not. On the other hand, Saensuk municipality commonly attempts to produce acceptable and meaningful results in pursuit of social understanding and acceptance. Therefore, the municipality generally exhibits passive conformity, for example a compliance response, to stakeholders whom the larger society knew and trusted, such as educational institutes. In addition to the formation of good relationships with the key

stakeholders, the study significantly found that political trust and government trustworthiness were the two most important factors that helped the municipality manipulate its institutional environment and gain legitimacy support even when there were incompatible demands. Jones (1995) and several others (i.e., Calton and Lad, 1995; Heugens, van den Bosch, and van Riel, 2002) have also suggested that an organization can achieve stakeholder support by building trust and avoiding treating stakeholders opportunistically, while Pixley (2002) has supported the idea that uncertainty is reduced by trust and by efforts to control uncertain environments.

#### 5.2.1.3 Supporting the Central Thesis of Stakeholder Theory

Many stakeholder theorists (i.e., Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Mitchell et al., 1997) have pointed out that the normative aspect is a fundamental core of stakeholder theory, focusing on managerial decisions regarding what an organization ought to do (Jones and Wicks, 1999) and the moral obligations to treat stakeholders as “ends” (Evan and Freeman, 1983), including expressing organizational strategy (Freeman, 1984; Berman, Wicks, Kotha, and Jones, 1999) that is pursued to either meet the stakeholders’ interests or to deal with them. In this regard, the existence of organizational legitimacy, as a mediator explaining the relationship between the key stakeholders’ participation and the role of local government in environmental sustainability programs, reflects the normative aspect of stakeholder theory. The different typology of organizational legitimacy significantly illustrates the fundamental divergence of organizational behavior dynamics to explain how local governments distinguish their key and relevant stakeholders in executing local environmental sustainability programs. Therefore, an understanding of the three main types of organizational legitimacy—namely, moral, cognitive, and pragmatic legitimacy—allows predictions to be made about the organizational response with respect to each group of stakeholders, as well as predictions about what kinds of organizational interests a given organization is pursuing. The present study does not aim to argue that the local government should pay more attention to key rather than relevant stakeholders. Rather, it is argued that in order to achieve certain ends compatible with organizational interests, the local government does maintain certain kinds of relationships and attention to certain groups of stakeholders. In essence, this argument reflects the managerial decisions of the local government in exhibiting this

and that response to the demands and expectations of each stakeholder group in achieving its local environmental sustainability goals.

### **5.2.2 Policy Implications**

According to the key findings and Figure 5.1, it can be seen that social capital and political trust are the two most important factors affecting the participation of key stakeholders, particularly those that exerted a normative influence on local governments. Additionally, the effect of those two factors on the participation of key stakeholders is stronger when government trustworthiness functions as a moderator. Therefore, the point of departure is to suggest how local governments can generate social capital and political trust in order to enhance their legitimacy and maintain their relationships with stakeholders.

#### **5.2.2.1 Enhancing Political Trust among Stakeholders**

Over the past decades, political trust has emerged as one of the issues facing governments at all levels (Blind, 2006). By primarily treating political trust as the dependent variable, there have been number of determinants proposed by scholars, such as citizens' satisfaction with government performance (Keele, 2004; Christensen and Læg Reid, 2005), the power of the media (Nye, 1997), and effective leadership (Mishler and Rose, 2001), including social trust (Brehm and Rahn, 1997; Putnum, 2000). Based on the findings, it was noticeably found that political trust was widely addressed among stakeholders of Saensuk municipality; namely, CCGs, local residents, and local beach vendors. In contrast, political distrust was widespread among the local residents of Pattaya city and even in some civil society organizations, for example the Pattaya Watchdog group. In the case of Saensuk, the results showed that the municipality has constantly gained political trust via its credible policy-making and the provision of effective communication channels for the information accessibility of the larger community. Credibility, in general, is defined here as the unquestioned criterion of a good policy regarding local needs and interests, while information accessibility refers to the ease with which stored information comes to mind during the decision-making process in order to make judgments. This is consistent with some prior studies, which assert that the policy that affects society at large, such as economic policy, is a potential determinant of building trustworthiness

(La Porte and Metlay, 1996; Mishler and Rose, 2001). Blind (2006) on the other hand has insisted that both organizational and individual political trust depend on credible policy-making. Potentially, this suggests that Pattaya city can reduce the public distrust of local government by proposing policy alternatives that meet local needs and interests and by disseminating information regarding local environmental sustainability programs in targeted ways. With large criticism of the neglectful authorities of Pattaya city officials, Pattaya city can therefore build political trust among the larger community and local tourism associations, through consistency in strict law enforcement regarding the issues that impact not only the city's tourism development, but also society at large.

Admittedly, globalization has led to redefining functions and roles of the state as well as local governments (Blind, 2006). Governments more broadly, and local government specifically, have to be strategic planners instead of service providers to deliver public goods for the society as a whole. By adopting institutional perspectives to explore the role of local governments with respect to stakeholder participation, it reminds the state to care about "softer" variables such as norms, values, and the rules of societal actors (stakeholders). Because the mere effort of local governments is unlikely to achieve the local environmental sustainability goals, they should incorporate participatory approach into their planning and the decision-making process in order to fulfill their needs and interests. Through involvement in the local government decision-making process, there is a high likelihood that a sense of ownership can build up among the stakeholders. For example, Saensuk's blue swimming crab conservation program showed how social rules have instilled sustainable fishing practices and how a sense of ownership has been built among the local fishers that participated in the programs.

#### 5.2.2.2 Cultivating Social Capital Across Stakeholder Groups

Social capital was one of the key factors affecting the participation of some of the key stakeholders in both cases. Following many social capital theorists, social capital and social trust are closely interrelated in terms of either social trust being an integral element of social capital, as illustrated by scholars such as Coleman (1988), Putnam (1993), and Fukuyama (1995), or alternatively is one of social capital's products and consequences, as described by Woolcock (1998) and Field

(2008). Even though social trust is an important element of social capital, there are some other elements that coexist, namely networks and norms of reciprocity, in accord with Coleman (1988) and Putnam (1993). Seemingly, social capital has been widely addressed in the civic organizations of both local governments. In Saensuk, social capital was found in civic organizations; namely CCGs and local fishery associations. These organizations have in many cases facilitated collective action in local government's programs. Adger (2003) pointed out that collective action requires networks and the flow of information between individuals and groups in order to lubricate the wheels of decision making, which normally is at the heart of natural resource management. Through involvement in civic associations, social trust is generated through the social interactions among group members, particularly when their group interaction is based on communal relations. In such relationships, individual members assume responsibility for the welfare of one another as in the case of Saensuk's CCGs, where members are willing to provide their help and support for each other in solving community problems. However, the findings showed that the social interactions of Saensuk's CCGs were limited within their homogenous group, whose members share similar interests or the so-called "bonding social capital" in accord with Putnam (2000). Although the feeling of trust and the likelihood of collective action are likely to form in strong social bonding (Marschall and Stolle, 2004), many empirical studies have indicated that bonding social capital is an important determinant of bridging social capital (Ferguson and Dickens, 1999; Warren, Thompson, and Saegert, 2001), which refers to the link between different social groups. Stronger empirical support suggests that memberships in bridging groups are more strongly linked to positive civic values than those in bonding ones (Granovetter, 1973). Apparently, the positive consequences of bridging social capital can be explicitly revealed through the social interactions of local fishery associations, which have built collaborative networks with Sriracha municipality and Kasetsart University to exchange information about the blue swimming crab conservation program. Additionally, the connection of Pattaya's local tourism associations with relevant government agencies that have responsibility concerning tourism development, such as TAT and TCEB, has made the associations a powerful stakeholder group of Pattaya city. Meanwhile, the bridging social capital of the

Pattaya Watchdog group with some CCG representatives has helped them to gain more information about local environmental sustainability programs.

In recent times, the cultivation of social capital has become one of the most challenging roles for the state and local government authorities—to either enhance the social norms and beliefs conducive to collective action for the formation of bonding social capital, or to establish a collaborative network or partnership that advocates the formation of a bridging social network. Although both bonding and bridging social capital can facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefits, it is noted that social capital, to some extent, can produce negative consequences like reinforcing social inequality by sustaining a privilege to powerful groups while undermining the social capital of less powerful groups (Portes and Landolt, 1996; Field, 2008). Consequently, local governments should, first and foremost, develop institutional arrangements that cultivate social capital based on an understanding of social interactions, particularly regarding the extent of bonding and bridging social capital. Further, they should identify the ways and means by which the positive manifestation of social capital—trust, the norms of collective action, and social networks—can offset its negative manifestations, for example collective action and transaction costs problem. Many prior studies have found that there is a significant association between social capital and transaction costs (i.e., Fussell, Harrison-Rexrode, Kennan, and Hazleton, 2006; Priyanath and Premaratne, 2015b), which Fukuyama (1995) explained as the costs that accrue to organizations due to the absence of social capital.

#### 5.2.2.3 Strengthening Collaborative Networks and Strong Civil Society Organizations

Although collaboration and partnership provide imperative benefits to both local governments, there is no legislative basis that stipulates these efforts must constantly occur. Indeed, previous studies have shown that stakeholder participation through a partnership scheme can significantly affect the beliefs of stakeholders in ways that increase the likelihood of cooperation, which is ultimately linked to policy effectiveness, as seen in the study of Sabatier, Focht, Lubell, Trachtenberg, Vedlitz, and Matlock (2005). This indicates that the collaborative watershed partnership approach that involves a wide array of governmental and nongovernmental

stakeholders in the mutual development of a watershed management plan and implementation through some form of consensus rule is the new governmental approach to watershed decision making in the United States. Further, Cameron, Memon, Simmons, and Fairweather (2001) have shown that the key success factor in sustainable tourism development on the West Coast of New Zealand is the evolving role of local government in enabling different groups of tourism stakeholders in the planning and decision-making process regarding tourism development. However, the study found that both Saensuk municipality and Pattaya city have generally not incorporated stakeholder participation into the decision-making process successfully because a wide array of stakeholders are exerting their influence on the levels of “tokenism,” in which the stakeholders are allowed to hear and to have a voice, while the decisions or the direction of the decisions are prescribed by the local government itself. Although Pattaya city is likely to provide room for stakeholders to share decision-making responsibilities through the formation of joint committees for both Pattaya maritime safety and the beach clean-up programs, such a partnership scheme is limited to the definitive stakeholders instead of the entire society. Similarly, the case of the Pattaya’s Thappraya Royal Park construction project reveals that the public consultation process is a matter of the completion of fundamental requirements instead of pursuing local needs and interests. In Saensuk, stakeholder participation is restricted to the levels of tokenism, ranging from informing, consultation, and placation, in accord with Arnstein (1969). Under these levels of tokenism, final decision rights are retained by the municipality. In this regard, it implicitly reveals that while theoretically the notion of collaboration and stakeholder participation might be apparently supported in policy documents or regulatory frameworks, local governments use representative loopholes to avoid broader consultation. As such, it is suggested that the local government should review their focus regarding the extent of stakeholder participation in order to achieve local environmental sustainability goals and good local governance, which requires the cooperation of both key and relevant stakeholder in tackling the problems at hand.

According to the findings, it was evident that the existence of civil society organizations resulted in pervasive benefits to both local governments. They have in many cases facilitated social cohesion, which refers to the linkage of the

relational networks through which a sense of togetherness/belonging is lubricated among group members in order to provide different kinds of supportive resources for one another (Bollen and Hoyle, 1990; Wellman and Wortley, 1990; Moody and White, 2003). Regarding the idea of civil society organizations, it should be noted that it emerges in light of New Public Management, as a global public sector reform movement, thinking about reducing the government's role and responsibilities through encouraging the formation of non-governmental organizations and civil society organizations (Clayton, Oakley, and Taylor, 2000). In the context for local environmental sustainability, the local government should make use of their decentralized responsibilities and power to strengthen local collaborative networks and strong civil society organizations through both top-down and bottom-up processes. Regarding the top-down process, local governments should provide institutional arrangement that empowers civil society organizations to strengthen their involvement in setting development priorities and policies on behalf of local or marginalized people. Alternatively, civil society organizations can work in partnership with the local governments for building an effective and legitimate government, which then will help to create bridging social capital and well-developed civil society organizations. In terms of the bottom-up process, the findings indicated that civil society organizations play crucial roles in bringing local people closer to their local governments and vice-versa, building social capital among group members through social interactions, including identifying local needs. This is consistent with a study of Blind (2006), which explained that strong civil society effectively mediates the citizenry and the government (Blind, 2006). As such, it is important for the state and local governments to pay close attention to building healthy CSOs where local representation is democratically emerged in order fulfill the aggregation of local interests and to enhance local governance. This, in turn, contributes to building a democratic society.

#### 5.2.2.4 Building a Trustworthy Local Government

As shown in Figure 5.1, government trustworthiness was a critical factor influencing the effect of social capital and political regarding the participation of key stakeholders in the local environmental sustainability programs. The results showed that the local government's trustworthiness played a critical role in motivating

the participation of a myriad of stakeholder groups, particularly those attached to both social capital and political trust, in Saensuk's local environmental sustainability programs. On the other hand, neither political trust nor government trustworthiness was found among the stakeholders of Pattaya city, resulting in relatively low levels of the local people's participation in the local environmental sustainability programs as compared with Saensuk municipality.

One crucial way to build government trustworthiness, particularly for Pattaya city, is to enhance local government transparency and accountability. Over decades, there have been a number of prior studies indicating the effect of transparency and accountability on citizens' perceptions of government trustworthiness (e.g. Blind, 2006; Ball, 2009). Transparency, in fact, has many meanings, depending on its underlying metaphors (Ball, 2009). Rather than operationalizing the definitions of transparency, a great deal of attention should be paid toward addressing the central theses of transparency—anti-corruption, good governance, and accountability—prevailing in those metaphors. Owing to the significance of these central theses, transparency involves any means and mechanisms that lead to the public disclosure of government information in order to combat corruption and promote visible decision-making. In this regard, the issues that affect the public's access to government information are considered as factors representing transparency, particularly the provision of communication channels (Bertot, Jaeger, and Grimes, 2010; Porumbescu, Park, and Oomsels, 2013; Porumbescu, 2015a, 2015b). This is because these communication channels, for example social media, government websites, and even interpersonal trust among close ties, can increase the openness and transparency of government by allowing greater citizen participation in overseeing public sector information. Taking into account the idea of accountability, there is extensive literature that underlines the close interaction between transparency and accountability. For example, Ball (2009: 303) illustrated that “many meanings of transparency are in part subsume accountability.” This illustration is associated with many prior studies, which showed that transparency initiatives can foster greater public sector accountability, combat corruption, and improve the performance of public organizations (Kim, Kim, and Lee, 2009; Bertot et al., 2010). Government transparency focuses the capability of the government in allowing the citizen greater

access to government information; however, accountability involves the answerability of the government, either in terms of the institution or officials, in response to their actions and the public demands for whom they are being held to account. This is consistent with the ideas of Jones (1992: 73), who explained accountability as “the process of being called ‘to account’ to some authority for one’s action.” In essence, accountability calls for the capability of government authorities to answer and explain their actions, authority, and responsibility to their citizens. Consequently, one of the pathways to government accountability is credible policy-making (Blind, 2006), referring to the process through which the government enables the key stakeholder involved in the decision-making process and activities that affect them. Based on these explanations, Pattaya city, particularly the city executives, should give priority to the mechanisms that promote transparent and accountable practices in order to build its trustworthiness among the stakeholders. Considering transparent practices, Pattaya city should provide more communication channels in order to encourage local people to access information regarding the city development activities and programs and to listen to the needs of the larger community, instead of particular groups of stakeholders. Meanwhile, the city executives should be accountable and respond to the needs of the larger society in managing and safeguarding local environmental resources, including assuring that the city executives and officials exhibit their roles and adhere to applicable state laws, regulations, and their own policies.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

Governments at all levels, local governments particularly, have assumed greater responsibility for, and involvement in, local environmental sustainability. Sustainability and sustainable are widely seen as contested concepts because universalized, agreed, and static definitions have not been found since the emergence of their concepts in 1987 WCED’s conference entitled “Our Common Future.” Rather than focusing on their definitions, this present study drew attention to the distinction between sustainability and sustainable development in order to examine the convergences and differences among the two concepts that pave a way for an understanding of their interrelations and significant contribution to the public uptake

of sustainability. Owing to the significance of sustainability, the study further addressed its key issues, comprised dimensions and guiding principles, to investigate how the idea of local environmental sustainability should be adopted in the context of local government as the main scope of this study. In reviewing its fundamental principles, sustainability is considered as a goal through the process of sustainable development. Based on the central concern of the present study, local environmental sustainability programs shed light on the local government's programs, which place a great deal of emphasis on biodiversity conservation and the carrying capacity of the ecosystem to continue providing positive impacts on social and economic viability.

With the emergence of LA21 in 1992, the local governments' role in carrying out environmental sustainability-related programs at the local level has been emphasized with respect to stakeholder participation as a global phenomenon for the desired actions for achieving sustainability goals. Although the idea of sustainability has emerged over the past decades, local governments have been criticized for their shortcomings in terms of addressing their roles in moving towards local environmental sustainability goals. In the case of Thailand, the promulgation of the 1999 Decentralization Act has been proven to be the most important factor accelerating the transfer of power in nature conservation management from the central to the local government and the wider participation of stakeholders in local environmental sustainability programs. In fact, stakeholder participation has become a core component of public administration discourse relating sustainable development and sustainability efforts. However, a large amount of the literature and prior studies have discussed what the role of local government should be.

By adopting stakeholder salience theory, the study found that the key stakeholders in the local environmental sustainability programs of local government are those that possess at least the two stakeholder attributes of power and legitimacy. Notwithstanding the fact that the participation of stakeholders does not emerge from a vacuum, there are some types of relationships that make them significant to their concerned local governments. Therefore, the illustration of the mechanisms that facilitate the connection between local governments and stakeholders provides insight to address the extent to which the relationship between local governments and stakeholders is demonstrated in the local environmental sustainability context.

Through the integration of stakeholder salience and institutional theories, the results showed that stakeholders, who were considered here as institutional constituents, exert various kinds of pressure on local governments through institutionalization, hoping that their demands and expectations will be served by their concerned local government. In the presence of the central-local government relationship, all types of local governments inevitably comply with upper-level government agencies in order to maintain their legitimacy and stability. Nonetheless, the loopholes in relevant laws and regulations, especially those that are related to the public consultation process, allowed each local government to strategically trim the local needs and interests of their key stakeholders prevailing in the local network relationships to be aligned with the local government's interests, as shown in both cases. For those relevant stakeholders that have put minimum effort into participation, particularly local residents, it can be seen that the local government allowed them to hear, but not make, decisions regarding the aforementioned programs. Meanwhile, the higher levels of participation, for example joint committees, were restricted for the key stakeholders.

Although the results revealed that the number of factors was found to affect the participation of stakeholders, there were a few factors that determined the participation of key stakeholders; namely, government policy networks, social capital, information accessibility, and political trust. In the context of local government, government policy networks entered by upper-level government agencies are therefore inevitable; the greater emphasis should be made on the key stakeholders that have the potential to help the local government remain in a dominant position, CCGs for example. With the close interactions between local executives and these key stakeholders and of their group members, the results showed that social capital has a direct effect on information sharing either within or outside their homogenous groups. By going beyond the stakeholder identification, the adoption of institutional theory has made a fruitful contribution to specify how and under what circumstances local governments respond to their stakeholders the way they do in order to enhance and maintain the relationships with their stakeholders in achieving local environmental sustainability goals. As such, the study significantly indicated that organizational legitimacy plays the crucial role in not only allowing predictions to be made about organizational response with respect to each group of stakeholders, but also explaining

how the local government can be able to maintain its dominant position in the organizational field, particularly in the eyes of their key stakeholders.

Regardless of the types of organizational legitimacy, the study disclosed that trust emerges as an integral component of stakeholder participation. In the public sphere, the existence of civil society organizations significantly unveils how social trust is derived from social interactions in the network of reciprocal norms. Meanwhile, political trust is derived from the credible policy making of the local government. Although social trust and political trust are mutually exclusive, the study significantly found that the local government's trustworthiness has an influence on building up political trust which therefore generates social trust. Taken together, the effect of social capital and political trust on the participation of key stakeholders is stronger in the presence of a trustworthy local government. Towards this end, the present study suggests that each local government should enhance political trust among stakeholders, cultivate social capital across stakeholder groups, and strengthen collaborative networks and strong civil society organizations, including building a trustworthy local government in order to achieve local environmental sustainability goals.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams, W. M. 2006. The Future of Sustainability: Re-Thinking Environment and Development in the Twenty-First Century. In **The Report of the IUNC Renowned Thinkers Meeting, 29-31 January 2006**. Retrieved October 21, 2014 from [http://cmsdata.iunc.org/downloads/iunc\\_future\\_of\\_sustainability.pdf](http://cmsdata.iunc.org/downloads/iunc_future_of_sustainability.pdf)
- Adger, Neil W. 2003. Social Capital, Collective Action and Adaptation to Climate Change. **Economic Geography**. 79 (4): 387-404.
- Adler, Paul S. and Kwon, Seok-Woo. 2002. Social capital: Prospects for a new concept. **The Academy of Management Review**. 27(1): 17-40.
- Akarapong Untong; Mingsarn Kaosa-ard; Ramos, Vicente; Korawan Sangkakorn and Rey-Maqueira, Javier. 2010. Factor Influencing Local Resident Support for Tourism Development: A Structural Equation Model. In **Proceedings of the Asia Pacific Tourism Association Conference, 13-16 July 2010**, Macau, China. Pp. 1-21.
- Almedom, A. M.; Blumenthal, U. and Manderson, L. 1997. **Hygiene Evaluation Procedures: Approaches and Methods for Assessing Water-and Sanitation-Related Hygiene Practices**. Retrieved October 4, 2013 from <http://www.irc.nl/page/7782>
- Almond, Gabriel A. and Verba, Sidney. 1963. **The Civic Culture: Political Attitudes and Democracy in Five Nations**. NJ.: Princeton University Press.
- The American Heritage College Dictionary**. 2004. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. USA: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Anand, Sudhir and Sen, Amartya. 2000. Human Development and Economic Sustainability. **World Development**. 28 (1): 2029-2049.
- Andereck, Kathleen L. and Nyaupane, Gyan P. 2010. Exploring the Nature of Tourism and Quality of Life Perceptions among Residents. **Journal of Travel Research**. 50 (3): 248-260.

- Anderson, Christopher J. and Tverdova, Yuliya V. 2003. Corruption, Political Allegiances, and Attitudes toward Government in Contemporary Democracies. **American Journal of Political Science**. 47 (1): 91-109.
- Aref, Fariborz and Redzuan, Ma'rof. 2009. Community Leaders' Perceptions toward Tourism Impacts and Level of Community Capacity Building in Tourism Development. **Journal of Sustainable Development**. 2 (3): 208-213.
- Arnold, Shannon. 2011. **Legislative Perceptions of Sustainable Tourism: The Case of the North Carolina General Assembly**. Master's thesis, East Carolina University.
- Arnstein, Sherry R. 1969. Ladder of Citizen Participation. **Journal of the American Planning Association**. 35 (4): 216-224.
- Ashforth, Blake E. and Gibbs, Barrie W. 1990. The Double-Edge of Organizational Legitimation. **Organization Science**. 1: 177-194.
- Astley, Graham W. and Sachdeva, Paramjit S. 1984. Structural Sources of Intraorganizational Power: A Theoretical Synthesis. **Academy of Management Review**. 9 (1): 104-113.
- ASTV Manager Online**. 2008 (23 June). Pattaya City finds out the Resolution of Rearranging Beach Chairs. Retrieved July 2, 2015 from <http://www.manager.co.th/Local/ViewNews.aspx?NewsID=9570000133301>
- ASTV Manager Online**. 2011 (25 March). Chonburi ICM Committee Does not Collaborate in Preparing the Report of the Coastal Situation Analysis. Retrieved July 23, 2014 from <http://www2.manager.co.th/Politics/ViewNews.aspx?NewsID=9540000038121>
- ASTV Manager Online**. 2014a (9 September). The President of Pattaya Boat Club Against with the Businesses Regarding the Termination of Beach Chairs of Pattaya Beach. Retrieved March 9, 2015 from [http://www.manager.co.th/Local?View News.aspx?NewsID=9570000103493](http://www.manager.co.th/Local?View%20News.aspx?NewsID=9570000103493)
- ASTV Manager Online**. 2014b (11 November). Public Hearing on "Thappraya Royal Park Project" as a World-Class Tourist Destination. Retrieved March 23, 2015 from <http://www.manager.co.th/Local/ViewNews.aspx?NewsID=9570000129848>

- ASTV Manager Online.** 2015 (27 February). Three Alternatives Proposed for “Thappraya Royal Park Project” Whereas the Locals Ask for Aspects of Safety, Not Construction. Retrieved March 24, 2015 from <http://www.manager.co.th/Local/ViewNews.aspx?NewsID=9580000024029>
- Avgerou, Chrisanthi; Ganzaroli, Andrea; Poulymemnakou, Angeliki and Reinhard, Nicolau. 2009. Interpreting the Trustworthiness of Government Mediated by Information and Communication Technology: Lessons from Electronic Voting in Brazil. **Information Technology for Development.** 15 (2): 133-148.
- Ayuso, Silvia; Rodríguez, Miguel; García-Castro, Roberto and Ariño, Miguel Ángel. 2011. Does Stakeholder Engagement Promote Sustainable Innovation Orientation? **Industrial Management & Data Systems.** 111 (9): 1399-1417.
- Babbie, Earl. 2014. **The Practice of Social Research.** 14<sup>th</sup> ed. Canada: Cengage Learning.
- Balch, George I. 1974. Multiple Indicators in Survey Research: The Concept "Sense of Political Efficacy". **Political Methodology.** 1: 1-43.
- Ball, Carolyn. 2009. What is Transparency? **Public Integrity.** 11 (4): 293-308.
- BangkokBiz.** 2014. ‘Pattaya Model’ as the Pilot Project for Maritime Safety. Retrieved May 14, 2015 from <http://www.bangkokbiznews.com/news/detail/612098#sthash.jXDMoS1.dpuf>
- Banrung Amnatcharoenrit. 2012 (24 April). Govt. Urged to Ensure Safety of Tourists. **The Nation:** 4A.
- Basiago, A. D. 1999. Economic, Social, and Environmental Sustainability in Development Theory and Urban Planning Practice. **The Environmentalist.** 19: 145-161.
- Basit, Tehmina N. 2003. Manual or Electronic? The Role of Coding in Qualitative Data Analysis. **Educational Research.** 45 (2): 143-154.
- Batson, Daniel C. 1993. Communal and Exchange Relationships: What is the Difference? **Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin.** 19: 677-683.

- Baxter, Pamela and Jack, Susan. 2008. Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers. **The Qualitative Report**. 13 (4): 544-559.
- Beach, Sandra. 2009. Who or What Decides How Stakeholders are Optionally Engaged by Government Networks Delivering Public Comments? In **13th International Research Society for Public Management Conference (IRSPM XIII)**, 6-8 April 2009. Copenhagen Business School, Fredericksberg. Retrieved November 27, 2015 from <http://eprints.qut.edu.au/27036/1/c27036.pdf>
- Beach, Sandra; Brown, Kerry A. and Keast, Robyn L. 2008. All Together Now: Stakeholders in Government Agencies. In **Proceedings Contemporary Issues in Public Management: The Twelfth Annual Conference of the International Research Society for Public Management (IRSPMXII), Brisbane, Australia**. Kerry A. Brown; Myrna Mandell; Craig W. Pp. 1-14.
- Beckerman, Wilfred. 1994. "Sustainable Development": Is It a Useful Concept? **Environmental Values**. 3 (3): 191-209.
- Beder, Sharon. 2002. Economy and Environment: Competitors or Partners? **Pacific Ecologist**. 3: 50-56.
- Beritelli, Pietro and Laesser, Christian. 2011. Power Dimensions and Influence Reputation in Tourist Destinations: Empirical Evidence from Network of Actors and Stakeholders. **Tourism Management**. 32: 1299-1309.
- Berman, Shawn L.; Wicks, Andrew C.; Kotha, Suresh and Jones, Thomas M. 1999. Does Stakeholder Orientation Matter? The Relationship between Stakeholder Management Models and Firm Financial Performance. **Academy of Management Journal**. 42 (5): 486-506.
- Bertot, John C.; Jaeger, Paul T. and Grimes, Justin M. 2010. Using ICTs to Create a Culture of Transparency: E-Government and Social Media as Openness and Anti-Corruption Tools for Societies. **Government Information Quarterly**. 27: 264-271.

- Blake, James. 1999. Overcoming the 'Value-Action Gap' in Environmental Policy: Tensions between National Policy and Local Experience. **Local Environment**. 4 (3): 257-278.
- Blind, Peri K. 2006. **Building Trust in Government in the Twenty-First Century: Review of Literature and Emerging Issues**. Paper Presented in 7th Global Forum on Reinventing Government in Vienna, Austria. United Nations.
- Boggia, Antonio and Cortina, Carla. 2010. Measuring Sustainable Development Using a Multi-Criteria Model: A Case Study. **Journal of Environmental Management**. 91 (11): 2301-2306.
- Boix, Carles and Posner, Daniel N. 1996. **Making Social Capital Work: A Review of Robert Putnam's 'Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy'**. Working Paper No. 96-4. Weatherhead Center for International Affairs, Harvard University.
- Bollen, Kenneth A. and Hoyle, Rick H. 1990. Perceive Cohesion: A Conceptual and Empirical Examination. **Social Forces**. 69 (2): 479-504.
- Bossel, Hartmut. 1999. **Indicators for Sustainable Development: Theory, Method, Applications**. Canada: The International Institute for Sustainable Development.
- Bourdieu, Pierre and Wacquant, Loic J. D. 1992. **An Invitation of Reflexive Sociology**. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Bramwell, Bill and Lane, Bernard. 1993. Sustainable Tourism: An Evolving Global Approach. **Journal of Sustainable Tourism**. 1 (1): 1-5.
- Bramwell, Bill and Sharman, Angela. 1999. Collaboration in Local Tourism Policymaking. **Annals of Tourism Research**. 26 (2): 392-415.
- Brass, Daniel J. 1984. Being the Right Place: A Structural Analysis of Individual Influence in an Organization. **Administrative Science Quarterly**. 29 (4): 518-539.
- Brehm, John and Rahn, Wendy. 1997. Individual-Level Evidence for the Causes and Consequences of Social Capital. **American Journal of Political Science**. 41 (3): 999-1023.

- Brenner, Steven N. 1993. The Stakeholder Theory of the Firm and Organizational Decision Making: Some Propositions and a Model. In **Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the International Association for Business and Society**. J. Pasquero and D. Collins, eds. CA: International Association for Business and Society. Pp. 75-96.
- Brett, E. A. 1996. The Participatory Principle in Development Projects: The Costs and Benefits of Cooperation. **Public Administration and Development**. 15 (1): 1-15.
- Briassoulis, Helen. 2002. Sustainable Tourism and the Question of the Commons. **Annals of Tourism Research**. 29 (4): 1065-1085.
- Brinkerhoff, Derick W. 2005. **Organizational Legitimacy, Capacity, and Capacity Development**. Paper Presented at Public Management Research Association, 8th Research Conference, University of Southern California.
- Brokaj, Rezarta and Murati, Merita. 2014. Sustainable Tourism Development in Albania Through Stakeholders Involvement. **Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies**. 3 (2): 313-319.
- Bryson, John M. 2011. **Strategic Planning for Public and Nonprofit Organizations: A Guide to Strengthening and Sustaining Organizational Achievement**. 4th ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Buckingham, Susan and Theobald, Kate, eds. 2003. **Local Environmental Sustainability**. UK: Woodhead Publishing Ltd.
- Bull, Benedicte. 2008. Policy Networks and Business Participation in Free Trade Negotiations in Chile. **Journal of Latin American Studies**. 40 (2): 195-224.
- Buono, Anthony F. and Kerber, Kenneth. 2010. Creating a Sustainable Approach to Change: Building Organizational Change Capacity. **SAM Advanced Management Journal**. 75 (2): 4-21.
- Burapha University. 2014. **Opening Speech of “Bang Sean NO Foam Program” at Burapha University** (Video Recording). Retrieved January 8, 2015 [http://www.buu.ac.th/new/index.php?link=channels\\_detail.php&VDO\\_ID=157](http://www.buu.ac.th/new/index.php?link=channels_detail.php&VDO_ID=157)

- Butler, Richard W. 1996. The Concept of Carrying Capacity for Tourism Destinations: Dead or Merely Buried? **Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research**. 2 (3): 283-293.
- Butler, Richard W. 1999. Sustainable Tourism: A State-of-Art Review. **Tourism Geographies**. 1 (1): 7-25.
- Byrd, Erick Tilghman. 2003. **An Analysis of Variables That Influence Stakeholder Participation and Support for Sustainable Tourism Development in Rural North Carolina**. Doctoral dissertation, North Carolina State University.
- Byrd, Erick Tilghman. 2007. Stakeholders in Sustainable Tourism Development and Their Roles: Applying Stakeholder Theory to Sustainable Tourism Development. **Tourism Review**. 62 (2): 6-13.
- Byrd, Erick T. and Gustke, Larry. 2011. Using Decision Trees to Identify Tourism Stakeholders. **Journal of Place Management and Development**. 4 (2): 148-168.
- Byrd, Erick T.; Cárdenas, David A. and Greenwood, Jerusha B. 2008. Factors of Stakeholder Understanding of Tourism: The Case of Eastern North Carolina. **Tourism and Hospitality Research**. 8 (3): 192-204.
- Calton, Jerry M. and Lad, Lawrence J. 1995. Social Contracting as a Trust-Building Process of Network Governance. **Business Ethics Quarterly**. 5 (2): 271-295.
- Cameron, Angela M.; Memon, Ali; Simmons, David G. and Fairweather, John R. 2001. **Evolving Role of Local Government in Promoting Sustainable Tourism Development on the West Coast**. Report No. 28 of Tourism Recreation and Education Center, Lincoln University.
- Carter, Norma and Darlow, Alison. 1997. Local Agenda 21 and Developers: Are We Better Equipped to Build a Consensus in the 1990s? **Planning Practices and Research**. 12 (1): 45-58.
- Castiglione, Dario; Van Deth, Jan W. and Wolleb, Guglie, eds. 2008. **The Handbook of Social Capital**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Chaiyot Yongcharoenchai. 2014 (31 August). 'Sin City' Races NCPO to Clean Up Its Act. **Bangkok Post Sunday**: 1.

- Chaiyot Yongcharoenchai. 2016 (21 June). Pattaya Sea Water Quality Gets “Poor” Grade. **Bangkok Post**: 2.
- Chandra-nuj Mahakanjana. 2004. **Municipal Government, Social Capital, and Decentralization in Thailand**. Doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois.
- Chang, Eric C. C. and Chu, Yun-han. 2006. Corruption and Trust: Exceptionalism in Asian Democracies? **The Journal of Politics**. 68 (2): 259-271.
- Chanjira Pongrai. 2013 (28 September). The Sea ‘Swallow’ Bang Saen Beach Severely Eroded 5.51 Meter/ Year. **Krungthep Turakij**: 15.
- Chi, Christina Geng-Qing and Qu, Hailin. 2008. Examining the Structural Relationships of Destination Image, Tourist Satisfaction and Destination Loyalty: An Integrated Approach. **Tourism Management**. 29: 624-636.
- Chili, Nsizwazikhona Simon and Xulu, Nokwanda. 2015. The Role of Local Government to Facilitate and Spearhead Sustainable Tourism Development. **Problems and Perspectives in Management**. 13 (4): 27-31.
- Christensen, Tom and Lægreid, Per. 2005. Trust in Government: The Relative Importance of Service Satisfaction, Political Factors, and Demography. **Public Performance and Management Review**. 28 (4): 487-511.
- Cinelli, Marco; Coles, Stuart R. and Kirwan, Kerry. 2014. Analysis of the Potentials of Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis Methods to Conduct Sustainability Assessment. **Ecological Indicators**. 46: 138-148.
- Claibourn, Michele P. and Martin, Paul S. 2000. Trusting and Joining? An Empirical Test of the Reciprocal Nature of Social Capital. **Political Behavior**. 22 (4): 267-291.
- Clark, Margaret S. and Mills, Judson. 1979. Interpersonal Attraction in Exchange and Communal Relationships. **Journal of Personality and Social Psychology**. 37 (1): 12-24.
- Clark, Margaret S. and Mills, Judson R. 2011. A Theory of Communal (and Exchange) Relationships. In **Handbook of Theories of Social Psychology**. Van Lange, Paul A.M.; Arie W. Kruglanski and Tory E. Higgins. 2nd ed. CA: SAGE. Pp. 232-250.

- Clark, Margaret S.; Mills, Judson and Powell, Martha C. 1986. Keeping Track of Needs in Communal and Exchange Relationships. **Journal of Personality and Social Psychology**. 51 (2): 333-338.
- Clarke, Jackie. 2010. A Framework of Approaches to Sustainable Tourism. **Journal of Sustainable Tourism**. 5 (3): 224-233.
- Clarkson, Max B. E. 1994. **A Risk Based Model of Stakeholder Theory**. . Toronto: The Center for Corporate Social Performance and Ethics, University of Toronto.
- Clarkson, Max. 1995. A Stakeholder Framework for Analyzing and Evaluating Corporate Social Performance. **Academy of Management Review**. 20 (1): 92-117.
- Clayton, Andrew; Oakley, Peter and Taylor, Jon. 2000. **Civil Society Organization and Service Provision**. Paper No. 2 of Civil Society and Social Movement Program. United Nations Research Institute for Social Development.
- Cohen, Louis; Manion, Lawrence and Morrison, Keith. 1994. **Research Methods in Education**. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Coleman, James S. 1988. Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital. **Journal of Sociology**. 94: 95-120.
- Coleman, Kenneth M. and Davis, Charles L. 1976. The Structural Context of Politics and Dimensions of Regime Performance: Their Importance for the Comparative Study of Political Efficacy. **Comparative Political Studies**. 9: 189-206.
- Common, Mick and Perrings, Charles. 1992. Towards an Ecological Economics of Sustainability. **Ecological Economics**. 6 (1): 7-34.
- The Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand, B.E. 2540 (1997)**. 1997. Retrieved June 16, 2015 from <http://www.ratchkitcha.soc.go.th/DATA/PDF/2540/A/055/1.PDF>
- Cook, Karen S. 1977. Exchange and Power in Networks of Interorganizational Relations. **Sociological Quarterly**. 18 (1): 62-82.
- Corzine, Jon S. and Jackson, Lisa P. 2006. **How to Become an Environmentally Sustainable Community-A Primer**. Retrieved December 27, 2016 from

[http://www.state.nj.us/dep/opsc/docs/becoming\\_an\\_environmentally\\_sustainable\\_cpmmunity.pdf](http://www.state.nj.us/dep/opsc/docs/becoming_an_environmentally_sustainable_cpmmunity.pdf)

**Crab Condo...Creation of Job and Increase of Marine Resources.** 2009 (24 March). Retrieved May 12, 2015 from <http://www.mrthaijob.com/column/viewbrows.php?aid=7049&catid=1>

Creswell, John W. 1994. **Research Design: Qualitative & Quantitative Approaches.** California: SAGE.

Creswell, John W. 1998. **Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing among Five Traditions.** Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Creswell, John W. 2003. **Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches.** 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Crofts, Amber. 2010. **A Study of Local Government in Tourism in British Columbia.** Master's Thesis. Retrieved September 12, 2013 from <http://linkbc.ca/siteFiles/85/files/LinkBCCroftsPaper2010.pdf>

Cross, Rob L. and Parker, Andrew. 2004. **The Hidden Power of Social Networks: Understanding How Work Really Get Done in Organizations.** Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Curry, Nigel. 2001. Community Participation and Rural Policy: Representativeness in the Development of Millennium Greens. **Journal of Environmental Planning and management.** 44 (4): 561-576.

Daake, Don and Anthony, William P. 2000. Understanding Stakeholder Power and Influence Gaps in a Health Care Organization: An Empirical Study. **Health Care Management Review.** 25 (3): 94-107.

**Dailynews Online.** 2013 (16 October). Speed Up the Plan...Stop Coastal Erosion-Many Issues. Retrieved February 9, 2016 from <http://m.dailynews.co.th/News.do?contentId=188482>

**Dailynews Online.** 2014 (5 October). Two Ministries Urges for Coastal Erosion Problem. Retrieved January 2, 2016 from <http://m.dailynews.co.th/News.do?contentId=67023>

Daly, Herman E. 1991. **Steady-State Economics.** 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Washington, DC: Island Press.

- Daly, Herman E. 1996. **Beyond Growth: The Economics of Sustainable Development.** Boston: Beacon Press.
- Dangelico, Rosa Maria and Pujari, Devashish. 2010. Mainstreaming Green Product Innovation: Why and How Companies Integrate Environmental Sustainability. **Journal of Business Ethics.** 95: 471-486.
- Davis, Gerald F., and Powell, Walter W. 1992. Organizational-Environment Relations. In **Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology.** Vol. 3. Marvin D. Dunnette and Leaetta Hough, eds. 2nd ed. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press. Pp. 315-375.
- Davis, Jeffery Sasha and Morais, Duarte B. 2004. Factions and Enclaves: Small Towns and Socially Unsustainable Tourism Development. **Journal of Travel Research.** 43: 3-10.
- De Lacy, Terry; Battig, Marion; Moore, Stewart and Noakes, Steve. 2002. **Public/Private Partnerships for Sustainable Tourism: Delivering a Sustainability Strategy for Tourism Destinations.** Queensland: CRC for Sustainable Tourism.
- De Lopez, Thanakvaro Thyl. 2001. Stakeholder Management for Conservation Projects: A Case Study of Ream National Park, Cambodia. **Environmental Management.** 28 (1): 47-60.
- del Monte-Luna, Pablo; Brook, Barry W.; Zetina-Rejón, Manurl and Cruz-Escalona, Victor H. 2004. The Carrying Capacity of Ecosystems. **Global Ecology and Biogeography.** 13 (6): 485-495.
- Department of Strategy and Budget Planning of Pattaya City. 2013. **Summary Report of Pattaya City during 2010-2012.** The Publication of Pattaya City Administration.
- Department of Tourism. 2015. **Statistics of Tourist Arrivals in Thailand.** Retrieved March 26, 2015 from <http://newdot2.samartmultimedia.com/home/listcontent/11/221/276>
- Dernbach, John C. and Mintz, Joel A. 2011. Environmental Laws and Sustainability: An Introduction. **Sustainability.** 3: 531-540.
- Derrick, Ian, and Nash, Robert. 2012. Stakeholder Conflict and Involvement in Aviemore. In **Tourism and Developments-Issues and Challenges.**

- Tanja Mihalic and William C. Gatner, eds. New York: Nova Science Publishers. Pp. 209-226.
- DiCicco-Bloom, Barbara and Crabtree, Benjamin F. 2006. The Qualitative Research Interview. **Medical Education**. 40 (3): 314-321.
- Diesendorf, Mark. 2000. Sustainability and Sustainable Development. In **Sustainability and Sustainable Development: The Corporate Challenge of the 21st Century**. Dexter Dunply, Jodie Benveniste and Philip Sutton, eds. Sydney: Allen & Unwin. Pp. 19-37.
- DiMaggio, Paul J. 1988. Interest and Agency in Institutional Theory. In **Institutional Patterns and Organizations**. L. Zucker, ed. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger. Pp. 3-22.
- DiMaggio, Paul J. and Powell, Walter W. 1983. The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organizational Fields. **American Sociological Review**. 48: 147-160.
- DiMaggio, Paul J. and Powell, Walter W. 1991. Introduction. In **The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis**. Walter W. Powell and Paul J. DiMaggio, eds. London: The University of Chicago Press, Ltd. Pp. 1-38.
- Division of Technical Services and Planning of Saensuk Municipality. 2014. **The Summary Report of Saensuk Municipality during 2010-2013**. Retrieved March 26, 2014 from <http://www.saensukcity.go.th/images/doc/download/bangsaen-work.pdf>
- Dodds, Rachel. 2008. Sustainable Tourism and Policy Implementation: Lessons from the Case of Calvia, Spain. **Current Issues in Tourism**. 10 (4): 296-322.
- Dollery, Brian and Kortt, Michael A. 2014. **Local Co-Governance and Environmental Sustainability in New South Wales Local Government: The Lake Macquarie City Council Sustainable Neighbourhoods Program**. Retrieved January 8, 2015 <https://www.lakemac.com.au/downloads/3AF3247BE3FDB77F261FF24A7A95874CFDB25D.PDF>

- Donaldson, Thomas and Preston, Lee E. 1995. The Stakeholder Theory of the Corporation: Concepts, Evidence, and Implications. **The Academy of Management Review**. 20 (1): 65-91.
- Dredge, Dianne; Macbeth, Jim; Carson, Daen; Beaumont, Narelle; Northcote, J. K. and Richards, Fiona. 2006. **Achieving Sustainable Tourism Management: Phase 1-Practitioners Guide**. Retrieved May 12, 2016 from [http://researchrepository.murdoch.edu.au/3496/1/achieving\\_sustainable\\_local\\_tourism.pdf](http://researchrepository.murdoch.edu.au/3496/1/achieving_sustainable_local_tourism.pdf)
- Drexhage, John and Murphy, Deborah. 2010. Sustainable Development from Brudtland to Rio 2012. In **Background Paper Prepared for Consideration by the High Level Panel on Global Sustainability at Its First Meeting, 19 September 2010 in New York**. Retrieved August 23, 2015 from <http://www.ponline.org/node/216968>
- Du Pisani, Jacobus A. 2006. Sustainable Development—Historical Roots of the Concept. **Environmental Sciences**. 3 (2): 83-96.
- Duck, Steve, ed. 1997. **Handbook of Personal Relationships: Theory, Research, and Interventions**. 2nd ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Dufhues, Thomas; Theesfeld, Insa; Buchenrieder, Gertrud and Munkung, Nuchanata. 2011. **The Political Economy of Decentralization ion Thailand-Does Decentralization Allow for Peasant Participation?** Paper Prepared for the Presentation at the EAAE 2011 Congress Change and Uncertainty, Switzerland. Retrieved March 26, 2016 from [http://ageconsearch.umm.edu/record/114428/files/Dunfhues\\_Thomas\\_106.pdf](http://ageconsearch.umm.edu/record/114428/files/Dunfhues_Thomas_106.pdf)
- Dwyer, Larry and Edwards, Deborah. 2010. Sustainable Tourism Planning. In **Understanding the Sustainable Development of Tourism**. Janne J. Liburd and Deborah Edwards, eds. Oxford: Goodfellow Publishers Ltd. Pp. 19-44.
- Dyllick, Thomas and Hockerts, Kai. 2002. Beyond the Business Case for Corporate Sustainability. **Business Strategy and the Environment**. 1: 130-141.
- Estes, Richard J. 1993. Towards Sustainable Tourism Development: From Theory to Praxis. **Social Development Issues**. 15 (3): 1-29.

- Etzioni, Amitai. 1964. **Modern Organizations**. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Evan, William M. and Freeman, Edward R. 1983. A Stakeholder Theory of the Modern Corporation: Kantian Capitalism. In **Ethical Theory and Business**. T. Beaychamp and N. Bowie, eds. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall. Pp. 75-93.
- Falleth, Eva Irene and Hovik, Sissel. 2009. Local Government and Nature Conservation in Norway: Decentralization as a Strategy in Environmental Policy. **Local Environment**. 14 (3): 221-231.
- Farrell, Alex and Hart, Maureen. 1998. What Does Sustainability Really Mean? The Search for Useful Indicators. **Environment**. 40 (9): 26-31.
- Feagin, Joe R.; Orum, Anthony M. and Sjoberg, Gideon, eds. 1991. **A Case for Case Study**. NC: University of North Carolina Press.
- Fennema, Meindert and Tillie, Jean. 1999. Political Participation and Political Trust in Amsterdam: Civic Communities and Ethnic Networks. **Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies**. 25 (4): 703-726.
- Ferguson, Ronald F. and Dickens, William T., eds. 1999. **Urban Problems and Community Development**. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Field, John. 2008. **Social Capital**. 2nd ed. New York: Routledge.
- Finifter, Ada W. 1970. Dimensions of Political Alienation. **The American Political Science Review**. 64 (2): 389-410.
- Fisher, Imogen and Ziviani, Jenny. 2004. Explanatory Case Studies: Implications and Applications for Clinical Research. **Australian Occupational Therapy Journal**. 51 (4): 185-191.
- Fitzgerald, Jennifer and Wolak, Jennifer. 2016. The Roots of Trust in Local Government in Western Europe. **International Political Science Review**. 37 (1): 130-146.
- Focht, Will and Trachtenberg, Zev. 2005. A Trust-Based to Stakeholder Participation. In **Swimming Upstream: Collaborative Approaches to Water Shed Management**. Paul A. Sabatier, Will Focht, Mark Lubell,

- Zev Trachtenberg, Almond Vedlitz and Mary Matlock, eds. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press. Pp. 85-135.
- Foucault, Michel. 1980. Prison Talk. In **Power/Knowledge: Selected Interviews and Other Writings**. C. Gordon, ed. New York: Pantheon. Pp. 37-54.
- Fox, Jonathan. 2007. The Uncertain Relationship between Transparency and Accountability. **Development in Practice**. 17 (4-5): 663-671.
- Freeman, Edward R. 1984. **Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach**. Boston: Pitman.
- Freeman, Edward R. and Reed, David L. 1983. Stockholders and Stakeholders: A New Perspective on Corporate Governance. **California Management Review**. 25 (3): 88-104.
- French, Richard D. 2011. Political Capital. **Representation**. 47 (2): 215-230.
- Friedman, Andrew L. and Miles, Samantha. 2002. Developing Stakeholder Theory. **Journal of Management Studies**. 39: 1-21.
- Frooman, Jeff. 1999. Stakeholder Influence Strategies. **Academy of Management Review**. 24 (2): 191-205.
- Fujikura, Ryo. 2000. Public Participation in Urban Environmental Management in Japan. In **Local Dynamics in an Era of Globalization**. Shahid Yusuf, Wiping Wu and Simon Evenett, eds. Washington, DC: Oxford Press. Pp. 169-179.
- Fukuyama, Francis. 1995. **Trust: The Social Virtues and the Creation of Prosperity**. New York: Basic Books.
- Fukuyama, Francis. 2000. **Social Capital and Civil Society**. IMF Working Paper No. WP/00/74. Washington, D.C.: International Monetary Fund.
- Fussell, Hilary; Harrison-Rexrode, Jill; Kennan, William R. and Hazleton, Vincent. 2006. The Relationship between Social Capital, Transaction Costs, and Organizational Outcomes. **Corporate Communication: An International Journal**. 11 (2): 148-161.
- Gallopín, Gilberto. 2003. A Systems Approach to Sustainability and Sustainable Development. In **Sustainability Assessment in Latin America and the Caribbean**. The Publication of ECLAC/Government of the Netherlands

- Project NET/00/063 Retrieved July 31, 2013 from <http://www.Eclac.org/publications/xml/8/12288/lcl1864i.pdf>
- Gallopín, Gilberto C.; Funtowicz, Silvio; O'Connor, Martin and Ravetz, Jerry. 2001. Science for the Twenty-First Century: From Social Contract to the Scientific Core. **International Journal of Social Sciences**. 168: 219-229.
- Gamson, William A. 1968. **Power and Discontent**. IL: Dorsey Press.
- Gamson, William A. 1971. Political Trust and Its Ramifications. In **Social Psychology and Political Behavior: Problems and Prospects**. Gilbert Abcarian and John W. Soule, eds. Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co. Pp. 40-55.
- Gellner, Ernest. 2000. Trust, Cohesion, and the Social Order. In **Trust: Making and Breaking Cooperative Relations**. Diego Gambetta, ed. New York: Blackwell. Pp. 142-157.
- Ghai, Dharam and Vivian, Jessica. 1992. **Grassroots Environmental Action: People's Participation in Sustainable Development**. London: Routledge.
- Giovannoni, Elena and Fabietti, Giacomo. 2013. What is Sustainability? A Review of the Concept and Its Applications. In **Integrated Reporting: Concepts and Cases That Redefine Corporate Accountability**. Cristiano Busco, Mark L. Frigo, Angelo Riccaboni and Paolo Quattrone, eds. Switzerland: Springer International Publishing. Pp. 21-40.
- Goffman, Erving. 1959. **The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life**. USA: Anchor Books.
- Gomes, Corrêa Ricardo. 2006. Stakeholder Management in the Local Government Decision-Making Area: Evidences from a Triangulation Study with the English Local Government. **Brazilian Administrative Review**. 3 (1): 46-63.
- Goodland, Robert. 1995. The Concept of Environmental Sustainability. **Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics**. 26: 1-24.
- Granovetter, Mark. 1973. The Strength of Weak Ties. **American Journal of Sociology**. 78(6): 1360-1380.

- Granovetter, Mark. 1985. Economic Action and Social Structure: The Problem of Embeddedness. **The American Journal of Sociology.** 91 (3): 481-510.
- Grimmelikhuijsen, Stephan. 2011. Being Transparent or Spinning the Message? An Experiment into Effects of Varying Message Content on Trust in Government. **Information Polity.** 16 (1): 35-50.
- Grimmelikhuijsen, Stephan. 2012. Linking Transparency, Knowledge and Citizen Trust in Government: An Experiment. **International Review of Administrative Sciences.** 78: 50-73.
- Guba, Egon G. and Lincoln, Yvonna S. 1994. **Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research.** Retrieved September 30, 2013 from [http://elisa1.ugm.ac.id/files/PSantoso\\_Isipol/FyBFBvRa/bab%206%20denzin%20\(ed.\).pdf](http://elisa1.ugm.ac.id/files/PSantoso_Isipol/FyBFBvRa/bab%206%20denzin%20(ed.).pdf)
- Gubrium, Jaber F. and Holstein, James A. 1997. **The New Language of Qualitative Method.** Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Guion, Lisa A.; Diehl, David C. and McDonald, Debra. 2002. **Triangulation: Establishing the Validity of Qualitative Studies.** A Series of the Department of Family, Youth, and Community Sciences, Florida Cooperative Extension Service, Institute of Food and Agricultural Sciences, University of Florida. Retrieved October 10, 2013 from <http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/fy394>
- Gunn, Clare A. 1994. **Tourism Planning.** 3rd ed. New York: Taylor and Francis.
- Hall, Michael C. 1991. **Introduction to Tourism in Australia: Impacts, Planning and Development.** Melbourne: Longman Cheshire.
- Hall, Michael C. 2000. **Tourism Planning: Policies, Processes and Relationships.** UK: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Hammersley, Martyn and Atkinson, Paul. 1995. **Ethnography: Principles in Practice.** 2nd ed. London: Routledge.
- Haq, Mahbub. 1995. **Reflections on Human Development.** Oxford: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Hardy, Cynthia. 1996. Understanding Power: Bringing about Strategic Change. **British Journal of Management.** 7 (Special Issue): S3-S16.

- Harris, Jonathan M. 2003. Sustainability and Sustainable Development. **International Society for Ecological Economics**. Retrieved July 31, 2013 from <http://www.isecoeco.org/pdf/susdev.pdf>
- Harun, Azhar. 2012. Thailand Tourism Industry: **The Impact of Tourism Sector to Thai's Gross Domestic Product (GDP)**. 2nd International Conference on Business, Management and Behavioral Sciences (BEMBS' 2012) during October 13-14 in Bali (Indonesia). Pp. 90-95.
- Hawkins, Robert L. and Maurer, Katherine. 2010. Bonding, Bridging and Linking: How Social Capital Operated in New Orleans following Hurricane Katrina. **British Journal of Social Work**. 40: 1777-1793.
- Healy, Marilyn and Perry, Chad. 2000. Comprehensive Criteria to Judge Validity and Reliability of Qualitative Research within the Realism Paradigm. **Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal**. 3 (3): 118-126.
- Hechter, Michael. 1988. **Principles of Group Solidarity**. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Heckathorn, Douglas D. and Rosenstein, Judith E. 2002. Group Solidarity as the Product of Collective Action: Creation of Solidarity in A Population of Injection Drug Users. **Group Cohesion, Trust and Solidarity**. 19: 37-66.
- Hediger, Werner. 1999. Reconciling “Weak” and “Strong” Sustainability. **International Journal of Social Economics**. 26 (7/8/9): 1120-1144.
- Hértier, Adrinne. 2003. Composite Democracy in Europe: The Role of Transparency and Access to Information. **Journal of European Public Policy**. 10 (5): 814-833.
- Heugens, Pursey P. M. A. R.; van den Bosch, Frans A. J. and van Riel, Cess B. M. 2002. Stakeholder Integration: Building Mutually Enforcing Relationships. **Business and Society**. 41 (1): 36-60.
- Heyzer, Noeleen; Riker, James V. and Quizon, Antonio B., eds. 1995. **Government-NGO Relations in Asia**. London: MacMillan.
- Hill, Charles W. L. and Jones, Gareth. R. 2001. **Strategic Management: An Integrated Approach**. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

- Hill, Charles W. L. and Jones, Thomas M. 1992. Stakeholder-Agency Theory. **Journal of Management Studies**. 29 (2): 131-152.
- Holliday, Adrian. 2002. **Doing and Writing Qualitative Research**. California: SAGE.
- Holliday, Adrian. 2007. **Doing and Writing Qualitative Research**. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: SAGE.
- Holliday, Adrian. 2013. Understanding Intercultural Communication: Negotiating a Grammar of Culture. New York: Routledge.
- Holling, C. S. 1994. New Science and New Investments for Sustainable Biosphere. In **Investing in Natural Capital: The Ecological Economics Approach to Sustainability**. A. M. Janson, M. Hammer, C. Folks and R. Costanza, eds. Washington, D.C.: Island Press. Pp. 57-73.
- Hunter, Colin. 1997. Sustainable Tourism as an Adaptive Paradigm. **Annals of Tourism Research**. 24 (4): 850-867.
- Husted, Bryan W. 1998. The Ethical Limits of Trust in Business Relations. **Business Ethics Quarterly**. 8 (2): 233-248.
- IAP2. 2010. **Public Participation: Critical for Sustainable Development**. Retrieved August 8, 2013 from <http://www.saiea.com/calabash/html/IAP2%20LEAFLET.pdf>
- Ibrra, Herminia. 1993. Network Centrality, Power, and Innovation Involvement: Determinants of Technical and Administrative Roles. **Academy of Management Journal**. 36 (3): 471-501.
- Ingram, Julie. 2008. Are Farmers in England Equipped to Meet the Knowledge Challenge of Sustainable Soil Management? An Analysis of Farmer and Advisor Views. **Journal of Environmental Management**. 86: 214-228.
- Ishaya, S. and Abaje, I. B. 2008. Indigenous People's Perception on Climate Change and Adaptation Strategies in Jema's Local Government Area of Kaduna State, Nigeria. **Journal of Geography and Regional Planning**. 1 (8): 138-143.
- Iwase, Daichi. 2011. Power Relations in Tourism and Environmental Transformation in Bang Saen, Thailand. **Environment and Natural Resources Journal**. 9 (2): 1-10.

- Jamal, Tazim B. and Getz, Donald. 1995. Collaboration Theory and Community Tourism Planning. **Annals of Tourism Research**. 22 (1): 186-204.
- Jepperson, Ronald L. 1991. Institutions, Institutional Effects, and Institutionalism. In **The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis**. Walter W. Powell and Paul J. DiMaggio, eds. London: The University of Chicago Press, Ltd. Pp. 143-163.
- Johnson, A. Craig. 1997. Public Participation and Sustainable Development: Counting the Costs and Benefits. **TDRI Quarterly Review**. 12 (2): 25-32.
- Johnston, Mel. 2013. **Mimetic, Coercive and Normative Influences and the Decision of National Sport Organizations to Bid for World Championship Events**. Master's thesis, Auckland University.
- Jones, Greg W. 1992. The Search for Local Accountability. In **Strengthening Local Government in 1990s**. Steve Leach, ed. London: Logman. Pp. 49-78.
- Jones, Peter; Hillier, David and Comfort, Daphne. 2016. Sustainability in the Hospitality Industry: Some Personal Reflections on Corporate Challenges and Research Agendas. **International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality**. 28 (1): 36-67.
- Jones, Thomas M. 1995. Instrumental Stakeholder Theory: A Synthesis of Ethics and Economics. **Academy of Management Review**. 20 (2): 404-437.
- Jones, Thomas M. and Wicks, Andrew C. 1999. Convergent Stakeholder Theory. **Academy of Management Review**. 24 (2): 206-221.
- Kahne, Joseph and Westheimer, Joel. 2006. The Limits of Political Efficacy: Educating Citizens for a Democratic Society. **The American Political Science Association**. 39 (2): 289-296.
- Kates, Robert W.; Parris, Thomas M. and Leiserowits, Anthony A. 2005. What is Sustainable Development? Goals, Indicators, Values and Practice. **Environment**. 47 (3): 8-21.
- Keele, Luke. 2004. **Social Capital, Government Performance, and the Dynamics of Trust in Government**. Retrieved July 23, 2016 from <http://www.nuff.ox.ac.uk/politics/papers/2005/Keele%20MacroTrust.pdf>

- Kim, Kyoung Bae. 2013. **The Perceived Role of Key Stakeholders' Involvement in Sustainable Tourism Development**. Doctoral dissertation, University of Nottingham.
- Kim, Sangkyun; Park, Eerang and Phandanouvong, Toulakham. 2014. **Barriers to Local Residents' Participation in Community-Based Tourism: Lessons from Houay Kaeng Village in Laos**. Conference Paper of the 4th International Conference on Tourism Reserch (4ICTR), Kota Kinabalu, Malaysia. Pp. 350-357.
- Kim, Seongcheol; Kim, Hyun Jeong and Lee, Heejin. 2009. An Institutional Analysis of an E-Government System for Anti-Corruption: The Case of OPEN. **Government Information Quartely**. 26: 42-50.
- King, Cheryl Simrell; Feltey, Kathryn M. and Susel, Bridget O'Neill. 1998. The Question of Participation: Toward Authentic Public Participation in Public Administration. **Public Administration Review**. 58 (4): 317-326.
- Kitzinger, Jenny. 1995. Introducing Focus Groups. **BMJ**. 311: 299-302.
- Klijn, Erik-Hans. 1996. Analyzing and Managing Policy Process in Complex Networks. **Administration and Society**. 28 (1): 90-119.
- Kom Chad Luek Online**. 2014 (8 September). Tourism Sector Asks the National Peace and Order to Reorganize Pattaya City. Retrieved July 2, 2015 from <http://www.komchadluek.net/detail/20140908/191700.html>
- Kozak, Metin. 2001. Repeater's Behavior at Two Ddistrict Destinations. **Annals of Tourism Research**. 28 (3): 784-807.
- Kramer, Roderick M. and Tyler, Tom R. 1995. **Trust in Organizations: Frontiers of Theory and Research**. Thousand Oaks. California: SAGE.
- Krungthep Turakij**. 2014 (19 October). "Pattaya Model" as an Example of Maritime Safety: 10.
- La Porte, Todd and Metlay, Daniel. 1996. Hazards and Institutional Trustworthiness: Facing a Deficit of Trust. **Public Administration Review**. 56 (4): 341-347.
- Lam, Wai Fung. 1996. Institutional Design of Public Agencies and Co-Production: A Study of Irrigation Associations in Taiwan. **World Development**. 24 (6): 1039-1054.

- Laplume, André O.; Sonpar, Karn and Litz, Reginald A. 2008. Stakeholder Theory: Reviewing a Theory That Moves Us. **Journal of Management**. 34 (6): 1152-1189.
- Lauckner, Heidi; Paterson, Margo and Krupa, Terry. 2012. Using Constructivist Case Study Methodology to Understand Community Development Processes: Proposed Methodological Questions to Guide the Research Process. **The Qualitative Report**. 17 (25): 1-22.
- Leach, William D.; Pelkey, Neil W. and Sabatier, Paul A. 2002. Stakeholder Partnerships as Collaborative Policy Making: Evaluation Criteria Applied to Watershed Management in California and Washington. **Journal of Policy Analysis and Management**. 21 (4): 645-670.
- Leblebici, Huseyin and Salancik, Gerald R. 1982. Stability in Interorganizational Exchanges: Rulemaking Processes of the Chicago Board of Trade. **Administrative Science Quarterly**. 27: 227-242.
- Lélé, Sharachandra. 1991. Sustainable Development: A Critical Review. **World Development**. 19 (6): 607-621.
- Leroy, Gundy. 2011. **Designing User Studies in Informatics**. London: Springer-Verlag.
- Levi, Margaret. 1996. Social and Unsocial Capital: A Review Essay of Robert Putnam's Making Democracy Work. **Politics and Society**. 24: 45-55.
- Levi, Margaret and Stoker, Laura. 2000. Political Trust and Trustworthiness. **Annual Review of Political Science**. 3: 475-507.
- Li, Jessie Wen Jie and Carr, Neil. 2004. Visitor Satisfaction. **International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration**. 5 (3): 31-48.
- Liburd, Janne J. and Edwards, Deborah, eds. 2010. **Understanding the Sustainable Development of Tourism**. Oxford: Goodfellow Publishers.
- Liu, Abby and Wall, Geoffery. 2006. Planning Tourism Employment: A Developing Country Perspective. **Tourism Management**. 27 (1): 159-170.
- Macbeth, Jim; Carson, Dean and Northcote, Jeremy. 2004. Social Capital, Tourism and Regional Development: SPCC as a Basis for Innovation and Sustainability. **Current Issues in Tourism**. 7 (6): 502-522.

- Macnaghten, Phil and Jacobs, Michael. 1997. Public Identification with Sustainable Development: Investigating Cultural Barriers to Participation. **Global Environmental Change**. 7 (1): 5-24.
- Marschall, Melissa J. and Stolle, Dietlind. 2004. Race and the City: Neighborhood Context and the Development of Generalized Trust. **Political Behavior**. 26 (2): 125-153.
- Martinez, Carlos and Olander, Stefan. 2015. Stakeholder Participation for Sustainable Property Development. **Procedia Economics and Finance**. 21: 57-63.
- Martiza, Tafaszwa and Oni, Olabanji A. 2014. The Perceived Economic Benefits of Tourism: The Case of a Rural Community Bordering the Kruger National Park in Limpopo Province, South Africa. **Mediterranean Journal of Social Science**. 5 (20): 322-328.
- Mat Som, Ahmad Puad; Marzuki, Azizan; Yousefi, Maryam and AbuKhalifeh, Ala`a Nimer. 2012. Factors Influencing Visitors' Revisit Behavioral Intentions: A Case Study of Sabah, Malaysia. **International Journal of Marketing Studies**. 4 (4): 39-50.
- Matichon**. 2008 (April 28). 'Ittipon' Persuades 5 Former Pattaya City's Mayor for Canvassing the Vote: 8.
- Mayers, James and Vermeulen, Sonja. 2005. **Stakeholder Influence Mapping**. London: International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED). Retrieved March 9, 2015 from [http://www.policy-powertools.org/Tools/Understanding/docs/stakeholder\\_influence\\_mapping\\_tool\\_english.pdf](http://www.policy-powertools.org/Tools/Understanding/docs/stakeholder_influence_mapping_tool_english.pdf)
- McAllister, Ryan R. J.; McCrea, Rod and Lubell, Mark N. 2014. Policy Networks, Stakeholder Interactions and Climate Adaptation in the Region of South East Queensland, Australia. **Regional Environmental Change**. 14: 527-539.
- McClurg, Scott D. 2003. Social Networks and Public Participation: The Role of Social Interaction in Explaining Political Participation. **Political Research Quarterly**. 56 (4): 448-465.

- Mebratu, Dasra. 1998. Sustainability and Sustainable Development: Historical and Conceptual Review. **Environmental Impact Assessment Review**. 18: 493-520.
- Meyer, John W. and Rowan, Brian. 1977. Institutionalized Organizations: Formal Structure as Myth and Ceremony. **American Journal of Sociology**. 83 (2): 340-363.
- Meyer, John W. and Rowan, Brian. 1983. The Structure of Educational Organizations. In **Organizational Environments: Ritual and Rationality**. John W. Meyer and Richard W. Scott, eds. California: SAGE. Pp. 71-97.
- Meyer, John W. and Scott, Richard W. 1983. **Organizational Environments: Ritual and Rationality**. California: SAGE.
- Michael, Muganda. 2009. **Community Involvement and Participation in Tourism Development in Tanzania: A Case Study of Local Communities in Barabarani Village, Mto Wa Mbu, Arusha-Tanzania**. Master's thesis, Victoria University of Wellington.
- Miller, Arthur H. 1974. Political Issues and Trust in Government: 1964-1970. **The American Political Science Review**. 68 (3): 951-972.
- Miller, Arthur H. and Listhaug, Ola. 1990. Political Parties and Confidence in Government: A Comparison of Norway, Sweden and the United States. **British Journal of Political Science**. 20 (3): 357-386.
- Mills, Jane; Bonners, Ann and Francis, Karen. 2006. The Development of Constructivist Grounded Theory. **International Journal of Qualitative Methods**. 5 (1): 1-10.
- Mills, Judson R. and Clark, Margaret S. 1994. Communal and Exchange Relations: New Research and Old Controversies. In **Theoretical Approaches to Personal Relationships**. R. Gilmour and R. Erber, eds. NJ: Erlbaum. Pp. 29-42.
- The Ministry of National Resources and Environment. 2012. **Notification of Ministry of National Resources and Environment on Rules and Procedures for Conducting Environmental Impact Assessment, B.E. 2555**

- (2012). Retrieved September 14, 2012 from [http://www.onep.go.th/eia/images/6interest/neb\\_annoucement01-2555.pdf](http://www.onep.go.th/eia/images/6interest/neb_annoucement01-2555.pdf)
- The Ministry of Tourism and Sports. 2011. **The Five-Year National Tourism Development Plan (2012-2016)**. Retrieved April 27, 2013 from <http://www.oic.go.th/FILEWEB/CABINFOCENTER3/DRAWER065/GENERAL/DATA0000/00000150.PDF>
- Mintzberg, Henry. 1983. **Power In and Around Organizations**. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Mishler, William and Rose, Richard. 2001. What are the Origins of Political Trust? Testing Institutional and Cultural Theories in Post-Communist Societies. **Comparative Political Studies**. 34 (1): 30-62.
- Mitchell, Ronald B.; Clark, William C. and Cash, David W. 2006. Information and Influence. In **Global Environmental Assessments: Information and Influence**. Ronald B. Mitchell, David W. Cash and Nancy M. Dickson. Cambridge, eds. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press. Pp. 307-338.
- Mitchell, Ronald K.; Agle, Bradley R. and Wood, Donna J. 1997. Toward a Theory of Stakeholder Identification and Salience: Defining the Principle of Who and What Really Counts. **The Academy of Management Review**. 22 (4): 853-886.
- Moody, James and White, Douglas R. 2003. Social Cohesion and Embeddedness: A Hierarchical Conception of Social Groups. **American Sociological Review**. 8 (1): 1-25.
- Moore, Susan A. and Rodger, Kate. 2010. Wildlife Tourism as a Common Pool Resource Issue: Enabling Conditions for Sustainability Governance. **Journal of Sustainable Tourism**. 18 (7): 831-844.
- Morelli, John. 2011. Environmental Sustainability: A Definition for Environmental Professionals. **Journal of Environmental Sustainability**. 1 (1): 1-9.
- Morris, Stephen D. and Klesner, Joseph L. 2010. Corruption and Trust: Theoretical Considerations and Evidence from Mexico. **Comparative Political Studies**. 43 (10): 1258-1285.

- Mosher, Craig R. and College, Luther. 2010. A Wholistic Paradigm for Sustainability: Are Social Workers Experts or Partners? **Critical Social Work**. 11 (3): 102-121.
- Murphy, Peter E. 1983. Perceptions and Attitudes of Decision Making Groups in Tourism Centers. **Journal of Travel Research**. 21 (3): 8-12.
- Mustapha, Nor Azah; Azman, Inoormaziah and Ibrahim, Yahaya. 2013. Barriers to Community Participation in Tourism Development in Island Destination. **Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Culinary Arts**. 5 (1): 102-124.
- National Statistical Office of Thailand. 2012. **Tourism Statistics**. Retrieved May 18, 2012 from <http://service.nso.go.th/nso/web/statseries/statseries23.html>
- Nelson, Michael. 2001. Thailand Problems with Decentralization? In **Thailand's New Politics: KPI Yearbook 2001**. Michael Nelson, ed. Bangkok: KPI and White Lotus.
- Newton, Kenneth. 1999. Institutional Explanations for Political Support. In **Critical Citizens: Global Support for Democratic Governance**. Pippa Norris, ed. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Newton, Kenneth. 2001. Trust, Social Capital, Civil Society, and Democracy. **International Political Science Review**. 22 (2): 201-214.
- Newton, Kenneth and Norris, Pippa. 1999. **Confidence in Public Institutions: Faith, Culture, or Performance?** A Paper Presentation at the Annual Meeting of the American Political Science Association, Atlanta, 1-5 September 1999. Retrieved September 9, 2016 from <http://www.hks.harvard.edu/fs/pnorris/Acrobat/NEWTON.PDF>
- Ng, K. L. and Hamby, D. M. 1997. Fundamentals for Establishing at Risk Communication Program. **Health Physics**. 73 (3): 473-482.
- Ng, Siew Imm; Chia, Kei Wei; Ho, Jo Ann and Ramachandran, Sridar. 2017. Seeking Tourism Sustainability- A Case Study of Tioman Island, Malaysia. **Tourism Management**. 58: 101-107.
- Notification of Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment**. Regarding the Environmental Protection Zoning and Measures in Banglamung District and Sattahip District of Chonburi Province, B.E. 2535 (1992). Retrieved

April 17, 2015 from [http://www.pcd.go.th/info\\_serv/file/Info\\_act40/9\\_5/NEQA2535 v5.pdf](http://www.pcd.go.th/info_serv/file/Info_act40/9_5/NEQA2535_v5.pdf)

**Notification of The National Environment Board No. 1, B.E. 2535 (1992).** Under the Enhancement and Conservation of National Environmental Quality Act, B.E. 2535 (1992). Retrieved April 17, 2015 from <http://www.onep.go.th/?p=14410>

Nye, Joseph S., Jr. 1997. The Media and Declining Confidence in Government.

**Harvard International Journal of Press/ Politics.** 2 (3): 4-9.

Offe, Clause. 1999. How can We Trust Our Fellow Citizen? In **Democracy and**

**Trust.** Mark Warren, ed. New York: Cambridge University. Pp. 42-87.

Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Tourism and Sports. 2011. **Domestic Tourism Statistics (Eastern Region).** Retrieved November 24, 2013

from <http://secretary.mots.go.th/main.php?filename=index>

Office of the Prime Minister. 2005. **Regulation of the Office of the Prime Minister on Public Consultation, B.E. 2548 (2005).** Retrieved July 15, 2014 from <http://www.publicreport.opm.go.th/uploading/files/2007101132752regulation2.pdf>

Oliver, Christine. 1990. Determinants of Interorganizational Relationships:

Integration and Future Directions. **Academy of Management Review.** 15 (2): 241-265.

Oliver, Christine. 1991. Strategic Responses to Institutional Process. **Academy of**

**Management Review.** 16 (1): 145-179.

Oliver, Christine. 1992. The Antecedents of Deinstitutionalization. **Organizational Studies.** 13 (4): 563-588.

Omann, Ines 2004. **Multi-Criteria decision Aid as an Approach for Sustainable Development Analysis and Implementation.** Doctoral dissertation , University of Garz, Austria.

Osorio, Leonardo Alberto Rios; Lobato, Manuel Ortiz and Castillo, Xavier Álvarez Del. 2005. Debates on Sustainable Development: Towards a Holistic View of Reality. **Environmental Development Sustainability.** 7: 501-518.

- Ostrom, Elinor. 1990. **Governing the Commons: The Evolution of Institutions for Collective Action.** UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Ostrom, Elinor and Ahn, T. K. 2003. **Foundations of Social Capital: A Reader.** UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd.
- Ostrom, Elinor and Ahn, T. K. 2007. **The Meaning of Social Capital and Its Link to Collective Action.** Retrieved September 5, 2016 from [http://www.researchgate.net/publication/228193385\\_The\\_Meaning\\_of\\_Social\\_Capital\\_and\\_Its\\_Like\\_to\\_Collective\\_Action](http://www.researchgate.net/publication/228193385_The_Meaning_of_Social_Capital_and_Its_Like_to_Collective_Action)
- Pairat Temphairajana. 2016 (6 January). **Thailand Expects Record Tourist Arrivals in 2016.** Retrieved September 1, 2016 from <http://www.reuter.com/article/us-thailand-tourism-idUSKBN0UK0IU20160106>
- Parent, Milena M. and Deephouse, David L. 2007. A Case Study of Stakeholder Identification and Prioritization by Managers. **Journal of Business Ethics.** 75 (1): 1-23.
- Pattaya Business and Tourism Association. 2015. **The Regulation of Pattaya Tourism and Business Association, B.E. 2558 (2015).** Retrieved October 12, 2016 from [www.pattayabusiness.org](http://www.pattayabusiness.org)
- Pattaya City Administration. 2013. **Summary Report of Pattaya City.** Chonburi: Pattaya City Administration.
- Pattaya City Administration. 2015. **Report of Pattaya City Beach Clean-Up Program Submitted to the Chonburi Provincial Governor.** Publication of Pattaya City Administration.
- Pattaya Today.** 2016. Crisis on Koh Larn. Retrieved September 1, 2016 from <http://pattayatoday.net/news/latest-edition0crisis-on-koh-larn>
- Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau. 2011. **The Report on Strategic Framework of Pattaya City Tourism Development.** Prepared by Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau in Collaboration with the National Institute of Development Administration. Chonburi: Pattaya City.
- Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau. 2014. **Pattaya Organizes Public Hearing for the Feasibility Study of the Development of ‘Thappraya Royal Park’ As a World-Class Tourist Destination.** Retrieved April 12, 2015 from <http://www.pattaya.go.th/2014/11/11-56>

- Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau. 2015a. **The Feasibility Study Report on Land Development Project of Thappraya Royal Park**. Chonburi: Pattaya City.
- Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau. 2015b. **Report of Pattaya City Beach Clean-Up Program Submitted to The Chonburi Provincial Governor**. Chonburi: Pattaya City.
- Pattaya Tourism Promotion Bureau. 2015c. **The Statistics from Subdivision of Safety and Security**. Prepared by Office of The Pattaya City Clerk. Chonburi: Pattaya City.
- Pattaya Watchdog Group's Facebook. 2015a. **The Public Hearings on Thappraya Royal Park Project** (Video Recording). Organized on February 2, 2015.
- Pattaya Watchdog Group's Facebook. 2015b. **The Public Hearings on Thappraya Royal Park Project** (Video Recording). Organized on February 27, 2015.
- Petrick, James F.; Morais Duarte D. and Norman, William C. 2001. An Examination of the Determinants of Entertainment Vacationers' Intentions to revisit. **Journal of Travel Research**. 40 (2): 41-48.
- Pfeffer, Jeffrey. 1981. **Power in Organizations**. Marshfield, MA: Pitman.
- Pfeffer, Jeffrey and Salancik, Gerald R. 1978. **The External Control of Organizations: A Resource Dependence Perspective**. New York: Harper & Row.
- Phasakorn Channgam. 2013a (15 November). **Business Leaders Blast Pattaya Officials for Neglecting Marine Safety**. Retrieved January 26, 2016 from <http://www.pattayamail.com/local news>
- Phasakorn Channgam. 2013b (27 November). **PBTA Issues Pattaya Officials 7 Demands to Improve Marine Safety**. Retrieved June 13, 2015 from <http://www.pattayamail.com/localnews/pbta-issues-officials-7-demands-to-improve-marine-safety-32467#sthash.07YFcdFm.dpuf>
- Phillips, Robert. 2003. Stakeholder Legitimacy. **Business Ethics Quarterly**. 13 (1): 25-41.
- Piyaporn Wongruang. 2012 (26 February). From Sin City to Green Paradise-Can Pattaya Change Its Spot? **Bangkok Post**: 4.

- Pixley, Jocelyn. 2002. Finance Organizations, Decisions and Emotions. **British Journal of Sociology**. 53 (1): 41-65.
- Piyaporn Wongruang. 2012 (26 February). From Sin City to Green Paradise- Can Pattaya Change Its Spot? **Bangkok Post**: 4.
- Pomeroy, Robert S. 1995. Community-Based and Co-Management Institutions for Sustainable Coastal Fisheries Management in Southeast Asia. **Ocean and Coastal Management**. 27 (3): 143-162.
- Poo Jatkarn Daily**. 2007 (1 January). 'Khunpluem Family' Pursues for the Position of 'Mayor' and Strategize 'Pattaya' Toward Internationalization: 12.
- Portes, Alejandro. 1998. Social Capital: Its Origins and Applications in Modern Sociology. **Annual Review of Sociology**. 24 (1): 1-24.
- Portes, Alejandro and Landolt, Patricia. 1996. The Downside of Social Capital. **The American Prospect**. 7 (26): 18-21.
- Porumbescu, Gregory. 2015a. Linking Transparency to Trust in Government and Voice. **The American Review of Public Administration**. Retrieved March 9, 2016 from <http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/0275074015607301>
- Porumbescu, Gregory 2015b. Using Transparency to Enhance Responsiveness and Trust in Local Government: Can It Work? **State and Local Government Review**. 47 (3): 205-213.
- Porumbescu, Gregory; Park, Jungho and Oomsels, Peter. 2013. Building Trust: Communication and Subordinate Trust in Public Organizations. **Transylvanian Review of Administrative Sciences**. 38: 158-179.
- Powell, Walter W. 1991. Expanding the Scope of Institutional Analysis. In **The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis**. Walter W. Powell and Paul J. DiMaggio, eds. London: The University of Chicago Press, Ltd. Pp. 183-203.
- Prabhakarana, Sudesh; Naira, Vikneswaran and Ramachandranb, Sridar. 2014. Community Participation in Rural Tourism: Towards a Conceptual Framework. **Social and Behavioral Sciences**. 144: 290-295.

- Prachachart Turakij.** 2014 (27-30 November). “Kobkarn” Rebrands Thailand’s Tourism by Modeling the Five Cities for Gaining Tourism Competitiveness: 21, 26.
- Pretty, Jules. 2008. Agricultural Sustainability: Concepts, Principles and Evidence. **Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society.** 363: 447-465.
- Priyanath, H. M. S. and Premaratne, S. P. 2015a. Effect of Social Capital on Transaction Cost: Case of Small Enterprises in Sri Lanka. **International Journal of Information Technology and Business Management.** 36 (1): 52-68.
- Priyanath, H. M. S. and Premaratne, S. P. 2015b. Government SME Development Programs in Sri Lanka: A Review in the Lens of Transaction Cost Economics. **Sabaragamuwa University Journal.** 13 (2): 59-81.
- Proops, John L. R.; Faber, Malte; Manstetten, Reiner and Jöst, Frank. 1996. Achieving a Sustainable World. **Ecological Economics.** 17 (3): 133-135.
- Putnam, Robert D. 1993. **Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy.** New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- Putnam, Robert D. 1995. Blowing Alone: America's Declining Social Capital. **Journal of Democracy.** 6 (1): 65-78.
- Putnam, Robert D. 1996. The Stranger Disappearance of Civic America. **The American Prospect.** 24 (2): 34-48.
- Putnam, Robert D. 2000. **Blowing Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community.** New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Rainey, Daniel V.; Robinson, Kenneth L.; Allen, Ivey and Christy, Ralph L. 2003. Essential Forms of Capital for Sustainable Community Development. **American Journal of Agricultural Economics.** 85 (3): 708-715.
- Ratner, Blake D.; Mam, Kosal and Halpern, Guy. 2014. Collaborating for Resilience: Conflict, Collective Action, Transformation on Cambodia's Tonle Sap Lake. **Ecology and Society.** 19 (3): 31.
- Ratner, Blake D.; Meinzen-Dick, Ruth; May, Candace and Haglund, Eric. 2013. Resource Conflict, Collective Action, and Resilience: An Analytical Framework. **International Journal of the Commons.** 7 (1): 183-208.

- Rawlins, Brad L. 2006. **Prioritizing Stakeholders for Public Relations**. USA: Institute for Public Relations, Brigham Young University.
- Reed, M. S.; Dougill, A. J. and Taylor, M. J. 2007. Integrating Local and Scientific Knowledge for Adaption to Land Degradation: Kalahari Rengeland Management Options. **Land Degradation and Development**. 18 (3): 249-268.
- Regional News Team. 2014 (19 October). "Pattaya Model" The Pilot Project of Maritime Safety. **Krungthep Turakij**: 10.
- Rhodes, R. A. W. 2007. Understanding Governance: Ten Years On. **Organization Studies**. 28 (8): 1243-1264.
- Roberts, Susan J. and Brink, Kenneth. 2010. **Managing Marine Resources Sustainably**. Retrieved December 24, 2016 from <https://sustainability.water.ca.gov/library>
- Rose, Richard. 1994. Postcommunism and the Problem of Trust. **Journal of Democracy**. 5 (3): 18-30.
- Rothstein, Bo and Stolle, Dietlind. 2008. The State and Social Capital: An Institutional Theory of Generalized Trust. **Comparative Politics**. 40 (4): 441-459.
- Rowe, Gene and Frewer, Lynn J. 2000. Public Participation Methods: A Framework for Evaluation. **Science, Technology, and Human Values**. 25 (1): 3-29.
- Rudd, Murray A. 2000. Live Long and Prosper: Collective Action, Social Capital, and Social Vision. **Ecological Economics**. 34 (234): 131-144.
- Ruhanen, Lisa. 2013. Local Government: Facilitator or Inhibitor of Sustainable Tourism Development? **Journal of Sustainable Tourism**. 21 (1): 80-98.
- Ruttan, Vernon W. 1991. **Sustainable Growth in Agricultural Production: Poverty, Policy and Science**. Paper Prepared for International Food Policy Research Institute Seminar on "Agricultural Sustainability, Growth and Poverty Alleviation," Feldafing (Germany), Septemeber 23-27, 1991.
- Sabatier, Paul A.; Focht, Will; Lubell, Mark; Trachtenberg, Zev; Vedlitz, Almond and Matlock, Mary, eds. 2005. Collaborative Approaches to Watershed Management. In **Swimming Upstream: Collaborative Approaches to Watershed Management (American Comparative Environmental**

- Policy).** Paul A. Sabatier, Will Focht, Mark Lubell, Zev Trachtenberg, Arnold Vedlitz and Marty Matlock, eds. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press. Pp. 3-21.
- Saensuk Municipality. 2010. **The 2010 Summary of Performance Report of Saensuk Municipality.** Chonburi: Saensuk Municipality.
- Saensuk Municipality. 2011. **The 2011 Summary of Performance Report of Saensuk Municipality.** Chonburi: Saensuk Municipality.
- Saensuk Municipality. 2012a. **The 2012 Summary of Performance Report of Saensuk Municipality.** Chonburi: Saensuk Municipality.
- Saensuk Municipality. 2012b. **The Brochure of “NO Foam” Campaign.**
- Saensuk Municipality. 2013. **The 2013 Summary of Performance Report of Saensuk Municipality.** Chonburi: Saensuk Municipality.
- Saensuk Municipality. 2014. **The 2014 Summary of Performance Report of Saensuk Municipality.** Chonburi: Saensuk Municipality.
- Santana, Adele. 2012. Three Elements of Stakeholder Legitimacy. **Journal of Business Ethics.** 105 (2): 257-265.
- Sautter, Elise Truly and Leisen, Brigit. 1999. Managing Stakeholders a Tourism Planning Model. **Annals of Tourism Research.** 26 (2): 312-328.
- Savage, Grant T.; Nix, Timothy W.; Whitehead, Carton J. and Bliar, John D. 1991. Strategies for Assessing and Managing Organizational Stakeholders. **Academy of Management Executive.** 5 (2): 61-73.
- Schneider, Ben Ross. 2004. **Business Politics and the State in the Twentieth-Century Latin America.** USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Schulz, Wolfram. 2005. **Political Efficacy and Expected Political Participation among Lower and Upper Secondary Students: A Comparative Analysis with Data from the IEA Civic Education Study.** Paper Prepared for the ECPG General Conference in Budapest during 8-10 September 2005.
- Schwarz-Herion, Odile and Omran, Abdelnaser, eds. 2015. **Strategies tTowards the New Sustainability Paradigm? Managing the Great Transition to Sustainable Global Democracy.** Switzerland: Springer International Publishing AG.

- Scott, Richard W. 1987. The Adolescence of Institutional Theory. **Administrative Science Quarterly**. 32 (4): 493-511.
- Scott, Richard W. 1992. **Organizations: Rational, Natural, and Open Systems**. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Scott, Richard W. 1995. **Institutions and Organizations**. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Scott, Richard W. 2001. **Institutions and Organizations**. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. California: SAGE.
- Selznick, Phillip. 1957. **Leadership in aAdministration: A Sociological Interpretation**. New York: Harper & Row.
- Sharpley, Richard. 2000. Tourism and Sustainable Development: Exploring the Theoretical Divide. **Journal of Sustainable Tourism**. 8 (1): 1-19.
- Shield, Deborah J. 1998. Nonrenewable Resources in Economic, Social, and Enviromental Sustainability. **Natural Resources Research**. 7 (4): 251-261.
- Simpson, Ken. 2001. Strategic Planning and Community Involvement as Contributors to Sustainable Tourism Development. **Current Issues in Tourism**. 4 (1): 3-41.
- Sirimonbhorn Thipsingh. 2015. Creating a Network of Youth in Sustainable Tourism Development in the Greater Mekong Sub-Region Case Study: Nakhon Phanom, Thailand and Khammouan, Laos PDR. **Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences**. 195: 1573-1582.
- Sitts, Sarah. 2009. **Tourism and Economic Development in Tanzania**. Master's thesis, Tufts University, U.S.A.
- Southgate, Chris and Sharpley, Richard. 2002. Tourism Development and the Environment. In **Tourism and Development: Concepts and Issues**. Richard Sharpley and Telfer David J., eds. Toronto: Channel View Publications. Pp. 231-264.
- Srivastava, P. K.; Kulahreshtha, K.; Mohanty, C. S.; Pushpangadan, P and Singh, A. 2005. Stakeholder-Based SWOT Analysis for Sucessful Municipal Solid Waste Management in Lucknow, India. **Waste Management**. 25: 531-537.

- Stanley, Dick. 2003. What Do We Know about Social Cohesion: The Research Perspectives of Federal Government's Social Cohesion Research Network. **Canadian Journal of Sociology.** 28 (1): 5-17.
- Stern, Paul C. and Fineberg, Harvey V., eds. 1996. **Understanding Risk: Informing Decisions in a Democratic Society.** Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Steurer, Reinhard; Langer, Markus E.; Konrad, Astrid and Martinuzzi, André. 2005. Corporations, Stakeholders and Sustainable Development I: A Theoretical Exploration of Business Society Relations. **Journal of Business Ethics.** 61 (3): 263-281.
- Stolle, Dietlind and Rochon, Thomas R. 1998. Are All Associations Alike? Member Diversity, Associational Type, and the Creation of Social Capital. **American Behavioral Scientist.** 42 (1): 47-65.
- Stoney, Christopher and Winstanley, Diana. 2001. Stakeholding: Confusion or Utopia? Mapping the Conceptual Terrain. **Journal of Management Studies.** 38 (5): 603-626.
- Stringer, L. C. and Reed, M. S. 2007. Land Degradation Assessment in Southern Africa: Integrating Local and Scientific Knowledge Bases. **Land Degradation and Development.** 18: 99-116.
- Suchman, Mark C. 1995. Managing Legitimacy: Strategic and Institutional Approaches. **Academy of Management Review.** 20 (3): 571-610.
- Suddaby, Roy; Elsbach, Kimberly D.; Greenwood, Royston; Meyer, John W. and Zilber, Tammar B. 2010. Organizations and Their Institutional Environments-- Bringing Meaning, Values, and Culture Back in: Introduction to the Special Research Forum. **The Academy of Management Journal.** 53 (6): 1234-1240.
- Supasawad Chardchawarn. 2010. **Local Governance: The Politics of Decentralization and the Role of Bureaucrats, Politicians, and the People.** VRF Series. Chiba: Institute of Developing Economies, Japan External Trade Organization.

- Sutawa, Gusti Kade. 2012. Issues on Bali Tourism Development and Community Empowerment to Support Sustainable Tourism Development. **Procedia Economics and Finance**. 4: 413-422.
- Swarbrooke, John. 1999. **Sustainable Tourism Management**. New York: CABI Publishing.
- T-News**. 2014 (6 September). Business Forces National Peace and Order to Restructure Pattaya Beach. Retrieved January 26, 2016 from <http://social.tnews.co.th/content/105366>
- Tanguay, Georges Antoni; Rajaonson, Juste and Therrien, Marie-Christine. 2013. Sustainable Tourism Indicators: Selection Criteria for Policy Implementation and Scientific Recognition. **Journal of Sustainable Tourism**. 21 (6): 862-879.
- Teichman, Judith A. 2001. **The Politics of Freeing Markets in Latin America: Chile, Argentina, and Mexico**. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press.
- Tellis, Winston. 1997. **Application of a Case Study Methodology**. Retrieved July 23, 2016 from <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR3-3/tellis2.html>
- Thai Post Online**. 2012 (June 16). 'Crab Condominium': A Goodwill of Aquaculture Production Sources of Chonburi. Retrieved August 20, 2014 from <http://www.thaipost.net/sunday/160613/75088>
- Thawilwadee Bureekul. 2000. **Public Participation in Environmental Management in Thailand**. Working Paper No. 1. Bangkok: Center for the Study of Thai Politics and Democracy, King Prajadhipok's Institute.
- Therdchai Choibamroong. 2009. The Role of Local Government in Sustainable Tourism Development: A Perspective of the Sufficiency Economy. Bangkok: Cabinet and Royal Gazette Publishing Office.
- Thijssens, Thomas; Bollen, Laury and Hassink, Harold. 1995. Secondary Stakeholder Influence on CSR Disclosure: An Application of Stakeholder Salience Theory. **Journal of Business Ethics**. 132: 873-891.
- Thomas, D. S. G. and Twyman, C. 2004. Good or Bas Rangeland? Hybrid Knowledge, Science, and Local Understandings of Vegetation Dynamics in the Kalahari. **Land Degradation and Development**. 15: 215-231.

- Timothy, Dallen J. 1998. Cooperative Tourism Planning in a Developing Destination. **Journal of Sustainable Tourism**. 6 (1): 52-68.
- Timothy, Dallen J. 1999. Participatory Planning: A View of Tourism in Indonesia. **Annals of Tourism Research**. 26 (2): 317-391.
- Torres-Delgado, Anna and Palomeque, Francesc Lópex. 2012. The Growth and Spread of the Concept of Sustainable Tourism: The Contribution of Institutional Initiatives to Tourism Policy. **Tourism Management Perspectives**. 4: 1-10.
- Torsvik, Gaute. 2000. Social Capital and Economic Development. **Rationality and Society**. 12 (4): 451-476.
- Tosun, Cevat. 2000. Limits to Community Participation in the Tourism Development Process in Developing Countries. **Tourism Management**. 21: 613-633.
- Trochim, William M. K. 2006. **Nonprobability Sampling**. Retrieved October 4, 2012 from <http://anatomyfacts.com/Research/ResearchMethodsKnowledgeBase.pdf>
- Turner, Kerry; Lorenzoni, Irene; Beaumont, Nicola; Bateman, Ian J.; Langford, Ian H. and McDonald, Anne L. 1998. Coastal Management for Sustainable Development: Analysing Environmental and Socio-Economic Changes in the UK Coast. **The Geographical Journal**. 164 (3): 269-281.
- Tzanakis, Michael. 2013. Social Capital in Bourdieu's, Coleman's and Putnam's Theory: Empirical Evidence and Emergent Measurement Issues. **The Journal of Doctoral Research in Education**. 13 (2): 2-23.
- United Nations (UN). 1999. **Guidelines on Integrated Planning for Sustainable Tourism Development**. New York: United Nations.
- United Nations (UN). 2005. **Decentralization: Poverty Reduction, Employment, and Participation**. USA: Division for Public Administration and Development Management.
- United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). 2003. **Tourism and Local Agenda 21: The Role of Local Authorities in Sustainable Tourism**. New York: The United Nations.

- United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). 2009. **Sustainable Coastal Tourism: An Integrated Planning and Management Approach**. New York: The United Nations.
- United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP). 2001a. **The Economic and Social Survey of Asia and the Pacific**. Bangkok: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.
- United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP). 2001b. **Managing Sustainable Tourism Development**. Bangkok: The United Nations Publication.
- United Nations Environment Programme and the World Tourism Organization (UNEP & WTO). 2005. **Making Tourism More Sustainable: A Guide for Policy Makers**. Retrieved September 22, 2014 from [http://www.unep/shared/publications/pdf/DTIx0592\\_xPA-TourismPolicyEN.pdf](http://www.unep/shared/publications/pdf/DTIx0592_xPA-TourismPolicyEN.pdf)
- United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development (UNWCED). 1987. **Our Common Future**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). 1998. **Guide for Local Authorities on Developing Sustainable Tourism Development**. Retrieved August 15, 2014 from <http://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284402809>
- United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). 2013. **Tourism Highlights**. Retrieved September 19, 2014 from <http://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284415427>
- Van Breugel, Liedewij. 2013. **Community-Based Tourism: Local Participation and Perceived Impacts**. Master's thesis, Radboud University Nijmegen.
- Van Ingen, Eril and Bekkers, Rene'. 2015. Generalized Trust Through Civic Engagement? Evidence from Five National Panel Studies. **Political Psychology**. 36 (3): 277-294.
- Van Lange, Paul A. M. 2015. Generalized Trust: Four Lessons from Genetics and Culture. **Current Directions in Psychological Science**. 24 (1): 71-76.
- Van Zuydam, Sabine. 2014. **Credibility as a Source of Political Capital: Exploring Political Leaders' Performance from Credibility**

- Perspective.** Paper Prepared from the ECPR Session 2014, Workshop no.15: Political Capital and the Dynamics of Leadership. Retrieved August 11, 2016 from <http://ecpr.eu/filestore/paperproposal/71691ba3-7f4b-4f4a-ae59-3d7551645733.pdf>
- Vecchione, Elisa. 2010. **Bringing Forward the Paradigm Shift: Sustainable Development as Socially Coordinated Rupture.** Retrieved July 15, 2013 from [http://www.academia.edu/932026/Bringing\\_forward\\_the\\_paradigm\\_shift\\_sustainable\\_development\\_as\\_a\\_socially\\_coordinated\\_rupture](http://www.academia.edu/932026/Bringing_forward_the_paradigm_shift_sustainable_development_as_a_socially_coordinated_rupture)
- Vittaya Yoondorn. 2013 (30 April). **Beach Chair Vendors Admit to Nearly Doubling Prices for Rentals.** Retrieved September 8, 2013 from <http://www.pattayamail.com/news/beach-chair-vendors-admit-to-nearly-doubling-proces-for-rentals-25504>
- Von, Eingereicht and Omann, Ines. 2004. **Multi-Criteria Decision Aid as an Approach for Sustainable Development Analysis and Implementation.** Doctoral dissertation, University of Garz, Austria.
- Wang, Li et al. 2004. Residents' Attitude to Tourism Development in Ancient Village Resorts: Case Study of World Cultural Heritage of Xidi and Hong Villages. **Chinese Geographical Science.** 14 (2): 170-178.
- Wang, Youcheng and Fesenmaier, Daniel R. 2007. Collaborative Destination Marketing: A Case Study of Elkhart County, Indiana. **Tourism Management.** 28 (3): 863-875.
- Wang, Youcheng and Krakover, Shaul. 2008. Destination Marketing: Competition, Cooperation or Coopetition? **International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management.** 20 (2): 126-141.
- Wanhill, Stephen. 1994. The Measurement of Tourist Income Multipliers. **Tourism Management.** 15 (4): 281-183.
- Warren, Mark R.; Thompson, J. Phillip and Saegert, Susan. 2001. The Role of Social Capital in Combating Poverty. In **Social Capital and Poor Communities.** Susan Saegret, J. Phillip Thompson and Mark R. Warren, eds. New York: Russell Sage Foundation. Pp. 189-212.

- Wechsler, Maxmilian. 2008 (17 February). Seminar and Bust in Chonburi.  
**Bangkok Post**: 8.
- Wei, Shui; Xueyi, Xu; Yali, Wei and Xinggui, Wang. 2012. Influencing Factors of Community Participation in Tourism Development: A Case Study of Xingwen World Geopark. **Journal of Geography and Regional Planning**. 5 (7): 207-211.
- Weingast, Barry R. 1998. Constructing Trust: The Political and Economic Roots of Ethnic and Regional Conflict. In **Institutions and Social Order**. Karol Soltam, Eric M. Uslaner and Virginia Haufler, eds. Michigan: University of Michigan Press. Pp. 163-200.
- Wellman, Barry and Wortley, Scot. 1990. Different Strokes from Different Folks: Community Ties and Social Support. **American Journal of Sociology**. 96 (3): 558-588.
- Whetten, David A. and Leung, Thomas K. 1979. The Instrumental Value of Inteorganizational Relations: Antecedents and Consequences of Linkage Formation. **The Academy of Management Journal**. 22 (2): 325-344.
- White, Jan Martin; Reinicke, Wolfgang H. and Benner, Thorsten. 2000. Beyond Multilateralism: Global Public Policy Networks. **International Politics and Society**. 2: 176-188.
- Whiting, Lisa S. 2008. Semi-Structured Interviews: Guidance for Novice Researchers. **Nursing Standards**. 22 (23): 35-40.
- Wondolleck, Julia M. and Yaffee, Steven L. 2000. **Making Collaboration Work: Lessons from Innovation in Natural Resource Management**. Washington, D.C.: Island Press.
- Woolcock, Michael. 1998. Social Capital and Economic Development: Toward a Theoretical Synthesis and Policy Framework. **Theory and Society**. 27 (2): 151-208.
- The World Bank. 1993. **Water Resources Management**. Retrieved March 9, 2015 from <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/940261468325788815/pdf/multi-page.pdf>
- The World Economic Forum. 2013. **The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness: Reducing Barriers to Economic Growth and Job Creation**. Retrieved

- March 9, 2014 from <http://www.weforum.org/reports/travel-tourism-competitiveness-report-2013>
- The World Travel and Tourism. 2015. **Travel and Tourism Economic Impacts 2015**. Retrieved September 1, 2016 from [http://www.wttc.org/media/files/reports/economic%20impact%](http://www.wttc.org/media/files/reports/economic%20impact%20report-2015.pdf)
- Wu, Wei-ping. 2008. Dimensions of Social Capital and Firm Competitiveness Improvement: The Mediating Role of Information Sharing. **Journal of Management Studies**. 45 (1): 122-146.
- Yin, Robert K. 2009. **Case Study Research: Design and Methods**. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. California: SAGE.
- Yin, Robert K. 2012. **Application of Case Study Research**. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. India: SAGE.
- Yin, Robert K. 2014. **Case Study Research: Design and Methods**. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. California: SAGE.
- Yuksel, Atila. 2000. Managing Customer Satisfaction and Retention: A Case of Tourist Destination, Turkey. **Journal of Vacation Marketing**. 7 (2): 153-166.
- Zainal, Zaidah. 2007. Case Study as a Research Method. **Jurnal Kemanusiaan**. 9 (1): 1-6.
- Zhang, Xiaoli. 2012. **The Factors Effecting Chinese Tourist Revisit Thailand Destination**. Master's thesis, University of Thai Chamber of Commerce.
- Zhang, Zhong Xiang. 2012. Effective Environmental Protection in the Context of Government Decentralization. **International Economics and Economic Policy**. 9: 53-82.
- Zucker, Lynne G. 1987. Institutional Theories of Organization. **Annual Review of Sociology**. 13: 443-464.
- Zucker, Lynne G. 1991. The Role of Institutionalization in Cultural Persistence. In **The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis**. Walter W. Powell and Paul J. DiMaggio, eds. London: The University of Chicago Press, Ltd. Pp. 83-107.

## **APPENDICES**

## APPENDIX A

### COMPARISON TABLE OF EAST COAST PROVINCES OF THAILAND

Items	Chonburi			Bang Saen Beach of Chonburi			Pattaya City of Chonburi			Rayong			Trat (only in the city)			Chanthaburi		
	2009	2010	2011	2009	2010	2011	2009	2010	2011	2009	2010	2011	2009	2010	2011	2009	2010	2011
	<b>Total Revenue from</b>	N/A	79.11	94.85	3.17	5.38	7.0	44.66	73.73	87.85	10.80	15.48	17.89	0.85	0.99	1.27	2.80	3.17
<b>Visitors (billion baht)</b>																		
Thais	N/A	17.89	23.69	2.92	4.53	6.24	4.98	13.36	17.45	7.32	14.01	16.14	0.73	0.87	1.10	2.65	3.01	3.93
Foreigners	N/A	61.22	71.16	0.25	0.85	0.76	39.68	60.37	70.40	3.48	1.47	1.75	0.12	0.12	0.17	0.15	0.16	0.19
<b>Number of Visitors</b>	N/A	10.03	10.82	1.34	1.75	1.83	4.31	8.31	8.99	3.42	4.63	2.98	0.18	0.17	0.21	0.87	0.99	1.10
(million people)																		
Thais	N/A	4.52	4.54	1.28	1.60	1.72	1.59	2.95	2.82	2.74	4.39	2.76	0.17	0.16	0.19	0.83	0.95	1.06
Foreigners	N/A	5.51	6.28	0.06	0.15	0.11	2.72	5.36	6.17	0.68	0.24	0.22	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.04	0.04
<b>Average Length of</b>	N/A	3.09	3.24	2.09	2.49	2.83	3.38	3.17	3.29	2.03	2.22	2.50	2.51	2.92	3.14	2.04	2.06	2.28
<b>Stay (days)</b>																		
Thais	N/A	2.38	2.98	2.09	2.42	2.78	1.70	2.37	3.06	1.97	2.17	2.43	2.54	2.90	3.08	2.06	2.06	2.28
Foreigners	N/A	3.49	3.37	2.13	2.97	3.24	4.10	3.50	3.37	2.21	3.01	3.42	2.26	3.19	3.80	1.72	2.01	2.12
<b>Average Tourist</b>	N/A	2,981	3,157	1,783	1,839	2,295	3,443	3,071	3,238	2,056	2,062	2,124	1,733	1,885	1,844	1,371	1,404	1,493
<b>Spending</b>																		
(baht/persons/day)																		
Thais	N/A	2,233	2,502	1,734	1,764	2,266	2,285	2,385	2,585	1,844	2,028	2,105	1,651	1,821	1,782	1,344	1,397	1,465
Foreigners	N/A	3,268	3,429	2,360	2,284	2,514	3,651	3,265	3,442	2,600	2,413	2,292	2,574	2,524	2,349	2,119	2,151	2,360

Source: National Statistical Office of Thailand, 2012.

## APPENDIX B

### INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

#### **A. For Local Government Representatives ( □ Saensuk Municipality □ Pattaya City)**

1. Please clarify your current situation regarding local environmental sustainability?
2. In your opinion, what are the three most related programs to your local environmental sustainability efforts?
  - 2.1 Why are the programs initiated? By whom?
  - 2.2 Please briefly explain the context of the indicated programs in terms of the rationale and implementation process.
  - 2.3 Who are the stakeholders involved and why are they involved? Are there any competing demands regarding particular issues?
  - 2.4 Are there any obstacles (if any)? What are they and how have you solved them?
  - 2.5 What are the strengths and weaknesses of the local environmental management in your jurisdiction?

#### **B. For Stakeholders ( □ Saensuk Municipality □ Pattaya City )**

##### **General Information:**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_, Age: \_\_\_\_\_ years

Position in your community/organization: \_\_\_\_\_

Number of years residing in this city: \_\_\_\_\_ years

The programs you participated in: \_\_\_\_\_

##### **Questions:**

1. What do you think about the current environmental situation/ tourism in your locality?
2. How do you participate in the stated program(s) and through what channels you get informed?
3. How often do you participate in local meetings with the local executives/ officials?

- 3.1 How do you normally communicate with your members regarding meetings
- 3.2 What kinds of communication channels were you informed about concerning public hearings?
4. Does your local government support your organization or community events?

**(The following questions are for local residents or CCG leaders/representatives)**

4. What kinds of programs does your local government support your organization/ community?
5. Have you gotten involved in local politics recently?
6. Overall, are you satisfied with the local environmental situation/ tourism in your locality?
7. What level of trust do you have in the performance of your local government?  
(from level 1-10; 1 is the lowest mark)
8. What is your opinion about within-group and between-group collaboration pertaining to local development?

## APPENDIX C

### CASE STUDY PROTOCOL OF THE LOCAL ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY PROGRAMS OF SAENSUK MUNICIPALITY AND PATTAYA CITY

**Table C.1** Programs of Saensuk Municipality Regarding Local Environmental Sustainability

Program's Name	Rationale of the Program	Scope of Stakeholder Participation			Sources of Evidence	
	Why was the program initiated?	Who are the key stakeholders that participate? (RQ <sub>1</sub> ) (Note: 1 = public sector; 2 = private sector; 3 = civil society sector; 4 = others)	How did the stakeholders participate?	Through what relationship mechanism? (RQ <sub>2</sub> )	What factors influenced their participation? (RQ <sub>3</sub> )	
1. Integrated Coastal Management (ICM)	Environmental problems and social well-being	1 = DMCR, NRE, Provincial Governor, Chief executives of PAO, PREMSEA  3 = CCGs	Policy decision-making body for the Chonburi ICM network  Public hearings/ deliberations/ discourse,	State-local government relationship  • Social-networking interactions	Government policy network  • Social capital of CCGs • Political trust	Documentation, interviews  Documentation, interviews, direct observation

**Table C.1** (Continued)

Program's Name	Rationale of the Program	Scope of Stakeholder Participation			Sources of Evidence	
	Why was the program initiated?	Who are the key stakeholders that participated? (RQ <sub>1</sub> ) (Note: 1 = public sector; 2 = private sector; 3 = civil society sector; 4 = others)	How did the stakeholders participate?	Through what relationship mechanism? (RQ <sub>2</sub> )	What factors influenced their participation? (RQ <sub>3</sub> )	
2. Blue Swimming Crab Conservation	Environmental and economic problems	1 = Sriracha municipality, Sriracha Fisheries Research Station of Kasetsart University 3 = Local fishery associations, CCGs	public meetings, attitude survey Advisory and technical support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Local elite network</li> </ul> Knowledge-sharing network and social-networking interactions	among CCGs Government policy network <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social capital of the associations and CCGs</li> <li>• Political trust among CCGs</li> <li>• Information accessibility</li> </ul>	Documentation and interviews Documentation, interviews, direct observation

**Table C.1** (Continued)

Program's Name	Rationale of the Program	Scope of Stakeholder Participation				Sources of Evidence
	Why was the program initiated?	Who are the key stakeholders that participated? (RQ <sub>1</sub> ) (Note: 1 = public sector; 2 = private sector; 3 = civil society sector; 4 = others)	How did the stakeholders participate?	Through what relationship mechanism? (RQ <sub>2</sub> )	What factors influenced their participation? (RQ <sub>3</sub> )	
3. Bang Saen NO Foam	Environmental problem	1 = Burapha University	Partnerships through signing memorandum of agreement (MOA)	Knowledge-sharing network	Information accessibility	Documentation, interviews
		2 = Local beach vendors	Informing through municipal meeting	Social-networking interactions	Political trust among local vendors and CCGs	Documentation, interviews, field observation
		3 = CCGs				

**Table C.2** Programs of Pattaya City Regarding Local Environmental Sustainability

Program's Name	Rationale of the Program	Scope of Stakeholder Participation			Sources of Evidence	
	Why was the program initiated?	Who are the key stakeholders that participated? (RQ <sub>1</sub> ) (Note: 1 = public sector; 2 = private sector; 3 = civil society sector; 4 = others)	How did the stakeholders participate?	Through what relationship mechanism? (RQ <sub>2</sub> )	What factors influenced their participation? (RQ <sub>3</sub> )	
1. Pattaya Maritime Safety	Public safety issues that challenge Pattaya city to create city regulations and some seas-related measures to conserve and sustainable use of the seas.	1 = Director of Pattaya Marine Department, the Provincial Governor, a Vice Governor, Deputy Governor, District Chief Officer, a representative from the First Naval Area Command, the Director of Chonburi Provincial Tourism and Sports	Joint committees (program steering committees)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• State-local government relationship</li> <li>• Local elite network among city executives</li> </ul>	Government policy network	Documentation, interviews
		2 = Boat operators	Informed by city meeting	Economic linkages with tourism development	Perceived economic benefits	Interviews, field observation

**Table C.2 (Continued)**

Program's Name	Rationale of the Program	Scope of Stakeholder Participation				Sources of Evidence
	Why was the program initiated?	Who are the key stakeholders that participated? (RQ <sub>1</sub> ) (Note: 1 = public sector; 2 = private sector; 3 = civil society sector; 4 = others)	How did the stakeholders participate?	Through what relationship mechanism? (RQ <sub>2</sub> )	What factors influenced their participation? (RQ <sub>3</sub> )	
		3 = The two Presidents of PBTA and of THA, the president of Chonbui Attraction Club	Joint committees (program steering committees)	Economic linkages with tourism development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Perceived economic benefits</li> <li>• Social capital</li> </ul>	Documentation, interviews
2. Pattaya Beach Clean-Up	Non-sustainable use and management of coastal resources, resulting in the decline in tourists' satisfaction	1 = Provincial Deputy Governor, Banglamuang District Chief Officer, Pattaya city's mayor, the military representatives from the 14 <sup>th</sup> Military Circle of Chonburi District, Director of Pattaya Marine Department,	Joint committees (program steering committees)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• State-local government relationship</li> <li>• Local elite network among city executives</li> </ul>	Government policy network	Documentation, interviews

**Table C.2 (Continued)**

Program's Name	Rationale of the Program	Scope of Stakeholder Participation				Sources of Evidence
	Why was the program initiated?	Who are the key stakeholders that participated? (RQ <sub>1</sub> ) (Note: 1 = public sector; 2 = private sector; 3 = civil society sector; 4 = others)	How did the stakeholders participate?	Through what relationship mechanism? (RQ <sub>2</sub> )	What factors influenced their participation? (RQ <sub>3</sub> )	
		Director of Pattaya Marine Department, Director of Tourism Authority of Thailand of Pattaya Office, some relevant govt. agencies and 12 Pattaya city's officials				
		2 = Beach chair and umbrella operators	Informed by the city officials	Economic linkages with tourism development	• Perceived economic benefits	Interviews, field observation
3. Thrappraya Royal Park Construction Project	Environmental problems (wasteland) and economic	1 = Provincial Governor, Pattaya city's mayor and officials	Final decision-maker at provincial level of government	• State-local government relationship	• Hierarchical structure of bureaucracy	Documentation,

**Table C.2** (Continued)

Program's Name	Rationale of the Program	Scope of Stakeholder Participation			Sources of Evidence
Why was the program initiated?	Who are the key stakeholders that participated? (RQ <sub>1</sub> ) (Note: 1 = public sector; 2 = private sector; 3 = civil society sector; 4 = others)	How did the stakeholders participate?	Through what relationship mechanism? (RQ <sub>2</sub> )	What factors influenced their participation? (RQ <sub>3</sub> )	
development	3 = CCGs	Attitude survey in compliance with process of public consultation and EIA study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social-networking interactions</li> <li>• Regulatory framework</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Perceived economic benefits</li> <li>• Information accessibility</li> </ul>	Documentation, interviews
	3 = Pattaya Watchdog Group	Informed by some CCG representatives	Regulatory framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Political distrust</li> <li>• Political efficacy</li> <li>• Social capital</li> </ul>	Documentation, focus group discussion

## **BIOGRAPHY**

<b>NAME</b>	Miss Pornphan Hemaphan
<b>ACADEMIC BACKGROUND</b>	<p>Bachelor's Degree with a major in Public Administration from Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand in 2005</p> <p>Master's Degree in Public and Private Management at National Institute of Development Administration, Bangkok, Thailand in 2008</p>
<b>EXPERIENCES</b>	<p>Awarded Silver Medal for an excellent academic record from Kasetsart University in 2004</p> <p>Received the 2<sup>nd</sup> Class Honors Medal for Bachelor's Degree from Kasetsart University in 2005</p> <p>Awarded certificate for an outstanding academic record from National Institute of Development Administration in 2007</p> <p>Received Honors for Master's Degree from National Institute of Development Administration in 2008</p> <p>Received a Type-III scholarship grant from the Graduate School of Public Administration of National Institute of Development Administration for pursuing Doctoral Degree</p>