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Analysis of Barriers and Drivers of Residents' Participation in Theme Park Development **The Case Study of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park**

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Analysis of Barriers and Drivers of Residents' Participation in Theme Park Development: The Case Study of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park



By

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PhD

July 2024

Analysis of Barriers and Drivers of Residents' Participation in Theme Park Development: The Case Study of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park

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for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy*

July 2024





Certificate of Ethical Approval

Applicant:

Donghyeok Jeong

Project Title:

Sustainable Tourism Planning and Management of Natural Theme Parks in Korea:
the case study of Gwangmyeong Cave and Anseong Farmland

This is to certify that the above named applicant has completed the Coventry University Ethical Approval process and their project has been confirmed and approved as Low Risk

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This is to certify that the above named applicant has completed the Coventry University Ethical Approval process and their project has been confirmed and approved as Medium Risk

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Abstract

Fostering participation and collaboration among pertinent stakeholders in tourism development has garnered significant attention, reflecting a theoretical advancement in understanding sustainable touristic destinations. Locally, implementing the community-based tourism approach has emerged as a theoretical contribution, emphasising active participation and empowerment of local communities, thereby aligning with the principles of sustainable tourism. Notably, the intricate practical dynamics and conflicts among stakeholders signify an advancement in comprehending the complexity of stakeholder interaction in tourism development.

Previous research has primarily focused on identifying barriers and drivers for community participation, contributing theoretically to the knowledge base in this field. However, theoretical gaps remain, as these studies have predominantly centred on developing nations with limited economic resources, emphasising economic context's significance in shaping participatory practices. Moreover, a novel theoretical contribution lies in the observation that previous studies have predominantly analysed inter-group relationships while neglecting the theoretical exploration of conflicts and tensions within intra-group dynamics, revealing the intricate nature of collaborative efforts in community-based tourism.

By examining the barriers and drivers of residents' participation in theme park development in South Korea, this study adds to the theoretical discourse by emphasising the centrality of trust and effective communication in the theoretical framework of partnership dynamics between residents and local authorities. Additionally, the theoretical significance of perceived benefits, capacities, and simplified procedural mechanisms as motivators for residents confirms the role of incentives in stimulating community involvement. Moreover, the study's emphasis on the theoretical importance of fostering interdependence, interactions, and a conducive atmosphere in coordinating intra-group relationships accentuates the need for a comprehensive understanding of collaborative dynamics within communities.

From a broader theoretical perspective, this study contributes to the understanding that residents' participation hinges on stakeholders' willingness and democratic infrastructure, irrespective of a nation's economic context. Furthermore, the study's exploration of the influence of individual backgrounds, such as affiliations and regional heritage, on collaborative relationships in a South Korean context, contributes to a nuanced understanding of horizontal collaboration dynamics. Moreover, the theoretical spotlight on the influence of local values and social standing on residents' participation in community-based tourism corroborates the significance of sociocultural contexts in shaping participatory practices.

Overall, the theoretical contributions of this study not only enhance the existing understanding of community participation in tourism development but also shed light on the complexities of collaborative efforts and stakeholder interactions, contributing to the broader theoretical framework of sustainable tourism development.

Keywords: sustainable tourism, community-based tourism, stakeholder interactions, participatory practices, collaborative dynamics, sociocultural contexts

Chapter 1. Introduction

This chapter provides insights into research backgrounds and identifies academic gaps that necessitated this study. Starting by overviewing the background of the advent of sustainable tourism and community-based tourism (CBT) approaches, this chapter finally reaches the aims and objectives of this study, providing details of research focuses and directions.

1.1 Overview

1.1.1 The Advent of Sustainable Tourism Development

From the past to the present day, particularly in developing countries, tourism has been an opportunity for economic development, aiming to alleviate poverty and enhance economic infrastructure (Zhuang, Yao, and Li 2019). Consequently, boosterism and economic-centric approaches have garnered significant attention, leveraging tourism as a catalyst to uplift underdeveloped areas and enhance residents' quality of life (Meyer 2004). The boosterism approach, which prioritises quantitative growth (Blázquez-Salom, Blanco-Romero, Vera-Rebollo, and Ivars-Baidal 2019), has specific adverse effects. It often sidelines communities from decision-making processes (Srisuan and Vichanurak 2017), and tends to overlook potential negative impacts on the environment and societies in favour of perceived benefits (Cooper and Hall 2008). Similarly, the economic and industry-oriented approach tends to overly emphasis economic and policy considerations at the expense of balancing regional development. Furthermore, it tends to favour economically viable areas already developed, exacerbating the gap between regions with significant investment projects (Lee 2005). Like the boosterism approach, it prioritises economic advancement over social and environmental concerns (Morpeth and Yan 2015).

These traditional approaches have predominantly focused on the economic aspects, overlooking several social and environmental issues. There has been a notable shift in residents' perceptions of tourism, with mass tourism issues such as over-tourism and touristification becoming local political concerns (Kisi 2019). Additionally, there has been growing concern regarding environmental ethics, particularly the preservation of fragile natural environments (Kilipiris and Zardava 2012). The excessive exploitation of natural resources has also come to light (Klarin 2018), prompting the emergence of *sustainability* within development.

Sustainable tourism emerged in the 1960s as a response to the potential impacts of mass tourism, evolving into the concept of green tourism by the 1980s, with the fundamental aim of ensuring the sustainability of all tourism activities. Sustainable tourism can be defined as fostering positive socio-economic change without compromising ecological and social systems, necessitating integrated social learning processes, planning, and policy implementation (Rees 1989). The importance of sustainable tourism development was highlighted in the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)'s '*The Future We Want*' conference on sustainable development, where it was highlighted as a significant contributor to all three dimensions of sustainable development - social, economic, and environmental. There is recognition of the need to support tourism activities that protect the environment, respect cultural diversity, and contribute to the local economy (United Nations Sustainable Development 2012). Consequently, sustainable tourism is increasingly spotlighted globally as a means of meeting the needs of stakeholders and host regions while safeguarding opportunities for the future (World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), UNWTO and Earth Council 1995 cited in Eligh, Welford, and Ytterhus 2002).

In this line, the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and UNWTO (2005: 11) established three dimensions to guarantee long-term sustainability.

Sustainable tourism should:

- *Make optimal use of environmental resources that constitute a key element in tourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural resources and biodiversity.*
- *Respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance.*
- *Ensure viable, long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders that are fairly distributed, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities, and contributing to poverty alleviation.*

Sustainable tourism could be divided into economic, socio-cultural, and environmental aspects. From an economic perspective, sustainable tourism aims to contribute to the local economy by increasing job opportunities and distributing benefits (Niedziolka 2012). From the socio-cultural perspective, sustainable tourism aims to provide equal opportunities to all stakeholders and protect local communities' cultural assets and dignity (Öznalbant and Alvarez 2020). From the environmental aspect, sustainable tourism aims to contribute to environmental protection by raising awareness through education (Khuntia and Mishra 2014) and minimising pollution (Gössling 2000).

Tourism destinations consist of stakeholders, and their actions are linked. Therefore, “tourism is a network industry” (Scott, Baggio, and Cooper 2008: 15), in which interdependence is essential (Björk and Virtanen 2005). In achieving sustainable tourism development, informed participation by maintaining cooperative relationships to achieve common goals among stakeholders has been significantly regarded (Sun et al. 2019; UNEP and UNWTO 2005).

In conclusion, sustainable development entails fostering growth while ensuring long-term viability. Unlike imprudent development practices, sustainable tourism development advocates for more prudent and forward-thinking approaches, emphasising economic, sociocultural, and environmental dimensions. Particularly crucial is the involvement of stakeholders, including local communities, in collaborative efforts to generate economic benefits while safeguarding destinations' cultural and environmental assets. Especially ensuring active participation and enhancing the empowerment of residents have been considered significant tasks in the sustainable tourism development decision-making process (Bagus et al. 2019; Chang, Choong, Ng, and Seow 2022; Eshun and Asiedu 2023; Kunasekaran, Rasoolimanesh, Wang, Ragavan, and Hamid 2022; Sun, Yang, Wang, and Song 2019; Wondirad and Ewnetu 2019) because the image of tourism is reflective of the community's assets (Okazaki 2008; Styliadis and Quintero 2022), and the local community plays a role in preserving its traditional values (Han et al. 2019; Hu, Xiong, Lv, and Pu 2021).

1.1.2 Residents' Participation in Tourism Development

Since 1985, when the initial exploration of the case for residents' participation in tourism can be found in a book called '*Tourism: A Community Approach*' published by Peter

E. Murphy, there has been an ongoing study of community-based tourism (CBT), considered a sustainable tourism planning approach that includes the participation of local communities in the decision-making process (Bagus, Made, Nyoman, and Putu 2019; Giampiccoli and Saayman 2018; Han, Eom, Al-Ansi, Ryu, and Kim 2019; Kang 2019; Pramanik and Rahman 2023). Rooted in a people-centred direction (Fathi, Wang, and Song 2018), it aims to minimise conflicts between relevant local stakeholders, promote sustainable and efficient management, and develop tourist spots together with residents (Morpeth and Yan 2015; Romão, Palm, and Persson-Fischier 2023) to raise their quality of life as a result of the economic benefits of tourism through their direct intervention (Can, Alaeddinoglu, and Turker 2014; Kokkhangplu, Kim, and Kaewnuch 2023).

Nonetheless, this approach is criticised for being an idealistic dream (Ruhanen 2009) because, although the principles for community participation seem straightforward to promote, the practice itself is intricate (Nguyen, d’Hauteserre, and Serrao-Neumann 2022; Thetsane 2019). Also, despite the significance of communities’ participation, studies that have suggested functional roles for communities or determined how local communities feel about their given roles are scarce (Muganda, Sirima, and Ezra 2013; Thetsane 2019). Moreover, the increased penetration of global capitalism in local tourism development threatens the local community (Bennike and Nielsen 2023; Blackstock 2005; Tosun 2005), leading to the exclusion of residents from the decision-making process (Ditta-Apichai, Sroypetch, and Caldicott 2022; Stone and Stone 2011). These issues create gaps between what is presented in the literature and what residents face.

1.2 Research Gaps

1.2.1 Research Gaps Related to Residents’ Participation in Tourism Development

Numerous authors, including Reindrawati (2023), Gohori and Van Der Merwe (2021), Kala and Bagri (2018), Saufi, O’Brien, and Wilkins (2014), and Tosun (2000), have tried to identify barriers to community participation in tourism planning and development. Four aspects of these studies are elaborated as follows:

The first gap is the need for more comprehensive case studies. Previous studies, such as those conducted by Aref (2011; Iran), Bello, Lovelock, and Carr (2017; Malawi), Kala and Bagri (2018; India), Hong, Ngo, and Pham (2021; Vietnam), and Weis, Chambers, and

Holladay (2021; the Commonwealth of Dominica), have primarily focused on examples from developing nations, particularly in regions like Latin America, Africa, and Southeast Asia. These studies suggest that limited economic resources and educational opportunities are significant barriers to local communities' participation in tourism development. Furthermore, it has been noted that the gap in economic and educational standards between developing countries and those associated with the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) has been progressively widening and becoming more pronounced (World Bank Group 2018; World Bank Group 2023). Ongoing debates have also emphasised the crucial role played by the economic capabilities and knowledge levels of residents in understanding the link between their support and the sustainable growth of the tourism sector (Almeida-García, Peláez-Fernández, Balbuena-Vázquez, and Cortés-Macias 2016; Kantsperger, Thees, and Eckert 2019; Viana-Lora, Orgaz-Agüera, Aguilar-Rivero, and Moral-Cuadra 2023), arguing that these circumstances might have had an adverse impact on the ability of residents to engage in tourism development initiatives actively. Thus, it becomes imperative to explore case studies from developed countries as well, as they might offer different insights and implications compared to those from developing countries.

The second gap is related to studies on resident-participatory systems - public hearings or participatory budgeting. These systems are generally not well established in developing or underdeveloped countries due to intense centralisation (Gohori and Van Der Merwe 2021; Tosun 2000; United Nations 1981; Yüksel, Bramwell, and Yüksel 2005). Therefore, one limitation of studies conducted in these countries is that they do not address barriers and drivers of residents' participation in those systems. Hence, it is necessary to conduct studies in countries with a more decentralised system where local participatory systems are more commonly found.

The third gap pertains to intra-group relationships. Previous research has predominantly focused on 'community' participation, aggregating residents into groups. These studies have been instrumental in exploring broad intergroup interactions. Notably, conflicts have remained a focal point, but they have been limited to conflicts between groups, such as *tourists-residents* (Tsaur, Yen, and Teng 2018), *managers-residents* (Mbaiwa 2005), *local governments-residents* (Lee and Son 2016), or *tourism development-residents* (Wang, Jiang, Xu, and Guo 2021). Some studies have indicated that conflicts and tensions among intra-group members impact the tourism development process and the sustainability of tourist destinations

(Dragouni, Fouseki, and Georgantzis 2018; Kim, Marshall, Gardiner, and Kim 2021; Wang and Yotsumoto 2019; Yang, Ryan, and Zhang 2013). These studies have analysed conflicts as being primarily triggered by economic opportunities, such as increases in income or distribution, and disparities in the perception of tourist destination development. In other words, they have been confined to concluding that individual disparities in economic interests among intra-group members lead to conflicts. However, Tosun (2000) has noted that residents' participation is determined by the cultural characteristics of local communities. In essence, as indicated by numerous studies across various sectors (Adepoju, Gberevbie, and Ibhawoh 2021; Anderson, Kuswanto, and Apipah 2022; Marhaeni, Yuliarmi, Nugaha, and Primajana 2023; Nahak, Sobari, and Anas 2019), the dominant culture in a community may influence collaborative processes among intra-group members, consequently either hindering or facilitating residents' participation. This aspect necessitates a study in tourism that elucidates the impact of cultural factors on residents' participation to investigate the underlying causes of conflict among intra-group members.

The final gap pertains to the existing focus on tourism-dependent destinations in the literature. In other words, whilst there has been numerous research on community participation in areas which are tourism-dependent, very few if any research has looked at the phenomenon in areas with less dependence on tourism. The studies, exemplified by the works of Hiwasaki (2006), Puhakka, Sarkki, Cottrell, and Siikamaki (2009), Sene-Harper and Seye (2019), and Nugroho and Numata (2020), predominantly centre on the CBT approach within protected areas, notably national parks. In contrast, research efforts that extend to other types of destinations, as represented by the studies conducted by Nair and Hamzah (2015), Kim and Park (2017), Putra, Amalia, and Utami (2019), Dogra and Gupta (2012), Chiang, Li, and Wang (2023), Cáceres-Feria, Hernández-Ramírez, and Ruiz-Ballesteros (2021), and Xu, Jiang, Wall, and Wang (2019), exhibit limited coverage of rural villages. Similarly, studies undertaken by Koodsela, Dong, and Sukpatch (2019), Brochado, Rodrigues, Sousa, Borges, Veloso, and Gómez-Suárez (2023), and Rasoolimanesh, Ringle, Jaafar, and Ramayah (2017) have examined barriers to community participation at the urban level. A notable gap is evident in the concentration on tourism-dependent destinations, where tourism significantly aligns with local development initiatives. In such regions, tourism is the primary economic sector, substantially contributing to the overall economic value of the area. Conversely, regions, where alternative industries hold greater prominence, might still have a few renowned and successful tourist attractions. For instance, Metz, France, with its focus on information technology and

automotive industries, boasts attractions like the Centre Pompidou-Metz and Saint Etienne's Cathedral, which collectively drew over 222k and 328k visitors, respectively, in 2022 (Visit Metz n.d.). Hamburg, Germany, known for its maritime, aviation, biotech, and media sectors, features the highly acclaimed Miniatur Wunderland museum, ranking as the second most popular tourist destination in Germany for 2022/2023 (German National Tourist Board n.d.). This research gap necessitates a comprehensive investigation into sustainable tourism development and community participation in regions where tourism does not constitute the principal industry. Such a study would address the dynamics and challenges of tourism development in non-tourism-dependent areas, shedding light on the integration of tourism with diverse economic sectors and its impact on residents.

These identified gaps confirm the necessity for a study that addresses the limitations highlighted in earlier research. Consequently, this study is undertaken within the context of South Korea. With respect to the first gap, Korea was classified as a developed country as of 2021, known for its considerable advancements in the realms of economics (OECD n.d.) and democracy (Economist Intelligence Unit 2022). In terms of educational achievements, the higher education enrolment rate was recorded at 73.8% as of 2022 (Korean Statistical Information Service (KOSIS) 2022). Moreover, in terms of educational attainment (short-cycle, bachelor, master, and PhD), approximately 53% of individuals aged between 25 and 64, and 70% of those aged between 25 and 34, were recorded in Korea in 2022. These figures exceeded the averages of OECD countries, which stood at 40% and 47% respectively (OECD 2023).

Regarding the second gap, individuals in Korea are provided with legal assurances for active involvement in a range of processes, encompassing legislation, administration, and diplomacy, as stipulated by the Administrative Procedure Act (2019). In relation to the third gap, the geographical location of Korea in East Asia, situated between China and Japan, has fostered the strong influence of Confucianism and collectivism in shaping societal norms (Academy of Korean Studies n.d.). This influence implies the presence of distinct relational attributes among local stakeholders that differ from those observed in other cultural contexts.

Regarding the final point, Korean local governments have encountered difficulties in the development and promotion of their cities or rural areas as comprehensive tourist destinations. These challenges stem from a lack of capability to identify and create tourism resources and content (Bae 2020), difficulties in harnessing environmental resources (Park, K. 2021), and a shortage of human resources, including both residents and workers in the tourism

sector, as well as reduced local income taxes (Lee, An, and You 2021). Consequently, local authorities have adopted an alternative strategy, concentrating their efforts on establishing tourist attractions within their regions. Theme parks represent the most prominent example of this approach, aimed at stimulating the local economy and shaping the local identity (Bae 2020; Kwon 2015). As of 2021, the number of registered amusement establishments¹ has reached 2,543, indicating a 68% increase compared to 2016 (1,510 establishments) and an impressive 1,077% increase compared to 2011 (216 establishments) (Tourism Knowledge and Information System n.d.). Given these circumstances, it is essential to conduct a comprehensive analysis of these particular regions, as they might lead to significant implications. Also, this research could uncover strategies for fostering sustainable development, residents' participation, and tourism growth in areas where tourism is not the primary economic driver. Understanding how Korean cases manage to leverage their tourist attractions can provide valuable insights for relevant stakeholders seeking to promote holistic local tourism development and sustainable tourism practices.

1.2.2 Research Gaps of Studies on CBT in a Theme Park Development

In literary discourse, a theme park is defined in various contexts, ranging from being a “permanent resource for enjoyment, amusement and entertainment” (Bhuvaneshwari and Mathi 2018: 199) to a “subset of visitor attractions” (Raluca and Gina 2018: 635), and an “attempt to create an atmosphere of another place and time” (Walker 2021: 256). Essentially, it is a multifaceted recreational space characterised by its thematic construction, cohesive environment, and integration of diverse elements such as entertainment, leisure, culture, and education.

Theme parks are a significant tourism attraction, with the top 25 theme parks worldwide receiving approximately 254m visitors in 2019 (Themed Entertainment Association and AECOM 2020: 13). Theme parks, including Disneyland and Universal Studios, are a strong motivation for global tourists to travel. From the perspective of local communities that contain these theme parks, they significantly contribute toward the local economy (Zhang and Shan 2016), enhancing the sustainability of local resources (Milman, Okumus, and Dickson

¹ A theme park is classified as an amusement establishment according to the Korean Tourism Promotion Act

2010), utilising the territorial and urban planning (Clavé and Clarke 2007) and promoting the local image (Bae, Moon, Jun, Kim, and Ju 2018).

Theme parks have evolved beyond being mere attractions to leisure and entertainment spots (Lo and Leung 2015), following the market and consumption trends (Bae et al. 2018; McClung 1991). Today, in particular, interactive and experiential elements using the five senses have replaced the existing mechanical rides and attractions (Milman 2009). As prior studies have found, participating in various activities influences visitors' satisfaction and behaviour (Geissler and Rucks 2011; Ghorbanzade, Mehrani, and Rahehagh 2019; Lee, Jeong, and Qu 2020); thus, experience is of great importance in theme park management.

Following this trend, in recent years, theme parks based on natural resources have developed various attractions and programmes for visitors (Kim and Ahn 2018). With increasing concerns regarding the destruction of wildlife habitats and demands for persistent biological diversity, attractions that allow observation of and interactions with natural resources have garnered significant interest (Milman, Okumus, and Dickson 2010; Shani and Pizam 2010). For example, some theme parks focus more on preservation and public education based on the unique theme of local nature and culture (Hollinshead 2009). For example, in Singapore, Jurong Bird Park (Wildlife Reserves Singapore 2018) strives to conserve birds' habitats by operating the Bird Discovery Centre, which educates visitors about the avian world, and the Breeding and Research Centre, which provides visitors with an exclusive experience of observing the growth process of birds. In Australia, Taronga Zoo (Taronga Conservation Society Australia n.d.) is committed to conserving wildlife, animal welfare, guest experience, sustainability, work health, and safety.

In Japan, various theme parks utilise local culture and environment, such as Ryugujo Butterfly Garden (Okinawa), Okinawa World (Okinawa), and Farm Tomita (Hokkaido). Since 1979, a movement named 'One Village One Product²' has been promoted as a regional development programme, aiming at revitalising the local economy by establishing local brands with local commodities (Asian Productivity Organization 2021). This movement has linked local products, local specialities, and traditional culture with theme parks, contributing to the development of the local economy.

² 一村一品運動 (isson'ippin'undou)

Hereafter, in this study article, the term '*local theme park*' will be used for convenience. This park does not suggest a subordinate concept to a central theme park; instead, there are certain aspects that differentiate local theme parks from global commercial theme parks such as Disneyland, Legoland, or Universal Studios. First, local theme parks are developed as part of regional development initiatives, minimising the role of global capital. Instead, they utilise local communities' cultural and natural resources to protect local resources, educate people, and revitalise the local economy through community engagement. In other words, a local theme park takes into consideration local value (culture and environment), local resources (products and people), and local development.

Second, there is a difference in ownership and shareholders. Local theme parks have more public features, with operators being local-based companies or governments. For example, Jurong Bird Park is operated by a non-profit organisation (Mandai Wildlife Group), and Taronga Zoo is operated by the Government of New South Wales (Taronga Conservation Society). In addition, Okinawa World is operated by a local Okinawa company (Nanto Corporation), and Anseong Farmland is operated by an agribusiness group incorporated, an affiliated organisation of the National Agricultural Cooperative Federation (Nonghyup). On the contrary, conventional theme parks have more private features aiming at maximising revenues and attracting global investment. Therefore, they comprise numerous private and external investors with subsidiaries, for example, Walt Disney Company (Disneyland), NBCUniversal Media (Universal Studios), and Merlin Entertainments (Legoland).

Finally, it is common for global theme park operators to integrate the local culture into theme park management. For example, Disneyland has applied glocalisation (a combination of globalisation and localisation) strategies in operating theme parks abroad in France, Japan, Hong Kong, and China (Feng, Wu, and Yi 2021; Fung and Lee 2009; Matusitz 2010). These strategies create an intimate environment for local visitors and compete with other local tourist destinations and attractions by providing local foods and beverages and holding festivals in the target country's style. However, since the primary resources at a local theme park are also local to promote the local culture and people's livelihood, the expansion to other regions (including overseas) is infeasible. Since most visitors are from other regions and themes and resources have been localised since the local theme parks' inception, the experiential elements and attractions should be unique and exotic to be more competitive.

Features of local theme parks aimed at community development based on local values

reveal the necessity of studying residents' participation at the theme park level by applying the CBT approach.

1.3 The South Korean Context and Study Cases

1.3.1 Overview of The South Korean Context in Tourism Development

After the Korean War ceased in 1953, South Korea recorded unprecedented economic growth from the 1960s to the 1990s. The Korean Developmental State Model, which was presided over by the central government during President Park Chung-hee's era (1963-1979), played a strategic role in economic industrialisation (Peciak 2018). However, excessive central government intervention in the economy hindered the market's effective operation (Kim, B. 2012), leading to the dissolution of the model. Following this, in the late 1990s, the local autonomy system, which separates vertical powers and realises local diversity and democracy (Baek 2016), was introduced and reformed.

In tourism development, the Developmental State Model had only focused on developing physical facilities, intensifying the negative perception of tourism development (Kim 1994). In the early period of the local autonomy system, local tourism development plans faced various limitations as they could not be linked to the central government's plans (Lee 1994), and various collaborative functions could not be executed due to their short history (Kang 1999).

Currently, South Korea is in a transitional stage with power being decentralised from the central government to the local government; there have been ongoing studies discussing decentralisation from various perspectives of administration, the constitution and relationships between the central government and the local government (Choi 2020; Kim, Y. 2018; Koo 2020). Especially in the tourism sector, various local governments and ministries have been promoting sustainable tourism planning and development. Residents living nearby or within tourist destinations are encouraged to participate in tourism development directly or indirectly as hosts (Kim and Choi 2017) because sustainable tourism would not be possible without residents' participation (Eom 2013).

However, local governments and ministries continue to follow the same strategies and processes as before while promoting sustainable tourism. Therefore, sustainable tourism

development cases, differentiated distinctly from conventional tourism development, are lacking (Kang, Choi, Kim, and Yoon 2004). Many reported cases have not witnessed any discussions or deliberations on how to encourage residents to participate in local tourism development (Eom 2018; Jinyang and Mun 2014), creating a gap between the literature and the practice. These gaps identified in theme park development in Korea will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

1.3.2 Rationale for Study Cases

In line with the research gaps mentioned above, Gwangmyeong Cave³ and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park⁴, theme parks in South Korea, have been chosen as focal study cases. Representing local resources and values of each region, these local theme parks have served as prominent tourist destinations for over a decade, amassing annual visitors of over 645k and 172k as of 2022, respectively (refer to Appendix 4 and 7). These theme parks exemplify the most notable cases of tourist attractions within regions not primarily dependent on tourism. The majority of residents in these areas are actively involved in the manufacturing sector, with Gwangmyeong specialising in wholesale and retail and Yongin focusing on transportation and storage (see Appendix 11 and 12). Each local authority is responsible for managing these attractions and actively fosters residents' participation through initiatives such as idea competitions, establishing tourism networks with nearby regions, and facilitating public hearings and presentations.

In this regard, these two cases are anticipated to significantly and substantially contribute to the comprehension and awareness of sustainable tourism and the CBT approach, serving as crucial and illustrative research examples in the subsequent domains. Initially, by amalgamating the notion of residents' participation with theme park development, CBT investigation can be broadened to encompass theme park-related cases, thereby demonstrating the adaptability and versatility of the CBT approach. Secondly, by examining the development process, wherein the engagement of residents is both administratively and legally warranted, the dynamic interplay between local authorities, residents, and systems can be recognised, thus

³ 광명동굴 (gwang-myeong-dong-gul)

⁴ 용인농촌테마파크 (yong-in-nong-chon-te-ma-pa-keu)

highlighting the intricate nature of local governance in the context of sustainable tourism. Thirdly, it is viable to explore the inhabitants' perspective on tourism advancement and participation via non-tourism-dependent regions' cases and to scrutinise the affiliation with the inherent community culture, thereby emphasising the profound impact of community culture on tourism development and participation. Further elaboration on the development strategies and policies of these theme parks is provided in Chapter 3.

1.4 Aims and Objectives of the Study

The decentralisation level in South Korea is in its infancy, requiring further research and reformation, with the average financial independence of local governments being 50.4% as of 2020 (KOSIS 2020), and local governments serving as a platform to deliver projects from various central government ministries (Nam 2016). Moreover, the current provisions of the relevant act, introduced to promote residents' participation, are very formal and limited (Cho 2015). These issues are not unique to the tourism sector.

In South Korea, theme parks have been developed in connection with local tourism development; they aim to provide experiences and recreation facilities based on the unique natural resources in the region and contribute to the revitalisation of the local economy. Therefore, with an emphasis on community participation, local governments have tried to induce direct or indirect participation of residents in tourism development and create a tourism network by establishing local governance among relevant stakeholders.

Hence, based on two cases (Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park), this study's aims are as follows:

1. To identify barriers to residents' participation in local tourism at the theme park level and examine the factors impeding their active involvement
2. To analyse the drivers and essential components of effective local tourism governance within theme parks, including aspects such as participation, empowerment, collaboration, partnership, and coordination.

This study primarily emphasises residents' involvement in CBT from their perspective. Despite the essential components of CBT, such as participation, empowerment, collaboration, and local tourism governance, characterised by partnerships and coordination, there is an insufficient understanding of these elements in the context of theme park development. Several factors evidence this.

First, prior research in the field of theme park studies has primarily focused on physical aspects such as spatial layout, visitor behaviours, and specific attributes (Chen, Liu, and Zhao 2023; Cho 2022; Ko 2023; Zhang, Liang, and Bao 2021), without adequately addressing the challenges that affect residents' participation in local tourism development within the theme park area. Second, while some scholarly studies emphasise the importance of residents' engagement and support for sustainable tourism (Han and You 2022; Lee 2022; Obradović, Stojanović, Knežević, and Milić 2022; Phuc and Nguyen 2023), feasibility studies conducted by various Korean local governments, including those in Buyeo, Miryang, Buan, Wonju, and Sunchang, indicate that the local authorities have predominantly led their theme park development projects, with limited provisions for residents' active participation in the decision-making process. Furthermore, although the guidelines published by the central government of Korea recommend seeking residents' input when necessary, the residents' role has typically been confined to providing suggestions, resulting in their limited influence and marginalisation in the process.

Recent developments have necessitated an in-depth discussion on strategies aimed at enhancing the participation and empowerment of residents. Notably, in South Korea, the theme park development project in Jeju in 2021 encountered significant challenges (Lee 2021), while the successful progress of the theme park development project in Busan in 2023 (Lee 2023) emphasised the crucial role of nurturing residents' relationships and effective communication. Similarly, in the United Kingdom, tensions arose during the proposal of a rollercoaster theme park at Elterwater Quarry in the Lake District in 2022, as evidenced by the submission of opposing petitions by an estimated 6k residents.

These instances from both countries validate the importance of adopting a resident-centric approach in research related to theme park development. Such an approach should involve a thorough examination of the residents' roles and their interplay with the theme park development process, transcending the conventional managerial and visitor perspectives. Additionally, a thorough investigation of the barriers to and drivers for establishing local

tourism development is crucial, necessitating a focused study on residents' active participation in the context of CBT studies.

In order to achieve these aims, objectives are as follows:

1. To contribute to the advancement of knowledge in sustainable tourism development by undertaking a comprehensive critical review of fundamental theories and concepts such as stakeholder theory, collaboration theory, Community-Based Tourism (CBT), and tourism governance, culminating in the development of a robust theoretical framework that synthesises and integrates these perspectives.
2. To conduct a detailed examination of the developmental trajectories of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park, exploring how resident participation has influenced the evolution of these destinations' development strategies and planning processes. By scrutinising the patterns of involvement and engagement among residents, this research aims to illuminate the dynamics of community participation in tourism development initiatives.
3. To employ qualitative research methods, including interviews, to delve deeper into the complexities surrounding residents' participation in tourism development. Through in-depth exploration and analysis, this study seeks to identify and assess the diverse range of barriers and drivers that shape residents' attitudes and behaviours towards participation, thereby providing valuable insights into the facilitators and inhibitors of community engagement in sustainable tourism projects.
4. To bridge existing academic gaps and enhance theoretical understanding in the field of sustainable tourism development by refining and extending the theoretical framework established in Objective 1. Building upon insights gained from empirical investigations and stakeholder engagement, this research aims to develop an updated and enriched theoretical model that addresses identified deficiencies and makes substantive contributions to the advancement of Community-Based Tourism (CBT) approaches and effective tourism governance practices.

With respect to Objective 3, based on the two study cases, this study examines three central relationships: the first relationship explores the dynamic between residents and local

authorities. Communication and trusting relationships are critical for decentralisation and residents' participation (Choi 2016b; Kang and Lee 2020). The direct partnerships between residents and local authorities are identified as potential influencers on the determinants of participation. The second relationship centres on the interaction between residents and participatory systems. The implementation of a decentralised local autonomy system has triggered the activation of the residents' participation process, as evidenced by Yoon, Park, and Cho (2022). Various participatory systems, including the Participatory Budgeting System, public hearings, and presentations, not only facilitate residents' participation but also enable them to express their opinions as stakeholders. The final relationship investigates the dynamics among residents themselves. Building on previous studies by Park, J. (2021) and Kim et al. (2021), the research corroborates that successful collaboration in tourism development hinges on intra-group relationships. This implies that conflict management serves as an effective strategy for fostering collaboration among residents. By scrutinising interactions and relationships among residents in the study cases, the findings contribute theoretically to the identification of critical elements in social coordination within the realm of theme park development and sustainable tourism development.

This study is structured into eight chapters. Chapter 2 delves into the theories and theoretical frameworks relevant to this study. Chapter 3 presents case studies elucidating the history and current state of tourism governance in the context of South Korea, delineating the developmental policies and strategies of two theme parks. Chapter 4 explains the methodologies employed in this study, while Chapters 5, 6, and 7 offer analyses and discussions based on the acquired data. Finally, Chapter 8 provides a comprehensive summary of the entire study, along with its theoretical and practical implications.

The subsequent chapter concentrates on theories and concepts. Serving as a guide for research, theories and theoretical frameworks offer focused and comprehensive ideas (Adom, Hussein, and Agyem 2018), allowing readers to comprehend the progression of the study's objectives and aims. Theories provide the rationale behind the conducted study (Bryman 2012), aiding researchers in comprehending the phenomena (Kivunja 2018) and analysing and establishing relationships among them (Kawulich 2009). Consequently, theoretical frameworks ensure the consistency of the research (Green 2014) and select the concepts to be explored (Corbin and Strauss 2008).

Chapter 2. Theoretical Frameworks

From the discussions in Chapter 1, two fundamental points emerge in the realm of sustainable tourism development: first, the active engagement of stakeholders, and second, the collaborative endeavours of these stakeholders. These points are encapsulated in the explanation provided by UN Tourism (n.d.) that “sustainable tourism development necessitates the informed participation of all pertinent stakeholders”. Consequently, within the framework of sustainable tourism development, it becomes imperative to comprehend both the essence of stakeholders (Part 2.1) and the intricacies of their collaborative procedures (Part 2.2). A myriad of studies in sustainable tourism has delved into stakeholder theory, scrutinising the roles, perspectives, and attitudes of stakeholders (Byrd 2007; Khazaei, Elliot and Joppe 2015; Nguyen, Young, Johnson, and Wearing 2019; Rasoolimanesh and Jaafar 2017; Song, Zhu, Fong 2021). Concurrently, collaboration theory has been invoked in numerous tourism studies to probe factors such as advantages or impediments that facilitate stakeholder participation (Eyisi, Lee, and Trees 2021; Graci 2013; Jamal and Stronza 2009; Wondirad, Tolkach, and King 2020). The theoretical frameworks provide implications for this study by shedding light on the dynamics and networks existing among stakeholders. Moving onto the community level, the CBT approach, an alternative to conventional approaches, is suggested as a sustainable development process, emphasising residents’ participation and empowerment. Finally, as a systematic and formalised collaboration mechanism, drivers of forming local tourism governance are focused on and identified. This process presents frameworks on barriers (Table 2.3) and drivers of residents’ participation (Table 2.5).

2.1 Stakeholder Theory

2.1.1 Concept of Stakeholder

Traditionally, in the business sector, there have been multiple works of literature that have identified the concept of stakeholders. Freeman (1984: 46) asserts that “a stakeholder in an organisation is any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation’s objectives”. From a corporate perspective, he views *affecting* as the core of the stakeholder concept. In other words, Mitchell, Agle, and Wood (1997) argued in Freeman’s definition that a person who is unaffected or does not affect the firm is excluded from holding a stake. Clarkson (1995: 106) defines “stakeholders are persons or groups that have, or claim,

ownership, rights, or interests in a corporation and its activities, past, present, or future”. He states that stakeholders could be grouped according to similar interests, claims and rights. Donaldson and Preston (1995: 67) describe that “stakeholders are persons or groups with legitimate interests in procedural and/or substantive aspects of corporate activity”. Their definition explains that persons or groups must have legitimate interests in corporations to be identified as stakeholders (Byrd 2007). These definitions allow corporates to consider a broader range of stakeholders associated with corporate activities. Moreover, the theory has been used to outline corporations’ particular features and activities (Hawrysz and Maj 2017).

Since the remarkable work on the stakeholder from Freeman (1984), the question started in “What is a stakeholder?” has shifted to “What principles should govern stakeholders’ interactions? (Freeman 1994: 411)”. In this regard, the stakeholder theory has been broadly advanced to normative, instrumental and descriptive aspects (Donaldson and Preston 1995; Eesley and Lenox 2006; Freeman 1994; Jawahar and McLaughlin 2001; Jones 1995; Mitchell, Agle and Wood 1997; Reed 1999; Zakhem and Palmer 2017). *The normative aspect* is based on the ethical frameworks (Eesley and Lenox 2006) linked to the way that corporations should be governed (Freeman 1994) and the moral or philosophical guidelines (Donaldson and Preston 1995). In this aspect, the guiding principle is that all stakeholders have inherent moral worth or value (Zakhem and Palmer 2017). *The instrumental aspect* is about “what will happen if managers or firms behave in certain ways?” (Jones 1995: 406). Studies on the instrumental aspect have been interested in describing the connection between stakeholder management and the achievement of traditional corporate objectives (Donaldson and Preston 1995). They have tried to produce connotations that corporates devoted to stakeholders achieve corporate performance objectives (Donaldson and Preston 1995; Eesley and Lenox 2006). This aspect clarifies issues by presuming the fundamental role of management (Reed 1999). *The descriptive aspect* describes particular corporate characteristics and behaviours (Donaldson and Preston 1995; Jawahar and McLaughlin 2001). Based on the question “what happens?” (Jones 1995: 406), it explains the actual behaviours of corporations to interact with stakeholders (Eesley and Lenox 2006; Hawrysz and Maj 2017; Hult, Mena, Ferrell, and Ferrell 2011).

In line with these aspects, Mitchell, Agle, and Wood (1997: 854) have attempted to identify stakeholder salience, defining it as “the degree to which managers prioritise competing stakeholder claims”. Consequently, they find three relationship attributes of stakeholders:

power, legitimacy, and urgency. *Power* could be conceptualised as an authority (Myllykangas, Kujala, and Lehtimäki 2010). It means imposing its will in the relationship when a stakeholder obtains access to coercive (force/threat), utilitarian (material/incentives) or normative (symbolic influences) means (Kivits 2011; Mitchell, Agle, and Wood 1997; Pedrosa-Ortega, Hernandez-Ortiz, Garcia-Marti, and Vallejo-Martos 2019). *Legitimacy* is regarded as a “desirable social good” (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood 1997: 867), which could be shared larger than self-perception at various levels of social organisations. It is also referred to as socially accepted or expected structures or behaviours (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood 1997; Myllykangas, Kujala, and Lehtimäki 2010), justified on ethical grounds (Pedrosa-Ortega et al. 2019). *Urgency* is “the degree to which stakeholder claims call for immediate attention. (Mitchell, Agle and Wood 1997: 867; Myllykangas, Kujala, and Lehtimäki 2010: 66; Pedrosa-Ortega et al. 2019: 576)”. Mitchell, Agle, and Wood (1997) explain that it is based on time sensitivity (the degree to which managerial delay in attending to the claim or relationship is unacceptable to the stakeholder) and criticality (the significance of the claim or the relationship to the stakeholder).

The stakeholder salience model from Mitchell, Agle, and Wood (1997), which includes power, legitimacy and urgency, has been widely used in various studies such as stakeholder prioritisation (Hall, Millo and Barman 2015; Mints and Kamyshnykova 2019) and stakeholder influence (Eesley and Lenox 2006; Neville and Menguc 2006; Thijssens, Bollen, and Hassink 2015).

However, the stakeholder salience model has been criticised by numerous authors and has drawn a few limitations. It is defined as describing stakeholders’ attributes without identifying stakeholders who would be salient to management (Jawahar and McLaughlin 2001). Also, it lacks attachment to dynamics in stakeholder relationships (Myllykangas, Kujala, and Lehtimäki 2010) and focuses exclusively on managers (Beaulieu and Pasquero 2002). The approach to stakeholder identification primarily focuses on economic-contractual roles and relationships from the corporate perspective (Crane and Ruebottom 2011). Moreover, Neville, Bell and Whitwell (2011) assert that although urgency provides a dynamic dimension, it is not relevant to identifying stakeholders. Driscoll and Starik (2004) have pointed out that in terms of the relationship between business organisations and the natural environment, legitimacy and urgency appear to be gaining rights through economic-based power, suggesting that *Proximity* should be included in addition to the three attributes. *Proximity* is an additional attribute that

incorporates the near and the far, the short- and the long-term, and the actual and the potential (Driscoll and Starik 2004). Jensen and Sandström (2011) have raised concerns about the change of power relations, impacting key stakeholders and dimensions of responsibility in the globalised era. In this regard, Freeman (2017) raises the need to describe the relationships between various stakeholders and measure total performance tailored to the 21st Century.

2.1.2 Stakeholders in Sustainable Tourism

From a traditional business perspective, Clarkson (1995) has categorised stakeholder groups into two: *primary* and *secondary*. A primary stakeholder group is “one without whose continuing participation the corporation cannot survive as a going concern (Clarkson 1995: 106)”. This group is intensely interdependent on a corporation, including shareholders, investors, employees, customers, suppliers, the government, and communities (Akpınar 2009). Stakeholders in this group are considered resource providers and owners of capital (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood 1997). They are known to create options and decisions and the assessment of their demands (Hult et al. 2011); the survival and success of a corporation rely on the capability of managers to generate good wealth, value or satisfaction for them (Clarkson 1995). Due to the contractual relationships between a corporation and this group, primary stakeholders are conspicuous (Hult et al. 2011).

On the contrary, secondary stakeholder groups are “those who are not engaged in transactions with the corporation and not essential for its survival (Clarkson 1995: 107)”. Nevertheless, Clarkson further addressed that they still affect or are affected by the corporation. This group includes media (mass or social), trade associations, and special interest groups, but they do not have contractual responsibilities with a corporation or invoke legal authority (Eesley and Lenox 2006; Hult et al. 2011). Although a secondary stakeholder group is not interdependent with a corporation, they might oppose the policies or programmes that the corporation adopts, causing disruptions to its operations (Clarkson 1995; Eesley and Lenox 2006).

Clarkson’s category is meaningful in that it is straightforward and comprehensive (Preble 2005), providing a new managerial model that ensures organisations recognise stakeholders’ interests and characteristics (Mainardes, Alves, and Raposo 2012). However, traditional stakeholder theory has been criticised for being limited to the firm (Scholl 2001).

Nevertheless, it leaves the way open for expanding to sustainable tourism development. From a normative aspect, Donaldson and Preston (1995) argue that each stakeholder group might have the right to be treated as an end in itself, not to some other end. As the collaboration requires fair and comprehensive participation, stakeholders' interests should be in the organisation, not the organisation's interests in stakeholders (Byrd 2007). The instrumental aspect enables identifying stakeholder connections and desired outcomes among stakeholders. Collaboration theory presupposes that collaborating towards common objectives and values could conceivably benefit all the stakeholders (Maiden 2008). The descriptive aspect has been used to explain precisely a corporation's characteristics and behaviour (Hardy 2001). Based on this aspect, the theory could describe the past, present and future state of tourism in a community (Byrd 2007) and interactions among stakeholders.

In modern society, collaborative governance, which brings multiple stakeholders to participate in coincident decision-making, has emerged as a new governing strategy for policy-making and public management (Ansell and Gash 2008). Especially in the tourism sector, inter-organisational networks in a destination and collaboration among organisations are considered significant (Bichler and Lösch 2019; Ruhanen 2009; Scott, Cooper, and Baggio 2008). It is because a tourism destination is complicated with interrelated entities (Van der Zee, Gerrets, and Vanneste 2017) and is a cluster of networks where stakeholders interact (Zemla 2016).

UNWTO (2013: 20-21) has explored the potential stakeholders and their roles in the delivery of sustainable tourism: *international development assistance agencies; national government; local government and destination bodies; private sector business; employees and related bodies; NGOs - international, national and local; education and training bodies, local community; and consumers/tourists*. For successful stakeholder participation, UNWTO (2013) requires responsible actions for tourism enterprises, policy and strategic framework both at the national and local level for government, and appropriate advice and expertise for NGOs. Also, they require involvement in planning and decisions on tourism for local communities and responsible behaviour for tourists.

Byrd (2007) has suggested five elements to be included in stakeholder participation to achieve sustainable tourism: *fairness, efficiency, knowledge, wisdom, and stability*. Despite its subjectivity, *fairness* is regarded as one of the determinants in the equitable collaboration process (Keyim 2018), consolidating the belief that entire stakeholders' interests are considered (Byrd 2007). Bryd (2007) asks for *efficiency* in the development process. He further discusses

that even though the process is perceived as fair, it might not be successful if it is not efficient. The value of *knowledge* sharing through networks and partnerships has been focused on delivering compound tourism products (Baggio and Cooper 2010). As knowledge itself becomes a “part of negotiation (Deelstra, Nooteboom, Kohlmann, Van den Berg, and Innanen 2003: 523)”, the same level of knowledge should be equally given to all stakeholders (Byrd 2007). Stakeholders need the *wisdom* to predict objective information that decisions will be based on in the future (Byrd 2007). The need for the formation of local wisdom has increased, especially in rural tourism, in that it could maintain a balance between nature and resource management, thereby making the community sustainable (Farhan and Anwar 2016; Vitasurya 2016). *Stability* is related to the continuity of decision and development (Byrd 2007). A secured political, cultural, social and economic stability would provide all stakeholders with the framework for capable motivation, enhanced competence, and an expanded perspective to approach more sustainable structures of tourism developments (Tosun, Fletcher, and Fyall 2006).

Traditional perceptions of stakeholders have begun with an *influence* on the corporate. In other words, stakeholders have been understood to be individuals or groups affected or affect corporations in connection with the corporation’s activities. However, in the stakeholder theory, stakeholders are limited only to economic-contractual roles from the perspective of corporates and only to explain the attributes of stakeholders rather than identifying legitimate stakeholders.

Nevertheless, stakeholder theory, which values relationships and interactions between stakeholders, has evolved into discussions regarding tourism development stakeholders. As vertical and centralised traditional tourism development policies have resulted in adverse social and environmental outcomes, discussions have begun on sustainable tourism in which stakeholders resolve issues within the region through horizontal and decentralised collaborations, centring around a destination at the local level.

Therefore, following the notion of sustainable tourism, terms such as collaboration, partnerships and networks among stakeholders have been widely used and focused in the decision-making process (Baggio and Cooper 2010; Bramwell and Sharman 1999; Jamal and Getz 1995; Jamal and Stronza 2009; Keyim 2018; Robertson 2011; Stoddart, Catano, Ramons, Vodden, Lowery, and Butters 2020).

However, there are concerns that forced cooperation or exclusion might emerge

(Lasker, Weiss, and Miller 2001), and sufficient resources might not be provided (Zahra 2011). Also, conflicts could arise due to differences in preferred policy outcomes and objectives between actors (Bramwell and Lane 2011; Heslinga, Groote, and Vanclay 2019; Zahra 2011). Moreover, excessive competition among actors might arise during the coordination process (Peters 2018). Besides, limited stakeholder participation and the local government's passive attitude are thresholds in the case study of collaborative governance (Lee and Kee 2019). It is because collaborative tourism development is still a strange concept for some stakeholders and lacks understanding and systematic support for collaborative procedures.

Hence, the next part deals with propositions and procedures for successful collaboration among stakeholders, relating to collaborative procedures' facilitating conditions and actions.

2.2 Collaboration Theory

Concept of Collaboration

'*Collaboration*' has been frequently used in various sectors. For example, the entertainment industry uses this word when two or more different artists produce new artworks. In the business sector, collaboration has been strategically used among companies or with external entities with several aims such as innovation (Majava, Isoherranen, and Kess 2013), sharing mutual benefits (Alrajhi and Aydin 2019), formation of solid alliances (Nevin 2014) and the social alignment of actions (Høgevold, Svensson, and Otero-Neira 2019). That is, collaboration requires two or more individuals to work together to produce something.

The recent tourism industry has been affected by globalisation. As new markets, new destinations, and new demands appear along with globalisation, the industry's size is getting bigger and bigger and more complicated than ever (Chiu, Zhang, and Ding 2021; Nieves and Uribe 2015). It has created more room for various stakeholders with diverse views, values and interests to participate in the development process. That is, as a "joint decision-making among key stakeholders" (Gray 1989: 11), collaboration is a process that collectively encompasses diverse interests of stakeholders, requiring values such as partnership (Bramwell and Lane 2000), interplay (Pansiri 2013) and legitimacy (Zapata and Hall 2012). More propositions and detailed procedures for successful collaboration in sustainable tourism are explored below.

2.2.1 Propositions of Collaboration

The first proposition is that the stakeholder groups should be attentive to a high degree of interdependence within the community. Gray (1985) asserts that the acknowledgement by stakeholder groups that their actions are inevitably connected to other stakeholders' actions is a vital fundamental for collaboration. It is significant to recognise the degree of interdependence on each other. Without the recognition of interdependence between stakeholders, collaborative efforts could not occur.

The second proposition for collaboration recognises individual and/or mutual benefits to be derived from the process. Each stakeholder's participation in collaborative tourism development is motivated by mutual benefits. Individual organisations would consider two factors before participating in the collaboration: the overall interests of the organisation in consequence and perceived interdependence with other groups in dealing with social problems efficiently (Logsdon 1991). Environmental stakeholders would consider the twin goals: protecting nature and landscape and regional socio-economic development for achieving long-term sustainability (Heslinga, Groote, and Vancley 2019). In a public-private partnership, financial, economic and managerial motivations work as mutual benefits (Son and Kim 2011).

Third, the legitimacy of stakeholders is a crucial issue. In the collaboration process, the allocation of power among stakeholders affects the recognition of legitimacy (Gray 1985). In other words, although it is perceived that the collaboration process would be implemented, some groups sceptical of the tourism planning process might find themselves less influential and are, therefore, unsure of their participation (Jamal and Getz 1995). Some stakeholders disagree with the legitimacy of other stakeholders, which in turn causes collaboration to fail gradually (Gray 1985). Therefore, it is necessary to recognise the trust relationship between the stakeholders as social capital (Lee and Kee 2019) and give explicit descriptions of the purpose of promising collaboration to groups that hesitate to participate (Jamal and Getz 1995).

Fourth, the groups of stakeholders could contain not only local governments but also public organisations, tourism industry associations, residents' organisations, and special interest groups. As the method of tourism development has changed from centralised to decentralised, various stakeholders, mainly residents, are receiving a lot of attention and research on their attributes and roles is actively underway.

As the fifth proposition, the existence of a convener who initiates and facilitates CBT

collaboration has been proposed. A convener, perceived as legitimate and adequately unbiased by all stakeholders (Gray 1985), recognises and takes all appropriate stakeholders to the table (Jamal and Getz 1995). Also, a convener takes a step backwards to strengthen collective decision-making and consensus-building so that the participation of stakeholders would be enhanced (Bramwell and Sharman 1999). A convener includes a government agency, an industry enterprise or a local tourist organisation. However, Nardi, Marzano, and Mendieta (2015) and Huxham (2003) describe a convener as a *thug* who is manoeuvrable wielding agendas and playing politics. Also, both call this behaviour *collaborative thuggery* because it is the action of the stakeholders who devote time and endeavour to outline the agenda to correspond to their interests and play politics.

The final proposition is the formulation of vision statements and tourism objectives and the self-regulation of the planning and development domain by establishing a collaborative organisation. The coincidence among stakeholders on shared objectives and values facilitates the correct setting of direction in tourism development (Gray 1985). In particular, socio-economic organisations with a collaborative network within the region continue their diverse activities with continued interest in promoting public values, such as creating a regional cultural base and establishing regional identity (Song and Yun 2019). However, self-regulation could turn into a short-term self-interest of organisations (Bramwell and Lane 2010), and community collaboration could degenerate into a vision document ratified by the local council (Jamal and Getz 1995).

Synthesising the body of McCann's (1983) literature on inter-organisational collaboration, Gray (1985) has outlined a model of three conditions that lead to collaboration. The first condition is a *problem setting* that identifies vital stakeholders within a domain and issues. The second is a *direction setting*, which enunciates the shared values and recognises common goals and directions. The final condition is an *implementation (structuring)* where stakeholders produce a system for sustaining concurring values and organising order within the domain. Following Gray's inter-organisational collaboration model, Jamal and Getz (1995) have developed a framework for CBT planning with conditions and steps for facilitating each stage.

2.2.2 Procedures of Collaboration

First Stage: Problem Setting

Collaboration in tourism planning is complicated, given that each of the diverse stakeholders has different perspectives and vital vested interests (Jamal and Getz 1995). Therefore, for the first stage of collaborative tourism planning, identifying the legitimacy of stakeholders and issues within the domain are defined. Legitimacy has been considered one of the significant and crucial aspects of identifying an inclusive stakeholder (Jamal and Getz 1995; Mitchell, Agle, and Wood 1997).

Scharpf (2003) distinguishes legitimacy by two accounts: input-oriented legitimacy and output-oriented legitimacy. Input-oriented legitimacy is formed by the standards of participation (Roldan, Duit, and Schultz 2019). It is based on the questions asking whether there is adequate and informed participation in the political procedures of all those relevantly affected by the decisions taken (Birnbaum 2016). By contrast, output-oriented legitimacy is gained from the result (Karlsson-Vinkhuyzen 2016; Roldan, Duit, and Schultz 2019), depending on governing institutions. It is based on the questions asking whether administrative procedures produce a result that productively serves the common good (Birnbaum 2016). Thus, legitimacy in the collaboration process induces two judgements: the first is whether there is a form of fair and comprehensive participation in the policy selection process, and the second is whether participants could produce the desired outcomes.

Schuman (1995: 573) has recognised legitimacy as a “generalised 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”. From this definition, Schuman has observed the features of legitimacy as the generalisation, objection and dependence on a collective audience. As legitimacy is socially constructed, it indicates a belief that an actor who has a stake in tourism in the domain has the right to make demands (Sripun, Yongvanit, and Pratt 2017) and trust that non-industry stakeholders’ opinions, perspectives and recommendations are as legitimate as those of industry-related stakeholders (Kernel 2005).

However, challenges of legitimacy could be examined in the following steps: gaining, maintaining and repairing. Issues in gaining legitimacy, such as “liability of newness” (Freeman, Carroll, and Hannan 1983: 692), arise from social interaction in the early stages of initiating a new business. While it is necessary to encourage and persuade communities to

participate in the decision-making process on the basis of validity and credibility from the corporate perspective, past economic performance limits the ability to judge an organisation economically and rationally (Emtairah and Mont 2008; Leardini, Moggi, and Rossi 2019; Schuman 1995; Smith and Woods 2015; Williams-Middleton 2013).

Maintaining legitimacy has become immensely intricate and equivocal as the corporate environment has been challenging (Scherer, Palazzo, and Seidl 2012; Smith and Woods 2015). Also, due to the heterogeneity of participants, they perceive variables in response to varying conditions in time (Leardini, Moggi, and Rossi 2019; Schuman 1995).

Repairing legitimacy is associated with managing the responsive reaction to an unanticipated crisis (O'Donovan 2000; Schuman 1995). As legitimacy is mutualistic, failure to recognise deterioration in communities' support (Leardini, Moggi, and Rossi 2019), the limited ability of organisations to respond substantially (Ashforth and Gibbs 1990) and the reduction of function as a social network (Schuman 1995) pose a significant threat to legitimacy.

Second Stage: Direction Setting

For the second stage, the coincidence and sharing of values and the dispersion of power between stakeholders are crucial elements. The concept of creating shared value (CSV) emerged as corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities expanded into communities (Busser and Shulga 2018; Fernandez-Gamez, Gutierrez-Ruiz, Becerra-Vicario, and Ruiz-Palomo 2019; Font, Guix, and Bonilla-Priego 2016; Jeon, Zhang, and Ryu 2016; Porter and Kramer 2011; Suh 2016). Sharing values between corporations and societies has been done in risk control or public relationships (Font, Guix and Bonilla-Priego 2016; Fernandez-Gamez et al. 2019).

Porter and Kramer (2011: 6) have defined shared values as “policies and operating practices that enhance a company’s competitiveness while simultaneously advancing the economic and social conditions in the communities in which it operates”. According to the definition, they have argued that shared values should be understood as expanding the total amount of economic and social values rather than redistributing values already formed. In other words, CSV could be understood to be based on the perception that CSR activities are interdependent as they are linked to the community (Camilleri 2016; Jeon, Zhang, and Ryu 2016; Suh 2016) and to set goals and directions among stakeholders in the form of collaboration (Koo, Baek, and Kim 2019; Porter and Kramer 2011).

However, power asymmetry among stakeholders is a crucial constraint in creating shared value through collaboration. First, the imbalance of interdependence ultimately leads to the imbalance of power. Ford, Wang, and Vestal (2012) have pointed out that a less dependent actor could threaten or break off a relationship with a highly dependent actor. Second, Saito and Ruhanen (2017) have found that the degree of a stakeholder's power is determined not by the stakeholder's network but by the total pool of the stakeholder's resources. That is, a stakeholder with more resources has much more power. Third, Ansell and Gash (2008) raised concerns about a winner-take-all form, mentioning that collaboration is likely to be manipulated by more vital actors if some stakeholders are unable to participate on an equal footing with other stakeholders.

Third Stage: Implementation (Structuring)

Establishing a formalised structure among inter-organisations has been noticed to be needed in terms of the systematic process, sustainable collective appreciation and long-term direction (Gray 1985; Jamal and Getz 1995; Jamal and Stronza 2009). In particular, it is highlighted that structuring, as a developmental phase, is a system that stakeholders produce to maintain shared values and organise order within a destination (Gray 1985).

Ansell and Gash (2008: 546) have regarded collaborative governance as “consensus-oriented”. As an ongoing coincidence process, this stage requires designating goals and tasks, monitoring ongoing progress and ensuring compliance with collaboration decisions (Jamal and Getz 1995). However, a few challenges are revealed in the process of structuring collaboration activities.

First, similar to the limitation mentioned above, an imbalance of negotiating power could arise. According to the study on intergovernmental collaboration among the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), Wong, Mistilis, and Dwyer (2011) have found that approaches to tourism development are different by governments. In Singapore or Laos, where the tourism ministry is not separated, ministers from the Prime Minister's Office who might have higher political power than their counterparts attend ministerial meetings. The imbalance of negotiating power could harm collective decision-making.

Second, Echeverria (2001) has observed unequal negotiating tables in collaboration to protect water resources and the watershed planning process in the Platte River. Simultaneously

pointing out that the negotiating table has excessively narrow economic interests, the author criticises that development interests and environmental advocates have significantly different capabilities to make the most of their resources to support their positions in the collaborative process.

To sum up, the collaboration aims for stakeholders to achieve shared goals by recognising interdependence and distributing power equally. Therefore, acknowledging that their actions are inevitably linked to each other and identifying their legitimacy as stakeholders are the significant aspects to be considered.

However, due to collective features and insufficient acknowledgement of stakeholders, some challenges might be faced: coordinating various perspectives and opinions would not be smooth (Peters 2018), time-consuming (Okazaki 2008), and doubts regarding the stakeholders' legitimacy (Jamal and Getz 1995) could arise. Coincidence could be made on the logic of power, not fair relations. Moreover, heterogeneity and a lack of understanding of relevant stakeholders' types and features could complicate the process (Leardini, Moggi and Rossi 2019).

Especially with respect to the power asymmetry issue (Ansell and Gash 2008; Ford, Wang, and Vestal 2012; Saito and Ruhanen 2017), due to the penetration of giant organisations with much power, those with less power could be ignored and isolated in the process. This case frequently happens in a local community. As tourism destinations and products are strongly related to communities' cultural and environmental assets, it is necessary to empower communities during the process and encourage them to participate.

Following political, economic, social, and environmental changes, tourism development approaches continue to evolve (Yang and Wall 2008). UNWTO particularly emphasises the participation of all relevant stakeholders in achieving sustainable tourism, with communities highlighted as a critical factor among them. It is because, first, the international community has reached a consensus that the results of tourism should be broadly returned to the community in order to secure sustainability (Park 2017). Second, strengthening the psychological capacity of tourism residents serves as a significant variable that leads to sustainable tourism destinations (Jeong, Jeung, and Ko 2018). The prior study found that the participation rate of residents is intensely high when residents feel that tourism benefited them (Rasoolimanesh et al. 2017) and when the commercial acquisition has a direct impact on residents' support for tourism (Chun 2000). Third, from the perspective of the residents of the

tourist destination, not from the tourist's perspective, the significance of the sustainability of the environment, the preservation of local culture, human rights, and community participation are increasingly emphasised (Eom 2016; Yun 2011). These flows have drawn attention to CBT. Hence, the next part deals with the participation and collaboration of stakeholders at the local level in the centre of local communities.

2.3 Community-based Tourism (CBT)

CBT has emerged to support sustainability at the community level (Han et al. 2019) by emphasising the voluntary and sufficient participation of local communities (Eom 2016) as a tourism supplier. Lexically, a community is defined as a “group of people living in the same place” (Cambridge Dictionary 2021; LEXICO 2021). Advocating this territorial definition, CBT destinations have been broadly referred to as a “system where visitors interact with the local living and non-living parts to experience a tourism product” (Dangi and Jamal 2016: 483; Jamal and Getz 1995: 188; Murphy 2013: 431). Hence, as a development model for “maximising the socio-economic benefits of tourism” (Tolkach and King 2015: 386), CBT focuses on revitalising local heritage (Whitney-Squire, Wright, and Alsop 2018) and fostering cultural pride (Espeso-Molinero, Carlisle, and Pastor-Alfonso 2016) of residents.

Another lexical definition is that a community is “a group of people having common interests or characteristics” (Cambridge Dictionary 2021; LEXICO 2021). Viewing a community from the social network perspective, CBT focuses on relationships among relevant stakeholders (Aref, Gill, and Aref 2010; Iorio and Corsale 2014). In particular, this network perspective has received much attention for social capital, which refers to the value of “shared norms, trust and reciprocity” (Ecclestone and Field 2003: 267) in social networks. That is to say, as a collective action of stakeholders, CBT highlights interactive and collaborative procedures to establish social capital to create synergy among stakeholders in a community (Okazaki 2008).

Ultimately, CBT is a form of tourism that benefits residents (Oh 2018), which fits in the approach of pro-poor tourism (Ballesteros 2017; Giampiccoli and Saayman 2014). Also, it is a form of interaction and collaboration in a horizontal relationship to produce positive social and economic impacts (Dangi and Jamal 2016; Okazaki 2008). The concept in which communities actively participate in tourism planning and development (Ching 2010) has

received much attention in conservation and development in nature-based tourism, such as eco-tourism (Espeso-Molinero and Pastor-Alfonso 2020; Mearns and Lukhele 2015). That is, communities provide educational programmes for environmental protection (Duffy, Kline, Swanson, Best, and McKinnon 2017; Fiorello and Bo 2012) and are involved in collaborative partnerships in the decision-making process (Stone 2015; Towner 2018), serving as stewards to efficiently manage and preserve natural resources (Stem, Lassoie, Lee, Deshler, and Schelhas 2003; Tsaur, Lin, and Lin 2006).

2.3.1 Dimensions of CBT

In line with this approach, Mayaka, Croy, and Cox (2019: 178-179) have introduced the following three formative dimensions of CBT: *Involvement*, *Power and Control*, and *Outcomes*.

First Dimension: Involvement

Involvement and *Participation* could be seen as having the same meaning in that they centre on the inclusion of local communities in issues (Mayaka, Croy, and Cox 2019), but involvement is more *active* in the form of participation (Tarpey 2020). Local communities' involvement in the decision-making process is more significant than the benefits to be shared in the future, given that residents are empowered through involvement (Carius and Job 2019). Also, it enhances residents' attention to the promising effect of tourism and their culture and values (Nugroho and Numata 2020). As such, residents' involvement could be divided into two characteristics: tourism profits, such as improving awareness and empowerment in the decision-making process. The community is the starting point of CBT (Giampiccoli and Saayman 2014).

Second Dimension: Power and Control

CBT is to include communities in the tourism development process, not being limited to a single type of tourism (Renkert 2019). Therefore, communities make partnerships with exterior businesses. There are power and control issues between communities and other CBT

actors in this process.

The concept of Community Benefit Tourism Initiatives (CBTI) emphasises that it is unnecessary for communities to participate directly in tourism management or ownership (Simpson 2008). On the contrary, CBT highlights the empowerment and ownership of residents, social and economic development and quality visitor experiences (Ruiz-Ballesteros 2011). In this regard, the internal power and control which make the decision are emphasised in CBT (Mayaka, Croy, and Cox 2019).

Third Dimension: Outcomes

Under the viewpoint that growing is good, traditional tourism planning approaches are interested in attracting more tourists and accurately estimating that tourism development is complementary and will contribute to the region and residents (Cooper and Hall 2008). For developers with this viewpoint, attracting visitors and developing a tourist industry to achieve quantitative growth have been the most significant.

In contrast, CBT aims to increase the community's quality of life (Mayaka, Croy, and Cox 2019). Therefore, it is regarded as a "programme for community development" (Eom 2016: 243) in that it minimises the negative impact of tourism and pursues the return of profits to communities.

Table 2.1 below summarises the three dimensions of CBT.

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The first reason why CBT is the centre of various research and is regarded as

alternative tourism is the empowerment of residents. Although the benefits of tourism development are given to tourists rather than to residents, it is known to recognise the positive effects of the influx of tourists for economic benefits (Jeon 2017). However, social benefits are not always positive, as they are subjective and represent an intangible state. The terms tourism-phobia and over-tourism have emerged recently from the growing evolution of unsustainable mass-tourism practices (Kisi 2019). Touristification, a combination of tourism and gentrification, accurately describes the consequences of reckless tourism development. Residents living in many destinations worldwide suffer a lot from tourism and eventually leave the area. Residents were likely to be excluded from the development of tourism, which focused solely on economic development.

Thus, with the emphasis on the involvement and power of residents in the decision-making process, the empowerment of the local community has been regarded as one of the critical issues (Bagus et al. 2019; Giampiccoli and Saayman 2018; Hwang and Kim 2019, Khalid, Ahmad, Ramayah, Hwang, and Kim 2019; Yanes et al. 2019). Empowerment has been defined as the “top end of the participation ladder where local communities have the ability to find solutions to their problems, make decisions, implement actions and evaluate their solutions” (Cole 2006: 631). Since Scheyvens (1999) proposed the empowerment framework with four levels - economic, psychological, social, and political -, numerous studies have found a connection between participation and the empowerment of residents in achieving sustainable tourism (Joo, Woosnam, Strzelecka, and Boley 2020; Mendoza-Ramos and Prideaux 2018; Schmidt and Uriely 2019; Xu et al. 2019; Zhang, Y., Xiao, Zheng, Xue, Guo, and Wu 2020). In other words, participation in the decision-making process leads residents to express their opinions, and the empowerment obtained from this participation protects residents’ interests, ultimately positively supporting local tourism development.

Second, CBT emphasises the need for the collaboration of various stakeholders to influence tourism for community sustainability (Stoddart et al. 2020). Whereas community participation in tourism is based on enabling the community to share in the benefits and decision-making power (Xu et al. 2019), collaboration is a “process of joint decision making” (Robinson 1999: 387) in which individuals distribute information, resources and responsibilities to simultaneously plan, implement and evaluate a programme of activities to attain a shared goal (Camarinha-Matos and Afsarmanesh 2008). Collaboration is regarded as a means of solving problems that any single organisation cannot deal with alone and constraints

of established antagonistic methods of determining conflicts and preventing intensifying environmental agitations (Gray 1985), including cooperative marketing initiatives, inter-organisational collaboration, tourism marketing alliances, strategic tourism alliances, networks and public-private partnerships (Pansiri 2013). Collaboration in tourism intensely contributes to sustainable tourism development in that various stakeholders support the goals and objectives of tourism organisations, and social capital is created (Hall 1999). Also, successful collaboration is seen as a positive and significant factor in improving the competitiveness of tourism destinations (Baggio 2011).

In the general context, the *participation* or *participatory approach* has become a byword referring to public participation in forms of democracy and empowerment (Cleaver 1999; Gordon, Osgood Jr., and Boden 2017; Luck 2018; Michels 2012). Discussions on participatory approaches have shifted to the community level, creating various frameworks under the name of the community-based participatory approach. Kantsperger, Thees, and Eckert (2019) have mentioned that there are instrumental and transformative aspects to community participation; first, the instrumental aspect is to produce a better result by increasing the participation and support of residents. For example, a community has engaged in archaeological research as a partner to provide knowledge about the region's past that researchers look for (Ataly 2010). Second, the transformative aspect is about promoting social equity by empowering underprivileged people. For example, the participation of residents in the HIV/AIDS Prevention Project has contributed to the community's empowerment through capacity building (Holliday, Phillips, and Akintobi 2020).

As well in the tourism context, the participation of communities plays a significant role in many ways, such as preserving local culture (Rasoolimanesh and Jaafar 2016; Salazar 2012), developing the local's capacity (Aref, Gill, and Aref 2010; Oh 2018), creating social capital (Eom 2016; Jones 2005) and empowering residents (Khalid et al. 2019; Mearns 2003). Various roles and aims of community participation imply that there are different forms of participation with diverse scopes.

2.3.2 Stages of Community Participation

Arnstein (2019: 24) has mentioned that “citizen participation is citizen power”. He has regarded it as a mechanism of re-disseminating the power that enables the have-nots to

cooperate in deciding policy-making or sharing information. In this regard, he has classified citizen participation into three typologies: *non-participation*, *degrees of tokenism*, and *citizen power*. Non-participation is described as the masquerade in which citizens are regulated and controlled by experts or organisations, having participation remained a therapy for citizens' complaints. That is to say, citizens have opportunities to participate in the process, but they are advised by the officials instead of expressing their opinions. The next stage is degrees of tokenism, which includes informing, consultation and placation. As an advanced step from the non-participation, citizens are invited to a process via meetings or various communication channels, such as media or posters. At this stage, citizens are more become to have some extent of influence as their rights, responsibilities and options are informed, and their ideas are gathered through surveys, public hearings or presentations. The final stage is the degree of citizen power, which includes negotiation and control. In other words, as partners, citizens take an equal position as organisations by sharing accountabilities or are entirely in charge of policy or managerial sides.

In another study on stages of participation, Tosun (1999) suggested three types: *pseudo*, *passive*, and *spontaneous*. Similar to Arnstein's (2019) non-participation, pseudo-participation is about mandatory and manipulated participation. That is to say, communities participate, but benefits are not essentially shared with them. Also, the primary purpose of participation is not empowering communities but educating and curing communities' potential complaints. The next type is passive participation. Communities seem to participate in the process, but they remain decision-takers, not makers. In other words, it creates opportunities by communicating indirectly with external entities, but what communities could do is merely choose options that are already ratified and decided by external bodies. The last type is spontaneous participation. Key points of this type are direct, active, and authentic. That is, communities have more opportunities to express opinions directly based on their desires and motivations. Also, communities share equal power with external bodies in partnership by engaging in negotiation.

Kantsperger, Thees, and Eckert (2019) have arranged participation stages with three types: *no participation*, *unofficial participation*, and *official participation*. No participation has the same meaning as non-participation, which residents are not informed about nor have opportunities to participate. As suggested in prior studies, residents are isolated and ignored by implementers during the process, and they are limited in expressing their opinions. Unofficial participation includes informative and consulting participation in which residents participate,

but their roles are limited. In other words, residents' participation level is extended to some extent compared to the prior stage, but their actions are limited to attending public hearings or meetings and passively receiving the information. The final stage is official participation, which includes collaborative and legitimate participation. At this stage, residents are more empowered and are entirely engaged in the decision-making process.

Marzuki and Hay (2013) classified public participation into three stages: *information*, *consultation*, and *empowerment*. The information stage is in which information flows from power holders to the public, and residents are advised and educated by implementers. Therefore, residents do not have many powers in the process, remaining as outsiders. As the more residents-empowered stage, the consultation stage has more joint actions, such as exchanging opinions between the public and power holders. The public has some opportunities to express their opinions via multiple channels, but they are limited in exerting their influence. The final one is the empowerment stage. The public has similar powers to power holders at this stage, having powers transferred to the public based on the negotiation. Therefore, this stage enables the public to collaborate with other stakeholders and influence projects.

[Table 2.2] Stages of Community Participation

	Arnstein (2019)	Tosun (1999)	Kantsperger, Thees, and Eckert (2019)	Marzuki, and Hay (2013)
Stages	Citizen Power	Spontaneous	Official	Empowerment
	Tokenism	Passive	Unofficial	Consultation
	Non-participation	Pseudo	No	Information

To sum up, this part has dealt with stages of community participation. All authors have tried to classify stages by degrees (Table 2.2). The first stage is about the passive attitudes of communities on participation in which they are blocked by implementers. It is a unilateral relationship in which communities stay at taking what is offered by implementers. The second stage is the advanced stage, which makes more room for communities to participate in the process to some extent, but what communities can do is express their thoughts on ready-made options. As a very formalised process, communities are invited to public meetings or hearings, but they are constrained from expressing their opinions. The last stage is ideal, in which collaborative actions are implemented, and communities possess equal power as other

stakeholders; formulating partnerships, communities influence the decision-making process.

Despite citizen power, spontaneous, official and empowerment participation being regarded as the most advanced form of participation in which communities have equal power and influence over other stakeholders, practical examples are scarcely found. Numerous studies have indicated that community participation has remained in the tokenism and pseudo stage (Fan, Ng, and Bayrak 2021; Mak, Cheung, and Hui 2017; Marzuki, Hay, and James 2012; Ramos and Prideaux 2014; Somarriba-Chang and Gunnarsdotter 2012; Xu et al. 2019; Wondirard and Ewnetu 2019), implying several constraints inherent in CBT.

First, CBT is defined in various forms, as there has not been a complete consensus on the concept (Dangi and Jamal 2016; Yun 2011). Thus, the scope of partners and scale in networking is not clearly defined (Dangi and Jamal 2016; Stoddart et al. 2020). A community-based approach involving all residents and stakeholders in the decision-making process is known to consume immoderate time (Okazaki 2008). Different perspectives and perceptions toward tourism development among stakeholders within the community often result in a lack of consensus (Jamal and Getz 1995; Stoddart et al. 2020). Besides, residents are not regarded as equal business partners, and they are not aware of when and how to participate in the decision-making process (Joppe 1996; Mayaka, Croy, and Cox 2018). As such, communities have confronted various limitations in participation and empowerment, which this study calls barriers to community participation.

2.3.3 Barriers to Community Participation

Generally, researchers use various terms in explaining a situation in which local communities find difficulties in participation in the CBT development decision-making process: *constraints* (Bello, Lovelock, and Carr 2017; Wondirard and Ewnetu 2019), *challenges* (Chili and Ngxongo 2017; Stone and Stone 2011), *inhibitors* (Jasrotia and Gangotia 2021; Saufi, O'Brien, and Wilkins 2014), *limits* (Ramukumba 2018; Tosun 2000) and *barriers* (Aref 2011; Dogra and Gupta 2012).

As such, there is no specific term to explain the circumstances in local communities' participation. In this study, the *barrier* is used to discuss, explore and explain the limited side of community participation, following the lexical meaning of barrier. LEXICO (2021) defines a barrier as a "circumstance or obstacle that keeps people or things apart or prevents

communication or progress”. Merriam-Webster (n.d.) defines it as “something immaterial that impedes or separates”. Cambridge Dictionary (2021) defines it as “something that prevents something else from happening or makes it more difficult”. To sum up, the *barrier* is something that blocks local communities from participating and being empowered in the tourism development process, which ultimately prevents them from achieving the CBT approach and sustainable tourism. In other words, identifying and investigating barriers to community participation is an essential step toward achieving CBT and sustainable tourism.

Prior researchers tried to identify barriers to communication. The context of Jammu and Kashmir, India, showed the non-participation of residents in the tourism development process (Dogra and Gupta 2012). It is because residents believe that the development procedure takes large financial investments and time and that the tourism authorities have not shown their interest in this destination. Also, residents’ skills, which are required to play their roles in tourism development, are found to be lacking.

In another example from India, Kala and Bagri (2018) observed various challenges of local communities in Uttarakhand in tourism development, leaving them out of the decision-making process. Practically, residents confront a lack of experience and knowledge and a low level of education. Socio-culturally, their poor living conditions, busy daily routine and passive attitude have affected their participation. Also, anxieties about seasonality, lack of expertise and deterioration of their socio-cultural values, such as traditions and customs, have discouraged communities from participating. Additionally, the result has revealed that power disparities and communication gaps between the development authorities and residents have increased distrust of residents of the authorities.

Aref (2011) witnessed an unsuccessful tourism development history in Shiraz, Iran, even though communities in Shiraz have lots of potential for tourism development. The main reason for this issue is that communities have prominently shown a lack of capacity building. Along with a lack of knowledge, skills and education, Aref’s study also identified limited access to decision-making, a lack of resources and ownership, and the centralisation of government.

Ramukumba (2018) tried to understand barriers to community participation in the case of Amathole District Municipality, Eastern Cape Province, South Africa. The result shows that tourism development professionals’ lack of expertise and attitude were the most critical barriers

in this community. Other significant barriers are the high cost of participation, the centralisation of government and the lack of information, coordination, trained human resources, and financial resources.

In South Africa, Chili and Ngxongo (2017) found another case in the Umhlwazini community in Bergville. Residents have been far from participating in tourism development because residents have lacked knowledge and awareness about tourism. Moreover, political affiliation has been manifested as one of the crucial barriers in Bergville, as corruption and monopolisation of government resources have been revealed. Also, a lack of leadership has been a prominent barrier to community participation.

In Africa, especially with respect to protected areas in Malawi, Bello, Lovelock, and Carr (2017) found that various challenges have affected communities' participation in tourism planning. They have revealed that apathy, lack of financial resources, information, education level, coordination and trained human resources, inequitable benefits distribution, the centralisation of government, and human-wildlife conflicts have limited the range of communities' participation.

In another context in Africa with eco-tourism, Wondirad and Ewnetu (2019) tried to analyse barriers to community participation in tourism development around the Dinsho area of Bale Mountains National Park, Ethiopia. Due to this area's distinct characteristics, in which the most valued resource is the land, various stakeholders are involved, and their interests compete. Since residents' economic activities are highly dependent on land resources, the necessity for residents to be involved in the tourism development process has increased, but it has remained at the level of tokenism. They have observed that a lack of awareness, stakeholder collaboration, entrepreneurial skills, and government support, as well as financial constraints, have affected community participation.

Saufi, O'Brien, and Wilkins (2014) conducted a study in Lombok, Indonesia. They have identified that institutional factors have constrained community participation. In the past, Lombok's tourism development has been organised with the regional tourism departments and related agencies in a decentralised form. However, they have witnessed power structures among government departments that disregard the locals' perspectives. Also, a lack of tourism infrastructures, such as job opportunities, public consultation, ownership and benefits, has led residents to perceive tourism destinations negatively. Moreover, knowledge and experience

with tourists have affected residents' perceptions of tourism. Those who do not have perceived benefits have shown less interest in tourism industries.

In another study conducted in Indonesia (Musadad 2018), residents around Pindul Cave in Yogyakarta have shown some barriers to participation. First, they have lacked in tourism knowledge. Second, they find it challenging to invest in tourism businesses due to poverty. Third, as regulations or policies are biased toward a particular age group, other groups are restricted from them. Finally, there is a language barrier, especially with English, that causes residents to lack the ability to speak English with international visitors.

Thetsane (2019) tried to understand the roles of local communities and examine their views on tourism development in Katse, Lesotho. The result has shown that residents desire to be involved or consulted in the decision-making process in order to secure their interests. However, most of them do not have sufficient information or experience in tourism development, so the leadership of local leaders is required to provide them to residents. Also, the participation of experts is said to be necessary due to residents' lack of knowledge and expertise.

Stone and Stone (2011) assessed community participation in the Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust (KRST), a CBT enterprise in Botswana. The result identified several constraints on community participation, the first one being a lack of a collective sense of ownership. In particular, most adult respondents have never visited areas of KRST and are not aware of their projects. Second, there is a lack of job opportunities, and residents perceive that they have never benefited from tourism. Third, information has not been shared with local communities. Fourth, residents feel that the distribution of benefits has not been equitable, saying that projects instead have taken away their resources. Finally, it is a structural barrier within KRST that the ratio of members' origins in KRST is imbalanced, which the minorities perceive as unfair as they have fewer members representing their interests.

In terms of tourism in Kiulu, Sabah, Malaysia (Paimin, Modilih, Mogindol, Johnny, and Thamburaj 2014), although most of the residents have been engaged in tourism activities, and some communities have been involved in the decision-making process, their participation has generally been restrained to attending meetings with tourism stakeholders. Compared to residents' limited role in providing ideas and opinions, elite local individuals or groups obtain a better opportunity to get involved in tourism development. Also, residents in Kiulu face a

lack of capital and communication skills and a lack of information and support from stakeholders.

From the example in Houay Kaeng Village in Laos (Kim, Park, and Phandanouvong 2014), several barriers to the residents' participation have been identified: lack of willingness to participate in the decision-making process; lack of knowledge, understanding and skills regarding tourism development. Also, the authors have found that although numerous impoverished residents do not perceive the positive impact of tourism, they articulate less interest in tourism planning and development.

As such, here have identified different barriers in 13 different cases. In advocating and employing the CBT approach, it could be confirmed that circumstances in which residents are excluded or restricted from participating in tourism development are omnipresent, not being occurred in specific contexts. Also, given that these barriers are not affected by a single or straightforward factor but are created by various and diverse characteristics and circumstances of stakeholders, barriers are complicated and could be divided into more details.

2.3.4 Categorisation of Barriers to Community Participation

Tosun's (2000) study on types of barriers to community participation has been cited by numerous later researchers, providing a great understanding of barriers. He has classified barriers into three types: *operational*, *structural*, and *cultural* (summarised in Table 2.3). These types are connected with cases in part 2.3.3.

Operational Barriers

As its names imply, CBT and community participation are against the previous bureaucratic tourism development in a top-down manner. Therefore, in implementing the CBT approach, political and financial power should be shifted from the central to the local level in a bottom-up manner (Tosun 2000). Still, lots of cases confront *the centralisation of public administration of tourism*.

Centralised public administration in tourism development could be seen in many cases

worldwide. In terms of China's *Red Tourism*⁵, in which the historical heritage of the Chinese Communist Party is utilised for tourism development (Li, Hu, and Zhang 2010), the central government plays several roles of planner and designer, resource organiser and provider, and coordinator in a top-down manner (Zhao and Timothy 2015). Also, from the 1960s to 1970s in Spain, the central government initiated all tourism-related developments as a boosterism approach. This growing-focused approach has resulted in the exceptional rapid economic development called the *Spanish Miracle*⁶ (Blázquez-Salom, Blanco-Romero, Vera-Rebollo, and Ivars-Baidal 2019).

However, this central government-based boosterism approach focuses only on quantitative tourism-derived economic and visitor growth (Gössling, Ring, Dwyer, Andersson, and Hall 2016) without residents' participation (Can, Alaeddinoglu, and Turker 2014). Especially with the point that tourism could be a catalyst to alleviate poverty and expand the economic infrastructure (Zhuang, Yao, and Li 2019), tourism development has been centralised in order to achieve the central government's planned objectives (Tosun 2000).

Tourism has been understood as a fragmented industry (Bichler and Lösch 2019; Scott and Cooper 2010), amalgamating interdependent components (Tosun 2000). Due to this characteristic, as Jamal and Getz (1995) have indicated, problems in coordination and cohesion could occur. That is to say, when tourism development's centralisation is intensified, coordination between tourism-related departments, agencies and residents is weakened, ultimately causing a barrier called a *lack of coordination*.

For example, in Malawi's protected area management (Bello, Lovelock, and Carr 2017), even though there are divisional and regional offices respectively in the Department of Tourism and the Department of National Parks and Wildlife, neither of them have powers in tourism planning decision-making. Instead, the bureaucracy has centrally controlled activities, and this culture has been embedded within their society.

Inskeep (1988) has mentioned that coordination could be a challenge that requires strong leadership. However, as Chili and Ngxongo (2017) have identified corruption and monopolisation that impede residents from participating in the decision-making process,

⁵ 红色旅游 (Hóngsè lǚyóu)

⁶ El milagro económico español

excessive leadership might be turned into monopolisation.

Under these circumstances, it is evident that coordination is not feasible. As an “interplay of diverse stakeholders” (Zemla 2016: 7), tourism requires more interactions and coordination among relevant entities. Ignoring the interdependence of other crucial stakeholders with those bureaucratic strategies could reduce accountability in what they take part in and intensify the confusion on others’ roles. From the participatory perspective, a lack of coordination thwarts opportunities for residents to participate (Tosun 2000).

In these circumstances in which the power is centralised and the coordination lacking, communication gaps, which are called a *lack of information*, between residents and authorities could occur. As mentioned, the empowerment of residents is obtained from participation, and the participation is based on local communities’ knowledge and information. As such, knowledge and information are preconditions for obtaining local communities’ empowerment (Cole 2006; Khalid et al. 2019). In other words, residents find it difficult to participate without sufficient knowledge and information.

For example, Kala and Bagri’s (2018) study has revealed that power disparities between authorities and residents have created a communication gap, limiting residents from expressing their ideas and opinions. As Tosun (2000) has indicated, the biggest problem of the lack of communication is that it not only creates a knowledge gap but also speeds up the isolation of residents from the decision-making process. Moreover, given that ensuring the participation and empowerment of residents enhances communities’ support in tourism development (Khalid et al. 2019), a lack of information could intensify their complaints and mistrust.

Structural Barriers

Structural barriers are related to institutional, power structures, and legislative and economic systems (Tosun 2000). As the first barrier in this category, the *attitudes of professionals*, which show unwillingness to let residents be involved in the process, are proposed. The authority to legislate and implement a tourism development plan is substantially in the authorities’ hands. Therefore, authorities might perceive that it is ineffective to collaborate with other stakeholders and consumes too much time and money (Tosun 2000).

This issue occurred between tourism providers and residents in Lombok, Indonesia. Saufi, O'Brien, and Wilkins (2014) have revealed that tourism providers are not interested in facilitating interactions with residents nor realise the significance. Also, this region's government focuses only on large-scale mass tourism, ignoring residents' perspectives. Without the positive attitudes of authorities in participatory and collaborative tourism development, it would not be able to expect the CBT approach to be achieved.

The second barrier proposed is a *lack of expertise* of those who major in or research the tourism sector (Tosun 2000). Inskeep (1988) has mentioned that there are qualified urban and regional planners, but expertise specialised in tourism is lacking. This means that the authorities who have the keys to implementing and legislating tourism plans do not have much knowledge or experience in practising participatory tourism development. So do for residents.

Thetsane (2019) has revealed that residents in the Kaste community have admitted the necessity of experts in the decision-making process because they have confronted limitations in formulating tourism policies due to their lack of experience and knowledge. Also, in Ramukumba's (2018) study, a lack of expertise is identified as the most affecting barrier to the local community. These cases imply that in a circumstance where authorities' and residents' expertise is lacking, a CBT approach would be challenging.

The third structural barrier is *elite domination*. As of 2020, 75 countries among 167 countries advocate democracy (Economist Intelligence Unit 2021). However, some developing countries show that democracy is limited to business or state elites (Tosun 2000). In these circumstances, the power is biased toward dominating groups or individuals, which eventually would take all benefits from tourism (Rachmawati 2020). Also, as Wanner and Pröbstl-Haider (2019) have indicated, conflict of interest enables more dominating groups to push ahead with their ways.

In Kiulu, Malaysia (Paimin et al. 2014), elite groups with better knowledge and resources have more and better opportunities to participate in the decision-making process, whereas others are limited to attending meetings. Also, in Uttarakhand, India (Kala and Bagri 2018), only elite members are invited by tourism development authorities to be involved in the decision-making process.

As such, if these circumstances in which the elites benefit from tourism and block residents from participating in the decision-making process continue, the result would be the

development for the minority, not the community.

One of the propositions for successful collaboration is to know that the process contains various stakeholders, including residents, governments and agencies. As power disparities might create isolation of less powerful stakeholders, an *appropriate legal system* is needed to ensure participation and protect the rights. However, as Tosun (2000) criticised, legal structures or regulations have not supported the participation of local communities; instead, they have created more significant gaps between authorities and local communities. Besides, even though citizens' participation is legislated at the national level, it is challenging to decentralise at the local government level due to political, administrative, and financial issues (Royo, Yetano, and Acerete 2011).

From the example of Yogyakarta, Indonesia (Musadad 2018), it has been identified that regulations to recruit members as attraction managers have been biased toward specific organisations, which eventually limited the access of the whole community. Also, in Jammu and Kashmir, India (Dogra and Gupta 2012), there is no appropriate legal system to support community participation; therefore, residents could not find any proper ways to participate in the decision-making process to express their opinions.

Van Niekerk (2014) has observed the success of community participation through legislation in South Africa; it is not simply because they have stipulated the word *community participation* but because they exactly legislated how, when and where it should be done within the destination management framework. Without systematic support for residents' participation in a specific manner, effective resident-participatory tourism development would not be achieved.

As the fifth structural barrier, Tosun (2000) has proposed a *lack of trained human resources*. Tourism is known as an amalgam of service industries (Otto and Ritchie 1996) in which human resources play crucial roles in diverse dimensions, such as service quality and visitor satisfaction (Baum 2007; Madera, Dawson, Guchait, and Belarmino 2017). As attributes of service providers, such as knowledge, organisational culture or behaviours, could be connected to crucial customers and organisational results (Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan, and Buyruk 2010), training residents with various programmes at the local level is significantly required (Tosun 2000). However, a lack of trained human resources has various limitations on community participation.

For example, Malawi (Bello, Lovelock, and Carr 2017) does not have proper experts or trained human resources in eco-tourism planning, so they have relied on external personnel from foreign countries. Due to these experts' objective to complete the project within the timeframe, local communities have been ignored during the process. Also, in Houay Kaeng Village, Laos (Kim, Park, and Phandanouvong 2014), residents have no idea how to develop and manage tourism-related businesses and activities as they do not have any skills or knowledge in tourism. As a result, their confidence level has decreased, and they have started to show indifference to tourism development.

The sixth structural barrier is the *relatively high cost of community participation*. In order to sustain communities' collaboration and participation, expertise, time and money are required (Jamal and Getz 1995). In particular, as a "time-consuming process (Okazaki 2008: 511)", some stakeholders who want to retrieve the investment without the postponement of projects quickly might not want to wait for other stakeholders to participate and collaborate. Moreover, Tosun (2000) has indicated that both public and private sectors might not want the community participation approach due to their limited financial resources and gaps in investment strategies.

Wondirad and Ewnetu's (2019) study revealed that revenues from the Dinsho district of Bale Mountains National Park are emitted from local communities to the central government, which directly controls and manages this area. Therefore, local communities have suffered from insufficient financial capacity and are limited from participating. Also, both residents in Jammu and Kashmir (Dogra and Gupta 2012) and Kiulu (Paimin et al. 2014) find it challenging to participate in the tourism decision-making process due to the colossal investment amount.

As mentioned, CBT aims to increase the quality of residents' lives with spontaneous attitudes and democratic processes. However, requiring expertise, trained human resources, and investment might be an unreasonable demand for residents, burdening them and creating barriers.

The last structural barrier that Tosun (2000) has proposed is the *lack of financial resources* (external funding). As mentioned, tourism requires a large amount of money to develop tourism-related infrastructure. Beyond the development costs, maintaining tourism-related activities or transitioning to sustainable models costs a large amount of money (OECD 2020) and requires sufficient financing. Especially in rural or remote areas, finding adequate

funding might be challenging due to their physical features (Badulescu, Giurgiu, Istudor, and Badulescu 2015), and rural tourism entities fail to acquire qualitative funding modalities for investments (Radović, Petrović, Bajrami, Radovanović, and Vuković 2020). Also, if non-local-originated funders finance local communities, residents might lose control, which would be difficult to overcome (Tosun 2000).

The lack of financial resources is frequently found in numerous cases. In Shiraz, Iran (Aref 2011), financing has been the most crucial issue in their poor tourism management because even the leaders of communities are restricted from access to financial resources; thus, it has been challenging for them to make plans and strategies feasible. Also, both the Amathole District (Ramukumba 2018) and communities in nearby protected areas in Malawi (Bello, Lovelock, and Carr 2017) suffer from governments' insufficient financial resources, affecting community-based human resources and tourism-related supplies.

Cultural Barriers

Cultural barriers are related to local communities' customs, states and social behaviour. Tosun (2000) has proposed two cultural barriers; on the one hand, it is *the limited capacity of poor people*. Tourism, especially sustainable tourism, aims to alleviate poverty by providing diverse opportunities and contributing to the local economy. In particular, cultural and wildlife heritage have been opportunities for needy communities to make them capitalised (World Tourism Organization 2002). However, for poor communities, being benefited from tourism development and participation in the decision-making process might be a different story.

For example, most residents in Uttarakhand, India (Kala and Bagri 2018) are involved in agricultural businesses and pastoralism. Even though they desire to start their own business or materialise their ideas into tourism products, it is almost impossible to stand independently due to their poor financial state. Similarly, residents near Pindul Cave (Musadad 2018) could not afford to start their businesses due to their unstable economic state.

Collaboration in tourism development is the consent-oriented process in which stakeholders' powers compete and are negotiated, and a large amount of resource and economic investment is made. Participation in this process, which requires countless amounts of time, money, and energy, might be a "luxurious" affair (Tosun 2000: 625) for the non-expertised, untrained, uneducated, and poor residents. During the process, these residents might be isolated,

being limited from obtaining opportunities to develop their capacity.

On the other hand, *apathy and a low level of awareness in the local community* have been some of the most frequent and significant inhibitors to the communities' participation worldwide. There are several reasons behind it: the first one is ownership. Most residents in villages in which the Botswanan Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust (KRST) (Stone and Stone 2011) manages natural resources do not know who owns the projects. Also, they are not aware of the benefits of tourism development. Moreover, except for students who have been on the school trip, about 98% of adults have never been to destinations that KRST manages.

The above issue happens from the tourism providers' side because they do not provide opportunities for residents to get information and participate. In Lombok, Indonesia (Saufi, O'Brien, and Wilkins 2014) and Shiraz, Iran (Aref 2011), since tourism infrastructure is for the public and developed with local resources, it is evident that collaboration with residents is necessary. However, tourism providers have ignored the significance of residents in the process, which has led to a perception of residents that tourism benefits specific groups such as travel agencies or visitors.

Second, motivation is the crucial factor that makes residents optimistic about tourism development (Kantsperger, Thees, and Eckert 2019; Tosun 2000). In other words, without motivation, especially economic motivation, residents might be apathetic in participating in the process. For example, most residents in Houay Kaeng Village (Kim, Park, and Phandanouvong 2014) have not been satisfied with their tourism activities because they have gained less income than expected. The low income has discouraged motivation to participate in any further tourism-related activities.

Jamal and Getz (1995) have noted that a lack of awareness is a barrier to effective communication. CBT requires recognising the interdependence of each stakeholder, and their activities are interconnected. Therefore, it is vital for all stakeholders to understand what they are doing and what benefits are expected to be acquired. Otherwise, some groups with less information and understanding would never develop the capacity to find any opportunities or be motivated to participate in the decision-making process.

This section has identified barriers to community participation in prior studies, and these barriers are arranged in Table 2.3.

[Table 2.3] Barriers to Community Participation

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(Tosun 2000)

To conclude, CBT is known to provide a “mechanism for ensuring as much benefit as possible remains in the host community” (Page and Connell 2020: 522). That is to say, CBT is an ideal approach in that communities fully participate in the decision-making process and take control of tourism directions and strategies with their hands, simultaneously creating jobs and promoting their socio-cultural resources.

Therefore, the successful application of CBT brings various benefits to local communities. In some cases, this approach has benefited residents through the betterment of rural livelihoods (Tolkach and King 2015), environmental protection and conservation of local resources (Mearns 2012), and opportunities to develop intangible cultural heritage into tourism products (Cabeça 2021). Besides, it enables residents’ empowerment and creates job opportunities (Han et al. 2019).

However, as Taylor (1995) has criticised CBT as highly romanticised, there are still diverse limits to residents’ participation. In particular, even though some communities seem to advocate the CBT approach, competition among those with much power has intensified, and information and benefits have only been shared among the elites. Due to the substantial fact that CBT requires too much time and money, it is evident that those who have a day job or are poor find participation challenging. Also, telling residents to be qualified in expertise, invest

money and make time for participation in tourism development could be a burden for residents. Moreover, residents who are apathetic to tourism-related issues might not understand why they should participate in a process where benefits are not ensured. As such, these barriers have accelerated the isolation and exclusion of residents in the decision-making process.

In these regards, a more systematic and formalised mechanism is needed to prevent conflicts and isolation, empower residents, induce residents' participation, and support a collaborative process. Hence, the next part deals with local tourism governance. As local tourism governance is governance in the range of local tourism, the next part starts with the concept of governance and narrows down to the local tourism level.

2.4 Local Tourism Governance

2.4.1 General Concept of Governance

Despite the non-existence of the definition of consent in governance, it has been defined and applied differently in the literature. The United Nations (UN) (2013: 3) has defined it as the “exercise of political and administrative authority at all levels to manage a country's affairs”. From the social-political perspective, Kooiman (1999: 70) mentioned that it is “all those interactive arrangements in which public, as well as private actors, participate aimed at solving societal problems, or creating societal opportunities, and attending to the institutions within which these governing activities take place”. Keping (2018: 3) has defined it as “exercising authority to maintain order and meet the needs of the public within a certain range”. Moreover, governance is told to be the relationship between state intervention and societal autonomy (Hall 2011), including the mechanisms for regulating and mobilising social action and the generation of social order (Bramwell and Lane 2011). In summary, consisting of mechanisms, processes and institutions (UN 2013), governance could be understood as a system in which public and private stakeholders participate and interact under the social order.

Due to the similarity of each name, it might not be apparent to distinguish the differences between governance and government. According to Rosenau (2009), both indicate intended behaviour, institutions and determined activities, but the things that support them are different. While communal objectives, regardless of law enforcement, support governance activities, formal authority and powers to carry out policies support government activities. Also, governance could be seen as an encompassing concept than the government in that it includes

business, community and voluntary sectors (Bramwell and Lane 2011; Heslinga, Groote, and Vanclay 2019).

Typology of Governance Modes

As conditions and environments on policy instruments change, and a type of command and control has developed into an enabling state, the typology of governance has been changed in a sequence of hierarchies, markets and networks (Jordan, Wurzel, and Zito 2005; Peters and Pierre 2001; Yoo and Lee 2008). The typology of governance could be divided in accordance with the characteristics of actors (private or public) and steering modes (hierarchical or non-hierarchical).

The first approach is *hierarchies* (hierarchical/public). One of the prominent characteristics of bureaucracies is that the state controls directly with regulations and legislation, advocating intervention (Rhodes 1994). Being at the international and supranational level, they intensify standard-setting and enforce the exercise of control (Hall 2011; Knill and Lenschow 2003).

However, due to the political environment and globalisation changes, this power-centralised approach has been criticised in the state's transactions and weakened (Hall 2011; Wang 2010). Nevertheless, in some cases, especially in Vietnam, this approach has contributed to agriculture and rural development by positively influencing rural households' income (Do and Park 2018).

The second approach is *markets* (hierarchical/private). Cashore, Auld, and Newsom (2004: 4) have called it a "non-state market-driven governance system" because rule-making influences private enterprises' sides and the market's supply chain. Also, it is a private sector based on respective responses on the price indication (Mantino 2009). Powell (1990: 302) has mentioned that this approach is a "paradigm of individually self-interested, noncooperative, unconstrained social interaction". In these regards, the transaction of this approach is rapid, straightforward and flexible, focusing on mutual exchange and interaction.

However, it might be a risky exchange among economic agents with incomplete contracts, illegitimate goods, and increased conducting and monitoring costs (Jung and Lake 2011; Powell 1990). Therefore, as Hall (2011) has mentioned, the state tries to intervene in the transactions, but in a different way, such as through financial incentives or education.

As the hierarchical approach is not flexible in responding to liabilities on unexpected changes (Powell 1990) and the markets approach has uncertainty about governments'

promising action (World Bank 1992), the *network* (non-hierarchical/public) approach has been regarded as an alternative to them. Being built on trust (Tenbensen 2005) and mutual understanding (Diefenbach and Sillince 2011), this approach highlights individuals' coordinated and interactive actions based on participation (Jung and Lake 2011). Therefore, in a broad sense, network governance is interchangeably used with collaborative governance (Kapucu and Hu 2020) because they share the same notions that a collective decision-making process in which diverse individuals participate, consent-oriented and reciprocal expectations (Ansell and Gash 2008; Doberstein 2016; Kim, S. M. 2016).

However, bringing legitimate and accountable stakeholders to the table could create limitations, consuming too much time to conclude (Meuleman and Niestroy 2015). Powell (1990) has indicated that reciprocity, essential in the network discussion, is ambiguous, especially in exchanging equivalent values among individuals.

Nevertheless, in a circumstance in which the actions of formal systems are rigorous and driven by rules, these collective decision-making processes based on flexibility, goal-oriented and democratic accountability seem attractive (Pierre and Peters 2020). In particular, this approach has received much attention in sustainable tourism development and planning for the networks and relationships between the private and the public (Albrecht 2013; Beaumont and Dredge 2010; Farmaki 2011; Hall 2011; Zemla 2016).

The significance of building governance for sustainable tourism objectives has emerged as governance could improve democratic procedures by including various actors in the decision-making process (Bramwell and Lane 2011) and set the stage for organic collaboration between the public and private sectors (Jang, Gong, and Lee 2011). In this process, the role of the central government decreased (Chang, P. 2016), and the awareness and attitudes of residents toward tourism became an essential starting point in tourism development (Presenza, Del Chiappa, and Sheehan 2013), so the governance at the local level has been discussed.

2.4.2 Governance at the Local Level

Local Governance

As the fourth mode of governance, communitarianism has influenced *community* governance (Hall 2011). Ostrom (1993) has indicated that citizens' participation has been limited to voting and consuming public goods. In order to expand community participation,

communitarianism has emphasised the equative relationship between the public and government (Ostrom 1993) and recognised democratic self-government toward the public nature (Riese 2010) and normative behaviour connected to local control on localised issues (Tenbensen 2005). In other words, community governance puts significance on democratic values through active public participation in public policy-making (Hall 2011; Pierre and Peters 2020). As mentioned earlier, community participation in tourism development has received much attention since the 1980s under a community approach by Murphy (1985), highlighting communities' direct participation by taking control of local tourism issues. Since then, various studies focusing on community governance have contributed to much thinking about local governance.

Local governance is defined as a mechanism under which diverse stakeholders in the community participate and collaborate to solve significant issues within the communities (Nam 2016), a new collaborative form for achieving the goal of a community of revitalising local tourism (Jang, Gong, and Lee 2011). It is also said to be an essential component of a holistic and balanced approach to sustainable tourism (Beaumont and Dredge 2010), which induces participation and mutual collaboration of interest groups through the distribution of decision-making authority (Song 2010). Therefore, local governance is a collaborative system in which local tourism issues are resolved, and sustainable tourism is promoted through participation, empowerment, and collaboration. In the era of democracy, words such as *residents*, *cultural diversity*, and *low politics* have emerged as keywords. In this regard, Lee, S. (2016) asserts that the realisation of governance in a democratic system depends on whether local governance is activated or not.

There have been many pieces of research into the principles that fully activate local governance, and the first is participation. Participation is a characteristic of CBT and is a critical principle in local governance. Local governance requires that all actors have the opportunity to participate without any actors being excluded (Heslinga, Groote, and Vanclay 2019), so participation is an exercise of the right to achieve local objectives as a fundamental right given to residents, not as a specific power (Choi and Park 2008).

Second, the partnership is regarded as a crucial function for regional tourism governance (Lasker, Weiss, and Miller 2001; OECD n.d.; Zahra 2011). Lasker, Weiss, and Miller (2001), in particular, have noted that governance could have a significant impact on the synergy level of partnerships in that it affects the extent to which partners' perspectives,

resources, and skills can be combined. The role of the state in tourism policy development has changed from *provider* to *enabler*, so the manner has changed from centralised *top-down* to decentralised *bottom-up* (Zahra 2011). In this regard, partnerships between the public and private sectors have been the main focus over the past period. The public-private partnerships are not only designed to ensure the participation of residents in the course of tourism development but are also proposed as an alternative to resolving difficulties in terms of financing (Beaumont and Dredge 2010; Cho 1997). Partnerships could be seen as an alliance to achieve common goals in tourism development by complementing each other through mutual exchanges.

Kooiman (2003: 3-4) has defined governance as a “mix of all kinds of governing efforts by all manner of social-political actors, public as well as private”. Also, he has defined governing as “the totality of interactions, in which public, as well as private actors, participate, aimed at solving societal problems or creating societal opportunities”. From his perspective, the core of governance is the interactions between public and private actors in solving social problems. Pierre (2000) has introduced the meaning of governance as a coordination of the social system and defined it as a role of government, especially in the process of coordinating the social system. He has also identified governance as a form of public-private interaction and coordination from a *new governance* perspective. In particular, the public-private partnership has taken much attention in tourism policy and planning in that it could promote the coordination of public and private interests and resources (Hall 2011). Lee (2002) regards the object of governing as a *common problem* rather than a *person* by defining governance as a social coordination mechanism for solving common problems. Therefore, social coordination could be identified as coordinating interactions between diverse actors to solve common problems.

Local governance refers to “the exercise of authority at the local community level” (Kauzya 2003: 3). Hence, collaborative local governance could be summarised with three characteristics: *participation*, *partnership*, and *social coordination*. As a procedure in which various stakeholders participate and interact to resolve common issues within the region as partners and coordinate and integrate their interests, collaborative local governance is meant to be connected to local tourism development initiatives, being called *local tourism governance*.

2.4.3 Drivers to Form Local Tourism Governance

Local tourism governance is a tourism governing process to bring multiple stakeholders, including residents, at a local level to be involved in consensus-oriented decision-making procedures and collaborate in tourism policy-making procedures (Ansell and Gash 2008; Beaumont and Dredge 2010; Bichler and Lösch 2019; Dos Anjos and Kennell 2019; Kim 2007; Zahra 2011). While the CBT approach emphasises participation and empowerment of local communities from the community perspective, local tourism governance is a more systematic and formalised collaboration mechanism emphasising the share of authorities and responsibilities among diverse actors (Ansell and Gash 2008; Jang, Gong, and Lee 2011; Song 2010; Keyim 2018). In other words, beyond participation and empowerment, collaborative local tourism governance activates local tourism based on a democratic system where relevant stakeholders have equal opportunities to participate, build partnerships with mutual trust, and interact to achieve common goals.

For the effective function of collaborative local tourism governance, prior researchers have tried to identify components that are the essential drivers. Ansell and Gash (2008) summarised time, trust and interdependence as critical elements in collaborative governance. Based on this study, Bichler and Lösch (2019) conducted a study in South Tyrol, Italy. They have identified that the transformation of institutions and lack of shared understanding among stakeholders, including residents, have been barriers to collaborative governance. In these regards, they have emphasised leadership, interdependence, and communication as significant drivers.

Bramwell and Lane (2011) mentioned the participation of a diverse range of stakeholders in the decision-making process, and adequate systems such as decision-making rules are needed in line with implementing sustainable tourism development. A study conducted by Keyim (2018) in Vuonislahti village in Finland identified that broad and equitable collaboration, legitimate and skilled conveners and adequate resources are required for effective collaborative tourism governance. Beaumont and Dredge (2010) identified institutional arrangements, collaboration and engagement from the network perspective of collaborative governance.

Zahra (2011) conducted a study with regional tourism organisations (RTO) in Waikato, New Zealand, and highlighted commitments to community, open communication and

consultation, trust and legitimacy, and resources are required to achieve the governance system. Farmaki (2015) also conducted a study with RTOs in Cyprus in order to analyse the effectiveness of regional tourism governance in implementing sustainable tourism. Farmaki's study, which identified the inhibitors to effectiveness, emphasised the interplay, responsibilities, participation, and regulatory framework.

Kang (2019) conducted a study to understand how collaborative tourism governance is established and implemented with the Goryeong Tourism Association case, a local tourism organisation (LTO). Kang's study has confirmed that the leadership of a local government plays a critical role in establishing local tourism governance. In particular, systems and transparency are regarded significantly in implementing governance. However, as the lack of communication and participation are revealed as limitations of the LTO, Kang has argued that the degree of communication and openness among stakeholders are required to be expanded, and participation and roles of stakeholders are needed.

Nunkoo and Smith (2013) found that political support, residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism and trust in government stakeholders play significant roles in Ontario, Canada. Kantsperger, Thees, and Eckert (2019) conducted a study with non-tourism-related residents in tourism development. They have emphasised communication and sharing information on benefits, outcomes and opportunities.

Heslinga, Groote, and Vanclay (2019) conducted a study based on stakeholder analysis to explore ways to strengthen the governance process in protected areas. They have identified that effective communication, good collaboration, and openness play a significant role in the interactions between stakeholders. A study conducted by Lee and Kee (2019) in Buncheon Santa Village, South Korea, revealed that leadership plays a significant role in making various stakeholders participate. They have also argued the necessity of systems and trust among stakeholders in order for tourism governance to be collaborative and sustainable.

Through a literature review, Ruhanen, Scott, Ritchie, and Tkaczynski (2010) identified that accountability, transparency, involvement, structure, effectiveness and power are the most frequently identified variables. Examining tourism literature, Baggio, Scott, and Cooper (2011) have confirmed that collaboration, interdependence and power are highlighted from the governance's network perspective.

Regarding coastal tourism at Smiths Beach, Western Australia, Wesely and Pforr (2010)

witnessed local conflicts emerging in tourism development. Identifying the central to conflicts and controversies is the interplay of power and politics; they have underlined power relationships, stakeholder participation, collaboration and transparency with proper forms of governance. In particular, with eco-tourism, Hong (2020) conducted a study on components, design and purpose for tourism governance in Jeju, South Korea. Hong's study has identified leadership, capacity building and engagement as significant drivers in resource management.

Ndivo and Okech (2020) examined the effectiveness of Kenyan tourism governance in a transition period and found institutional gaps between the central government and devolved governments. Therefore, they have emphasised the necessity of building capacity for formulating aligned institutional and functional frameworks and coordination mechanisms. In the case of Zanzibar, Sharpley and Ussi (2014), they tried to identify the role of the state in tourism governance. They have identified a lack of willingness, systematic frameworks, and planning control and confirmed that Zanzibar's poor governance restricted them from benefiting from tourism.

I Gispert and Clave (2020) explored dimensions of tourism governance in the Catalan tourism system. From the stakeholders' perspective, they have identified participation, coherence, responsibility, effectiveness, know-how and quality, openness and simplicity as crucial dimensions of tourism governance. Wu (2021) explored the interrelationships between diverse actors in the policy-making network of tourism governance in the case of Nanao Township in Taiwan. From the network perspective, his study has revealed that respect and consensus among local tourism stakeholders play a significant role in encouraging participation and collaboration. Moreover, he has emphasised human resources and economic motivations as significant elements that affect the sustainability of tourism development.

To sum up, prior researchers have discussed and identified components of local tourism governance - communication, participation, leadership, network, system, willingness, accountability, interplay, and trust. These elements are arranged in Table 2.4 below.

[Table 2.4] Significant Elements of Local Tourism Governance

Element	Author(s)
Trust	Ansell and Gash (2008); Keyim (2018); Lee and Kee (2019); Nunkoo and Smith (2013); Van der Zee, Gerrets, and Vanneste (2017); Zahra (2011)

Openness	Bichler and Lösch (2019); I Gispert and Clave (2020); Heslinga, Groote, and Vanclay (2019); Kang (2019); Kantsperger, Thees, and Eckert (2019); Ruhanen et al. (2010); Wesely and Pforr (2010); Zahra (2011)
Consensus	Bichler and Lösch (2019); I Gispert and Clave (2020); Mak, Cheung, and Hui (2017); Wu (2021)
Willingness	Beaumont and Dredge (2010); Bramwell and Lane (2011); Sharpley and Ussi (2014); Sithole, Giampiccoli, and Jugmohan (2021); Wesely and Pforr (2010); Wu (2021)
Capacity	Dodds, Ali, and Galaski (2018); Ndivo and Okech (2020); Hong (2020); I Gispert and Clave (2020)
System	Beaumont and Dredge (2010); Bramwell and Lane (2011); Bichler and Lösch (2019); Farmaki (2015); Lee and Kee (2019); Kang (2019); Sharpley and Ussi (2014); Ndivo and Okech (2020); Nunkoo and Smith (2013)
Interdependence	Ansell and Gash (2008); Baggio, Scott, and Cooper (2011); Bichler and Lösch (2019); De Bruyn and Alonso (2012); Farmaki (2015); Heslinga, Groote, and Vanclay (2019)
Effectiveness	I Gispert and Clave (2020); Ruhanen et al. (2010); Sharpley and Ussi (2014); Wu (2021); Zahra (2011)
Accountability	Farmaki (2015); I Gispert and Clave (2020); Ruhanen et al. (2010); Wu (2021); Zahra (2011)

To conclude, local tourism governance is a formalised and organised tourism decision-making process that connects diverse local stakeholders. Adding to critical values of participation, partnership, and social coordination, more interactive, more accountable, more open, and more effective collaboration is required to achieve shared goals.

Looking at local tourism governance, elements arranged in Table 2.4, sub-elements could be categorised under each higher factor. The first higher factor is participation. Participation is the right of stakeholders and the fundamental and essential element to having governance formed. Therefore, stakeholders' motivations and thoughts (Sithole, Giampiccoli, and Jugmohan 2021), administrative procedures and regulatory frameworks (Sharpley and Ussi 2014) and stakeholders' capacity building (Dodds, Ali, and Galaski 2018) are the significant elements in order to induce stakeholders to the table.

The second higher factor is the partnership. Lasker, Weiss, and Miller (2001) have mentioned that the partnership would create a crucial synergy encompassing diverse

stakeholders' skills and resources. For an effective and fair partnership, three elements are required: trust (Van der Zee, Gerrets, and Vanneste 2017) should be a basis of the relationship among stakeholders, and a transparent network by open communication and information (Beaumont and Dredge 2010) is necessary. Moreover, the agreement of stakeholders (Mak, Cheung, and Hui 2017) plays a significant role in building cohesion.

The final higher factor is social coordination. Social coordination refers to the interaction of stakeholders to solve common problems. As their actions are connected, interdependence is significant in producing decisions (De Bruyn and Alonso 2012), and a practical approach under planning control is required (Keyim 2018). Besides, accountability is a significant element for stakeholders to take roles (Farmaki 2015).

These sub-elements are incorporated with the higher factors, and these factors become the significant drivers for stakeholders to form the local tourism governance. The governance is not limited to stakeholders' collective actions but refers to a more systemised, organised, and horizontal decision-making process based on stakeholders' participation, partnerships, and coordination. Table 2.5 below suggests a framework for collaborative local tourism governance components, which factors and sub-elements are based on Table 2.4.

[Table 2.5] Components of Collaborative Local Tourism Governance

Classification			Definition
Higher Factors	Participation		Exercise the right for all stakeholders to participate in a collective decision-making process in an equal manner
	Partnership		Alliance to achieve common goals in tourism development by forming horizontal relationships between stakeholders
	Social Coordination		Interactions between stakeholders aiming at solving common problems
Sub-Elements	Partnership	Trust	Reliability with other stakeholders
		Openness	Active communication and transparent sharing of information
		Consensus	Reaching an agreement ensuring cohesion between stakeholders
	Participation	Willingness	Spontaneous will of stakeholders to participate
		Capacity	Knowledge and expertise of stakeholders
		System	A regulatory and administrative framework that supports the participation of stakeholders

	Social Coordination	Interdependence	Recognising that stakeholders' actions are connected to other stakeholders' actions
		Effectiveness	Achieving a common goal with the use of accessible resources and under the planning control
		Accountability	Authority and responsibility in accordance with their roles

(Source: Derived from Table 2.4)

2.5 Summation of Chapter 2

To sum up, this study aims to identify both barriers and drivers of community participation in tourism development based on two local theme parks in South Korea. As conventional tourism development approaches, which are targeted at increasing economic profits and attracting a large number of visitors, have faced numerous social conflicts and environmental deterioration, various institutions and researchers, including UNWTO, have tried to find ways to link the concept of sustainable development to tourism.

Therefore, they have reached the concept of sustainable tourism development, focusing on satisfying the needs of both stakeholders and host regions, protecting and enhancing the opportunity for the future. Sustainable tourism development includes three dimensions of: economic, socio-cultural and environmental. That is, sustainable tourism aims to contribute to the local economy, protect cultural resources, and preserve nature. In order to achieve these aims, two main points are required. The first one is the informed participation of stakeholders, as tourism is people-based. The second one is the collaboration of stakeholders as a tourism destination, which is described as an amalgam of stakeholders' various interests, values, and resources. In order to identify who stakeholders are and how they collaborate, stakeholder theory, which provides the concept and roles in tourism development, and collaboration theory, which contains propositions and procedures of collaboration, are suggested in this study.

A stakeholder has been frequently cited in the business sector, indicating individuals or groups with legitimate interests in corporations. That is, their actions are associated with corporate activities. As the size of the tourism industry has expanded due to globalisation, the number of associated stakeholders has increased, becoming more complicated and segmented. Therefore, stakeholders in the current tourism development are not limited to specific individuals or groups; instead, it requires a broader range of stakeholders, including local

communities, NGOs, and governments.

However, the participation of different stakeholders with diverse interests, objectives and resources has caused conflicts and excessive competition. In this regard, collaboration has been an abstract concept that stakeholders find challenging to understand. Collaboration means *to work with*, which requires values such as partnership, interplay and legitimacy. These values imply that collaboration should proceed with a shared and equal power among stakeholders, with a recognition of the connectivity of their actions and their interests within their common goals.

These discussions on stakeholders' participation and collaboration to achieve sustainable tourism development have narrowed down to the local community level. Along with three dimensions of sustainable tourism, residents have been highlighted as critical stakeholders in protecting cultural resources and preserving natural resources. In particular, following criticism of the exploitation of local resources, which had led to various conflicts and deterioration, the significance of a community-based approach focusing on the participation and empowerment of residents has come to the fore.

As an alternative to conventional development approaches focused on an economic perspective, CBT encourages residents to participate, empowers residents and increases the standard of living in communities. A community can be viewed from two perspectives: the territorial perspective. Therefore, CBT requires the participation of local stakeholders, including residents. The second one is the network perspective. Therefore, CBT highlights interaction and collaboration among local stakeholders in the form of partnership.

However, being criticised as an unrealistic approach, CBT has faced diverse barriers to community participation. This chapter has mainly identified three operational, structural, and cultural barriers. Operational barriers are related to the conventional bureaucratic development model. That is, tourism development is planned and implemented by the central government in a top-down manner. In these power-centralised circumstances, information could not be shared, and coordinative actions could not be done, creating a communication gap.

Structural barriers are related to power structures and legislative and economic systems. In other words, implementers who substantially execute the plan and budget would have doubts about the necessity of collaboration, which consumes too much time and money. Also, in a situation where no legal system guarantees residents' participation, the scope of participating

stakeholders is inevitably limited to dominating groups. Moreover, issues of expertise occur due to the lack of trained human resources and tourism experts.

Cultural barriers are related to local communities' customs, states and social behaviour. This means that participating in tourism development and negotiating with the powerholders would be challenging for residents who have been involved in other businesses, such as farming, in their lifetime. Also, these residents would not be interested in tourism activities if they could not recognise any interdependency and motivations. As such, these barriers have become triggers for the isolation and exclusion of local communities from the decision-making processes.

Nevertheless, CBT is meaningful in that it puts the community in the centre, seeks fair and democratic procedures, and considers residents' empowerment that traditional tourism approaches have not considered. However, as it remains a textbook that provides the perfect guideline but has a gap between reality, a more systematic and formalised mechanism is required for the actual practice.

Using the concept of local governance and connecting it to local tourism development initiatives, prior studies have started to call it local tourism governance. Not ending up advocating the participation and empowerment of local communities, local tourism governance emphasises the share of authority and responsibilities among diverse actors based on three values: participation, partnership and social coordination. Moreover, it has been identified that participation is affected by willingness, capacity and system, the partnership is affected by trust, openness and consensus, and social coordination is affected by interdependence, effectiveness and accountability.

Along with the aims of this study, this chapter focuses on identifying barriers to community participation and significant drivers to form local tourism governance. As mentioned, a local community could be seen from a territorial and network perspective. Barriers and drivers found in this chapter emphasise that those geographically related to the domain could be called stakeholders, and their interaction and collaboration are necessary to achieve sustainable tourism.

These prior studies on CBT and local tourism governance have provided remarkable understandings and discussions on how stakeholders should make efforts to achieve sustainable tourism. However, two significant gaps have been identified. The first gap is that developing

countries have been central. In most studies on the community-based approach, cases are limited in developing countries with poor economic status. The second gap is in rural and small villages. That is, in cases in which a village itself is a tourist attraction, studies have not considered other levels of tourist attractions.

Hence, as a context-specific section, the next chapter deals with two local theme parks in Korea. South Korea is a developed country located in East Asia, where they have different circumstances and cultures from Western perspectives. In South Korea, theme parks have been developed in line with local tourism development initiatives by local governments. Therefore, these theme parks have a public feature in that they try to utilise local resources and induce local participation in the decision-making process, creating a tourism network.

The next chapter starts with the history of governance in South Korea and narrows down to tourism cases. In particular, with an example of local tourism governance, titled Tour Dure Project, the next chapter shows how South Korea substantially tries to establish tourism governance based on local autonomy and decentralisation. Finally, it reaches the theme park level by identifying gaps in theme park studies in the South Korean context and looks at their strategies and policies for the community-based approach.

Chapter 3. Case Study Setting

This chapter is a context-specific section dealing with setting the case study. Here, it explains the Korean governance system and how it affects Korean tourism. It details the current challenges in local tourism governance and collaboration among stakeholders. The first two parts (3.1 and 3.2) explore the evolving Korean governance system in chronological order and related recent issues and constraints. Part 3.3 identifies academic and practical gaps in theme park study in the South Korean context and provides the rationale for this study. Part 3.4 deals with two local theme parks (Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park) in South Korea to investigate their development strategies and policies on residents' participation. Administrative divisions of South Korea are presented in Appendix 1.

3.1 Korean Governance System

Change of Governance System and Examples of Local Governance

South Korea has achieved economic growth based on its national developmental state model. Since the 1960s, the Korean central government actively intervened in the market and systematically implemented industrial, trade, and macroeconomic policies (Moon and Chung 2014). During the period of military dictatorship (between the 1960s and early 1990s), the government took control of the banking sector to control corporate financing and suppressed social forces calling for democratisation in an authoritarian way (Lee, Lim, and Park 2007). As a result, a state-centred governance structure was formed to control the market and society. The Korean government's coercive and centralised governance system appeared identically in corporate management culture. Lee and Suh (1998) have found regionalism-, school relations-, and kinship-oriented management, top-down communication and decision-making, and personal assignment of tasks as parts of corporate cultures, defining the characteristics of managers as the leadership-led authority. Besides, the Confucian order strengthened the social status order centred on academic background, and the family-oriented Confucian culture, in particular, ethically approved the authoritative hierarchy within the corporation (Ko 2003).

However, the foreign exchange crisis, which lasted from 1997 to 2001, was a decisive factor in the change in governance systems (Moon and Chung 2014). The validity and sustainability of the national-centred development state model were questioned amid the trend of democratisation, globalisation and digitisation (Lee, Lim, and Park 2007), and the newly

emerging neo-liberalism of the same period has led to the growth of individualism and the creation of corresponding new systematic domains (Jang and Hong 2010). Hence, the local autonomy system has been promoted in earnest since 2003.

The form of decentralisation was introduced with the formation of the local council in 1991 and the election of the head of the local government for the first time in 1995. Particularly from 2003, however, policy tasks such as strengthening autonomous administrative capabilities, revitalising local councils, improving the local election system, and strengthening the responsibility of autonomous administration have been presented, and the system for the realisation of residents' autonomy by the direct participation has expanded (Baek 2016; Cha 2017). Therefore, in Korea, civil society-oriented local governance has received much attention due to the trend of decentralisation through the local autonomy system (Jang and Hong 2010; Kim, Choi, and Lee 2018).

As an example of civil society-oriented local governance, the Hope Ondol Project is a welfare project that the Seoul Metropolitan Government has been promoting since 2011 to eliminate the blind spots of welfare. In the course of the project, citizens and more than 3,000 entities (civilian, religious and grassroots organisations) acted as crucial players in connection with the local welfare council. This horizontal combination received a positive evaluation for discovering previously undiscovered welfare blind spots and broadening the public view of them, especially for the fact that the project promotion headquarters has used the citizens' planning committee as a conduit for civic participation (Kang, Kim, and Go 2014).

Another example could be found in the role of residents in the consolidation process between Cheongju-si and Cheongwon-gun. Although Cheongju-si and Cheongwon-gun were separated in the autonomous region, discussions on consolidation had continuously been raised in the local communities as the boundaries of the areas were connected, and both residents were already sharing the same culture and lebensraum. A total of three rounds of discussions were held from 1994 to 2010 but failed repeatedly. The fourth round of discussions has begun in earnest with the activities of residents' organisations, and discussions were actively conducted through the country residents' conference, which was launched in 2011. This conference was developed into a joint council to promote the consolidation, which consisted of provincial, municipal, county, civilian and government, and detailed projects were finalised through a continuous consultation process, and the consolidation was finally decided through a local referendum. In 2014, the two districts were consolidated into Cheongju-si. Through the

integration process, Han (2017) emphasised the need for collaboration and consensus among residents and relevant stakeholders and stated that discussions should be developed by residents.

Current Challenges of Korean Local Governance

The South Korean government has made various efforts to decentralise the country over the past two decades. In particular, systems such as residents' recall referendum and litigation system have played a significant role in realising residents' autonomy, so the level of systematisation of autonomy and participation has increased predominantly (Lee, S. 2019). Nevertheless, there are a few constraints to fully implementing local autonomy and a local governance system in Korea.

The first is the limitation of the legal situation. Baek (2016) pointed out that local autonomy is based on institutional security under constitutional law, with just two provisions, which have room to degenerate into local autonomy through legislation. He is concerned that as long as the central government monopolises legislative power, limitations of formal local autonomy cannot be overcome. Besides, the current quota and organisation of local governments are stipulated in the decree and are subject to approval by the Ministry of the Interior and Security, limiting local governments to respond to local issues flexibly and residents' demands (Song and Lee 2020).

The second is the deepening fiscal dependence of local governments on the central government. The average financial independence of local governments across the country decreased from 63.5% in 1995 to 50.4% as of 2020, and of the total 17 local governments, only seven had more than 50% financial independence in 2020 (KOSIS 2020). Therefore, local governments rely more on funds transferred from the central government than on autonomous local taxes (Cho 2018). Moreover, COVID-19 in 2020 has led to a recession and financial uncertainty in the local economy (Lee, Park, and Kim 2020).

Third, the formal participation of stakeholders has continuously been criticised. Kang, Kim, and Go (2014) have indicated that in the case of citizen-participatory projects like the Hope Ondol Project, it is challenging to bridge the gap between expectations and reality unless local government officials actively induce the participation of ordinary citizens. Also, indicating that many local governments have not disclosed administrative information transparently, Kim, J. (2012) says that participation without accurate information provided to

residents is only a formality.

Fourth, the central structure of local government heads and bureaucrats and collusion with regional vested interests have been pointed out as a chronic problem of local autonomy in Korea (Chung 2010; Kim, J. 2012; Lee, S. 2019). Lee, S.' (2019) study on residents' participation in Daegu Metropolitan City's local autonomy supports this issue. For a long time in Daegu, a specific political party has dominated local politics. Therefore, the system to check power in the region has crumbled, leading the local administration to be self-righteous. Also, local politicians work only for the party nomination system and government organisations, and local worthies who have functioned during authoritarian times have expanded to local councils or worked as partners in local administration, leaving residents alienated from local autonomy.

The fifth is a misguided understanding of local governance. As mentioned, local governance has been recognising stakeholders' empowerment as equal partners to resolve common issues within the region, and therefore, a bottom-up decision-making process is crucial. However, in South Korea, most of the policies are led by the central government, and local governments serve as a platform to deliver projects from various central government ministries to residents (Nam 2016). In particular, residents are restricted to presenting their opinions through surveys or voting, remaining in token participation and focused on supporting administrative roles rather than self-government (Im 2019; Jin 2019; Lee, S. 2016; Lee, S. 2019). In other words, residents remain in a "non-executive position" (Kim, J. 2014: 281).

Sixth, some authors focus on the background of the emergence of a Korean governance model. Lee, Lim, and Park (2007) have claimed that for the new government launched after the military dictatorship, governance was a handy ideological tool in acquiring and maintaining the regime. They also indicated that the Korean government only used the same word, governance, but it was different from the model proposed by international organisations, and the content was revised to promote the political interests of the regime. Moreover, Jang and Hong (2010) have expressed that the embers of resistance to past dictatorships did not seem to have been extinguished, pointing to the excessive concentration of research and cases on civil society-oriented local governance.

The Korean government had dominated the market and society based on authoritarianism and substantial control from the 1960s to the 1990s, when the military dictatorship ended. With the occurrence of the foreign exchange crisis and the advent of

democratic governments in the late 1990s, interest in the local autonomy system that disperses the power of central government has soared. In particular, a bottom-up system centred on local-related stakeholders has been introduced as the need for residents' autonomy has increased, and specific measures for realisation have been discussed.

However, the systematic process of policy-making and excessive fiscal dependence remain challenges to overcome in order for local autonomy to be realised. Besides, authoritarian behaviour, administrative logic and formal attitudes are still prevalent in local autonomy, impeding the realisation of local governance in South Korea.

3.2 Local Governance in South Korean Tourism

Trends in Korean Tourism Governance

By the 1990s, South Korea's tourism development policy had adopted a productivity-oriented ideology amid a centralised, top-down development policy (Lee, J. 1994). As a principal planning agent, the central government commissioned planning experts and external service companies to suggest a planned proposal. In this process, the opinions of the government and related agencies were reflected in the plan to some extent (Kang 1999).

As residents were not guaranteed to participate in the process of establishing the tourism development plan, local characteristics were ignored, local environments were damaged, and tourism development failed to contribute to the increase of residents' income (Kim 1994; Lee, J. 1994). Korea's tourism development, which had focused only on mere physical facility development, had caused an increase in negative perception of the tourism industry and social friction (Kang 1999; Kim 1994).

As discussions on local autonomy began at the central government level and the traditional growth-oriented strategy reached its limits, local governments themselves had to find and implement local development strategies, thus changing their attitudes and efforts to adopt bottom-up tourism development strategies were required (Lee, Y. 1994).

In the 1990s, there was a lack of discussion on forming local governance as it was the early days of introducing the local autonomy system. However, discussions on the necessity of collaborative tourism development planning based on local communities began to minimise the negative impact of tourism development and increase the real income of residents (Choung

1995; Jang 1992; Kang 1998; Kim 1995; Lee and Moon 1998; Shin 1998).

Since the 2000s, when decentralisation began in earnest, many attempts have introduced the governance theory to local tourism development in South Korea. Commonly, the majority of studies have raised the need to build local governance in the development of tourism in the context of South Korea, finding that community participation, collaboration, interaction, consensus, trust, partnerships, and networks play critical elements in the formation of governance (Choi and Park 2008; Jung 2010; Kim 2007; Kim 2008; Kwon 2008; Park 2007; Sim 2005; Won 2006). Although these studies could not provide specific measures to establish Korean tourism governance, they are meaningful in that they provide policy implications to consider forming governance and spreading the concept.

Two Korean Ministries - the Ministry of Environment and the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism - jointly established the '*Eco-Tourism Activation Plan*' to create a foundation for the wise use of natural resources in 2008. In this plan, strategies for developing local-specialised eco-tourism products have been established. In other words, it is to develop collaborative eco-tourism products in conjunction with local characteristics, traditional culture and local festivals. Among the festivals utilising ecological resources, Hampyeong Butterfly Festival is found to have residents' high motivation and loyalty to the festival (Lee and Song 2014) because this festival successfully induced direct participation of residents and local-based organisations in the programme development, which created a strong sense of unity between local governments and residents (Cho 2013).

Besides, the significance of governance formation in developing eco-tourism in Korea has gradually come to the fore. A study on the revitalisation of eco-tourism in the Han River (Kim and Kim 2015) has emphasised the need to establish a collaborative governance system in the planning and execution of the Han River because the project has not been implemented efficiently as the central government and the Seoul Metropolitan Government has been planning independently. Also, there is an example of a study on the project to introduce the Nakdong River eco-tour cruise and the restoration of a waterway, in which residents organise social enterprises and work with local governments to form a bottom-up tourism development. The formation of a policy network based on diverse stakeholders' participation and interaction has played a crucial role in policy-making (Kim, Kim, and Park 2015).

In the recent two decades, the realisation of sustainable tourism through the formation

of local governance has been significant in the central government's tourism policy. According to the '*Second Basic Plan for Tourism Development (2002-2011)*' established in 2001, strategies have been formulated to promote local tourism development and strengthen the sustainable development and management of tourism resources. Besides, the '*Third Basic Plan for Tourism Development (2012-2021)*' established in 2011 has included forming a tourism industry consultative body and establishing collaborative partnerships with local governments. Based on these aims, the formation of governance has been raised through the participation of various entities, including the central government, local governments, residents, businesses and non-profit organisations. Moreover, the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism's (2014) study set the aim to establish governance for the development of endogenous local tourism, which is recognised as a national task to establish tourism governance based on local autonomy and decentralisation.

Tour Dure Project - An Example of Collaborative Local Governance in South Korea

The Korean Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism have been announcing regions for the Tour Dure Project since 2013. Dure is a Korean word meaning the farmers' cooperative group. With the goal of *letting us solve the problems of tourism in our region on our own and together*, 'Tour Dure⁷' is a project that supports residents to start and operate tourism businesses with their unique local resources (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism 2019). Besides, it is a system that connects the virtuous circle of local tourism and shares the benefits of tourism with residents and regions to develop together based on collaboration and co-prosperity (Tour Dure 2019). As of 2019, 192 local businesses are operating in 46 regions.

In this project, a coordinator called Tour Dure Producer performs an interim support mission with the Tourism Dure Business Group, meditating on vision and missions between stakeholders and forming middle-level networks (Kim and Lee 2020). Tour Dure Producers are found to positively impact the performance of collaborative governance by forming a stable organisational system and leading to the objectives that organisations desire based on the role of strengthening the competence of stakeholders and vitalising exchanges (Kim and Kim 2018).

This project is based on endogenous development, which is a concept that emphasises

⁷ 관광 두레 (Gwan-gwang Du-re)

the building of local-based development engines with the efforts of the region itself, the self-directed role of community members and the formation of interdependent relationships (Kim and Lee 2020). Therefore, it is regarded as an exemplary case of sustainable tourism in that it fosters resident-led business organisations and establishes local tourism strategies based on collaborative governance between the central government and residents (Byeon 2019; Seo 2018).

However, it has been pointed out that since it is the early stage of the emergence of interim support organisations, such as Tour Dure Producer, at the central and regional levels, their roles remain in the business support function, focusing on funding (Kim, S. 2014). In other words, rather than being an interim support organisation supporting collaboration and networks, they are more of an intermediary management organisation that supports and manages social and economic businesses according to the needs of the administration.

Besides, local governments provide indirect support, such as providing workspace for PDs and supporting the utilisation of public facilities, compared to other central institutions (Kim, S. 2014). The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism takes charge of essential planning and financial support, the Korea Culture and Tourism Institute generalises specific projects, and the Korea Tourism Organization⁸ take charge of public relations and marketing. Financial support from central institutions has a positive impact, but the current system base and project operating factors harm social performance creation (Kim and Lee 2020). As the project is carried out as a part of the Ministry's project, the systematic environment has not been created at the local government level. In this regard, there is a need to create a systematic environment, such as enacting ordinances at the local government level to reduce dependence on the central institutions and establish regional-based collaborative governance (Kim and Lee 2020; Kim, Atsuko, and Lee 2016; Seo 2018).

Moreover, the role of local government is indirect support without budget matching, so interests and participation degrees are different in local governments (Park 2017). In particular, as it is people-centred and based on participation, the level of project performance is in accordance with local conditions and the capability on which success depends (Park, Kim, Park, and Park 2015).

⁸ Names of institutions and organisations in South Korea are written in American English, following their official English names.

To sum up, the Tour Dure Project is a representative tourism project established by the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism, implying two aspects to the Korean context. First, this project contributes to revitalising the local image and the community spirit by enabling local communities to initiate tourism business entities by themselves. Second, this project helps local communities collaborate by not relying on central and local governments.

However, this project itself faces some issues. First, Tour Dure Producer's role remains as an intermediary management organisation that supports the local government's needs. Second, as the Ministry establishes this project, significant elements such as planning, finance, public relations, and marketing are controlled by the central government, not local communities. Third, this project intensely depends on individuals' or communities' capabilities and local governments' interests. Finally, the Tour Dure Project is a three-year project. As Park (2017) has criticised, three years are insufficient to educate local communities, link to related organisations, support the investment attraction and expect stable self-reliance growth.

As an exemplar that applies community participation in local tourism development, the Tour Dure Project implies four aspects to this study. First, this project tries for stakeholders, especially residents, to undertake roles in the development, but their roles are not explicitly articulated, creating confusion in playing their roles. Second, this project's issues show the possible barriers to residents' participation, but these barriers are identified ostensibly, requiring covering a more comprehensive range and considering various dynamics. Third, this project has an exact period to terminate. However, local theme parks do not have a specific date for closing down; instead, they are built for a long-term period. Last, the Ministry launched this project, but a local theme park was created by local governments linked with local tourism development. In this regard, the need to develop a conceptual framework to provide recommendations on the planning and management of local theme parks is evident.

Current Challenges of Local Governance in Korean Tourism

With the need to pursue a virtuous cycle of tourism strategies in the region, local tourism development in South Korea has been changing into a form of self-optimised planning by local governments (Cho 2019).

However, frequent changes in the heads of local governments or agencies confuse the continuity and sustainability of tourism policy. As the cycle of establishing the zone plan is

five years, separate plans are made to replace the zone plan according to the circumstances of the lower-level local government (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism 2017). These changes result in relocating all resources within the organisation to the projects of interest of agencies and organisations' new heads. As the newcomers are interested in new projects, the existing projects could be curtailed or suspended (Lee and Kee 2019).

Regional tourism conferences have been operating by region based on the Tourism Promotion Act (C.IV(a48-9) (2020) to establish collaborative regional tourism governance centred on local communities (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism 2015). However, there are overlapping roles and tasks between local tourism councils and traditional regional tourism organisations (Kim, S. T. 2015). Besides, it is arduous for the councils that could not carry legally binding force to secure representation due to the scope of members' participation and the ambiguity of the criteria for participation and to fulfil their role as a substantial consultative body for the local tourism development (Jang, Gong, and Lee 2011). Expanding mutual sharing and communication of information is a challenge in the future to encourage the active and voluntary participation of members (Kang 2019).

The local governance system has not been soundly established in the local tourism structure, as it lacks a support base, awareness of stakeholders, and policy collaboration among ministries and between the tourism industry and the governments, and most activities remain at the level of the formal meeting (Doh, Song, and Han 2011; Im 2016; Kim, Park, and Kim 2016). Local tourism policies still tend to be subordinated to the central government (Seo 2020). Moreover, some pointed out that the tourism industry's supply conditions have not improved significantly compared to the local government's interest in the tourism industry (Korea Tourism Organization 2005). This point has been continuing until recent years, with the lack of expertise due to budget and organisational limitations and unstable conditions for employees and inadequate working conditions, leading to a decline in continuity between employees and their tasks (Kim, Cho, and Han 2019)

The zone plan refers to the regional planning and coordination support group - Korea Culture & Tourism Institute - under the tourism promotion act. Therefore, differentiation and effectiveness are reduced as the guidelines do not consider the local circumstances (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism 2017). Besides, according to the results of the feasibility

adjustment of the tourism promotion project plan, only 6 out of 16 regions⁹ in Korea have stipulated structuring collaborative networks as a part of tourism development strategies (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism 2017).

Moreover, in terms of strategies for local tourism development, the development of products and the expansion of tourist attractions are currently under the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism jurisdiction, not by local governments (Office of the Prime Minister 2019). Furthermore, in the measures established by the relevant authorities in connection with COVID-19 as of May 2020 (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism 2020), most of the strategies are under the jurisdiction of central governmental departments. In contrast, local governments take responsibility for evaluating cultural tour commentators, conducting safety inspections and sanitation, running safety travel campaigns, and providing discounts on tourist attractions.

Many scholars agree that there has been much effort and interest at the local (community) level to form collaborative local governance in South Korea (Hwang and Lee 2013; Jung 2017; Kang 2019; Kim 2008; Kim, Atsuko, and Lee 2016; Shim 2016; Yeo 2017). Simultaneously, it has been evaluated that there is a lack of practice in structuring the governance (Im 2016; Jang, Gong, and Lee 2011; Kim and Kim 2018; Kim, Park, and Kim 2016; Lee and Kee 2019; Seo 2018; Seo 2020; Song 2010). Internally, inconsistent and unsustainable policies, a lack of support base, and a lack of awareness of governance and formal participation constrain the form of local governance. Besides, the weak systematic and economic foundation and the central government's jurisdiction over local tourism development make it challenging for local governments to devise and realise policies themselves.

3.3 The Current Trends and Issues in South Korean Theme Park Development

3.3.1 The Current Development Trend of South Korean Theme Parks

During the 2000s and 2010s, tourists' preferences changed to a well-being touristic form that incorporates a sense of natural and health orientation to help people feel relaxed (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism 2013) due to the rapidly increasing need for empathy,

⁹ Jeju, a special autonomous province, has excluded according to the law.

consolation and healing among tourists (Lee, Kang, Lee, and Lee 2013). Since the mid-2000s, in line with the lifestyle change pursuing naturalism, products that advocate naturalism have been produced in various industrial areas (Kim, Jung, and Park 2005). Also, growing interest in health created a new trend called health tourism (Sim 2010), which values the stability of physical and mental health while travelling.

In this regard, along with the '*Eco-Tourism Activation Plan*' (Ministry of Environment and Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism 2008) and the '*Third Basic Plan for Tourism Development (2012-2021)*' (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism 2011), strategies for vitalising eco-tourism are also discussed as a significant issue in the '*Third Basic Plan for Conservation of Nature (2016-2025)*' (Ministry of Environment 2015). In this plan, effective strategies such as the designation of new national parks and excellent ecological resources, expanding residents' participation in nature conservation activities, habitat protection, and expanding urban ecological rest areas are dealt with in-depth. Various plans have highlighted the need to conserve biodiversity and the significance of residents' participation in tourism development.

Changes in tourists' tendencies and the direction of the state's strategies for tourism development have led local governments to start creating theme parks depending on the cultural and environmental resources of their region. Themes are varied by history (or historical figures), local specialities, and cultural and natural resources. For example, Seodongyo Theme Park in Buyeo-gun has a theme of the Baekje Kingdom period (BC 18 - AD 600), Anseong Farmland in Anseong-si specialises in dairy products, one of the biggest industries of the city, and Agricultural Theme Park in Uiryeong-gun provides traditional agriculture experiences to visitors.

3.3.2 The Current Issues of South Korean Theme Parks

Local governments have been scrambling to create local theme parks to boost the local economy (Kim and Ahn 2018), revamp the local image, expand their finances (Choi and Lim 2017), and protect natural environments and local indigenous culture (Kim, Jung, and Park 2005). Since the mid-2000s, several theme parks have been planned and promoted by local governments, but they have been negatively evaluated for more than a decade (Choi 2005; Cho 2016; Jeong 2015; Kim 2009; Kim, J. 2016; Kim, Baek, Kim, and Shin 2006; Park 2020),

facing following issues.

First, in the development of a local theme park, the construction has not been analysed in detail, ranging from resource research to planning and design. Some local theme parks have developed parks by exploring unique themes in the area, but the connection with the surrounding areas has been inferior, and space has not been divided by themes (Rhee, Choi, Yoon, Choi, and Eom 2011).

Second, natural disasters are likely to cause severe damage to nature-based attractions (Song and Kim 2017) and could increase tourists' avoidance of tourist destinations (Kim, T. 2015) by negatively recognising the image of tourism destinations (Biran, Liu, Li, and Eichhorn 2014). The Seoul Zoo's camels were quarantined due to Middle East Respiratory Syndrome, while the festival in Anseong Farmland was suspended due to African Swine Fever.

Third, due to the application of uniform business contents and methods that do not consider the environment and culture of each region, regional differentiation has not been highlighted (Lee and Hwang 2017). There is a constant concern that the Korean theme park, which fails to build a structure centred on a particular theme and narrative, would lose the purpose of visitors' visits (Lee, K. and Kim, H. 2018).

Fourth, the overall theme park development focuses only on simple rides and entertainment without being based on any narrative aspects that induce emotional responses from visitors (Lim 2012; Oh and Ma 2017). Therefore, despite the vast monetary investment, these theme parks have experienced financial difficulties (Park and Choi 2018).

Fifth, the empowerment of residents within local communities has not been crucially considered in developing a local theme park even though local cultural and natural resources are exploited, and residents' taxes operate theme parks. This fifth issue can be categorised into three aspects.

Issue 1. Theme Park Development in South Korean Studies

In the context of South Korea, research on theme parks based on unique cultural and natural resources has continued to date in terms of local tourism development (Baek, Kim, Jeon, and Kim 2013; Kim and Ahn 2018; Kim, Jung, and Park 2005; Kwon and Park 2013; Lee 2004, Lee and Kim 2008; Park 2010; Rhee et al. 2011; Shim 2013). Most studies are limited to aspects

such as the spatial layout of resources, facility planning, programme development, demand forecasting and selective attributes. In the domestic context, visitors expect natural scenery and education from local theme parks, and local theme parks have a more solid public character than popular theme parks (Baek et al. 2013; Lee and Kim 2008; Park 2010; Rhee et al. 2011). These aspects imply that local theme parks' development direction should be more than just entertainment and educational programmes that could not be experienced in the urban area. In this regard, Shim (2013) argues that the development of programmes and products should be systemised to accept residents' or visitors' ideas about theme parks.

However, outside of the physical development aspects of local theme parks, studies on forming local collaborative governance in the development process are scarce. Also, the local theme park concept has not been recognised academically, and research results have covered only surface features that are biased on hardware aspects. Residents' participation in a local theme park development has not yet been covered in other studies, while the two below gaps evidence the necessity.

Issue 2. Residents' Participation in Theme Park Development Decision-Making Process

A key point in the CBT approach is the active participation of residents in the decision-making process (Bagus, Nyoman, and Putu 2019; Mayaka, Croy, and Cox 2019; Nair and Hamzah 2015; Yanes, Zielinski, Cano, and Kim 2019). It enhances residents' attention to tourism's potential effects and guarantees communities' empowerment in the decision-making process.

Under the current law, the creation of natural parks (Natural Parks Act 2018) and amusement parks (Tourism Promotion Act 2017) are stipulated in different laws. When designating a natural park, the opinions of residents should be heard by holding briefing sessions and public hearings, and the park management office is required to gather opinions from various stakeholders, including residents, every ten years to review the feasibility of the park plan and reflect the results in the change of the park plan. On the contrary, local communities' participation, including residents' participation, is not stipulated in creating a theme park from a legal perspective. In order to create amusement facilities such as theme parks, necessary documents must be submitted to the head of the local government for permission, following the Enforcement Rules of the Tourism Promotion Act (2020). Also, the

development of a tourism and recreation complex in farming and fishing villages could be directly developed by the heads of a region - mayor, governor or the head of an autonomous Gu - or by a person who has obtained approval for a project plan from the heads of a region (Agricultural and Fishing Villages Improvement Act 2019, C.VI(S1.a82)).

Also, some local governments have established measures to promote residents' participation in fair tourism by enacting an ordinance to foster and support fair tourism (Enhanced Local Laws and Regulations Information System n.d.). Fair tourism and CBT are similar in that they are based on community aspects. CBT emphasises the participation and empowerment of local communities in tourism development. In contrast, fair tourism focuses on fair relations and distribution among stakeholders in the tourism sector, such as fair trade and fair distribution of benefits (Hwang and Lee 2011; Joo 2013). In other words, the participation of residents stipulated in the local governments' acts is related to fair trade through participation, which is somewhat different from the participation of residents in a CBT approach.

Besides, various studies emphasise the need for active participation of residents in the rural theme park in that it connects with the residents' living areas. However, the role proposed in these studies is limited to park management and monitoring activities (Choi, Eun, and Kim 2017; Kwon and Park 2014; Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs 2015; Yang and Cho 2014).

Issue 3. Residents' Empowerment

In the context of South Korea, a case study has found that the impact of empowerment on residents' participation is significant (Kim, H. and Kim, I. 2017), which means the higher the level of empowerment of residents, the more sustainable local tourism development could be led (Jeong, Jeung, and Ko 2018). The need for measures to enhance the opportunity for residents to speak and participate in local tourism development has been raised (Chung 2019b) in that it is necessary to strengthen the empowerment of residents and to have an attachment to the region in order to play a role as the main body of the local community (Park, Y. 2014).

However, in the context of local theme park development, the empowerment of residents is insufficient. Tourism development projects related to creating a local theme park in areas such as fishing villages and rural areas have been mainly carried out in a top-down

manner, and the system for residents' participation has not been significantly implemented (Jeong 2018; Lee, S. 2020).

Also, some local theme parks have been found to have falsely reported their operational status. The local theme park, located in Goseong-gun, has not operated the facility since its opening in 2017 but has falsely reported the number of visitors and profits even though there were no visitors records until 2019 (The Board of Audit and Inspection of Korea 2019). Also, even though the facilities of the local theme park located in Hwasun-gun have been neglected and there were no visitors from 2016 to 2019, the number of visitors has been falsely reported by including residents as visitors (The Board of Audit and Inspection of Korea 2019). Moreover, 11 out of 35 rural theme parks operating in South Korea have fewer than 10 visitors a day, which is negatively evaluated as a "waste of budget" (Kim, J. 2016).

In 2015, the Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs published the project guidelines to create a local rural theme park. What is noteworthy in the process of promoting the local rural theme park project is that the collection of residents' opinions has been stipulated. During the project implementation planning stage, local governments should attach decision-making materials, such as residents' briefing sessions, to the initial planning stage and include consultation materials, including collecting opinions from residents. However, the residents' opinions are collected when the mayor or governor (both project implementer and operator) find it reasonable or, if necessary.

Creating a local theme park in a rural area aims to promote the local economy by inducing direct and indirect participation of rural residents in connection with the local development plans of local governments (Korea Rural Community Corporation n.d.). Despite the purpose, residents could not have been empowered in a theme park development process. First, unlike the frequent appearance of the word *residents' participation*, the top-down method has still been used in real terms. Second, some theme parks supported by national coffers have falsely reported even though there have been no visitors. Some theme parks, where national and local expenses had been spent, are virtually neglected, with fewer than 10 visitors a day. Given these circumstances, local theme parks could not be seen as contributing to the revitalisation of the local economy. Third, according to the guidelines for creating theme parks, residents' opinions are collected, *if necessary*, which makes room for them not to be adequately reflected in the process.

The next part deals with the development strategies and policies of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park. It provides the rationale for selecting two cases with four criteria and explores strategies and community participation policies in the local theme park development.

3.4 Development Strategies and Policies of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park

3.4.1 Gwangmyeong Cave

Outline

Gwangmyeong Cave is an artificial cave located in Hakon-dong (neighbourhood), Gwangmyeong-si (city) and Gyeonggi-do (province). Initially, this cave was built for a mine in the Japanese colonial era based on the colonial exploitation policy in 1912. After it was shut down, this cave was used for salted prawn storage until 2011, when Gwangmyeong City purchased it and transformed it into a cave theme park. As its geographical proximity to the capital city, Seoul, Gwangmyeong Cave attracts a million visitors annually, which is about three times more tourists than the entire city population. Also, having generated approximately ₩8.5bn (approx. £5.4m) and created more than 400 jobs in 2016, it has been evaluated as a great example of contributing to the coexistence of urban and rural areas and invigoration of the local economy (Kim and Ahn 2018).

Moreover, by being nominated as one of the Top 100 Must-go Destinations in Korea in 2019-2020, Gwangmyeong Cave established itself as the best tourism destination both in Gwangmyeong and Korea. For the past century, Gwangmyeong Cave has been transformed from industrial heritage to tourist heritage, preserving compound forms from historical agony to the place of modernisation (see Appendix 2 for pictures of Gwangmyeong Cave).

Development Strategies and Policies of Gwangmyeong Cave

In 2012, Gwangmyeong City established a strategy to provide residents with opportunities for leisure activities that incorporate nature and culture connected with Gahak Mine Cave. In this regard, the development of Gwangmyeong Cave has promoted a

sophisticated theme space that combines education and experience (Gwangmyeong City 2012). What is noteworthy about the development of the cave is that a public proposal contest was held to reflect the people's ideas on development policies (Gwangmyeong City 2012a). Also, in 2017, a contest was held for both undergraduate and postgraduate students to discover Gwangmyeong Cave's contents, which encouraged the general public to discover new content (Culture and Tourism Service Forum 2017).

Recently, Gwangmyeong City has begun to promote the tourist attraction project by developing Gwangmyeong Cave and surrounding areas (Gwangmyeong City 2017) due to the lack of representative tourism resources in addition to the cave (Gwangmyeong City 2018). Thus, in April 2019, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation invited private businesses to create a public-private joint tourism project in the area surrounding Gwangmyeong Cave. Eventually, in September 2019, it completed the selection of NH Investment & Securities Co. as the preferred bidder. Accordingly, the convention on the project to create the Gwangmyeong Cultural Complex was signed. Private businesses have proposed that Discovery participate as a consignment management company in Gwangmyeong Cave to create the world's leading naturalist theme park called Discovery Nature Park, which combines adventure, entertainment, education, and healing (Song 2019).

In 2019, the Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center signed a business agreement with the residents' representative and Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation at the administrative centre to promote regional economic development and mutual understanding. The agreement was designed to find ways to develop the local economy, including revitalising Gwangmyeong Cave (see Appendix 3 for the history and Appendix 4 for general information about Gwangmyeong Cave).

3.4.2 Yongin Agricultural Theme Park

Outline

Yongin Agricultural Theme Park, owned by the Yongin City and operated by Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center, is a thematic experience complex based on agriculture and rural life located in Wonsam-myeon (township), Cheoin-gu (district), Yongin-si (city), Gyeonggi-do (province). It was previously established as a rural experience centre but was renamed 'Woori Land' and operated traditional food and rural experience classes for children.

Later, the name was changed to the current name in 2008, when comprehensive experience facilities were installed suitable for the characteristics of rural areas (see Appendix 5 for pictures of Yongin Agricultural Theme Park).

Developed to cultivate the quality of life and emotions by providing urban residents with differentiated rural experience space and a pleasant resting-themed place for family units, this theme park succeeded in attracting approximately 260k tourists in its first year in 2008. Successfully attracting about 3.2m cumulative tourists from 2008 to 2019, it has been selected as one of the eight scenic views of Yongin-si and became one of the city's representative tourism destinations along with Everland and the Korean Folk Village (see Appendix 6 for the history and Appendix 7 for the general information of Yongin Agricultural Theme Park).

Development Strategies and Policies of Yongin Agricultural Theme Park

Yongin City has divided the tourism area into urban culture, leisure experience, and rural themes and set specific directions. Yongin Agricultural Theme Park, which belongs to the rural theme tourism area, has been utilised to establish a network of rural tourism experiences. In particular, Yongin City has fostered unique rural experience tourism and promotes farmers' income by combining the tourism industry with the primary industry (agriculture) in the centre of this theme park (Lee, Im, Jeong, Hwang, Sim, Yang, and Kim 2017). As such, Yongin Agricultural Theme Park plays a significant role in the balanced development of urban and rural areas, creating new values with regional characteristics.

With the development of tourism resources tailored to local characteristics, Yongin City aims to build tourism infrastructure and establish a tourism belt linking tourism resources in the surrounding areas (Yongin City 2018). In this regard, Yongin City has established a strategy to develop unique tourism products by connecting nearby rural villages and farms centred on Yongin Agricultural Theme Park (Lee et al. 2017).

Yongin Agricultural Theme Park created a landscape agricultural complex centred on Naedong Village, aiming to revitalise and industrialise rural tourism in 2009. In 2013, the Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center discussed a convergence plan linking Yongin Agricultural Theme Park with rural amenities in a rural experience village. A bottom-up approach has been proposed to discover amenity resources and organise residents in the convergence of individual villages. They have also emphasised the formulation of autonomous

collaboration among residents to promote shared business, raising the need for ideas and initiatives of residents to conduct business jointly. In particular, a small village-level convergence innovation system model, where residents, administrators and experts are organised, has been suggested to create various value-added products using rural amenity resources.

As a specialised and differentiated rural experience space, the development direction of the rural theme tourism area is to strengthen experiential aspects by developing new tourism resources and introducing themed facilities (Lee et al. 2017; Yongin City 2015). In this regard, Yongin City has planned to promote projects to link Yongin Agricultural Theme Park and various nearby rural villages with the operation of the farm-tour valley course to revitalise rural experience tourism in connection with cultural tourism in Yongin-si.

3.5 Summation of Chapter 3

Regardless of tourist destinations' attributes, residents' participation has a significant impact on the local economy's revitalisation and sustainability as a destination (Dashper 2014; Kim, H. 2018; Sanagustin-Fons, Lafita-Cortes, and Mosene 2018). As a tourism development approach based on the community, several scholars mentioned earlier recognise interdependence, legitimacy, shared value, power symmetry, horizontal partnership and knowledge as crucial collaboration elements among local stakeholders.

In the context of tourism development in South Korea, as development manners have changed from centralised, vertical and top-down to decentralised, horizontal and bottom-up, there have been various attempts to induce local communities' participation. In particular, the Tour Dure Project is a representative example of implementing collaborative local governance in tourism. However, just as issues such as formal participation, centralised structure of local governments, and constraints on residents' roles have been raised in overall local governance in South Korea, similar problems persist in domestic tourism local governance.

The situation is similar in the context of the South Korean local theme park development. As mentioned earlier, even though residents' participation plays a significant role in revitalising local tourism, communities' participation has not been guaranteed, and the roles given to residents are limited. The centralised development structure, which revolves around rural villages, weakens the empowerment of residents, and residents are virtually excluded

from the entire process of development.

Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park have been developed based on local resources and consented to the significance of residents in tourism development. Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has made a business agreement with a residents' representative of Hakon-dong (where Gwangmyeong Cave is located) to collaborate in appreciating the social value of local communities and solving local issues. Also, Yongin Agricultural Theme Park has been the centre of forming a tourism network, activating rural experience tourism and revitalising the local economy with nearby rural villages and farms.

To identify barriers to residents' participation in local theme park development, it is appropriate to explore cases with practical experiences in bringing local communities into the development process. With the cases of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park, which are more experienced in community participation and have been trying to build a network with local communities, it is deemed to be able to identify barriers to residents' participation in the local theme park planning and management and investigate drivers of forming local tourism governance.

Hence, before analysing the data, the next chapter deals with methodologies from exploring research paradigms to techniques and procedures adapted to this study. Also, the next chapter articulates the methods of collecting and analysing data. Ultimately, Chapter 4 enables comprehension of the logical process to achieve research aims and objectives.

Chapter 4. Methodologies

The general purpose of social science research is to compute and accumulate reliable systematic knowledge of the social phenomena in question (Kim, R. 2013). Also, social sciences aim to discover the laws of social development through empirical research, which is theoretically valid (Bastow, Dunleavy, and Tinkler 2014). Therefore, research methodology is a process of systematically describing, explaining, and predicting phenomena to solve research problems (Goundar 2012).

As a multi-case study with deductive and inductive reasoning processes using theoretical and methodological triangulation, this chapter focuses on methodological considerations, starting with a discussion on the philosophical paradigm in part 4.1.

4.1 Social Constructivism as a Research Philosophy

Planning and conducting research are shaped by the mental model of the researcher or the framework for thinking and observing, which is called a paradigm (Song, Kim, and Bhattacharjee 2014). As such, a paradigm comprises the philosophical beliefs and principles that frame a researcher's perspective of interpretation and action within the world (Kivunja and Kuyini 2017). It is also a fundamental model or basis for organising and guiding trends or perspectives for solving research issues in a field (Kim, R. 2013). In other words, a researcher's philosophical orientation could be a definition of a paradigm (Kivunja and Kuyini 2017). A paradigm is significant in that it implies decisions in the research process.

This part examines the differences between two leading research paradigms, comparing social constructivism and positivism, and investigates how and why social constructivism is suitable for this study.

4.1.1 Positivism

The positivist paradigm was founded on the study of Auguste Comte in the 19th Century. Having objects in generalising scientific conceptions and systematising the art of social life (Comte 2015), it is said that observation, reason, and experimentation based on experience should be the evidence for comprehending human behaviour (Kivunja and Kuyini 2017; Majeed 2019; Martineau 2000). Since scientific philosophy believes that only knowledge

gained through sensory experience and empirical verification is actual knowledge, it is intended to be true only to the facts obtained by a verifiable scientific method (Kim, Y. D. 2019). In other words, the positivist paradigm believes that the creation of science or knowledge should be limited to what can be observed and measured and based on theories that could be directly verified (Song, Kim, and Bhattacharjee 2014).

There are four criteria for determining the quality of research based on the positivist paradigm: *internal validity*, *external validity*, *reliability*, and *objectivity* (Burns 2000; Guba and Lincoln 1994). *Internal validity* is the extent to which the study results are attributed to independent variables, so the study is considered internally valid when it is proved that it is independent variables that have affected the dependent variables (Kivunja and Kuyini 2017; Rehman and Alharthi 2016). *External validity*, which corresponds to generalisability (Guba and Lincoln 1994), is obtained when the study outcomes can be generalised to other contexts (Winter 2000). *Reliability*, to which consistent and stable results are produced (Kivunja and Kuyini 2017), could be evaluated by statistical analysis to identify the internal coherence or correlation among the variables (Pham 2018). *Objectivity*, known as the distanced and neutral observer (Guba and Lincoln 1994), refers to the utilisation of precise instruments (Kivunja and Kuyini 2017) without the biased understanding of a researcher (Rehman and Alharthi 2016).

However, the positivist paradigm is often criticised due to some factors. First, Ben-Haim (2018) indicated residual uncertainty. Predictive optimisation in strategic intelligence analysis is based on available knowledge, but knowledge of human affairs in strategic antagonistic interactions is often strictly constrained and inaccurate. Also, Rahman (2017) has pointed out that the positivist paradigm could not clarify how social reality is constructed and maintained. Citing one assessment of the Hebrew language for preschool children, he mentions that the study has been suitable for identifying children with developmental disabilities but has not revealed why some children's understanding of learning capacity is impaired. Moreover, Lee (2008) argues that this paradigm is inadequate for analysing complex problems. It is because environmental or contextual variables, which are challenging to comprehend and analyse, are fixed by assumptions, so the considered factors are defined in a context-independent manner.

Besides, as even natural sciences no longer look at nature as irrevocable and fixed in time, the obsolescence of positivism has been implied (Delanty 1999). In other words, some phenomena could be governed by probabilistic laws rather than causal laws (Della Porta and

Keating 2008). Therefore, positivism has been criticised on legitimate grounds for its absolutist and universalist claims (Platenkamp and Botterill 2013) and the contradiction that it could not eliminate theoretical content from empirical observations in generating an objective analysis (Downward and Mearman 2004). In particular, positivism has been criticised for disregarding contexts and concerning a single truth (Fox 2008) in social science studies.

Conversely, constructivism, also known as constructionism, represents an alternative ontological and epistemological stance compared to objectivism (Bryman 2012). It stands as a pivotal perspective within the field of tourism studies, as evidenced by its application in various studies such as those conducted by Budiasih and Yuesti (2022), Guachalla (2018), Hollinshead (2006), and Shultis and Way (2006). Owing to the dynamic and intricate characteristics inherent in the field of tourism, even the pedagogical approach adopted in tourism education aligns with social-constructivism (Lötter and Jacobs 2020; Paris 2011). Constructivism generates subjective and flexible human meanings that facilitate the development of individuals' perspectives. The following elucidates the fundamental concept of social-constructivism and its relevance to this study.

4.1.2 Social-Constructivism

Ontology

Constructivism considers that people construct knowledge and understanding of the world through their previous experiences. Based on the central idea that human learning is constructed, learners construct new knowledge based on previous learning (Olusegun 2015). Furthermore, in the constructivist paradigm, knowledge is a relative and subjective thing created based on individual experience and influenced socio-culturally (Choi and Kim 2018). That is, what is significant for constructivists is not about truth or false in those objective worlds but about social interaction or social arrangements (Bryman 2012; Detel 2001) that produce social phenomena.

Epistemology

If intentional human activities produce X in social constructivism, it is considered constructed (Kukla 2000). Social constructivism emphasises social, cultural, and historical

situations and interactions among individuals (Bay, Bageci, and Cetin 2012; McMahon 1997). In this regard, Kim, B. (2010) has noted that social constructivism is based on particular assumptions regarding *reality*, *knowledge*, and *learning*. As *reality* is socially defined, it is necessary to understand social organisations in order to comprehend the status or change of the socially constructed universe (Berger and Luckmann 1991). In other words, reality does not exist before it is socially constructed (Kim, B. 2010). They posit *knowledge* as a product of social interaction, interpretation, and understanding and view consensus among social groups people as the ultimate criterion for judging knowledge (Adams 2006). Constructivists create interpretations of the world based on past experiences and interactions (Bay, Bageci, and Cetin 2012; McMahon 1997). Namely, as a social process, worthwhile *learning* ensues when individuals are interconnected to social activities (Adams 2006; Kim, B. 2010).

Criticism

The social constructivist paradigm is criticised in that the role of objects existing in the outside world is not considered (Kim, K. 2018). It means it is a form of ideology far from existentialism by explaining the phenomenon solely by social factors. Also, Rowlands and Carson (2001) have criticised the fact that it is impossible to transmit knowledge. They indicated that if students were asked about ideas about what was discussed in the same lecture, answers might be discrepant, consequently leading to the absurdities of how ideas and discrepant could be distinguished and which ideas could be validated easily. Pointing out that it has a political agenda, Hacking (1999) mentioned that what is meant to be socially constructed is not X but X's idea. The social constructivist literature has overlooked this point and does not question what is claimed to be socially constructed (Knol 2010). Also, as a social reality is a social construction, social constructivists place only value on how it is constructed, resulting in an anti-theoretical tendency which disregards the crucial role of theories in research (Alvesson and Sköldbberg 2009).

As the notion that human action and language could only be understood regarding some particular contexts has led to the interpretive turn in social studies (Schwandt 2011), various works of literature in tourism studies have begun to refer to constructivism. Constructive researchers in tourism studies who are required to interact with participants and interpret their words and actions as interpreters have viewed meaningful touristic realities as

socially constructed through engagement with the world (Matteucci and Gnoth 2017; Pernecky 2012). In particular, CBT and local tourism governance highlight local stakeholders' participation, interaction, and collaboration, implying that local tourism development is socially constructed with social relations by social actors.

Despite the criticism, the rationale for taking the social-constructivist view is that this study focuses on participatory theme park development activities from residents' perspective, aiming to identify barriers to and drivers of participation. Instead of referring to stakeholders' participation in a theme park development process as an independent activity, this study views it as an interdependent activity by active agents that requires collaboration and interaction. Also, in order to minimise this criticism, this study first uses the deductive reasoning process. Since residents' participation has not received much attention in the South Korean context, theories and frameworks are deducted from previous studies. They are connected with the findings of qualitative interviews through triangulation design methods and eventually contribute to theories and frameworks via an inductive approach.

[Table 4.1] Ontological and Epistemological Differences between Positivism and Social Constructivism

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(Bryman 2012; Sorrell 2018)

4.2 Deductive and Inductive Reasoning Processes as Research Approaches

The reasoning is reaching a conclusion from the data obtained (Khemlani 2018), considering the relationship between theory and research (Bryman 2012). This study uses both deductive and inductive reasoning processes (Table 4.2), which follow the aim of the study.

Deductive Reasoning

The deduction is the premises that logically guarantee the conclusion (Schechter 2013). That is, a researcher aims to test and verify embedded theories and the relationship between theory and social research with the new data (Bryman 2012; Song, Kim, and Bhattacharjee 2014), moving from theories down to specific examples (O’Leary 2011). For example, if the central premise is that *all humans die* and the minor premise is that *Socrates is a human*, the conclusion becomes, *therefore, Socrates dies*. The conclusion articulates a consequence that is inherent within two premises. As such, deductive hypotheses enable a researcher to confirm and classify the empirical facts in a systematic manner (Åsvoll 2014).

As explored in Chapter 2, prior researchers have tried to identify barriers and drivers of residents’ participation in local tourism development and found gaps between the approach and empirical cases. Also, they have investigated drivers to form local tourism governance. Deductive reasoning aims to verify theories and improve and expand them (Song, Kim, and Bhattacharjee 2014). In this regard, based on theories, concepts and frameworks analysed, suggested and confirmed in previous studies, this study applies them to South Korean cases.

Inductive Reasoning

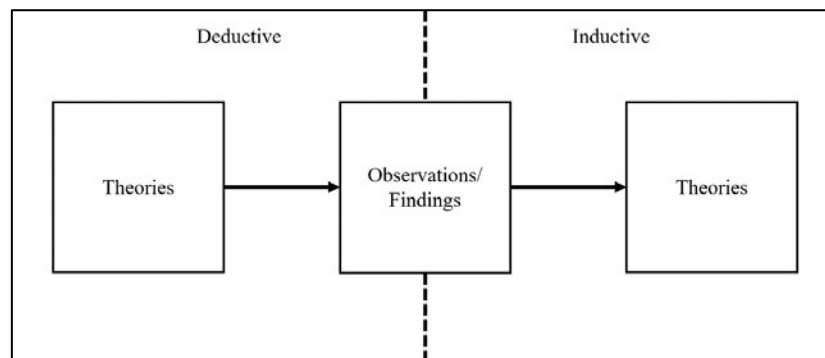
In contrast to deductive reasoning, induction derives general principles based on observation (Sauce and Matzel 2017). That is, moving from examples to theories (O’Leary 2011), induction derives generalisable inferences over observations (Bryman 2012). For example, if there is the fact that *Socrates, Aristotle and Archimedes die*, a common thing that *they are all human* could be observed. Ultimately, the general principle that *all humans die* could be derived. As such, the induction aims to explain theoretical concepts or relationship patterns among the concepts from the observed data (Song, Kim, and Bhattacharjee 2014).

Through qualitative interviews with stakeholders in selected cases, this study aims to derive general principles that affect residents’ participation, such as barriers and drivers. By linking the observed data to theories, this reasoning process ultimately aims to present the new findings that help to create a conceptual framework.

In summary, theories and frameworks are deducted from previous studies on barriers and drivers of residents’ participation. Based on them, interview questionnaires are formed,

and qualitative interviews are conducted with local stakeholders, including local authorities and residents. For the final step, findings are classified and connected in accordance with frameworks and theories. Further, this study looks at the relationships of residents with local authorities, participatory systems and other residents, in which three essential aspects are inducted to contribute to the knowledge.

[Table 4.2] The Flow of Deductive and Inductive Reasoning Processes



4.3 Theoretical and Methodological Triangulation as a Research Design

As social science research explains social behaviour (Mor 2019), reliability and validity are regarded as significant factors in evaluating the work of measures (John and Soto 2007). Reliability is known as the consistency of measurement (Bollen 1989), and validity is related to the quality of research components (Drost 2011). Therefore, in social sciences, as a strategy, *triangulation* with multiple measures has been used to improve and verify the reliability and validity of research or evaluation of findings (Campbell and Fiske 1959; Golafshani 2003; Moon 2019; Yeasmin and Rahman 2012).

Having originated in navigational and surveying contexts (Hastings 2010), triangulation means using multiple methods or sources of data to study social phenomena (Bryman 2012; Heale and Forbes 2013). Research triangulation has been identified as having four types (Denzin 2009): *investigator*, *theory*, *data*, and *methodological*. *Investigator* triangulation means that multiple researchers participate in the same study. Allowing multiple investigators to participate eliminates potential bias from a single researcher (Hastings 2010), and rationale and reliability are secured (Denzin 2009). *Data* triangulation is distinguished from methodological triangulation in that it refers to the use of various data sources such as

time, space and person. By exploring common concepts within different settings (Denzin 2009; Hussein 2009), triangulating these data enables the production of meaningful results based on differences (Fusch, Fusch, and Ness 2018).

Theoretical Triangulation

In *Theoretical* triangulation, a researcher uses more than one theory, framework or perspective to understand and interpret the data (Turner and Turner 2009). This triangulation supports researchers in justifying or contradicting findings (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, Di Censo, Blythe, and Neville 2014) and expands a researcher's theoretical lens (Fusch, Fusch, and Ness 2018).

For example, Llosa (2019) adopted the theory of triangulation (analysis of three different documents) to identify the relationship between social cohesion and socio-environmental conflicts in the Latin American context. In a tourism study, Hernandez, Cohen, and Garcia (1996) used three different conceptual frameworks of social exchange theory, tourism development cycle theories, and the segmentation approach to investigate residents' attitudes toward the resort.

Methodological Triangulation

Methodological triangulation uses multiple data collection methods on the same phenomenon (Carter et al. 2014). Employing quantitative and qualitative research methods is typical, but they are not hierarchical (Decrop 1999); they are divided into within- and between methods. Within-method is a form that triangulates data from multiple data collection methods (Fusch, Fusch, and Ness 2018), and between-method is the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods (Hastings 2010).

For example, a study by Heale, James, and Garceau (2016) on nurse practitioner-led clinics (NPLC) has adopted multiple methods of analysing chart audits and NPLC documents and interviews with nurse practitioners. In a tourism study, Markwell (1997) conducted a qualitative case study by adopting multiple methods of participant observations and semi-structured interviews to identify dimensions of photography in a nature-based tour.

However, in general, triangulation is criticised because it concerns decreasing error or bias instead of finding the existence of a phenomenon or values on variables (Blaikie 1991). Also, using various contrasting methods could increase the possibility of error (Fielding and Fielding 1986).

Nevertheless, triangulation has the advantage of enabling a researcher to investigate research problems that have been less or not explored more in-depth (Hussein 2009). Especially for social constructivists who perceive that reality is constructed, triangulation assists in understanding the construction by acquiring valid and reliable realities (Golafshani 2003). Moreover, triangulation could play a role in complementing each method's flaws (Decrop 1999). Hence, what is significant in triangulation is the attempt to relate different kinds of data, not their combination (Fielding and Fielding 1986).

This study takes theoretical and methodological triangulation designs. As the study's topic has not been explored intensely in the South Korean case, theories and frameworks from previous studies, such as the CBT approach and local tourism governance, are used and identified to apply in two study cases. Also, the analysis of documents on strategies and policies that have been published by each local theme park and semi-structured interviews with various local stakeholders are conducted through a multiple-case study. In this regard, through these two triangulation methods, this study aims to analyse barriers and drivers of residents' participation by connecting theories and frameworks with the Korean context and conducting data collection methods.

4.4 Case Study as a Research Strategy

The concept of the case study method has been defined variously. Yin (1989) defines it as a research strategy that encompasses the logic of research design, data collection methods, and data analysis techniques. Zaniah (2007) delineates this idea by examining and scrutinising current phenomena via meticulous contextual analysis of a definite number of events or conditions and their connections. Moreover, Kim (1982) describes a study method for comprehensively identifying research targets related to a research problem from all possible angles. Gillham (2000) explains it as exploring various pieces of evidence in the case setting to answer research questions. As such, it could be defined as a study that tries to resolve the research questions by grasping attributes within cases intensively.

For in-depth and intensive research on a subject, the case study method has sharp points that provide a better understanding and enhanced response to people's daily lives. Gillham (2000) has noted that the case study could have a more significant impact than other forms of research reports, citing changes in existing perceptions and assumptions regarding the relationship between IQ and capability. Also, the case study enables future researchers to find ideas and clues. In this regard, Kim, R. (2013) has noted that in situations where there is little preliminary knowledge of the research subject, case studies could be used for exploration purposes to orient themselves to research problems and gain abundant knowledge of them. Moreover, Vissak (2010) has noted that case studies enable researchers to explore intensely vital, experiential and complicated procedures and areas occurring in a fast-changing and unstable environment. The case study method is utilised as a research method in various fields of social science in that it verifies theory, enables the development of new theory and facilitates a more detailed and contextual analysis of events.

4.4.1 Concept of Multiple-Case Study Analysis

However, questions might be raised about whether a small number of cases can represent the entire case related to the research topic (Kim, R. 2013). Also, there is intimidation that it could be finished with an unsteady theory or limited support of specific theories or frameworks (Vissak 2010). Also, the case study has been criticised as being challenging to generalise through one case.

In this regard, Yin (2009) has proposed using multiple cases to strengthen and extend a study's coverage. Many tourism studies have been conducted in multiple cases. For example, Solstrand (2015) has conducted a study on the governance of consumptive wildlife tourism in Iceland and Norway. Li, Zhang, Xu, and Jiang (2015) conducted a study on road infrastructure investment in Xidi and Hongcun, China. Mekinc, Mawby, and Trnavčević (2017) have conducted a study on security policies in tourism in seven different European cities, including Barcelona, Rome, and Munich. Bočkus, Sulkinoja, Kolesnikova, and Komppula (2021) have conducted a study on wellness tourism in Eastern Finland, Russian Karelia, and Lithuania.

Solid and generalisable theories could be produced since they are rooted in various cases (Eisenhardt and Graebner 2007). Eisenhardt (1989: 542) has mentioned that "multiple cases are analogous to multiple experiments", which means richer theoretical frameworks

could be developed by following a replication design (Yin 2014). In other words, a multiple-case study method is used to overcome the limitations that emerge from a single case study and enables researchers to generate robust theoretical frameworks.

4.4.2 Rationale for Selecting Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park

In order to attain the aims and objectives of this research, the selection of appropriate cases is imperative. The criteria for choosing Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park are outlined as follows:

- 1. Cases must align with the objectives of a local development initiative*
- 2. Cases should demonstrate a history of resident participation*
- 3. Cases should possess a heightened level of prominence in South Korea*
- 4. Accessible officially published data on the development strategies and policies of local theme parks*

First, both cases have been established in alignment with local tourism development initiatives. Establishing a local theme park is intricately linked to the advancement of local tourism, aiming to enhance the local image and invigorate the regional economy through utilising indigenous cultural and natural resources. Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park were conceived per the local government's tourism development plan. Each theme park centred around the themes of a cave and agriculture, which represent the local culture while simultaneously promoting distinctive regional resources.

Second, each theme park has actively endeavoured to elicit resident participation in its development by fostering collaborations between local authorities and residents and by establishing tourism networks. Both entities are under the ownership and operation of their respective local governments, and they make concerted efforts to engage the community in the advancement of tourism. For instance, Gwangmyeong City has proactively sought avenues for developing local collaborative governance through initiatives like organising contests to discover new content and employing nearby residents. Similarly, Yongin City has been

dedicated to establishing a network for rural experience tourism within the theme park, connecting with neighbouring farms and rural villages.

Finally, regarding awareness, both theme parks are two of the 100 tourism destinations in Gyeonggi-do, each drawing in hundreds of thousands of visitors annually. Given their municipal ownership and operation (by Gwangmyeong City ¹⁰ and Yongin City ¹¹, respectively), the development strategies and policies are documented in official government publications, including the urban master plan, tourism marketing strategies, and mid- and long-term tourism development strategies. In compliance with the law, these documents are made accessible to the public, allowing for free download.

This research adopts a case study approach focused on Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park. These well-established theme parks, exemplifying advanced resident participation, provide valuable and substantive insights and knowledge in participatory approaches, serving as exemplary models for similar cases. Examining multiple cases offers the researcher access to abundant data, facilitating a more profound exploration of knowledge and complementing any overlooked or absent aspects within each case. Detailed policies and strategies are expounded upon in Chapter 3.

4.5 Qualitative Research as a Methodological Choice

In accordance with the methods of a study, methodological choices are varied, including quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. This study uses the qualitative research method. Before providing rationales, general methodological choices - quantitative, qualitative and mixed-method - are presented.

Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is understood as an objective study. It is also known as the scientific research paradigm, which ensures validity through the process of rigorous description or explanation (Atieno 2009). In causal questions, quantitative scholars have been interested in

¹⁰ Government of Gwangmyeong City

¹¹ Government of Yongin City

asking about a likely cause to impact outcomes. This type of question is called the “effects-of-causes approach” (Goertz and Mahoney 2012: 37), which is the standard for conducting social science. Under the premise of satisfying objectivity, quantitative research equalises the unit of analysis of the study subject. The data are then collected numerically to attribute to being studied, or statistical analysis techniques are used to analyse the data (Im 2009). Quantitative research aims to develop a *generalisation* that grants the theory that allows researchers to anticipate, demonstrate and comprehend phenomena (Connor 2018).

In this regard, quantitative research has a few advantages. First, the involvement of large samples in data collection and analysis enables generalisation (Rahman 2017). It is also cost-effective and saves time and resources using statistical methods (Queiros, Faria, and Almeida 2017). Moreover, Daniel (2016) emphasised researcher detachment, where a researcher’s bias would be eliminated, and the researcher would not be in direct contact with the participants.

On the contrary, the process of quantifying the results of a study might ruin the intent or meaning of a behaviour (Sim 2004). Also, questionnaires or question arrangements might distort the results, and the wrong respondents might be included in the survey process (Rahman 2017). The fact that researchers observe from the outside and do not directly contact participants somewhat restricts them from in-depth research into phenomena within the natural environment (Daniel 2016).

As it is challenging to comprehend respondents’ behaviour and emotional changes (Queiros, Faria, and Almeida 2017) and carry out in-depth research (Daniel 2016), qualitative research has received attention in the social domain.

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is a social action that accentuates the way individuals clarify and describe their experiences to comprehend social reality (Mohajan 2018). Also, unlike objective facts based on statistical results sought by quantitative research, qualitative research seeks a socially constructed reality perceived by actors whose subjects lie in a particular social environment (Im 2009). Therefore, being described as an unfolding model that appears in a natural setting (Williams 2007), qualitative researchers collect data on-site in the field where participants experience points in question, gathering diversified forms of data (Creswell 2014).

Researchers could identify participants' inherent experiences and appraise how meanings are constructed through and in culture by interaction (Rahman 2017). Due to its holistic feature, it could describe the numerous factors inherent in a situation and delineate the broad picture that occurs, viewed from multiple perspectives (Creswell 2014). Moreover, by developing questions flexibly, researchers could extend insight into participants' beliefs, attitudes, or situations (Shakouri 2014).

However, in qualitative research, the subjectivity of the respondents is outstanding, resulting in the ambiguity of the results (Atieno 2009). It is almost impossible to simplify discovery and observation as the results would not be quantified; consecutively, it might be challenging to generalise (Daniel 2016). Moreover, depending on the researchers' skills, the results might be influenced by their biases and eccentricity (Anderson 2010).

As such, mixed-method research is used to complement each limitation. Both approaches are valuable and complement each other (Goertz and Mahoney 2012); they simultaneously use an inductive and deductive approach within a study to attempt multiple perspectives for phenomena (Connor 2018).

[Table 4.3] Contrasts between Quantitative and Qualitative Research

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(Bryman 2012: 408)

Mixed-Methods Research

There has been an increasing tendency to combine quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study to draw strengths and minimise weaknesses, which is called mixed-method research (Anderson 2010; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998; Williams 2007). By simultaneously using an inductive and deductive approach within a study to attempt multiple perspectives for phenomena (Connor 2018), it is more profound than using a single method of study, providing a better understanding of the research problem and opportunities for reasoning and various discussions (Creswell 2014; Seon, Jung, Jang, and Chun 2018). Also, it enables researchers to investigate complicated aspects and relations of the human and social world (Malina, Norreklit, and Selto 2011).

However, this method also faces some challenges. First, as each method has a specific data set and analytical methods, some researchers might question the validity of the analyses in mixed-methods research (Chandrasekharan 2019). Second, researchers might have difficulty interpreting conflicting outcomes (Regnault, Willgoss, and Barbic 2018). In a practical issue, mixed-methods research could require more time and resources (Seon et al. 2018).

In summary, the crucial points of quantitative research are objectivity and generalisation. Therefore, it has advantages in analysing large samples with statistical methods, cost-effectiveness and detachment of the researcher where the researcher's bias would be eliminated. On the other hand, the significant points of qualitative research are identifying socially constructed reality and providing detailed descriptions. It has advantages in describing numerous factors inherent in a situation and extending insights through various forms.

However, due to those features, quantitative research might not be able to conduct in-depth research into phenomena within the natural environment and understand participants' behaviour and attitudes. Additionally, subjectivity might cause ambiguity in results, and the bias of the researcher might affect the results intensively.

In this regard, mixed-methods research, which complements each shortcoming and strength, has been widely discussed so far. Although this method still has numerous validation and interpretation constraints, it is significantly regarded in that it provides a better understanding of research issues from multiple perspectives. Also, it has an advantage in exploring complex aspects and relations of the world.

This study aims to identify barriers to residents' participation and analyse drivers of

forming local tourism governance at the local level. The qualitative method has a few advantages to be taken in this study. First, as it deals with local stakeholders' interactions and interconnections in the centre of residents, the qualitative method is appropriate for this study in gathering data from the residents' points of view. Second, since this topic has not been intensely studied in South Korean cases, this study focuses on improving and expanding the knowledge by identifying the meanings of residents' actions through qualitative interviews. Third, as mentioned, the qualitative method enables a researcher to conduct an in-depth study. Interviews enable a researcher to explore in-depth data that the quantitative survey cannot reach. However, there is a concern that the result might not be generalised. In order to enhance reliability and transferability, theories and frameworks are connected with findings, applying triangulation methods.

4.6 Time Horizons

Time horizon is frequently used in financial investment, playing a significant role in a firm's investment decision (Souder, Reilly, Bromiley, and Mitchell 2016). The time horizon affects resource allocation and the consequences of resulting actions (Reilly, Souder, and Ranucci 2016). Similarly, in academic research, the time horizon affects a researcher's direction and should be chosen according to the research's aims and objectives. The time horizon could be divided into two studies: *longitudinal* and *cross-sectional*.

Longitudinal Studies

On the contrary, longitudinal studies are similar to a diary (Saunders, Thornhill, and Lewis 2019), which covers an extended period and is repeated several times (Adams, Khan, and Raeside 2014). Collecting data on a sample (Bryman 2012), these studies enable researchers to identify changes and developments (Saunders, Thornhill, and Lewis 2019).

For example, Xu et al. (2019) conducted a longitudinal study in two communities in Hainan, China. Compared with a previous study conducted a decade ago, they could explore the evolution of two communities' participation in tourism.

Cross-sectional Studies

Saunders, Thornhill, and Lewis (2019: 190) have described cross-sectional studies as a “*snapshot*”. Like a picture taken quickly by a handheld camera, these studies are undertaken at a single point in time to discover connections in different variables (Bryman 2012) and identify the current phenomena (Saunders, Thornhill, and Lewis 2019).

For example, Kim, Duffy, and Moore (2020) conducted a cross-sectional study on Jeju Island, South Korea. They conducted questionnaire surveys for two weeks in March 2017 with residents at public sites to measure residents’ perceptions of tourists.

This study follows a cross-sectional study. The data is collected at a single point in time, and this study aims to identify the current phenomena of the selected cases.

4.7 Techniques and Procedures

4.7.1 Data Collection - Interviews

1) Non-probability Purposive and Snowball Sampling Methods

The purposive sampling method is mainly used to target tourism-related participants. In the purposive sampling method, exemplary samples are selected based on specific knowledge or choice principles (Walliman 2006), tying with the objectives of the study (Given 2008). Therefore, the first step is to identify substantial stakeholders related to each theme park development. The list of potential interviewees is extracted from local media, local government-published documents and journal articles using the purposive sampling method. They are directly contacted via emails, phone (both call and message), websites, and letters based on the list. Gwangmyeong Civic Planning Group is indirectly contacted via the Gwangmyeong City as group members’ information is confidential.

In some cases, the snowball sampling method is used. As Rose, Spinks, Canhoto, and Reid (2014) have mentioned, the snowball sampling method is proper, enabling researchers to approach and analyse other samples which meet the sample characteristics. This method has been helpful for this study in various ways. One person introduced another person who has better knowledge of contacting potential interviewees. Also, an interviewee introduced a village manager who had recently changed. Moreover, an interviewee introduced a group of

village leaders, and another opportunity to collect further data was given.

2) Non-probability Convenience Sampling Method

The convenience sampling method is used to target residents, especially those who are non-tourism-related participants. Despite its disadvantages that drawing statistically meaningful outcomes from the findings is challenging (Galloway 2005) and the generalisation is unattainable (Bryman 2012), as a non-probability method, convenience sampling provides easy accessibility for a researcher to search for the target population who meets the practical criteria (Bryman 2012; Etikan, Musa, and Alkassim 2016) and build a theory (Brewis 2014).

Samples are recruited online, primarily through social media (see Appendix 8), mainly through Instagram and Facebook. They are limited to residents whose addresses are registered in each city. In order to enhance the validity and reliability of samples, there are processes by which government-issued official ID cards verify their identifications. As a result, four interviewees are recruited.

4.7.2 Sample Selection

In the context of other similar studies (Chan, Marzuki, and Mohtar 2021; Eschiaikul and Chansawang 2022; Eyisi, Lee, and Trees 2021; Khamsing 2021; Setokoe and Ramukumba 2020), two consistent criteria are observed in the selection of interviewees. First, they are comprised of local stakeholders who possess expertise in local tourism development. Second, they consist of residents residing in local communities. In adherence to precedent research and the delineation of stakeholders and communities expounded in Parts 2.1 and 2.4, this study confines its interviewees to individuals *residing in Gwangmyeong and Yongin* and those with *experiences and sufficient knowledge in each theme park development*. More specifically, ‘residing’ is limited by residents’ residential registration issued by each local government, and ‘experiences and knowledge’ entail the individual’s direct correlation with the professional domain; therefore, employees whose duties are irrelevant are explicitly excluded.

Using two sampling methods, potential interviewees are selected with officially-published secondary materials (such as local governments’ reports, newspaper articles or journal articles), considering their roles and relations to local theme parks in Gwangmyeong

and Yongin. Twelve potential interviewees (six from Gwangmyeong and six from Yongin) from different groups are selected. They are contacted by phone calls, text messages, emails and official websites to ask about their willingness to participate in interviews. However, this list has been relocated due to the following reasons.

First, as mentioned above, Gwangmyeong Civic Planning Group¹² was involved in planning the 2030 Gwangmyeong-si Urban Master Plan, but they were not able to be contacted in person because it is illegal for the Gwangmyeong City to provide participants' personal information without permission. In this regard, an officer at the city said they would contact participants to ask whether they wanted to participate in interviews. Therefore, the summarised version of this study with aims, objectives and the list of questions to be asked was submitted to the city. However, there have not been any replies.

Second, the Yongin City Tourism Association¹³, which is a cooperative organisation established to revitalise and develop the local tourism industry, is removed from the list. This association carried out tasks entrusted by Yongin City and attended the tourism conference in 2019, which was about forming an organic partnership. They have been contacted through the official website, but there have not been any replies.

Third, Yongin City said they are not in charge of planning and managing the Yongin Agricultural Theme Park. Instead, an officer recommended contacting the Department of Rural Theme at Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center. However, an officer at the Department of Rural Theme said interviews are not allowed, and they are not related to local communities enough to provide information for which this study looks. In 2013, Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center conducted a study on a convergence plan for rural amenities in Yongin in conjunction with the theme park. Alternative to the Department of Rural Theme, one of the researchers who participated in this study is contacted.

Hence, the final list of interviewees is as follows:

¹² 광명시민계획단 (gwang-myeong-si-min-gye-hoeg-dan)

¹³ 용인시관광협의회 (yong-in-si-gwan-gwang-hyeob-ui-hoe)

[Table 4.4] List of Interviewees

Name (Anonymous)	Affiliation	Location	Methods, Interview Dates (dd-mm-yyyy), and Duration (mm:ss)	Remarks
Local Authorities at the C-Level				
A	Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation (광명도시공사)	Gwangmyeong	Microsoft Teams 18-11-2020 25:37	-
C	Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center (학온동 행정복지센터)	Gwangmyeong	Face-to-face 26-11-2020 58:48	-
Managers				
B	Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation (광명도시공사)	Gwangmyeong	Face-to-face 27-11-2020 31:15	-
G	Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center (용인시농업기술센터)	Yongin	Email 24-12-2020	-
Local Leaders (Individual)				
D	Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders (학온동통장협의회)	Gwangmyeong	Face-to-face 27-11-2020 41:06	-
H	Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association (용인농촌체험관광연구회)	Yongin	Face-to-face 15-12-2020 50:44	-
Local Leaders (Group)				
E	Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders (학온동통장협의회)	Gwangmyeong	Face-to-face 23-12-2020 24:54	Group (8)
F	Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council (광명시민단체협의회)	Gwangmyeong	Face-to-face 02-12-2020 92:56	Group (3)
Residents				
I	Residents	Gwangmyeong	Face-to-Face 19-08-2021	-

			41:22	
J	Residents	Gwangmyeong	Face-to-Face 16-08-2021 19:35	-
K	Residents	Yongin	Zoom 11-08-2021 31:50	-
L	Residents	Yongin	Face-to-Face 11-09-2021 44:30	-

Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation and Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center are local governments that own and operate each theme park. Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center is also a part of the local government. Hakon-dong is a village in which Gwangmyeong Cave is located. Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council is a civic organisation consisting of Gwangmyeong citizens. Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association is a civic organisation consisting of experienced tourism villages and farms near Yongin Agricultural Theme Park. Residents are citizens directly affected by tourism development living in each city.

4.7.3 Rationale for Interviewees

With the support of local authorities and local communities, a total of 12 interviews were conducted: 10 individual interviews and 2 group interviews.

This research opted for group interviews over focus group interviews. While focus group interviews are widely employed in tourism studies, offering the advantage of capturing participants' reactions and interactions to construct perspectives on a defined topic (Bryman, 2012), the group interview method proves more suitable when interviewees are on a similar level and the collective responses of the group are the primary focus (Nyaupane, Morais, and Dowler, 2005; Vorravongpitak, E-Sor, Chankaew, and Mamah, 2022; Yang, Khoo, and Yang, 2023).

In this study, the participants have historically operated in a collaborative group setting rather than individually. Their collective efforts are directed towards resolving local issues, and

the study's primary object is to investigate the experiences of groups in tourism development. In essence, the group interviews seek to discern the impediments and catalysts influencing their participation as a collective, as opposed to scrutinising individual reactions or interactions in community-participatory approaches.

Additionally, each participant has been established to possess an equal position and influence relative to others. Consequently, their experiences, knowledge, perspectives, and perceptions concerning residents' participation in theme park development are considered equivalent. For instance, as elaborated below, participants from the Council for Hakon-dong Tong Leaders comprise the leader of each Tong (rural village; see Appendix 1), and the Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council comprises the head of each department. This approach addresses concerns inherent in group interviews, where certain members may be hesitant to express opinions due to the sensitivity of a topic or an imbalance in power dynamics (Bolderston 2021). Consequently, the level of engagement in a group interview is deemed comparable to that of individual one-to-one interviews.

Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation (hereafter the corporation) is a public and government-affiliated organisation of Gwangmyeong City, owning and operating Gwangmyeong Cave. They are in charge of all facilities (including exhibitions and a restaurant) and supplies. Focusing on communication with local communities, they have held a public hearing and a presentation about Gwangmyeong Cave development for residents in the nearby village called Hakon-dong. In 2019, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation signed a business agreement with the residents' representative at the Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center to promote regional economic development and mutual understanding.

Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center (hereafter the welfare center) is a governmental organisation in Gwangmyeong City. They are not directly involved in the Gwangmyeong Cave development but are indirectly involved, playing the role of an arbitrator between the corporation and the residents. Mostly standing on the local community side, they listen to residents' complaints or opinions and arbitrate conflicts of opinions objectively.

Hakon-dong is a neighbourhood in which Gwangmyeong Cave is located. This region's population is around 2.3k and here is divided into nine Tongs. They are affected mainly by the Gwangmyeong Cave development, and they used to get hired to the cave during the peak season. Even though they signed a business agreement with the Corporation, Hakon-

dong residents are told to suffer from invisible hardships such as traffic jams during the busy farming season.

The first group interview was conducted at the request of the residents' representatives. On the interview day, the residents' representative gathered all leaders from nine Tongs. Titled the Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders, they work in each small rural village and regularly meet at the welfare center. They share all the pending issues of the community and try to solve those issues in person. In particular, they are highly interested in the new Gwangmyeong Cave development project as issues such as land and compensation are associated with it. This group interview enables an in-depth understanding of the whole community's situation and the local communities' stances. All participants in this group have an equal position as representatives of each Tong, ensuring equal opportunities to express their opinions during the interview.

Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council (hereafter the association council) is a non-governmental organisation consisting of citizens in Gwangmyeong. They are a coalition of eight civic groups representing citizens' voices on major pending issues, especially Gwangmyeong Cave. In 2014, they pointed out environmental problems in Gwangmyeong Cave, making the city council reject the '*Ordinance on the Management and Operation of Gwangmyeong Cave*' submitted by the city. In 2020, they raised suspicions about the urban corporation's low operation and business process, eventually leading to an administrative survey of the city council.

The second group interview was conducted at the request of an operation director at the association council. Even though they consist of different civic groups from different sectors, they issue statements together, spreading issues of Gwangmyeong to the public. Also, they collect the opinions of general citizens outside Hakon-dong; they represent not only the association council but also all the citizens of Gwangmyeong. This group interview covers a broader range of civic opinions on Gwangmyeong Cave development and identifies issues more in-depth. Like the group interview with the Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders, this association council's participants have an equal position and power to answer.

Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center (hereafter the technology center) is the main body that owns and operates Yongin Agricultural Theme Park. As a public and government-affiliated organisation of Yongin City, they are in charge of creating a rural experiential tourism network with nearby farms and villages in the centre of the theme park.

Inducing the community to participate in tourism development, they seek ways to change local resources (rural amenities) into tourism products.

Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association consists of five villages, six educational farms, and thirteen experiential farms. The Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association, organised by the rural villages and farms in Yongin, develops new tourism products with rural amenities of villages or farms.

Four non-tourism-related residents have lived in each region for a long time, being engaged and interested in local issues as members of societies. They are significantly regarded as being directly affected by local tourism development.

4.7.4 Semi-Structured Interview Methods and Interview Periods

Semi-Structured Interview and Questionnaires

Interviews are conducted in the form of semi-structured interviews (SSI), a widely utilised method in qualitative research. Similar to a structured interview, SSI comprises questions addressing specific topics for exploration. However, SSI allows for greater flexibility, permitting the inclusion of improvised questions not initially outlined in the interview guide. Criticisms of SSI highlight its propensity to consume excessive time and effort during both the interview and transcription phases (Adams 2015).

Notwithstanding its drawbacks, the practice of conducting semi-structured interviews has garnered considerable attention within the context of community-based tourism studies (Dangi and Petrick 2021; Hermawan, Sujarwo, and Suryono 2023; Pasanchay and Schott 2021; Sann, Lai, and Chen 2022; Stone and Stone 2022; Weis, Chambers, and Holladay 2021). This approach, characterised by open-ended questions, allows researchers to delve more profoundly into participants' insights (Bryman 2012) and concentrate on issues that participants deem significant to the study (Brinkmann 2013). In essence, SSI provides researchers with a valuable tool to thoroughly explore the impacts and perceptions of local stakeholders about participation and collaboration.

Influenced by Tosun (2000) and following prior studies' classifications on barriers to residents' participation, guidelines on interview questions are outlined. Operational barriers often arise in the interactions between residents and local authorities, encompassing centralised

administration, communication challenges, and constraints in disseminating information. In exploring these dynamics, questions focus on examining the collaborative initiatives that foster social value and understanding the complexities of residents' engagement and collaboration within these initiatives. These questions aim to uncover various aspects, including the diversity of perspectives or perceptions among residents and local authorities, the willingness of residents to participate in collaborative endeavours, the identification of specific collaborative projects, their progressions, strategies utilised to encourage residents' participation, communication channels established with residents, and interactions with local authorities regarding information sharing, budgetary allocations, or promotional campaigns.

Structural barriers encompass institutional and legislative constraints, such as limitations in financial and human resources, expertise, and systemic deficiencies. The questions delve into the procedural intricacies and limitations encountered within this context, like activity restrictions, approaches for gathering information and expressing concerns, and the formal nature of public hearings concerning theme park development. Furthermore, these inquiries aim to gauge residents' involvement in such processes and explore potential reasons for any perceived limitations. Additionally, they delve into respondents' familiarity with fundamental concepts like community-based development, sustainable development, and community governance. Moreover, these questions scrutinise the perceived adequacy of opportunities for residents to voice their perspectives in meetings and public hearings concerning theme park development.

Cultural barriers present significant challenges arising from local communities' customs, norms, and social behaviours, encompassing levels of awareness, capacity, and other cultural dimensions. The questions aim to illuminate the complexities surrounding intra-group relationships. These questions comprehensively explore various factors shaping participation, including individual roles and positions, dynamics of peer-oriented engagement, age disparities, hierarchical structures, and demographic considerations such as age distribution. Moreover, they delve into broader societal influences, such as the ramifications of an ageing population and the collective consciousness surrounding ownership within the community. Furthermore, these inquiries probe potential barriers hindering the expression of opinions and confirm essential elements crucial for fostering active resident participation in developmental initiatives.

Details on interview questions are located in Appendix 16.

Interview Periods

The imbalanced number of participants in each region (seventeen interviewees (or eight interviewees when calculating participants in a group interview as one) from Gwangmyeong / four interviewees from Yongin) might doubt the reliability and generalisability of the data. The participants could be classified into three affiliation types: *local authorities (operator)*, *residents' representatives (tourism-related)*, and *ordinary residents (non-tourism-related)*. Under this classification, interviewees were matched and contrasted. Also, all interviewees have lived or worked at each affiliation for a long time and have sufficient experience, knowledge and interest in each local theme park's planning and management.

Initially, interviews were planned to be conducted face-to-face at participants' preferred locations. Two interviews were conducted as group interviews following requests from participants. However, due to the elevation of the COVID-19 tier in South Korea, three interviews were changed to online interviews. With the same issue of the pandemic, schedules were inevitably changed. Therefore, data collection processes were conducted for about eleven months, from November 2020 to September 2021. The participants' list outlined in the alphabetical order presented in Table 4.4 is not contingent on the sequence of contact and interview engagement, even though interviews commenced with Participant A. They were subsequently determined based on the response to the interview request and scheduling adjustments. As all participants were native Koreans, the official language of the interviews was Korean. The interviews typically ran for about 42 minutes on average. The longest one was with Participant F, clocking in at 92 minutes, while the shortest interview was with Participant J, encompassing a duration of 19 minutes. Since cases are famous in South Korea, some of the interview participants were interviewed by local media. In addition, since strategies and policies on residents' participation in theme park development are presented in each local authority's official urban master plan and tourism development strategies, these documents are reviewed and connected with interview questionnaires.

4.7.5 Ethical Issues

Before conducting interviews, Coventry University formally reviewed this study and data collection plans to check possible ethical issues (Pages i (secondary data) and ii (primary

data)). Also, this study's aims and objectives were fully explained in contacting participants, and their spontaneous willingness was asked. If they wished to participate, the date and locations were set according to participants' preferences. The purpose, risks, and data protection rights were thoroughly explained, and the Korean-translated version of the Participant Information Sheet (Appendix 9 (Korean) and 9-1 (English)) was provided on the dates of the interviews. Simultaneously, participants' rights to withdraw data and data confidentiality were explained through the Korean-translated version of the Informed Consent Form (Appendix 10 (Korean) and 10-1 (English)). After participants signed the Informed Consent Form, interviews began. Anonymity was guaranteed, and participants' positions or titles, which enable readers to speculate who they are, were hidden to protect their personal information.

4.7.6 Content Analysis as a Data Analysis Method

Content analysis is a widely-used method in social science research. This method has various definitions from various researchers. Berelson (1952: 18) has defined it as a “research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication”. Kolbe and Burnett (1991: 243) have defined it as an “observational research method used to systematically evaluate the symbolic content of all forms of recorded communications”. Krippendorff (2004: 18) has defined it as a “research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use”. Bryman (2012: 290) has defined it as an “approach to the analysis of documents and texts that seeks to quantify content in predetermined categories and a systematic and replicable manner”. These definitions show which value is placed within this method: *objectivity*, *systematic*, *text*, and *validity*.

Similar to the approach outlined above, the thematic analysis method (TA) has garnered considerable prominence in contemporary social sciences, including within the domain of tourism studies and particularly in qualitative studies. Nevertheless, this study opts for the content analysis method, prompted by perceived drawbacks associated with the thematic analysis method. To begin with, thematic analysis necessitates iterative cycles of reading data, with the pivotal step involving the identification of inherent themes and patterns (Crowe, Inder, and Porter 2015). Consequently, the acquired data assumes a primary role in theme

categorisation. A second concern pertains to the significance of interviewees' metaphors and analogies for researchers' interpretation and consideration (Ryan and Bernard 2003). Given that respondents in this study articulately conveyed their experiences and perceptions, there existed no imperative for estimation or interpretation of expressions within the analytical process. From this standpoint, the TA demands a profound level of researcher interpretation, thereby permitting the infusion of subjectivity and intervention into the analytical framework (Clarke and Braun 2017; Nowell, Norris, White, and Moules 2017). This introduces a potential challenge to the reliability and trustworthiness of the data.

The content analysis method has been used both in quantitative and qualitative research. This method has been used in quantitative research by coding text data into categorical classifications and explaining the data with statistics (Hsieh and Shannon 2005). In qualitative research, content analysis has been used to examine data and explain its context (Elo, Kaariainen, Kanste, Polkki, Utriainen, and Kyngas 2014). Therefore, in various research fields such as mass communication, journalism, nursing, psychology, and sociology, the content analysis method has developed rapidly, and tourism studies have shown an increase in using content analysis methods.

However, as Hogenraad and McKenzie (1999) have mentioned, content analysis has an issue of replication. Replication is significant in theory development (Park 2004) and the prevention of over-generalisation (Neuendorf 2017). They argue that social science events which are historically situated are unrepeatable. Also, an issue of reliability occurs. One of the advantages of content analysis is that consistent encoding is possible because an object is precise; however, researchers have high possibilities of encoding based on their subjectivities (Kim, R. 2013). Elo and Kyngas (2008) have cautioned that researchers' excessive interpretation is a threat to successful content analysis.

Despite these concerns, content analysis has numerous advantages, including high flexibility (Bryman 2012) that could be applied to broad categories of disorganised textual information. Content analysis can deal with an abundance of text data and diverse textual sources (Elo and Kyngas 2008). Content analysis is context-sensitive (Prasad 2008), so representative messages of data can be processed. Moreover, the unobtrusiveness (Bryman 2012; Prasad 2008) enables researchers to conduct sensitive studies which might cause ethical issues. Regarding obtaining data, Hsieh and Shannon (2005) have mentioned that content analysis enables researchers to acquire directly from research participants without enforcing

biased classifications or theoretical aspects.

[Table 4.5] An Example of Qualitative Content Analysis based on This Study

Meaning Unit	Condensed Meaning Unit (Interpretation)	Sub-Categories	Category	Relationship
The urban corporation said that all of us have discussed it, but the fact is that we have never heard of it. (Participant E)	The different perceptions between local authorities and residents on communication have created a barrier to residents' participation.	Communication	Partnership	Residents and Local Authorities
I have signed the business agreement as a residents' representative, but I have never received any relevant information. (Participant D)	A lack of communication between stakeholders directly involved in the agreement has caused a crack in their partnerships.			

The format is mainly influenced by Graneheim and Lundman (2003)

Initially, frameworks elucidating the barriers and drivers of residents' participation were derived from prior studies. Interview questionnaires were formulated based on these frameworks. The questionnaires exhibited slight variations depending on participants' affiliations and roles in the theme park development. Subsequent to obtaining consent from participants, online interviews were conducted using Microsoft Teams and Zoom, while face-to-face interviews were captured via a voice recorder. The audio files were transcribed into Microsoft Word documents, and barriers and drivers were colour-coded for clarity.

The data analysis procedure (Table 4.5) aligned with established methodologies in

earlier studies (Bryman 2012; Graneheim and Lundman 2003; Mayring 2014). Initially, Korean-recorded data were translated into English, and then manually classified and segmented in accordance with identified barriers and facilitators. Subsequently, similar barriers were further categorised into sub-themes. In the third step, participants' responses were coded with reference to strategies, events, or policies found in government-issued documents, journal articles, or media. During this phase, disparate responses, such as gaps between local authorities and residents, were scrutinised to discern variations.

Finally, a triangulation approach involving documents, theories, and data was employed to analyse residents' perspectives on their relationships with local authorities, participatory systems, and fellow residents. This process aimed to derive the study's findings.

4.8 Summation of Chapter 4

This study aims to identify community participation barriers and analyse drivers to form local tourism governance at the local level. Social constructivism, which views knowledge as socially constructed, provides a better understanding and interpretation of social phenomena. Following this notion, this study mainly focuses on social interactions and arrangements of local stakeholders in the decision-making process.

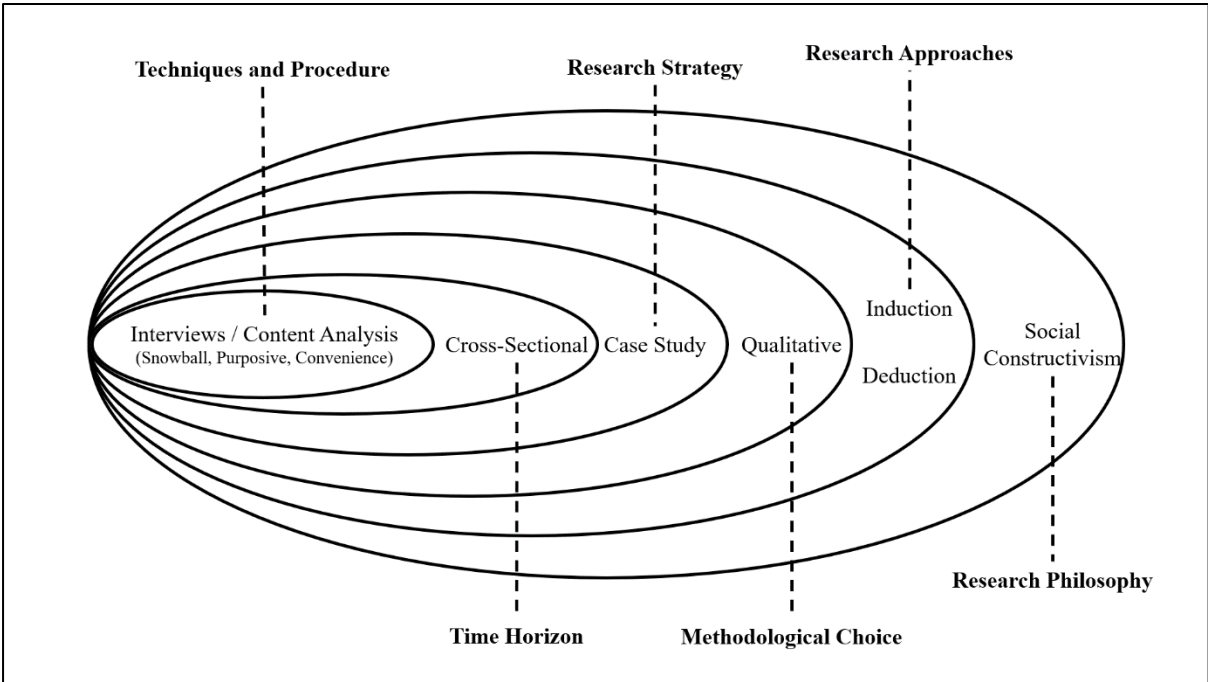
However, as social constructivism is criticised for resulting in an anti-theoretical tendency, theoretical and methodological triangulations are designed, taking both deductive and inductive approaches and relating theories with primary data; first, frameworks are suggested, examining prior studies conducted in various cases. Second, based on the frameworks, interviews with local stakeholders are conducted. Consequently, the new findings in primary data are mixed with secondary data to produce the new conceptual framework.

Prior studies on residents' participation have identified academic gaps that focus too much on developing countries, taking the Western perspective. Also, as studies on barriers and drivers have not been significantly regarded in the South Korean context, this study takes a case study strategy with a qualitative method in order to fill the gaps and create a new framework.

In terms of techniques and procedures, this study follows three sampling methods according to the types of interviewees. First, purposive and snowball sampling methods are

used to contact tourism-related stakeholders such as local governments and village leaders. Second, the convenience sampling method is used to contact non-tourism-related stakeholders such as residents. This study uses the content analysis method, which is the primary method used in the next chapter. Table 4.6 illustrates this study’s research frameworks.

[Table 4.6] Research Framework



Created based on Saunders’ Research Onion Framework

Hence, the following three chapters deal with primary data obtained through qualitative interviews with local stakeholders. Based on frameworks presented in the secondary data, the next chapter focuses on identifying and arranging barriers to and drivers of residents’ participation inherent in primary data.

Chapter 5. Residents' Partnerships with Local Authorities

Chapters 5 to 7 consist of data presentations, analysis, and discussions, focusing on each relationship that becomes a key theme. Chapter 5 focuses on the relationship of trust between residents and local authorities and examines factors affecting building trust. Chapter 6 focuses on the relationship between residents and the current participatory systems and examines factors affecting residents' motivations. Chapter 7 focuses on the intra-group relationship among residents and examines cultural aspects as factors affecting residents' participation.

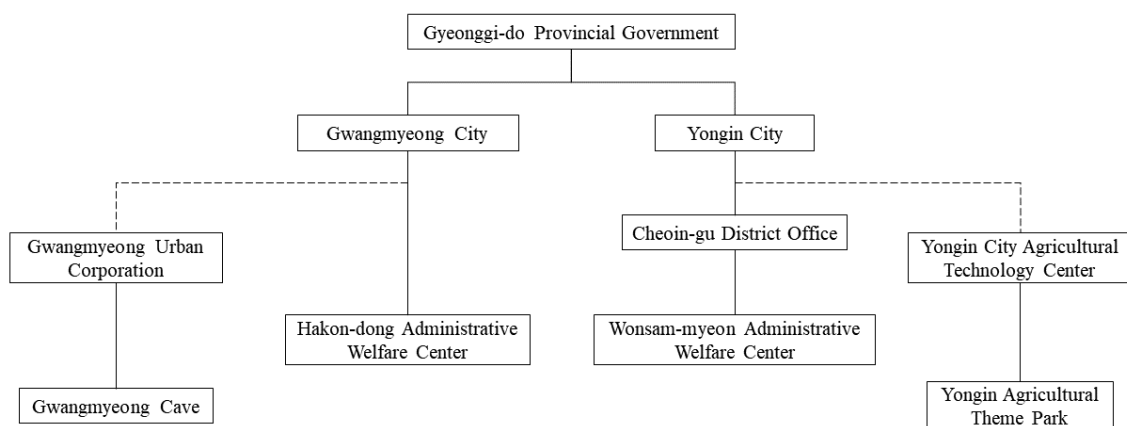
As previously mentioned, this chapter focuses on the relationship between residents and local authorities, aiming to examine factors affecting their partnerships. Hence, trust and communication are significant elements here.

5.1 The Trust of Residents in Local Authorities

Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park are local theme parks owned by each local authority (Gwangmyeong and Yongin). Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation and Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center operate each theme park as affiliated organisations of each local government (Chart 5.1). This part deals with residents' trust in each local authority.

[Chart 5.1] Governmental Organisation Chart of

Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park



OECD (2017) has revealed that the average rate of global residents' trust in the government is 43.4%. Particularly in South Korea, according to the Korea Social Integration Survey conducted by the Korea Institute of Public Administration (KIPA) (2021), as of 2020, the rate of trust in the national government is 49.4% (p. 175), and residents' perception of communication between local governments and residents has recorded 2.4 points out of 4 points (p. 55). Also, residents' reliability in local governments has been recorded at 57.1 % (p. 180). These statistics show that Korean residents' perception of and trust in the national and local governments is not high, and interviews with residents in Gwangmyeong and Yongin confirm the result below.

5.1.1 Gaining Legitimacy from Residents

The first reason is that the affiliated organisation has failed to gain legitimacy. The history of Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation started in 2015 when Gwangmyeong Facilities Management Corporation was launched. After two years, the operation of Gwangmyeong Cave was transferred entirely to the Facilities Management Corporation, and this corporation was changed to Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation. Residents have no prior data on the urban corporation's economic performance - the feasibility of implementing plans and capabilities to take charge of the operation. Therefore, even though Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation takes charge of Gwangmyeong Caves' management, residents rely more on Gwangmyeong City.

"Projects undertaken by the city have much more public trust than we do, especially in the relationship with residents. Residents would rely more on the city's projects, so what we do would be less trustful in many ways." (A, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

"I guess residents would be more reliable on the city than the urban corporation. I think the public trust in the city is definitely higher than us." (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

Another piece of evidence that Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has failed to gain legitimacy from residents is that there has been an issue with the corporation's existence itself.

“Citizens’ perceptions of the urban corporation are quite negative. The urban corporation does not play a leading role in promoting projects except for Gwangmyeong Cave, so questions on the urban corporation’s necessity in the city have a population of less than half a million.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

An urban corporation is a public organisation that manages to promote welfare and urban development. As an organisation with both characteristics of private and public corporates, it prioritises profit creation and emphasises social value realisation. In other words, it covers private enterprises’ parts by undertaking regional development and the government’s parts by expanding public goods. For these purposes, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has been established to effectively manage facilities in Gwangmyeong-si and contribute to citizens’ welfare. However, as F (Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council) has indicated, Gwangmyeong’s population is less than 300k as of February 2021, which is relatively small compared to nearby cities such as Anyang (approx. 600k), Suwon (approx. 1.2m), Bucheon (approx. 840k), and Ansan (approx. 716k). In other words, it has been unnecessary to establish this specialised organisation since Gwangmyeong City itself could manage facilities. Also, Gwangmyeong Cave is specially managed by five departments among sixteen departments, which F (Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council) seems immoderate. Residents worry about this point because even though Gwangmyeong Cave is managed exclusively, its profitability is low. With the size of the city being small and the profitability of the urban corporation being low, the necessity of the urban corporation is being questioned.

“Residents are cynical about collaborating with the urban corporation. Residents even laugh at them. They have spent much money but made a small profit. They would have gone bankrupt if they were a general company.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

The records of performances are significant for corporates in claiming legitimacy, affecting the confidence of corporates (Smith and Woods 2015; Zimmerman and Zeitz 2002). In 2015, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation was established as a local facilities management corporation. Later, in 2017, they were promoted to the urban corporation by being in charge of the management and development of Gwangmyeong Cave and nearby areas. While the facilities management corporation manages public facilities of local governments, such as

public car parks, sports training centres, or memorial parks, the urban corporation manages projects regarding urban development. In other words, public corporations like Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation seek profits by operating public services to promote local communities' welfare (Lee 2014).

Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has been criticised for its passive attitude that projects have never been conducted except for Gwangmyeong Cave (Jeon 2020). With respect to creating the Gwangmyeong Culture, and Tourism Complex, the development of Gwangmyeong Cave and nearby areas, the urban corporation shares 49.1% (49.9% of private corporations and 1% of Ansan Urban Corporation), which doubts whether Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation could take the lead in the development have been raised (KM Times 2021). Moreover, since 1993, public corporations have been evaluated through the management evaluation system. In recent four years, from 2016 to 2019, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has recorded the fourth (2016), fourth (2017), second (2018) and third (2019) classes (out of five classes), which are ranked 22nd (out of 47) overall as of 2019, evaluated that the system has not been introduced in relation to the management of fixed assets and depreciation (Evaluation Institute of Regional Public Corporation 2020; Ministry of the Interior and Safety n.d.). Besides, negative news on making a false contract (Bae, J. 2021), violation of employees' rights (Ki 2019), and corruption in recruitment (Heo 2018) have been reported via local media.

In other words, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has failed to make a positive impression on its residents. Numerous issues of the urban corporation due to their inexperience have been indicated and criticised. According to qualitative interviews, the civic association has raised questions about the necessity of the urban corporation, and residents have not been aware of its existence. In a situation in which a basis for evaluating performances is lacking, the urban corporation finds it challenging to legitimise.

Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center, the operator of Yongin Agricultural Theme Park, has not shared essential information such as operation status and business performance with residents. Nevertheless, Yongin residents have shown trust in this institution because their past experience, which is described in the next part, has had a significant influence on trust formation.

5.1.2 Impact of Past Experiences on Building Trust

The second reason for showing the lack of trust in Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation is that residents' past experiences have impacted trust. Hakon-dong residents tend to express their opinions on Gwangmyeong Cave via the Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center, a third party in Gwangmyeong Cave management. Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center is another affiliated organisation of Gwangmyeong City, which provides services that are highly related to local communities, such as social welfare, civil defence, and registrations (see Chart 5.1). For a more extended period, the chief of the Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center has supported residents both materially and emotionally as an intermediary. The chief has gained much trust by engaging in and solving local issues at the front line, working closely with residents.

“What the Administrative Welfare Center could do is mediate between residents and the urban corporation. I have listened to residents' opinions attentively, representing residents' perspectives and arbitrating a dispute in an objective position. I could obtain residents' trust by going to a scene and observing the work in person, so residents are setting forth their opinions through me.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

This example shows how previous interpersonal relationships and involvement contribute to building trust. In contrast, Hakon-dong residents have perceived Gwangmyeong City negatively because they had a direct conflict with a garbage incineration plant located in Hakon-dong.

“An issue with locating a garbage incineration plant in Hakon-dong has come to the fore in the past. This plant incinerates Guro's garbage. Thus, we demonstrated against Gwangmyeong not letting it in. Allowing the development, residents requested the city to make multipurpose halls in each village, connect the waterworks, and support heating so that residents could keep farming during Winter. However, the city did nothing but the waterworks. There have been no benefits to residents, but we suffered a significant loss. The city did not keep their promises.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

Since late 1990, Guro (one of the districts in Seoul)'s garbage has been incinerated in

Gwangmyeong, according to the ‘*Environmental Big Deal*’ agreement. Residents constantly complained about establishing the plant by gathering residents’ signatures and visiting the district office. However, it was enforced according to the Environmental Big Deal between Gwangmyeong and Guro (Park, Jang, and Joo 1997). As compensation for nearby residents, Gwangmyeong City promised to solve local issues, such as establishing water supply or expanding public transportation services, but residents argued that promises had not been fulfilled (Heo 2005). Yoon (2005) analysed the non-democratic decision-making process and lack of reasonable compensation as factors for the conflict causation between the government and residents, which has negatively affected building residents’ trust in the local government.

Compared to Gwangmyeong, residents in Yongin have shown a different response. For the first reason, Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center, the equivalent public organisation to Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation (see Chart 5.1), has gained legitimacy as a local stakeholder. Since 1948, this center has contributed to local communities with various rural facilities. As for residents, the center is familiar and trustworthy as they have known about it for an extended period. Second, residents are satisfied with working with the center. The center has supported owners with the facilities renovation to activate touristic experiential farms, and Yongin City has created the Korea Railroad Corporation tour programme connecting with Yongin Agricultural Theme Park and nearby farms and villages.

“There is no reason for residents to negatively perceive Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center as they do not harass residents.” (H, Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association)

To sum up, in Gwangmyeong, the new-emerged corporation has not left any positive impressions behind, and residents’ poor experience that Gwangmyeong City did not keep promises became a catalyst for losing trust. On the other hand, Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center has been building residents’ trust by working closely with local communities for more than 70 years and supporting tourism activities with the renovation of facilities. The crucial point that Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center contrasts with Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation is its legitimacy. This center, which specialises in agricultural technology, has distributed crucial supplies and technologies to residents engaged in agriculture for a few decades. Also, they have promoted local products in the theme park,

creating a tourism network with nearby villages. Their supportive and cooperative attitude has positively affected residents' perceptions, which has led to residents' trust in the center.

5.2 Communication between Residents and Local Authorities

In 2019, the business agreement between Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation, the Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center, and the Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders was made. Purposed to understanding the social value of local communities and collaboration to solve local issues, the business agreement aims to revitalise Hakon-dong's local economy. At this ceremony, D (Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders) said that he hoped Hakon-dong residents and Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation could coexist and communicate through this agreement (Lee, Y. 2019). Corresponding to D (Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)'s hope, A (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation) has replied that Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation would make efforts to reflect residents' opinions as much as possible in the operation of Gwangmyeong Cave.

“The urban corporation's CEO reinforces the communication with organisations and residents. As far as I know, the business agreement has been contracted in that process. Residents visit us whenever they have something to say.” (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

“It is necessary to meet regularly, cooperate with and provide information to residents to make the Gwangmyeong Cave development project succeed and create a synergy effect. For me, the most significant value is continuous communication. (...) Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation welcomes residents whenever they come. I think it is necessary to let residents make decisions with unhidden and undistorted information.” (A, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

As such, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation places emphasis on communication without hiding information. However, residents' responses to the urban corporation's communication are contrastive, creating significant gaps, as shown below.

5.2.1 Three Dimensions of Communicative Gaps between Residents and Local Authorities

This part deals with gaps between residents and local authorities in partnerships and collaboration created from the lack of communication.

The Distinction between the Discourse and Reality

The first gap is the distinction between discourse and reality. According to A and B (both from Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)' responses and the purpose of the business agreement, what they have pursued is strengthening communication and collaboration with residents. However, communication and collaboration remain at the bureaucratic level. Residents have responded that it is their first-time hearing that the urban corporation has communicated with residents because they have never had any opportunities to exchange opinions or dine together.

“A business agreement is merely an agreement. Since then, they (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation) have never participated in any meetings or told what they are going to do. I have not heard from them since then. We have never communicated, shared opinions, nor dined with the urban corporation.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“The urban corporation said that all of us have discussed it, but the fact is that we have never heard of it. The CEO has never visited the village, and we have never seen him nor had a conversation with him.” (E, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

Nevertheless, A from Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation says that they have had meetings and dining regularly with the Residents Support Consultative Body to exchange knowledge and information.

“Whenever residents visit us, we used to discuss. We have been exchanging opinions and dining with the Residents Support Consultative Body in Dogonae Village once a month or two months.” (A, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

Failure to Identify Appropriate Local Stakeholders to Collaborate

This response shows a second gap between Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation and residents, which could be called the failure to identify appropriate local stakeholders to collaborate. Given the definitions of prior researchers, including Freeman (1984), Mitchell, Agle, and Wood (1997), and Clarkson (1995), individuals or groups with legitimate interests in Gwangmyeong Cave could be called stakeholders.

A (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation) has mentioned that they communicate with the Residents Support Consultative Body group. However, this body was organised according to the law to deal with issues in the incineration plant. Some residents involved in the business agreement are included in the body, but technically, the body is not for Gwangmyeong Cave but for the incineration plant.

“The Residents Support Consultative Body, organised according to the Promotion of Installation of Waste Disposal Facilities and Assistance, etc. to Adjacent Areas Act, has been since the incineration plant was built. The Residents Support Consultative Body and the urban corporation used to dine together to expand ageing resource recovery facilities smoothly. The urban corporation also asked us to sign a business agreement, so the leaders of Tongs made a formal agreement with the urban corporation. That is all. However, they have never talked about tourism with residents.” (E, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

The residents argue that although the agreement was made with a leader of the Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders, the urban corporation communicates with the Residents Consultative Body, launched for the incineration plant. The more severe problem is that even Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation could not recognise the Council properly.

“The Residents Support Consultative Body is different from the Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders; I do not know about it exactly. I do not know how they have consisted, so I am not sure exactly what led to the agreement.” (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

In other words, the urban corporation has made a business agreement with the Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders, but they have been communicating with the Residents

Consultative Body. In this regard, information about the development of Gwangmyeong Cave has not been shared with residents.

Ignoring Residents' Proactive Demand for Information

The third gap is ignoring residents' proactive demand for information. Members of the Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council indicate that even though they request information about the use of budget or investment expenses, it has not been provided. In particular, they further argue that there have not been any deliberation processes in the early stages of Gwangmyeong Caves' planning and development, even though Gwangmyeong Cave is operated with citizens' taxes.

"Opinions used to be shared with groups such as civic groups in drafting general administration policies, but not in the planning process of Gwangmyeong Cave. At least, open debates on Gwangmyeong Cave have not been held. (...) The Cave consumes too many lights in line with a sub-theme of light, which costs a sizeable electric charge. We have been required to disclose the information on the amount of electricity used in the cave, and it has not been transparently opened so far. The administration says Gwangmyeong Cave is a surplus, but the local council says it is a deficit. Like this contradiction, accurate information has not been provided. The Urban Corporation does not provide accurate information or data even though the local council requests it. We cannot accurately recognise the information on profits, expenditures, or investment costs. (...) There are no communications nor deliberative procedures with citizens. There were no stages to discuss with residents from the Cave planning stage." (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council)

The situation in which residents are isolated from information and knowledge continues in recent tourism development projects around Gwangmyeong Cave.

"I have signed the business agreement as a residents' representative, but I have never received any relevant information. They never told us that they would develop a nearby area of Gwangmyeong Cave. We have made the business agreement, but no phone calls or suggestions for participation. The partnership is non-existent. There is no equal partnership at all, and I feel it is unilateral. Residents do not know what the urban corporation does. There is no way for residents to participate." (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

Publishing a manual on operating a public hearing, the Korean Ministry of the Interior and Safety (MOIS) (2018: 9) has guided the collection of various opinions from experts, stakeholders, and the general public to hold a public hearing.

In 2017, a public hearing was held after a revised ordinance on the operation of Gwangmyeong Cave was passed. However, the debaters were people related to the urban corporation, and sufficient information on the urban corporation's project contents had not been provided. In this regard, F (Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council) announced a statement criticising the fact that the public hearing was little more than a formality. This public hearing was recorded as an example of poor operation by MOIS (2018).

In the same year, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation was highly criticised for holding a development investment briefing session before announcing research services on investment analysis and private capital. In particular, even though the city council must review and verify budget uses before the execution, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation ignored this process, trying to form a public-private consortium for the untested theme complex project. Gwangmyeong Citizens' Coalition for Economic Justice, a part of the Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council, announced a statement criticising that they also did not communicate with citizens and open information to the public (Lee 2017).

“Decisions and validity of the development have been discussed only with experts, not citizens. (...) We have never discussed how environmental destruction caused by local development would be replaced with what benefits or how tourism revenue would contribute to Gwangmyeong-si. No one cares about which one should be bequeathed to future generations between the natural environment and a theme park.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council)

Moreover, in 2019, there was criticism that democratic procedures were undermined and citizens' right to know was ignored as the process of reviewing the investment motion - a particular purpose company for development projects around Gwangmyeong Cave - was conducted behind closed doors to citizens.

“The Urban Corporation said that all of us had discussed it, but the fact is that we have never heard of it. The CEO of the urban corporation has never visited the village, and we have never seen him nor had

a conversation with him.” (E, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

5.2.2 Isolation of Residents from Information and Knowledge

This issue seems to be similar to the third gap. While the third gap is about the attitude that Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has ignored residents’ demands about the Cave’s operational status, this part is that residents have not had sufficient opportunities to obtain much information provided, criticising formalism and administrative expediency. More specifically, formalism and administrative expediency mean a form of public participation in which residents are substantially excluded from getting involved in the process due to low accessibility. Hence, even though there are also some communicative gaps between residents and local authorities, they are worth highlighting in a separate section.

In 2019, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation invited private businesses to create a public-private joint tourism project - size of approx. 561k m² - in the area surrounding Gwangmyeong Cave. In line with the business agreement made in June 2019, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation held a presentation for residents. This presentation explained the status of the project’s process and exchanged opinions with residents.

“Residents liked a presentation for residents as it was unprecedented.” (A, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

At this presentation, A (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation) showed an interest in having residents’ opinions reflected in the development process, promising that the urban corporation would concentrate its efforts on selecting the project implementers so that they could fully reflect the opinions of local communities (Kim, Y. J. 2019). However, residents complained that they were not satisfied with this presentation, showing a contradictory response to A (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)’s.

“Even in the presentation for residents, we did not have enough opportunity to raise our voices. City officials and the CEO of the urban corporation came and explained. That is why residents uttered a loud voice. The presentation was a one-time event, and our requirements were not fully satisfied.” (D,

Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

It has been reported that approximately 60 residents of Hakon-dong attended the presentation, but compared to the population (2,211 as of Feb 2021), the attendance rate is low, which is 2.7%. F from Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council explains that one reason for showing the low rate is administrative expediency.

“Public hearings or presentations for citizens are administrative expediency. They are held during the administration's business hours. As Gwangmyeong is a commuter town, many people work in other regions. These events are not held at other times as they are centred on the administration. Sometimes, residents' autonomy organisations' meetings are held in the evening, but more significant events such as public hearings or panel discussions are held at the administration's convenience.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council)

As of the second half-year of 2020 (Statistics Korea 2021), the employment rates based on habitation (Gwangmyeong: 58.0% / Yongin: 55.2%) are higher than the rate based on the workplace (Gwangmyeong: 42.6% / Yongin: 39.8%). This means that many of the people employed in the two cities work in other regions. Also, given that the proportion of commuters inside their habitation is 34.9% in Gwangmyeong and 46.2% in Yongin as of the first half of 2021 (Gyeonggi-do Job Foundation 2021), Gwangmyeong and Yongin have prominent characteristics as commuter towns. Nevertheless, significant events such as public hearings or presentations on crucial issues in two regions have been held on weekdays.

“Presentations for residents are to minimise residents' complaints, not gather public opinions. Having never asked citizens is a bigger problem than providing less information. (...) I can clearly say that the Gwangmyeong Cave development project is not a resident-participatory project. Local tourism development has been conducted to revive Gwangmyeong Cave, but it is not meeting citizens' opinions and needs. It seems that it is a case of the tail wagging the dog.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council)

According to the co-survey conducted by Jobkorea and Albamon, online portals

specialising in employment, workers in Gyeonggi-do spend 134 minutes commuting (Lee, M. 2019). Given that workers arrive at offices at 09:03 am and leave at 06:37 pm on average (Park, S. 2021), they spend 708 minutes on average during the weekdays. These numbers imply that regardless of locations or methods, participating in any tourism-related activities held during the daytime is not feasible for residents who work.

“I finish my work around 6 pm, but public hearings are usually held during the daytime. Also, I have been too busy to be attentive to local tourism issues.” (J, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“Even if I knew that there would be a public hearing or a presentation, it would have been challenging to participate as it overlaps with my working hours.” (L, Yongin Resident)

Contents on presentations are notified through the Gwangmyeong City’s website; however, D (Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders) and F (Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council) indicate that there are barriers to accessing them.

“We only could check the project progress online, not individually. (...) However, here only has elders.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“A bulletin on public hearings and presentations is notified on Gwangmyeong City's website. However, who will check a bulletin on the website when no one promotes it? General citizens cannot afford to check it.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

Residents in Gwangmyeong (I and J) have mentioned many offline channels, including bulletins or booklets in which Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation could explain the development and recruit participants, exist, but Gwangmyeong has never used these ways.

“I think I have seen something online, but Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has never informed me.” (I, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“I have never heard about tourism development around Gwangmyeong Cave. Neither have I been informed. It seems that Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has done something near the cave, but I have no idea what it is about exactly. Residents have never been told to participate in the process.” (J, Gwangmyeong Resident)

The isolation of residents on information and knowledge also occurs in Yongin Agricultural Theme Park. Yongin Agricultural Theme Park was created in 2003 in the name of Woori Land. As its name could not represent a rural experience centre’s image and characteristics, Yongin’s mayor notified citizens to gather opinions on an ordinance on the name change in 2008. However, this process was perfunctory.

“As Woori Land’s transition to Yongin Agricultural Theme Park was a policy change, there was no conversation with residents.” (G, Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center)

Even though the ordinance’s revision was announced officially, this information on the name change was not shared with residents. Besides, the list of new names was suggested by Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center members and collected by high-level executives in Yongin City. Citizens only could vote (300 people participated) among three ready-selected names on the city’s website. Initially, the plan to change the name of Woori Land was negative due to the waste of taxes (Lee 2008). The change, which caused controversy, was passed through the local council without conversations with residents. Also, Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center does not share information on the income-expenses status.

“We do not share information on operating revenues, expenditures, and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park’s investment costs with residents. We have been calculating non-tax revenue and expenditure through the local council approval.” (G, Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center)

“Although I am quite attentive to local issues, I have never heard about the theme park development, not even about information or budget uses.” (K, Yongin Resident)

“I have nothing heard about tourism development from Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center.

Not even notifications nor explanations.” (L, Yongin Resident)

Both Gwangmyeong and Yongin have opened various channels via social media, blogs, or Kakao Talk (messenger application) in order to share information about their local issues and communicate with citizens. However, it seems that important information on each theme park has not been included and shared with residents, consequently leading to residents’ isolation. Also, it has created a new constraint for those who are not familiar with online content.

In summary, significant gaps between the operators of the theme parks and residents have been identified in terms of information and knowledge. The first gap is the distinction between discourse and reality. Even though the business agreement aimed to strengthen communication and collaboration, it has not been adequately implemented in reality. The second gap is the failure to identify appropriate local stakeholders to collaborate. Even though the business agreement was made with the Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has communicated and dined with the Residents Consultative Body for the incineration plant, not for Gwangmyeong Cave. The third gap is ignoring residents’ proactive demand for information. Residents and civic groups have requested that Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation release information about the Cave’s management promptly; these requests have been ignored. The final gap is the isolation of residents from information and knowledge. In particular, even though there could have been numerous opportunities to gather more attendees for public hearings or presentations and collect opinions from citizens, neither Gwangmyeong nor Yongin considered it based on their administrative expediency.

5.2.3 Communication as a Key to Building Trust

A few interview participants have shared an idea of the significance of communication in that it allows residents to make direct decisions, resolve local issues and minimise mutual misunderstanding. Some residents have viewed mistrust as derived from the non-deliberative process, in which communication is lacking.

“In order to persuade and advocate residents, it is necessary to provide all information without hiding or distorting.” (A, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

“I think communication is the most significant thing as we need to know what residents’ needs are to respond accurately to them. Even if it is not necessarily a quantified meeting, it is significant to communicate regularly to solve issues.” (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

“The most significant thing in local development is the mutual communication between organisations which promote the development and residents who provide resources. There should be the visions the urban corporation presents and a way to develop or discuss.” (E, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“As the urban corporation keeps trying to conceal something, citizens have a jaundiced view. However, in fact, that something might not be a big deal. I want the urban corporation to be more open and be with the local community.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

“When it comes to thinking about communication, internet infrastructure is well developed. Then, they could communicate with residents at least by sending messages or links. Basically, there needs to be information sharing that “we are doing this or that” using various channels. That is why residents have not been able to be aware of the development.” (L, Yongin Resident)

Despite their willingness, residents find it challenging to participate in the process because they do not know when and how to participate. Therefore, recently, South Korean local authorities have tried to invigorate communication with residents. For example, the need for performance indicators related to communication in the performance evaluation system (Chai and Lee 2018) and various two-way communication means, including social media, as part of the public relations (PR) system (Kim, J. 2013), has come to the fore. In particular, the development and introduction of information technology (IT) have contributed to transparency and accessibility in sharing information, enabling local governments to communicate promptly with residents (Park, Kim, and Moon 2021).

Nevertheless, according to the Korea Social Integration Survey (2021) mentioned above, communication perceptions between local governments and residents are lacking as of 2020, recorded at 2.4 points out of 4 points (p. 55). It indicates that residents perceive a lack of communication between local authorities. The crucial element which could be considered is the willingness of local authorities to share and promote the information with residents.

Interview participant B (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation) mentioned that it is

pressured for them to have spare time to communicate with residents as they have loads of work to do. Kim, J. (2013) has emphasised that communication is not the preserve of the PR department, which means that it is necessary for the officials to regard communication as one of their tasks, not extra. Also, G (Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center) has only shared information about the theme park management with the local council, which implies that residents have been isolated from knowing about the operational status.

5.3 Discussion of Elements Affecting Residential Partnership with Local Authorities

This chapter has identified gaps and drivers through parts 5.1 and 5.2, focusing on partner relationships between residents and local authorities. In this regard, this part is to discuss critical elements beyond the primary data presented.

Due to decentralisation, the role of the state in tourism development has changed as a partner (Zahra 2011). In general contexts, the role and intervention of the government have been critical issues in tourism planning and development (Bramwell and Lane 2010; Brokaj 2014; Kubickova 2016; Shone, Simmons, and Dalziel 2016). The direct intervention of the state has been criticised, especially in boosterism and industry-oriented approaches, for causing social conflict and indiscreet exploitation of cultural and environmental resources, isolating residents from the process. Nevertheless, the intervention of governments in the process is still required, legitimating themselves as critical stakeholders (Bramwell and Lane 2010; Brokaj 2014; Choi 2006; Devine and Devine 2011).

In particular, local governments have played a pivotal role in the political process of tourism development in local areas (Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, and Gursoy 2012). Their roles are evolving into facilitators and mediators among local stakeholders (Shone, Simmons, and Dalziel 2016). This study demonstrates and corroborates the prior studies that state that trust in local governments is significant as it affects residents' positive attitudes toward tourism development and willingness to support local government initiatives. In line with these findings, this study suggests that legitimation, past experiences and communication are crucial elements affecting residential trust in local authorities.

5.3.1 Legitimation

Jamal and Getz (1995) have mentioned that legitimation is a significant precondition for stakeholders to participate in collaborative tourism development procedures. Collaboration means sharing resources among stakeholders beyond the lexical definition of working together. Stakeholders would prefer to collaborate with other stakeholders who are reliable in order to avoid uncertainty. Therefore, stakeholders evaluate the external factors of other stakeholders, including structures or performances, when deciding to participate. At the stage of gaining legitimacy, organisations are limited by their past economic performance, which blocks other stakeholders from the rational judgement (Emtairah and Mont 2008; Leardini, Moggi, and Rossi 2019; Schuman 1995; Smith and Woods 2015; Williams-Middleton 2013).

It could be seen that the difference in trust between Gwangmyeong residents and Yongin residents in each local authority has resulted from the process of gaining legitimacy. Gwangmyeong residents have evaluated Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation based on its previous business record and history. Yongin residents have evaluated Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center for its support and relationship with residents. As a result, the lack of records of profitable businesses and sufficient experience in operating the theme park have failed the corporation to gain legitimacy from residents. On the contrary, the supportive relationship between the center and residents, which has been built up for decades, ultimately has a positive effect on the center as a trustful stakeholder. This finding corroborates the study of Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, and Gursoy (2012), who found that a good relationship based on supportive attitudes affects residents' trust.

5.3.2 Past Experiences

OECD (2017) has confirmed that trust in local government is driven by residents' experiences. That is to say, the more residents are satisfied with local public services, such as building infrastructure or development planning, the more residents' trust in the government increases. In particular, these experiences become criteria for evaluating government activities and motivating residents' participation (Koh and Lee 2020). As positive experiences of a person affect trust in others (Van Ingen and Bekkers 2015), positive experiences with governments would affect residents' trust in governments. The primary data clearly reveals cases where previous experiences with a local government affect residents' trust. The

interesting point is that non-tourism-related experiences affect their trust in local authorities for future tourism activities.

As mentioned above, Gwangmyeong residents have had a negative experience with the installation of the garbage incineration plant since the late 1990s, which created negative and unreliable perceptions of Gwangmyeong City. As circumstantial evidence, residents of nearby theme parks have a positive perception of the technology center. This positive perception is derived from the accumulated positive experiences in which the center has supported farming infrastructures and technologies. The main reason for the contrast in each resident's responses is the necessity. That is, the incineration plant has been an unpleasant facility for Gwangmyeong residents, whereas farming infrastructure has been essential for Yongin residents. Gwangmyeong City has not compensated and met residents' needs, whereas Yongin City has satisfied residents' needs. The significant point from these cases is that residents' satisfaction leads to their trust in local authorities, which ultimately leads to expectation and support for tourism development.

5.3.3 Communication

In order to achieve a successful collaboration among stakeholders, numerous researchers, including Baggio and Cooper (2010), Byrd (2007), and Tosun (2000), have emphasised that information and knowledge on tourism planning and management should be shared at the same level. Collaboration has been understood as a process to solve issues in a cooperative manner, not alone, so stakeholders' active participation would be challenging if information and knowledge are not well-disseminated. In particular, Tosun (2000) argues that knowledge gaps between local authorities and residents would isolate local communities, which would eventually be challenging to participate in the tourism development process.

With the trust relationship between residents and local authorities, communication plays a significant role as a tool to interact (coordination) (Singgalen, Sasongko, and Wiloso 2019; Tanny and Al-Hossienie 2019) and distribute information (Marzuki and Hay 2013). That is, good communication generates strong trust in the mutual relationship (Zeffane, Tipu, and Ryan 2011), which implies that trust derives from sharing based on openness.

Numerous researchers have been studying the relationship between communication and trust in the Korean context. Among them, Choi (2016) has identified that trust in local

governments depends on active communication. This implies that the more local governments communicate with residents, the greater their confidence in the government. As a way of communication, Park, J. (2014) has focused on the relationship between trust and the operation of various channels by local governments. Park, J.'s study has confirmed that operating various channels has positively affected residents' perception of transparency and responsiveness, which ultimately has affected the increase of residents' trust in the governments.

Both local authorities have disregarded communication with residents. Even though residents' taxes operate both theme parks, local authorities have not shared operational information about the current status or budget uses with residents. Through interviews, it has been clearly identified that they could not have found any reasons to share the information, thinking that it was not their task. However, the interesting point is that although both authorities have lacked communication with residents regarding the development of theme parks, Yongin residents generally have trust. It could be divided into two types. The first is the trust accumulated from the previous experiences mentioned above. That is, despite the lack of communication or information sharing, residents believe that the technology center does the right thing. The second is the indifference of the residents, which will be discussed later. In particular, some residents find that tourism development has nothing to do with them, which implies that residents do not feel the need for communication in the tourism development process.

For example, C (Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)'s attitudes and frequent and transparent communication have positively affected residents' trust and support of the center. Hakon-dong residents have more trust in the welfare center than the urban corporation and actively participate in solving local issues, which corroborates studies by Chung (2019b), Kim and Jeong (2013), and Trüdinger and Steckermeier (2017) that residents exposed to information by various communicative means would have more trust in local government's initiatives, which eventually positively affect residents' participation.

To conclude this chapter, even though trust might be challenging to define and is a psychological state which might be understood differently in accordance with individuals and industries, from the sustainable tourism perspective, trust has been regarded as a significant factor affecting the collaboration process (Nunkoo and Gursoy 2016), and inter-personal (or -organisational) network (McTiernan, Thomas, and Jameson 2019). In particular, residents' trust in local governments impacts residents' support (Ouyang, Gursoy, and Sharma 2017) and

attitudes (Chung 2019a), motivating them to participate in the decision-making process. That is to say, trust-building is a significant prerequisite for residents' partnership with local authorities.

Chapter 6. Residents' Participation in Collaborative Theme Park Development

This chapter encompasses the critical motivations of residents in participating in the resident-participatory systems, divided into three main points: *benefits*, *capabilities*, and *simplification*. In particular, this chapter deals with the feasibility of the online participation method as an alternative by discussing the current limitations and issues of existing participatory methods.

6.1 Benefits as a Significant Motivation of Residents' Participation

K (Yongin Resident) has responded, "I cannot find any reasons to participate when there are no returning benefits". As such, benefits derived from tourism development are the strongest motivation for local stakeholders to participate (Jamal and Getz 1995). This part focuses on economic (monetary) benefits in which interview participants show high responses.

6.1.1 Types of Benefits for Residents to Participate

Benefits in Employment

Tourism development, including theme parks, economically benefits local communities by creating employment opportunities (Zaei and Zaei 2013) and contributing to a higher standard of living (Jaafar, Kayat, Tangit, and Yacob 2013). In particular, with the employment opportunities, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has employed hundreds of staff during the peak season, and they believe employment would produce tremendous effects on the local economy.

"Given that Gwangmyeong Cave around 300 people are recruited during the peak season, I think the effect on the local economy is enormous." (A, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

"Job creation alone benefits residents a lot. We are hiring many seniors." (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

In July 2019, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation recruited 77 fixed-term workers for Gwangmyeong Cave. Given that 25 workers (32%) were hired as traffic directors and 16 workers (21%) were hired as café employees, and contracts ended before September, this recruitment was to prepare for the peak season. Also, they have been hiring fixed-term workers at ordinary times, and one of the specifications required of applicants is that they must be registered residents in Gwangmyeong City. The effect of employment positively impacts local communities, but residents' responses are different.

“They mention the job creation, but how many residents would have been employed? They are condescending towards residents, and I think it does not do much for us. They only recruit temporary jobs, not permanent ones. Thus, the youth does not want to apply for that place. Few residents have been involved in the Cave: a guide or a driver.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“In the early period, there were tour guides in the Cave who served without pay. There has been a rise in employment, but it is temporary work.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council)

Although Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation hires Gwangmyeong citizens, residents do not perceive hiring as a benefit in that it is temporary, not permanent. Nevertheless, C from the Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center has responded that it would have been somewhat helpful to residents as there has been an agreement to treat residents if they have similar qualifications.

“I think Gwangmyeong Cave has been somewhat helpful in creating jobs. It has not been documented, but we had an agreement with the urban corporation to treat residents, who have a similar qualification to other applicants, considerably in hiring.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

However, residents have argued that it is no longer valid since the recruiting system has been changed to a blind hiring system in which any personal information not related to duties, such as gender, age or level of education, is excluded. Moreover, compared to multinational companies in Gwangmyeong - IKEA and Costco - residents have argued that Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has never indigenised residents as workers at

Gwangmyeong Cave. Their argument shows how the lack of economic benefits negatively impacts local communities' perceptions.

“Some residents from Hakon-dong used to be employed in Gwangmyeong Cave. However, these days, residents are not hired as before, as Gwangmyeong Cave hire employees through interviews in open recruitment called blind hiring. Multinational companies hire residents first when they develop tourism destinations. Even IKEA and Costco asked about our requirements. The problem is that Gwangmyeong does not ask us. They should co-exist in the development process, but they do not. They never care about the residents.” (E, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

Benefits of Living Quality

Another economic benefit derived from tourism development is improving living standards by vitalising the local economy. Regarding this type of benefit, responses between Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation and residents show contradictions. Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation believes that Gwangmyeong Cave would have contributed to revitalising the local economy.

“I think the local economy has been revitalised throughout Gwangmyeong Cave because numerous visitors visit and consume.” (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

[Table 5.1] Status of Budget Expenditure and Income of Gwangmyeong Cave between 2015 and 2017

(unit: KRW (₩) million (GBP (£) million))¹⁴

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(Jeong, Lee, Woo, Park, and Park 2018: 46)

¹⁴ Currency between Korean Won and British Pound is calculated as £1 as ₩1,580 as of May 2021.

However, visitors from other regions only visit Gwangmyeong Cave, Lotte Premium Outlet, and IKEA as a day trip, and strategies to induce these visitors to commercial areas are lacking (Gwangmyeong City 2017a). This means that consumption behaviour at the local level has not been achieved. Also, Gwangmyeong Cave has a structure where expenditure is greater than income (Table 5.1).

Gwangmyeong Cave recorded its highest number of visitors in 2016, with approximately 1.4m visited. However, given that the most expensive entrance ticket price is only ₩6k (£3.8) (adults), the maximum revenue (supposing all visitors were adults) from selling tickets is ₩8bn (£5m), which is far from enough for this profit to cover expenditure. This revenue is not expected to return to local communities as a benefit. Residents have argued that there has been no evidence to prove that the local economy has been revitalised.

“As this area is not urban but rural, residents expected that benefits would be distributed to them through the development, but there was nothing.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

“The more Gwangmyeong Cave becomes famous, the more revenue should be generated from visitors. However, there is no data on the visitors’ spending. Given that citizens’ taxes have been injected into the Cave, there should have been various benefits, including local economic circulation and monetary benefits to residents. Visible achievements have lacked.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

“What are the monetary benefits to residents from the Cave? Nothing. Gwangmyeong Cave is a deficit; then what are the benefits they can distribute? Making hospitality facilities is not allowed. We can do nothing with a special management area.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“Discussions, which enable residents to participate in tourism decision-making or policy-making, are non-existent. So do in creating a tourism complex. Even though residents cite a precedent, the city says that a precedent is just a precedent and is not applied to the current law. Residents do not have any empowerment. Developments do not provide any benefits to residents.” (E, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

With respect to the public-private joint tourism project initiative in the area

surrounding Gwangmyeong Cave, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation expects to produce incalculable local economic benefits, saying that they prioritise residents' benefits.

“I believe that the profits from the private sector's more significant investment will be retrieved to Gwangmyeong. I believe that the most prioritised aspect of the process is the benefits of residents.” (A, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

However, other participants' responses are cynical about the potential benefits of the new development, providing three reasons. First, benefits derived from the development would be weighted towards specific villages.

“In a regional perspective, in fact, only the villages near the entrance to Gwangmyeong Cave would have benefits.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

“Gwangmyeong Cave has enhanced the image of Gwangmyeong, but residents are unsatisfied with it as there are numerous inconveniences. It might be helpful to Gwangmyeong, but it is harmful to residents. We do not have any benefits from the Cave. (...) I think it is a demonstration effect. It is not the whole issue for Hakon-dong, but Dogocheon village and Duitgol village.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

Second, there is an opinion gap between residents and private developers.

“Residents have requested to readjust land using the replotting method after completing the tourism complex development near Gwangmyeong Cave to be in harmony with the new complex. The private developers said that a development plan would be established if residents wanted the expropriation method. However, they would not have any development intentions with the replotting method. It is said that development enterprises do not have the spontaneous willingness.” (E, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

Dealing with the land is the most significant issue for residents when claiming

compensation. The critical point between the expropriation method and the replotting method is land ownership. In terms of the expropriation method, a project implementer purchases all the lands in the project district. This method is advantageous for implementers to promote the project rapidly but has a disadvantage in that development benefits are concentrated among implementers. On the other hand, in terms of the replotting method, land owners' ownership is transferred to the arranged lands according to plans, but their ownership is not transferred to implementers. Therefore, it is possible for residents who own lands to be reimbursed for development profits.

Finally, due to visitors' behaviours toward Gwangmyeong Cave and the characteristics of the tourism complex, there is doubt about whether revenue from the new development would be distributed to residents. Also, since Hakon-dong has been designated as a development-restricted zone, ways for residents to benefit by themselves, such as operating hospitality businesses, are limited.

“Compared to visitors to a general tourism destination who spend money all day, visitors to the cave take a walk inside the cave and have a cup of coffee, and that is all. This tendency could not make large profits. Even though the cave's tourism complex will be developed, visitors would dine out in the complex, not in Bamil Village (eatery village). If things come to this stage, visitors' money would become the urban corporation's revenue, not of small retail merchants in the local area.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council)

“The city has tried to grant incentives to residents, but it is insufficient. Rather, they make a profit from residents' land value. (...) As Hakon-dong is designated as a development-restricted zone, there is no way we could benefit. Even building hospitality facilities is not permitted.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

In Yongin Agricultural Theme Park, there is no published statistical or official data to prove that this theme park contributes to the local economy.

“Visitors' blogs show that visitors spend money staying in Cheoin-gu (where Yongin Agricultural Theme Park is located).” (G, Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center)

“Yongin Agricultural Theme Park might contribute to the local economy. Local restaurants or convenience stores might be well-run as visitors visit from other regions.” (H, Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association)

Responses based on their assumptions do not seem to support any shreds of evidence for residents benefiting from the theme park. As a part of revitalising the rural local economy, Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center has tried to connect Yongin Agricultural Theme Park and nearby farms through experiential programmes.

“As detailed experience farms, we organised a Yongin Agricultural Theme Park tourism network with farms so that urban residents could design a complex experience programme. (...) Experience villages or farms have been activated. Compared to the past when there was only one experience tourism destination, now there are more than 26 destinations (estimated) in Yongin, so I think the ripple effect is excellent.” (G, Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center)

However, H from the Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association has argued that these programmes have low profitability.

“The word of experience tourism seems reasonable, but it is not profitable. Students from schools often visit to experience farming, but it is temporary, not a steady demand. If it has been profitable, residents would have more interests.” (H, Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association)

Interviews have confirmed that economic and social benefits are significant drivers for residents to participate in the process. That is, residents’ willingness to participate is influenced by the extent of benefits that residents would get.

“Job creation alone benefits residents a lot. People who have worked with us would have expectations for tourism development. Also, this benefit could create social value and a synergy effect.” (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

“Whatever it is built in the village, the win-win relationship happens only when residents benefit. When profits are generated, I think it is right to return them to residents.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

“I would not participate if there is no benefit. Likewise, I think residents’ participation would not be active or passionate unless there is a benefit. People want to show off the certificates or badges they received. There must be something to stimulate at least residents’ psychology.” (I, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“If there is anything I would gain, I would definitely participate. However, if it is just for our happiness or for future generations, I would feel like, ‘why should I do it?’ Community participation would depend on the benefits given to a community. The prerequisite for participation is the benefit.” (K, Yongin Resident)

“In order to induce community participation, at least transportation fees should be paid or any benefits used in local tourism destinations. If the city lets residents know the benefits for a certain part, I think residents would consider it. Without benefits, even I would not participate.” (L, Yongin Resident)

Similar to Mak, Cheung, and Hui’s (2017) study, in which the fact that residents emphasise benefits during the process has been identified, these interviews show that benefits are prioritised when residents decide to participate in the process. Benefits include not only simple psychological satisfaction such as pride and happiness but also tangible benefits such as employment, improvement of living quality and profit creation.

To sum up, benefits are regarded as a significant element in that they could become the strongest motivation for residents to participate in the tourism development process. From the qualitative interviews, two economic benefits are identified. The first one is employment. Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation has indeed contributed to the local economy by recruiting Gwangmyeong citizens to the Cave. However, residents have not perceived it as a benefit. It is because jobs are temporary, which is an unstable form of employment, and opportunities given are limited to specific roles, such as drivers or café employees. Also, since the hiring process has changed, residents, especially elders in Hakon-dong, feel that the probability of being recruited is reduced. The second one is the improvement of the standard of living through income. As the new development project near Gwangmyeong Cave is going to be carried out

using the expropriation method, residents are in danger of losing their ownership. Besides, even though the project would be completed and there would be more visitors with better consumption, the trickle-down effect on residents is not expected in that visitors would spend only in the tourism complex. Moreover, an intermittent visit to experience tourism does not guarantee steady demand and long-term returns.

As shown in interviews, the significance of showing the potential benefits to residents has been recognised by local authorities. Nevertheless, residents do not feel that benefits have been sufficiently given to them. Also, they think they have been isolated and excluded from participation. The gaps between local authorities and residents are linked to the performance-oriented structure, as below.

6.1.2 Hindering Factors of Having Residents Benefited

Emphasising interaction and coordination between the public and the private as critical things in realising governance (Kooiman 2003; Pierre 2000), partnership and participation in the tourism development process have been significantly regarded. However, Korean society is described as competition, survival and performance (Lee and Yang 2018: 243) instead of partnerships and collaborations. Obsessions of excessive competition and producing performances overflow in Korean society (Lee and Yang 2018), transforming into a “fierce battlefield for survival” (Kim, M. and Kim, N. 2017: 36). This kind of phenomenon is also prominent in local authorities. Three cases below supplement the performance-oriented structure.

Rough-and-Ready Administration

The first case is that development projects are carried out rapidly in order to produce a result called an achievement.

“A former mayor’s achievements are not helpful to a successor even though the same party promotes a project. (...) What the former did does not become a successor’s achievements. A result could be called an achievement when a person does something before anyone else.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

Okazaki (2008) has indicated that involving residents and stakeholders in decision-making consumes too much time. As for the heads of local governments, they should make achievements during their four-year tenure. As they are elected by citizens, it is crucial for them to produce tangible results that would be significant for citizens to elect them again. Residents in Gwangmyeong have indicated that Gwangmyeong Cave is an example of a performance-oriented development project.

“Mayor is an administrator, not a politician. However, the problem is that an administrator plays a politician’s role. The mayor should be in charge of administrative work, but he engages in politics. (...) There were no deliberation processes. The mayor had everything his way.” (E, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“A local government does not think of the necessity for asking residents’ opinions. Many heads of local governments still believe that they can make every decision because citizens have voted for them. They do not have such consciousness. Gwangmyeong purchased a plot of Gwangmyeong Cave land in order to present the result of development projects. However, it was without permission from the local council. When would they ask citizens since they purchased the land, compiled budget and progressed the development to present the result? It would take years to ask for and reflect citizens’ opinions. I think it is an example of conspicuous performance-oriented policy-making in the political sphere.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

Lack of Legal and Political Basis for Residents’ Participation

The second case is about legal and political issues in the process. Jamal and Getz (1995) have mentioned the existence of a convener who takes responsibility for bringing all appropriate stakeholders to the table. However, a convener could behave as a “thug” (Nardi, Marzano, and Mendieta 2015: 65) by outlining an agenda corresponding to their interests and playing politics. Residents argue that the development seemed to be carried out with the consensus of stakeholders, but the entire process is ready-decided by local authorities with their political and legal power.

“In the meantime, we make many demands; however, it is just a formal demand as the framework has already been established. The City’s authority could implement the expropriation method. When a

decision is made as to the expropriation method, the state decides everything, not letting residents participate. (...) They just draw a blueprint as they want and notify us.” (E, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

Members of a civic group have indicated that the reason for the challenge of decentralising power to citizens is that there are no proper legal frameworks. They further argue that national government officials have excessive authority, giving the example that Gyeonggi-do has tried to develop its own procurement system at the local government’s level, but the central government rejected the Gyeonggi-do’s plan, which implies the central government still takes the initiative (Nam 2016).

“Local governments are the key to residents’ autonomy and decentralisation, but the central government has not revised the law nor improved the system. When will residents be empowered, even when Gyeonggi-do has difficulties? The participation does not go through the deliberation process through public discussion, but collects opinions on the already established plan.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

As mentioned in the second issue on Korean local theme park development and the current challenges of Korean local governance, residents’ participation is not legally guaranteed. The role of local governments, which are the key to realise local autonomy, is restricted. In other words, even though residents desire to participate in tourism development, participation is not legally guaranteed. Also, even though residents have an opportunity to participate in the process, as F (Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council) has indicated, the participation remains at the formal level as residents are limited in expressing opinions about the plans already established in accordance with the upper organisations’ interests.

Window Dressing

The third case is a window dressing. The original meaning of window dressing is displaying selling items throughout a window to attract customers. This word is frequently used to describe administrations for showing off without substantive effects or outcomes. This issue has been one of the main reasons for the negative evaluation of local theme parks in Korea for

more than a decade. As mentioned, it has been inspected that numerous local theme parks have falsely reported their operational status and have less than 10 visitors a day. These local theme parks represent budget-wasting projects in that incalculable taxes of residents have been injected. Moreover, as Kim and Ahn (2018) have indicated, under the push of the local government, local theme parks are not able to contribute to revitalising the local economy as they have been promoted as an outcome of the window dressing of the heads of local governments rather than a review of economic benefits.

“The governor of Gyeonggi-do provided financial assistance to Gwangmyeong Mayor due to Gwangmyeong’s poor finances. However, the mayor put the money into the cave development. It is a deficit to spend nearly ₩200bn (approx. £127m) and makes ₩100m (approx. £63k) in profits. In terms of economics, there is no minus like this.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“In poor communication with the local council, Gwangmyeong Mayor developed Gwangmyeong Cave with his active will and drive. The citizens’ taxes were covered as various expenses and budgets without asking citizens’ opinions. However, we have never heard that Gwangmyeong Cave has made profits.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

“The city does not consider economic benefits of investment when they run tourism development projects directly.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

Both D (Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders) and F (Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council) have agreed that Gwangmyeong Cave has played a significant role in promoting the city, having almost a million visitors in 2019. However, they are concerned that profitability is imperceptible and cannot be turned into an investment in local communities. Also, they have further argued that there is no data on visitors’ consumption in Gwangmyeong, and Gwangmyeong Cave’s income-expense status is unclear. The costs incurred in such unclear circumstances are covered by citizens’ taxes, which would inevitably lead to severe losses for citizens.

The Yongin City has mentioned the Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association on Research Service for Establishing Mid- and Long-Term Tourism Development Strategies in the Yongin City, explaining that this association has been trying to seek ways to

promote rural experience tourism. However, one of the association members disclosed that the association is also a part of window dressing.

“A difficult part of a project undertaken by the government is window dressing. A city organises an association in a few cases but does not operate. Yongin organised the Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association, but we do not have regular meetings - once or twice a year. Yongin gathers various people to the association, but meetings do not have certain content. The purpose is to cheer each other up. Members gradually stop participating as meetings are nothing particular.” (H, Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association)

The performance-oriented structure is explained in the three cases above. However, each case is not a single type of structure; instead, three cases are interconnected. In a situation where residents’ participation is not legally guaranteed, local governments (during the tenure of heads) initiate the plan for local theme park development to produce tangible outcomes in a rapid manner. Therefore, there could have been no deliberation procedures among local stakeholders or decision-making procedures for residents to empower. Visible outcomes are the most significant element in that they would be the foundations for the next election.

To sum up, even though benefits are regarded as a critical motivation for residents to participate in the process, the performances of local authorities have been prioritised. In particular, due to the structure in which performances have become critical criteria to evaluate local authorities’ administrative achievement, the speed of development has excessively accelerated, and the focus has been on results instead of processes. Thus, residents have inevitably been isolated from the process, which has led to a lack of experience in building capacities to participate in resident-participatory systems.

6.2 Lack of Capabilities of Residents in Resident-Participatory Systems

6.2.1 Theme Park Development by Non-Experts

Each operator of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park is not an expert in tourism. Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation is founded to manage local facilities such as public parking lots and public sports facilities. Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center

specialises in agriculture affairs, such as the agricultural machine rental business, and they support agricultural products or improve agricultural technology.

Also, as of 2021 (see Appendix 11), the majority of residents in Hakon-dong, where Gwangmyeong Cave is located, are involved in wholesale and retail trade (38%), manufacturing (29%), and construction (13%). As of 2021 (see Appendix 12), the majority of residents in Wonsam-myeon, where Yongin Agricultural Theme Park is located, are involved in manufacturing (39%), transportation and storage (15%), and wholesale and retail trade (12%).

Therefore, they lack expertise in tourism.

“Even in the planning process, the urban corporation has never invited us, and residents have never participated. Even if we had a chance, we would have nothing to say as we know nothing about tourism.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“The city blindly subsidises farmers to operate businesses. However, those who start their businesses merely latching on to subsidies cannot help failing. It is an individual capability.” (H, Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association)

“Above all, the main reason is that I am not expertise in tourism. How could I participate when I know nothing about tourism?” (K, Yongin Resident)

In particular, residents are concerned most about the expertise from their experiences. They have never considered being engaged in the tourism industry as their careers or studies are not related to tourism.

“For residents who have been a farmer, it is not easy to do business with visitors. Residents cannot do business as they only know about farming all their lives.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

“Even though we participate in the process and demand something, it would never be special. In reality, we might be able to demand road expansion but cannot participate in theme park development. We have

made the business agreement, but there is nothing to do together.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“I have considered participating in the process, but a thought that comes to my head is that my major is apart from tourism. (...) It looks like I must specialise in tourism, but I do not. I am not sure whether I would be able to express any opinions related to tourism.” (I, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“It is true that it is difficult to present opinions because I lack expertise in tourism development.” (J, Gwangmyeong Resident)

Those involved in other industries other than tourism might be hesitant to participate in tourism development. Non-tourism-related residents might be annoyed and feel it unnecessary to study tourism or be engaged in the tourism industry on purpose for participation. As such, the lack of experts blocks residents from learning about tourism industries and gathering residents to participate in the process.

6.2.2 Lack of Knowledge and Experiences in a Resident-Participatory Approach

Besides knowledge of tourism, CBT is fundamentally a community-participatory approach, requiring prior knowledge of the concept of autonomy that guarantees residents’ empowerment and experience of practical participation. However, there is a lack of expertise in understanding the concept of residents’ autonomy, even for operators.

“Although a structure has been created to discuss pending local issues fully, I still feel that the consciousness is not active in residents’ autonomy” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

“Individuals do not accurately recognise residents’ autonomy, and there is still a gap. I understand it as a policy, but I do not know whether it would be feasible. (...) There are no specific guidelines or policies planned to do something to realise a community-based approach in the cave. We promote and explain this approach, but residents have not perceived the concept correctly.” (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

“Human infrastructure, connected to personal knowledge, experience, willingness and mentality, is more significant than physical infrastructure. Therefore, the city should plant and educate people before creating physical infrastructure. In the absence of a firm consciousness, people who only think of subsidies have no choice but to fail. The city tends to think that physical support is all residents need. Educating people should be more often than providing material support.” (H, Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association)

“Establishing a council for residents’ autonomy was challenging as residents’ responses were inferior. There should be at least 20 members to be established; we barely managed to recruit 21 members.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

The residents’ autonomy system is to realise autonomous decentralisation with local activities such as volunteer activities, resident referendums, local festivals, or quarantine activities. By letting residents find pending local issues and solve them with their methods, this system allows residents to empower themselves as the host of local communities.

However, even though this system has lasted two decades since its implementation, there are problems that residents’ capabilities on autonomy have not developed (Kim, C. 2019). Also, as even administrative welfare centres do not hold any legislative authority, it is evident that residents have no right to be further involved in making autonomous laws or regulations (Shin 2018). As indicated, residents’ autonomy systems would be feasible through continuous education, but specific discussions or alternatives are lacking (Moon, Lee, and Jeon 2021). As could be seen from participants’ responses, residents show a lack of interest in and understanding of residents’ autonomy system, which consecutively leads to a lack of expertise.

It also happens when it comes to concepts of sustainable tourism. As the term itself is not intimate with their jobs and daily lives, residents struggle to understand it precisely.

“I have never met someone who talks about sustainable tourism. I think sustainable tourism is just sustainable tourism; what else?” (I, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“I am not familiar with terms related to sustainable tourism or community-based approach. I am not sure whether I would be helpful or if I have great ideas. As I have a shallow understanding of tourism, I do not think I am much qualified to express my opinions.” (J, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“The word itself seems to imply that only those who have expertise are qualified to participate, so I feel a sense of much distance.” (L, Yongin Resident)

In other words, an issue of expertise encompasses both project entities and residents. The original purpose of establishing Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation and Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center is not for tourism. The former manages public facilities such as water supply facilities, and the latter modernises agricultural technologies for farmers. As such, they do not have previous experience in tourism nor sufficient human resources specialised in tourism.

In terms of residents, two aspects could be viewed. The first one is the substantial experience of being engaged in tourism activities. They have never been involved in tourism-related jobs or majored in tourism in higher education, and they have not had any opportunities to expand their views. The second one is close to their psychological status. The mere exposure effect in psychology studies explains that people feel more optimistic about a word or a thing exposed repeatedly (Van Dessel, Mertens, Smith, and De Houwer 2017). That is, they feel a sense of distance in terms of sustainable tourism, resident autonomy, and community-based approaches, as they have not been exposed to these concepts in their daily lives.

Despite community participation being guaranteed by legal-based systems, several reasons why participation rates in the decision-making process are low have been identified. Especially in these parts, interviewees’ responses corroborate previous studies, which have confirmed that a lack of knowledge, benefits, and expertise causes residents to hesitate to participate in the process. In particular, one interesting point is that residents find these participatory procedures complex, arguing that the procedures have to be simplified instead of having opportunities for education given to residents.

Fundamentally, there are two primary reasons why residents demand simplified procedures. The burden of gathering, which is a collaboration with utter strangers at the same time and place, is on the one hand, and the burden of following all formal procedures and plans is on the other hand. That is to say, rather than being a burden on face-to-face meetings caused by COVID-19, it could be seen as a burden on formal and specific conventional procedures. According to interviews, social or generational conflicts seem to be primary sources of a burden on collaboration, which is examined in detail in the next part.

6.2.3 Participation Being Regarded as a Luxurious Task

As mentioned earlier, in order to participate in the participatory budgeting system, recommendations or entrustments from each village to the mayor must be made, including public hearings, and meetings must be attended according to the time and place set by each local government. The procedures for public hearings (Ministry of Interior and Safety 2018) consist of four steps and are simple. First, a presider explains the topics and orders. Second, presenters (local stakeholders, including local authorities and residents) have presentations. Third, presenters mutually have a Q-and-A session. Finally, the audience expresses opinions. These procedures might seem to be straightforward.

However, more specifically, the main point that interviewees indicate is not about procedures during public hearings but about procedures of participating in public hearings. In particular, participants themselves should invest time, money, and study to participate in these systems and express their opinions, which could be a burdensome task for non-tourism-related residents. In other words, the simplified participatory procedures referred to by residents mean a method in which one could conveniently and efficiently convey opinions regardless of time, place, and form.

“For me, studying tourism to participate in the process feels like wasting time.” (I, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“Time and place are also a problem, and once you do not have sufficient knowledge, you cannot participate even if you want to.” (J, Gwangmyeong Resident)

In addition to time identified in chapter 5 as a critical barrier to residents, this chapter points out that place (venue) can also be a crucial barrier to residents. Although Gwangmyeong and Yongin are adjacent to Seoul, having the characteristics of typical commuter towns (Appendix 15), local governments usually hold public hearings during the daytime on weekdays. In the case of a public hearing in connection with establishing a basic plan for the green park area, Gwangmyeong City held it at 2 pm on Wednesday, August 11, 2021, and Yongin-si held it at 3 pm on Thursday, August 27, 2020, at each city hall. The briefing session regarding Gwangmyeong Cave development to communicate with residents was also held at

the Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center on July 18, 2019, which Thursday.

Residents have said that it is practically impossible even though they are interested in participating in tourism development as they cannot take the time. Interview participant B (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation) corroborates this mention, saying that they have not been able to encompass various stakeholders as the same people always attend the meetings. That is, the current systems, including public hearings and participatory budgeting systems, do not fully consider various residents corresponding to the working populations and students, and accordingly, only a small number of residents could attend steadily. Numerous studies have emphasised that the actual participation of diverse local stakeholders in tourism development is a fundamental aspect of the implementation of CBT initiatives (Dangi and Jamal 2016; Giampiccoli and Saayman 2018; Jamal and Getz 1995; Mak, Cheung, and Hui 2017; Nair and Hamzah 2015; Zielinski, Jeong, and Milanés 2021). In this regard, doubts might arise as to whether these systems could accommodate various stakeholders' opinions when only a small number of people could attend due to restrictions on physical conditions such as time and place.

6.3 Discussions of Simplified Tourism Development Procedures

The critical point of this chapter is the simplification of tourism development procedures. The simplification does not mean skipping or omitting interim procedures; first, it is to get away from the perception that only those with sufficient knowledge of the tourism field, such as 'experts', are eligible to participate.

As tourism industries and destinations are becoming more complicated with interrelated entities (Van der Zee, Gerrets, and Vanneste 2017) and collaboration in tourism planning is complicated (Jamal and Getz 1995), sufficient experiences and knowledge are required to deliver compound tourism products. In particular, participants should have prior knowledge of tourism to process collaborative governance with activities such as designating goals and tasks or monitoring ongoing progress. As Tosun (2000) has emphasised, without trained, educated or experienced experts, the participatory tourism development approach would have difficulties in practising.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, The Korean Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism launched Tour Dure, a local tourism development programme, in 2013. Given that Dure is a cooperative group of farmers or rural villages, this programme aims to develop local resources

into tourism products with collaborating activities among local stakeholders. However, residents who do not have any background in tourism are unaccustomed to this project. As a resident-led project, Tour Dure heavily depends on residents' capabilities. Residents have three years to operate the programme, but as Park (2017) has argued, three years is not adequate for educating local communities and expecting stable self-reliance growth. In village communities, residents have high solidarities but fewer capabilities. In this regard, this type of programme could be developed and conducted by external experts (Kim, Cho, and Han 2019), which is not differentiated from the traditional tourism development approach.

As such, in countries where CBT is well adopted, communities provide educational programmes for environmental protection and involve collaborative partnerships in the decision-making process. In countries where the concept is not well adapted, communities are not experienced or educated to provide those programmes, and professionals do not know how to incorporate the concept into planning and management (Tosun 2000).

Second, it is to seek universal participation by overcoming the shortcomings and limitations of the existing systems. Obviously, the most significant point in community-based development and local governance is the participation of residents. As Arnstein (2019) has argued, resident participation could be a tool to induce social reform that shares the community's benefits. That is, the power distribution derived from community participation enables residents to be empowered, and ultimately, benefits are shared with the community. As such, the positive impacts of community participation on residents in tourism development have been significantly highlighted (Cheng, Wu, Wang, and Wu 2019; Giampiccoli and Saayman 2018; Mearns 2012; Musadad 2018; Wondirad and Ewnetu 2019). Therefore, the next question should be how to induce communities to participate in the development process.

6.3.1 The Current Participatory Systems and Their Limitations

Procedures of Participatory Budgeting System and Public Hearings

In the case of theme parks operated by local governments, such as Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park, the Formulation of a Local Budget according to the Local Financial Act (2021) could be considered a way of community participation. In order to achieve fiscal democracy, residents can decide on the budget uses or put their priorities in the budget reflection through the participatory budgeting system (Kim, M. 2016). For example,

Gangneung Tourism Development Corporation (2021) conducted an on-site and online survey to gather public suggestions on future investment and business budget uses. The results are going to be reflected in the 2022 budget formulation.

In terms of Gwangmyeong City, they have operated the budgeting system for more than a decade. According to the '*Participatory Budgeting System Operation Plan*' (Gwangmyeong City 2020), procedures consist of six steps. Each city department reviews residents' suggestions, and the participatory budgeting system committee members review them. Next, the participatory budget mediation conference deliberates and prioritises suggestions. Again, the city's departments examine the budget, and the local council determines it. Examining the recruitment process of the conference, a deputy mayor takes the role of the president, and a chairperson of the committee plays the role of the deputy president, supporting a deputy mayor. Also, according to the legislation of Gwangmyeong City, this conference has a limitation of 15 members, and the number of public (from the city) and private members must remain the same. Also, Yongin City operates a participatory budgeting system. They conduct online voting before the priority of projects is decided. Later, relevant departments review and monitor suggested projects with the committee members. Finally, the standing committee and the budget committee approve the budget reflection.

Generally, *public hearings* (often referred to as public inquiries in the United Kingdom) have been regarded as an effective and democratic policy tool in the decision-making process for inducing residents' participation, enabling all relevant local stakeholders to expand views and increasing accountability on the procedure (Bawole 2013; Buttny 2010; Johnston, Pattie, and Rossiter 2013; Stark and Yates 2021; Zhong and Mol 2008).

Currently, in South Korea, the Administrative Procedures Act (2019) defines public hearings as the "procedure under which an administrative agency extensively collects opinions regarding administrative actions through open discussions from parties, etc., persons with expert knowledge and experience, and the general public". That is, it provides direct opportunities to have general people's ideas reflected in the policy-making process, having a purpose for the expansion of people's participation and collaboration in administrative procedures. In Article 38 of the same act, procedures on the announcement of holding public hearings stipulated that administrative authorities should inform information, including title, date, time and venue, key points, information about presenters and methods of application for presentation by fourteen days before of its opening.

Doubts on the Effectiveness of the Systems

Lee and Lee (2017) have classified the participatory budgeting system into three types: *resident-led*, *government-resident consultation*, and *government-led*. Among them, it could be seen that both cities advocate the resident-led type, given that committee and conference members actively participate in the process, playing significant roles in deciding projects. However, since the deputy mayor leads the conference and the local government makes the final decision, it could not be said that it is entirely a resident-led type. Moreover, as of 2020, Gwangmyeong City's operation scale on the budgeting system was ₩1bn (approx. £632k), which was only 0.1% of the total budget. Oh and Ryu (2018) argue that this system is more meaningful as a direct democratic system that ensures opportunities for participation than the budget itself. However, it is suspicious whether residents would substantially have much power during the process in a situation where the local government makes the final decision.

According to the studies on stages of community participation (Kantsperger, Thees, and Eckert 2019; Marzuki and Hay 2013; Tosun 1999), residents' participation has remained tokenism and pseudo stage in which there is an opportunity to be involved but is in the form of consultation by participating in public hearings or survey. In other words, residents are given opportunities to express their opinions, but questionnaires are ready-made, and local authorities still make the final decisions.

Likewise, the participation stage of residents in Gwangmyeong and Yongin has remained at the tokenism level as they could express their opinions via public hearings. Interviewees from Gwangmyeong have argued that public hearings are just a legal process, not hearing the public. That is to say, the decisions and principles have already been structured before the opening of public hearings, and this process ultimately aims to prevent civil complaints.

These issues have been constantly reported via various local media. Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation confronted criticism that key points were not shared before its opening and that presenters were biased (Jeong, S. 2017). Moreover, in 2021, regarding the new development of the tourism complex linked to Gwangmyeong Cave, Gwangmyeong City and developers have been embroiled in a controversy that they have sent the consent on estate development and use before submitting to public inspection (Kim, J. H. 2021). In other words, it could seem that they have ignored appropriate procedures by not displaying information or

providing clear explanations to landowners.

Interviewees in Yongin-si have revealed that Yongin City Agriculture Technology Center communicates only with the local council, and information about operating profits, expenditures or investment costs has not been shared with residents. Instead of holding public hearings, the center organises meetings as a form of education. However, H (Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association) has argued that it is a formalised structure without significant contents.

Ambiguous Scope of Residents' Authority

Participatory Budgeting Systems and *Public Hearings* are systems in which residents are legally guaranteed to participate in administrative procedures. These systems are regarded as a democratic tool that is able to achieve fiscal democracy, but debates continue over scopes of community participation (Kang and Nam 2018; Kim and Hyun 2016; Kim, M. 2018).

First, the active intervention of residents in the budgeting system overlaps with the functions of local councils, which could ultimately lead to the question of who will have the final decision-making power. South Korea has a system of parliamentary democracy in which residents do not directly decide on the national policy but elect their representatives to make decisions on behalf of the people. In this regard, there is a concern that it might damage the parliamentary democracy (Jang 2006; Kim, M. 2016). Another problem is the financial dependence of local governments on the central government. This rate of Gwangmyeong City and Yongin City is respectively 58.38% and 59.36% as of 2021; both decreased compared to 2017 (63.35% and 70.08%) (Ministry of the Interior and Safety n.d.). That is, in a situation in which the central government greatly influences local governments in terms of budget (Hwang 2020), and there is a lack of room to change this fiscal structure (Heo 2014), it is suspicious whether residents substantially participate in the budgeting system and the fiscal democracy could be achieved.

In this regard, C (Hakon-dong Administration Welfare Center) has emphasised the necessity of stipulating the financial autonomy of systems in order to guarantee the budget used according to residents' will and not to damage parliament democracy. That is, the current participatory budgeting system ensures residents' participation in the decision-making procedures, but excessive participation possibly infringes on the imperativeness of parliament

democracy. Therefore, what C argues is to ensure the active intervention of local communities while preventing infringement of the authority of the representative system of local councils by legally stipulating a certain percentage of the total budget.

Declining Power of Residents' Representatives

In participatory procedures such as budgeting systems or public hearings, problems about the representativeness of participating residents are pointed out. That is, the question is how much the opinions of minor participants reflect and represent the entire residents' opinions.

Unlike members of councils or the heads of local governments elected, the budgeting system committee members of Gwangmyeong and Yongin are recommended by each small community, in which these minor participants' ideas will be crucially reflected (Kim, M. 2016). As Chang, Y. (2016) has indicated, the active participation of these minorities could confront the active opposition of the majorities, resulting in increased social conflict.

Hakon-dong residents have revealed that the urban corporation has only communicated with two of nine villages about the new development nearby Gwangmyeong Cave. Most village leaders, including D (Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders), have been excluded from the communication with a reason for not living in these two villages despite being critical members of a business agreement with the urban corporation. Furthermore, about 60 residents attended the presentation held in 2019 regarding the Gwangmyeong Cave development, which is a tiny portion compared to the number of populations in Hakon-dong (2,377; 2.52%) and Gwangmyeong-si (322,494; 0.02%). Since the impact of development extends not only to the two villages but also to the entire Hakon-dong and Gwangmyeong-si, the question remains as to whether minority opinions could represent the entire region.

In terms of Yongin, H has been a member of the Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association. This association has been explained as a spontaneous research association; however, H has revealed that it was organised by the city, not by residents. Also, members are limited to rural experience farm operators, not encompassing the entire community. Since it has been managed by the city, members are notified of their participation by the city. Moreover, H has mentioned that the association is somewhat superficial as it is closer to a social gathering. As there are no public hearings or budgeting systems in connection with the theme park, it is challenging for residents to intervene. In particular, it seems somewhat

unreasonable to expand participation to ordinary residents in a state of lack of communication between tourism-related stakeholders, which could be representatives.

Regardless of industries, the legitimization of resident participants' representativeness has been a significant issue in the collaborative procedures (Arnstein 2019; Bawole 2013; Meier, Pardue, and London 2012; Zhong and Mol 2008). In order to avoid token participation, Jamal and Getz (1995) have emphasised the necessity of community service organisations such as business representatives or local chambers. That is, it might be more effective to have these organisations that represent residents' interests.

In the Korean context, civic groups, including non-governmental organisations (NGOs), have played various significant roles, such as partners (Kim and Lim 2017) or surveillants (Yoon 2001) of local governments, and leaders of social movements (Huh and Cho 2018). In particular, as mentioned, the Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council is actively concerned with Gwangmyeong Cave's management, publicising statements on the wrong policies and requesting the release of information.

However, F (Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council) has mentioned that their range of activities and positions has narrowed. That is, the influence of civic groups has decreased significantly compared to before. According to the survey on the public perception of civic groups (KIPA 2021), as of 2020, reliability (46.7%, p.184) and integrity (42.4%, p.201) do not exceed half. According to the same survey, the public generally responds that civic groups strive to resolve social conflicts (p.47), but 64.2% (p.215) say that cooperation between the government and civic groups is not achieved. In other words, as the politicisation of civic groups continues, awareness of the influence of and consequences created by civic groups has decreased. It is true that the impact of COVID-19 adversely affected the face-to-face culture of civic groups (KIPA 2021), but Lim, Kim, and Kim (2021) have pointed out a decline in residents' trust in civic groups. Political and ideological conflicts between civic groups have been the primary reason for the decline in trust, especially criticism that civic groups are not based on civic intentions nor participation but are being used as channels to enter the political world (Jeong 2016; Lim 2019).

F (Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council) has indicated that another reason for that decline in civic groups' influences could be found in the advent of Me-media (personal media), which is defined as a "collective term for online services that allow a user to post his

or her own content” (Collins dictionary 2021). Unlike in the past, when there was a clear boundary and distinction between content providers and consumers in conventional media, the boundary has now been broken down online. Anyone can create, produce, and share their content through various online channels - social media, LinkedIn, YouTube, Twitch, or Afreeca TV (a Korean internet broadcasting service). These online-based Me-media have rapidly substituted analogue methods that civic groups take, such as knowledge sharing (Bellini, Montserrat, Naesens, Neyens, Schneeberger, and Berney 2021), attracting the public’s interest (Lee, S. and Kim, J. 2018), representing the public stances (Smith 2017) and forming public opinions (Asker and Dinas 2019).

Nevertheless, in a survey (KIPA 2021: 133-138) asking if they (the public) have experienced expressing their opinions online on political and social issues, 79.3% respond that they have never experienced it, and 67.2% of the total respondents answer that they have no intention of doing it in the future. Even if the survey is expanded offline, 83.7% have no experience presenting their opinions to the government or the media, and 66.2% have never participated in a signature-seeking campaign. In addition, 83.9% have never submitted petitions, and 84.8% have never expressed their opinions to public officials or politicians. Besides, 80.9% have never participated in demonstrations or rallies.

6.3.2 Web-based Participation as a Simplified Procedure

The need for expansion and transition to participation using online tools has been emphasised, especially among residents, to overcome the limitations of space and time of the current systems and deliver their intentions more conveniently. Interviews have confirmed that the working conditions of residents have become the cause of the inability to participate in the current participatory systems. Local authorities and civic groups are also aware of this issue; in particular, they have pointed out the characteristics of bed towns as a cause of the inability to encompass the opinions of various local stakeholders. In other words, participation in tourism development through the current systems occurs only within a specific time and place and among a small number of participants who meet these conditions. In this regard, residents have argued that the participation of more diverse stakeholders should be ensured and expanded through simplified and straightforward procedures, namely the use of online tools.

The interesting point from the interviews is that residents demanded web-based

participatory systems, which would overcome these physical limitations, using Kakao Talk, Naver Form, or Google Survey. Among them, Kakao Talk is the most popular South Korean messenger application, having a 98% market share for mobile message applications¹⁵ and approximately 45m users¹⁶ in South Korea as of 2022 (Kakao Corporation 2022). This application enables local authorities, enterprises, or organisations to operate their channels to communicate with residents, customers, or users directly. Both Gwangmyeong and Yongin have their channels for news on local festivals, urban development, city-related affairs, and civic counselling, operating twenty-four hours. In particular, the participation of young residents through Kakao Talk might seem more straightforward and more efficient in that millennials¹⁷ mainly access news through social media such as Kakao Talk (Seol 2018). Another procedure that can be considered is using an online survey tool, such as Survey Monkey, Qualaroo, Google Survey, or Propops Survey Maker.

“I am willing to attend a public hearing, but I think it would be difficult to express my opinions comfortably during that event. Therefore, I hope there is a simplified and concise participatory form using Naver Form or Google Survey. These online-based systems would encompass more diverse age groups.” (J, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“I tend to participate actively when the method is simple and concise. Meetings like neighbourhood meetings are not preferred these days, especially for young people. Residents do not even try to get together well. I think the online-based Naver Form or Google Survey is appropriate.” (K, Yongin Resident)

“I feel much pressure on on-site meetings. Also, modern people find it difficult to attend these events. I hope to have opinions gathered through online-based channels such as Google Surveys. How could people answer questions when they are not prepared to attend a public hearing? If residents participate in the process via online survey platforms, they would have sufficient time to think about an issue more in detail.” (L, Yongin Resident)

¹⁵ calculated by the service dwell time

¹⁶ the population of South Korea is 51.63m as of 2022 (KOSIS n.d.).

¹⁷ born between 1982 and 2000

These online tools have been frequently utilised in academia and industries, having advantages including the availability of obtaining large samples (Evans and Mathur 2005), the high flexibility that is not constrained on time and space (Hwangbo and Kim 2019) and cost-effectivity (Tenforde, Sainani, and Fredericson 2010). In the Korean context, Google Survey and Naver Form are the most frequently used by office workers in various industries, such as IT workers, marketers, researchers, and designers (Opensurvey 2021). As Naver shows the highest usage (74.8%) as a search portal site compared to Google (15.8%) (Opensurvey 2021a), residents are also aware of how to utilise the Naver Form.

However, online tools might be challenging for the elders. Both B (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation) and C (Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center) have mentioned difficulties in online communication with elders. As mentioned before, the digital divide has been derived from the low level of internet accessibility, capability and utilisation of information have-nots, such as the elders or farmers and fishers (Kim and Sung 2020; Lee and Lee 2018; Ministry of Science and ICT (MSIT) and National Information Society Agency (NIA) 2020; NIA 2021). In particular, the advent of the ‘new normal’ era, according to COVID-19, has accelerated the entrance of digital services, which intensifies the digital divide of these groups (Bae, S. 2021; Sung 2020; Yoon and Son 2021). Bae and Shin (2021) have identified that 70.6% of residents in Gyeonggi-do have objected to operating only a 100% online system when applying for public services. Given that difficulties of information have-nots in dealing with digital devices are the primary reason for the objection, simplified online participation in tourism development could isolate vulnerable groups.

To conclude this chapter, online resident participation has mainly been conducted in Public Participation Geographic Information Systems (PPGIS) (Kantola, Uusitalo, Nivala, and Tuulentie 2018; Muñoz, Hausner, Brown, Runge, and Fauchald 2019; Waleghwa and Heldt 2022). This system facilitates public participation in tourist destinations, including protected areas. However, the fundamental function is related to a mapping project, which identifies spatial values and attractions, which is different from the simplified online participation of this study. As a study of the existing face-to-face resident-participatory development process, this study contributes to new knowledge by analysing and discussing simplified online participation in tourism development.

Chapter 7. Social Coordination among Residents

Coordinating activities among local stakeholders have been regarded as a critical factor in solving local issues and formulating local tourism governance, which has led prior studies to focus on stakeholders' interactions in decision-making procedures. As a crucial perspective of this study, coordination activities among residents are further examined.

7.1 Indifferent Attitudes of Residents toward Theme Park Development

This part corroborates Tosun's (2000) argument that residents who have been excluded from participation for a long time have become apathetic to participation. In addition, Tosun's other argument corroborates the finding of this study that residents are apathetic unless they are motivated. However, Tosun's study and a few post studies, including Dogra and Gupta (2012) and Kala and Bagri (2018), have been confined to examining economically poor communities, creating an academic gap. Unlike these studies, this part shows that residents' indifferent attitudes have derived from residents' lack of experience and motivation. Whereas motivation examined in chapter 6 is related to monetary aspects, this chapter looks at motivation related to residents' awareness of tourism industries and interdependence as a stakeholder.

7.1.1 Low Level of Awareness of Tourism Industries

Residents show a low level of awareness of tourism industries such as *theme parks* and *operators*. First, residents think they have nothing to do with the local theme park development because they think the development is the city's concern, not theirs.

"Tourism development is in charge of the city. We do not have any empowerment and are not interested. (...) Resident' daily lives are hectic, and they are indifferent to the development." (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

"I think residents have nothing to do with the theme park development. Communication, involvement or deliberative procedures are none of my business. I cannot order Yongin to do this and to do that. There is nothing wrong with creating a theme park in this region. From my perspective, theme park

development is not a concern to me, nor a thing that requires deliberative procedures.” (H, Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association)

“I do not think tourism development is for me. I cannot pay attention to other things. It is hard to make ends meet, then how come I can pay attention to tourism development?” (L, Yongin Resident)

Second, residents are not interested in the activities of public organisations such as Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation and Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center.

“I do not think the residents have anything to do with the urban corporation. Residents do not want to know much more information and are not interested in development.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“Gwangmyeong citizens do not even know whether the urban corporation exists. Citizens are not aware of Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation and of what they do.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

“I did not even know whether the corporation exists until before this interview.” (I, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“Whatever facilities are created in Yongin Agricultural Theme Park, I do not need to be involved, and the city does not have an obligation to notify me. (...) I have never thought of requesting information such as revenue, investment costs, or expenditures from Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center.” (H, Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association)

As shown in Chart 5.1, both Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation and Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center are affiliated public organisations that operate with residents’ taxes. Therefore, these taxes are injected into planning and developing these two theme parks as significant tourism projects. However, residents show no interest in checking the development process or the flow of tax usage in local theme parks.

7.1.2 Low Level of Awareness of Interdependence

First, it has been revealed that a degree of interest is affected by a degree of exposure to local issues. As mentioned in part about lack of knowledge and information, Gwangmyeong is a representative commuter town where most citizens work in nearby regions such as Seoul. B (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation), C (Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center), and F (Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council) have responded in the same way that it is an environmental factor.

“It is an environmental aspect that even though we promote the meeting with a better channel, those who are not exposed could not know the information.” (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

“I have never heard about Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center as they are related to farming, which is far from me.” (K, Yongin Resident)

As most citizens spend more time in other regions than Gwangmyeong, they cannot get any information during working hours and naturally have more interest in other regions' policies. According to F (Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council), several Gwangmyeong citizens have connectedness toward Seoul, not Gwangmyeong.

Second, residents tend to show less interest in participating in the decision-making process unless they have a direct interest. In particular, they are only interested in participation when it comes to certain financial benefits.

“The most challenging thing is that even though we try to hold a meeting to gather citizens' opinions, only people who always participate come. Only those interested in the pending issues participate, and it is a structure that people participate in what is a benefit for them.” (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

“Residents actively participate if there is financial compensation.” (G, Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center)

“The degree of participation is higher for those who possess the land.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

“Participation requires too much investigation, time and study. Which benefits would be returned to me on those investments? Feeling worthwhile is not enough” (K, Yongin Resident)

On the contrary, those who do not have any financial interest could not substantially feel the effect of tourism development, thinking that they are not related to theme parks.

“Nothing could be felt in residents’ bones. I do not see any possibilities that community participation would go well in the future.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

“There is no obligation for a small farm (where H operates) to order the theme park operated by Yongin to do this.” (H, Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association)

These responses seem to be derived from the perception that tourism (including theme parks) and residents’ lives are divided so that there are no linking points. Instead of perceiving theme parks as local tourism resources or opportunities to revitalise the local economy, residents, especially those who do not live nearby theme parks, perceive them as nothing more than simply theme parks. In particular, even though experience farms are linked with Yongin Agricultural Theme Park as a tourism network, they do not feel the necessity to be interested in the theme park’s operation.

To sum up, this part deals with a low level of interest in participating in tourism development. Prior studies have confirmed that time and money (Tosun 2000) or limited capacity (Bello, Lovelock, and Carr 2017) block people from interest. In addition to these findings, it has been identified from the interviews that there is a significant gap in the sense of distance between residents and theme parks. In particular, even though local theme parks in Korea are created and operated by local governments with residents’ taxes, residents perceive that nothing is related to them. Especially, residents who do not have a direct stake think that they are not affected by other stakeholders’ behaviour in local theme park planning and

management, showing a lack of interdependence. These responses seem to be derived as they have never substantially felt or considered the effect of theme park development on their lives. The consciousness that they are not related to theme park development or other stakeholders has remained a barrier for them to participate.

7.2 Relationship between the Ageing Society and Residents' Participation

In prior research, the ageing issue has received less attention as a barrier to community participation. However, through qualitative interviews, it has been identified that communities' ageing has acted as a barrier to participation. There is no official standard for classifying the ageing society, but the UN and OECD have defined the ageing society as people aged 65 and over. This age group is the main focus of this part.

Demographically, statistics on the population of Hakon-dong (Gwangmyeong) and Wonsam-myeon (Yongin), where each local theme park is located, show that approximately one-third of residents among the total are aged 65 and over (Table 5.2).

[Table 5.2] The Percentage of People Aged 65 and Over between 2018 and 2021

(unit: %)

	2018	2019	2020	2021
Hakon-dong	26.56	28.96	30.47	31.79
Wonsam-myeon	24.99	25.84	27.02	28.22

(Ministry of the Interior and Safety n.d.)

Table 5.2 shows that the percentage of both regions has kept increasing. These ageing societies are expected to be intensified given that the potential population who will be aged 65 and over comprises a significant proportion; people aged between 50 and 64 as of 2021 in both regions comprise 32.46% (Hakon-dong) and 31.08% (Wonsam-myeon) (for the population according to age groups of each region, see Appendix 13 and 14).

The reason why the ageing society is a barrier to community participation is not that they are merely too old to participate. This part deals with two primary reasons: *psychological*

anxiety about the change and maladjustment to digital technology.

7.2.1 Psychological Anxiety about the Change

First, elderly residents feel anxiety about change, such as the new development plan for Gwangmyeong Cave.

“Leaders of a senior citizen organisation are in the 80s. As the average age of residents is high, they are worried about the change. They were dispirited when they heard that this village would be turned into new flats and an industrial complex. They have lived only in this village for hundreds of years since their ancestors, but they might lose the village. Residents think the atmosphere in former days would have disappeared.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

One reason could be that their physical conditions are not the same as those of their younger ages. Psychologically, aged people show less openness to the new one (Martin, Long, and Poon 2002; Terracciano, McCrae, and Costa 2008) derived to anxiety. What they are primarily concerned about is not new flats and industrial complexes. Instead, they are concerned about the change in the atmosphere in their villages. In other words, they feel anxious about accepting the new atmosphere that they have never experienced before.

H (Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association) has said that aged people tend to gloss over theme park issues. On the psychological state that aged people are less open and active, Yoon (1989) has explained that it is because the time perspective has changed with age. It means that as they have lived more time than their left lives, they focus on maintaining the status quo instead of expanding their activities, having more passive attitudes. Therefore, as G (Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center) has responded, the aged residents play a role in encouraging younger generations instead of actively participating in the development process.

7.2.2 Maladjustment to Digital Technology

The first reason that maladjustment to digital technology would cause a significant barrier for the aged people to participate is finding difficulties in checking information online,

and there are limitations to having information provided correctly from the city.

“It is much more difficult for elders to check information provided online. Most elders are from rural areas; internet accessibility is low. That is why the city cannot provide information correctly, and information on suggestions and collections is not shared.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

“We used to make a complete proposal for the community participation, but Gwnagmyeong-si recruits and notices online.” (D, Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders)

South Korea is a well-known country for high-advanced digital technology. As of 2021 (NIA 2022), South Korea’s household internet access rate was 99.9%, and the Internet usage rate was 93%, which was digitised in various daily fields, including education, economic activities, and banking. In this regard, conversion to online societies rapidly proliferated among young generations, including meetings in their workplaces and social gatherings. However, this trend has not proliferated to the aged groups. According to the survey on Internet usage conducted by NIA (2022), the Internet usage rate of those over the 70s in 2021 was 49.7%, which is the lowest and the only group below 90%. Also, in 2021, compared to the general public, the level of digital informatisation among the aged people is 69.1%, and the farmers and fishers are 78.1%, which is lower than groups of people with disabilities (81.7%) and lower-income (95.4%) (MSIT and NIA 2022). These statistics prove that the aged group has not successfully adjusted to technology development and has become the information-disadvantaged group.

Given that aged people’s purposes for using the Internet are primarily for communication through messenger applications (the 60s 97% and the 70s 89.1%) and watching videos (the 60s 87.5% and the 70s 68.7%) (NIA 2022: 44), they are not used to having online meetings or education for tourism development. Therefore, they are limited from obtaining the information and knowledge needed for collaboration and participation in the tourism development process.

The second reason is that the Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) has advanced with the advent of the new digital technology, so-called *contactless*. Since the pandemic has

lasted for longer than expected, the South Korean central government has announced the expansion of *untact*¹⁸ services to keep up with the transition to the digital government. Also, in Korean tourism industries, digital technologies such as artificial intelligence (AI), big data, and the Internet of Things (IoT) have been discussed to create a smart and digital tourism system. In accordance with the proliferation of contactless culture, local governments, including Gwangmyeong and Yongin, have held online presentations for residents and public hearings using online platforms such as Zoom or YouTube. As such, contactless technologies and culture are expected to be vitalised.

However, it causes confusion and inconvenience to aged people. G (Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center) has said that COVID-19 has impacted farmers who operate experience tourism farms. Due to the nature of experience tourism, activities could not be transited to be contactless, and all festivals in Yongin Agricultural Theme Park had to be suspended. Also, A (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation) has said that all activities, such as exchanging opinions or dining with residents, have been suspended. The more severe problem is that as the elders are not used to utilising online platforms, activities of collaboration or participation cannot be achieved.

“We have met residents once this year (2020) due to COVID-19. Internet infrastructure has not been appropriately constructed in rural areas, and the elders are over in their 70s; they are not used to online meetings. The contactless meeting is not feasible.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

“We are gradually preparing the contactless administration due to COVID-19, but it is difficult for the elders who are not used to it” (B, Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)

To sum up, this part deals with how an ageing society could affect community participation in tourism development. Here, two changes are identified: *psychological* and *circumstantial*. First, aged people prefer maintaining to changing. One of the reasons is that they worry about losing their current value due to the new development linked to openness. As their time perspective has changed with age, they want to focus more on stability than activities,

¹⁸ a Korean neologism meaning contactless by combining the prefix ‘un’ in front of the word ‘contact’.

becoming more passive. Therefore, instead of active participation in tourism development, they choose to encourage younger generations. Second, the global pandemic has advanced the advent of a contactless culture based on digital technology. However, as the statistics show, their level of digital informatisation is low, which means that they do not have sufficient capabilities to follow the trend. A new way to communicate and collaborate using contactless platforms has emerged and is widely used, but it is challenging for aged people to utilise them. This information-disadvantaged circumstance persistently creates inconvenience, which eventually becomes a significant barrier for aged people to participate in tourism development.

7.3 Three Main Relationships in Social Coordination of Residents

A barrier occurred by the age gap has not been well-introduced or focused on in other similar studies on resident-participatory approaches. Also, in previous studies such as Tosun's (2000), there have been cases of studying the attitudes of the elite. However, the relationship between socially implicit and invisible classes and residents' willingness to participate in theme park development has not received much attention. Therefore, this part examines the impact of age on residents' participation and their perception in accordance with intergenerational and interpersonal relationships, presenting hierarchy based on age and collectivism as critical barriers to residents' participation.

Jamal and Getz (1995) have mentioned that some groups who find themselves less influential would hesitate to participate in collaborative tourism development. In South Korea, younger individuals or groups feel difficulties participating in the development process when older individuals or groups exist. As *age* has been a crucial factor in explaining Korean society, those people tend to think they would not have much influence while participating in the process. This issue applies not only to families but also to the general public. Therefore, this part deals with three cases that negatively affect participation in tourism development: within families, seniors and juniors, and the elders and the youth.

7.3.1 Within Families

The first relationship is within families. As one of the Confucian cultural areas, South Korea has been affected by this culture. However, the traditional value of Confucianism has

been distorted over time. There are moral guidelines titled the ‘*Three Bonds and Five Relationships*’ in Confucianism. One of the five relationships is the relationship between the old and the youth, meaning there should be an order. Initially, this norm is related to respecting elders and being polite to them (Shim, Inumiya, Yoon, Suh, Zhang, and Han 2012).

However, this norm has consolidated the relationship between subordinates (children or the youth) and superiors (parents or the elders), creating a more authoritarian relationship, which is regarded as an adverse effect of Confucianism (Kim, D. 2018). In this kind of obedient relationship, the youth find difficulties expressing their opinions.

“This village (Hakon-dong) consists of farming settlements. One regional characteristic is that residents are families. Thus, a town consists of a family. Families are connected, so the elderly family members are crucially considered. In this relationship, the youth cannot set forth a counterargument. Even though there are not many populations, it is not very easy to express opinions as they are connected. The youth feel uncomfortable participating in activities in which their fathers are active.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

This conservative and Confucian-value-based characteristic is prominently manifested in rural areas in which families collectively reside. Even a village leader (the Council for Hakon-dong Tongs Leaders), who plays a role in delivering local issues to the Administrative Welfare Center and collaborating with other leaders to solve them, is elected by the elders in a family, not by other residents. Elders have the most power in the decision-making process. Therefore, the youth feel much pressure and are uncomfortable while participating in the process with their fathers’ generation, making them decide not to participate. C (Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center) has recognised other residents’ dissatisfaction with this issue but said there is no way to block the elders from participating.

7.3.2 Seniors and Juniors

The second case occurs in the relationship between seniors and juniors. Being influenced by the Confucian culture, the hierarchy based on age has been accepted naturally in South Korea (Nam, Kim, and Nam 2014; Lee, E. 2020). In particular, the classification of grades that begins at school is divided into the upper and lower classes, creating a forceful

hierarchy.

“Even in electing a leader, the junior-senior relationship is significantly considered. (...) In a senior and junior relationship, juniors cannot make a counterargument.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

“As Gwangmyeong was a rural village, the senior-junior relationship in high schools has been significantly considered.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

A rigid hierarchy has an advantage. The firm command system enables a group to conduct a project efficiently, strengthening collectivism. However, this hierarchy impedes individuals’ autonomy (Hwang and Jang 2020), influencing individuals in the decision-making process to narrow their position to express opinions (So 2010). The problem with age-based hierarchy is that it does not change permanently once established (Lee, E. 2020). Given that seniors are more concerned about the relationship than an issue when they conflict with juniors (Moon and Han 2013), a conversation becomes a conflict, and local issues become their issue. As Jamal and Getz (1995) have mentioned, those who feel less influential are reluctant to participate in the tourism planning process. The hierarchy based on the junior-senior relationship makes juniors unsure of their participation and eventually damages the value of collaboration within Hakon-dong society in the Gwangmyeong Cave development process.

7.3.3 The Elders and the Youth

The third case is the hierarchy between the elders and the youth. A prior study has found that the youth feel uncomfortable communicating with their elders and tend to avoid communicating with them (Yang 2020). Reasons for this issue can be found in the Korean language (honorific and plain speeches) (Moon and Han 2013) and social decency (Yang 2020). The responses are close to the latter reason.

“Members who have been working for decades are still active. Thus, the young generation tends to give up participating in activities, thinking that they would not have the right to say in a meeting where there are lots of local natives.” (C, Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center)

“Generations among the population have been more polarised than you think. (...) It is said that residents’ autonomy organisations are open to the public, but these organisations are in a state where only pre-existing participants keep participating. Also, these organisations are authorised so that young people are challenged to express their opinions; thus, it is an authoritarian structure for the youth to participate.” (F, Gwangmyeong Citizens’ Association Council)

Yang (2020) has found that South Koreans’ consciousness of decency has negatively affected intergenerational communication. According to Yang’s research, social decency is the authoritarian cultural variable, meaning the degree of sensitivity to the eyes of others within a group. In South Korean society, where age becomes the authority (Kang 2008), the elders perceive the youth’s expressions as a revolt against authority (Moon and Han 2013). In this regard, rather than being suppressed and feeling constrained, younger generations decide not to participate.

“I would be unwilling to participate in the decision-making process in which there are many seniors. They always point out what they are unsatisfied with; however, their insists are absolute nonsense.” (J, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“Expressing my opinions to the elders is a burden. I feel the pressure in that hierarchy. I feel much hesitant about joining the group, which consists of the elders. It is challenging and burdensome for me to communicate with aged people.” (L, Yongin Resident)

Another significant thing to pay attention to is that conflicts between the old and the young generations have intensified in the centre of the word *kkondae*. Although its exact definitions and etymology do not exist, various researchers have studied this word as a social phenomenon (Shim 2020) or social psychology (Min 2019). BBC introduced *kkondae* as the word of the day in 2019, defining it as a ‘condescending older person’ (Kim, S. Z. 2019). That is, the proliferation of *kkondae* culture accelerates the communication gap among generations and intensifies social conflicts, creating significant barriers to community participation.

“To be honest, this ‘*kkondae*’ culture is everywhere. It never could be eliminated. Seniors’ attitudes

toward my opinions have affected my future actions. I have experienced that the elders treated me like a child and ignored my every opinion during the participation. This culture is a considerable concern when participating in tourism development. I would not collaborate with them as long as those accumulated experiences remain in my head.” (I, Gwangmyeong Resident)

“The reason for the youth to avoid the elders is that they think it is useless to express opinions within the ‘kkondae’ group; this is the universal perception among the youth. Every Korean faces this issue at least once in their lifetime, and it happens every day. They cannot express their opinions in a circumstance where the age hierarchy is intensively established. The age would affect my participation considerably.” (K, Yongin Resident)

As such, these respondents oppose collaborating with the elders, saying that they would not participate in the process due to the kkondae culture.

Collaboration in tourism development is the consent-oriented procedure (Bichler and Lösch 2019; Bramwell and Sharman 1999; Jamal and Getz 1995; UNEP and UNWTO 2005), which implies that residents’ participation is the critical element. However, interviews have revealed that collaborations in theme park development have not been well implemented in the Korean context. In particular, residents have mentioned the burden of gathering, which makes them reluctant to collaborate with utter strangers, especially with those older than them.

7.4 Discussions of Social Conflicts in the Intra-Group Relationship

In general, the intra-group conflicts mainly stem from factors such as incompatibilities of personalities and viewpoints and lack of communication, and conflicts that arise at this point increase annoyance and hatred toward other internal members and raise tension among members, ultimately hindering collaborative procedures (Almost, Doran, Hall, and Laschinger 2010; Jiang, Flores, Leelawong, and Manz 2014; Kim, J. B. 2021; Medina, Muduate, Dorado, Martínez-Corts, and Guerra 2005; Naseer and Fazal 2019).

Therefore, this part examines and discusses the conflicts between residents based on cultural aspects of South Korea. As mentioned earlier, Korean societies have been greatly influenced by two cultures: *Confucianism* and *Collectivism*. These two cultures have resulted in intergenerational conflict and interpersonal conflict. Intergenerational conflict, represented

by the word ‘kkondae’ and interpersonal conflict, represented by the word ‘nunchi’, are the core of this part.

7.4.1 Kkondae at the Peak of the Intergenerational Conflict

Confucianism was established and systemised by Confucius during the Spring and Autumn period (about BC 700s - 400s) in China. Due to the geographical proximity, this culture was introduced to the Korean peninsula during the period of the Three States (about BC 57 - AD 668). Even though the value and influence of Confucianism have been weakened along with the acceptance of Western civilisation and during the Japanese colonial era, it still affects Korean society in forming cultural identities and social norms (Chung 2020; Kim and Kim 2020; Yi 2010; Yoon and Kim 2019).

In the ‘*Analects*’, Confucius once mentioned changes in attitudes according to hierarchical up-and-down relationships. Park (2011) has explained it as a *made-body*; actions, such as lower or higher one’s behaviour, are performed according to the opponent’s class. For example, a child who meets an adult bows to express respect. When shaking hands with a line manager, an employee shows courtesy by holding the left hand under the right arm. This hierarchical element has been deeply rooted in Korean society, and children grow up learning the behavioural patterns of hierarchies at home and school (Chung 2020). One notable thing is that hierarchy appears not only in behaviours but also in language use (Lee 2007).

There are elements of honorific and informal speech in Korean, which should be used interchangeably according to the other person’s class along with behaviours. For example, in a relationship between a teacher and a student, it is natural for a teacher to use informal speech to a student and for a student to use honorific speech to a teacher. One interesting point is that a teacher can use honorific speech to a student, but a student never uses informal speech to a teacher. That is, the higher-class side (a teacher) has no restrictions on the way of speaking, but the lower-class side (a student) has.

In this vertical relationship, the distinction of behaviour patterns and language uses between classes is developed into power that governs subordinates (Yun and Hwang 2011). South Korea could be seen as a country with a robust hierarchical culture as Koreans ask age to their first encounter to identify a relationship between subordinates and superiors (Kim, H. 2010). Kang (2013) has observed numerous cases in companies where if a person younger is

appointed as a line manager, he/she feels uncomfortable or leaves the workplace. A study of infants (4 and 5 years old) in mixed-age all-day classes (Ryu and Hong 2006) has found that four-year-olds are under stress from age hierarchy in their relationship with five-year-olds. Moreover, the main reason for most accidental murders in the 2010s was the subordinate's informal speech to the superior (Son 2021). If a subordinate does not use correct behaviour or language, the superior feels humiliated and ashamed, leading to a terrible incident.

In the workplace and the military, with a definite position system, this relationship also appears among residents in local communities, which is the hierarchy according to age. Jeong, Yun, Lee, and Byun (2021) have mentioned communication and interaction, regardless of age or experience, as significant factors in organisational justice. However, speaking and acting in consideration of age is enforced as a social norm (Lee 2007), and this inequality makes interrelationships increasingly challenging. In particular, in qualitative interviews, residents (I, J, K, and L) have mentioned their negative experiences with older generations. They have cited forced respect for older people, having their opinions neglected, and older people's obstinacy as uncomfortable factors in collaborating in theme park development. That is to say, they feel that these procedures and relationships based on age hierarchy are incredibly unequal, which significantly reduces motivation for collaboration.

Since the Korean War, Korean society has shown rapid changes in various fields, such as industrialisation, democratisation, westernisation and ageing, to the extent that it has been described as a "social upheaval" (Chung, Lee, Park, Shin, and Kim 2021: 230). Differences in experiences between generations create incompatible values and beliefs, which cause conflicts between generations (Chung, Lim, Hong, Park, and Choi 2018; Sul and Kim 2020; You 2015). According to surveys, the Korean people perceive a lack of mutual understanding between individuals and groups as one of the leading causes of social conflict (KIPA 2021: 70), and, in fact, in intergenerational communication, 40.4% of the elderly find it difficult, while 90% of young adults and middle-aged people find it challenging (National Human Rights Commission of Korea 2018: 94).

In particular, there is a vast difference in perception between young people and the elderly regarding *respect* and *preferential treatment*. The elderly hope to have their social contributions appropriately evaluated and have the young generations been polite to them (Kim, J. 2015). However, the young generations, especially the millennials, reject this traditional notion that they should unconditionally treat the elderly just because they are older, requesting

a human-to-human manner (Kim, Y. S. 2019).

These perception differences lead beyond generational conflict to express hate toward a specific generation (Chung et al. 2021; Kim, J. 2015; National Human Rights Commission of Korea 2018), and that is the kkondae mentioned earlier by the residents who participated in interviews.

While the National Institute of Korean Language says that there is no etymological data on the word kkondae, JoongAng (Jeong, E. 2017), one of the major Korean newspapers, has written an article assuming the two etymologies; the first theory is that it originated from the pupa. Beondegi is a pupa in Korean, which is called Kkondegi according to the dialect of the Yeongnam (Southern East) districts. That is, there is a story that the word has been developed for kkondae, indicating that the elders have many wrinkles, like a pupa. The second theory is related to Comte, which is a French word. During the Japanese colonial era, the Japanese government awarded pro-Japanese groups titles like Comte, which they were proud of and called themselves kkondae (Japanese pronunciation of Comte). That is, there is a story that the word kkondae has been solidified by criticism of these pro-Japanese behaviours.

The youth's slang for authoritative school teachers or fathers in the 1970s has been widely used in modern times as an expression referring to the "condescending older person" introduced by the BBC (Kim, S. Z. 2019). The scope of kkondae has been expanded beyond the elderly, which Kim, Lee, and Chae (2021: 6) have defined as a "person or such attitude that stubbornly requires standards and values that they believe are right regardless of other people's intentions". Also, Shim (2020: 308) has referred to the "act of imposing one's obsolete way of thinking on others". The most common expressions of people referred to as kkondae include *Are you trying to teach me?*, *It was more challenging than you in my days*. *How dare you talk back to me?* (Kim, S. Y. 2016; Min 2019; Shim 2020).

Lee, Ko, and Choi (2021) have derived attribution error, cognitive rigidity and unilateral communication as the three constituent concepts of kkondae. That is, such egocentricity and failure to accept other people's (especially the young generation's) opinions make the communication and collaboration process authoritative and unilateral, making the other person feel negative and want to sever the relationship (Kim, Lee, and Chae 2021; Min 2019).

In summary, age has been used in Korean communities as a means of creating a

hierarchy and organising ranks. Customs taken for granted in the past have been criticised in the centre of the word *kkondae* in modern times. In this regard, *kkondae* could be seen as a revolt against the unequal and unilateral relationship with authoritarianism that occurs in communication and collaboration. It has been confirmed through interviews that experiences related to *kkondae* have a negative impact on participation in the decision-making process of theme park development. In particular, residents (participants I, J, K, and L) have shown a lack of confidence and fear of being ignored in relation to collaboration with older age groups than themselves because, as previous studies have identified, the more authoritative and unilateral the relationship of communication, the greater the avoidance sentiment.

7.4.2 Reading Nunchi to Prevent Potential Interpersonal Conflict

As Otto and Ritchie (1996) have mentioned, tourism is an amalgam of service industries in which human resources play a significant role. Both the CBT approach and local tourism governance are people-centred activities in which various local stakeholders are interrelated (Fathi, Wang, and Song 2018). Therefore, Jamal and Getz (1995) have emphasised the significance of recognising interdependence with each other since the interpersonal relationship could be a critical point that leads collaboration in tourism development to success or failure (Albrecht 2013; Farmaki 2015; Prince and Ioannides 2017; Tolkach and King 2015).

Collaboration among local stakeholders is described as a decision-making process requiring collective actions and consciousness (Giampiccoli and Saayman 2018; Kapucu and Beaudet 2020; Zhou, Wang, and Zhang 2021). Likewise, it has been identified that the stronger the collectivistic tendency, the better collaboration and interaction (Chen, Zhang, Zhang, and Xu 2016; Marcus and Le 2013; Turel and Connelly 2012).

Interdependent disposition is powerfully revealed in a collectivistic and tight society (Carpenter 2000). In a collective society, social cohesion is fostered, joint achievement is emphasised, and social norms defined by groups precede individuals (Chadda and Deb 2013; Hagger, Rentzelas, and Koch 2014; Han and Choi 2021; Linh and Tam 2020). That is, it is to achieve the interests and goals of a group (or a society) by avoiding individual personality and pursuit of interests. Therefore, this collectivist tendency is somewhat exclusive to other individuals' or other groups' interventions, as collectivists tend to solve problems within their group members (LeFebvre and Franke 2013).

A tight society is described as one where individuals' deviant behaviours are not tolerated (Carpenter 2000). Individuals are required to conform to strict group (social) norms and are allowed less freedom in every situation (Uz 2015). In particular, in a society with higher power distance, there is room for conformity with norms to turn into obedience (Soemantri, Greviana, Findyartini, Azzahra, Suryoadji, Mustika, and Felaza 2021). In a society in which social norms suppress individual freedom, the psychological emotions of members are unstable, and the suicide rate and the incidence of various diseases are increased (Harrington, Boski, and Gelfand 2015).

South Korea shows a high degree of a collectivist society, with a score of 18 for individualism (Hofstede Insights 2022). Compared to neighbouring countries such as Japan (46) and China (20), South Korea has a low tendency toward individualism. Also, there is a significant difference compared to the United States (91), the United Kingdom (89), and France (71). Also, according to Gelfand and her research team's survey on the index of cultural tightness and looseness (2011), South Korea ranks the fifth tight country among 33 countries. In a similar survey conducted by Uz (2015), South Korea ranks as the ninth tightest country among 68 countries.

As such, South Korea is a tight society with a collectivistic tendency. That is to say, it is a society that prioritises the interests of groups over individual interests and, at the same time, does not tolerate individual deviant behaviour. Therefore, in order to be good at interpersonal relationships such as collaboration and interaction, Koreans invoke a specific mechanism, which is *Nunchi*. In this regard, this part focuses on conflicts and the uncomfortable state of mind of residents derived from the nunchi culture when collaborating with other residents.

“One of the important things I consider is whether I am suitable for the process and whether I am okay to participate. There is an implicit atmosphere that follows the experienced stakeholders' opinions. I think an atmosphere should be created to collect opinions from various stakeholders.” (I, Gwangmyeong Resident)

The National Institute of Korean Language (n.d.) has defined the nunchi as a “try to figure out how others feel from time to time”. Heo, Park, and Kim (2012: 574) have defined it as “understanding the situation or atmosphere one is in and acting according to the situation or

atmosphere”. That is, the critical aspect of nunchi is not one’s condition but one’s judgement of others and situations. Therefore, in Korean society, the process of reading nunchi has been regarded as a sort of survival strategy, especially in interpersonal relationships (Heo and Oh 2018; Heo, Park, and Kim 2012; Kang and Jang 2021; Lee and Kim 2019)

Factors influencing collaboration in the decision-making process are in the process of reading nunchi. According to previous studies on the effect of nunchi on interpersonal relationships, unstable and hostile emotions, such as stress, depression, anxiety and irritation, are formed in trying to read other’s moods and grasp the atmosphere (Heo and Lee 2013; Heo, Park, and Kim 2012; Lee and Kim 2019; Park, Bang, and Je 2020).

This issue is more evident in the interview data. When asked about their intention to participate in the theme park development process, residents commonly answered that they would be consistent with a passive attitude in collaborating. In particular, the anxiety is clearly revealed in responses: first, they are concerned about getting glances from others when giving the wrong answer. That is, they are conscious of how their actions are viewed from the perspective of others. Second, they find it very difficult to present their opinions in front of people who have participated or lived in the region for a long time. That is, the fear of being pointed out as wrong or ignored when giving an opinion and the pressure from the difference in age or career make residents read nunchi, which leads to stress and non-participation.

To conclude this chapter, in studies on residents’ participation in tourism development, cultural barriers have been mainly discussed only in the areas of indifference and lack of capacity and motivation resulting from poverty (Aref 2011; Kala and Bagri 2018; Kantsperger, Thees, and Eckert 2019; Saufi, O’Brien, and Wilkins 2014; Tosun 2000). However, this part includes residents’ intergenerational and interpersonal relationships and their impact on participation in theme park development, focusing on Confucian and collective culture, as a critical barrier to residents’ participation.

Confucian culture deals with conflicts between residents according to an age-based social hierarchy. The critical point is that the invisible social class is formed through age. Therefore, it could be expected in other contexts in which the social class is formed for reasons such as economic power, education level or social position, not necessarily Confucian culture. Interpersonal relationships between Koreans begin with asking each other’s age. In this process, superiors and subordinates are divided, creating changes in attitude and language use.

Ultimately, attitude and language use change to create power to govern subordinates. The baby boomers¹⁹ take the social notion of unconditional respect and treatment for older people for granted, but modern millennials reject this notion. In other words, conflicts are formed between generations who take the difference in treatment according to age for granted and generations who value relationships from person to person, regardless of age. The word *kkondae* has become popular in this context.

As defined in previous studies, *kkondae* refers to a person who does not accept others' opinions and forces their thoughts. The universal meaning refers to all people, regardless of specific generations, which fall under this definition, but it is mainly referred to in connection with age. In other words, it is used as a reference to older people who try to overpower and obey the other person by age. This type of person shows a very authoritative and unilateral form of communication. The problem is that this communication method results in avoidance sentiment, which becomes a barrier to residents' participation. As resident participants have shown, *kkondae* culture adversely affects their willingness to participate in the process and collaborate with other older residents.

Another issue is related to the collectivistic and tight characteristics of Korean society. Typically shown in other contexts, collectivism prioritises a society's (or a group's) interests over individuals' interests. Also, this group is very exclusive that does not allow other groups' intervention. A tight society does not tolerate deviant behaviours, forcing individuals to conform to social norms.

Namely, first, hierarchy according to age makes a difference from other groups, showing inequality in relationships and communication. Here, the upper group has the power to govern and control the lower group. Second, group norms and interests follow the logic of power. Therefore, the upper group does not accept the opinions of the lower group while forcing the lower group to conform to the norms. Third, the lower group invokes a *nunchi* mechanism to maintain a good relationship with the upper group and read the atmosphere. However, as clearly revealed in the interviews, the process of reading *nunchi* causes residents in a lower group to confront unstable psychological sentiments, such as stress, fear and anxiety, which make them avoid relationships and collaborations with the upper group.

¹⁹ born between 1955 and 1974

Kkondae and nunchi are words that explain the characteristics of interpersonal relationships in Korean society, and the majority of Koreans have experienced these cultures, regardless of age or social position (Heo and Lee 2013; Kim, Lee, and Chae 2021; Lee, Ko and Choi 2021; Min 2019; Ra 2020; Ryu 2020). In this regard, F (Gwangmyeong Citizens' Association Council) and I (Gwangmyeong Resident) have suggested the establishment of a special committee for the youth. K (Yongin Resident) has mentioned that the ratio of peers (similar age group) is a significant element in deciding on participation.

Since 2019, Gwangmyeong City and Yongin City have been operating the policy planning committee consisting of the youth²⁰. These committees have been formed to discover and implement policies for the youth in various fields.

However, these committees are targeted at substantial and direct-affecting policies to the youth, such as housing or employment, whereas community-based theme park development is for community development, not for a specific group. As seen in Ryu and Hong's (2006) study, cultures of kkondae and nunchi appear even with a slight age difference. Also, as K (Yongin Resident) mentioned, it might cause a social splitting that intensifies the conflict between age groups. Another question is who will be a convener in consensus-building procedures of different interests among different age groups. In other words, since all participants should legitimise a convener (Jamal and Getz 1995; Kernel 2005; Keyim 2018), a convener's age could be an issue. The issue of establishing committees is discussed in the next chapter with practical cases.

To conclude, the crucial aims of these three chapters are to identify barriers and drivers within each relationship and to discuss the factors affecting residents' participation in tourism development procedures. Chapter 5 has witnessed that trust is significant in the relationship between residents and local authorities, while it suggests that legitimation, past experiences, and communication are critical factors affecting residents' trust in local authorities. Chapter 6 has clarified that motivations and capabilities are crucial pre-conditions for residents to participate in the participatory systems while indicating the necessity of simplified procedures. Chapter 7 has identified the connection between social conflicts and communities' cultural aspects while confirming the possibility that social conflicts derived from differences in values and thoughts of members among intra-group adversely affect collaborative procedures in

²⁰ age range is Gwangmyeong: 18~34 and Yongin: 18~39, respectively

tourism development. These findings contribute to theoretical knowledge and suggest practical implications, which are dealt with in the next chapter.

Chapter 8. Conclusions

8.1 Summation of This Study

Traditional tourism development approaches, mainly interested in economic and quantitative physical aspects, have caused negative consequences, including social conflicts and the destruction of the environment. Prior researchers discussed - in conferences, books, and journal articles - how to sustain economic development without excessively exploiting cultural and environmental resources, which led to the concept of sustainable tourism development. Sustainable tourism development can be differentiated from other traditional approaches because it highlights the identification of and collaboration between relevant stakeholders (Nault and Stapleton 2011; Towner 2018).

As discussed in Chapter 2, the CBT approach has garnered much attention with regard to achieving sustainable tourism at the local tourism development level. The participation of the local community in the process is a critical factor (Bagus et al. 2019), as residents are directly affected by tourism development, and the cultural and environmental resources of local communities underlie local tourism products (Giampiccoli and Saayman 2018; Okazaki 2008). Ultimately, this approach aims to empower residents, thereby enhancing their support for tourism development (Khalid et al. 2019). From the governance perspective, residents' participation is highlighted in the formation of local tourism governance. As a systemised and formalised collaborative and democratic mechanism, local tourism governance emphasises equal participation opportunities, partnerships among stakeholders, and effective interactions (Ansell and Gash 2008; Keyim 2018).

This study echoes other studies on these resident-participatory approaches. Thus, it aims to analyse barriers and drivers of residents' participation in tourism development based on cases of local theme parks in South Korea. Prior studies have been conducted in developing countries and Western communities. Therefore, South Korea, an economically, democratically advanced country, and Eastern-located, is an excellent case for filling these academic gaps. Tosun (2000) has mentioned that cultural aspects determine community participation; therefore, Confucianism and collectivist cultures could determine South Korean communities' participation.

Another gap identified in prior studies is that the CBT approach and local tourism governance are at the village level, promoting rural tourism. Evidence has shown that these

approaches could be considered and applied at the theme park level. First, theme park development constitutes a part of local development initiatives in that values and resources are based on local communities. Thus, the resources of local communities become the central theme, and these theme parks contribute to revitalising the local economy and promoting welfare. Second, these theme parks induce residents' participation in the development process by creating a tourism network. As partners, various stakeholders, including residents and theme park operators, collaborate and interact in the decision-making process.

Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park are local theme parks in South Korea that were developed as a part of local development initiatives. Based on each community's resources (mining and agriculture, respectively), they have gained popularity as tourist destinations. Numerous visitors visit the theme parks annually and have successfully increased public awareness of each region. Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation, a Gwangmyeong Cave operator, has signed a business agreement with Hakon-dong residents to collaborate with them as partners. Similarly, the Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center has created a tourism network by connecting the theme park with nearby educational and experiential farms to share infrastructure and resources with residents.

The characteristics of and experiences offered by theme parks could be good examples of other cases and contexts. Research studies on theme parks can contribute to the academic knowledge of residents' participation in tourism development and offer practical recommendations to stakeholders of local communities. Therefore, this study employs qualitative research methods by interviewing local stakeholders, including local authorities and residents.

Qualitative research enables researchers to observe participants' interactions (Rahman 2017) and obtain deeper and richer data than quantitative research (Creswell 2014). As mentioned, since community-participatory tourism approaches highlight the collaboration and interaction of local stakeholders, the qualitative method is appropriate for this study to identify and compare stakeholders' different perceptions of similar issues. However, qualitative research has some limitations in terms of objectivity and generalisation (Atieno 2009; Daniel 2016), as it requires the researcher to interpret the data, and it depends on the participants' subjective responses. Moreover, as a case study, there is a concern that the findings might not be applicable to other cases.

Therefore, this study uses deductive and inductive approaches. First, theoretical frameworks are deduced from prior similar studies. A theoretical triangulation method is applied to identify theoretical frameworks on barriers and drivers of residents' participation. Interview questions are created based on these frameworks. Second, findings are inducted from the data obtained. At this stage, a methodological triangulation method is applied by connecting literature, such as official documents of each theme park and participants' initial interviews with media and journal articles with qualitative interviews. By attempting to connect different theories and methods, the shortcomings of each method are overcome, and valid and reliable data is achieved that can be generalised and is transferrable.

8.2 Findings

The findings can be summarised in Table 8.1 below.

[Table 8.1] Summation of Findings

Relationships	Key Factors	Drivers	Barriers
Residents and Local Authorities	Partnership	Trust	* Failure to Gain Legitimation
		Communication	Lack of Communication
Residents and Participatory Systems	Participation	Benefit	Performance-Oriented Structure
		Capacity Building	Lack of Knowledge and Expertise
		*Simplification	* Lack of Conditions
			* Psychological Burden on Participation
Residents and Other Residents	Coordination	Interdependence	Indifferent Attitudes of Residents
		* Interaction	* Entry into an Ageing Society
		*Atmosphere	* Social Conflicts among Residents

Asterisks (*) mark new findings that have not been introduced in prior studies.

This study follows two steps in inducting findings; first, based on frameworks (Table 2.3 and Table 2.5) presented in Chapter 2, drivers of and barriers to residents' participation have been classified in accordance with data collected for this study. Second, from the residents' perspective, this study further links barriers and drivers under three higher factors: partnerships with local authorities, participation in participatory systems, and coordination between

residents. The partnership (Chapter 5) deals with the trusting relationship between residents and local authorities, covering stages from pre-collaboration to during-collaboration, while the participation (Chapter 6) deals with the participation of residents through systems of budgeting and public hearings. The coordination (Chapter 7) deals with residents' conflicts, social issues, and their causes from various angles.

8.2.1 Between Residents and Local Authorities

As a critical driver of residents' participation in tourism development, *trust* is a significant element in the relationship between residents and local authorities. This finding corroborates findings from prior studies (Kim, Yap, and Vertinsky 2020; Nunkoo 2015; Nunkoo and Gursoy 2016; Ouyang, Gursoy, and Sharma 2017) showing trust affects residents' behaviour, which confirms that it also affects their support for local authorities' decisions and their willingness to participate in the decision-making process. The interesting point is that trust affects residents' participation not only during collaboration but also during pre-collaboration.

This study identifies two barriers affecting residents' trust in local authorities: *failure to gain legitimacy* and *lack of communication*. In terms of legitimacy, contradictory results have appeared. Gray (1985) has warned that stakeholders should be aware of the high interdependence with other collaborative stakeholders. There are also some cases in which a stakeholder disagrees with other stakeholders' participation. On the one hand, the primary reason for contradictory responses between Gwangmyeong and Yongin residents could be the process of obtaining legitimacy, corroborating the findings of Freeman, Carroll, and Hannan (1983). In 2017, when the right to operate Gwangmyeong Cave was transferred from the city to the urban corporation, residents, including civic groups, had doubts about the latter not only because it was established to manage the city's facilities, such as a golf course and parking lots but also because there were no records of profitable business. The urban corporation has assured Gwangmyeong residents that Gwangmyeong Cave would benefit them through profitable business, but the residents had several doubts, as revealed in the interviews. On the contrary, the Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center has maintained a close relationship with residents by providing infrastructure and educational programmes for local farmers for decades. It has gained much validity and credibility from the residents, reflected in their support for the Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center's decisions.

On the other hand, prior negative experiences of residents with local authorities have become a threat to maintaining legitimacy. This finding is meaningful because non-tourism-related experiences could affect residents' support for tourism development. For example, Gwangmyeong residents have argued that they have suffered various damages related to the installation of the incineration plant and have not received any proper compensation. This experience has led to distrust in local authorities and has ultimately changed to a sceptical attitude towards the Gwangmyeong Cave development. On the contrary, a mutual intimate relationship has been maintained between Yongin residents and the Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center, improving trust in the theme park development.

The second barrier to residents' participation is a lack of communication, a common issue for both sides. Prior studies on the effective communication of local authorities with residents have confirmed that it derives strong trust and residents' positive perceptions (Choi 2016a; Zeffane, Tipu, and Ryan 2011). Confirming these studies of the consequences of effective communication on residents' trust, this study also confirms that a lack of communication ignores and isolates residents from obtaining information about theme parks' operational status, causing their mistrust of and doubts about local authorities.

It is critical to determine why local authorities have neglected to communicate with residents. First, the terms of heads of local authorities are limited. Heads of local governments have a four-year term, and it is vital for them to achieve tangible results within that period to get re-elected. As an interview participant mentioned, they need to perform better than their predecessors to gain popularity among residents. Thus, creating a local theme park becomes an attractive option. Since the collaborative decision-making process is time-consuming (Okazaki 2008; Tosun 2000), bringing all local stakeholders to the negotiation table might not be efficient for local authorities who desire rapid success. Additionally, information-sharing events, such as public hearings or presentations, have been held at the convenience of local authorities, not at the convenience of residents. Second, community-participatory approaches are a strange concept even for local authorities. Although decades have passed since the implementation of the local autonomy system and discussions of various measures to revitalise residents' participation, there are numerous limitations to its full implementation.

Hence, this study highlights the hasty administrative system aimed at achieving rapid results and the lack of awareness of participatory approaches as crucial barriers that leave residents indifferent with insufficient capabilities and hinder the communication between local

authorities and residents. Ultimately, these issues affect not only residents' trust in local authorities but also the relationship between residents and participatory systems.

8.2.2 Between Residents and Participatory Systems

Two central participatory systems encourage residents' participation. However, their participation rate in these systems is meagre, mainly due to ineffective communication, as mentioned above. Local authorities have not shared sufficient information on each theme park with residents and have not taken into account the residents' characteristics and schedules, making them apathetic to the development. Thus, the representativeness of a small number of participants has been pointed out. Residents' participation can be divided into indirect participation, in which some local representatives participate on behalf of the rest of the residents (Jamal and Getz 1995), and direct participation.

In the case of indirect participation, the influence of civic groups is significantly decreasing due to the development of the Internet and Me-media. However, *the lack of capabilities* has been recognised as the most significant barrier preventing residents from participating directly. The first cause of this lack is the lack of communication. Since local authorities have isolated residents from the process, they have not been exposed to the operational status of theme parks. Second, residents also do not fully understand the concept of autonomy systems. Some interviewees mentioned that they do not know why they must participate in the process. Third, non-tourism-related interviewees believe they should have sufficient knowledge when participating in the process. They are reluctant to participate as they know nothing about tourism. Fourth, confirming Tosun's (2000) study, residents perceive operating theme parks as a hassling task. Since they work during the daytime on weekdays and are not in the tourism industry, they feel the pressure of participating in the process, as it requires study, time, and energy, which leads to their avoidance of participation. Finally, residents feel the burden of gathering. Public hearings or presentations require their physical presence, despite the advent of online communication channels that became widespread during the COVID-19 pandemic. Corroborating the mention of Byrd (2007) that a non-efficient procedure might lead to failure of collaboration despite the relationship being perceived to be fair, residents are reluctant to participate in these resident-participatory systems as they perceive the procedures to be complicated.

These results could be generalised to residents in different contexts who are unaware of how to participate despite their interest due to the vast burden of qualifying for participation. These residents have been under considerable pressure to make time to study and participate without any information being shared by other stakeholders, including local authorities. Moreover, some residents do not understand why various local stakeholders insist on meeting face-to-face at a time when good online communication is feasible. Therefore, the significant driver that this study highlights is *efficiency*, which is aimed at expressing opinions conveniently and efficiently, regardless of time, place, and form. Thus, it is essential to make procedures more efficient so that residents can participate in the systems.

8.2.3 Between Residents

South Korean communities are dominated by Confucian and collective culture, which has positively affected rapid and stable economic development and enhanced the stability of society. However, *intergenerational and interpersonal conflicts* have intensified due to changes in value and the spread of individualism in modern society. The demand for obedience according to the age hierarchy and the tight society in which individual deviations are not allowed are significant barriers to mutual communication and interaction between residents. Therefore, the generational conflict represented by the word *kkondae* and the interpersonal conflict represented by a survival strategy, *nunchi*, have caused residents to develop an *avoidance sentiment* towards participating in the tourism development process.

Conflicts and avoidance sentiments have led to the demand for simplified online procedures in which residents express opinions via online platforms in order not to meet other residents in person. In this relationship, a significant driver for inducing residents' participation is forming *good relationships* between residents based on collaboration and interdependence. Interviews with residents have revealed that they are interested in local tourism issues and willing to participate in decision-making. They are more concerned about how others view their opinions rather than the lack of expertise. In other words, the relationship between residents, or between people, has the most significant influence on their participation, beyond factors such as information, expertise, and trust issues that are prevalent in other relationships.

These findings that social conflicts negatively affect collaboration among members of an intra-group add to the knowledge of prior studies, including those by Kim et al. (2021),

Wang and Yotsumoto (2019), and Yang, Ryan, and Zhang (2013). However, unlike these studies, which revealed that conflict factors originate from conflict of interest, hostility, and residents' attitudes toward tourism development, this study makes a significant contribution to the literature by identifying the connection between cultural aspects and the cause of conflicts, revealing the generalisability to other contexts.

To sum up, this study aims to analyse barriers and drivers of residents' participation in tourism development at the theme park level. Thus, frameworks from prior studies on CBT and local tourism governance have been employed with qualitative interviews. In conclusion, this study highlights the lack of legitimation, communication, and capabilities, as well as conflicts and avoidance sentiments, as significant barriers, while crucial drivers are trust, efficiency (simplification), and good relationships.

8.3 Contributions and Implications

8.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

Contributions to Sustainable Tourism Development and the CBT Approach

The UNWTO's stance on sustainable tourism development indicates the imperative role of informed and continuous stakeholder participation as a fundamental condition for achievement. This necessitates the cultivation of amicable relationships among stakeholders and a study on relationship dynamics that reveals disparities in the perceptions of values and cultures which impact inter- and intra-relationships.

Within this context, one's social position within a community emerges as a pivotal factor influencing the willingness to participate. For instance, this study highlights that shifts in residents' values and perceptions, particularly within Confucian and collectivist cultures, have given rise to intergenerational and interpersonal conflicts, resulting in the rejection of younger generations to collaborate with the elders. This finding corroborates previous research (Gohori and Van Der Merwe 2022; Kala and Bagri 2018; Ramón-Hidalgo and Harris 2018; Rasanjali, Sivashankar, and Mahaliyanaarachchi 2021; Taylor 2017; Walter 2011) illustrating how disparities and discrimination based on prevailing social status, such as elitism and male dominance, detrimentally impact participation and collaboration in CBT implementation.

Furthermore, this study posits that the dynamics of relationships among residents play

a pivotal role in determining the success or failure of a community-based tourism approach. Even in a broader, non-tourism context, social status hierarchies, as exemplified by the Indian Caste system in India (Bhattacharya and Dugar 2014), and the presence of individuals with elevated social status, acting as collaboration barriers in Japan (Taoka, Kagohashi, and Mougenot 2021), corroborate the influence of social standing on partnership formation. Additionally, global researchers have consistently observed inequalities and discrimination rooted in social status, encompassing economic standing, religious affiliation, gender, and ethnicity (Ashley and Empson 2013; Asongu and Odhiambo 2020; Ikizler and Szymanski 2017; John 2017; Paskov and Richards 2021). These examples substantiate the contention that the likelihood of successful collaborations and partnerships diminishes when a social status gap exists among stakeholders, signifying a determinant of power.

This study, therefore, provides theoretical corroborations for the emphasis on stakeholder participation in realising the sustainability of tourist destinations, asserting that power imbalances and social inequalities are critical variables influencing stakeholder relationships.

Contributions to the Global Context

Most previous studies on residents' participation in tourism development conducted in developing countries (Bello, Lovelock, and Carr 2017; Radović et al. 2020; Tosun 2000; Yanes et al. 2019) have frequently connected the country's economic environment with barriers to residents' participation, concluding that a lack of financial resources and the poor status of communities have significantly affected its participation. However, since criteria and indicators for categorising countries mainly possess economic aspects, their conclusions might be challenging to generalise and could be mistakenly conjectured. China and India, for example, are among the world's top five superpowers in terms of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) as of 2022 (International Monetary Fund (IMF) 2021). Regarding GDP per Capita, Luxembourg, Ireland, and Norway are the top three in 2022 (IMF 2021). Among OECD countries, as of 2021, Norway, Denmark, and the Netherlands are the top three for Gross National Income (GNI) (OECD 2022). As such, economic superpowers are different according to measurements, and moreover, there are no criteria to define developed and developing countries, which each country announces for itself (World Trade Organization (WTO) 2022).

Therefore, this study suggests that a country's democratic environment should be considered prior to one's economic environment in identifying barriers and drivers of residents' participation. These South Korean cases identify poor and insufficient democratic procedures and lack of awareness as critical participation barriers, reflecting the lack of relevance between a country's economic environment and the success of resident-participatory tourism development. Similarly, researchers who conducted a study in Uruguay (Rosenblatt, Bidegain, Monestier, and Rodríguez 2015) have found that those who have had opportunities to participate in elections have more positive attitudes towards politics than do those who have not. On the contrary, a study conducted in Australia (Serrao-Neumann, Harman, Leitch, and Choy 2015) observed a lack of public participation due to technocratic approaches.

From this perspective, the findings imply two points: first, residents confront barriers such as a lack of communication and capabilities in collaborating with other stakeholders; most of them understand the relationship between local authorities and residents as that between a service provider and service receiver, not as partners with equal powers. Second, the dependency of local governments on the central government is too intense, with numerous structural limitations to implementing decentralisation at the local level in an environment where substantial powers such as legislation and finance remain with the central government.

In other words, residents' participation is determined by the willingness of stakeholders and the democratic infrastructure, regardless of a country's economic environment. Hence, the findings of this study not only minimise gaps in prior studies but also highlight the need to conduct further studies on barriers and drivers of residents' participation in tourism development based on a country's democratic environment level.

Contributions to the South Korean Context

With regard to the contributions to the South Korean context, this study echoes previous studies focusing on stakeholders' roles and behaviours, such as collaboration, interaction, and participation, while expanding the knowledge of governance formation elements by suggesting local governments' dependency on central government and the administrative and structural limitations of current participatory systems. In particular, this study corroborates prior studies in the Korean local tourism governance studies: first, Kim, Y. N.'s (2022) study revealed that residents regard capabilities and expertise as significant in

participation. In other words, the lack of knowledge and conditions inhibited the participation of non-tourism-related residents. Second, Lee, Choi, Han, and Choi (2016) showed that transparent communication based on mutual trust is significant. The findings of this study have identified communication to be a fundamental tool for building trust, which leads to positive support from residents. Third, Yoon's (2020) study pointed out the improvement of institutional aspects, including the legal basis. This study also pointed out the high dependency of local governments on the central government and the performance-oriented structure of the former to pursue rapid achievements.

In South Korea, not only in the tourism sector but also in disaster management (Kim and Yang 2021), urban development (Kim, Y. B. 2022), education (Lee, Kim, Bae, Jun, Jung, and Shin 2021), media (Pyo 2021), security (Yoon 2020), and social welfare (Heu 2018), the formation and utilisation of governance are considered significant in solving issues and achieving goals, suggesting communication and participation as critical elements. However, these studies failed to identify critical elements to bring stakeholders to the table. In response, the findings of this study argue that the legitimization of each stakeholder should be obtained before communication and that environmental, motivational, and structural conditions should be considered before participation.

Contributions to the Theme Park Contexts

This study implies the further application of resident-participatory approaches to the theme park level. Prior studies on residents' participation in the Korean context are related to the Tour Dure programme (Ahn 2021; Cho 2021; Kang, Ha, and Kim 2020; Kim, Kang, and Park 2021) and nature-based tourist destinations (Cho, Han, and Choi 2018; Choe, Kim, and Jeong 2014; Kim, S. H. 2015; Yun and Kim 2008), with much less attention being paid to other types of tourist destinations. The emergence of theme parks utilising local cultural and environmental resources and providing visitors with various attractions and educational programmes has also been reported, receiving much attention globally. This suggests that the CBT approach and local tourism governance could be applied and extended to the theme park level. Hence, the empirical cases and findings of this study minimise the research gap in prior studies and extend the existing literature. This study is significant because it has crucial implications for global theme park-related studies (Fotiadis and Stylos 2017; Fu, Baker, Zhang,

and Zhang 2022; Gabe 2021; Kirova and Thanh 2019; Wei, Qu, and Zhang 2019), which have mainly examined marketing or facility perspectives, such as visitors' experiences and behaviours, storytelling aligned with themes, and managing a theme park's capacity.

Contributions to the Cultural Contexts

With regard to the cultural aspect, the findings of this study are meaningful in that they reflect practical and empirical results of South Korea's collectivistic features affecting collaborative procedures. Prior studies have tried to identify the impact of collectivism on group performance or conflicts between superiors (seniors) and subordinates (juniors), focusing on vertical relationships. However, this study suggests that the background of a person, such as affiliation, school, or hometown, could be a variable that affects collaboration in horizontal relationships. Collectivism in Western societies is likely the individuated collectivism that regards interdependence (Marcus and Le 2013), harmony (Goncalo and Staw 2006), autonomy (Markus and Kitayama 1991) and networks (Brewer and Chen 2007) of independent individuals. On the contrary, Korean collectivism is expressed as "*we-ness*" (Yang 2019: 2) based on relational collectivism (Mamat, Huang, Shang, Zhang, Li, Wang, Luo, and Wu 2014). As classified in part 7.3, South Korean collectivism is relationship-oriented, such as familism (Kim, K. 2020) and old-boy networks (graduates from the same school) (Kim, Y. 2020). Hence, further research is required to identify the influence of collectivistic culture on residents' participation in tourism development in countries that share the same norm (Confucianism) - such as China, Japan, or Vietnam or where collectivistic relationships among people are prioritised - such as Pakistan, Morocco, Malta, or Zimbabwe (Gelfand et al. 2011; Uz 2015).

8.3.2 Practical Implications

In implementing the resident-participatory tourism development approaches, the implications to be taken into account to encourage residents' participation are as follows:

Trust Building

Trust is crucial in the relationship between local authorities and residents. For local authorities to trust residents, two factors are needed: The first is gaining legitimacy; local authorities should form close relationships with residents by sincerely listening to residents' demands and providing sufficient explanations and alternative measures for unacceptable demands. The second is communication, which is an essential tool for local authorities and operators to reveal the current operating status transparently to the public. By holding regular meetings or public hearings at residents' convenience, they should share information, including revenues, expenditures, or plans, and continuously address residents' opinions.

This principle of fostering trust through transparent communication and active engagement with stakeholders extends beyond the realm of tourism studies. It applies to a myriad of relational dynamics, such as those between an organisation and its employees (Thelen and Formanchuk 2022), a government and the public (Petersen, Bor, Jørgensen, and Lindholt 2021), an institution and the public (Berg and Johansson 2020), and a clinician and their patient (Bontempo 2023).

The findings of this study reveal that residents are not aware of the operators of each theme park because they have concealed themselves by not sharing information and not communicating with residents. This lack of information shared has created residents' doubts about the capabilities and aptitude of the operators. As a result, these doubts lead to distrust of the operators, with residents developing an unfavourable attitude towards tourism development. Trust building begins with transparent and active communication. Embracing this principle leads to enhanced outcomes, increased collaboration, and heightened public confidence in both institutions and organisations.

Participation via Multiple-Way Communication

The findings show that residents perceive participation in decision-making procedures as complicated. Given their circumstances, they feel burdened with the need to make time, study, and expend energy. These residents demand a more efficient and simplified form of participation. Online-based participation forms using Google Survey or NAVER Forms are practical alternatives, as residents can express their opinions on an agenda uploaded online via local authorities' Kakao Talk channels rather than in the form of an exchange of opinions at a

specific time and in a specific physical space, such as existing public hearings, presentations, and meetings.

However, as discussed in Chapter 7, the digital informatisation level of residents living in ageing communities is deficient. The interviews identified the low internet accessibility of elder groups as a critical barrier to participation. Moreover, since they are the least competent, online participation and communication could result in isolating the digitally vulnerable. Beyond the scope of tourism, in Western societies, there has been notable inequality in seniors' access to digital information (Eruchalu, Pichardo, Bharadwaj, Rodriguez, Rodriguez, Bergmark, Bates, and Ortega 2021; Friemel 2016), while developing countries contend with inadequate internet infrastructure and challenges in empowering women (Abdolkhani, Choo, Gilbert, and Borda 2022; Rye 2008).

Hence, the digital divide between those who want to participate online and those who find it challenging to do so suggests the necessity to activate various communication channels according to the digital proficiency of residents. Therefore, participation opportunities and information should be distributed equally to residents by all available means and methods.

Establishment of Special (Select) Committees

Residents are reluctant to participate in the tourism development process, thinking that sufficient opportunities would not be given to them and because they find it difficult to express their individual opinions to groups. Thus, when inducing and activating residents' participation, the establishment of special (select) committees according to their age or characteristics should be considered.

For example, the Youth Select Committee (United Kingdom), Office for Youth Policy Coordination (Korea), European Youth Parliament (European Union), and the Museum of Contemporary Art Youth Committee (Australia) specialise in the youth, encouraging them to participate in the policy-making process. Although these committees, which focus on youth-related policies, are unlike those related to resident-participatory theme park development, they could present an opportunity for people of similar ages to exchange opinions freely.

Findings show that psychological and physical aspects significantly influence residents' participation in tourism development. Hence, a comfortable and mutually intimate

atmosphere should be formed for residents to relieve their psychological burden.

8.4 Limitations of This Study

The findings and limitations of this study have to be viewed in light of the five limitations listed below:

The first limitation relates to *sample and study case selection*. Some of the initial potential interview participants identified through the literature review have refused to participate due to personal reasons. Moreover, despite the fact that participants from each region were matched to their affiliations, the imbalanced number may have affected the findings. Since CBT and local tourism governance have not been significantly focused on in the Korean context, there is a lack of research on resident-participatory approaches at the local theme park level. In this regard, frameworks have had to be deduced from contexts with different political, economic, democratic, and cultural circumstances.

The second limitation relates to *the local theme park*. This study has focused on local theme parks developed as part of local development initiatives. The results may differ in different types of theme parks, such as conventional corporate-owned theme parks like Disneyland. Moreover, since local theme parks have been introduced and developed mainly in Asian contexts, the findings may be generalised only to a small number of contexts. Additionally, since this study is at the local level, the results may differ at higher (national) levels.

The third limitation relates to *the backgrounds of the participants*. Even though this study tries to analyse barriers and drivers of residents' participation from residents' perspectives, the findings may have detected somewhat different barriers and drivers since interests vary according to an individual's experiences, knowledge, and capabilities. That is, the interviews for this study were mainly conducted with residents who actually live and work in each city, but the results may differ from those of individuals who do not live there since they still have interests in operating businesses, possessing land, or being considered stakeholders. Even among residents who live in the same city, there may be differences in perception of tourism development between those who are and those who are not affected by each theme park.

8.5 Recommendations for Future Studies

Based on the findings and limitations of this study, the following aspects are recommended for future research:

First, this study suggests that residents' perceptions are a significant element influencing the active support and success of theme park development, although it has not received much attention in prior theme park studies. Regarding current theme park studies, there has been a notable trend towards visitors' (consumers) and managerial views, focusing on the enhancement of visitors' satisfaction and the creation of attractions (Bae et al. 2018; Hapsari 2018; Lee, Jeong, and Qu 2020; Tasci and Milman 2019; Tsang, Prideaux, and Lee 2016). This bias towards marketing, visitor satisfaction, and physical development has limited and neglected the understanding of the impact of a theme park on local communities and residents' perceptions of their given roles in their development. Hence, future studies on theme park development need to focus on residents' perceptions and participation as critical stakeholders.

Second, this study reveals that the scope of local tourism development approaches could be expanded and applied to the theme park level since it is developed as part of local development initiatives with the purpose of revitalising the local economy and broadening community engagement. However, prior studies on residents' participation and empowerment focus mainly on nature-based tourism destinations, such as national parks, specific regions, such as rural villages, and heritage sites. Therefore, this bias has limited the scope of the approaches to specific levels. The launch of local theme parks, where resources and values are community-based, highlights the need for studies to apply resident-participatory approaches focusing on residents' participation and collaboration at the theme park level.

Third, more knowledge is required of the relationship factors between cultural aspects and residents. The findings have confirmed that the dominating cultures (Confucianism and collectivism) of South Korea affect residents' participation in decision-making processes. Thus, studies that focus on the impact of local cultures on residents' psychological or physical decisions regarding participation would be significant. For example, the impact of different cultural aspects according to social status and positions or collectivism/individualism on residents' participation could be explored in other contexts. Apart from residents being poor or indifferent to participation, more substantial barriers and drivers should be identified so that

practitioners have opportunities to look for alternative ways to encourage residents' participation.

Fourth, further methodological aspects should be applied and tested. As early-stage research that explores residents' participation at the theme park level, qualitative interviews with local authorities (operators) and residents have provided an in-depth understanding of cases and contributed to the CBT and governance theory. However, quantitative surveys or mixed approaches that encompass various types of local stakeholders - land owners, retailers, or hospitality employees - could be considered to verify data and identify additional barriers and drivers of their participation.

In conclusion, the realisation and application of CBT and local tourism governance approaches encounter numerous obstacles. Frequently, conflicts emerge among diverse stakeholders' interests, hindering their participation at the negotiation table. Consequently, criticisms abound regarding the intricacy and impracticality of these approaches. Nevertheless, studies consistently strive to identify barriers and drivers of community participation, as their findings provide glimpses of possibilities for a sustainable future. This research contributes significantly to the study of CBT and local tourism governance at the theme park level, underscoring the importance of considering communication, capabilities, and relationships with residents.

While residents may lack adequate knowledge of tourism and power compared to other stakeholders, they should be empowered to engage in the development process as critical stakeholders. This empowerment is essential because residents have played a pivotal role in preserving the cultural and environmental resources of the community, enabling these resources to be commercialised as tourism products. The efficiency and sustainability of tourism development, including theme park development, can be enhanced when residents are regarded as equal partners with equal rights.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Administrative Divisions of South Korea

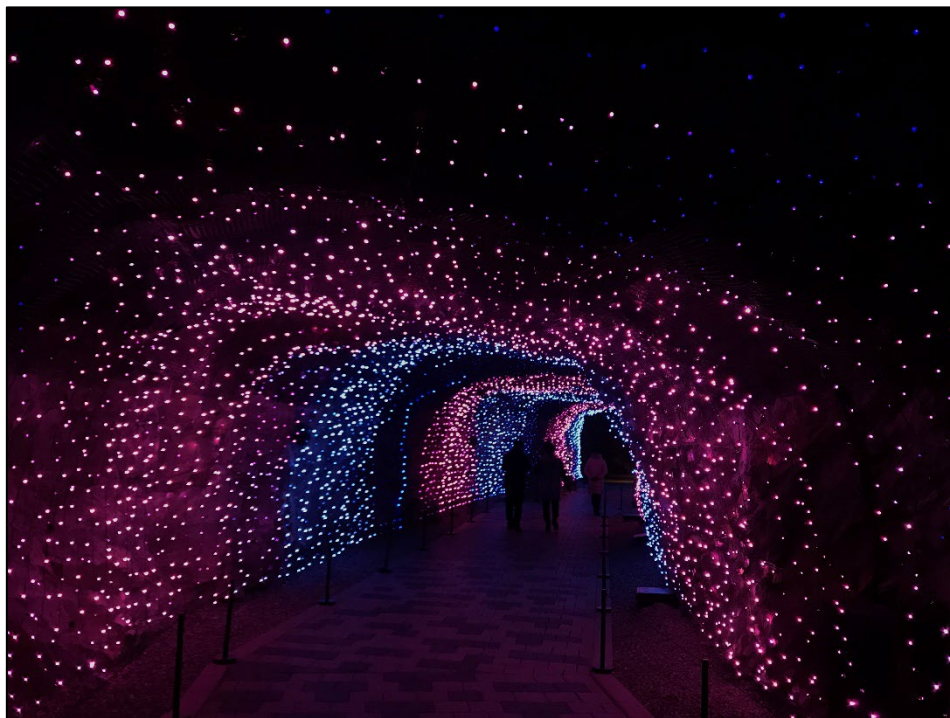
Level	Group Name	Type (English - Romanisation of Korean)	Example
1	Upper-Level Local Autonomy	Province - Do	Gyeonggi
		Special Self-governing Province - Teukbyeoljachido	Jeju
		Special City - Teukbyeolsi	Seoul
		Special Self-governing City - Teukbyeoljachisi	Sejong
		Metropolitan City - Gwangyeoksi	Busan
2	Lower-Level Local Autonomy	City - Si	Gwangmyeong
		City (specific) - Si (teukjeongsi)	Yongin
		County - Gun	Pyeongchang
		District (autonomous) - Gu (jachigu)	Yeongdeungpo
	N/A	City (administrative) - Si (haengjeongsi)	Seogwipo
		District (non-autonomus) - Gu (ilbangu)	Cheoin
3	N/A	Town - Eup	Gongdo
		Township - Myeon	Wonsam
		Neighbourhood (legal status) - Dong (beopjeongdon)	Mia
		Neighbourhood (administrative) - Dong (haengjeongdong)	Hakon
4	N/A	Urban Village - Tong	<i>Not-widely Used</i>
		Rural Village - Ri	Namgye
5	N/A	Hamlet - Ban	<i>Not-widely Used</i>

* Grey-coloured types and examples are the information of study cases

Appendix 2. Pictures of Gwangmyeong Cave



Entrance (Source: Own)



Light Space (Source: Own)



CAVE de VIN (Source: Gwangmyeong Cave Website at http://www.gm.go.kr/cv/gtp/CVGTP_22000.jsp)



Lascaux Exhibition (Source: Gwangmyeong Cave Website at http://www.gm.go.kr/cv/gtp/lasco/CVLASCO_61000.jsp)

Appendix 3. The History of Gwangmyeong Cave Development

Year	Contents
1912	Siheung Mine was established
1972	Siheung Mine closed
1978-2010	Sorae Port Salted Prawn Storage
2011	Gwangmyeong City bought Sorae Port Salted Prawn Storage and opened it to the public
	Establishment of Gahak Mountain Master Plan
2012	Launching a service to establish a plan for the construction of Gahak Mountain Park
2013	The deliberation by the Central Urban Planning Committee of the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport on the project to create a Gahak Mountain Neighbourhood Park was conditionally approved
2014	Expansion of cultural contents inside the cave
2015	Launching Gwangmyeong Local Facilities Management Corporation
	Conversion to paid destination
	Built Up-cycle Center and Eco-Edu Center
2016	Exhibition of Lascaux cave paintings
2017	The transition from Gwangmyeong Local Facilities Management Corporation to Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation
	Passing a partial amendment to the Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation Operation Ordinance (including the content that Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation directly manages the Gwangmyeong Cave development project and operation)
	Promoted the development project around Gwangmyeong Cave
2019	Business agreement with the residents' representative and Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation
	Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation invited private businesses (Discovery and NH Investment & Securities Co.) to create a public-private joint tourism project in the area surrounding Gwangmyeong Cave

(Source: Arranged by Chronological Order Cited from Gwangmyeong Cave Website)

Appendix 4. General Information of Gwangmyeong Cave

Name	Gwangmyeong Cave (광명동굴)
Operator	Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation (광명도시공사)
Address	142, Gahak-ro, 85beon-gil, Gwangmyeong-si, Gyeonggi-do, Republic of Korea, 14341
Gross Area	42,797m ²
Opening Year	2011
Entrance Fee (as of adults in 2023)	₩6,000 (approx. £3.8)
Total Number of Visitors (as of 2022)	645,159

(Source: Gwangmyeong Cave Website)

Appendix 5. Pictures of Yongin Agricultural Theme Park



Scenery (Source: Own)



Main Stage (Source: Own)



Museum of Agricultural Culture (Source: Yongin City Official Blog at <https://m.blog.naver.com/govlrodtmr/221008599074>)



Garden (Source: Yongin City Official Blog at <https://m.blog.naver.com/govlrodtmr/222320361648>)

Appendix 6. The History of Yongin Agricultural Theme Park Development

Year	Contents
2003	Establishment of a rural experience centre development project
2004	The name of the rural experience centre has been confirmed as Woori Land
	Designation and project approval of a rural tourism and recreation complex
	Construction
2005	Enactment of the ordinance on the operation of Woori Land
	Operation of traditional food and rural experience classes for children
2006	Completion ceremony and incidental events
2008	Rename to Yongin Agricultural Theme Park (public of ordinance)
2009	Academic services for broadening Yongin Agricultural Theme Park and the establishment of long-term development plans
2010	Build an agriculture exhibition hall
2017	Establishment of a strategy for establishing an experience tourism belt that develops rural villages and farms as tourism products by organising a network by theme based on the Yongin Agricultural Theme Park
2018	Promotion of Farm-Tour Valley course development in connection with green tourism resources such as Yongin Agricultural Theme Park, focusing on rural villages and farms

(Source: Arranged by Chronological Order Cited from Yongin Agricultural Theme Park Website)

Appendix 7. General Information of Yongin Agricultural Theme Park

Name	Yongin Agricultural Theme Park (용인농촌테마파크)
Operator	Yongin City Agricultural Technology Center (용인시농업기술센터)
Address	80-1, Nongchon park-ro, Wonsam-myeon, Cheoin-gu, Yongin-si, Gyeonggi-do, Republic of Korea, 17167
Gross Area	127,098m ²
Opening Year	2003
Entrance Fee (as of adults in 2023)	₩3,000 (approx. £1.9)
Total Number of Visitors (as of 2022)	172,194

(Source: Yongin Agricultural Theme Park Website)

Appendix 8. Online Poster for Recruiting Interview Participants (Korean Version)

심층인터뷰 참여자 모집

연구 설명
자연테마파크 개발 내 지역사회의 참여
방안에 대해 연구하고 있습니다.

모집 대상
경기도 광명시 또는 용인시에 주민등록이
되어 있으며 실제로 거주 중인 지역주민
(성인)

인터뷰 방식 및 시간

- 21년 8월 - 10월 중
- 일대일 대면 (협의 가능)
- 약 1시간

신청 방법 및 안내 사항

1. 아래의 휴대폰 번호로 연락
2. 가능한 시간과 장소 협의 및 확정
3. 인터뷰 진행

*인터뷰 내용과 개인 정보는 연구 목적
외에 사용되지 않으며, 제삼자에게
공유되지 않습니다.
*기록을 위해 인터뷰는 녹음될 예정입니다.
*수집된 모든 자료는 익명으로 처리되어,
연구 종료 이후 즉시 폐기됩니다.

신청: 영국 코벤트리 대학교 관광학 박사과정 정동혁



* Personal information is deleted

Appendix 9. Korean-Translated Participation Information Sheet

국내 자연테마파크의 지속 가능한 관광 계획 및 관리: 광명동굴과 용인농촌테마파크를 사례로

참가자 정보 시트

귀하는 영국 코벤트리 대학교 박사과정 재학 중인 정동혁 학생이 주도하는 국내 자연테마파크의 지속 가능한 관광 계획 및 관리에 관한 연구에 참여하시게 됩니다. 아래 내용은 본 연구의 목적과 귀하께서 제공하시는 데이터의 보호와 관련된 내용이 포함되어 있으니, 참여하시기 전 충분한 시간을 가지고 주의 깊게 읽어주십시오.

본 연구의 목적은 무엇입니까?

본 연구의 목적은 국내 자연테마파크의 계획과 관리에 있어 지역사회의 역할과 지역사회의 참여에 영향을 미치는 요인을 분석하기 위함입니다.

귀하가 왜 선택되었다고 생각하십니까?

귀하는 지역 이해관계자로서 자연테마파크의 개발에 기여하셨기에 본 연구에 참가 요청을 받으셨으며 저희는 귀하의 경험에 대해 말씀을 나누고 싶습니다.

귀하가 본 연구에 참여함으로써 얻는 이득은 무엇입니까?

귀하는 귀하의 경험을 저희와 공유함으로써, 정동혁 학생과 코벤트리 대학교가 지역 관광개발에 있어 지역사회 기반 관광 접근법과 지역사회의 참여 방안을 더 잘 이해할 수 있도록 도와주실 것입니다.

참가와 관련하여 위험 요소가 있습니까?

코벤트리 대학교는 공식 연구 윤리 절차를 통해 본 연구를 검토 및 승인하였습니다. 참여와 관련한 어떠한 중대한 위험 요소는 없습니다.

반드시 참여해야 합니까?

아닙니다. 참여 여부는 귀하께 달려있습니다. 만일 참여하시기로 결정을 하셨다면, 본 참가자 정보 시트를 보관해 주시고 사전 동의서를 작성하시어 연구와 관련된 귀하의 권리를 이해하며 참가에 동의한다는 것을 알려주시기 바랍니다. 사전 동의서에 귀하의 참가 번호를 적어 주시고, 후에 귀하께서 정보 철회를 희망하실 때 연구자에게 이를 전달해 주십시오.

귀하는 귀하의 데이터가 완전히 삭제되고 익명화되는 시점인 2025 년 12 월 31 일 이전까지 언제든지 정보 철회를 요청하실 수 있습니다. 귀하의 데이터는 명시된 날짜 이전에 공식 연구 결과 작성 (예: 저널, 컨퍼런스, 논문, 보고서 등)에 사용될 수 있음을 염두에 두시고, 정보 철회를 희망하신다면 가능한 한 빨리 대학교 측에 연락을 주시기 바랍니다. 정보 철회를 위해선 우선 연구자에게 연락을 주시기 바라며 구체적인 연락처는 다음 장 하단에 적혀 있습니다. 연구자가 부재 시 Research Centre for Business in Society (cbis.info@coventry.ac.uk 또는 +44 (0) 24 7765 7688)에 연락을 주십시오. 철회 요청에 대한 이유를 밝히지 않으셔도 괜찮으며, 귀하의 결정이 귀하께 미치는 영향은 없습니다.

참가하기로 결정했다면 어떤 일이 발생합니까?

귀하께서 자연테마파크 개발 과정에 참여한 경험에 대해 여러 질문을 받게 됩니다. 인터뷰는 귀하께서 편한 시간에 안전한 환경에서 진행될 것입니다. 인터뷰 중에 귀하의 답변을 녹음하고자 하는데, 이에 대한 귀하의 동의가 필요합니다. 인터뷰 장소는 조용한 곳이어야 하며, 약 한 시간 정도 소요될 예정입니다.

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귀하의 데이터는 General Data Protection Regulation 2016 (유럽연합 일반 데이터 보호 규칙) 및 Data Protection Act 2018 (영국 데이터 보호법)에 따라 처리됩니다. 귀하와 관련된 정보는 엄격하게 기밀로 유지될 것입니다. 귀하의 정보가 저희의 기록에 완전히 익명화되지 않는 한, 귀하의 데이터는 이름이 아닌 고유한 번호로 참조될 것입니다. 인터뷰 녹음에 동의하시는 경우, 모든 녹음은 필사된 이후 삭제될 것입니다. 오직 본 연구의 연구자만 귀하의 데이터에 접근할 수 있습니다. 모든 전자 자료는 비밀번호로 보호되어 코벤트리 대학교 원 드라이브(OneDrive)에 저장되며, 모든 문서 기록들은 코벤트리 대학교 캠퍼스 내 문서 보관함에 잠겨 보관될 것입니다. 데이터 유출 시 위험을 최소화하기 위해 귀하의 동의 정보는 귀하의 응답과 별도로 보관될 것입니다. 연구자가 데이터 파손에 대한 책임을 질 것이며, 모든 수집된 데이터는 2025년 12월 31일 당일 또는 이전에 삭제될 것입니다.

데이터 보호 권리

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향후 본 연구의 결과는 어떻게 됩니까?

본 연구의 결과는 요약되어 저널, 보고서 및 발표에 게재될 것입니다. 이러한 공식 출판물에서는 귀하로부터 사전 및 명시적 서면 허가를 받지 않는 한 인용문 또는 주요 결과가 항상 익명으로 작성될 것입니다.

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본 연구에 이의가 있으시다면, 우선 연구자 정동혁

에게 연락을 주십시오. 만약 해결이 되지 않는다면 본 연구의 지도 교수인

또는

에게 공식적으로 이의를

제기하실 수 있습니다.

정동혁

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Coventry CV1 5FB

이메일:

보내실 때 내용에 연구에 관한 정보, 연구자의 이름과 문의 사항을 자세하게 기술해 주십시오.

Participant Information Sheet



Appendix 9-1. English Participation Information Sheet

Sustainable Tourism Planning and Management of Natural Theme Parks in Korea: The Case Study of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

You are being invited to take part in research on sustainable tourism planning and management of natural theme parks in Korea. Donghyeok Jeong, a PhD candidate at Coventry University is leading this research. Before you decide to take part, it is important you understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

What is the purpose of the study?

The purposes of the study are to:

- Analyse the role of the local community in the natural theme park planning and management
- Identify barriers to community participation

Why have I been chosen to take part?

You are invited to participate in this study because you have been contributed to the development of natural theme parks as a local stakeholder and I would like to hear about your experiences.

What are the benefits of taking part?

By sharing your experiences with us, you will be helping Donghyeok Jeong and Coventry University to better understand the community-based tourism approach and community participation.

Are there any risks associated with taking part?

This study has been reviewed and approved through Coventry University's formal research ethics procedure. There are no significant risks associated with participation.

Do I have to take part?

No – it is entirely up to you. If you do decide to take part, please keep this Information Sheet and complete the Informed Consent Form to show that you understand your rights in relation to the research, and that you are happy to participate. Please note down your participant number (which is on the Consent Form) and provide this to the lead researcher if you seek to withdraw from the study at a later date. You are free to withdraw your information from the project data set at any time until the data are destroyed on 31/Dec/2025/until the data are fully anonymised in our records on 31/Dec/2025. You should note that your data may be used in the production of formal research outputs (e.g. journal articles, conference papers, theses and reports) prior to this date and so you are advised to contact the university at the earliest opportunity should you wish to withdraw from the study. To withdraw, please contact the lead researcher (contact details are provided below). Please also contact the Research Centre for Business in Society (cbis.info@coventry.ac.uk or +44 (0) 24 7765 7688) so that your request can be dealt with promptly in the event of the lead researcher's absence. You do not need to give a reason. A decision to withdraw, or not to take part, will not affect you in any way.

What will happen if I decide to take part?

You will be asked a number of questions regarding your experiences of participating in natural theme park development. The interview will take place in a safe environment at a time that is convenient to you. Ideally, we would like to audio record your responses (and will require your consent for this), so the location should be in a fairly quiet area. The interview should take around an hour to complete.

Data Protection and Confidentiality

Your data will be processed in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation 2016 (GDPR) and the Data Protection Act 2018. All information collected about you will be kept strictly confidential. Unless they are fully anonymised in our records, your data will be referred to by a unique participant number rather than by name. If you consent to being audio recorded, all recordings will be destroyed once they have been transcribed. Your data will only be viewed by the researcher/research team. All electronic data will be stored on a password-protected computer file in Coventry University's OneDrive. All paper records will be stored in a locked filing cabinet on Coventry University campus. Your consent information will be kept separately from your responses in order to minimise risk in the event of a data breach. The lead researcher will take responsibility for data destruction and all collected data will be destroyed on or before 31/Dec/2025.

Data Protection Rights

Coventry University is a Data Controller for the information you provide. You have the right to access information held about you. Your right of access can be exercised in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation and the Data Protection Act 2018. You also have other rights including rights of correction, erasure, objection, and data portability. For more details, including the right to lodge a complaint with the Information Commissioner's Office, please visit www.ico.org.uk. Questions, comments and requests about your personal data can also be sent to the University Data Protection Officer - enquiry.igu@coventry.ac.uk

What will happen with the results of this study?

The results of this study may be summarised in published articles, reports and presentations. Quotes or key findings will always be made anonymous in any formal outputs unless we have your prior and explicit written permission to attribute them to you by name.

Making a Complaint

If you are unhappy with any aspect of this research, please first contact the lead researcher, Donghyeok Jeong. If you still have concerns and wish to make a formal complaint, please write to my supervisors

Donghyeok Jeong
PhD Candidate
Coventry University
Coventry CV1 5FB
Email:

In your letter please provide information about the research project, specify the name of the researcher and detail the nature of your complaint.

Appendix 10. Korean-Translated Informed Consent Form

참가번호.

사전동의서:

국내 자연테마파크의 지속가능한 관광 계획 및 관리: 광명동굴과 용인농촌테마파크를 사례로

본 연구는 국내 자연테마파크의 계획과 관리에 있어 지역사회의 역할과 지역사회의 참여를 저지하는 장벽을 분석하기 위해 수행되었으며, 귀하의 인터뷰 내용은 데이터 수집 목적으로 활용됩니다.

참여하시기 전, 동봉된 **참가자 정보 시트**를 반드시 읽어주시십시오.

본 연구에 대해 명확하지 않은 부분이 있거나 더 많은 정보를 알고 싶으신 경우 주저하지 마시고 질문해 주십시오. 참가 여부 결정을 위한 시간을 충분히 가지셔도 괜찮습니다.

참가를 희망하신다면, 동의의 표시로 아래 항목들 옆 '예'에 동그라미를 표시하시고 날짜와 서명을 기입하여 주시기 바랍니다.

1	본인은 본 연구에 대한 <u>참가자 정보 시트</u> 를 읽고 이해했으며 연구에 관한 질문을 할 기회를 받았습니다.	예	아니오
2	본인은 본인의 참여가 자발적이며, 참가자 정보 시트에 명시된 날짜까지 연구자 또는 연구센터에 연락하여 본인의 데이터를 <u>언제든지</u> 조건 없이 철회 요청을 할 수 있음을 이해합니다.	예	아니오
3	본인이 연구를 위한 인터뷰를 중단하고자 할 때 연구원이 필요로 하는 본인의 참가자 번호를 사전동의서 좌측 상단에 기입했습니다.	예	아니오
4	본인은 본인이 제공한 모든 정보가 안전하게 기밀로 취급될 것을 이해합니다.	예	아니오
5	본인은 본인이 제공한 정보가 향후 학술논문과 기타 공식 연구 결과에 (익명으로) 사용되어도 괜찮습니다.	예	아니오
6	본인은 인터뷰 한 내용이 <u>녹음</u> 되어도 괜찮습니다.	예	아니오
7	본인은 연구 참여에 동의합니다.	예	아니오

본 연구에 참여해 주셔서 감사합니다.

참가자 이름	날짜	서명
연구자	날짜	서명

Consent form

Appendix 10-1. English Informed Consent Form

Participant No.

INFORMED CONSENT FORM:

Sustainable Tourism Planning and Management of Natural Theme Parks in Korea: The Case Study of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park

You are invited to take part in this research study for the purpose of collecting data on analysing the role of the local community in the natural theme park planning and management and identifying barriers to community participation.

Before you decide to take part, you must read the accompanying Participant Information Sheet.

Please do not hesitate to ask questions if anything is unclear or if you would like more information about any aspect of this research. It is important that you feel able to take the necessary time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

If you are happy to participate, please confirm your consent by circling YES against each of the below statements and then signing and dating the form as participant.

1	I confirm that I have read and understood the <u>Participant Information Sheet</u> for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions	YES	NO
2	I understand my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw my data, without giving a reason, by contacting the lead researcher and the Research Support Office <u>at any time</u> until the date specified in the Participant Information Sheet	YES	NO
3	I have noted down my participant number (top left of this Consent Form) which may be required by the lead researcher if I wish to withdraw from the study	YES	NO
4	I understand that all the information I provide will be held securely and treated confidentially	YES	NO
5	I am happy for the information I provide to be used (anonymously) in academic papers and other formal research outputs	YES	NO
6	I am happy for the interview to be <u>audio recorded</u>	YES	NO
7	I agree to take part in the above study	YES	NO

Thank you for your participation in this study. Your help is very much appreciated

Participant's Name	Date	Signature
Researcher	Date	Signature

Consent form

Appendix 11. Number of Establishments and Workers by Industry (Hakon-dong as of 2021)

* Top 3 items are greyed-out

Industry	Establishments	Workers
Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing	3	4
Mining and Quarrying	-	-
Manufacturing	548	2,372
Electricity, Gas, Steam, and Water Supply	-	-
Water Supply, Sewerage, Waste Management, and Materials Recovery	6	175
Construction	186	1,087
Wholesale and Retail Trade	1,018	3,113
Transportation and Storage	60	482
Accommodation and Food Service Activities	50	175
Information and Communications	7	12
Financial and Insurance Activities	1	18
Real Estate Activities, and Renting and Leasing	73	111
Professional, Scientific, and Technical Activities	12	20
Business Facilities Management and Business Support Services	33	144
Public Administration and Defence; Compulsory Social Security	1	9
Education	16	99
Human Wealth and Social Work Activities	3	92
Arts, Sports, and Recreation related Services	8	47
Membership Organisations, Repair, and Other Personal Services	83	170
Total	2,108	8,130

(Gwangmyeong City 2022: 90-93)

Appendix 12. Number of Establishments and Workers by Industry (Wonsam-myeon as of 2021)

* Top 3 items are greyed-out

Industry	Establishments	Workers
Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing	2	3
Mining and Quarrying	-	-
Manufacturing	192	2,229
Electricity, Gas, Steam, and Air Conditioning Supply	1	1
Water Supply, Sewerage, Waste Management, Materials Recovery	4	29
Construction	27	144
Wholesale and Retail Trade	177	657
Transportation and Storage	145	825
Accommodation and Food Service Activities	154	353
Information and Communications	1	3
Financial and Insurance Activities	3	24
Real Estate Activities	56	83
Professional, Scientific, and Technical Activities	7	34
Business Facilities Management and Business Support Services; Rental and Leasing Activities	19	259
Public Administration and Defence; Compulsory Social Security	5	131
Education	23	360
Human Wealth and Social Work Activities	14	158
Arts, Sports, and Recreation related Services	27	213
Membership Organisations, Repair, and Other Personal Services	62	154
Total	919	5,660

(Yongin City 2022)

Appendix 13. The Population of Hakon-dong as of Dec 2021

		Hakon-dong		Gwangmyeong-si	
Stages of the Life Cycle	Age Group	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Infants	0-5	26	1.24%	11,235	3.84%
Child	6-12	51	2.43%	19,039	6.50%
Adolescent	13-18	54	2.57%	18,131	6.19%
Youth	19-29	207	9.87%	39,731	13.57%
Middle Age	30-49	412	19.64%	89,788	30.66%
Prime-aged	50-64	681	32.46%	71,924	24.56%
Over 65	65-	667	31.79%	43,045	14.70%
Total Population		2,098		292,893	
Average Age		53.45		41.99	

* The highest number by each region is greyed-out

** This figure is arranged based on MOIS' resident registration demographic data at <https://jumin.mois.go.kr/>.

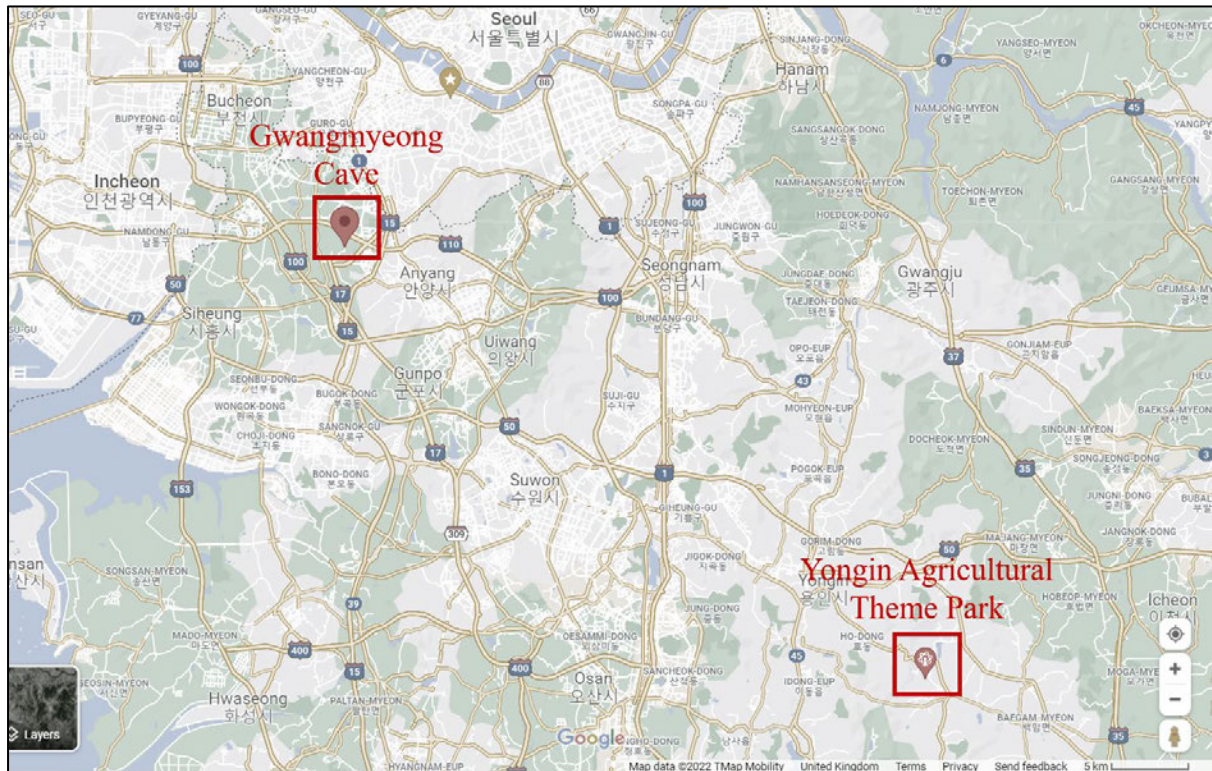
Appendix 14. The Population of Wonsam-myeon as of Dec 2021

		Wonsam-myeon		Cheoin-gu		Yongin-si	
Stages of the Life Cycle	Age Group	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Infants	0-5	156	1.88%	10,264	3.94%	47,220	4.38%
Child	6-12	352	4.25%	17,220	6.62%	84,187	7.81%
Adolescent	13-18	299	3.61%	14,398	5.53%	71,805	6.66%
Youth	19-29	796	9.62%	37,471	14.40%	149,701	13.89%
Middle Age	30-49	1,766	21.33%	76,919	29.56%	337,929	31.36%
Prime-aged	50-64	2,573	31.08%	64,202	24.67%	236,403	21.94%
Over 65	65-	2,336	28.22%	39,724	15.27%	150,263	13.95%
Total Population		8,278		260,198		1,077,508	
Average Age		50.90		42.25		40.61	

* The highest number by each region is greyed-out

** This figure is arranged based on MOIS' resident registration demographic data at <https://jumin.mois.go.kr/>.

Appendix 15. Locations of Gwangmyeong Cave and Yongin Agricultural Theme Park



(Source: Captured on Google Maps)

Appendix 16. Examples of Interview Questions

According to the semi-structured interview (SSI) method, the predetermined questions are emboldened, while the rest are spontaneously asked based on the interviewees' answers. The questions were asked in Korean, potentially leading to variations in their intended meaning when translated into English.

Examples of Questions to Participant B (Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation)	
•	How long have you worked on the team, and what are your primary responsibilities?
•	Despite not having been open to the public for a long time, Gwangmyeong Cave is evaluated as the top tourist destination in South Korea, with an annual visitation of one million people. How significant is the cave's impact on the local community?
•	Visitors to Gwangmyeong Cave often only stop by the cave and have meals or engage in shopping activities at places like IKEA or Lotte Outlets before returning home. In such cases, one might question the extent to which Gwangmyeong Cave contributes to the local economy of Hakon-dong. What are your thoughts on this matter?
•	What measures are you currently undertaking to stimulate the local economy?
•	(Regarding a plan being established in 2025) Are there any interim measures that can be taken during this period?
•	Emerging issues in the tourism sector have recently included noise pollution and environmental degradation. Have any complaints been raised in these areas?
•	(Regarding the raised complaints) How do you handle communication regarding these issues?
•	(About meetings or gatherings) Do you frequently organise such meetings?
•	I heard that in June 2019, a business agreement was signed between the urban corporation and community representatives to collaborate on understanding social values and resolving local issues. What prompted the signing of this agreement?
•	Have there been any similar agreements entered into in the past?
•	What social values do you consider necessary, and how does the urban corporation collaborate with residents to create such values, given that the CEO emphasises communication as a significant social value and makes efforts towards it?
•	Do you primarily engage in communication with resident associations?
•	Are these resident associations similar to the Tong Leaders in each Tong?
•	What is the residents' perception of the urban corporation? The CEO mentioned that as the urban corporation is neither part of the city administration nor has been established for many years, there might be aspects that residents find challenging to relate to. What are your thoughts on this matter?
•	Do residents actively participate, or is this more of a situation in which they need to be prompted to respond?
•	2020 was designated the Year of Resident Autonomy in Gwangmyeong City. Are there any current pursuits or changes in policies related to Gwangmyeong Cave aimed at realising resident autonomy, or have there been any changes compared to the past?

•	(Regarding the lack of changes due to the absence of guidelines) Is it because the system has not been adequately established yet?
•	(Regarding the lack of well-established awareness among residents about the concept of resident autonomy) Considering that the average age in Hakon-dong is considerably higher than that of Gwangmyeong City, do you think this has any influence?
•	Over the past few years, the Citizens' Association Council have consistently made statements regarding Gwangmyeong Cave and the Gwangmyeong Urban Corporation, with the corporation issuing clarification statements in response. From a democratic perspective, such oversight and checks might be seen as positive, but there are instances where misinformation is shared, and the content of statements can be distorted. Do you believe that communication is being effectively conducted as you desire?
•	When collaborating with the local community, what are the differences in perspectives and opinions between the Hakon-dong Administrative Welfare Center and residents? Each individual may have different interests and perspectives. How do you address such variations?
•	Factors such as an ageing population and a lack of ownership consciousness can affect the local community's participation in tourism development in other areas. From what I understand, residents of Hakon-dong are engaged in occupations that are somewhat unrelated to tourism. Is this the case?
•	When organising gatherings, do you also have a significant representation of the younger demographic?
•	(Regarding the ageing society) While there may be a significant elderly population, individuals in their 20s, 30s, and 40s may also have valuable insights. How do you incorporate their opinions?
•	Are there challenges in effective communication during the COVID era?
•	(Regarding plans to expand online communication channels) Online platforms may not be familiar to the elderly population, right?
•	Residents tend to refrain from participation if they do not perceive any direct financial benefits or tangible outcomes. What are your thoughts on this?
•	It is anticipated that the involvement of residents in tourism development will continue to expand globally and domestically. Considering the projects currently being pursued by the urban corporation and reflecting on past experiences, what are the challenges in involving residents in the tourism development process?
•	Is there a relatively lower level of awareness or consciousness regarding autonomy in Gwangmyeong City?
•	(Regarding the response indicating low participation and indifference among residents) Why not schedule events during times when more people can attend?
•	From the perspective of the urban corporation, what are some expectations regarding the behaviour of residents?
•	The urban corporation and community representatives have formed a strong consensus on coexistence. In your opinion, what are the conditions for coexistence?

Examples of Questions to Participant F (Gwangmyeong Citizen's Association Council)

- **How long have you lived in Gwangmyeong City, and how long have you been active in the Gwangmyeong Citizen's Association Council?**
- What are your thoughts on Gwangmyeong Cave? Does it effectively represent the history and culture of Gwangmyeong City and Hakon-dong?
- Do you think Gwangmyeong Cave effectively utilises the resources of Gwangmyeong City?
- (Regarding the substantial annual expenditure for operational costs) How much budget allocation has been made?
- (Regarding job opportunities) It has been suggested that Gwangmyeong Cave has not significantly contributed to job creation. Is this accurate?
- Do you believe the revenue generated from Gwangmyeong Cave is adequately reinvested in the local community?
- **Have you ever participated in the development planning process for Gwangmyeong Cave?**
- **Numerous issues were encountered during the transition of Gwangmyeong Cave's operation to the urban corporation, and citizen groups criticised the process significantly. Can you elaborate on the specific situations and problems encountered?**
- Was there criticism that citizens did not receive adequate information during the transition?
- **What is the perception of residents regarding the urban corporation?**
- **Last year, the urban corporation organised public briefings regarding the development project around Gwangmyeong Cave. As a member of a citizen group, do you feel the explanations provided were sufficient?**
- (Regarding the absence of deliberation processes) Why do you think this was not considered?
- At what time are public hearings or briefings usually held?
- (Regarding the timing of events during working hours) There is a significant population of young people who commute for work. Isn't it practically impossible to obtain their opinions?
- (Regarding information primarily being communicated online) I have heard that Hakon-dong has a large elderly population. Is not directing them to online platforms akin to not providing information?
- Why do you think the elderly population shows higher interest and participation than the younger demographic?
- **As someone active in citizen groups, you will likely meet many residents. What are the typical responses you encounter?**
- Do residents actively show interest in addressing local issues and participating in solutions, or do they generally show little response?
- **You have criticised Gwangmyeong Cave during your tenure in citizen groups. What difficulties have you encountered during your activism?**
- **What conditions are necessary for mutual prosperity among the urban corporation, Gwangmyeong Cave, and the residents of Gwangmyeong City?**

Examples of Questions to Participant H (Yongin Rural Experience Tourism Research Association)

- **What are your thoughts on the Yongin Agricultural Theme Park? Do you believe it effectively represents the local culture and history? If so, what are the reasons for your opinion?**

- Do you think the Yongin Agricultural Theme Park effectively utilises local resources?

- **How long have you lived in Naedong-myeon, and how long have you been active in the research association?**

- **Yongin Agricultural Theme Park attracts approximately 300,000 visitors annually and receives steady attention and love. How much influence does the park have on the local community (residents)?**

- Does it significantly contribute to local economic activation?

- It has been reported that a rural experiential tourism network centred around Yongin Agricultural Theme Park was established to promote income growth for farming households and agricultural workers. Has the park returned benefits to the local community (such as job creation and social infrastructure enhancement)? Can you provide specific examples of such benefits?

- Various social and environmental issues, such as traffic congestion, waste, noise, pollution, and privacy infringement, have arisen due to tourism development. How is Naedong-myeon affected by these issues?

- **How is Naedong-myeon forming a specific network with Yongin Agricultural Theme Park?**

- How do you communicate with the Yongin Agricultural Technology Center? Are there public hearings or briefings?

- Are there any areas where Naedong-myeon collaborates with Yongin Agricultural Theme Park (or Yongin Agricultural Technology Center) in planning or developing rural experiential programs? How is this collaboration facilitated?

- Are the opinions of residents adequately considered?

- (Regarding residents' lack of involvement) Is it because opportunities or time for involvement in detailed matters are unavailable?

- Are residents' opinions reflected in development policies?

- Are programmes developed internally?

- What are the challenges in the collaborative process among residents in developing rural experiential tourism programs?

- **It has been heard that operators of rural experiential villages and farms have formed the Yongin Rural Experiential Tourism Research Association to explore various methods for promoting experiential tourism. How is this organisation structured?**

- The Yongin City materials mention the Yongin Rural Experiential Tourism Research Association, which actively explores various avenues for promoting experiential tourism. What led to the formation of this association?

- (Regarding being organised unilaterally by the city) An association is typically formed to research something. Do you regularly hold meetings?

•	(Regarding infrequent meetings) So, you rarely gather under the name of the association? What is the reason for the infrequency of meetings?
•	Regarding having no agenda other than promotional methods) Aside from promotional aspects, what does the city provide? Is there cooperation among association members?
•	Are you suggesting that it is difficult for residents to participate?
•	What is the residents' perception of the Yongin Agricultural Technology Center?
•	Were there communication or consultation processes (such as forums or discussions) with residents during the development of Yongin Agricultural Theme Park?
•	Are there ongoing communication or consultation processes (such as forums or discussions) with residents in the current development process?
•	(Regarding residents' lack of involvement) Why do you think residents are not involved?
•	Has there been any attempt to request information such as operating profits, expenditures, and investment costs related to Yongin Agricultural Theme Park from the city despite the project being initiated by the city?
•	Wonsam-myeon exhibits a typical ageing society, with an average age of about ten years higher than the Yongin City average. Does this form of ageing society affect tourism development or cooperation processes?
•	The concept of resident autonomy has gained significant attention. In July last year, the mayor chaired a training session to strengthen residents' autonomy. Have there been any changes in cooperation between Yongin Agricultural Theme Park and nearby villages due to the expansion of the concept of resident autonomy?
•	Is resident-led tourism development progressing smoothly? What are the challenges or regrets regarding residents' participation in the tourism development process?
•	With tourism development aiming to enhance resident participation, promoted by the Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism and various local governments, the scale of resident participation is anticipated to expand further. Considering your experiences so far, what are the challenges or regrets regarding residents' participation in the tourism development process?
•	Regarding Yongin Agricultural Theme Park and rural experiential programs, are there any expectations from residents or the city of Yongin? If so, what are they?
•	What is necessary for mutual prosperity among Yongin Agricultural Technology Center, Yongin Agricultural Theme Park, Naedong-myeon, and nearby farms? Why do you believe this?

Examples of Questions to Participant L (Yongin Resident)	
•	How long have you been living in Yongin, and which area do you spend significant time in due to work, residence, hobbies, etc.?
•	Which area do you spend the most time on weekdays, and what do you do there?
•	Have you ever visited the Yongin Agricultural Theme Park?
•	Do you think Yongin's image/characteristics are well reflected in the Agricultural Theme Park?
•	Considering that it attracts around 280,000-300,000 visitors annually, do you perceive any benefits from this?
•	Have you ever felt the region has developed since the theme park was established?
•	Regarding income, have you seen increased demand since the formation of networks between Naedong-myeon and the park, promoting resources and experiences for development? As someone selling such products, have you noticed an increase in demand?
•	Conversely, have you experienced any losses due to issues like noise?
•	Are you familiar with the organisation that owns/operates the Agricultural Theme Park?
•	Have you received any notices or explanations from the organisation regarding tourism-related projects underway in the area?
•	Have you ever participated in the tourism development process?
•	(Regarding no participation) What is the reason for not participating?
•	(Regarding not even knowing they could participate) How about the interest in such matters?
•	(Regarding various barriers to participation) Is it challenging to overcome these barriers to participation? Do you feel a sense of distance?
•	Are you familiar with community-based development, sustainable development, or resident autonomy?
•	It has been suggested that younger people sometimes do not attend even if given the opportunity because most participation events are older. What do you think about that?
•	(Regarding feeling pressure due to age differences) Have you ever experienced being unable to voice your opinion due to such relationships?
•	(Regarding age) Have you felt pressure from age in a class-oriented society?
•	The average age of attendees at public hearings or resident participation groups is 50-60. Do you think this will affect your future participation in tourism development processes?
•	(Regarding difficulty participating due to lack of prior knowledge) Objectively, do you find it uncomfortable to voice your opinions in front of older generations, even when you know the subject?
•	If given the opportunity, would you be willing to participate in participatory tourism development in the future?
•	What form of participation would you prefer?
•	What is necessary to activate resident participation-based tourism development in the region?
•	They want to invite you to public hearings. What conditions do you think would be necessary for you to participate?

-
- (Regarding the answer that benefits are essential) Would you still participate if they do not offer any benefits?
-