

A NETWORK ANALYSIS OF KNOWLEDGE DYNAMICS IN A LOCAL
TOURISM COMMUNITY: HELSINGØR CITY CENTRUM

CASE: HELSINGØR CITY ASSOCIATION



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Date: 12th September 2018

Abstract

This thesis offers an explorative research study that attempts to facilitate a conversation about the consequence of ineffective knowledge flows on stakeholder collaboration and internal network dynamics. In a tourism context, a conversation as such might help tourism scholars as well practitioners with a direction of where to start and where to look when planning for destination development.

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1. Introduction

The main purpose of this thesis project is to diagnose the knowledge dynamics within a local network placed in Helsingør, known as; Helsingør City Association (HCA).

While the pivotal role of knowledge as a competitive tool has long been recognized (Waligo et al., 2013) the emergence of knowledge management as an academic field is much more recent, dating from the 80s (McLeod & Vaughan, 2015). Since then, the literature has grown rapidly, as has its applications in many economic sectors, with the exception of tourism. Knowledge management is as such therefore still at its infancy in tourism literature, and many tourism scholars in the field still battle with the question as to whether knowledge resources can be managed, particularly knowledge possessed by individuals. This paper suggests an explorative approach that contributes to this discussion. In this regard this study assumes that knowledge possessed by individuals in networks might indicate the state of art concerning a networks ability to absorb and transfer knowledge. The analysis is executed by testing the network dynamics of HCA in relation to theoretical concepts based on social movement thinking and is identified as ‘collective identity’ and ‘collective action’. In addition, it seeks to explore the influence of human agency on motivation for participation and ultimately on collaboration motives..

1.1. Background

Two years ago, my partner proposed that we should move to Helsingør. At that point we were living in Frederiksberg in Copenhagen. My partner wanted to open a design store in Helsingør where he, during a business trip to Helsingør, had stumbled upon an empty store he envisioned as a design store. This happened in the summer of 2016 and by winter the same year, we had moved to Helsingør. Fortunately, I quickly got a job in the municipality as a student assistant in a team of business city consultants. Through this vacancy I learned much about the local business life and its challenges. It is here I found the grounds for my thesis, this being the drift between Helsingør city centre and the new and modern culture area called the Culture Harbour.

Helsingør has many tourists from all over the world. However, the challenge related to the Culture Harbour is that the majority of tourists spend all their time at the Culture Harbour during their visit in Helsingør, while very few tourists actually find their way into Helsingør city centrum. This is the state of art at current stage and the challenge many local businesses are confronted with. The

Culture Harbour includes Kronborg castle, the new Maritime museum, the Culture Yard and the new street food market.

Numbers indicate that in 2017 the Culture Yard managed to attract over 253.000 people in just three months,¹ while, since its opening ceremony in 2013, the Maritime museum has managed to attract more than 102.537 tourists from all parts of the world annually.² Kronborg Castle attracted 301.164 tourists in 2016.³ I make a point of shedding light on the amount of tourists these different institutions annually attract because, as one can see in image 1 (see the marked areas), all these cultural institutions are within 100 meters of each other.



¹ <https://sn.dk/Helsingoer/Ny-besoeogsrekord-paa-biblioteket-og-Kulturvaerftet/artikel/602591>

² <https://sn.dk/Helsingoer/Rekordhoeje-besoegstal-hos-byens-kulturattraktioner/artikel/438902>

³ https://www.visitdenmark.dk/sites/default/files/VDK_Website_images/Pdf_other_files/Analyser/2017/attraktionslisten_2016.pdf

While some would argue that this is a huge success, critics would argue in accordance with tourism scholars such as Morais et al. (2015) by looking at the imbalanced distribution of tourists. Moreover, a report conducted by the Institute for Centre & Planning (ICP) in December 2013 highlights the lack of visibility between Helsingør city centrum and the Culture Harbour arguing that if the municipality wants to position itself as a strong retail city the link between the Culture Harbour and Helsingør city centrum has to be more visible (ICP, 2013). The following quote highlights this:

“Tourists visiting Kronborg and the other cultural experiences usually have other purposes with their visits than shopping. Still, Tourists at The Culture Harbour are today not from any angle introduced to signs or information navigating or informing them about the charming city centrum with many good deals only 700 meters from Kronborg (ICP, 2013: 16)”.

This observation resonates with the new branch of tourism scholars who have argued that tourism is inevitably a ‘community industry’. Destinations that neglect to consider the needs of the community in favour of the satisfaction of tourists needs might consequently suffer of internal local challenges (Lichrou, O'Malley & Patterson, 2008). This point is the position I take, and even though this thesis mostly draws from the knowledge management literature it is essentially a contribution to the tourism planning - and - destination management literature.

Before further continuation, the following presents the case that is the subject for research.

1.2. Case

Based on the knowledge I had acquired from the job at the municipality, my interest in the local business community increased and led me to Helsingør City Association (HCA). One incidence certainly caught my attention. This is when my partner was asked to join HCA and become a part of new team of board members in pursue of changing the perception of HCA. The focal message of the new HCA is to enhance local collaboration and create a better business city centrum in the hopes of attracting more tourists from the Culture Harbour as well more regional shoppers. However, in the short year we had leaved in Helsingør we knew, from gossip and several conversations with other local business owners, the misfortunate reputation of HCA. From a tourism perspective I found this observation intriguing. It stimulated some critical question in relation to: way do HCA have a bad reputation? – And is there a connection between the functionality of the network and its misfortunate reputation? With an interest in this I started to investigate through desk research on the Internet in order to understand who or what HCA is e.g., what is their function as an association? However, this was still very unclear on their homepage. No real information about the association was detailed on their homepage. As a following process I considered –if its function (vision, goals) is unclear to me, then how do they themselves define them internally? This is where the research process towards understanding knowledge dynamics within a local network started.

Officially HCA appears to be an informal network. This is to say that it consists of voluntary individuals who gather to create city events. In addition: to gather as many local businesses as possible in a collective of members where things are done cohesively. At current stage HCA consists of eight board members, one chairman and a secretary. Answering the accuracy of how long the association has existed and about its history has been difficult since no one member actually knew this. However, there is general census that it has existed for over 20 years. There are no strict rules in regards to who does what, only that someone does it. However, they have some formal rules in relation to selecting board members and chairmen. Memberships-members are here defined as those who pay a predefined economic contribution and in return receive internal information and local business benefits. However, as I have mentioned, what these benefits - as well - the association's claim for existence is in no way addressed on their homepage. Indeed, its reputation has suffered a lot, which has resulted in a decrease of membership-members and also businesses contemplating the function of the association.

For the purpose of this research HCA is characterised as a social network and is subject of the case study of this research. More specifically, its network dynamics and how these contribute to our academic understanding of knowledge flows in tourism literature. In as such, the attempt here is to analyse network dynamics to say something about the networks ability to capture knowledge and convert it into a resource advantage. The concept social network will be advanced in a later section as I continue.

1.3. The significance of this research

Scholars argue that knowledge is a competitive tool. However, knowledge itself does not deliver growth. It is a process that involves identifying relevant knowledge, capturing it, transferring and sharing it, and ensuring that tourism networks are motivated to optimize flows and to manage them effectively. This however demands an open decentralized environment where individuals are empowered to view knowledge as a resource to be shared and not hoarded (Cooper, 2015). As stated, the research on knowledge management in tourism literature has grown increasingly in recent years. The contributions of these however, seem to neglect the dynamics in which knowledge is actually captured – and circumstances that prevent this process from happening. The significance of this research is on this topic. It draws attention the circumstances that prevents knowledge processes from happening, and as such identifies the networks ability to mediate knowledge.

1.4. Research question

Based on an exploratory and action-based research approach, the goal of this thesis is to integrate the individual narratives given by members of HCA. By focusing on the performative narratives of these members, the objective is to conduct a research project that presumes the tenet of network analysis based on social movement thinking to analyse the network dynamics in HCA. The argument of this thesis puts emphasis on human agency to address inter-organisational dynamics and the degree in which these prevent knowledge flows from happening and the consequences of this. Therefore this thesis seeks to answer the following research question:

How does the internal network dynamics within Helsingør city
association affect the internal knowledge flows?

To answer this question I ask:

- 1: How is stakeholder collaboration affected by the internal knowledge dynamics within HCA?
 - The aim of this question is to explore the preconditions of collective action. Therefore discussing why stakeholders chose to collaborate in a network by addressing the concepts of collective identity. The intention is to explore the outcome of stagnant knowledge flows in situations where local tourism community networks strive for community development.
- 2: How is knowledge flows affected by human agency in HCA?
 - This question seeks to discuss the role of human agency by addressing centrality and the relational ties between members in HCA and how these affect participant involvement, creativity and innovation. The intention is to draw attention to the pivotal role of human agency in affecting knowledge flows.

1.5. Research objectives

The research objectives of this thesis project are advanced in the following and account for how this thesis will answer the goals of the research question.

Literature review: The first chapter of this study presents the relevant theoretical arguments of this thesis. It addresses knowledge-based economy as a means to situate the tenet of knowledge management in the context of this thesis. In addition to this, social movement thinking is advanced to enable an analysis of the structural and rational dynamics of a social network (HCA).

Research approach and methods: The first section accounts for the research approach of this study headlining constructivist grounded theory, abductive reasoning and action research approach. The second part presents the chosen methods of analysis for the qualitative data, particularly performative narrative analysis along side tacit knowledge.

Analysis and discussion: The last part of this study analyses the narrated stories. The analysis and discussion consider network structure; collective identity, collective action, participant engagement and the contributions of Helsingør City Association in advancing local business collaboration will be discussed in terms of social movement network thinking and knowledge dynamics.

2. Literature review

The following section introduces the theoretical arguments of this thesis project. In doing so it starts by viewing the current development of knowledge in a wider perspective and its position in a world where knowledge is power. Following this notion knowledge economy is addressed in relation to local tourism networks and stakeholder collaboration. In this regard characteristics of knowledge management is reviewed in relation to tacit knowledge. Social movement thinking is presented in light of network theory and its contribution for this thesis.

2.1. Knowledge economy in tourism research

Knowledge economy is commonly defined as the new form of economy. It is directly based on the production, distribution and use of knowledge and information (Madanipour, 2011). In short terms knowledge economy is a phase in which *“industry in the developed countries is moving from metal-bashing to knowledge generation* (Madanipour, 2011: 49) A way of defining the knowledge economy, therefore, focus on the changing nature of economic products: from material goods to the so-called immaterial and weightless goods and services, from physical and tangible products to intangible ones (Madanipour, 2011:49)”. To this end Mark Burgin (2009) argues, *“the location and relations between various activities that make up the knowledge economy are significant features of the knowledge economy”* (ibid: 33).

While economists have generally considered the city clusters associated with the scale of economies, uninterested in the location of the economic activity, it has been suggested that knowledge should not only be situated within the elite and hierarchical centres of knowledge production. Instead it should also consider the army of support that makes the knowledge economy possible. Accordingly, when studying tourism destinations in connection with knowledge economy; the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services it sells, one cannot neglect the environment in which these activities take place and how they relate to one another (ibid, 2009). While we must not naïvely wish away the hierarchical and vertical relations of power we should neither oversee the horizontal relations. To this end, Burgin argues:

“In an analysis of space, it is necessary to find out what stories remain hidden, untold and unheard. Seeing the visible is essential, but so is acknowledging the unseen and the invisible. Capturing the voices and surveying the landscape are needed, but searching for the excluded and the marginal would also be equally essential. Indeed, it is through the untold stories that the narrated ones can be judged (Burgin, 2009: 39)”.

In accordance, authors within the field claim that much debate within the network literature has revolved around the nature of knowledge and describe how it is held within inter-organizational relations. In agreement, Argote and Ingram (2000) state that “*knowledge is embedded in the three basic elements of organizations – members, tools and tasks*” (Argote and Ingram, 2000: 153). As it looks, these notions have made an impression on tourism, as the destination community have increasingly become the tenet of tourism planners (Tinsley & Lynch, 2001). This is to say that the role of the stakeholder has attracted much attention in conceptualizing sustainable development in tourism research. In this lane of study, tourism planners have studied the role of stakeholders as important agents in tourism development. Indeed, stakeholder collaboration represents a widely accepted approach to solving the problems associated with lack of understanding and few shared common goals between stakeholders involved in tourism development agendas. As such, contributions of tourism planners advocate stakeholder involvement in the sustainable development of tourism (Waligo et al., 2013).

The move toward a more balanced tourism planning approach within community settings has encouraged some attempts to integrate tourism into local plans, but so far with limited success. To this end, early contributions by Peter E. Murphy (1993) highlight local inhabitants as key force in elevating sustainable community development (Murphy, 1993). In reference to tourism planning and development he states:

“It needs to continue to restructure its priorities so that environmental and social factors may be placed alongside economic considerations. The growing emphasis on a community responsibility should continue since the industry uses the community as a resource, sells it as a product, and in the process affects the lives of everyone [...]” (Murphy, 1993: 184).

In this sense, valuing the complexity of tourism planning would be to change tourism’s planning process to one that views tourism as part of a community’s ecosystem. Murphy (1993) defines the ecosystem of the tourism community as one which includes any area of living organisms and non-living substances that interact to produce an exchange of materials between the living and non-living parts (ibid). Thus, tourism fits into such a system since it involves an interaction between visitors and physical facilities, and an exchange of revenue between various sectors

2.2. Knowledge management characteristics in tourism

Knowledge is most commonly defined as the factors that influence human thought behaviour and that allow the explanation, prediction, and influence of physical phenomena (Hall & Andriani, 2003). In recent years, knowledge management has started to receive increasing attention from tourism researchers because of its significant impact on product development and management within destinations (Zhang et al., 2015). Indeed, tourism scholars argue that knowledge can be managed as an organizational resource that then can be used to create a competitive advantage (ibid.). It is why the production, acquisition, absorption, reproduction and dissemination of knowledge have received a great deal of attention from knowledge management scholars (ibid.). As a means, knowledge management addresses the critical issue of organizational adaptation, survival, and competitiveness in the face of sustainable destination development and competitiveness (Cooper, 2005). Tourism scholars argue that knowledge sharing within destination networks is pivotal for sustainable tourism development (Zhang et al., 2015). To this end Cooper (2005) argue that if knowledge management is to be utilized at the destination level we must consider knowledge transfer and how knowledge is distributed in networks (Ahmed & Dwyer, 2010). On this topic Ahmed & Dwyer (2010) propose two possible sources of knowledge stocks for sustainable development similar to those Hislop et al, (1997) originally discussed. The first is the organizational micro-level knowledge stock which is where organization knowledge is created and is dominantly tacit. Second is the destination macro-level knowledge stock, which is predominantly explicit (Cooper, 2005).

For this study I address the tacit knowledge that exists at a micro level in an attempt of exemplifying a case study that explore tacit knowledge, that which is based on experience and is not easily codified, to display a case where knowledge is prevented from happening, rather than defining and analysing knowledge stocks or flows. These are inevitably implicit as the result of knowledge prevention speaks on behalf of knowledge stocks and knowledge flows.

Even though knowledge management is a relatively new area of study it is imperative to understand the concept of knowledge-based economy as explored above (McLeod & Vaughan, 2015). In the context of using knowledge as a resource for destination development and competitiveness this paper advances a micro-perspective analysis of social networks, that is, the role human agency plays in local networks. This perspective begs the question of whether

knowledge resources can be managed, especially the knowledge possessed by individuals (ibid, 2015).

This study attempts to uncover the unheard and unseen by utilizing tacit knowledge theory. The matter of social movement networks and how this perspective enables this study to articulate the influence of knowledge dynamics in a social network will be advanced in relation to structural and rational discourses within social movement theory.

2.3. Social movement and networks

“Over the last few years, it has been increasingly argued that we ought to look for mechanisms rather than correlations, that is, we should clarify how networks really operate and what impact they have on participation.” (Diani, 2011: 3)

Much empirical enquiry has put emphasis on networks as social equations that interact across different dimensions. Notably, due to its flexibility, and in many cases, it's very ambiguity; the concept of network has in recent times become highly popular. This is due to the fact that it enables researchers to deal with social phenomena or individual actor studies, which can be difficult to detect and conceptualize within the boundaries of formal bureaucracies (Diani, 2003). To this end, Diani & McAdam (2003) scrutinize the impenetrability of networks. They amplify the importance of networks for individual participation by confronting the limited knowledge reflecting the diverse dimensions of networks. That is to say that networks influence participation or the process of individual participation (Diani & McAdam, 2003). In line with such arguments, networks, or rather network dynamics, are to this end proven to be important in the case of collective action. Still, we need to theorize on the actual role of networks

Due to the flexibility of the concept, networks can be difficult to define and can be investigated from different angles. In this study, however, networks are perceived as socially, culturally and historically situated, and operates across different spatial scales and over time (Dredge 2004). The contribution of networks theory in this case study enables a discussion that improves our understanding about the formal and informal inter-organizational network structures and relations in a local tourism community and how these shape collective action (ibid, 2004). As such, the nature of network operations and relations; the depth and breadth of knowledge capture and sharing all have important implications related to destination innovation and competitiveness. Networks are

here characterized by a variety of participants that transcend organizational boundaries and structures through commitment and common goals (ibid). Indeed, authors argue that the connectedness in these local networks in turn gives rise to opportunities for the transfer and sharing of knowledge, which is an important attribute for developing innovation and competitiveness.

By utilizing a network perspective, social scientists are able to create a preliminary frame in which they can access the social location of specific actors, as well as identify general structural patterns and relational ties. Indeed, this is the objective of this study.

2.4. Social movement theory in network analysis

This following section seeks to present the basic vocabulary embedded in the theoretical frame of social movement, namely; collective identity and collective action.

Collective identity is typically identified in social movements as the process of constructing an action system shared and defined by its members. The term ‘identity’ is constructed to imply the notion of unity, while also establishing the limits, frame or ground of existence of the social movement and the ability for members as well outsiders to distinguish the social movement from all others (Melucci, 1995). The implication of collective identity enables a study of what might appear to be a stable and coherent definition of a network.

Traditionally, social movement studies have analytically been divided between studies that have put emphasis of the structural notions that addresses motives for network participation. On the other end, studies have focussed on the relational link between individuals in networks. However, recent research on the subject stresses the conjunction of these otherwise distinctive perspectives to explain different levels of networks dynamics. Accordingly Passy (2003) explains:

“While structuralist approaches emphasize the role of identities, values and social networks as enabling or constraining participation, rationalist explanations stress the role of human agency. These two theoretical traditions are less opposed to each other than it appears at first glance. To be sure, they are based on different philosophical traditions, but they in fact explain two different stages in the process of individual participation” (Passy, 2003: 2)

As it appears, these two theoretical traditions are actually less contradictory to each other than they might seem at first. To this end, we need to start by identifying the dimensions of social networks. Then we are able to display the reasons and dynamics that encourage people to become involved in

collective action, and in the end, it provides us with a more complete explanation of the entire process of individual participation.

The engagement with social movement concepts in this analysis displays the significance of this thesis project, as it suggests a tourism inquiry that enables me to go beyond the dualism between structural or rational perspectives. This thesis advocates for a more complex and expanded understanding of networks, their structure and role in knowledge tourism and destination management literature. *“By asking the question of how individuals and groups make sense of their actions and how we can understand this process, we are obliged to shift from a monolithic and metaphysical idea of collective actors toward the processes through which a collective becomes a collective (Melucci, 1995: 43)”*.

3. Philosophy of Science: Constructivist grounded theory

Constructivist grounded theory suggests a relativist epistemology where knowledge is assumed to be socially produced. This notion views researchers as part of the research situation, and assumes that the position, privilege, perspectives and interactions of the researcher affect it (Charmaz, 2008). Thus, the problem becomes identifying the researchers' positions and personal reflexivity weighing in the effect on the research practice and not denying their existence. This is to say that constructivist grounded theory rejects the idea that researchers begin their studies without prior knowledge and theories about their topics (ibid, 2008).

As such, constructivist grounded research always reflects value positions and therefore it takes a reflexive stance toward actions, situations and participants in the field setting and our analytic constructions of them by acknowledging multiple standpoints (Junek & Killion, 2012). To this end, action strategies such as Action Research (AR) are built upon collaborative and reflexive development of understanding between the participants and their context (Rand, 2013). Its orientation seeks to construct categories of the data rather than assuming that theory emerges from data and aims for an interpretive understanding of the studied phenomenon that accounts for context rather than aiming to achieve rigours explanations and generalizations devoid of context. Furthermore, constructionists see participants' views and voices as integral to the analysis—and its presentation as opposed to giving priority to the researcher's views (ibid). Accordingly, this processes involves four stages for consideration: “1: Reality is multiple, processual, and constructed under particular conditions. 2: The research process emerges from interaction. 3: It takes into account the researcher's positionality, as well as that of the research participants. 4: The researcher and researched co-construct the data—data are a product of the research process, not simply observed objects of it” (Charmaz, 2008: 402).

Following these steps the following sections of this chapters outline the methods I have applied before, during and after the data collection.

3.1. Abductive reasoning

Recently, some researchers have argued that because of the alleged emphasis on generating new theory, grounded theory is epistemologically much closer to what Charles S. Peirce called abduction. Constructivist grounded theory preserves the original strategies such as; open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Priest et al., 2002) but adopt a new epistemological foundation based on induction. This is the comparative and open-ended approach of the original version of grounded theory. More so, it includes abductive reasoning and highlights its flexibility by rejecting mechanical implication of the method (Charmaz, 2008). However, abductive reasoning is thought of as a secondary process of dealing and giving meaning to new observed information during the analysis process (Timmermans, & Tavory, 2012). And since it adopts the iterative and comparative logic where the researcher moves back and forth between iterative and comparative logic, while simultaneously engaging in a systematic comparison of data with data, data with codes, codes with codes and codes with categories (Charmaz, 2009). According to this perspective, abduction reflects the process of creatively inference and double-checking these inferences with data. As such, abduction fits in with the traditional grounded theory recommendation to move back and forth between data and theory iteratively. Therefore, I argue that in the process of theory construction, abduction comes first—temporally and analytically. While constructivist grounded theory still offers useful tools for the organization of qualitative research, it is only in relation to abduction that theory construction becomes meaningful (Timmermans, & Tavory, 2012).

To relate this notion to this paper, the assumption of an abductive research method enables this case study to be considered a scientific method for acquiring data based on observation and further, it does not discriminate against any given methodology or theory, allowing me to asset the most reasonable method and theory to detect and explain the observed. As such, abduction implies looking for and exploring potential explanatory patterns within the facts of a phenomenon. In other words, the abductive hypothesis seeks the most plausible theory to explain the observed phenomenon (Åsvoll, 2014).

3.2. Action Research

Action research is identified as a class of knowledge construction processes that produce scientific knowledge (Greenwood & Levin, 2011). The epistemology of AR is argued, by Greenwood and Levin (2011) to be the closest of all social scientific approaches to enacting the scientific method. To this extend Greenwood & Levin explain that AR involves a set of collaborative methods of conducting social research that satisfies the rigorous scientific requirements, in that *“knowledge is tested in action and in context, thereby meeting the standards for scientific method more effectively than work carried out in the conventional social sciences in the library, on databases, and interpreted by professionals”* (Greenwood & Levin, 2011: 54). In addition, AR sees no superiority between the researcher and the subject of interest. It rests upon a mutually democratic value that stresses equality over theoretical and methodological training. As such, the ideology of AR is to construct project methods and plan comprehensively for social change within the environment the researcher chooses in close collaboration with its local stakeholders (ibid, 2001). For the objective of this thesis, action research and research intervention are directed to address the question of how action is constructed and attempt to observe action as it takes place, as a process built by local actors in a specific location (Melucci, 1995).

3.3. Case study

This thesis is based on a case study on Helsingør City Association. Therefore, I would like to start this section by describing the concept of a case study based on Bent Flyvberg’s (2006) perspectives. In the article ‘Five Misunderstandings About Case-Study Research’ Flyvberg explains that a case-study research, in its most simplistic definition, is a detailed research of a particular observation (Flyvbergs, 2006). However, the more detailed answer refers to why case-study research is at large the predominant research method especially in social sciences. Different from a more traditional deductive approach that wants to conclude with a general or universal statement based on testing using quantitative method, a case study wishes to describe or explain a certain phenomenon based on real-life context-based data predominantly based on qualitative methods (ibid, 2016). Critics of this method are of obvious reasons mostly found in natural sciences etc. Common criticism of case studies argue that *for one*, case studie provide little to no basis for scientific generalisation because the core of the method provides context-based data based on very little sampling. Secondly, case study research is also subject to scepticism because of the lack of rigour. Placing the researcher as a potentially infused party that consciously or

unconsciously may influence the direction of the findings and conclusions. Nonetheless, case studies are considered important because they enable researchers to examine data at a micro level. From an individual perspective and to answer the question as to why case study research is important, I view this in accordance with Hans Eysenck (1976), who originally regarded the case study as nothing more than a method of producing anecdotes and then later realized that *“sometimes we simply have to keep our eyes open and look carefully at individual cases—not in the hope of proving anything, but rather in the hope of learning something!”* (Flyvberg, 2006: p. 6).

3.4. Personal Reflexivity

In the process of action research inquiry, Melucci (1995) recommends three research practices that puts emphasis on process rather than content. To this extent, the first of three practices are: *“it should recognize that actors understand the meaning of their actions, independent of the redeeming or manipulative intentions of researchers* (Melucci, 1995: 58)”. In response to this, I state that the aim of this research project is not so much about making a recommendation for what Helsingør City Association should or shouldn't do to solve the external nor the internal challenges, but rather to detect and diagnose the collective and group mechanism within the network based on literature so to contribute with some thoughts for consideration.

Secondly: *it should recognize that the researcher-actor relationship is itself subject to observation* (ibid: 58)”. In regard of this, one must take into consideration that collective actors are never completely in control of their own realities, nor is the researcher. This is to insinuate a factor of *mattering* that presumes that different realities are enacted concurrently and that these realities exist in interference with one another (Law, 2004).

In other words, in a study of social – personal, -cultural values an opaque aspect exists that is the result of the impossibility of a researcher to simultaneously assume the position of oneself and the point of view of the relationship in which she/he is involved and to which she/he contributes. One cannot simultaneously act and be an analyst, since analysis requires the distance that permits us to assume the point of view of the relationship itself and to metacommunicate about the limits and the possibilities by which action is delimited (Melucci, 1995: 58).

This of course sets the whole idea of action research and research intervention at a test, since the notion of action research and intervention is to stabilize equality between the observer and the

observed. As a precondition then, I must imply the significance of action research for the purpose of this research project, presuming that knowledge about collective identity denotes a significant role in rendering a specific potential for action, thus functioning as an instigator for processes of change because it gives the actors responsibility for the choices they make (ibid, 1995).

Finally, “*it should recognize that any research practice that requires an intervention in the field of action of a given actor creates an artificial situation that must be explicitly acknowledged*” (ibid: 58).

This is to say that a practice as such requires a high degree of *self-reflexivity*. Reflexivity, as defined by Nazia Ali (2011) is more than often linked with qualitative tourism inquiry whereby the researcher is aware of his/her emotional presence in the construction of knowledge as well the conduct of research. Accordingly, Nazia Ali reflects upon emotional reflexivity in tourism study research heightening the experience of various emotions during interpretive sociological-ethnographic fieldwork, rather than researching emotions per se (Ali, 2011). As a result, the argument of emotional reflexivity accounts for the concept *personal reflexivity* or as Melucci (1995) calls it; *self-reflexivity*. In doing so, Ali defines *personal reflexivity* as such:

“Personal reflexivity involves reflecting upon the ways in which our own values, experiences, interests, beliefs, political commitments, wider aims in life and social identities have shaped the research (Ali, 2011: 14)”.

Of particular relevance to this thesis project is ‘personal reflexivity’, because my own reflexivity practice was conducted based on my own personal frustrations, having moved to a local community, currently in an initial phase of development. Furthermore, taking into account my academic background in tourism my strategic ideas to position Helsingør city centrum visually was inspired by my ideological beliefs of seeing the local business environment grow into its potential as a local, historic, charming and authentic city for tourists as well its inhabitants.

This is, however, not unusual. In fact, Holland (2007) explains that “*the magnitude of emotions experienced by researchers are juxtapositions of academic, personal and professional identities and subjectivities, which need to be accounted for in the research process (Ali, 2011: 15)*”. Indeed, researchers cannot escape the emotional encounters, experiences and expressions in their investigations since emotions are indispensable for the acquisition of human knowledge (Ali, 2011). Altogether, in following these recommendations, this is research that proposition a study on collective identity starts off as an illusion of being a reflection of the true reality. However, it

gradually moves on to a closer understanding of its very nature. As such, a self-reflexive process is socially constructed within the limits of a given social cultural field (ibid).

4. Data collection

In the following section, the methods for collecting data for this thesis will be presented and unfolded for the reader to understand what underlies the analysis and what approaches and choices have been taken during the empirical data collection.

4.1. Recruitment process

Capturing knowledge involves identifying both internal and external knowledge suppliers for an organization or a destination, profiling important individuals, knowledge already held and gaps (Cooper, 2005). Since this study is mostly concerned with the internal knowledge suppliers, those who provide operational knowledge, knowledge already held and the gaps purposive sampling was chosen for this purpose.

Purposive sampling involves a process by which individuals are selected based on the focus of the study. In this case, the sampling process was first of all based on my theoretical consideration related to knowledge dynamics in social networks. This also correlates with the notion of constructive grounded theory. My prior knowledge about Helsingør city centrum and HCA inevitably affected my interest in researching network dynamics. Secondly, to achieve the best possible representation of the case study, informant sampling was intuitively the best approach, as this is based on recruiting members with special knowledge about HCA. My considerations in this process also included thoughts about who to talk with. Since I was interested in HCA and the inter-organisational links I excluded no one from the board staff. Consequently, I invited all 9 members, whom I consider special informants, to achieve a homogeneous sample. However, two members were not able to participate. One never showed up and two wanted to participate but were not able to. As such, the data collected for this thesis is based on the narratives given by the 6 members who were able to participate (Daniel, 2012).

4.3. Ethics

A discussion of ethnographic research would not be complete without addressing ethics. In this regard it is important that the objects of study are not compromised by our research or made involuntary participants (Adams, 2012). To this end, researchers are ethically required to secure permission for their research from the relevant participants of the study and also to reveal the research aim to those who are being studying. Also, ethnographers should consider ensuring the anonymity of community participants and use coded names in field notes and other writings (ibid, 2012).

Ethics was a main concern of my in the introductory faze of the recruitment process. Therefore, the participants of the thesis project were contacted though email. The aim of the project was introduced and also how they could contribute with information.

The interviewees were recruited through an email invitation, in which I introduced myself as a student at university currently finalizing my studies in tourism in Copenhagen. I made it clear where I had found their contact information and also why I was interested in a conversation with these specific individuals and in the network as a whole. In essence, I made clear that by accepting my invitation they would be interviewed and also that their stories were to be used only in my thesis project.

However, due to my relationship with the municipality and the network of interests, the results of my thesis will be handed to a team of business consultants working at Helsingør municipality and also Helsingør City Association. This agreement happened during the interview process and was accepted by the interviewees under the condition that the interviewees' identities are made anonymous. By this virtue, this illustrates that research projects that assets AR proclaim no exclusive ownership of the research. Rather, the action researcher *“centers on doing “with” rather than doing “for” stakeholders and credits local stakeholders with the richness of experience and reflective possibilities that long experience living in complex situations brings with it”* (Greenwood & Levin, 2011: 2).

4.4. Exploratory qualitative research

Life narratives are difficult to capture through quantitative data. However, they are especially important for the present project, since social interactions create specific structures of meaning that influence individual perceptions, which, in turn, affect participation in social networks. To capture tacit knowledge about individuals' experience of HCA, why they are members and about network dynamics, a qualitative interview method seemed best suited for this purpose and interviews were recorded on my iPhone.

Narrative analysis was chosen for the purpose of putting focus on the individual story (Tinggaard & Brinkmann, 2015). In addition, when dealing with the collected data, transcription was subsequently conducted whilst taking notes. The interviews were executed between March and May 2018 between kl. 8.30 and 12.00. The length of each interview varied between 20 – 45 minutes. All interviews were completed at the individual members' workplace since most of them are owners of a one-man operation.

The above section has advanced action research, which represents a constructivist perspective. This is followed by an interactive epistemology that wishes to advance the realities of the members of Helsingør City Association by employing narrative methods.

For this purpose interviews were extremely valuable because they provide insight and clarity into the perspectives of the research subjects (McGehee, 2012). According to Squire (2008), the experience-centred approach assumes that narratives represent experience; reconstruct experience and display transformation and change (Mura & Sharif, 2017). Since I am interested in the realities of the individuals, the design of the interview guide was mainly semi-structured (McGehee, 2012). However, the execution played out very unconstructive and more like a conversation that gave me new information and insight.

4.5. Research advantages and limitations

This section mentions the limitations of ethnographic methodology. However, I start by its advantages. The biggest advantage by applying this epistemological method in tourism research is that it enables me to advocate tourism researchers and studies to be more attentive to the different groups interacting in or at tourist sites (Adams, 2012). In other words, I can focus on the world of fieldworkers and how they experience reality as it is, rather than how it is staged.

However, the limitations are also worth mentioning. Firstly, ethnographic research is tremendously time-consuming. Secondly, there is risk of researcher bias, which is why it is important for the researcher to proclaim his/her position in the research process, as I have accounted for using the concept personal reflexivity. Finally, ethnographic research methods have been critiqued for being too specific, not applicable in general terms (Adams, 2012). However, since this paper uses action research, it is clear that it withdraws from any general assumptions, while it instead intends to be very context-based.

4.6. Data analysis & results

There are to date only a small number of examples and applications of knowledge management across networks of tourism organisations. However the significance of the approach is growing rapidly as tourism practitioner realise the value of knowledge sharing within and networks as well through networks, and particularly the encouragement of collaboration to create a true learning network or destination (Cooper, 2015).

In this regard, I, in this section introduce the so far developed concepts in knowledge management literature that enables a study of knowledge flow. In doing so Cooper (2015) identifies three stages for knowledge management characteristics, namely; knowledge stocks, knowledge capture and knowledge codification. The first step, which involves identifying knowledge stocks, refers to a process wherein the researcher starts by scanning the current knowledge environment to understand the gaps, which subsequently needs to be filled with knowledge. This step is expanded upon in the following section. Once knowledge stocks have been identified then knowledge needs to undergo a process of interpretation. Using Coopers words, this process is identified as knowledge capturing and is exemplified using narrative analysis. A third step involves coding the captured knowledge. This process is done using concepts grounded in constructivist grounded theory. By implementing these steps I hope to firstly, contribute with some

understanding accounting for the narrative analysis along side knowledge flows. Secondly, how tacit knowledge is translated into information about how knowledge flows in HCA are prevented from occurring.

4.6.1. Characteristics of knowledge management

The first stage of a knowledge management process is to understand the current knowledge environment of network through a process of a knowledge mapping (Cooper, 2015). This involves an examination of current knowledge stocks in the networks. This process enables an overview of existing knowledge against knowledge required for development. It is therefore a process that identifies the gaps of knowledge that needs to be filled with knowledge creation. For the purpose of this analysis I was interested in capturing tacit knowledge.

4.6.2. Tacit knowledge

Cooper view social networks as a space of inter-connections between individual and where knowledge recourses flow (ibid, 2015: 19). His assumption therefor suggests that networks are essentially knowledge spaces wherein individuals are both the generators and creator of knowledge and meaning (Cooper, 2015). It is in this context that tacit knowledge become imperative to understand since the circumstances under which tacit knowledge exist involves social processes (ibid, 2015). It is within this realm of argument I value tacit knowledge and therefore an effective tool to explore the unsolicited knowledge about knowledge dynamics in HCA.

Generally, in knowledge studies there are two forms of knowledge, explicit and tacit knowledge. Polanyi (1966) identifies explicit knowledge as knowledge that can be codified, specified verbally or in writing. The latter, which is put in foci here entails know-how and skills. It refers to experienced knowledge we know but cannot easily tell and is gained and shared through practice and observation (McLeod & Roger, 2015; Nonaka & rogh, 2009; Polanyi, 1966). Nonaka & rogh (2009) argue that tacit knowledge is tied to the senses, tactile experiences, movement skills, intuition, unarticulated mental models, or implicit rules of thumb. It is rooted in action, routines, commitment, ideals, values and emotions (Nonaka & rogh, 2009)– and is embedded within the personal (Cooper, 2015). In correspondence, Dredge (2014) sate: *“Tacit knowledge is less easy to isolate, existing in the personal qualities, experiences and life worlds of individuals, often*

emerging from a coalescence of cognitive and technical knowledge (Dredge, 2014: 4).” In addition, Cooper explains that access to tacit knowledge in local networks enables competitive advantages in a destination more so than explicit knowledge, which is more globally accessible (ibid).

To capture network dynamics in HCA tacit knowledge is considered best for this task. Based on research inquiry narratives are taken into review to expose the encultured knowledge of individuals’ experiences of the network (Dredge, 2014).

Encultured knowledge refers to the process of achieving shared understandings such as cultural meaning systems that are related to processes of socialization (Bednarska & Olszewski, 2013). The function of this type of tacit knowledge correlates with what Passy (2000) calls the *socializing function of networks*. This concept put emphasis on the identification process, as Passy puts it: “*People engage in collective action because they share certain norms and values with a specific social movement. Participation, in turn, helps them to reproduce their collective identity* (ibid, 2000: 4)”. In as such, encultured knowledge makes it possible for me to expose individuals telling about collective identity and collective action and the events leading to stakeholder collaboration.

To turn back to the mapping exercise, which is, to capture tacit knowledge I refer to an analysis of narratives.

4.6.3. Narrative analysis

Generally speaking the concept “narrative analysis” implies a set of methods of inquiry that focuses on the study of narratives that represent different written or oral forms of realities (Mura & Sharif, 2017). To this end, narratives are viewed as representative constructs of individuals’ realities or collective meanings. This is to say that narrative analyses are important lenses through which we can explore people’s social reality. “*It is a methodological approach that goes beyond the mere analysis of texts as it is concerned with the scrutiny of the social phenomena that activate, produce, organise, and transmit stories*” (ibid, 2017: 3). Thus, the inclusion of narrative analysis in this thesis reflect a view of narratives as important realities when trying to understand the meanings individuals attach to their experiences and how they make sense of their realities.

The technique of narrative analysis that I employ in this study is described in theoretical terms as the contextual aspect of individuals’ experience. In this order, Gubrium and Holstein (2009) suggest some steps. These include first; fieldwork in the setting where the stories of interests are produced. In this context this is done based on my prior knowledge about the current situation in

Helsingør city centrum. Secondly: collection of empirical material by employing audio and detailed field notes. This part has been addressed during data collection. Thirdly: an analysis of data that is, the analysis of the processes of meaning making. For this purpose I integrate the concepts constructive grounded theory, which will be advanced in a following section. And lastly: an analysis of the situational terrain, namely the specific physical and socio-cultural situation in which narrative work takes places. This last step will take form as a discussion based on the results of this empirical material (Mura & Sharif, 2017: 6-7). For now, however, the third stage is discussed upon in the following section.

4.7. Data coding: A grounded theory perspective on capturing and interpreting tacit knowledge

Following the presented stages of narrative analysis, this following section addresses how the empirical material was analyzed. In doing this I refer to the fundamental concepts from constructive grounded theory. These steps are here termed in accordance with Priest's and her colleagues' terminology, namely; open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Priest et al., 2002).

4.7.1. Open coding

The term open coding refers to a process in which the analytic process primarily involves taking the data apart and examining the discrete parts for differences and similarities. Data is here considered as sentence or paragraph of speech from the interviews (Priest et al., 2002). I contribute to this process by implementing the recommendation of Gubrium and Holstein (2009). This is to say that data was managed over several times. In as such, data was firstly managed during a process of transcription whilst taking notes and then again to code the meaning of the stories. A hermeneutic approach was implemented during transcription as well afterwards (Hollinshead, 2006) where emphasis was on 'what is told' while again, taking notes of this (Tamboukou, 2017) - see image 2. The main purpose of the approach was to enable a string of themes to become visible.

Mig: Okay. Vil du fortælle mig, hvad du, med dine egne ord og opfattelse prøver at opnå i city foreningen?

Jeg tror det er meget individuelt, hvad vi har af mål i det. Men jeg kunne rigtig godt tænke mig, at vi fik mere sammenhold i den her by.... Jeg kunne godt tænke mig, at der kom mere sjæl i den her by.. at der skete noget i gaderne, at folk kom hernede og tænkte: ej hvor er her hyggeligt, her vil vi gerne komme igen. Jeg syntes at byen her er for kedelige. Og fra mit eget synspunkt, tog jeg andre steder hen når jeg skulle handle, og det blev jeg sådan ked af, når jeg nu selv har en butik her i byen. Jeg synes at der mangler noget, og det vil jeg gerne være med til at skabe.

Mig: Du bruger nogle ord som sammenhold og sjæl, vil du prøve at uddybe hvad du mener med, når du bruger de ord?

Altså sammenhold: Det er jo fordi jeg rigtig godt gerne vil have, at butikkerne ligesom står mere sammen om det. Jeg synes det er rigtig ærgerligt, at man ikke, i en lille by som Helsingør ikke kan afvise f.eks. nogle som åbningstider. Det er jo et kæmpe stort issue her. At man ikke kan have nogle regler... eller ikke regler, men måske en fælles forståelse for, at jo mere vi står sammen om de her ting, jo bedre ser det ud for kunden og jo flere kunder får. Og det syntes jeg er rigtig ærgerligt, at det ikke sker.. og det er ligesom de ting jeg gerne vil være med til ændre på og tilføje god energi omkring.
... og sjæl.. så er det fordi jeg godt kunne tænke mig, at når man kommer ind som kunde i Helsingør, at man synes at det er hyggeligt. Altså...at det bare var sådant at man bare tænker, ej hvor er her vildt hyggeligt at være...
Vi har nogle vildt flotte bygninger, altså har så meget at byde på i den her by. Vi har vand, skov, Kronborg.. alting tæt på. Og alligevel syntes jeg at byen er lidt hmmm.

"What is told"

Notes

Image. 2

OPEN CODING

Jonathan Vig Witzke 24/7/2018 13:04

Kommentar [1]: Katja bruger i sin forklaring, ord som sammenhold og mere sjæl i byen. Hun syntes at byen skal have mere sammenhold og i forhold til byens udtryk udtrykker hun at hun godt tænke sig at byen var mere hyggelig og have mere sjæl.

Ordene sammenhold og sjæl beskrives mere uddybende se L. 25 - 36

Keywords: sammenhold, sjæl og hygge

Jonathan Vig Witzke 24/7/2018 13:05

Kommentar [2]: Se hvad Lulus love og evt. Kim og Christina siger i forhold til fælles åbningstider.

Jonathan Vig Witzke 24/7/2018 13:07

Kommentar [3]: Der er en forståelse af, at jo bedre byen ser ud og jo bedre sammenhold der er mellem butikkerne desto flere kunder er der potentiale for at tiltrække.

Jonathan Vig Witzke 24/7/2018 13:09

Kommentar [4]: HER ER DER EN DIREKTE KOBLING MELLEM HVAD DER MENES I FORHOLD TIL MERE SJÆL I BYEN. - HYGGE UDTRYKKER OG SKABER EN SJÆLELIG STEMNING

4.7.2. Axial coding

Whereas open coding is used to break down the data and to identify first level concepts and categories, axial coding is the term used to denote the way in which connections are made in new ways between categories and sub-categories (ibid, 2002). This is to say, that axial coding enables the identification of specific features, such as the conditions that give rise to the phenomenon and the context in which the concept is embedded, which in turn help to give precision to a category that illustrates the difference and or similarities based on the first step.

Tabel 1. Axial coding	Open coding / data with data					
	P3	P2	P5	P4	P1	P6
Local business unity/ collaboration	L:14-15		L: 121-128	L: 155- 165	L: 33-37	L:7-15/35-46
Collaboration with municipality, DMO / City events		L:109-124	L:235-238 -310	L: 83- 112	L: 38-61	
Bus-tourists / border-shopping / tourists groups	L:110-122			L: 21-30/ 64-79	L: 116-127	
City infrastructure/ Visibility/ Marketing	L:47-64/124-132	L:28- 46		L:17-19	L:131-156	L:51-58/ 255-264
Internal structure/ knowledge sharing/members/ economy	L:68-88/145-203	L:8-15/ 37-94	L:99-117/156-188		L: 189 - 219/250-264	L: 61- 219/ 320-327
The cities appearance/ atmosphere/	L:15-33		L:46-74	L: 114-148	L: 230- 244	

4.7.3. Selective coding

Selective coding involves identifying one or two core categories to which previous sub-categories relate. This process enables a conceptual framework from which one can develop a constructivist grounded theory. As such, this final step calls for an integration of previous codes and categories to build a coherent theory (ibid, Priest et al, 2002). The result of this process is presented in table 2.

The presented results of the data analysis are, as illustrated in table 2, divided into 3 steps, namely *open coding*, *axial coding* and *selective coding*. These individual steps display the different categories – general and sub-categories. The general categories help enable the conceptual frame of the data analysis (*selective analysis*), while also enabling the sub-categories (see table 1.), which specify, more or less the coded sentences observed in the first step of open-coding.

The results of the coded data will in the following chapter integrate the grounded theory, which is displayed in every selective coding category. In doing so, the coded narratives represent the knowledge mapping exercise.

Data comments

As a final comment to this chapter I would like to address the process in which data is implemented and discussed upon in the following chapter.

The results of the coded data will be integrated to advance the common voice of the interviews to avoid repetition. However, in some cases selective comments from individuals will be advanced to put emphasis of central points or to express a situation, which might not be explicit for outsiders to understand. Comments are however heuristically translated from Danish to English and composed to again avoid repetition, therefore some comments might stand out as extensive. In addition, individuals are presented as P – (nr) this is a consideration in light of ethics, since the results of the thesis study will subsequently be presented to both HCA and a team of business consultants from Helsingør Municipality. Furthermore, other individuals are presented as X. They represent the individuals that are commonly addressed as the central positioned in HCA. They were unable to participate and therefore I feel it is necessary to anonymize them as much as possible as they have not had a chance to comment on some of the frank comments from other participants.

5. Introduction: A network analysis for destination collaboration

Until recent times, the location of economic activity has been an undetected area of study. However, with the recent literature within sustainable destination development, scholars of tourism have called for a greater emphasis on qualitative research in the area of small firms. In the same vein of argument, Moyes et al. (2014) state that the achievement of regional well-being and sustainable growth is now considered to be closely linked to the survival of local firms and their ability to grow (Moyes et al., 2014).

Even though HCA essentially exist on the premises of individual business owners, my interest is not so much in local destination firms *per se*, but rather the way in which they are connected in a social network. To position the network in a tourism context, I refer to Binkhorst (2004) who puts emphasis on the ‘tourist experience’ as a system that encompasses all organs in a tourism destination. She calls this the *human being* tourism system. Indeed, the tourism experience system forces us to focus on the human and to consider his/her daily routines. As a result, the processes of developing the host environment include both the host environment as well as the potential visitors. As it is stated in the following: “A *tourism network approach facilitates the inclusion of all stakeholders who might be involved in the creation of tourism experiences* (Binkhorst, 2004: 3)”. In correspondence to this, Dredge (2006) contributes with the term ‘local tourism organisation’ (LTO) and explains that, in most destinations, LTOs stabilize the functionality of the destination. LTOs are “*sets of formal and informal networks that span public and private sectors. These may include sector specific sub-networks and other localised sub-networks of interest based around a locality, an issue or a similar worldview* (Dredge, 2006: 270).

As a final note on this topic, in this context HCA is identified as a local tourism organisation that contributes to –and forms part of– the tourism experience. In other words, this paper adopts an ecosystem approach to express that HCA is not an entity that exists in isolation but instead forms part of a system of multiple tourism organs. Whether these are directly linked to tourism activities or not, they contribute to the tourism experience.

5.1. Social tourism network analysis

For the opening of this chapter, I would like to start by addressing social movement thinking in a tourism context and its connection to an analysis of HCA as a social network.

As I have previously stated, social networks are formed in a process whereby several different actors, be they individuals, informal groups or organizations, that joint based on shared ideals for collaboration. In this case collective identity enables a widen analysis and discussion about the motivations to collaborate. This is based on the participant's interpretation of the encultured knowledge. Social movement thinking enables a terminology and defines a frame in which conflict can be analysed in depth. It is the assumption of most network scholars that social networks emerge within cultural settings. Indeed, what is challenged is not only the uneven distribution of e.g., power or economic goods but also the shared meanings and the interpretation of meanings, that which exist in the social and cultural setting (Diani, 1992). This notion brings me closer to the following section, which on the one hand analyses the collective identity of HCA and in this sense articulates collective action. On the other, it challenges the concept of collective identity as merely the coming together to achieve shared goals. Yes, this is a partial explanation, but the real question is why. By asking why to start with, I hope to situate the reader in a cultural spare where things are happening simultaneously and where no singular theoretical concept explaining phenomena can be discussed in isolation. Indeed, this is the core argument Passy (2000) presents as she tries to close the gap between a structural and a rational perspective. To this end, she argues that social networks are key for bridging the gap between structure and agency. Firstly, social structures and interactions provide individuals with cultural resources that they may use for joining collective action. Secondly, social networks are islands of meanings that shape individuals' perception, which ultimately form the cognitive argument for participation (Passy, 2002: 7).

Taking this into consideration, the following section includes an analysis of organisational network dynamics using Hatch and Schultz's (2002) concepts, namely mirroring and reflection, to explore in detail and from different angles the events that ultimately lead to collection action – and thereby asking why. For this purpose, tacit knowledge is tested in relation the encultured knowledge of members to highlight - how stakeholder collaboration is affected by internal knowledge dynamics. However, before I start digging into the why – I start by presenting the current situation, that is, the establishment of collective identity

5.2. Collective identity: The sense-making of network collaboration

In the following section I contribute to the conversation with reference to collective identity by analysing the encultured knowledge within the HCA. This concept refers to the shared understanding of systems of meaning related to the processes of socialization.

Social networks exist inasmuch as individuals can be convinced to become personally involved in collective action. It is therefore not surprising that the impact of individual participation, e.g. the presence or absence of participation in individual networks, has worn much interest in academia in recent years (Dinai, 2003).

In the journal *‘Organisations, coalitions and movements’* Diani and Bison (2004) refer to social networks as distinctive processes in their own right. In as such, they show how a network perspective differentiates from other countercultural or sub-cultural processes and cases of collective action. In doing so, they analyse network coalitions as social network processes by mainly emphasizing the interpersonal and small group element. They argue: “*A social movement process is occurring to the extent that long-term bonds and shared identities translate into sustained networks between independent actors [...] in pursuit of shared goals* (Diani and Bison, 2004: 303).” In this regard, collective identity is considered a process associated with the recognition of, and connectedness with, a common purpose and shared interest in a cause. As a result, individual stakeholders involved in collective action no longer merely pursue specific goals but come to regard themselves as elements of much larger and encompassing processes of change (ibid). In correspondence, Polletta & Jasper (2001) define collective identity as follows:

“An individual’s cognitive, moral, and emotional connection with a broader community [...]. It is a perception of a shared status or relation, which may be imagined rather than experienced directly, and it is distinct from personal identities, although it may form part of a personal identity [...]. Collective identities are expressed in cultural materials—names, narratives, symbols, verbal styles, rituals, clothing, and so on—but not all cultural materials express collective identities (Polletta & Jasper, 2001: 285)”.

In addition to this, Melucci (1995) defines collective identity as the process of constructing an action system produced by several individuals concerned with the orientations of action within the field of opportunities (Melucci, 1995). Thus, the term collective identity refers to “*a network of active relationships between individuals who interact, communicate, influence each other, negotiate and make decisions* (Melucci, 1995: 45)”.

To this end, participants have e.g. expressed that their initial reason to collaborate is due to internal communicative issues in opposition with the initial goals of HCA. These are:

‘Alternating board chairman, Challenging leadership, Bad communication internal & external, No knowledge sharing, Lazy board members, Bad reputation, unstable economy, no will to change (see table 2).’

The coded observations highlight an essential point from Passy’s (2000) research. She argues that networks are not only channels for mobilizing individuals to a specific protest issue, but rather that individuals close to a protest issue are observers of that embedded network culture. As a result, they can ultimately facilitate the emergence of an objection from within the network itself (Passy, 2000).

The results of the coded data correspond with Passy’s observations. The extent to which this is experienced from individuals is expressed as such:

“Everything was a bit sloppy, with incorrect information all around. And even though everyone wanted to shake things up it was impossible, they did not want listen to anyone, and wanted things to stay the same (P2. pp. 3: 111-117).”

In addition to this, P1 expresses:

“The leadership has controlled the function of the association for too long now, especially because they have withheld important information and also management has had too much information, which they neglected to share. For instance, they have participated in a lot of local meetings with e.g. the municipality and other important networks and stakeholders, but they never bothered to share what the meetings were about nor what they had learned. In other words, they controlled the association more or less in the way they wanted to, regardless of what we thought was right or wrong. And this is way we have respectively asked them to step down from their function” (pp. 6: 215-221).

The above statements as well as the coded data illustrate the appearance of collective identity stemming from an observed issue within the network. The reasons are based on the sense of togetherness towards stabilizing or inserting change. Indeed, this is also the reason given by individuals as to why they are a part of HCA. Generally speaking, they share the same goals and visions for Helsingør city centre and the future business life in their city. They believe that by becoming a network they can, in the foreseeable future, advance their goals and visions. However, they all believe that this is only possible through local collaboration. Thus, the arguments for

collaborating are to enhance: ‘local business unity and collaboration’ and to improve ‘city infrastructure, visibility and marketing’ for the city. (see table 1).

In as such, the collective identity exists based on Polletta & Jasper’s (2001) notion, which is the *“individual’s cognitive, moral, and emotional connection with a broader community”* (Polletta & Jasper, 2001: 285). Passy (2000) explains that the function of a social network is connected to the process where individual participation is a cultural function. This means, that the function is established through the connectedness of the participants, that is, their desire to insert “change, that shape their identity and provides them with a social consciousness that allow them to become ideologically closer to their given issues” (Polletta & Jasper, 2001).

Collective identity is, as demonstrated above, the process of meaning-making. It lays the fundamental arguments that address the motivation for collaboration. It is not my intention to discuss collaboration theory, however its arguments are well suited to further our understanding of the collective identity process as it is presented above. In this regard, Jamal and Getz (1995) describe the process of collaborating as an effective tool to resolve conflict and/or advance shared visions, where stakeholders realize the potential advantage of working together. Indeed, they define collaboration as the process of joint decision-making amongst relevant stakeholders who choose to collaborate for the sole purpose of solving domestic problems that might affect the further development of the tourism community (Jamal and Getz, 1995). In this sense, stakeholders are defined as actors with an interest in a common problem or issue and include individuals, groups/networks or organisations that are directly influenced by the actions others take to solve a problem (ibid, 1995).

In a previous section, I present the context of the related issues that currently exist in Helsingør city centre. The main point of that section was to shed light on the economic inequality between Helsingør city centre and The Culture Yard, which is directly linked to tourism and the distribution of tourists. My observation is also identified as one of the biggest challenges HCA faces and wishes to do something about through local collaboration. In this regard, participants have expressed, for instance:

“We have a lot of tourists in Helsingør but they all stay at the Culture Yard. Another issue is bad parking for inhabitants and regional shoppers. A third issue is that tourists mostly come and leave by bus. And last,

however with great significance, there is a huge lack of visual information that can inform tourists about the city or at least where to find it” (See table 2.).

However, this is only one side of the challenges that the city centre faces. For instance, participant P4 explains:

“It really is a shame. We have a lot of tourist attractions, a perfectly located city with a lot of history, nature and water, but we have yet to manage the huge potential. There is a surplus of potential customers from all over the world as well as from the nearby areas and a lot of wedding tourists, but no one has been able to use this potential (pp.: 2: L 37-42). [...] This is really a problem for us since we compete with cities such as Copenhagen and Lyngby. Not even our own local inhabitants shop or eat here. They all go Copenhagen or Lyngby. And if I am to tell the truth so do I. The quality of restaurants is low and so is that of many of the stores. It really is a shame” (L: 64-70).

In a conversation with P5, I asked him to share his thoughts on some of the current challenges in the city centre. To this he responded:

“The city is under much scrutiny at the current stage. Stores are constantly opening and closing. Then there is the issue of having too many alcohol stores, which occupies a lot of the space and image of the city. It looks messy with all those stands on the street side. I mean, the only people who actually use these stores are Swedish border tourists. And they do not shop -yes, they eat here and buy alcohol because it is cheaper here than in Sweden, but these are not the customers we can rely on. This is essentially what I hear from many of my business peers. Most are on the verge of having to close their shops (pp. 1-2)”

Comments like these essentially encapsulate not only the opinion of participants but also of what I can judge based on the conversations participants have with their business peers (who are not a part of HCA.). This is the general atmosphere in Helsingør city centre. To sum up, this situation is essentially what HCA wants to change. In as such, the collaboration process here is as Jamal and Getz have defined it, one where stakeholders realize the potential advantage of collaborating to 1, advance a shared vision, that which is defined by their collective identity, and 2, to resolve conflict.

Introductory to the chapter, I discussed collective identity to clarify members’ perspective on the dynamics within the network that have occasioned the initial process of collective identity. In the above section, I have addressed the exterior environment and how it is connected to the process of collective identity. In the following section I turn inward and address the internal setting and its connection with the process of collective identity and thus collective action.

5.3. A disposition for collective action

In most cases, social movements are inextricably linked to public expression of social conflict (Diani and Bison, 2004). In this sense, collective action addresses collective problems, such as societal and communal issues, to achieve public goods or express support to moral values or principles. It does so by identifying targets for collective efforts, specifically articulated in social or political terms as seen in the case of Helsingør city centre. In as such, collective action is associated with social networks to the extent that it challenges the behaviour of specific social actors, human or non-human (ibid). However, even though collective action is traditionally connected to conflictual elements, these do not necessarily imply the identification of specific adversaries trying to reduce the assets and opportunities of one's group or preventing chances to expand them. Nor do they imply blaming any specific actor, human or non-human, for the state of things they intend to change. Indeed, sustained collective action does not include a conflictual element. Following this reasoning, Diani and Bison state that collective actions can occur when individuals come together to produce benefits through co-operative efforts (ibid), a disposition that correlates with stakeholder thinking.

The disposition for collective action in this case is for instance exemplified by P6's comment. In this comment knowledge-sharing between relevant stakeholders, whether they are a part of HCA or not, is imperative in an effort to produce benefits and advance the shared vision for Helsingør city centre.

"My attitude towards knowledge-sharing, whether you are a member or not is this: all local businesses in the city centre should receive the same information, especially information about local events. If you count the current members we have now considering the potential there is a huge difference and a long way to go. This is to say; when we only share information with the few current members, the result of this is typically that we end up with an almost closed city at bigger events. And this is really a problem because when customers or tourist come to our city, they experience a city that is almost closed down. And while we as an association exist on the economic support of our memberships, such knowledge sharing should not be only for our members because it hurts our local, regional, national and international reputation and at the end of the day, we must remember that we live off of our customers" (P6: pp. 3: 72-86).

In support of this, P3 explains:

"I will put it this way: during the majority of time in which I have been a board member, we haven't moved anywhere. The mentality was 'we do this this way and as such we will continue. I must say I found this way of operating very hard and difficult (P. 2: 69-72) [...]. Just to get practical information was difficult. You had to ask for every bit of information more than once or twice. You feel blindsided when suddenly things

are happening around you that you know nothing about. Or another example: you have to do something, and you can't really do it because you need information that you are probably never going to receive. Because information was held from us, it was hard to perform your functions as board members, especially because you can't ask the right questions when you don't know what to ask about (P. 5: 175- 177). [...]. We were never taken seriously... I felt overheard and irrelevant... I honestly felt like a dressing doll. I realised that I was probably invited on as a board member for that exact function in the first place, just to be a member there, because the city association can only exist as long as there are enough board members" (pp.: 181- 187).

As a means to combat the problems of internal communication within HCA, P6 explains:

"Things had to change if I was to stay on as a board member. I couldn't keep my mouth shut and this made me very unpopular. We do this in our 'spare' time because we want to create the best possible benefits for our city, our customers and our local business community. We cannot do this behind closed doors whilst not sharing information internally or externally. Things had to change!"

The statement '*things had to change*' explains the disposition for collective action. That is to say, that the effects of knowledge prevention prohibit innovation and progression. As P3 puts it: '*during the majority of time in which I have been a board member, we haven't moved anywhere*'.

In fact, knowledge prevention prohibits any opportunity for knowledge capture, absorption and transformation. In a constantly developing industry like tourism, the effects of withholding information might lead to costly restructuring and strategic drift. In fact, the immobility of ideas and information inhibits all these processes from occurring. If knowledge-sharing is the new economy and is directly linked with ability of a destination to stay ahead and innovate, then the rational opposition of this most insinuates destination stagnation. I say this not as a conclusion on the situation of Helsingør. Even though Helsingør city centre is under much scrutiny, as P5 insinuates, it is important to keep in mind that this is only one side of the story. As I have mentioned earlier, this is not the case at The Culture Yard.

The paradox of this situation is for another research study, however a comment on this is necessary.

It is widely acknowledged that tourism contributes with economic growth and therefore largely improves the quality of life of residents. However, for some time now, its sociocultural impact has stayed undetected with not much literature on the subject (Andereck et al. 2005: Haywood, 1988). In fact, tourism development has been justified due of the economic benefits that typically follow for many years (Ko & Stewart, 2001). However, a rising issue in new tourism literature is the local perception of the impact tourism development has on their community (ibid, 2001). The rising

interest in this subject is based on the increasing evidence that tourism development leads not only to positive outcomes but has also the potential for negative outcomes at the local level on the grounds of social, cultural or environmental destruction (ibid).

The recognition of this has prompted scholars to centralize community residents as an important element for the establishment of development of tourism activities, especially within the tourism policy and planning literature.

To this end, network analysis in tourism communities has gained much popularity in recent years. These contributions generally emphasise the crucial benefits of collaboration and partnerships between local stakeholders and private and/or public networks. The notions of tourism scholars prescribe local inter-organisational links as the force for destination community development and destination competitiveness. A contribution to this argument is even newer literature that centralizes human agency and the effects of inter-organisational relation. However, this is still a relatively undetected area of research. It is therefore in my interest to discuss human agency in various aspects connected to resolving conflictual circumstances for collaboration and thus collective action. This will be the subject of the following section.

So far, the lack of knowledge-sharing has been identified as the conflict that has needed resolving within HCA. The following section adds to our understanding of collective identity. The intention is to critically address the concept of collective identity as merely the coming together to achieve shared goals. Thus, the argument of the following section stipulates that collective identity is one that is created in a dance between culture and the self-reflexivity of culture. To explore this, I use Hatch and Schultz's (2002) model of organisational identity dynamics.

6. A critical discussion of collective identity

What seems to be a large part of being a collective, according to Polletta & Jasper, is as simple as a name (the cultural material), in this case Helsingør City Association. However, a quite curtail point is that a collective identity exists based on two accepts. The first and perhaps the most elementary have been discussed in length in above sections. The later points to its social recognition by the external setting (Diani, 2003; Melucci, 1995). This leads to an interesting debate about the function of the collective identity, that is to produce symbolic orientation and meanings that its members are able to recognize. Secondly, the collective regulates membership of individuals and defines requirements for joining, thereby defining the criteria by which its members recognize themselves and are recognized by others (Melucci, 1995). In reference to this, the distinctiveness between recognizing oneself and being recognized by others raises a critical question about the degree to which others recognize HCA, its requirements and its functionality.

In this section, ‘requirements’ are related to those already accounted for in the section of case study presentation. These are related to those who are not board members but who support the purpose of HCA economically, the members of the association.

To refresh our memory, requirements for membership are predefined and based on the premises of representing a local business in Helsingør city centre. The recognition of ‘others’ is therefore related to the perception of HCA in the local business community. Therefore, the perception by others of HCA is linked to the functionality of HCA, and therefore its identity, in more than one way. My assumption of this leads me into a discussion about the weaknesses of rationalist tradition and where the structural tradition make sense for analysis in this case.

The contingency of Passy’s (2000) argument stipulates that rational perspectives typically only account for one end of the process that leads to collective action, namely the moment when one has chosen to join the movement. However, participation usually starts with a phase, which authors have identified as the “*initial dispositions to participate*” (Passy, 2000:7). It is this phase of initial disposition to participate that contributes to our understanding of the question why. This is the subject matter in the following section and is discussed in reference to Hatch and Schultz’s (2002) theory of organizational identity.

6.1. Organisational identity dynamics theory

So far, I have demonstrated the collective identity of HCA; members wish to empower the local business community through local collaborative actions. However, we must also theorize based on the concept of collective identity as well as inserting it as an analytical tool. The following contributes with some theoretical consideration regarding network identity.

Using Mead's (1934) concepts 'I' and 'Me', Hatch and Schultz (2002) discuss organizational identity in relation to both culture and image in order to understand how internal and external definitions of organizational identity interact. Mead conceptualizes identity using the terms 'I' and 'Me'. Identity 'I' is responsive to the attitudes of others and linked to the underlying layers of meaning, values and belief in the embedded culture of an organisation. It is different from identity 'Me', as it not given by what others think about it. The implementation of 'I'-identity in analyses of organizational dynamics enables an investigation of the underlying mechanisms. Indeed, Hatch and Schultz define it as the implicit organizational understandings (e.g. assumptions, beliefs and values) that contextualize efforts to make meaning, including internal self-definition (Hatch and Schultz, 2002:996). In as such, it is with reference to organizational culture that the organizational 'I' is defined. This process is exemplified in the above sections, where emphasis has been placed on the encultured knowledge about the internal network culture.

'Me'- identity is thought of as the organized sets of attitudes of others, which reflect the assumptions of others about organizational members or the organizational culture (ibid, 2002). In other words, 'Me'- identity is about image; the images formed and held by external stakeholder (the 'others'). It is the defined perception of others and not what insiders believe about what outsiders perceive, but their actual perceptions. 'Me'- identity, the reputation of the network is brought into the identity process to help explain the effect of 'me' on 'I' (ibid). As such, these two concepts, culture and image, help us understand how internal and external definitions of organizational identity interact (see figure 1).

Figure one illustrates four aspects for analyzing organizational identity (ibid, 2000). These are essentially:

- Mirroring: the process by which identity is mirrored in the images of others
- Reflecting: the process by which identity is embedded in cultural understandings
- Expressing: the process by which culture makes itself known through identity claims
- Impressing: the process by which expressions of identity leave impressions on others

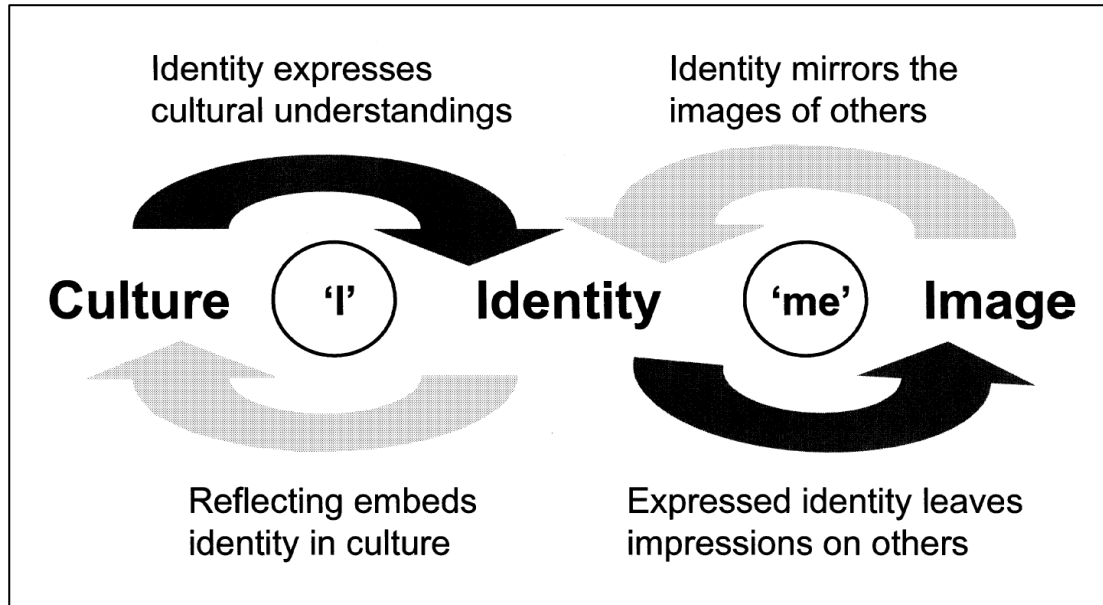


Figure 1.
How the organizational 'I' and 'me' are constructed within the processes of the Organizational Identity Dynamics Mode.
Hatch and Schultz (2000)

These concepts, primarily mirroring and reflection, are implemented in this context to highlight that networks do not exist in isolation. In as such, their value, accountability and function are a negotiable entity between recognizing oneself and being recognized by others. Nevertheless, for the purpose of this analysis, I stick to the word 'network identity' rather than 'organizational identity'.

6.2. Finding collective identity: A dance between culture and self-perception

To expand upon what is evident, the concept mirroring seems suitable. To this end, Hatch and Schultz (2002) argue that we might better understand how networks behave by asking where individuals look, what they see and whether or not they like their reflection in the mirror (Hatch and Schultz, 2002: 999).

In response to this, one member expresses:

I have spoken with a lot of local business owners, and I know for a fact that those who know of us have nothing good to say about us, and those who don't know about us probably would not want to become members because of the tradition here, or at least the way it has been until recently. Everything was done conservatively and without any ambition to change anything... Quite the contrary (P6.: pp. 3: 72-86).

This statement contributes to our understanding of where members look, what they see and whether or not they like what they see. What P6 expresses here is exactly that: that the image of HCA in the local business community is negative and then links this reputation of HCA to his cognitive understanding of the network culture, which is neither inclusive nor informative.

In correspondence, authors have claimed that the opinions and reactions of others affect network identities through mirroring, and further, that mirroring operates to motivate network members to get involved in issues that have the power to reduce public opinion of their network.

To this end, board members express that it is imperative that membership numbers increase and that more local businesses choose to become members of HCA (see table 2)

In accordance, individual members express:

P1: *"There is no doubt that one of the biggest challenges in the City Association is to recruit new local businesses as members... There is no need to hide this. This is and will continue to be our biggest challenge if we don't do something about it."* (pp.: 3: 173-175)

P2: *"The memberships that can be accounted for at this point only represent 28 pct. out of 300 local businesses in Helsingør city centre and that is not enough. We need at least 50 pct. of all potential members to do anything. This is a challenge we must change, especially because I know that a lot of the locals business owners contemplate why they should even spend their money on a membership in HCA because they don't know what the association can contribute with."* (pp.: 1: 19-25)

These statements represent all the participants' attitudes. In connection to this, when speaking about the lack of members, P2 connects this with the reputation HCA has in the local community. P2 further elaborates:

"I feel that there is a need to rebrand the City Association. In other words, we have to start from scratch. Based on what I have heard from the local business owners and other locals, the City

Association does not have the best reputation. There are some who think it's messy and then there are others who feel that the association is not very welcoming.” (pp.: 2: 71-74)

As the statements above indicate, the lack of memberships is a crucial challenge that can essentially force HCA out of existence. P3 explains:

“The economy is clearly the biggest challenge we face, and this is linked with membership contributions. It is not because the potential is not there, but we don’t even cover 50 pct. of the potential. It is difficult to change anything and to implement new strategies when the economy is not there to support our goals. That is why we need to change our reputation. We used to be a good association with a lot of members. Bad leadership has however led us into a situation with very few members and a bad local reputation (pp.: 3: 84-88)”.

Based on these statements, it again becomes clear that knowledge prevention has prohibited members from achieving their intentions as HCA members. The result of this is a network without an actual function, both internally and externally.

In addition, what becomes evident throughout these statements is that there is a direct link between membership contributions and the reputation of HCA in the local business community. Those involved seem also to have an opinion with regards to what must be done. P2 for instance uses words such as ‘rebrand’ and ‘start from “scratch”’ and this seems to be a common opinion. In addition of this, another member explains: ‘people either don’t know about the association or it is linked to bad cognitive experiences’. It is to this degree that identity comes to matter in relation to the function of the network.

In this case, we see that the unfortunate images (‘me’) of others have promoted members of HCA to question its self-definition, the embedded culture (‘I’). This correlates with the notion that matters of organizational self-definition are also matters of organizational culture (ibid, 2000). This it to say that members develop their identity in relation to what others say about them, but also in relation to who they perceive themselves to be. In relation to this, Hatch and Schultz claim that once the reputation among others are mirrored in relation to the ‘I’-identity, it will be interpreted in relation to existing network self-definitions that are embedded in cultural understanding. When this happens, identity is reinforced or changed through the process of reflecting on identity.

Indeed, the process in which members of HCA choose to self-reflect is, as the above statements illustrate, based on the embedded culture within HCA, and as members explain, this affects its functionality. In this sense, the metaphor of mirroring – the images others have of HCA - is

connected to self-examination of the network culture. As one members expresses, those controlling information or rather withholding it have been asked to withdraw from their positions.

I have discussed the network dynamics of HCA in relation to its embedded network culture and its reputation among others. The way in which this has been discussed is meant to indicate that collective identity not only occurs based on shared values or a sense of togetherness towards long-term endeavours, but rather to indicate that the process of collective identity is also defined in terms of culture and image – what others think of us in relation to our implicit understanding of self.

As Jenkins puts it: *'It is in the meeting of internal and external definitions of an organizational self that identity . . . is created'*. (Ibid, 2002: 1004). The assumption of this also corresponds with Passy's claims that networks are not only channels for mobilizing individuals to a specific protest issue, but rather that individuals close to a protest issue are observers of that embedded network culture. As a result, they can ultimately facilitate the emergence of an objection from within the network itself (Passy, 2000). In addition, this first part of the analysis has focused on the events leading to collective action. The essential argument of this part is as demonstrated in figure 1. That is, stakeholder collaboration can emerge when stakeholders realise the potential advantage of collaborating towards a stabilized local tourism network. In addition, stakeholder collaboration can emerge when stakeholders choose to collaborate to insert change and oppose the existent network dynamics. In as such, the degree of ineffective knowledge flows can, in the best cases, ultimately promote an initial phase for collective action. Indeed, collective identity is created in a dance between the internal dynamics ('I') as well the context in which the 'I'-identity exists, the external dynamics ('Me'). It is the mixture of these two concepts together with the tested tacit knowledge of individuals that have enabled a diagnosis of the events that have led to collective action and thus motivation for collaboration.

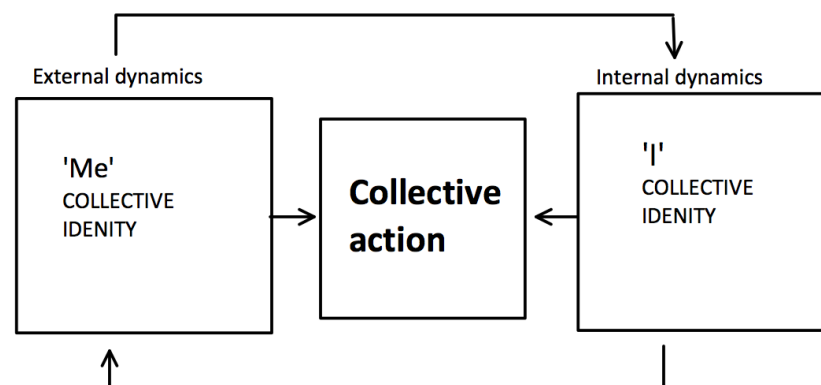


Figure 1. Initial disposition for collective action: understanding collective identity dynamics

7. The role of Human agency in knowledge diffusion

For the beginning of this chapter I would to start by addressing the concept human agency, specifically the noun agency. The definition of agency in the Oxford Dictionary states that it is “*a thing or person that acts to produce a particular result.*” By asserting this definition of human agency as an entity that acts to produce a particular set of results, the discussion moves beyond a mere identification of specific individuals. It instead comes to focus on human agency in a context of network structure analysis and thus, the influence of human agency in reference to knowledge flows and stakeholder participation.

In the previous chapter I referred to the weaknesses of the rational tradition, as one that starts its investigation after the network has been established, to then talk about the role of human agency, typically in relation to density and centrality. The oppositional argument of this is that it is a one-sided and maybe even too narrow of an explanation if we are to discuss the dynamics of social networks and their contribution in the tourism experience. However, on the other side of the spectrum structuralist explanations are problematic to the extent that they neglect the role of human agency and the ways in which actors make sense of their social interactions (Passy, 2000: 6).

I have displayed the initial dispositions for collective action in length in the abovementioned chapter. For this chapter, however, I demonstrate how these two traditions, which are otherwise considered distinctive, enable this study to go into the depths of HCA as an LTO and effectively answer the question: How are knowledge flows affected by human agency in HCA?

I have previously spoken about the definition of collaboration and stakeholder. The process of collaboration or the process leading to collaboration is the main theme of the section above. For this part, however, the main theme is the stakeholder, which is discussed in relation to network position and power. To refresh our memory, stakeholders are defined as those actors with an interest in a common problem or issue and includes individuals, groups/networks or organisations that are directly influenced by the actions others take to solve a problem (Jamal and Getz, 1995). The emphasis of this chapter is the actions of others within the networks, which influence the behavioural outcome of co-members and participant involvement.

7.1. Network structures, human agency and power

Initially, power as a theoretical concept has not been the topic of interests. Nonetheless, I have come to realize that it was always going to be relevant. However, discussing power theory is not the intention of this section. To start with, the following introduction discusses the preliminary frame in which power as a concept contributes to the following discussion.

To this end, I refer to the journal '*Power and Tourism: A Foucauldian Observation*' by So-Min Cheong and Marc L. Miller (2000). The contribution of the Foucauldian lens in this case stipulates that power shifts and occurs in the realm of relationships. In other words, power is not a predefined constant in the Foucauldian definition. In addition, power is extricability linked to knowledge, that is to say that one cannot be analytically considered without the other (Cheong & Miller, 2000). This is the inevitable realization I have come to submit to. Indeed, similar to much academic discussion related to knowledge economy, Cooper (2006) as well Burgin (2003) disclose that knowledge is power. This is what Foucault terms '*power-knowledge*' (Cheong & Miller, 2000). The term power-knowledge is integrated to identify cases where knowledge is essentially captured and then diffused to relevant stakeholders. Indeed, the usage of the term facilitates a discussion of leadership, and thus human agency.

The basic principle of the Foucauldian lens describes that power is ubiquitous. It is a shifting force that is constantly negotiated in relations. This is to say that we should not look for who has power and who is deprived of it, nor who has knowledge and who is forced to stay without. Instead we must look for the patterns that create power-knowledge structures. Power-knowledge structures address network structures to then ultimately identify firstly, the power-knowledge position and secondly, the influence of power-knowledge on behavioural outcome in the form of participation and engagement. Thus, rather than stressing the role of the individuals, the Foucauldian perspective emphasizes the position of *power-knowledge* within a network of relations, which then enables a discussion of knowledge patterns or power-knowledge structures (ibid, 2000).

In my discussion of HCA, which I have defined as a local tourism organisation (LTO) that contributes to the tourism experience, I argue that the power-knowledge structures add to a further discussion about the role of human agency. Human agency, then, is not the system nor is it the active individuals reacting to the tourism experience, it is the analysis of the interactive relations within the LTO and an emphasis on knowledge positions more so than is about the individual having or withholding knowledge.

7.2. Centrality: leadership and Power-knowledge structures

Leadership roles in social network theory are traditionally viewed as a horizontal function where leadership does not necessarily entail autonomous control over the individuals' behaviour or the network as such. However, more recent research has argued that, even though 'leaders' do not appear in a conventional way in social networks, they can surface as centrally located actors in networks and impose varying degrees of influence that either strengthen or weaken stakeholders' ability for collaboration and participant involvement (Diani 2003).

Stevenson and Greenberg (2000) describe how centrally located actors in social networks are, more so than others, positioned to accomplish their purposes, while peripheral actors are constrained by their position of powerlessness. The tenet of this perspective is that knowledge and other types of resources typically flow to the centrally located, and therefore they are more inclined to exert influence over strategy and expected obligations (Stevenson and Greenberg, 2000). As a result, if knowledge is power, then one can assume that actors who have access to resources such as information are able to increase members' dependence on them. That is to say: "*power is the inverse of dependence* (ibid, 2000: 653)".

In line with this form of reasoning, it is appropriate to add some background knowledge that ultimately situates the power knowledge structures in HCA to the discussion. A composed quote from a conversation with P6 provides such knowledge:

"Four years ago, HCA had a very involved chairman, who really knew what he was doing. But due to the lazy environment within the association, he invited X, whom he knew from his private life, to help him. They were 'hired' to help with administrative assignments. And for that they were paid 5000 kr. monthly, which is a very symbolic amount compared to all the work they have done. They just did it because they found the assignments interesting. However, when the then chairman chose to step down, the association suffered a long period of alternating chairmen and board members. It is especially in this period of time that X started to take all the responsibility for the association. They literally did everything, the administration, internal and external communication, event planning, advertising, recruiting new members etc. – they really did everything. However, while they have managed to keep the association alive, they haven't managed to develop it and this is where problems started to appear because we, as a new generation of board members, want to change things (pp. 5-6:151-171)"

To add to the process in which positions of power-knowledge are identified, I refer to the concept of centrality. To this end, Pavlovich (2003) suggests that the position of centrality displays how resources are managed within the network and refers to a stakeholder's power obtained through the

network structure, rather than through the qualities of the individual. The notion of centrality is essentially that the more central of a position a stakeholder has, the more important she/he is to the coordination function of the network. Pavlovich further suggests that these central positions in networks display how the network corresponds to the demands, obligations and expectations of others (Pavlovich, 2003).

When speaking about centrality, at least in this case, it is unavoidable to discuss the density of the network as well. Density covers the analysis of the overall structure of the networks and typically investigates the number of ties that link the actors together. As a result, density is a characteristic of the whole network structure rather than of the actors within. However, it is now appropriate to take a step back and start by addressing centrality in relation to the power-knowledge position.

If we consider centrality the position that displays how resources are managed within the network in relation to a stakeholder's power obtained through the network structure, we might be able to explain the position obtained by X. As the above quote insinuates, the position X has obtained is in this case linked with the work ethic of the network. As P6 describes it, X was invited to ease the workload of a previous chairman. If we are to take a closer look at this, one might argue that the work ethic is the result of an embedded and predefined hierarchy where knowledge is linked to structure and thus, an implicitly encultured sense-making of responsibility, obligations and expectations. However, I do not mean to indicate that the network has a dense structure. Nevertheless, by looking at the strength or weakness of the relational ties, we might be able to explain the link between X and the former chairman and the behavioural outcome of this. The grouping of this tie is here identified as a strong relational tie, which Pavlovich (2003) defines as the ties stakeholders have with others within the network. The problem with strong ties in networks is that they can appear exclusive to those outside the relational tie.

I here refer to the above quote again. P6 describes how X and the previous chairman had a relation formed in their private life. In this sense, one could argue that the strong relational tie between X and the chairman inevitably affected the way in which X operated even after the chairman left the position. Indeed, according to Pavlovich, networks and or stakeholders are said to mimic each other's behaviour. If we consider this in review of a micro-level analysis of human agency in HCA, then there is a point in investigating how relations affect behaviour in social networks.

Furthermore, in reference to the internal relational ties and their strengths and weaknesses in HCA, members' answers illustrate that these are relatively weak. In general, HCA can be identified as a sparse network, as opposed to a dense one. It is a sparse network in the sense that the relational ties are rather random. Individual members do not necessarily have a private or familiar relation with each other, and they do not spend time together in their spare time. One could call this a 'professional' social network or, as authors have called it, an egocentric network. Thus, it is based on their shared understanding for collaboration (Cooper, 2014). Even though density is low, it is still present due to the fact that it is a requirement that members are representatives of some sort of business in Helsingør city centre. It is through this lens that the position of X has become a matter for further discussion.

When asked about X, their function and what their relation is to the association, some participants didn't know, while others answered that X were in fact a married couple who was initially invited to help a former chairman with administrative assignments. One participant contributed: *"I actually don't know so much about them. I know that one is a teacher and the other works with advertising (P1. pp. 5: 208-210)."*

This illustrates that X's social tie in relation to members is peripheric. No one member except from P6 could actually tell me anything about them. And even P6 had a hard time recalling X's connection to the network. This observation is quite crucial in reference to the leadership position and its function in an informal network structure. In addition, by discussing leadership we might be able to substantially understand the connection between participant involvement and network structures. As an example, P3 expresses:

"I was initially contacted by x to become a board member in the association. Even though I really didn't know that much about it, other than what I was informed about from x, I was excited because I wanted to support the association and I also saw it as a possibility to insert my own interests, such as making the city more attractive (pp. 1: 3-9) [...] however I quickly learned that it wasn't me per se or my opinions that they were interested in. I was just there as a board member, so that the association could stay alive. As a result, I just didn't put that much effort into it. I mean, why bother?" (pp. 5: 200-205).

This statement correlates with what I have presented so far. Due to the weak tie between members and X, member's involvement is low as well.

To return to my previous statement alleging an undetected hierarchy, the role of the power-knowledge positioned consequently affects the behaviour of those without. As P3 puts it, *'I just didn't put that much effort into it. I mean, why bother?'* In addition, we discover that the overarching patterns of relationships between stakeholders of a network can offer insights into the network architecture (Pavlovich, 2003) and thus, how it coordinates its goals.

As a final comment on this discussion, I would like to address the structure of the network, or as Pavlovich has put it, the network architecture. I have highlighted that the network dynamic of HCA is affected by the weak ties members have with X while X, being a married couple, have a strong tie. In addition, having been the friends of a former chairman of fifteen years positioned X in a power-knowledge position.

In an opening statement of this thesis project I stated that knowledge dynamics involve knowledge acquisition, transfer and sharing. However, these processes demand an open decentralized environment where individuals are empowered to view knowledge as a resource to be shared and not hoarded (Cooper, 2015). When speaking about the network structure in relation with a decentralized knowledge environment, Freeman (1972) implies that roles of decision-making must be open and available to everyone, and this can happen only if they are formalized. It is in the informal and unstructured network structures that power equality deviates. To address this, Freeman stresses that power-knowledge surface in unstructured networks where roles of decision-making and knowledge procedures are implicit. Participation in network activities is therefore closely linked to the network structure, which again must be explicit and not implicit.

The aim of this section has been to explore how knowledge flows are affected by human agency.

In response to this question, it is evident that informalized structures as well as a combination of weak and strong ties, which one could call cliques, prohibit knowledge flows. The rational perspective adds to our understanding of human agency in networks, as it seeks to understand how relational ties affect participant involvement. The concept of strong ties typically articulates the relational ties within the network and weak ties the relational ties outside the network. In this case they have, however, been implemented to understand the dynamics that prevent knowledge flows from happening and thereby creativity and innovation from occurring.

In a tourism context, in understanding the role of networks not only from a structural but also the rational perspective, we are provided with some direction as to where and what to look for and investigate in stagnant tourism communities. My claim is really that it is not enough to shed light on the benefits of network collaboration, whether they be private, public or a combination of both. If we are to fully appreciate the flexibility of network thinking, we need to use network theories that discuss tourism development accountably by exploring cases where network collaboration is tested in relation with human agency and then theorise based on these observations.

8. Conclusion and future research

The value of knowledge dynamics in LTOs is an inevitable consideration for our future understanding of destination development. The ability to capture and transfer knowledge is pivotal for a destination to sustain or develop competitive advantage. Needless to say, this has been the argument of this thesis. Supported by much research I have argued that knowledge generation is the fundamental characteristic of sustaining competitive advantage. More specifically, this means that the dynamics in which knowledge is captured or created together with the ability of stakeholders to convert knowledge into strategic action is inextricably linked with a ability of a community for innovation and progress. To this end, this thesis project has explored how the internal network dynamics within HCA affect internal knowledge dynamics from different approaches. The result of this exploratory case study concludes that effective knowledge flows must undergo different processes that include capturing, sharing and transmitting it into a strategic advantage towards destination competitiveness. Using HCA as an exemplary case, I have discovered that knowledge-sharing from a centrally positioned stakeholder is pivotal and that understanding relational ties and leadership can tell us about the ability of a network to undergo knowledge flows.

As a final comment I would like to reference to table 1.

Axial coding	Open coding / data with data					
	P3	P2	P5	P4	P1	P6
Local business unity/ collaboration	L:14-15		L: 121-128	L: 155- 165	L: 33-37	L:7-15/35-46
Collaboration with municipality, DMO / City events		L:109-124	L:235-238 -310	L: 83- 112	L: 38-61	
Bus-tourists / border-shopping / tourists groups	L:110-122			L: 21-30/ 64-79	L: 116-127	
City infrastructure/ Visibility/ Marketing	L:47-64/124-132	L:28- 46		L:17-19	L:131-156	L:51-58/ 255-264
Internal structure/ knowledge sharing/members/ economy	L:68-88/145-203	L:8-15/ 37-94	L:99-117/156-188		L: 189 - 219/250-264	L: 61- 219/ 320-327
The cities appearance/ atmosphere/	L:15-33		L:46-74	L: 114-148	L: 230- 244	

The contribution of this analysis has enabled a study of knowledge flows and how these are affected by internal dynamics. Nevertheless, as table 1. illustrates, this research study could have taken many different directions. Indeed, it could have addressed e.g. stakeholder collaboration between the different local tourism organisations, here referring to public and private institutions in Helsingør city centre advancing tourism policy and community literature on the subject. Also, one could have chosen a narrative analysis of the tourism experience as it is marketed and branded or even a critical analysis addressing destination border-shopping in relation to destination authenticity and/or destination perception, here referring to tourism management and policy literature. I believe that all of these themes are matters for further investigation and their contribution would truly strengthen our academic understanding of a destination. Indeed, the contribution of such explorative studies would, regardless of the results, highlight destinations as vacuums of multiple cultural and social settings, which implies that tourism is something that never stands alone but is always negotiated in relation to and co-enacted along with other elements and concerns. This is to say that a study that concerns itself with destination development and competitiveness must, at the end of the day, keep in mind that sustainable tourism development start by acknowledging that no singular theoretical concept explaining phenomena can be discussed in isolation but must be reviewed in the real world, where things are happening simultaneously. However, the subsequent progression of this is knowledge-sharing.

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