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LANDSCAPE OF THE MANGYSTAU REGION IN KAZAKHSTAN AS A GEOMORPHOTOURISM DESTINATION: A GEOGRAPHICAL REVIEW

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Abstract: One of the ideas of using landscape, that a section of terrain can be appreciated as an object with visual, aesthetic, historical-cultural, scientific and socio-economic values, is the development of geomorphotourism. This type of tourism is well demanded especially in developed industrialized countries. However, it is largely underestimated and undeveloped in Kazakhstan due to insufficient information, while there are many forms and types of landscape that potentially have natural, cultural and historical values. This paper based on site-visits of geomorphic landforms of the Mangystau region in Kazakhstan have been reviewed and discussed the geomorphotourism potential of some of the geomorphosites of studied area. The geographical review shows that the landscape of the Mangystau region has the higher capability to develop ecotourism and geomorphotourism. Therefore, development of tourism in the study area is depending on the level of management and investment and further work under UNESCO Geoparks development programme on preserving the natural environment and sustainability of the tourism resources of the region.

Key words: landscape, geomorphotourism, geoparks, Kazakhstan

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INTRODUCTION

Natural factors have a spatial differentiation, both within the territory of Kazakhstan and in favourableness for the development of local economy, tourist and recreational activities. One of the most significant natural factors is the landscape (Kruzhalin et al., 2004). The geomorphological features of natural systems other regions of the world. Their territorial combination determines the degree of significantly affect the nature of recreational activities, because the landscape is a basic element natural complex. In addition, the landscape determines the recreational specialization of the territory, and in some cases is the main element in the formation of recreational systems (Bredikhin, 2004; Agakishieva, 2015). The attractiveness of the landscape for tourism is characterized by a number of its properties including stability, uniqueness, diversity, landscape attractiveness, cultural, historical and tourism values (Borsuk & Timofeev, 2000). There is some experience in assessing the impact of the landscape on the formation and functioning of various types of territorial tourist-recreational systems (Coratza & Giusti, 2005). These include recreational-therapeutic, recreational, recreational-sports and recreational-cognitive type, considering the basic position of the landscape in the natural complex (Bredikhin, 2010). Geomorphotourism characterizes the aesthetic, cognitive value of the landscape associated with the earth's surface and their forms and complexes (Kurt & Ekinici, 2013). Geomorpho-tourism is developed on the curiosity of people who were interested in the unique nature, landscape aesthetics, the original culture and history of the area.

Geomorpho-tourism includes such landforms as canyons, caves, rocks, outcrops, basins, in contrast to geotourism (geological), which includes the formation of various minerals, sediments, remains of exposed rocks, and rock outcrops on the day surface (Ekinici & Doğaner, 2012). Natural territories or the terrain in relation to tourism should be considered as geomorphological features in context of attractiveness, uniqueness, landscape diversity and historical and cultural value (Bredikhin, 2003) being an object not only of scientific tourism (Koshim et al., 2019), but also geomorphotourism. A landscape with higher scientific, aesthetic and cultural values in geomorphotourism is called “geomorphosites”, about which there are enough publications in the scientific world (Panizza, 2001; Coratza & Giusti, 2005; Reynard et al., 2007; Coratza et al., 2008; Panizza & Piacente, 2008, Comănescu & Dobre, 2009; Necheş, 2013). The conservation status of large territories, which include various geomorphosites and geosites, is known as geoparks (Pereira et al., 2007; Necheş, 2013; Gavrilă & Anghel, 2013). At present, geomorphosites are grouped by structural forms, such as volcanic forms, karst forms and coastal forms, morphoclimatic forms, as well as by individual elements such as canyons, lagoons, rocks, caves, ravines, slopes, and others (Panizza, 2001). Therefore, it is necessary to analyze these landforms from a geographical point of view, classifying them as objects of geomorphological tourism, using a simple classification as the most beautiful cave, the most beautiful fairy-tale rock or the most beautiful cliff (Pralong & Reynard, 2005; Kurt, 2015).

According to the classification provided by Bredikhin (2010), the landscape of the Mangystau region refers to the recreational and geomorpho-tourism, which is determined by the use of geomorphological objects. The natural conditions of the Mangystau region, due to their geographical location and historical development, with unusual landforms, desert terrain, picturesque views of remnant mountains, canyons and gorges, ravines, dunes and sandy beaches, have a great potential for the development of geomorphological tourism in the region (Kondybay, 2005), however, a more detailed analysis of geomorphological conditions is needed.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area

The case study of research is the landscape of the Mangystau region. Mangystau means "the land of thousands winter huts". Mangystau is situated in the west of the Republic of Kazakhstan in an arid zone it occupies the territory on the shore of the Caspian Sea, embracing part of the Mangystau peninsula and Tupkaragan peninsula. The largest part of the territory is occupied by deserts and semi-deserts, interrupted by solonchaks and takyr with wormwood vegetation and sparse bushes. There are no permanent rivers on the territory and the whole Mangystau region suffers from a deficit of water resources. The desert climate prompts the formation of a typical desert relief, with markedly pronounced erosional and aeolian processes. The relief of the territory varies considerably. The Pre-Caspian depression occupies the north-west of Mangystau region. The majority part of the plain is below ocean level (from 0 to -28 m), but towards the north-east and east it rises a little (from 0 to 100 m). In the east the Pre-Caspian depression borders the remnants of the Ustirt northern escarpment with absolute elevation mark up to 152 m in the south-east it is abuts with the Ustirt western escarpment, which is composed of monadnocks more than 200 m high and in the south it borders the Mangystau upland. The southern part of the depression adjoins the Mangystau peninsula. The relief of this part of the territory is complex and contrasting along the boundaries of the oblast and Mangystau plateau there are some drainless solonchak depressions, the floors of which are considerably below sea level: Karakiya (-132 m), Kauyndy (- 57m) and Karynzhyrk (-52m). From the north-west to the south-east of the Mangystau upland there are three prominences they are the ridges of the western and eastern Karatau and Karataushyk.

North and south of the western Karatau run ridges, formed of limestones, called the northern and southern Aktau (Aktau means "white mountains" and Karatau - "black mountains") their altitude is no more than 500 m above sea level. Parallel to the Karatau range extend the cuesta ridges of the north and south Aktau, confined to the mega-anticlinal limbs and composed of Danian limestones. Their steep slopes rise 100-200 m above the pre-Karatau valleys. Gentle slopes (10-12°) of the same dip give way in the southern Aktau to the Mangystau upland, while in the northern Aktau they fall towards the marine plains of the Bozashchy peninsula. The Karatau's tectonic ridgy relief as well as the spur-dome-like and small cuesta hills formed by selective denudation east of Karatau, are characteristic of hummocky topography.

The Mangystau mountains have a lot of picturesque examples of desert weathering. Gigantic (up to 5,5 m) ball-like concretions made of Albion-Cenomanian sandy deposits, 'air castles', fantastically deflated exposures of chalk, 'mushroom rocks', columns, etc. can be seen there. Among the accumulative types of relief in lowland Mangystau one aeolian one predominates in the outcrops of sandy chalk rocks. Low-ridgy, isolated rare barckhan dunes cover hundreds of square kilometres south-east of the Karatau range. Inclined and concave deluvial-proluvial surfaces with sors in the hollows are widespread. The major part of the plain area is composed of sediments from marine encroachments of the ancient Caspian sea that created an original marine plain. Across vast territories of the region the relief has been transformed by desert agents, especially by the wind. Aeolian forms of relief such as the sandy massifs of Kyzylkum, Sum, Karynzhyrk, etc., are widespread on the territory of Mangystau region. A specific feature of the Mangystau plain is non-draining depressions with precipitous rims 100-150 m deep their areas range from 10 to 200 km². They are situated in two sublatitudinal rows, parallel to the main geological structures of the platform's cover and often coincide with local anticlines. There is good reason to believe

that tectonic jointing of armed limestones contributes to the development of karst processes and the subsequent deepening and expansion of basins caused by desert denudation, resulting in the formation of depressions. In the walls of all the depressions and Mangystau border scarps steep slopes karst-erosional ravines, collapses and landslides are common. On the coast limestone karst grottoes, overhangs and caves are widely met. On the Tupkaragan peninsula in karst holes small lakes and streams of fresh water are formed exotic valleys of Tamshaly and Sauyr, which are attractive for tourists.

The climate of the territory is continental. The Caspian Sea has a significant impact on the temperature regime of the region. In general, winter is rather warm, short, with often thaws in the south of the region. The average temperature in January is -4° -9°C , but sometimes it reaches -26° -43°C . Summer is hot and long, the average July temperature is not lower than 24°C , the maximum - $+45^{\circ}\text{C}$. The annual rainfall is 100-150 mm. The region is characterized by strong storms and winds. Mangystau is the only region where there is no permanent river network. Drainage basins are widely distributed here, surrounded by a large number of dry channels, canals, ravines, in which surface runoff occurs in spring and autumn. The largest number of dry channels, wells, springs are in the mountainous part of Mangyshlak, the waters of some springs are so plentiful that they are used for irrigation of vegetable crops (Kondybay, 2007). The lakes are bitterly salty; in the summer, they dry up, leaving salt mud in the deepest parts and they are located mainly in drainage hollows.

Methodology

To write the article, mainly materials from long-term field research were used (2001-2002, 2008, 2012-2014, 2017). Statistical, reference, stock and literary materials on the natural conditions and resources of the region were also used (Kovshar, 1993; Safronova, 1996; Kim, 1997; Bekzhanov et al., 2000; Kondybay, 2005, 2007) and materials were studied from the regional department of ecology (<https://eco.mangystau.gov.kz>), the regional department of natural resources and environmental management (<https://www.inaktau.kz>). Descriptive, comparative-geographical, statistical and cartographic research methods are used to characterize the geomorphological forms of the landscape of the territory. In addition, a set of complementary methods was used: information retrieval, analysis and systematization of scientific publications and materials on the object and subject of research. The methodological basis of the work was theoretical research on morphostructural analysis, developed by Rantsman (1979), according to the morphometric analysis of Anisimov (1999), using GIS-technologies by Antiptseva & Doolit (2009), Zagorulko (2003). Assessment of the recreational opportunities of the territory was carried out according to the method developed by Kolotova (1998) and Bredikhin (2004, 2010).

To study the laws of morphological differentiation of the surfacerelief of the territory, one of the methods traditional for geomorphology was used - the method of analyzing the morphological features of the surface (morphological method), based on the study of the external features of the relief (Penk, 1961), determined by their parameters (dimensions, absolute and relative heights, the steepness of the slopes, the degree of erosion partition), which allows to clarify (establish) the similarities and differences between the same types and complexes of relief forms, about claimed regional and local features of endo- and exogenesis (Schukin, 1960). In addition, foreign publications on the organization of geomorpho-tourism were analyzed, where the topography is considered as a tourist-recreational potential of the area (Panizza & Piacente, 1993; Pralong, 2005; Pereira et al., 2007; Coratza & Giusti, 2005; Ilies & Josan, 2009; Ekinci & Doğaner, 2012; Kurt & Ekinci, 2013; Gavrilă & Anghel, 2013; Kutr, 2015; Ovriu et al., 2019). A geomorphological map of 1:2 000 000 scale was compiled for the entire territory of the Mangystau region, which made it possible to identify patterns of spatial change in the relevant indicators.

Landscape of the Mangystau Region in Kazakhstan as a Geomorphotourism Destination: A Geographical Review

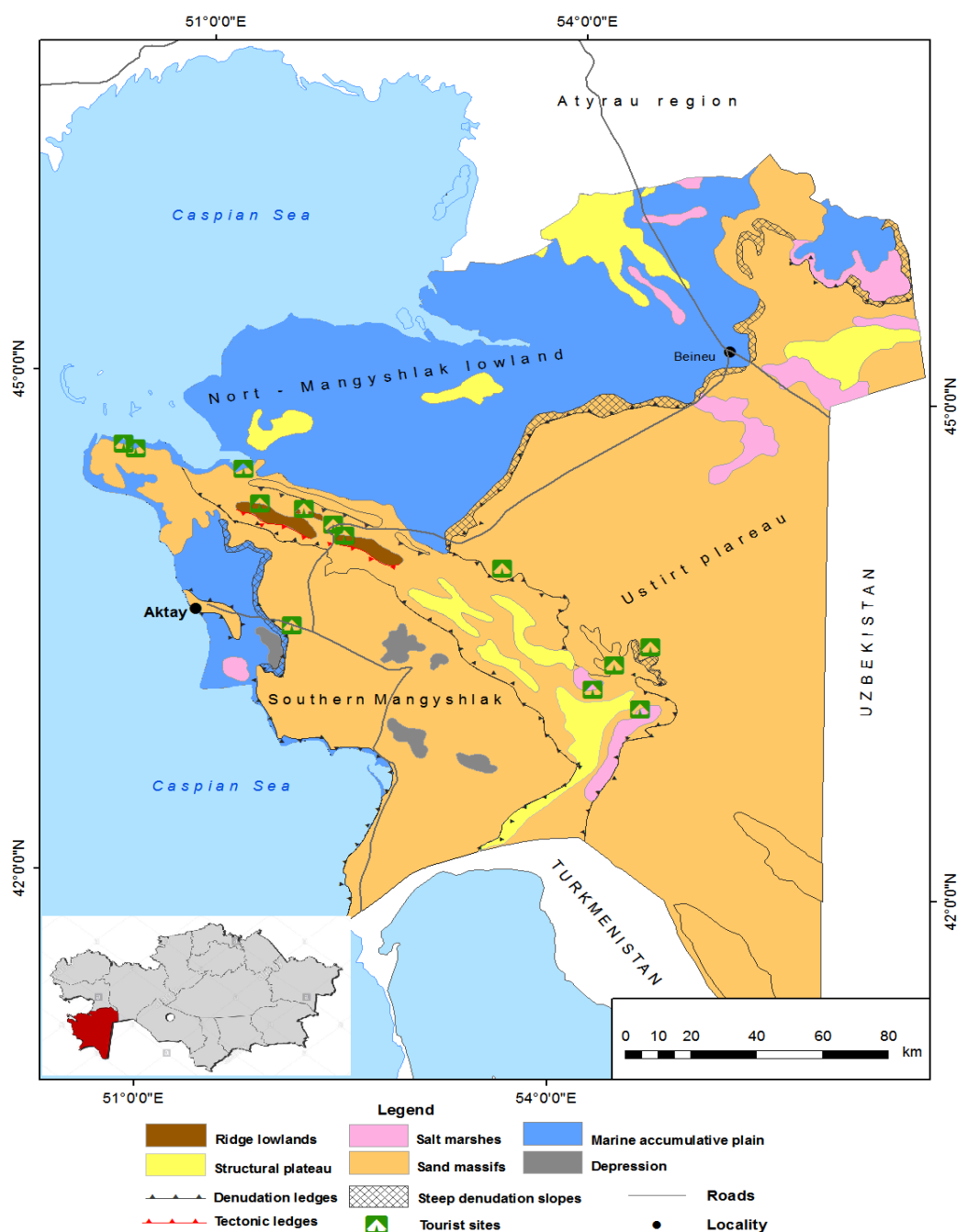


Figure 1. Geomorphological map of the Mangystau region

The results of studying the morphological features of the relief, taking into account published materials on geology, geomorphology of the study area, allowed us to analyze the features of the formation of various types and forms of relief (Aristarkhova, 1970,

2015; Kuznetsov, 1963; Geldyeva & Veselova, 1992, Sydykov et al., 1995; Relief of Kazakhstan, 1991). The features of the formation of the corresponding morphosculpture within each of the main morphostructures were clarified during the compilation and analysis of the geomorphological map of the region. When creating the map, data were used on the morphological structure of the territory (Relief of Kazakhstan, 1991, Geldyeva & Veselova, 1992;), topographic maps (1:100,000, 200,000 scales), as well as data on the composition, occurrence conditions and age of the Quaternary sediment strata and bedrock (Koshkin et al., 2000) including field observation data (Figure 1). As it was said, the territory of the region is vast and the relief is unique everywhere. It was not possible to capture and study all geomorphological objects due to financial problems, therefore, the analysis was carried out only for those objects that are of most interest to tourists.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Mount Sherkala Geomorphosite. The territory of the geotope Mount Sherkala is located about 170 kilometers from the city of Aktau, 18 km from the village (Figure 2).

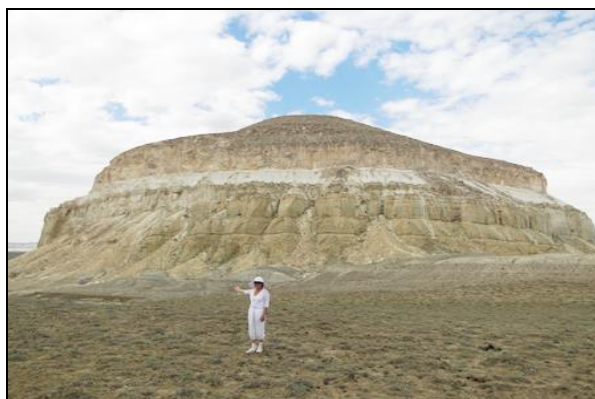


Figure 2. Mount Sherkala Geomorphosite

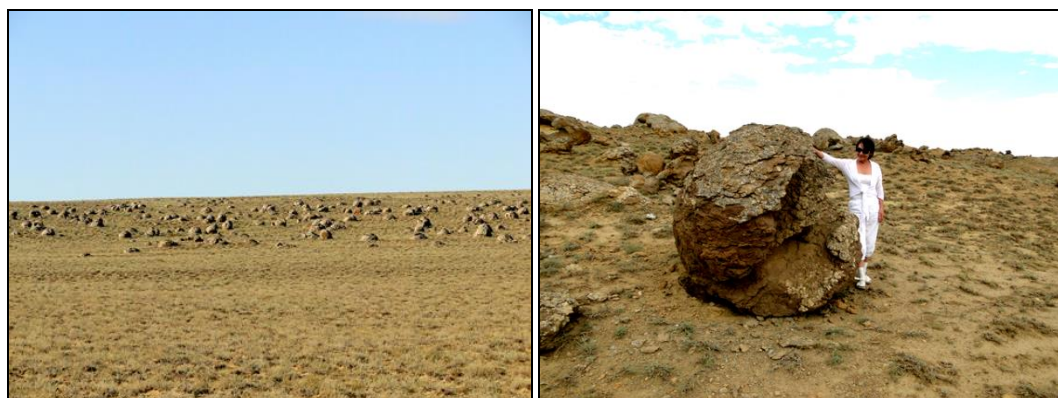


Figure 3. Torysh Geomorphosite

Shetpe to the north-west. In morphological terms, the table remains with a complex gully-relief relief. Mount Sherkala is a lonely standing mountain, of a very unusual shape. If you look at it from one side, the mountain looks like a huge white yurt

(Nomadic house), but on the other - Sherkala is like a sleeping lion, who laid his huge head on his paws. Therefore, the mountain was named - Sherkala, which in translation from Turkmen means "Lion Mountain" or "Lion Mountain".

The Sherkala mountain is composed of sediments of the Upper Cretaceous, the Turonian stage, represented by grayishwhite, greenish-gray sandy marl, brown chalk-like marls, with a powerful horizon of white writing chalk that seems to encircle the mountain with a white scarf. Neogene Sarmatian clays gray layered calcareous, with interlayers of marls and siltstones, overlapping with dense light-gray limestone-shells armor the surface of the mountain (Bekzhanov et al., 2000). In the foothills and around the Sherkala Mountains, in the clay limestones of brownish yellow with an admixture of sandy material, clayey-sand deposits, the horizon of giant globular sand concretions is traced - this is a whole placer of spherical boulders of various sizes limestone. Together with them there are small phosphorite nodules. This horizon of sandy concretions is a continuation of the horizon found in the tract Torysh. In the foothills of the mountain Sherkala there is an abundance of organic remains: large ammonoids. Here, too, bivalve mollusks, flora, microfauna, belemnites, teeth of sharks, oysters, bryozoans have also been found. *Torysh Geomorphosite*. The territory of Torysh Geomorphosite is located in the Northern part of Karatau valley of the Mountainous Mangistau (low mountains), to the northeast of the village Taushyk (Figure 3). Ball concretions, which are one of the recognized tourism brands of Mangystau, form entire fields in the Torysh tract – this place is called the valley of spheroid concretions. Sandy concretions are confined to the clayey-sandy thickness of the Lower Cretaceous of the Albion stage (K1al), developed in the "Kara-Tatau" valley. Along with them, there are layers of nodules of phosphorites everywhere.

Nodules are found both in the form of a regular globular shape, discoid, and the most varied and bizarre contours, often reaching gigantic dimensions up to 3-5 meters in diameter. There are many theories and assumptions about the origin of these formations, sometimes the most fantastic ones. One of the scientifically valid theories is the formation as a result of chemical deposition of matter. Any formation, for example, fossilized remains, accumulations of other minerals, carbonaceous matter, etc., can serve as the nucleus of a "seed" around which silica, calcite and other substances, in this case sand material, precipitate. This accumulation takes place in a concentric direction, and the shape of the formations depends on the permeability of the rocks. If the rock shows the same permeability in all directions, then the formations will have a regular rounded shape, if in two directions - they will have the shape of a disk, in the case of uneven permeability very fancy shapes will be formed. The formation of concretion can also occur because of the diffusion contraction of the chemical substances to the nuclei that activate this process-the "seeds." Fauna is mainly confined to nodules, sandy interlayers and interlayers with nodules of phosphorites: ammonites, oysters, sea urchins, belemnites, teeth of sharks.

The North Mangyshlak Lowland (or the Bozashi Peninsula) is located below the horizontal zero and is represented by a marine accumulative plain composed of clay, loamy and sandy sediments with interbeds of shell. In Quaternary, it was again flooded with the sea, which left an almost continuous, thin, 10-15 m thick layer of precipitation. Here, under the cover of the Quaternary marine sediments, more ancient, undiluted, Cretaceous, and Paleogene deposits lie (Bekzhanov et al., 2000). Typical elements of the relief are sand massifs, deflation basins, funnel-shaped basins, basins, takyrs, solonchaks (white alkali) and solonchaks (saline land), as well as cellular, tuberous and ridged sands, which were formed as a result of eolian processes (Sydykov et al., 1995). The absolute elevations of the plain surface vary from -7 to -27 m, decreasing towards the sea. Within this region, oil and gas are mainly being developed (Koshim & Karatayev et al., 2018).

Mangyshlak Mountain is represented by low ranges of the North and South Aktau, Western and Eastern Karatau. The Karatau ridges are composed of dislocated sandstones, mudstones, schists, Permo-Triassic limestones and conglomerates represented by large ridges with leveled or slightly wavy peaks and steep, sharply dissected slopes (Bekzhanov et al., 2000). The ranges are facing the Karatau valleys and rise above them by 100-200 m. The highest point of the town of Beshoky is 556 m, in East Karatau. Deposits of greenish clays at the foot merge with yellowish, pink, reddish clays or snow-white chalky outcrops; above they turn into yellowish-brown Sarmatian limestones. All of this is represented by a unique, layered formation, because the strata of deposits of unequal density and are susceptible to erosion in different ways (in particular, the layering of rocks is clearly visible on the coast). In Northern Aktau there is a unique place called "Akespe" (Figure 4). It is also called the "chess valley" because of the location of the rocks. The area is distinguished by a peculiar whiteness due to stacked rocks: limestones, marls and snow-white clays. Due to wind erosion, a typical type of relief has formed here, giving the area a beautiful landscape. The peaks of low snow-white mountains are cut by ravines and hollows. In the spring, during rain, stormy streams run along them, sometimes demolishing roads and settlements.



Figure 4. Mountain Mangyshlak Geomorphosites

On the expanses of the Steppe Mangyshlak there are several drainless basins. One of them is Karakia, the third deepest trench in the world (Figure 5). The name of the basin is Turkic, in translation it means "Black Maw" and it is located 132 meters below sea level and 100 meters below the waves of the Caspian Sea. The basin is 40 km long and 10 km wide. A highway runs through a wide part of the basin (15 km). The surface

of this part is covered mainly with sand. Litter is located at the bottom of the cavity, the descent to which is hampered by deep steep and winding ravines. The Eastern slope of the basin is high and cut through by deep ravines. According to local tradition, a long time ago there was a lake on this place, which was called "Batyr" - "Brave Warrior". The lake gradually dried up and a hollow formed. Locals still call basin as the "Batyr" basin. The formation of a basin is associated with the leaching of salty rocks, with subsidence and karst processes (Aristarkhova, 1970). The karst is based on the erosive and dissolving activities of groundwater. Underground water seeping to the bottom of the cracks found in limestone, dolomite and gypsum, gradually dissolved the rocks, expanded them, developed deep and narrow abysses (Kondybai, 2007).

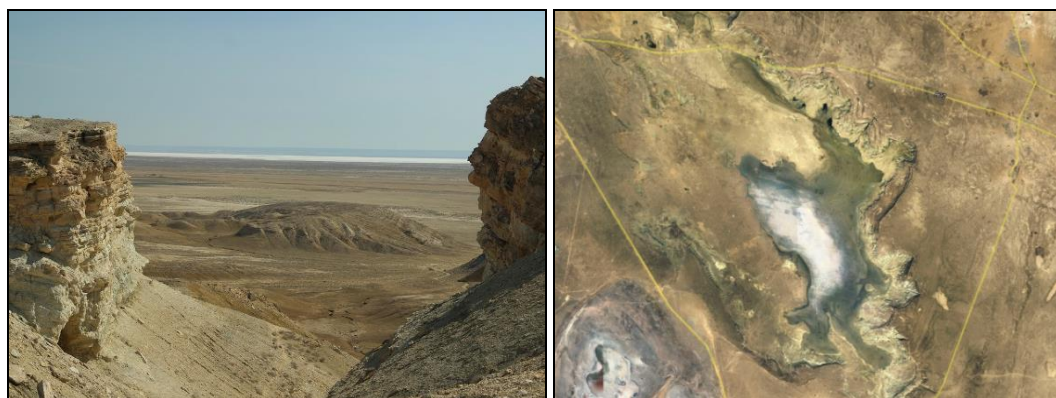


Figure 5. Karakiya Basin Geomorphosite

The Ustirt Plateau or East Mangyshlak is a desert plain composed of Sarmatian limestones, overlain by clay and clay-gravel, and sand deposits in some places. The relative heights of the Northern chinks are from 100 to 300 m, in the Shagraysky plateau region they drop to 50 m. (Figure 6). The height of the Northwestern and Western chinks often reaches 200 m, where it cuts off Muzbel rock to Karynzhyr litter - 340 m. In the Northeast, the chinks are already smoothed, with a slope of up to 10-15°, and in other cases their overall steepness is about 50° and a height of up to 300 meters. In most of the plateau, the upper part of the chinks is as if visually separated from the bottom by a sheer or even overhanging view (the height of the upper part is up to 1 m). The structure of the lower part of the chinks is different. In the Northern chinks, this is a flattened ledge with a continuous proluvial train at the sole, cut by small erosive forms. In the Northwest, the chinks have a stepped structure due to large settled blocks, with an abrasion ledge below. In the West, often in the forerunner strip up to 1-3 km wide, a fanciful multi-colored ravine-landslide-remnant relief is formed (Aristarkhova, 1970). Climbing the plateau is possible only in a few places where there are specially laid trails. The pride of the chinks is also explained by the fact that it was on the slopes of the chinks that at one time all the ancient mosques of saints were built (there are more than 300 of them). One of the famous mosques - Becket Ata, is located on the slope of the Northern clink of chalk rocks (Figure 6).

The Boszhira Geomorphosite is also considered the main feature of the relief of the plateau - it is a remnant mountain range on the outskirts of the Western Ustyurt cliff, where the plateau abruptly ends with a cascade of clay-limestone steps, occupying the bottom of a large canyon-basin Karashek. The eponymous litter is located in the Southwest of the Boszhira tract. The Boszhira tract occupies a huge area, with a length

of 21 kilometers from North to South and 9 kilometers from East to West. Boszhira's cosmic landscapes are composed of limestone deposits, once the bottom of the ancient Tethys Ocean, which existed over 10 million years ago. The huge valley-hollow is surrounded on three sides by an “amphitheater” of various landforms of white Cretaceous rocks - canyons, peaks, mountain-towers, mountain-castles (Figure 7).



Figure 6. Ustirt chinks and the Becket Ata necropolis



Figure 7. Boszhira Geomorphosite

Outlier mountains-chameleons also formed here, changing their appearance depending on the position of the sun and the time of day, a mountain-yurt, rocky gorges with steep walls, eroded chalk strata, stone nodules. At the bottom of the hollow you can find petrified shells and teeth of ancient sharks. A feature of Boszhira are two limestone peaks, about 300 meters (287 m) high, nicknamed for their form the “Azutister”, translated from the Kazakh “Fangs of Ustirt”. The peaks are cut by small ravines and beams, between which there is a narrow path along which you can climb to the observation deck from which a wide view of the Boszhira valley opens.

Thus, Ustirt is the largest geomorphological element of the earth's surface, which, like the Great Barrier Reef, is clearly visible from space. However, in its structure and geological history, it is more interesting than the famous Australian structure. The total length of the chain of chinks is several hundred kilometers, which makes it possible to develop geomorpho-tourism in this region and create geoparks.

The geomorphosites described above have great scientific value. For example, departments of geology of leading universities organize student's practicum at these sites. International expeditions are carried out in Mangistau for its unique geological features and good condition, i.e. the spheroid concretions. The aesthetic value of the territory attracts up to 25 thousand tourists per year. Currently the geological sites do not have legal protection. However, an Atlas of unique sites is being developed by the Institute of Geography. Based on the findings a protected regime will be proposed for the government. A Master plan was developed for the promotion of geopark and its activities. Analysis of geotourism potential of the proposed Geopark Overview and policies for the sustainable development of: A new policy for sustainable development in line with the Government of Kazakhstan "Transition to Green Economy" directive is being implemented by the Akimat of Mangistau region.

POLICIES FOR GEO-TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

An important area of work of public organizations responsible for development tourism at local level is the creation specific programs, which include:

- political, legal and methodological support, establishing a legislative framework for the regulation of tourism and based on a comprehensive program for the strategic development of tourism at local level, taking into account the competitive advantages and disadvantages of recreational territories (the program should be based on scientific and systematic approach that organically includes a recreational, economic, marketing, investment, social, environmental and political components);
- financial and investment support (including possible sources of support, methods of accumulation and directions for effective use on the basis of existing and newly created credit structures);
- organizational and consulting and advertising and informational support for the promotion of tourism, the formation of a database of tourism companies, round tables and explanatory work with the population, its training, and the dissemination of best practices of leading travel agencies and tourism farms;
- development of rural infrastructure (roads, land improvement and development of territories, etc.) based on private-state partnership (for example, the provision of a soft loan by the state for a long term to improve rural roads by entrepreneurs and tourism farms).

It is advisable to provide staff units in public organizations for specialists in the development of recreation tourism. Such a specialist should analyze the state and problems of the development of the tourism industry; advise and inform tourism business entities on a wide range of issues of interest to them; supervise for compliance with tourism legislation, participate in the development of regional programs and pilot projects for the development of tourism; organize regional and international scientific and practical seminars and symposia on tourism development, as well as tourism exhibitions, fairs, exchanges, etc. Important conditions for the formation of effective and sustainable tourism in the regions of Kazakhstan, including the Mangistau region, are strategic planning and forecasting of integrated development territories, marketing, the use of foreign experience, and most importantly the interested participation of the local population and local authorities in the formation of tourism in the region, their joint coordinated activities. Finally, Kazakhstan can use some international initiatives to develop local tourism, e.g. geoparks. Unfortunately, today there is not a single geopark in Central Asia, therefore the Kazakhstan National Committee for UNESCO Global Geoparks, which was created in 2017, will contribute to the development of the concept of geoparks in Kazakhstan and promotion of the

UNESCO International Geoparks Program in the country. According to the UNESCO National Committee on Global Geoparks, at least 40 geoparks can be created in the republic and, in this case, the first geopark may be the landscape of Mangystau.

CONCLUSIONS

Mangystau region has a great potential for geotourism due to its geographical location (closest point of the country to Europe and North America, Turkey, Azerbaijan etc.), international and national flights to major cities, commitment from the regional municipality for investing in infrastructure, the only marine port in the country, attractive landscapes and geotourism activities (biking, fishing, diving, paragliding etc.)

The significant diversity of the landscape of Mangystau, in places the deep ruggedness of the ravines, the various expositions of the slopes with respect to the sun and air flows created a rare aesthetics of the territory's landscapes, which are one of the valuable natural heritage of not only the region, but the whole Kazakhstan.

Geomorphological relief types or geomorphosites of the region are unique objects, they have their own characteristics and advantages and, in comparison with other regions of the republic that do not have such a relief. The landscape of region is not only of protection, scientific research, but also of the development of geomorphotourism in the region. In the future, geomorphotourism could become a powerful and positive force that benefits both travelers and the environment.

It contributes to the revival of not only the flora and fauna of these territories, but also the restoration of the culture and traditions of the local population. If tourists visit certain places with interesting objects, then there is an incentive for local residents to preserve the uniqueness of the landscapes of these places. The development of geomorphotourism also opens up opportunities for the local population, providing them with work, increases the income of local entrepreneurs.

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COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM VILLAGE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES: A CASE OF BOROBUDUR TOURISM VILLAGE AREA, INDONESIA

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Abstract: The concept of community-based tourism village development becomes important in the sustainable tourism development strategy part. The study aims to formulate a community-based tourism village development strategy with a case in the Borobudur tourism village area. The research uses strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) approaches. The identification of factors was obtained from field observations, interviews, and focus group discussions with key elements of the community and stakeholders. The results showed that the strength and opportunities factors had an importance score and the percentage of agreement was higher than the weakness and threat factors. Community-based tourism village development strategies can be carried out with more emphasis on strategies that rely on strengths and opportunities, through S-O and W-O strategies, relative to weaknesses and threats, through S-T and W-T strategies. However, the implementation of the four strategies is still being carried out because they will complement each other in order to achieve the goal of the development of a tourism strategic area through community-based tourism villages.

Key words: tourism village; community-based tourism, SWOT approaches

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INTRODUCTION

Today, the development of tourism has attracted much attention throughout the world because tourism has developed into an industry that provides many benefits for both the host and visitor. The general and rapid development caused by the development of tourism has become a dynamic social and economic phenomenon, affecting many countries and communities. This phenomenon has created many unexpected economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts, both on the host community and visiting tourists (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005; Archer et al., 2005). In the macroeconomic context, at present, the tourism sector has become a major source of income for many countries.

The economic benefits of tourism, especially in developing countries are felt when these benefits can be enjoyed by the community. Tourism in developing countries can be seen as an industry that can provide much-needed economic benefits in rural and remote areas where people who lack the knowledge and financial resources can take part in the development of tourism without external support (Yanes et al., 2019).

Furthermore, tourism can be used as an approach for sustainable rural development as in the study of Petrović et al. (2017). Rural tourism is given special priority in the national sustainable development strategy because it is observed as a high potential sector with a vertical institutional structure that supports its development. Rural tourism has the potential to be developed and become a strategy in sustainable national development, especially in developing countries where most of the population is in rural areas that have natural, cultural and indigenous life. Sustainable tourism can enhance the country's overall identity because it is closely related to the methods of local production, the lives of local residents, cultural celebrations, heritage and nature tourism in rural or suburban areas (Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Petrović et al., 2017). In addition, this type of tour is a very attractive alternative for different tourist segments, whose preferences include the sustainability of tourism when planning their trips. During the visit to the destination, visitors can experience attractions in the area and the possibility that positive experiences will influence the possibility of return visits (Komppula, 2014).

The latest development in the study of tourism is the popularity of community-based tourism (CBT) in developing countries, especially for rural communities (Muganda et al., 2010). Many villages are able to host with good natural resources and great potential for tourism development (Hiwasaki, 2006). The concept of community-based tourism village development becomes important in the sustainable tourism development strategy part. An understanding of sustainable tourism development has emerged as a result of the idea that tourism sustainability depends on the conservation and development of resources used for tourism purposes and various studies and models developed in an effort towards this understanding. The understanding of community-based tourism is tourism activities that support the traditional way of life of local people and help people gain prosperity by protecting and maintaining social-cultural values and cultural and natural heritage resources. The ownership, management, operation and supervision of this business belongs to the community. Sustainable tourism which is used as an approach to tourism development as a global standard, demands a draft policy that involves the concepts of participation, empowerment, transparency, and justice.

According to UNWTO (2005), concepts such as community participation, empowerment, transparency, justice, equality, and equity need to be integrated into national development regulations and strategies. In developing countries, the majority of the population is a rural community. Therefore a sustainable tourism development strategy with these concepts is more oriented towards rural communities through village development policies with an emphasis on rural tourism. In an effort to empower people

through tourism development, according to Simson (2008) policies and laws must be developed in such a way that creates real possibilities for local people to play a major role in determining their own benefits from tourism. There is a close link between village development and community socio-economic progress, which can be realized through tourism development in rural areas. A study by Kazimoto (2013) shows that village development strategies are a vital motor in socio-economic development.

In Indonesia, tourism is a strategic sector and becomes a media for the integration of programs and activities between development sectors, so that tourism can potentially become a pioneer of development. Tourism should be encouraged as a pioneer of development because it can create export revenues, create jobs, develop businesses and infrastructure. The scale of rural development priorities based on rural development includes (1) local economic development, (2) community empowerment, (3) development of facilities and pre-facilities, and (4) institutional development.

The success of the development of tourist villages according to location theory, that the factor of closeness to major tourist sites is a distinct advantage for the development of the village into a tourist village (Figure 1). The abundance of visitors from large objects in an area in the surrounding tourist villages is possible because of the proximity of the location to reach several tourist destinations with minimum costs.



Figure 1. Location of the area of Borobudur Tourism Village

This situation is in accordance with the logic of location theory according to Losch as stated in Krugman (1993), that the farther away from the seller, the more reluctant consumers are to buy goods and vice versa. The abundance of visitors for visits to the surrounding tourist villages is a form of positive externality that can be captured by the village community around the main tourist attractions. Figure 1 shows the increasing trend of tourist visits to Borobudur Temple in the last six years. According to the data, there is an increasing trend of tourist visits to Borobudur Temple from 2013 - 2018, especially experienced by domestic tourists (Figure 2). For foreign tourist visits, although

it had dropped from 2013 to 2015, after that, foreign tourist visits had increased again in 2017. Increasing tourist visits to Borobudur Temple will be an opportunity for tourist villages around the Borobudur Temple to attract Borobudur Temple visitors to visit tourism villages. The factor of the proximity of the location and the use of their recreational time is an advantage for the surrounding tourist villages because tourist villages are already close to tourists who arrive at Borobudur Temple.

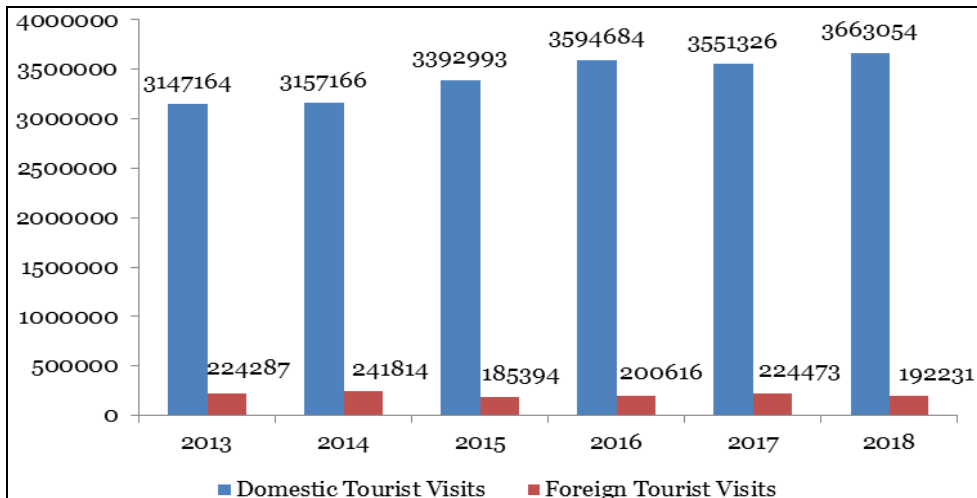


Figure 2. Tourist Visits to Borobudur Temple 2013 – 2018
(Source: Magelang Regency in Figures, 2019)

So far, research on the development of tourism in the Borobudur region is still limited compared to other research outside the Borobudur region in a broader context such as research by Kodir et al. (2019) on tourism governance with the Komodo National Park research area and Junaidi et al. (2019) on halal tourism in Indonesia. Several studies on the development of tourism in the Borobudur region, one of them by Sasana et al. (2017), examines the Borobudur region as a regional tourism cluster with a focus on small and medium industries in supporting tourism. On the other hand, Kausar (2012) studies the Borobudur Temple as a heritage site formed in the management of sustainable world cultural heritage. Likewise, Hermawan et al. (2016) conducted a study of Borobudur Temple as a Buddhist pilgrimage destination in Indonesia by examining the factors influencing visitation intentions. From the explanation, it is necessary to conduct research aimed at analyzing the strategy of community-based tourism villages development as a strategic tourism village area in the Borobudur area, along with the government's focus on Borobudur as a super-priority destination development with enormous costs. With their involvement, the community is able to increase their own incomes, get joint opportunities to improve the welfare of the community, get opportunities to preserve local culture and wisdom and the environment in a sustainable way.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Rural tourism is considered an appropriate development strategy for rural areas in many developed and developing countries (Ayhan et al., 2020). This development strategy is aimed at agricultural economic growth in addition to preserving existing traditional structures. The aim of developing tourism in rural areas is to increase net benefits for rural

communities and increase their participation in managing tourism products. If more tourism can be developed in rural areas, especially in ways that involve high local participation in decision making and business, then the impact on poverty reduction is likely to increase (Okech et al., 2012). Local economic development through tourism development strategies can also be done through geoconservation and geotourism which are proven to be able to improve welfare in the karst region as the results of the study of Telbisz et al. (2020). Local economic development with this concept is able to improve welfare that is able to empower the community to get involved in the development of tourism in the region. Furthermore, the concept of community-based geotourism as a tool for local economic development in rural communities can be developed despite challenges (Mukwada & Sekhele, 2017). According to Avila & Gasperini (2005), sustainable rural development is understood as a process of constant change and transformation in rural areas, which includes a wide range of processes and programs such as (1) Improved governance at the local, district, and provincial levels, including relations with the private sector, civil society, and government institutions; (2) Development of the productive sector: agriculture, non-agricultural industry, mining, tourism, natural resources, environmental management, and others; (3) Development of institutions and their capacities in key areas, namely education and training, health, research and counseling, marketing, savings and credit, environment, transportation, and others; and (4) Development of rural infrastructure for roads, electricity, telecommunications, housing, water, sanitation, and others.

The concept of community-based tourism village development is generally the concept of development with the tourism sector as a pioneer with village priority scale through community participation in local economic development that empowers communities with the support of infrastructure and institutional development. The tourism-based rural economic development, in this case, is community-based tourism. Community-based tourism is a new form of tourism product where management is carried out by local communities (Osman et al., 2008). Local community participation in managing tourism is carried out at all stages starting from decision making, planning, and evaluation. The community needs to be given a primary role because it is based on the fact that the community itself has knowledge of potential nature and culture and selling points as a tourist attraction, so that community involvement is absolute. Meanwhile, according to Suansri (2003), CBT is tourism that emphasizes environmental, social and cultural sustainability in one package. The development of CBT is managed and owned by the community, for the community, with the aim of enabling visitors to increase their awareness and learn about the community and local ways of life.

In general, community-based development is a development model that provides maximum opportunities for rural communities to participate in tourism development. The concept of CBT means that tourism management is managed by the local community, which includes the overall management of tourism in that location, including the preparation of all products and services needed by tourists. This method allows us to maximize the benefits derived from tourism activities for the local community, as well as placing them as subjects of tourism activities not as objects. The concept of development based on community participation is a concept that supports sustainable development, especially rural development in supporting the independence of villages that support regional independence in the era of regional autonomy. Village economic development is determined not only by internal factors such as endowment, human resources, community culture, but also supported by external factors that can bring up the potential for the economic development of the village. One external factor is the trend in public demand for tourism services today and makes the main tourist destinations abound with

tourist visits. The results of the study of Xu et al. (2019) postulate four stages of community involvement in sharing benefits and decision making namely the impact recipients, beneficiaries, clients, and owners. However, the reality is that the evolution of participation is slow. This happens because the benefits to the community from tourism and access to the power of decision making are limited. Three suggestions are proposed to overcome this situation, namely capacity building, partnerships, and institutional empowerment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The targets of the study include key community elements which include tourism activists and managers in the village, tourism actors, village officials, youth leaders and people who are broad-minded and influential, relevant and interested parties in the tourist village of Borobudur. This research collects information about opinions and attitudes, important notes, and documentation as supporting information on aspects of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of tourist villages development in Borobudur.

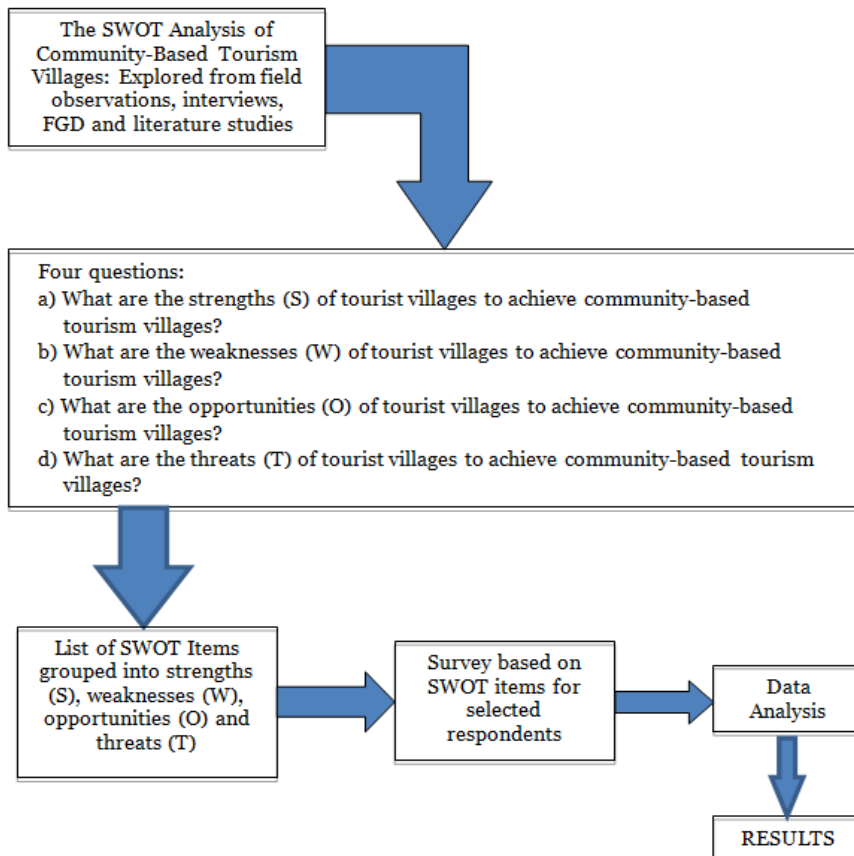


Figure 3. Stages and Processes in Community Based Tourism Village SWOT Research

This research method is a combination of qualitative and quantitative research. This research was conducted to reveal events or facts, phenomena, variables, and circumstances that occurred during the study, but also the use of numbers, starting from data collection, interpretation of the data, as well as the appearance of the results. In

terms of data collection techniques, this study prioritizes the use of questionnaires as a feature of quantitative research, while conducting observations, interviews and focus group discussions (FGD) reflects qualitative research. From the aspect of mixing as according to Creswell (2009), qualitative and quantitative data are interconnected with each other during the research stages. This study uses analysis of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats, shortened to SWOT, as the stages and processes are shown in Figure 3. Stages and processes start from the formulation of items in the SWOT analysis that are formulated from information extracted from field observations, interviews, FGDs, and the support of literature review results. The SWOT items are then outlined in a questionnaire delivered to selected respondents, which are proportionally distributed in 20 tourist villages based on the number of key people included in the respondents' criteria.

The results of the SWOT analysis can be used as material to formulate the development strategies with the best-selected policies that are appropriate to the situation in the tourist villages in the Borobudur area. The SWOT analysis generates values related to its ability to see the ways in which internal and external environments interact to influence its success (Houben et al., 1999). Furthermore, the results of the SWOT analysis can also be used for the development and implementation of long-term strategies to achieve certain goals (Houben et al., 1999; Gao & Peng, 2011; Sevkli et al., 2012).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats

The number of respondents in this study was 93 respondents, whose distribution according to the location is shown in Table 1. Selected respondents were determined proportionally according to the number of key people who were included in the criteria of 20 tourist villages in the Borobudur area. The results of the survey through questionnaires and interviews with respondents are presented in Table 2 – 5.

Table 1. Distribution of Respondents by Location of Tourist Village (Source: Survey data)

Location of Tourist Village	Number of Respondents
Giripurno	2
Giritengah	6
Tuksongo	2
Majaksingi	3
Kenalan	3
Bigaran	2
Sambeng	3
Candirejo	6
Ngargogondo	3
Wanurejo	2
Borobudur	17
Tanjungsari	6
Karanganyar	6
Karangrejo	4
Ngadiharjo	4
Kebonsari	6
Tegalarum	4
Kembanglimus	3
Wringinputih	7
Bumiharjo	4
Total	93

Distribution of 93 respondents based on sex divided into 45 men, and 48 women. The average age of the respondent is 40 years. From the level of education it can be reported that there is one respondent with elementary school education, 9 respondents with junior high school education, 42 respondents with high school education, 25 respondents with diploma education, 15 respondents with undergraduate education, and one respondent with master education. The types of work, they undertake are civil servants, private employees, entrepreneurs, village officials, labor farmers, and others.

Table 2. Level of Importance of Strength Factors in Tourism Villages in the Borobudur Region

Items	Total score	Percentage of agreement
The natural beauty of the hills and the countryside	26.10	96.77
The road from the government's project to the village	19.80	100
The richness of traditional arts and culture	19.28	97.85
The Village Economic Center and its complementary facilities	18.30	96.77
Friendliness of the community and mutual cooperation	13.60	98.92
Local wisdom still exists	13.00	100
Crafts and souvenirs	12.50	96.77
Diversity of traditional food and snacks	6.38	98.92

Table 2 - 5 displays the sequence of SWOT items that are grouped into four factors, namely strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats placed in each table. The order of items is based on the total score that has been weighted on the importance level. The importance level score consists of 3 = most important, 2 = second importance, and 1 = second importance. Based on Table 2 the first strength of the results of the SWOT analysis is the natural beauty of the hills and the countryside, which blends with the existence of Borobudur Temple. This has become a major force in developing a strategic tourism area through the proximity of tourist village locations to the presence of Borobudur Temple which is also a major opportunity factor (Figure 4). Therefore the focus of the first priority development strategy is the focus of the strength-opportunity strategy (S-O).

Tourist village objects that have the potential to be developed for the sustainability of the tourist village can not be separated from community involvement as a form of participation as the main actor. Tourism village activities that require community involvement and interaction with tourists in the development of tourism villages are activities related to 1) traditional agricultural activities, such as rice plows and rice planting, yam and papaya picking; 2) animal husbandry activities, for example introduction of honey bee cultivation and goat milk production; 3) handicraft center activities, for example, making miniature of Borobudur Temple and handicraft souvenirs; 4) home industry food activities such as the process of making tofu, vermicelli noodles, slondok, and cassava flakes; 5) traditional arts activities, for example, Gatholoco, Kubrosiswo, Shalawatan, and others; 6) art performances and community traditions aimed at preserving local wisdom such as Saperan and Nyadran which can be packaged to attract tourists; 7) management of homestays originating from residents that allows interaction between tourists and local residents to get to know and learn about the lives and ways of everyday life of people that are not found in the place of origin of tourists.

The second strength factor that supports the development of community-based tourism villages in the Borobudur area is road infrastructure resulting from the development project and improvement of roads leading to tourist villages that facilitate access to tourist villages carried out by the government. This access supports access to tourism objects in the village, especially natural attractions that have been and are

being developed, and access to enjoy traditional arts and culture, local wisdom of the local community, and various traditional foods and snacks.



Figure 4. Tourist Attraction of Borobudur Area

The strength factors mentioned are priority strength factors that can be developed and optimized in the Borobudur tourism village development strategy to take advantage of opportunities and overcome existing weaknesses and threats.

Table 3. Level of Importance of Weaknesses Factors in Tourism Villages in the Borobudur Region

Items	Total score	Percentage of agreement
Inadequate transportation facilities	13.00	93.55
Limited availability of accommodation and supporting facilities	12.25	92.47
Lack of strengthening networks and communication	11.85	90.32
Promotion of tourism villages has not been maximized	11.57	91.40
Low awareness of environmental cleanliness and waste problems	10.28	94.62
Lack of quality human resources	10.00	90.32
Lack of culinary appeal	9.52	86.02
Lack of cooperation and synergy with stakeholders	8.40	92.47
Lack of supply and availability of clean water in the dry season	6.50	89.25
Lack of community awareness and participation	6.08	91.40
Lack of community motivation and optimism	5.95	88.17
Lack of choice of existing types of attractions	5.83	83.87
Lack of sales and souvenir shops	5.65	88.17
Lack of tourist attractions, especially art performances	5.63	84.95

The weakness factors are more dominated by the problem of inadequate means of transportation and accommodation, lack of strengthening networking and promotion,

the low quality of human resources in managing tourism businesses. The first factor of weakness in tourism villages is that they are still lacking supporting facilities, as shown in Table 3. The existence of a good road to the tourist village from the results of government projects has not been supported by adequate transportation facilities. Means of transportation are still limited to those provided by tour package providers. So transportation is still incidental if there are tour packages to the destination village. As the next weakness factor that the availability of accommodation in the form of a place or room where tourists can rest, stay, sleep, shower, eat and drink, and enjoy the services and entertainment available is not yet available adequately.

Other factors that are items of weakness are factors related to awareness, attitudes, mentality, and quality of human resources. In addition, institutional factors and the strength of networking and promotion are also lacking.

Table 4. Level of Importance of Opportunities Factors in Tourism Villages in the Borobudur Region

Items	Total Score	Percentage of agreement
Proximity to Borobudur Temple	16.77	97.85
Tourist village as an effort to preserve the arts and culture, and local wisdom	16.64	98.92
Overflow of tourists who enter the Borobudur region	15.60	98.92
Creation of business fields and local people's livelihoods	15.48	98.92
Tourism is one of the priorities in the development sector by the government	13.64	95.70
Government and stakeholder attention to investment and conservation	12.50	97.85
The need for cheap tourism for the community	12.45	92.47
Community favorite trends towards natural attractions and ecotourism	12.40	95.70
Advances in information technology that provide opportunities for promotion	11.84	100

The main opportunity factor is the proximity of the location of the tourist village to Borobudur Temple as a tourist magnet, as shown in Table 4. In addition, the development of this tourist village provides valuable opportunities in the form of opportunities to preserve the arts and culture, as well as local wisdom which is a tourist attraction in itself.

From the point of view of tourist visitors, it comes out that the abundance of tourists entering the Borobudur region has the potential to be a tourist visit to the surrounding tourist village. The development of a tourism village also provides opportunities in the form of creating a livelihood field for local people. The development of tourism can not be separated from government support in an effort to increase tourism visits through the development of a strategic tourism area. Therefore tourism is one of the priority areas of development by the government will be a special opportunity for the development of tourism villages. This is also supported by the attention of the government and stakeholders in the future investment and conservation of the area. From the aspect of demand for tourism services, the need for cheap tourism for the community makes tourism villages as an alternative visit, as well as an opportunity factor. This is in line with the trend of community interest in natural attractions and ecotourism for the purpose of refreshing and relaxing. The last opportunity factor is the advancement of information technology that provides opportunities for the introduction and promotion of tourism villages. Furthermore, the threat factors are more on the issue of weak partnerships in tourism

business development, land tenure by investors outside the region, competition with tourism actors outside the region, and natural factors that threaten the sustainability of community-based tourism villages in the future. Based on Table 5 the low involvement and partnership by the private sector in the development of tourism villages can be a threat to the sustainability of tourism villages in the Borobudur region.

Table 5. Level of Importance of Threats Factors in Tourism Villages in the Borobudur Region

Items	Total Score	Percentage of agreement
The low involvement and partnership with the private sector	20.32	87.10
Expansion of outside investors in land ownership	20.16	81.72
Increased competition with private providers	18.72	89.25
Lack of consideration of the environmental impact of the project	18.15	88.17
Natural factors such as drought and landslide vulnerability	17.43	90.32
Lack of tourist information	12.45	91.40
The uncertainty of the number of tourist visitors due to seasonal factors	11.50	83.87

Furthermore, the strength of outside investors in the expansion of land ownership in the Borobudur region is the second threat. Competition in the provision of artificial tourism by private or individuals is also a threat. At this time the rise of tourism service offers has increased competition and become a threat to the sustainability of tourism villages if they do not improve the quality of tourism services.

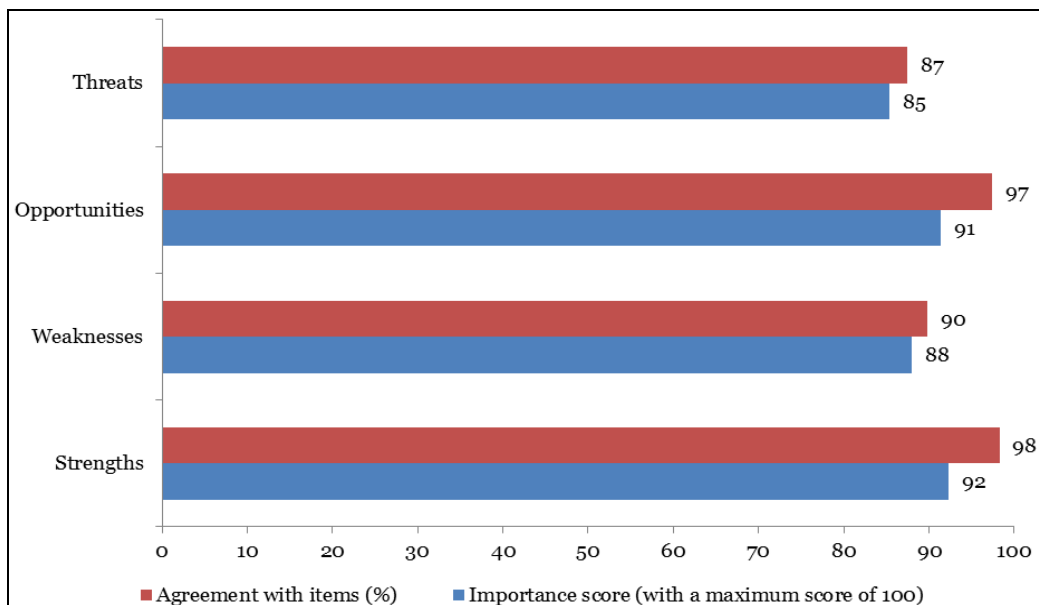


Figure 5. Importance Score and Agreement Percentage of Items in the Group of Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats Factors of Community-Based Tourism Village Development in the Borobudur Area

Other threat factors are related to environmental problems. The lack of consideration of the environmental impact of the resort and hotels project poses a threat to the sustainability of the tourism village. Other threats related to the environment are

natural factors with a dry season that affect drought and rainy season prone to landslides. The next threat is the lack of tourist information. The last two factors of threat are lack of knowledge and information about the tourist village of Borobudur and the number of daily tourist visits that are uncertain due to seasonal factors.

Development Strategies

Based on the results of the SWOT analysis, the tourism village development strategy must consider the score ranking of the importance of each factor as carried out in research by Bull et al. (2016). Figure 5 shows that the importance level score for the strength factor is the highest with a score of 92, followed by an opportunity factor with a score of 91, and subsequently, the weakness and threat factors respectively with a score of 88 and 85. The score is a converted score with the reference a maximum score of 100.

This calculation is to compare together with the percentage of the agreement which each is in the same order with the importance level. There is a correlation between the score of importance level and the percentage of agreement.

These results indicate that the opinions and attitudes of the respondents are consistent so that it supports the validity of the results of this survey. The multiplication results between the scores of the importance level between groups of factors as shown in Figure 5, and then the results are divided by 100 to simplify, the results obtained as shown in Figure 6. The results of this multiplication reflect the strength of interaction between the strength-opportunity (SO), weakness-opportunity (WO), strength-threat (ST) and weakness-threat (WT) factors. Furthermore, the results of this interaction can be used as a basis for determining the priority focus of the strategy in developing community-based tourism villages in the Borobudur region.

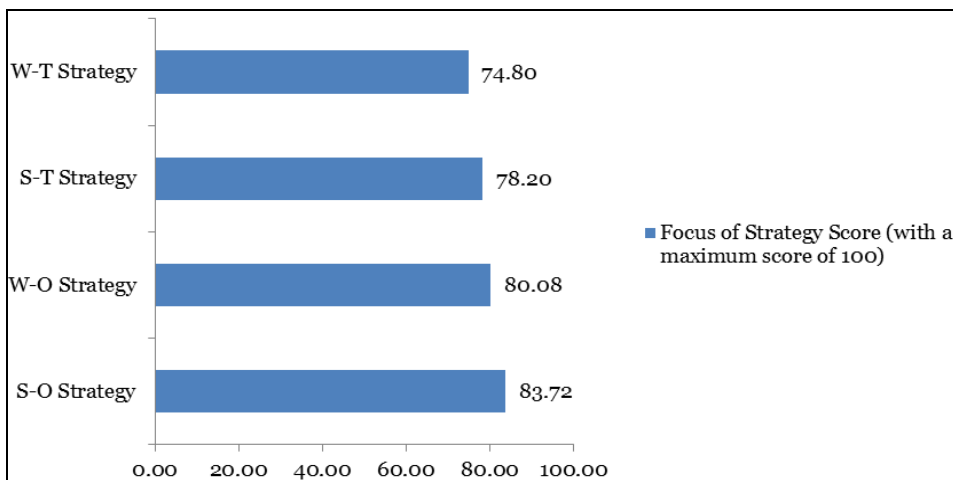


Figure 6. Ranking and Scores of Strategy Focus in the Development of Community-Based Tourism Villages in the Borobudur Area

Figure 6 shows that the interaction of strengths and opportunities provides the highest score, followed successively by the weakness-opportunity interaction score, the strength-threat interaction score, and the weakness-threat interaction score. The above description implies that community-based tourism village development strategies can be carried out with more emphasis on strategies that rely on strengths and opportunities, through S-O and W-O strategies, relative to weaknesses and threats, through S-T and W-

T strategies. However, in the implementation of the four strategies are still carried out because they will complement each other in order to achieve the goal of developing a sustainable tourism strategic area by considering a number of components of rural tourism development as stated by Gunn (1988), Wilson et al. (2001), Avila & Gasperini (2005), Everett & Aitchison (2008), Petrović et al. (2017), and Xu et al. (2019).

The focus of strategy based strengths and opportunities becomes the focus of the first strategy. The implementations of the focus of the strength-opportunity strategy based on the results of the SWOT analysis in the development of community-based tourism villages are as follows:

a. Strengthening tourism institutions in the Borobudur region involving the government, the private sector and the community as well as a collaboration so that there is synergy and integration between tourism stakeholders facilitated by the local government through special agencies and the central government through the ministry, which in charge of tourism.

b. Continuation of government projects in building road infrastructure to reach tourism objects in villages, especially natural tourism objects that have been initiated and carried out by the community.

c. Collaboration between the community, regional and central government, and the private sector in developing activities to promote local arts and culture and efforts to preserve local wisdom to attract village tourism through routine events in the form of local cultural and tourism festivals, tourist village, and tourism awareness group festivals.

d. Sustainability of support programs from State-Owned Enterprises, where Private Business Entities can take part in the same program, for village tourism development activities that have been preceded by the establishment of the Village Economy Center to activities oriented to improving the skills and ability of tourism business management to the community for independence and sustainability in the future.

The focus of weakness and opportunity based strategies becomes the focus of the second strategy. The implementations of the focus of the weakness-opportunity strategy based on the results of the SWOT analysis are as follows:

a. Development of tour packages that provide opportunities for cooperation in the provision of transportation with transportation providers such as community networks and tourism actors, especially traditional transportation such as andhong, ancient cars, and ancient bicycles to surround and visit tourist destinations. The use of selected transportation modes and road routes to the destination attractions become part of the tour package.

b. Development of tourism awareness groups that do not yet exist, and strengthening the positions and roles of existing tourism awareness groups, so that they are available in each tourism village, with facilitation from the government, both at the initiative of the community and initiatives of local government agencies which in charge of tourism. With regard to the existing tourism awareness groups, strengthening tourism awareness groups can be done by increasing the guidance of both the central and regional governments, other elements consisting of the private sector, industry and tourism associations. Coaching mainly through direct coaching that can be done through talks, discussions, education and training, workshops, competitions, and others.

c. Increasing and strengthening cooperation between managers of village tourism activities with stakeholders and other tourism actors in the village tourism promotion program, both through special events, advertisements in electronic media and outdoor media such as billboards, posters, banners and so on.

d. Improving the quality of human resources and entrepreneurial skills in the development and management of tourism businesses for tourism managers and activists in each tourist village facilitated by the central and regional governments in collaboration with private elements engaged in tourism businesses. With this effort, the village's potential consisting of natural attractions, arts, and culture, crafts, food, and special culinary can be developed as part of the village tourism business.

e. Strengthening the institutional relationship between the village government, the community, and activists and tourism managers so as to create strength and synergy in the development of tourism villages based on a spirit of togetherness and prioritizing common interests and transparency in each of their activities.

Based on the analysis of the results of the strength and threat item scores, the focus of the strength-threat strategy becomes the third strategy focus. The implementations of this strategy focus include:

a. Development of cooperation between tourism managers in the tourism village with private parties engaged in tourism, both in the management of tourism businesses and in promotion and marketing, through the development of tour packages in capturing the tourist market destination of Borobudur and surrounding areas.

b. Improvement of the tour package services and their promotion through cooperation with other parties, by every tourism business manager in the village so that tourists can get the satisfaction that makes them come back again and recommend to others to come to visit.

The focus of the weakness-threat strategy becomes the fourth strategy focus on the development of community-based tourism villages in the Borobudur region. The implementations of the focus of the strategy are as follows:

a. The establishment of a communication and cooperation forum between the tourism village managers so that each other can develop complementary tourism businesses and not to lethal competition, for future business sustainability in the tourism product market competition with tourism actors outside the region.

b. Improvement of clean water supply projects either through the follow-up and the realization of the expansion of the clean water supply service network by the local government through regional water supply companies, as well as through self-based partnership programs and community participation to support the development of tourist villages in every village in the Borobudur region.

c. Strengthening the role of the village government, sub-district government and regional government agencies in regulating land ownership in villages in the Borobudur District area, as the enforcement of government regulations for higher government, in this case, the Ministry of Agrarian and Spatial Planning/Head of the National Land Agency to preventing the expansion of agricultural land tenure by investors from outside the area. Land tenure by outside regional investors and misuse of agricultural land will narrow the space for community participation as the main actors in the development of community-based tourism villages in the future.

d. Enforcement of firmer regulations on the environmental impact of construction projects for hotels, resorts and other projects located in the tourism village area carried out by local government agencies in charge of the environment.

CONCLUSIONS

The development of community-based tourism villages in the Borobudur region as part of a strategic tourism area at least pays attention to aspects of the village potential, human resources, institutions, partnerships, promotions, and networks. All of

these aspects will be the target of developing tourist villages by providing more space for local community participation in each aspect. Village potential, especially natural objects that are inseparable from the existence of Borobudur Temple, along with the diversity of arts and culture, traditional handicrafts and food as well as local wisdom that still survive, can be integrated with other aspects.

Based on the results of the SWOT analysis, the development strategies of the tourism village prioritize the focus of the strength-opportunity strategy as the main strategy. Strengthening tourism institutions from the village, sub-district, district, provincial and central levels will greatly determine the success of the development of tourism villages towards a strategic tourism area that is supported by community participation and cooperation with the private sector. In addition, the existence of tourism awareness group in the village is no less important in the development of tourism villages because community participation in the development of tourism villages starts from the existence of tourism awareness group starting from the initiation, planning, implementation, supervision, and evaluation stages in village tourism business activities.

Three strategies focusing on weaknesses-opportunities, strengths-threats, and weaknesses-threats complement the strategy that focuses on strengths and opportunities in achieving the objectives of all aspects of the development of tourist villages in the Borobudur region. Therefore, with these four strategies, the development of tourist villages will be able to optimize the potential of existing villages with supporting resources, strong institutions, accompanied by strengthening partnerships and networks in the management of tourism businesses and their marketing and promotion for the sustainability of tourism villages in the future.

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THE IMPACT OF AIRPORT EXPERIENCE ON INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS' REVISIT INTENTION: A SOUTH AFRICAN CASE

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Abstract: Travel destinations have become more dependent on repeat commercial activities and at the center of all this trade are airports that have evolved into full service centres. Therefore, to investigate the influence that airport experience would have on travellers' intention to revisit a destination a conceptual framework was developed. The study was quantitative in nature in which data was collected through intercepts at the OR Tambo International Airport in South Africa. 503 willing international travellers participated and the collected surveys were processed in order to generate insights. To analyse the data, structural equation modelling was adopted. The main finding of the study established that conative destination image was the most influential factor in determining travellers' intention to revisit a destination. Implications emerging from the findings were presented and suggestions for further research were proposed.

Key words: tourists, airports, destination, image, servicescape

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INTRODUCTION

As many destinations become more and more reliant on repeat commercial activities, the intention to revisit a destination has emerged as a paramount research area (Assaker et al., 2011). It is therefore imperative for destinations to be unique and distinguished from the competition (Sharifsamet et al., 2020). The present research focuses on destination marketing. Destination marketing is considered a phenomenon (Matlovičová & Husárová, 2017). Marketing of a destination gradually evolves into its branding which is generally influenced by the need to attract tourists, professionals, new residents and business (Matlovičová & Kormaníková, 2014).

According to Pike and Page (2014), destination marketing is a field that commenced in 1973. Halpern and Graham (2015) suggest that airports represent a crucial element of the transport system, as they provide travellers with essential infrastructure and facilities to transfer them from surface to air modes of transport, and

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facilitate airlines' arrivals and departures. Airports have recently been transformed from merely being a point of transit for visitors into extravagant attractions that provide many facilities and services (Du Plessis et al., 2014). Destination marketing combines business and leisure which in turn projects a positive image of (Chung et al., 2020). The aviation industry is expected to transport 16 billion passengers in 2050, and therefore airports have to develop in order to meet this growing demand for services (Suárez-Alemán & Jiménez, 2016). The traveller's satisfaction at airports has become a central issue in airport services (Suárez-Alemán & Jiménez, 2016).

Florida et al. (2015) emphasise that airports connect places to the global economy and that airports are much more than facilities for travellers to get flights, attend in-transit business meetings, or conduct duty-free shopping. Airports are a vital component of regional economic development (Florida et al., 2015). Mason (2015) postulates that tourism has become a global industry involving millions of individuals in both domestic and international travel. Destination marketing has become a highly specialised business that is constantly evolving considering that its digital component accounted for about 25% of destination marketing budgets in 2015, but in five years' time that figure is estimated to rise to 75% (South Africa Tourism Review, 2015).

This study was grounded in destination marketing with special focus on how tourists' experiences at the OR Tambo International Airport in Johannesburg, South Africa would influence their intention to want to revisit South Africa as a travel destination. The service scape model was partially adapted for purposes of this study. This is because customers are considered part of the service (Eiglier & Langeard, 1987). Previous studies on destination marketing have been conducted in various contexts. Minoli et al. (2015) researched golf tourism's sustainability, while Pike and Page (2014) conducted a review of the first 40 years of destination marketing research, in order to identify themes that have emerged from this field.

In addition, Dwyer et al. (2014) explored the return on investment of destination marketing in Australia. Furthermore, Avraham (2015) analysed the relationship between positive image and continued tourism growth, while Vogt, Jordan, et al. (2015) and Moscardo and Murphy (2016) explored small island tourism destinations.

These previous studies on destination marketing aided in identifying the gap where not much research on destination marketing had been conducted to establish whether or not traveller experiences at an airport would shape travellers' perceptions and influence their decision to revisit a destination. This research was conducted at the OR Tambo International Airport, in Johannesburg. According to Maziriri et al. (2016) Cape Town and Johannesburg are two of the most visited destinations in South Africa.

This therefore provided justification for conducting the research at the OR Tambo International Airport in Johannesburg.

Problem statement

A clearly defined research problem and a specific goal that can be achieved are the hallmarks of a good research strategy (Denscombe, 2014). This research seeks to investigate and address the challenges faced by a South African airport in attracting international tourists and retaining them based on their experiences at that airport. Motivation for investigating this problem is based on past literature that cited destination image as a challenge to modern tourism (Nicoletta & Servidio, 2012). The study's conceptual model is provided in the following section.

Conceptual model

The study's conceptual model presented in Figure 1.

The conceptual model comprised of the predictor variables are servicescape and traveller perceived value. The mediator variables are destination image variables

comprising of cognitive destination image, affective destination image and conative destination image. The abovementioned terms are defined in section that follows.

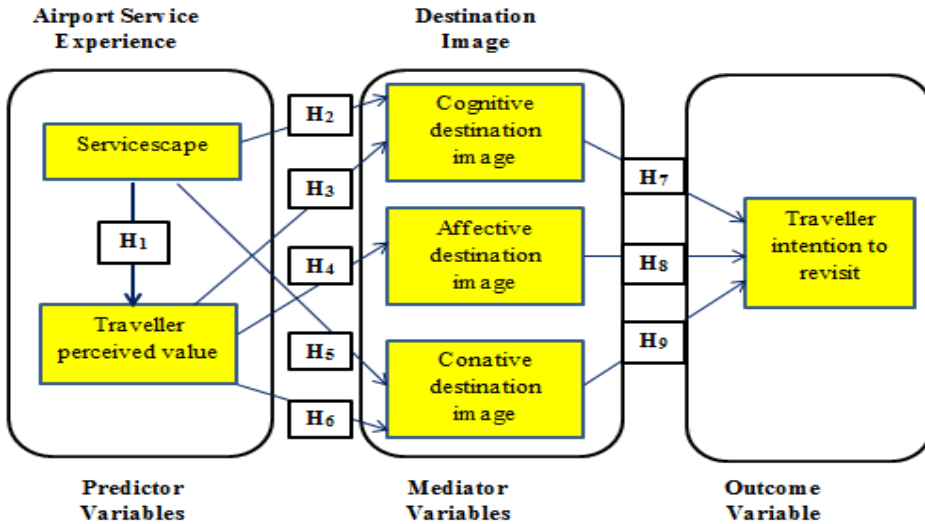


Figure 1. Conceptual model (Source: author's own work, 2020)

Table 1. Definition of variables

VARIABLE	DEFINITION	SOURCE
Servicescape	Servicescape is commonly described as the physical environment of a service company	Balakrishnan et al., (2016)
Travellers' perceived value	The ratio of benefits received from providers relative to the costs sacrificed by travellers	Adeola & Adebisi (2014)
Cognitive destination image	What potential tourists know about a destination	Chen et al., (2016)
Affective destination image	Feelings that potential tourists hold about a destination	Chen et al.(2016)
Conative destination image	The manner in which an individual with any degree of motivation goes about acting on that motivation	Gerdes & Stromwall (2008)
Traveller intention to revisit	An individual's willingness to make a repeat visit to the same destination	Stylos et al., (2016)

SOUTH AFRICAN TOURISM, DESTINATION IMAGE AND AIRPORT EXPERIENCE

Tourism has shown significant growth progress and is estimated to reach 1.8 billion international travellers by 2030 (World Tourism Organisation, 2011; Law et al., 2016). The tourism industry and organisations within it seek to understand the needs of tourists because they depend on such information to make strategic decisions, such as where their businesses should be situated (Josiassen et al., 2015). It is a service sector, with most parts of the tourism value chain comprising an experience, not the purchase of a physical product or item (South Africa Tourism Review, 2015). According to Lopes (2011), tourism has grown to become one of the foremost sectors of the world economy. Tourism makes a makes significant contribution to the global domestic product, jobs, and foreign exchange earnings (South Africa Tourism Review, 2015). It is not a typical economic sector, and challenges conventional conceptions of how production and consumption take place (South Africa Tourism Review, 2015).

The growth and impact of tourism has provided destinations around the world with numerous advantages, such as employment for residents and an increase in GDP/economic development (VisitBritain, 2014; Deloitte, 2013; Pyke et al., 2016). Within the context of the present research, destination image is made up of cognitive destination image, affective destination image and cognitive destination image. According to Matos et al. (2012) destination image is the product of the knowledge the tourist acquired about the destination (cognitive component), the feelings or attachment the tourist develops towards a destination (affective) and his or her intention or actions in the future (conative). Destination image as a construct is influenced by servicescape (Lin, 2004) and traveller perceived value (Chen & Tsai, 2007).

Tourism is considered key to South Africa's economy (Statistics South Africa, 2016). The tourism industry in Africa receives a considerable amount of attention from policy makers and South Africa is Africa's leading tourism destination (Visser & Hoogendoorn, 2011). Tourism marketing strategies can have substantial implications in terms of the social development of tourist destinations, and the opportunities and limitations for stakeholders to engage in tourism (Jeuring, 2015). Tourism marketing as a policy tool, aims to influence representations of tourism destinations (Cousin, 2008; Kavaratzis, 2012; Jeuring, 2015). Domestic tourists contributed 57% (R124,7 billion) of total tourism spend in 2013, while international tourists contributed 43% (R94,2 billion) (South Africa Tourism Review, 2015). Airports have developed over the past decades from being merely basic terminals that function as points of transit, into complicated market facilities providing multiple services (Jarach, 2001; Martin-Cejas, 2006; Du Plessis, Saayman & Potgieter, 2014). Due to the subsequent commercialisation and privatisation of many airports in recent years, airport management organisations have invested immensely in the marketing and branding of airports (Castro & Lohmann, 2014).

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Servicescape and traveller perceived value

This hypothesis is derived from the concept of services. Rajesh (2013) suggested that servicescape, more specifically shopping, dining environment and attractions had an impact on the intention to revisit a destination. However Rajesh (2013) further argued that shopping environment had no directly influence on revisit on intention to revisit a destination but it was through satisfaction of the tourist. Siu et al. (2012) suggest that servicescape is linked to customer perceived value through positive affective customer responses and satisfaction. Bogicevic et al. (2013) found that in the airport environment servicescape features such as scent and design positively influence the traveller enjoyment in that airport. Product quality and service quality service are antecedents customer perceived value (Davidson et al. 2015). Therefore, inferring from the literature and the empirical evidence mentioned above, the study therefore hypothesised that:

H1: Servicescape is directly and positively related to traveller perceived value.

Servicescape and cognitive destination image

Similar to hypothesis 1 (H1), this hypothesis is also developed from the concept of services. Past studies have shown that physical environment, also referred to as servicescape plays a crucial role both positive and negative, in customers' impression formation (Bitner, 1992; Lin, 2004). According to Lin (2004) servicescape is related to cognitive images however this relationship is moderated by the micro-perspective (personality traits, expectations, goal behaviours and cognitive-style involvement) and the macro-perspective (socio-cultural, individualism vs collectivism and demographics). Lin (2004) stated that servicescape positively influences cognitive processing (organize

perceptual image) while affective processing (emotions) are directly and positively related to cognitive processing and in-turn cognitive processing affects behaviour.

According to Bitner (1992) servicescape is indirectly associated with cognitive beliefs through customer and employee actions. However a later source (Ryu et al., 2012) postulated that a firm's servicescape has a direct relationship with cognitive responses, such as customer beliefs and perceptions.

H2: Servicescape is directly and positively related to cognitive destination image.

Traveller perceived value and cognitive destination image

According to Sylos et al. (2016) destination images, holistic images and personal normative beliefs are predictors of intention to revisit a destination. Destination image theory is the theory that provided a basis for the relationship that existed between traveller perceived value and cognitive destination image was. Authors such as Assaker (2014) explored destination image in great detail. According to Assaker (2014) destination image is a multi-construct theory that comprises of cognitive, affective and conative elements. In addition Castellanos-Verdugo et al. (2016) pointed out that comprehension of the drivers of the perceived value of a destination is imperative.

Customer perceived value is viewed as a cognitive construct since it is determined through a cognitive exchange between quality and sacrifice (Ryu et al., 2012). According to Pike and Bianchi (2016) perceived value is positively related to satisfaction and loyalty. Therefore, inferring from the literature and the empirical evidence mentioned above, the study hypothesised the following statements:

H3: Traveller perceived value is directly and positively related to cognitive destination image.

Traveller perceived value and affective destination image

Hsu (2008) suggests that value perceptions are influenced by expectations and perceived quality. Hsu (2008) further added that those value perceptions in turn influence satisfaction. Additionally, Mohammed et al. (2014) posited that affective destination image directly and positively influences tourist behavioural intention.

Similar to the previously stated hypothesis (traveller perceived value and cognitive destination image) the theory that also forms the basis for the relationship between traveller perceived value and affective destination image is the destination image theory (Sylos et al., 2016). According to Xie and Lee (2013) affective image refers to the traveller's evaluation of the emotional quality of feeling regarding features of the surrounding environment. Furthermore Xie and Lee (2013) implied that traveller perceived value was therefore related to affective destination image.

Therefore, deducing from the literature and the empirical evidence mentioned above, the study hypothesises the following statements:

H4: Traveller perceived value is directly and positively related to affective destination image.

Servicescape and conative destination image

Shopping environment, accessibility to facilities and relaxation all have an influence on the destination image as well as destination loyalty (Rajesh, 2013). Han et al. (2011) argued that service quality and satisfaction have an influence on conative image. Sylos et al. (2016) suggested that the destination image theory is associated to the relationship that exists between conative destination image and servicescape. Wang et al. (2011) established that conative outcomes can be significantly triggered by stimuli from a pleasant environment. Sung et al. (2011) suggested that conative destination image is closely associated with the services that travellers receive as far as tourism research is concerned.

This therefore makes this relationship important and relevant for the study. Therefore, inferring from the literature and the empirical evidence mentioned above, the study hypothesised the following statement:

H5: Servicescape is directly and positively related to conative destination image.

Traveller perceived value and conative destination image

Hyun and O'Keefe (2012) provide the rationale for the hypothesis in question as they posited that the destination image theory is a well-established research area among both tourism marketers and travellers. The destination concept is the theory that is most closely associated with the relationship that exists between traveller perceived value and conative destination image. Destination image is a shared system of thoughts, opinions, feelings, conceptions, and intentions toward a destination" which not only identifies the multiplicity of elements (cognitive, affective, and conative) but also their influence on the purchase decision process (Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Rajesh (2013) stated that traveller influence has an impact on destination image. The success of destinations primarily relies on experiential qualities of their offerings (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). Customer perceived value is positively associated service quality attributes with was a notion (e.g., tangibles, empathy, reliability, and responsiveness) (Eggert & Ulaga, 2002; Ryu et al., 2012). Therefore, deducing from the literature and the empirical evidence mentioned above, the study hypothesised the statement below:

H6: Traveller perceived value is directly and positively related to conative destination image.

Cognitive destination image and traveller intention to revisit

The justification for this hypothesis is founded on the destination image theory (Hyun & O'Keefe, 2012). The cognitive or perceptual components are concerned with the beliefs or knowledge about a destination's features evaluations (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). The present study hypothesised that cognitive destination image was directly and positively associated with traveller intention to revisit a destination.

Additionally Park et al. (2016) also observed that there was an alternate option in which destination image and traveller intention were mediated by traveller constraints in which this became a negative linkage. The likelihood of tourists to make future visits then ultimately leads to the likelihood of recommendation for that destination (Eusébio & Vieira, 2013). Therefore, inferring from the literature and the empirical evidence mentioned above, the study hypothesised the following statements:

H7: Cognitive destination image is directly and positively related to traveller intention to revisit.

Affective destination image and traveller intention to revisit

In a recent study that that investigated the relationship between affective destination image and traveller intention to revisit (Stylos et al., 2016) found a link between these two constructs. Affective image positively influences traveller intention according to (Chen et al., 2016). Stylos et al. (2016) posited that affective image directly and positively influences a tourist's intention to revisit a destination. Affective image is positively related to the intention to recommend the destination to other travellers (Qu et al., 2011). However, this is not a direct relationship as it is mediated through the overall image that the traveller has of the destination. Therefore, inferring from the literature and the empirical evidence mentioned above, the study hypothesised that:

H8: Affective destination image is directly and positively related to traveller intention to revisit.

Conative destination image and traveller intention to revisit

According to Stylos et al. (2016) conative destination image influences traveller intention to revisit significantly in two ways, first directly and second indirectly through holistic image Stylos et al. (2016) further argued that as far as the relationship between conative destination image and holistic image is concerned personal normative belief is involved. Li et al. (2016) further argued that tourists' overall image is significantly and positively related to their conative image. However Ekinci et al. (2007) suggested that the image of the host (destination) has a positive effect on visitor intention to return. Therefore, inferring from the literature and the empirical evidence mentioned above, the study hypothesised the following statements:

H9: Conative destination image is directly and positively related to traveller intention to revisit.

METHODOLOGY

A positivist approach was adopted as it was imperative to obtain objective findings. The study was quantitative in nature where 508 surveys were administered to willing international tourists at the OR Tambo International Airport in South Africa.

Of the 508 surveys, 503 were useable for data analysis purposes. The primary data for the research was collected in 2017. The respondents were selected using the convenience sampling approach due to the absence of a sampling frame of tourists that passed through this particular airport. After research data was collected from the participants it was analysed using SPSS 24 and AMOS 24 software. Reliability, validity and model fit checks were conducted in SPSS 24 to establish its suitability for analysis purposes. Structural equation modeling was carried-out in AMOS 24 adopting a two-stage approach that involved confirmatory factor analysis followed by hypotheses testing in order to test proposed relationships. Descriptive statistics were conducted using SPSS24 in order to provide an illustration of the sample's profile.

RESEARCH ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Measurement model assessment

As part of assessing the reliability of the measurements, model fit was checked. The outcomes are presented in table 2 below.

Table 2. Model fit indices

CMIN/DF	GFI	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
1,690	0,901	0,922	0,904	0,967	0,958	0,966	0,037

CFA Model: Confirmatory factor analysis model; CMIN/DF: Chi-square; GFI: Goodness of fit index; NFI: Normed Fit index; RFI: Relative Fit Index; IFI: Incremental Fit Index; TLI: Tucker Lewis Index; CFI: Comparative Fit Index. RMSEA: Root Measure Standard Error Approximation

Confirmatory factor analysis and structural modeling were conducted in two stages where the first stage was an assessment of model fit and the second stage was the testing of the proposed conceptual model. As for model fit the following indices were assessed: chi-square (CMIN/DF), goodness of fit index (GFI), Normed Fit index (NFI), Relative Fit Index (RFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) Root Measure Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA). Table 2 below presents the model fit indices. The Chi-square (CMIN/DF) was 1.690, falling below the recommended threshold of 3. The rest of the model fit indices were as follows: The Comparative fit index (CFI) was 0.966 exceeded the acceptable level of 0.900 suggested by (Hooper et al., 2008), the goodness of fit index (GFI) was 0.901 exceeding the acceptable

0.9 level according to (Baumgartner & Hombur, 1996). The Relative fit index (RFI) was 0.904 also exceeding recommend value of 0.9 by (McDonald & Ho, 2002). The following section presents the study's accuracy and descriptive statistics.

The mean values for the constructs presented and defined in Table 1 ranged from 5 to 4 and since there were within close range to each other it could be assumed that the respondents were fairly spread. The standard deviation values ranged from -2 to +2 thereby also revealing fair distribution of respondents. The average variance extracted values were generally above the acceptable threshold of 0.5 as recommended by (Fraering & Minor, 2006) with the exception of cognitive destination image (CGDI) which had 0.457, however this value was kept in the study as the variable was material to the research considering that destination image was the mediator for the conceptual model and could not be removed. Further research might possibly explain why CGDI slightly fell short of the recommended threshold of 0.5. In terms of reliability the Cronbach's alpha values were above 0.6 as recommended by literature (Dusick, 2011). The composite reliability values were above 0.7, meeting the threshold suggested by Hair et al. (2006) respectively. The highest shared value of each construct was lower than the corresponding average variance extracted value for the same variable therefore proving the existence of discriminate validity according to (Nusair & Hua, 2010). However, CNDI was the exception where the highest shared variance was slightly higher than the average variance extracted value. The sample profile is presented in Table 3 where gender, age and purpose of the trip were explored. Thereafter, more advanced statistics were conducted namely presentation of the structural model and hypotheses testing.

Table 3. Tourist profile

Gender	Percentage
Male	58%
Female	39%
Preferred not to state	3%
Total	100%
Age	Percentage
18-19	7%
20-25	22%
26-35	32%
36+	38%
Total	100%
Purpose of Trip	Percentage
Leisure	35%
Business	33%
Educational purpose	17%
Medical purposes	2%
Other	12%
No response	1%
Not applicable	0%

The section above was a presentation of the profile of the tourists who participated in the study. It could be observed that males represented more than half of all respondents indicated by 58%, while females only accounted for 39%. The remainder, 3% were those that refused to state their gender. As for the age groups of the tourists that participated it was observed that those aged 36 and older had the highest representation at 38%, followed by those that were 26 to 35, at 32%, while those that ranged from 20 to 25 accounted for 22% of all participants. The smallest age group was

that of the 18 to 19 age group representing 7%. Most tourists visited South Africa for leisure, indicated by 35%, followed by business travellers (33%), educational purpose travellers (17%), medical purpose travellers (2%), other travellers (12%). The last groups in terms of representation were those that did not provide a response as well as those that that stated that it was not applicable to respond to a question on “purpose of trip.” The following section was provided the structural model in Figure 2 (based on proposed hypothesis). Later on, the findings of the hypothesis were presented in Table 4.

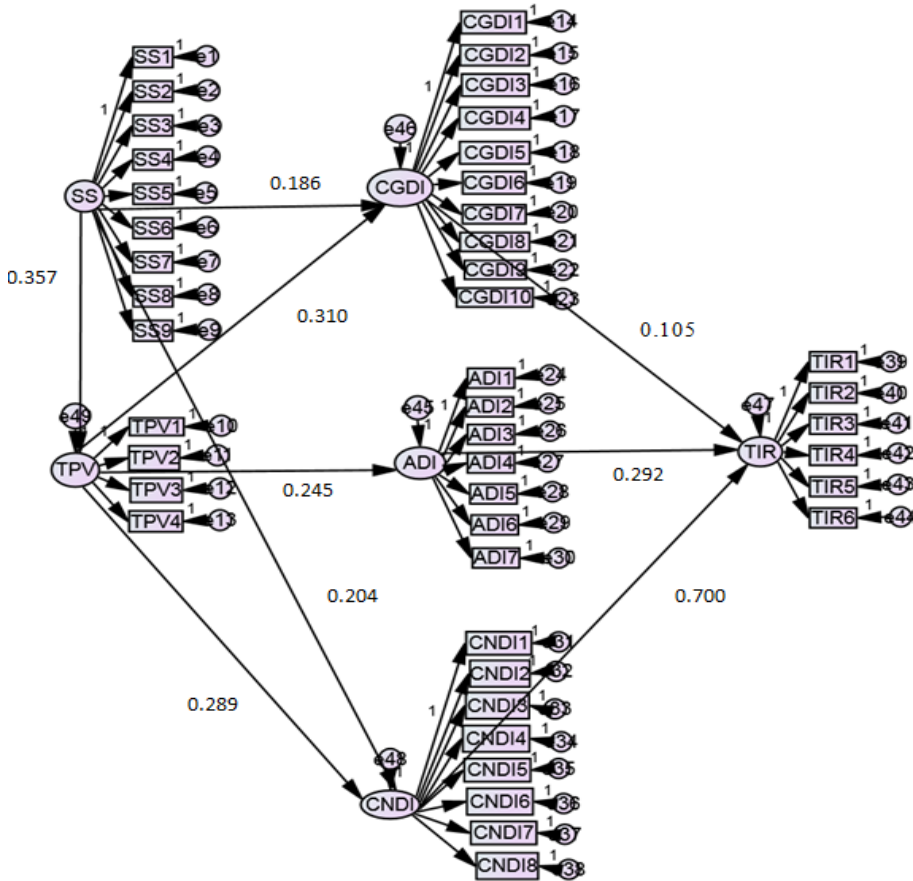


Figure 2. Structural model (Source: author’s own work, 2020)

Key: SS: Servicescape, TPV: Traveller perceived value, CGDI: Cognitive destination image, ADI: Affective Destination, CNDI: Conative destination image, TIR: Traveller intention to revisit

The following section presents Table 4, which shows the testing of the proposed hypothesis of the study. Path coefficient values, p-values and their outcomes are presented followed by a series of discussions.

Discussion of results

It was observed after data analysis that all proposed hypotheses with the exception of (H7) were both significant and supported. H7 (cognitive destination image and traveller intention to revisit). Conative destination image and traveller intention to revisit was observed to have the strongest relationship. This suggested that tourists at the airport were

mainly influenced by pre-conceived images of the destination in terms of their willingness to revisit. Additionally this meant that their perception of the image presented by the destination on arrival (airport) did not do much in persuading them to revisit the destination. Cognitive destination image and traveller intention to revisit in addition to being the only hypothesis not supported was also the weakest of all proposed hypotheses.

Table 4. Hypotheses results

Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	P-Value	Outcome
Servicescape (SS) and Traveller perceived value (TPV)	0.357	***	Supported and Significant
Servicescape (SS) and cognitive destination Image (CGDI)	0.186	***	Supported and Significant
Traveller perceived value (TPV) and cognitive destination image (CGDI)	0.310	***	Supported and Significant
Traveller perceived value (TPV) and Affective Destination Image (ADI)	0.245	***	Supported and Significant
Servicescape (SS) and Conative Destination Image (CNDI)	0.204	***	Supported and Significant
Traveller perceived value (TPV) and Conative Destination Image (CNDI)	0.289	***	Supported and Significant
Cognitive Destination Image (CGDI) and Traveller Intention to Revisit (TIR)	0.105	0.208	Supported but not Significant
Affective Destination Image (ADI) and Traveller Intention to Revisit (TIR)	0.292	***	Supported and Significant
Conative Destination Image (CNDI) and Traveller Intention to Revisit (TIR)	0.700	***	Supported and Significant

Servicescape and Traveller perceived value have a path coefficient of 0.357. This relationship was both supported and significant at (p value < 0.001) similar to the proposed hypothesis. This outcome suggested airport servicescape positively and directly influenced traveller perceived value. Travellers perceived the airport's physical environment as positively enhancing the experience at the airport and providing the impression that the services brought value for their money. Servicescape and Traveller perceived value a path coefficient of 0.186. This relationship was both supported and significant at (p value < 0.001). This result was in line with the proposed hypothesis. This outcome suggested airport servicescape positively and directly cognitive destination image. This result implied that what traveller thought about the destination's image (CGDI) was positively influenced by the airport's physical environment servicescape.

Traveller perceived value was found to have a positive and direct impact on cognitive image in line with the hypothesis. This relationship was both supported and significant at (p value < 0.001) having a path coefficient of 0.310. This outcome is supported by Chuchu (2019), who established that cognitive destination image was influenced by the traveller's perception of value. In addition the finding suggested the perceived value of services and products at the airport matched travellers' thoughts and expectations. This was closely associated with what those travellers thought about the destination at which these services were being provided. Traveller perceived value and affective destination image were both positively and directly associated as proposed in the hypothesis. This relationship was both supported and significant at (p value < 0.001) level of significance. Travellers' view of receiving value for the money matched the emotions associated with their airport experience (affective destination image). This relationship had a path coefficient of 0.204. Airport servicescape had a positive influence on the information that travellers had regarding the image of a destination. This posited that the

airport's surroundings had a positive contribution to what travellers already knew about a destination as proposed in the hypothesis. This relationship was both supported and significant at (p value < 0.001) level of significance. The relationship had a path coefficient of 0.204. Travellers' perception of value was seen to have a directly positive contribution to the knowledge of the image that those travellers already possessed. This relationship was consistent with the hypothesis stated in this study concerning this relationship. Furthermore, this relationship was both supported and significant at (p value < 0.001) level of significance. This relationship had a path coefficient of 0.289.

Cognitive destination image had an influence on traveller intention to revisit a destination. This relationship was also supported but not significant. Travellers' thoughts regarding a destination directly influenced their intention to revisit the destination. This relationship had a path coefficient of 0.105. It is important to note that of all the relationships this was the only not significant. Affective destination image traveller intention to revisit were both positively as well as directly associated as proposed in the hypothesis. This relationship was also both supported and significant at (p value < 0.001) level of significance. The emotions that traveller's associated with the destination positively contributed to their intention to revisit that destination. This relationship had a path coefficient of 0.292. Lastly, conative destination image had a direct and positive influence on traveller intention to revisit. This relationship was both supported and significant at (p value < 0.001) level of significance. This relationship had a path coefficient of 0.700. This finding suggested travellers were willing to revisit a destination based on the information they already had regarding that destination. Conative destination image was observed as having the strongest influence on travellers' intention to re-visit a destination. This finding is supported by Chung et al. (2020) who suggested that, destination marketing, if conducted properly would influence business and leisure travellers to return to a destination with additional tourists from their home countries.

CONCLUSION

The overall implication of the study was that key players that can affect tourist experience in South Africa such as the government, tourism organisations as well airport management organisations should focus their efforts in ensuring that South Africa as a destination is portrayed positively as this was established through empirical research to as a driver of Tourism related visits to South Africa. Tourist existing knowledge of South Africa (conative destination image) became the strongest influence on their intention to revisit the country as a travel destination. This implied that it is not only necessary to ensure that tourists are afforded the best treatment at the airport and within the nation's borders but more importantly images of South Africa abroad should be positive as this helps create preconceived ideas of the country in the minds of the travellers before they even visit South Africa. The main factual conclusion was that international tourists' perceptions were based on their perceptions of what they already knew about the destination. This was because in their responses the strongest influencer of their intention to revisit the destination was conative destination image (H₉).

Managerial implications

The key players that can affect tourist experience in South Africa such as the government, tourism organisations as well airport management organisations should increase efforts on ensuring that South Africa as a destination is portrayed positively in the home countries of those international visitors. The implication is that more active marketing is needed by the government and airports to marketing themselves abroad rather than within South Africa as proven by the relationship between conative destination image and traveller intention to revisit (H₉).

Limitations

The study faced certain limitations that could have led to possible bias in the findings. For instance only one airport was used therefore the participants might have not provided much diversity in responses as they were all exposed to the same environment. Another possible limitation is the academic nature of the questionnaire as this could have been a barrier to none English language native speakers.

Finally, the last potential limitation was that due to time constraints of the travellers and other external factors associated with being on a foreign country might have caused the participants to provide rushed responses.

Recommendations and suggestions for future research

Based on the findings of the study it that future researchers consider other locations other than the airport environment for instance at tourist attractions or facilities such as holiday resorts in order to establish if the results of similar results would be obtained as of this study. The reason being that it was highly plausible that the international tourists surveyed in this study also had a stay at South African holiday resorts and surveying them before they return to the airport on their way back might not have any potential biases that could be caused by anxiety or frustration at the airports. It could also be recommended that potential relationships from the conceptual model that were not analysed for purposes of this study be analysed.

For example analysing direct effects of servicescape and traveller perceived value on traveller intention to revisit a destination. In conclusion it could also be recommended for future researchers to test the exact same conceptual model and establish whether similar or different results can be obtained in comparison to those achieved in this study. Additional variables such as reputation of country/ destination or reputation of airport could be proposed in addition to the conceptual model for this research as this could potentially produce interesting findings. Possible avenues for future research are that international tourists could be approached after they have stayed in the country or destination. This would probably provide different perspectives of the research topic in question as the current research might have led to bias as the respondents were only exposed to one element of the destination being the airport.

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COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM IN THE CASE OF THE MALDIVES

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Abstract: This article aims at analyzing tourism development efforts in the guesthouse sector in the Maldives. In terms of method, it is a conceptual paper, which is based on a systematic literature review. The results show that tourism in the Maldives is dominated by foreign controlled resorts explaining the unequal distribution of its benefits. Entrepreneurs can focus on community guesthouses to cater for a 'budget' market as well as high-end tourists. The article suggests that the Maldives must create CBT ventures through decentralizing to a greater number of islands/atolls and redistributing resources to decrease inequality of control and benefits.

Key words: x tourism, community-based tourism, Maldives, Small states, Islands, SIDS

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a growing industry in Small Island Developing States (SIDS). For instances, in the Maldives, in 2016 "tourism contributed a total of 14 million Rufiyaa which was 22.7% of the total national GDP of the year" (Ministry of Tourism of Maldives – MTRM, 2017, 9). The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the Maldives was at an all-time high of US\$5.27 billion in 2018, which accounts for 0.01 percent of the global economy – the lowest was US\$0.04 billion recorded in 1981 with an average of US\$1.35 billion between 1980 and 2018 (Trading Economics, 2019). Small islands destinations can be proactive and sensitive about their communities with respect to tourism development (Vogt, et al., 2016, 36). Their specific settings within precise geographic limits far from

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the mainland and the small populations create entrepreneurial opportunities to carve out distinctive cultural identities of well-knit societies necessarily aware of the impacts of tourism development on their well-being (Vogt et al., 2016). Tourism is important for SIDS because of their location, physical features, flora and fauna which combined present a unique proposition to create a visitors' paradise by virtue of their islandness.

Tourism as a sector can have negative and positive impacts on communities (Nagarjuna, 2015, 14). Thus, the need to involve local communities in various aspects of tourism development and benefits is well recognised (Nagarjuna, 2015, 14; Salleh et al., 2016, 565; Burgos et al., 2017, 546; Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016, 5).

In fact, community participation is vital for enhancing the quality of the contribution of tourism to the national economy. This involvement of indigenous communities usually of low income in both urban and rural areas means that these groups of people will have found a platform to engage with government from which they are often excluded (Novelli & Gebhardt, 2007, 449). This suggests that disadvantaged members of society should be targeted when referring to community involvement as this will allow them to be involved in the technologies of governance. It can also be argued that this is important for inclusivity. We advocate for inclusive tourism which we define as any form of tourism that involves a majority of the people (particularly the disadvantaged communities) for the betterment of their communities while ensuring the preservation and protection of the environment for future generations.

Community-Based Tourism (CBT) is a type of tourism development that aims to counteract the negative impacts of conventional/mass tourism (Gadi Djou et al., 2017, 16). It is growing in popularity (Mearns & Lukhele, 2015, 2) and it is specifically intended for disadvantaged members in society (Tasci et al., 2013, 10). Most of the benefits should go to the people who make tourism happen in their localities – the small local operators. This is a necessary imperative to grow local economies and providing employment and incomes for local people through their own entrepreneurship.

A growing middle class is necessary so that the inequalities do not widen. When people have their own incomes, they rely less on government support programmes as they can fend for themselves. The participation of people is important for them to realise their own ambitions and enhance their feeling of being citizens of their country as they choose to do the things which they like. The reduction of poverty is important particularly in the context of the Sustainable Development Goals which aspire to eradicate poverty by 2030. The article proposes that a CBT approach to entrepreneurship for tourism development is a better option moving forward. In this context, the article will propose a model of tourism development which leans towards CBT.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The specific geography, natural and cultural resources of SIDS make them unique but vulnerable ecosystems. This also applies to the Maldives particularly because tourism is the main economic activity across 1190 islands within 26 natural atolls. Tourism exposes the vulnerabilities of these islands when viewed from the perspective of small-island sustainability particularly because small islands suffer high (financial) leakages as a consequence of dependence on imported goods and the propensity of the industry to employ foreign staff especially at higher organizational levels (Twining-Ward & Butler, 2002, 363). SIDS should address the issues of financial leakages as a collective as individually they may not possess the wherewithal to face these strong, well-networked corporations involved in these practices. The fragility of their environments requires concerted efforts in managing tourism to their benefit – this may require that environmental conservation and protection practices and standards

are harmonised in circumstances where these are informed by best practice (without undermining the sovereignty of individual states). Besides threats to the natural environment, the other challenge afflicting the SIDS is the foreign ownership of the industry (Briguglio & Briguglio, 2004, 1). For instance, incoming tourists are under the control of foreign tour operators with enormous bargaining power to definitively pronounce on matters in the host country and larger operators in SIDS are foreign and pursue their own agenda at the expense of the interests of host countries (Briguglio & Briguglio, 2004, 2). These issues of foreign control can well enter the debate regarding tourism and imperialism (Sinclair-Maragh & Gursoy, 2015, 146) in which imperialism is capitalism that is interested in expanding the market for private gain.

Within imperialism which represents a “disharmony paradigm, there are opposing interests between foreign investors and the host country” (Sinclair-Maragh & Gursoy, 2015, 146). In this context two discourses are evident, one says foreign companies benefit the most from profits generated at the expense of locals and the second says investors and locals do not have the same expectations from the investments such that foreign investors expect profit while host countries expect to absorb the capital and technology brought by the investment (Sinclair-Maragh & Gursoy, 2015, 146). A UNDP/World Bank Vulnerability and Poverty Assessment showed that households with a member working in tourism are more likely to be non-poor but “only 15% of employed Maldivian men and 4% of employed Maldivian women work in the sector [...] The lack of opportunities at the managerial level deters many Maldivians from participating in tourism” (MOTAC, 2013b: 185). Deliberate actions by governments should be taken to reverse these patterns in which local people are not adequately benefiting from the national economy. Additional measures need to be put in place in terms of adoption of new telecommunication technologies if these states are to fully participate and benefit from the Fourth Industrial Revolution.

COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM

The root of CBT dates back to 1970s when discourses of alternative development approaches that include matters of empowerment, sustainability, social justice and self-reliance were flourishing and CBT was intended for disadvantaged community members (Giampiccoli, 2015). Thus, CBT is directed to favor community development in “remote, rural, impoverished, marginalized, economically depressed, undeveloped, poor, indigenous, ethnic minority, and people in small towns” (Tasci et al., 2013, 10).

Community-based tourism “aims to the holistic goal of empowering underprivileged groups sustainably” (Tasci et al., 2013, 84). In this context CBT in Maldives should be intended for poorest and social-economically and geographically (atolls) marginalized section of the Maldivian population. Community-based tourism denotes a type of tourism that is “managed and controlled by the community” (Leksakundilok & Hirsch, 2008, 214) and it “can empower local communities, giving them a sense of pride in their natural resources and control over their communities’ development” (Mearns, 2012, 72). The main objective of CBT is local development for the long haul with benefits accruing to many social actors and not a few entrepreneurs (Mano et al., 2017, 417). It is important to note that CBT is not in any way inferior to mainstream tourism (Ndlovu et al., 2011), it is just another type of tourism. While usually small scale, CBT can be up-scaled and can be implemented in large hotels and infrastructure which means that it can expand to cover most, if not the whole tourism sector of a specific area and thus become the area’s main (or only) tourism approach. As such from being small scale it can become the mainstream tourism sector in a given locality. Small scale operations do create jobs and provide incomes for operators.

CBT cannot be achieved easily in communities. Mtapuri & Giampiccoli (2016) note that while CBT emerges organically from the bottom, it is rare for it to emerge without the support (for example, for marketing) of external partners as well as facilitation. It is in this context that the role of government is fundamental in providing such support, for example by SMME schemes or specific CBT capacity building programmes. Giampiccoli et al., (2014) maintain that Government's role is crucial for the promulgation of policy, empowerment and overall capacity building. Policies and strategies that are meant to transform economies can only be made by Government with other stakeholders. This cannot be left to the markets to address as markets can be manipulated to favour a few. Examples of this manifest in the way monopolies and oligopolies wield power in price determination protruding to colossal political influence when they capture states and governments. This paper posits a CBT approach as a specific strategic issue to be adopted to reduce poverty, facilitate holistic community development and shift tourism control and benefits towards local entrepreneurs in SIDS. In this paper we emphasize the role of Government, as do other writers, because it is only Government that has capacity to act in the interests of its people if it is a Government by the people for the people. Informality is evident especially in the early stages of CBT development or when CBT is left to grow on its own without any formal government support structure in place to guide and facilitate CBT development from the start.

THE MALDIVES

Tourism is the main economic sector in the Maldives. It is a huge foreign currency earner as well as being a huge employer in the country's tertiary sector (Kundur, 2012, 1). The role of tourism in Maldives came about after a short history in the country with a visit by a group of 22 tourists from Italy in the 1970s who were looking for 'untouched' tropical islands at which to vacation (at the time, tourism was packaged with Sri Lanka) but now it has grown to include all forms of holidaying associated with the 3'S's of Sun, Sea and Sand (MOTAC, 2013b, 10). The 3S's remain a huge attraction for the Maldives. Present day Maldives is a renowned, award-winning tourist destination with world-class, state of the art facilities as well as high-tech telecommunication services (Kundur, 2012).

Since the opening of the first resort in 1972, five phases of tourism development are evident in the Maldives (see Kundur, 2012). The growth in tourism has had its effects on the population and on Gross Domestic Products (GDP), thus, starting from 1972, the time of the establishment of the first resort, government managed to turn islands into high-end resorts and real GDP growth has averaged about 7.4% during the period 1986-2014 and achieved middle-income country status by 2011 with a relatively high GDP per capita among South Asian states (Asian Development Bank, 2015b, p.1). Growth must be inclusive to benefit many. Data on Maldives on Human Development show a mixed picture. Inequality remains a burden. The UNDP (2016, 4) notes that "Between 1995 and 2015, Maldives' HDI value increased from 0.520 to 0.701, an increase of 34.8 percent [...] Maldives' progress in each of the HDI indicators" (UNDP, 2016, 2). The Maldives has the highest per capita income in South Asia and a relatively high Gini coefficient by sub-regional standards (Asian Development Bank, 2015b).

Vulnerability and high poverty rates persist in many islands due to a lack of opportunities for the disadvantaged in society (see Asian Development Bank, 2015b). Asian Development Bank (2015b) notes that growth is inclusive when many in society benefit from the opportunities that this growth creates while being cushioned from economic shocks. The World Bank (WB, 2015) report notes that the Maldivian growth model is not inclusive threatening its social, environmental and fiscal sustainability because of high levels of inequality and a sense of unshared prosperity Maldives exemplifies

a typical dilemma faced by SIDS for relying on tourism for economic development, the benefits therefrom are not cascading to those most in need partly due to leakages. World Bank (2015) proposes that one possible action to remedy the situation is by opening up entrepreneurial opportunities for locals to participate in exiting industries. Tourism, as the main industry should certainly be at the forefront in adopting this suggestion because of its capacity to absorb even those with low skills and women in particular.

The participation of broader society in entrepreneurship will ensure the harnessing of the totality of local energies, synergies, capacities and resources to good use for the betterment of the lives of the people of the Maldives. It is the lives of the people that matter. Collaborations lessen the burden on a single party. It can be argued that the situation could be redeemed using legislation, for example, which offers various –but compulsory – solutions of partnerships. It is also important to understand that economic criteria should not be the only criteria applied in relation to weighing the benefits of tourism. This applies to all types of tourism, but especially true with respect to alternative tourism development. Beyond that, an evaluation of various local and global issues is also pertinent. While Maldives tourism is very sophisticated in the luxury segments it lags behind at community level when compared to other Asian countries (MOTAC, 2013a).

Debate is also present in relation to the differentiation and choice between the different accommodation typologies, to the extent that the FTMP (MOTAC, 2013b, 100) leaves it to the property owner (not the government) to decide whether his establishment is a guesthouse or a small boutique hotel and also notes that small boutique hotels have been the leading form in other Asian countries. In this context it exalts a situation in which tourist travel unbooked and to decide on the moment the accommodation possibly explaining the emergence of CBT in Asia (MOTAC, 2013b, 118). It is also possible to link boutique hotels to the CBT context leading to what has been termed luxury CBT (LCBT) (see Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2017). Thus, CBT and its adaptation Luxury Community-based Tourism (LCBT) can be seen as a possible open market strategy worth adopting. Specific support, facilitation and regulation is seen necessary to advance LCBT. Low levels of education certainly pose challenges to tourism development in general and CBT in particular. While there is a Bachelor of Science in Hotel and Resort Management (MTAC, 2011), it does not offer any alternative tourism qualification such as CBT or sustainable tourism. The Maldives still face the challenge of providing quality education and churning out professionals, tertiary education and vocational graduates for a growing modern economy (Asian Development Bank, 2015b).

RESULTS

Possible pathway for Maldives entrepreneurship and tourism development

Based on the above, this section proposes a possible way forward for tourism development in Maldives to shift the tourism sector towards adopting CBT related characteristics or creating linkages to CBT ventures. This proposal is based on four related main factors, namely: the need to decentralize to a greater number of islands/atolls; the need to redistribute, thus to decrease inequality of control and benefits within society; the need to break dependency on externally controlled tourism businesses; and the need to increase greater varieties of tourism facilities linked to various market segments. Furthermore, it is proposed that each specific ‘type of tourism’ needs its own specific regulation. The *new* specific requirements in ownership, management structure and redistributive measures, environmental requirements and so on should be formulated for each tourism subject, for example, for each type of accommodation category as proposed above. Based on these factors, nine main guiding categories of

accommodation emerge (this could apply also to other tourism businesses such as restaurants and so on). The categories are:

1. Conventional large private investment resort/hotel (Category A) – without any *new* specific requirements (as it is now)
2. Conventional large private investment resort/hotel (Category B) – with *new* specific requirements in ownership, management structure and redistributive measures, environmental requirements and so on
3. Partnership state and private sector resorts - with *new* specific requirements in terms of ownership, management structure and redistributive measures, environmental requirements and so on
4. Fully State owned and managed resort – also requires to have *new* specific requirements in ownership, management structures and redistributive measures, environmental requirements and so on
5. SMMEs (that is guesthouses, bed & breakfasts and backpackers) foreign owned (Category A) – although not necessarily the same as CBT. This should also be organized in a similar fashion to CBT structures – without any *new* specific requirements (as it is now)
6. SMMEs (that is guesthouses, bed & breakfasts and backpackers) foreign owned (Category B) – although not necessarily the same as CBT. This should also be organized on similar lines as a CBT structure – with *new* specific requirements in ownership, management structures and redistributive measures, environmental requirements and so on
7. SMMEs (that is guesthouses, bed & breakfasts and backpackers) locally owned (Category A) – although not necessarily the same as CBT, this should also be organized on similar lines as CBT structures – without any *new* specific requirements (as it is now)
8. SMMEs (that is guesthouses, bed & breakfasts and backpackers) locally owned (Category B) – although not necessarily the same as CBT, this should also be organized on similar lines as CBT structures – with *new* specific requirements in ownership, management structures and redistributive measures, environmental requirements and so on
9. CBT disadvantages atolls/islands and/or social groups – with *new* specific requirements in ownership, management structures and redistributive measures, environmental requirements and so on

9.1. CBT - community owned and managed resort

9.2. CBT - Individual establishment or ventures under a common umbrella organization

It is evident in Table 1 the three categories (number 1, 5, and 7) remain circumscribed by existing legislation and requirements, whereas all other categories require *new* specific requirements in ownership, management structures and redistributive measures, environmental requirements and so on. Irrespective of the categories, these new requirements should also be based on business size and resources availability (Table 1). The nine types of accommodation establishments with their associate ownership and management structure should be able to coexist.

However, it is envisaged that there is a need to put in action a proper shift to rebalance the composition of the Maldivian tourism structures. Maximum effort should be made to attract investors into category 1, 5 and 7 to shift towards the respective 2, 6 and 8 categories with *new* specific requirements in ownership, management structures and redistributive measures, environmental requirements and so on. For example, category 1 (Conventional private investment resort/hotel - Category A) should fade away, by slowly decreasing in relevance so to enhance always more category 2 with *new* requirements. While new resort/hotels investors still can opt for category 1 specific attractive measures should favor the shift towards category 2 (Conventional private investment resort/hotel - Category B). Established Category 1 entities should also be attracted and facilitated by specific measures to transform themselves into Category 2

resort. The aim should be to shift the tourism sector towards the adoption of *new* specific requirements in ownership, management structures and redistributive measures, environmental requirements and so on. It is recognized that most these new requirements will have to be legally binding but attractive incentives should be offered to investors.

Table 1. Main characteristics of accommodation categories

Nr.	Category	Actual Legislation / requirements	New Legislation / requirements	Ownership
1	Conventional large private investment resort/hotel (Category A)	✓		Foreign or local Businesses
2	Conventional large private investment resort/hotel (Category B)		✓	Foreign or local Businesses
3	Partnership state and private sector resorts		✓	State and foreign or local businesses
4	Fully State owned and managed resort		✓	State owned
5	SMMEs - foreign owned (Category A)	✓		Foreign businesses
6	SMMEs - foreign owned (Category B)		✓	Foreign businesses
7	SMMEs - locally owned (Category A)	✓		Local businesses
8	SMMEs - locally owned (Category B)		✓	Local businesses
9.1	CBT - community own and managed resort		✓	Disadvantaged community members
9.2	CBT - Individual establishment or ventures under common umbrella organization		✓	Disadvantaged community members

There is the need to develop new forms of incentives which are legally binding and are modelled towards effecting structural change in the tourism sector itself such as in shareholding of the business, benefits with the employees and local community members, the (legal) inclusion of employees and local community members in decision making and so on. This implies that for a private investment in resort Category 2 – a number of proposals can be advanced regarding shareholding agreements. Legally binding shareholding requirements can be drawn in which the employees and/or local people living in the nearest island should share ownership and management of the resort and its immediate surroundings and geographical context together with private investors.

Using resorts as example, if a resort gives – for example – 5% ownership/benefits to employees or local community, a specific tax relief could be applied. Various contexts will have to have specific solutions and incentives, however all should remain directed towards the above proposed substratum factors undergirded by the need to decentralize to a greater number of islands/atolls; the need to redistribute, thus decrease the inequality in tourism control and benefits within society; the need to break the dependency on externally controlled tourism businesses; and the need to increase the varieties of tourism facilities linked to various market segments. Various possible options are present such as employees and community forming a cooperative, a trust or similar entity together or separately and these entity(ies) co-own and co-manage the resort. A

possible scale of ownership could be developed where at each level, specific incentives are given to the private investors (however these incentives still have to remain within the new proposed parameters needed for Category 2). While these incentives/concessions could be seen by some critics as a new type of 'race to the bottom' competition, to the contrary, the employees and immediate closest community will share the benefits of the resort. It is important, to note that this shareholding system should not produce a dependency-like situation in which the local community and employees just get 'free' money for doing nothing. Local community members are also obliged to have their share of participation/work. A framework of community and employee participation must be formulated and monitored by private investors, government and civil society.

New research and new approaches can certainly find other innovative ways related to shareholding. The bottom line is that the resort and the employees and local community should work together for mutual benefit, as the benefits to employees and local community become a direct arrangement and a direct effect. Certainly this proposal could be used by more radical social entrepreneurs through their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) programmes. In addition, while the global competitive environment is recognized new attractive incentive can be devised to encourage investment that are not as usual tax relief or labour and environmental related but new ones related to loosening regulations in the banking system or communication networks.

The nine categories should be balanced by giving each category a specific quota in order to proportionally cater for a greater variety of tourism markets and facilitate a more redistributive and environmentally friendly approach to tourism development. These new categories of establishments should also be understood and be located within a framework of the tourism sector in relation to CBT (see Figure 1). It illustrates various accommodation types and should be read (in line with the category list above). It shows how all these different accommodation type establishments could be linked to CBT and it also includes a CBT organization as a central feature to coordinate and facilitate CBT in Maldives. Essentially resorts, hotels and safari vessels should be able to partner with specific CBT ventures, the CBT organization, and other community activities.

Given the importance of the accommodation sector, it is proposed that partnerships with other community activities should be supported but being subordinated to partnerships with CBT accommodation and the CBT organization. For example, a specific requirement for Category 2 private resort could be to assist and collaborate (within the specific characteristics of required partnership) with CBT projects/ventures in 'close by' islands. Each resort will have its twin CBT projects.

This partnership and synergy could be beneficial to both: guests in the resort could spend a day (night) in the CBT venture as part of the travel package and guest at the CBT venture could visit and or use facilities of the resort (at agreed price/costs). Such a partnership could be established on a long-term basis. These options seem viable in the light of the fact that tourists, including luxury tourists, are more interested in social and environmental matters – because they look for unique experiences.

Guesthouses and other small-medium accommodation linked to surf-tourism or backpacking tourism segment could be included in CBT or excluded based on ownership and management structure. The dotted lines related to some of the connections to guesthouses indicate that guesthouses can or cannot be CBT based on the type of ownership, management and other characteristics specific to CBT. Thus, these accommodations can be linked to each other and to CBT accommodation and the CBT organization. The CBT organization should become the central coordinating and facilitating agency that assists in implementing and monitoring various CBT ventures and CBT related activities in their development effort. CBT organization should also assist

CBT ventures when dealing with private sector firms in relation to partnership agreements. Government and the tourism sector can, in various specific ways, assist CBT ventures and the CBT organization to facilitate and coordinate the CBT sector, while education institutions should facilitate education and skill development to government staff, civil society, private sector entrepreneurs and community member involved, or wishing to be involved, in different ways in CBT. Figure 2 below shows the proposed tourism general framework for Maldives (Figure 1).

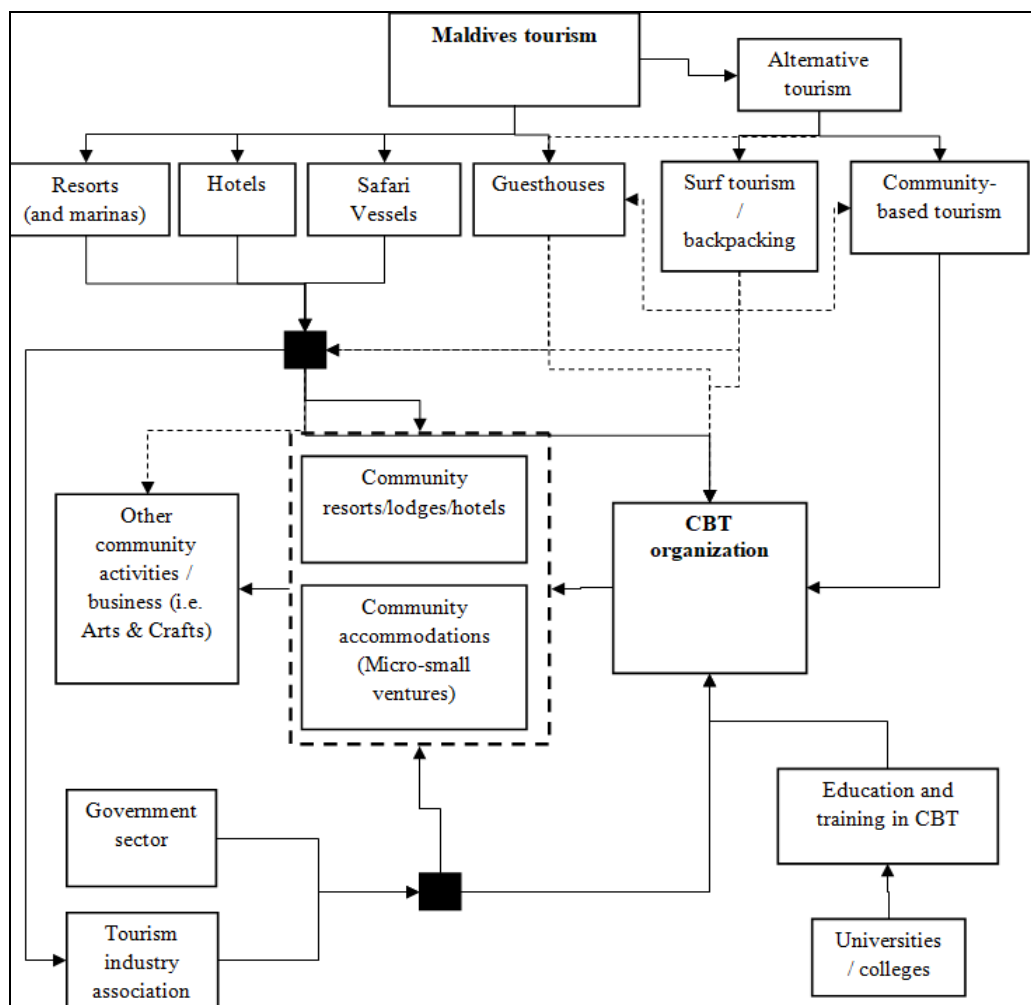


Figure 1. Proposed tourism general framework for Maldives

CBT can be developed in many islands/atoll so 'reverse' migration as new job opportunities will be developed in situ. Within this context five CBT development stages are envisaged (Table 2). Stage 1 serve to build the foundation of CBT milieu by preparing the specific legislation and capacity to implement it. Stages 2 is specifically dedicated to the establishment of the CBT organization, the entity that should become heavily involved in the operations of all organizations in the sector, by being the main protagonist, in facilitating and coordinating further stages and activities related to CBT development.

Stage 3, involves undertaking awareness campaigns and further skill development at grassroots level should be implemented before reaching the 'practical' stage of mobilization and project planning. In these stages various projects proposals can be developed by various actors. Stage 4 involves verifying and where necessary assisting CBT projects/ventures in their planning stage. In stage 5, the implementation process begins.

The various stages should not be taken as having fixed timeframes but it is envisaged that each stage will be an ongoing process. For instance, legislation can be regularly reviewed and amended; education and skills development should be on-going to involve new people and to keep knowledge being updated and so on.

Table 2. Proposed CBT development stages in Maldives

Stages	Actions
1	Legal framework Education / capacity building
2	Establishment of the CBT organization
3	Awareness Further skill development at grassroots level
4	Mobilization / project planning
5	Implementation

The government's role remains fundamental and it should (must) play a key role in facilitating CBT. Government is also relevant in matters related to educational and skill development. In agreement, a research by Adam & Urquhart, (2009) on IT capacity in relation to the tourism sector in Maldives observed that it is important for government to put in place policies that facilitate national and workplace training in its long term plans including raising IT awareness and altering the negative perceptions people have about tourism. Education and capacity building in CBT is important and the introduction of a qualification in CBT at college and university level in order to advance CBT is here proposed as a necessity. This qualification should also be linked to lower level qualification on CBT to be offered at grassroots level. Because the dispersion of the population the use of Information Technology to deliver these courses and training can also be considered (Adam & Urquhart, 2009). Specific attention needs to be placed in the local education system to advance and augment the knowledge related to all types of accommodation and to have a critical foundation on tourism development. It is not enough to produce a skilled workforce for menial jobs.

It is necessary to recognize the need to implement a curriculum that includes critical thinking, thus going beyond vocational skills oriented curriculum (Jugmohan et al., 2010). The need is to go beyond producing workers/employees but to advance and enhance the development of a well rooted local understanding of tourism in all its aspects and facilitate the flourishing of local owners and managers at all levels. Specifically, CBT (and also tourism SMMEs) curriculum should be introduced at various level of education in order to instill broader knowledge of tourism that goes beyond the private investment resort. CBT curriculum will also include issues related to the management of local cultural and natural resources as CBT is based on local resources and these need to be carefully and sustainably managed. In this context long-term sustainable management of the local natural environment becomes a fundamental requirement and should certainly be associated with the long-term resilience of the tourism sector but, importantly, also with the more comprehensive livelihood and well-being strategies of the local population. A full CBT qualification is therefore critical to advance CBT (including other alternative tourism forms) and increase awareness on sustainability.

CONCLUSION

Tourism is a fundamental sector in many SIDS and Maldives is no exception. However, tourism growth in Maldives has been historically (and arguably still is) dominated by foreign controlled resorts. While tourism has assisted Maldives to develop economically, its benefits have not been fairly distributed. Thus, Maldives have various challenges linked to tourism. These are related to dependency of tourism on specific international and local actors, inequality in the control, ownership and benefit from tourism, the need to increase disadvantaged community and atolls (intended for poorest and social-economically and geographically marginalized section of the Maldivian population) involvement, and to decentralize and spread geographically tourism benefits to a greater number of atolls and islands. While Maldives have achieved some improvements in human development through tourism development, spatial development and income inequalities still remain. Based on this background, this paper proposes a model of tourism development and entrepreneurship that should shift conventional tourism towards CBT. This is done by using the accommodation sector as an example and based on various accommodation categories (arguably replicable to other tourism business such as restaurant) and, therefore, illustrating a possible tourism framework in relation to CBT. The tourism categories and tourism framework should shift the tourism industry towards a CBT milieu in order to overcome some of Maldives challenges such as inequality in the control, ownership and benefit from tourism, and so forth. This is not to say that private resorts and hotels should be eliminated *tour court* (this is not feasible, realistic and reasonable) a shift to reform the private resorts and hotels towards CBT principle and associate with CBT contexts is proposed. At the same time, this paper also advances the need to develop CBT itself.

The paper also indicated that education has a fundamental role in the process and a new CBT degree and curriculum should be introduced. The authors of this paper believe that the Maldives have enough resources and capacities to make tourism an industry that all Maldivian citizens benefit of. Different historical times need different approaches to development. The Maldives have been a pioneer in tourism with the approach 'of one island one resort'. Let the Maldives again be at the forefront – a trail blazer and innovator – of international tourism development approach by starting to shift towards a more locally controlled and equitable tourism sector anchored on CBT principles of local ownership and management, based on local resources and advancing equity and cooperation. Maldives could become the example to follow and enhance its image in the tourism sector and especially in the current tourism market in which tourists are increasingly looking for a tourism that is responsible, equitable and sustainable.

The shift in Maldives to CBT milieu should be seen in line with current and evolving tourism market trends and imperatives of the times. Further research seems certainly necessary to better investigate innovative approaches within which CBT principles can increase tourism development in Maldives (and elsewhere) in a way that enhances equity and redistribution of benefits, promotes community entrepreneurship, and protects local social and natural environments. Specifically, more research should be carried out on guesthouses and other possible CBT establishments present or that could be established in Maldives such as community resorts and micro and small CBT enterprises.

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CULTURAL LANDSCAPES SPACE-TEMPORAL SYSTEMATIZATION OF INFORMATION IN GEOPORTALS FOR THE PURPOSES OF REGION TOURIST AND RECREATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract: The manuscript is devoted to the study of the scientific problem of space-temporal systematization of information on cultural landscapes in geoportals and spatial data infrastructures for the purpose of tourist and recreational development of the region. The paper emphasizes that the processes of integration, refinement and structuring of information on the spatio-temporal organization of

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cultural landscapes can be optimized with the coordinated development of a regional problem-oriented GIS, a remote sensing data processing and analysis system, and a web-based geoportal. The authors give an example of the visualization of information resources about cultural landscapes through the development of the geoportal "Natural and Cultural Heritage of Mordovia", available at tourismportal.net. The functioning of the project is based on the provision that the process of researching national landscapes should be based on a spatio-temporal systematization and comparative analysis of large volumes of information in order to form an idea of the harmonization of the interaction of nature and society at different hierarchical levels of ethno-geographical space.

Key words: cultural landscapes, space-temporal systematization, geoportals, tourism, recreational development, GIS technologies

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PROBLEM STATEMENT

The patterns of the origin and development of ecological-socio-economic systems of ethno-cultural space depend on the nature of the territories inborn landscapes, the features of population life support systems evolution and the nature of ethnic groups development that determine together the formation of material and spiritual heritage. These patterns are manifested in the change and possible coexistence of different types of cultural landscapes that should be considered as a kind of society reflection that transform it during a long time. This thesis is very figuratively disclosed by V.A. Nikolaev (Nikolaev, 2000), he writes: "A pattern has been established: what is society, its culture, mentality and historical fate, so will the landscape created by it". He further notes: "The national cultural landscape is the "race" of generations".

Cultural landscapes and the objects of natural and historical heritage contained in them form a qualitatively new level of its spatiotemporal organization as a tourist destination (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2008; Gordon, 2018) – a combination of natural, social and economic preconditions for the recreation and tourism development. A unique component of the cultural landscape is the sacred system – the result of the intellectual and spiritual activity of people in creating its shape (Swetnam, 2017).

Its structure is formed by the pragmatic economic and informational development of the territory, revealed in the natural and cultural heritage, semantics and symbols (Taylor, 2008; Van Der Valk, 2014). The main function of sacred landscapes is social integration that implemented in the creation of a "collective imaginary" (Okladnikova, 2014). In general, sacred landscapes are space-temporal formations that multi-variously reflect the processes of landscapes economic development. In addition, sacred loci are "national images of the world" of various peoples, the main purpose of which is to transfer socially significant cultural traditions from the past to the future. Thus, the concepts "cultural landscape" and "sacred landscape" in modern science are considered as a multifunctional phenomenon, its essence in the transmission of social experience in adapting to a specific natural landscape from generation to generation. An urgent task is the space-temporal natural and historical heritage systematization and the formation of information resources (Katsoni, 2015). On their basis, a planned and consistent work of the governing bodies on its use for the sustainable tourism and recreation development should be deployed.

MATERIALS AND RESEARCH METHODS

Work with heterogeneous data, revealing the features of the co-creation of society and nature in time, should have a powerful information basis (Tieskens, 2018; Taylor, 2012). This will ensure the collection, storage, analysis, visualization and dissemination of information about the spatiotemporal structure of ethno-geographical space. Structuring and visualization of ethno-geographical space can be represented in three dimensions. Space should be considered in vertical and horizontal (territorial) aspects. In the vertical structure of the cultural landscape in web-based geographical information systems (GIS) visualizations are subject to:

- natural subsystem – lithogenic base, climate, surface and underground waters, soils, vegetation and wildlife, landscapes;
- social subsystem – resettlement system, ethnic, gender and age structure, systems of artifacts (elements characterizing the connection of a people community with the material environment – tools, housing, clothing, etc.), mental factors (persistent socio-psychological elements of culture - religion, language, music, dance, aesthetic ideals, etc.), social facts (elements that determine sustainable social ties between people – institutions of family, education, etiquette, etc.);
- manufacturing subsystem – industrial and agricultural production facilities, transport and logistics complexes, non-production services.

In the vertical structure of cultural landscapes, a certain type of interaction of natural, social and industrial subsystems is formed. It includes the natural landscape, which regulates the environment and reproducing resources processes in the natural environment surrounding society and especially valuable natural areas; prevailing settlement systems with water and land routes for economic development of the territory, which determined the features of settlement in the region; traditional and modern production potential with places for the crafts development; land use types adapted to the structure of the natural framework, taking into account the natural potential and sustainability of natural complexes; ethnographic peculiarity of the area, taking into account the material and spiritual culture of ethnic groups; monuments of archeology, history and culture, which are in functional and spatial connection with the landscape environment; landscape images and symbols that formed as a result of the organic interaction of nature and multifaceted human activity; the mythological layer, revealed by a multitude of mythological characters that came into it from fairy tales, beliefs, memories, and literature; cultural traditions that regulate human relations with the environment; toponymy that is structuring the space in individual consciousness; innovative elements that reflect the implantation of qualitatively new objects, technologies, and traditions into the modern cultural landscape (Schulp, 2019).

Collectively, the cultural landscape determines the historical, artistic, scientific and cognitive value of the region. Systems of related cultural landscapes determine the horizontal (territorial) structure of the ethno-cultural space. The most difficult issue of its visualization in cartographic geographic information models is the determination of the boundaries of territorial complexes. Possessing considerable continuity, the boundaries of the ethno-geographical space are drawn taking into account a number of factors: natural, ethno-cultural, political and administrative, etc.

Borders between territorial formations perform complementary functions: on the one hand, the relative isolation of homogeneous cultural or sacred landscapes, on the other hand, to ensure continuous communication and contact between them. Study of the temporal structure of cultural landscapes has a particular importance. It should be carried out taking into account the successive change in the types of economic and

cultural interaction with the natural landscape at the level of intervals of different durations: stages, periods and phases. In chronological approach, as in the visualization of the territorial structure, the leading factor that determines the type of interaction between nature and society is a man himself. So, K.P. Kosmachev writes: "... the active side that determines the type of development of a territory always a society is. But the result of development largely depends on the territory natural basis, and how it "takes" the impact of society, how it is able to accumulate the results of human labor and preserve them for a long time" (Kosmachev, 1974, p. 98). As part of the visualization of ethno-geographical space, special attention is paid to the analysis of the host natural landscape. The latter determines the structure of the socio-economic organization of the territory, the development of material and spiritual culture, the analysis of the degree of development of conflict situations and the problems of preserving the cultural landscape natural and historical heritage over a certain time period.

The development of cultural landscapes is metachronous in its nature, and as a result of this phenomenon, there is a peculiar manifestation of interaction between the nature and society in different time "sections" and the close interweaving of different layers of natural and historical heritage in specific regions. Interconnections between natural and historical heritage sites are ensured through their intercommunion. The disclosure of communication-positions and relationship-interactions between components in the structure of the cultural landscape has the following features:

- firstly, communication-positions in cultural and especially in sacred landscapes do not always have physical meaning, which is conceptualized in the form of material and spiritual heritage that determines land use systems, forms of nature management, geo-ecological problems, etc.;
- secondly, the various tightness of the communication-positions and relationship-interactions between the elements of the cultural landscape allows us to talk about their functional purpose, and the possibility of optimizing the interaction of residential, agricultural, forestry, industrial, transport, hydraulic, mining, and recreational systems;
- thirdly, the social subsystem of cultural landscapes tends, as a rule, to reduce the entropy of the entire system, that is, to increase the ordering of elements and relationship-interactions between natural and industrial subsystems;
- fourthly, the cultural landscape in its space-temporal structure, the focal points of which are sacred complexes, accumulates the interconnections between natural, social and manufacturing subsystems, providing an information basis for their visualization.

GIS technologies in the cultural landscapes structure modeling for tourist regions and recreation development. Modern trends in the development of geographical science as an information base for studying the cultural landscapes natural and historical heritage determine uniquely the geographical information systems (GIS), to provide the entire technological chain of work with information: collection, storage, analysis, synthesis, visualization, interpretation and distribution of information to potential consumers of Web. It is based on vector graphics and the widest possible use of raster data – Earth remote sensing (ERS) materials, which together represent a visual and semantic model of a complexly organized ethnographic space. Obviously, the elaboration of these models, the general and particular identification in structure of the cultural landscape at the local, regional and global levels is an interdisciplinary task that is based on the application of the theory, methodology and methods of geography, cartography and geo-informatics, cultural studies, as well as a number of other sciences.

The information base of a web-based GIS project for the analysis and assessment of regional natural and historical heritage is formed on the basis of information from

the natural and social sciences: historical, archaeological, ethnographic and toponymy, as well as on a complex of geographical data. The evaluation of natural heritage involves a comprehensive information analysis on the diversity of natural conditions and resources necessary for the life of the population and the functioning of economic objects (minerals, water, soil, plants and other resources).

Significant protected natural areas (nature reserves, national parks, natural monuments) are important components of the natural heritage. Assessment of historical heritage is based on information that characterize the territory stages of economic and information development (we mean nature management differentiation, settlement types, population size and ethnicity, etc.). Historical monuments (cultural layers, ancient cities buildings remains, pre-historic and ancient settlements; landscape architecture works and landscape gardening art; places of interest, centers of historical settlements or fragments of urban planning and development; memorials related to the prominent historical figures, etc.) are of particular importance (Smith, 2014; Brown, 2012). Structuring the ethno-geographic space receives logical development in solving problems of visualizing its model in web-based GIS projects which are desined to provide communication in the "man - cultural landscape" system.

The central task of analyzing the cultural landscape for recreation and tourism we see in the expanded disclosure of information about the tourist and recreational potential, in destination as an emergent phenomenon based on close relationships and interactions in space and time of natural, social and production subsystems.

At the present stage of development of public relations, the organization of tourist and recreational activities makes high demands on information support. It is determined by the high diversity of global and regional tourist markets and, therefore, by high potential differentiation of tourist flows. That is why the information factor plays an important role in its formation (Leiper, 1979). In the context of globalization, informatization, and the development of Internet technologies, prompt access to reliable spatially distributed information is crucial for all parties that participate in the tourism industry (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009): consumers (tourists, sightseers), subjects of tourism, governmental bodies etc. Any tourist information portal uses geographic atlases, interactive electronic maps, accumulating information on the features of the natural potential of the territory, cultural features, display facilities, tourist infrastructure, routes, etc. as an auxiliary tool for visualizing objects of ethno-geographical space.

When developing a geoportal based on spatial data infrastructure, an important task is the competent organization and visualization of geographical information. It promotes the high efficiency of interaction between the web-resource and the consumer (Gkonos et al., 2018). This problem must be solved both from the standpoint of web-design and Earth sciences. The analysis of modern geoportals shows: despite the differences in topics, coverage of space and degree of development, decisions on the optimal visual representation of the space-temporal organization of the cultural landscape have common trends (Vilceanu, 2017).

The organization of a geoportal as a web-resource is designed to provide the user with a convenient perception of virtual information. The cartographic information as the basis of any web-based GIS project is characterized by the model properties of virtual geo-images: software controllability (interactivity); thematic diversity (variation of combinations, sequence of electronic layers of geoportal maps); updatability (operational insertion of a new or editing of an existing information); multi-scale and multi-level organization (transformation of the detail of visual solutions in course of scaling); multimedia and high information content (two- and three-dimensional

visualization formats, complementing traditional cartographic image methods with photographs, 360 ° panoramas, profiles, graphs, video and sound materials that reveal the space-temporal features of ethno-geographical space images).

Further implantation of cartographic web-resources into the practice of managerial activity involves the development of space-temporal visualization technologies for cultural landscapes: the development of dynamic symbolic systems for displaying natural and historical heritage objects, semiotic principles of virtual modeling, and associative geoportal solutions as models of cultural landscapes (Koszewski et al., 2018). The paradigm associated with the use of objects of material and cultural heritage of landscapes in the economy will be useless if a critical analysis of the ecological-socio-economic reality that determines territorial ordering is not made (Whelan, 2016). The latter is a fundamental element in the sustainable development planning process. To solve the problem of sustainability, special tools are needed that can provide transparent relevant information related to the availability of local resources; various technological options are needed to optimally use them to meet the growing needs of society and timely assess the potential of resources.

All this requires a clear understanding in making decisions: from physical to functional, from administrative to economic that are aimed at sustainable development. The environmental impact of technology must also be considered.

DISCUSSION

The experience of studying the space-temporal cultural landscapes organization shows that the accumulation, refinement and structuring of information is optimized in the coordinated development of a regional problem-oriented GIS, a remote sensing data processing and analysis system, and a web-based GIS project. The basis of information support for the study of cultural landscapes of the Republic of Mordovia is the regional GIS "Mordovia". The creation of its databases was the result of solving the problems of harmonizing the interaction of natural, social and industrial systems of cultural landscapes: preparing territorial planning documents, ecological substantiation of urban planning documentation, designing specially protected natural territories, environmental engineering surveys, etc. Currently, the regional GIS includes electronic map and database systems that disclose information on natural conditions and resources, socio-economic development, ecology, natural and historical heritage sites.

The GIS complex allows conducting rapidly a comparative analysis of geo-information in space and time, visualizing the structure of the cultural landscape to solve multidirectional applied problems. The GIS nodal link is an electronic synthetic landscape map. This map is both the result of branch research and the basic element of applied research to study the structure of the region cultural landscape (Yamashkin et al., 2003). One of the main sources of operational and reliable information for updating an electronic landscape map is a system for processing and analyzing remote sensing data of ERS. To solve the problems of assessing the state of natural, social and production systems, methods have been implemented for identifying localities in modeling the landscapes boundaries, analyzing spectral characteristics to determine the morphological landscape structure and modeling landscape diversity, neural networks and hybrid systems (Yamashkin et al., 2018) for the purpose of synthetic landscape mapping.

Visualization of information resources about cultural landscapes is carried out through the development of the geoportal "Natural and Cultural Heritage of Mordovia". It is available at <https://tourismportal.net/>. Visualization proceeds from the fact that the process of researching national landscapes should be based on space-temporal

systematization and comparative analysis of large volumes of information in order to form an idea of the harmonization of nature and society interaction at different hierarchical levels of ethno-geographical space (Yamashkin et al., 2019). For the technical implementation of project modern engineering solutions were used. That allows providing the high efficiency in the collection, storage, processing and provision of relevant geospatial information about the national cultural and natural landscape of Mordovia: optimized interface solutions, adaptive design, relational geospatial data warehouses, and a modular multi-component software framework. From the software implementation resource, the system is based on the Model-View-Controller pattern.

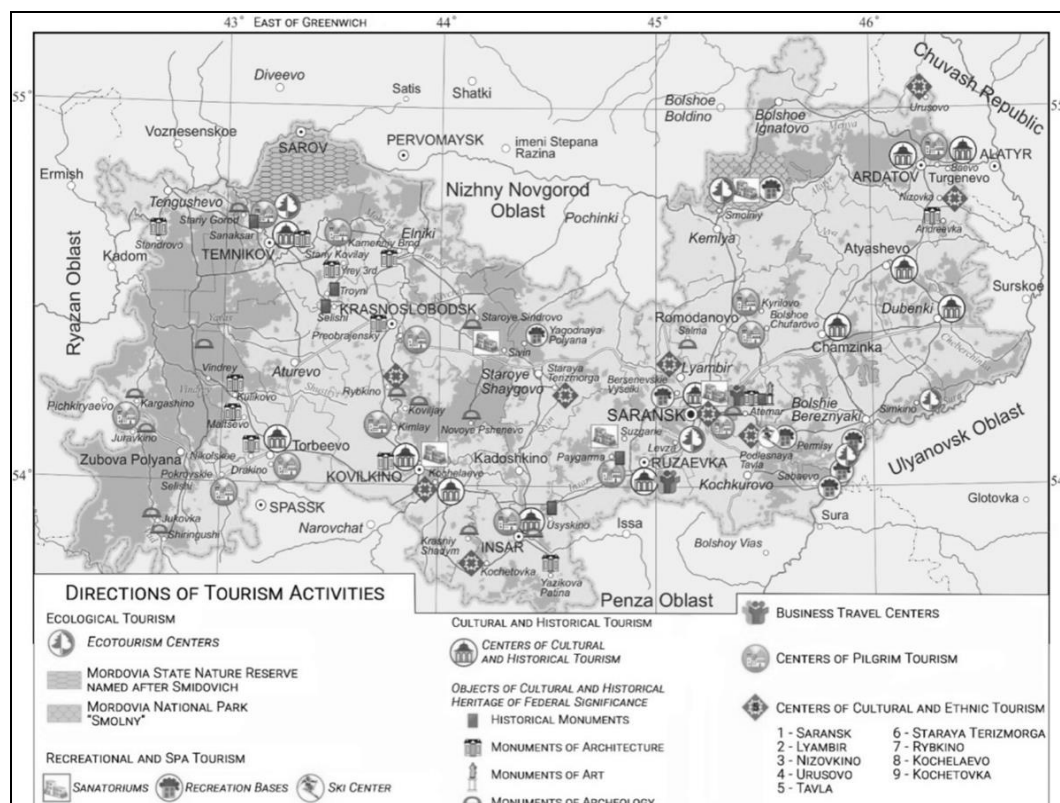


Figure 1. Sacred landscapes of Mordovia
(Source: <https://tourismportal.net/social/turizm-i-rekreacia-26>)

The interfaces for the map interacting are developed in JavaScript, and the manipulation of thematic layers is based on AJAX technology. In order to organize feedback with users, the function of adding comments with the ability to integrate with social networks has been used into the portal. In order to display comprehensively the multilayer structure of ethno-geographic space on the portal, it have been used the mutually complementary methods of displaying information: 1) an interactive map with various components of the regional landscape system with coordinate reference that displayed for comparative analysis; 2) an encyclopedic block that provides the user with thematic integrated textual, illustrative, cartographic information with content dynamic updating possibility. Portal interactive map allows carrying out the displaying of

thematic layers to form the space-temporal structure of the national (cultural) landscape, based on the study of relationships between natural, social and economic objects. The interactive map layers in the aggregate allow to reveal the qualitative features of the natural and cultural heritage formed during the centuries-old economic development of the landscapes as a part of the Oksko-Volzhsy interfluves.

The key elements of the interactive map are settlements. Their description reveals the multilayered cultural landscape: toponymy, settlements history, development stages and population dynamics, and ecological features of landscapes. Portal's encyclopedic block contains more than 500 illustrations in thematic sections. It provides a comprehensive space-temporal characterization the Republic of Mordovia national landscape and includes thematic blocks: "Nature", "History", "Society", "Economics", "Ecology", "Areas of Mordovia". On the portal "Natural and Cultural Heritage of Mordovia", as auxiliary functional elements, historical and modern photographs are given. Being means of forming an information model of the national landscape, it is a convenient tool for educational and scientific activities and for creating a favorable investment climate. In terms of communication, the geoportal can be integrated into tourism information systems at the national and local levels.

In this case, special attention should be paid to the creation and support of the following main functions: timely and accurate information provision on the destination; effective and continuous communication with consumers; uninterrupted opportunities provision for electronic transactions; sustainable mechanisms for customer relationships facilities. The interaction between these elements is dynamic and holistic.

The change in each of them affects the state of others and allows maintaining the balance in the system of ethno-cultural space. The successful development of the information function of geoportals based on spatial data infrastructures is helped by the evolutionary promotion of social systems to the next, most important level – the communication one. This is the level when communication takes place through the various communication channels by transforming elements of trust. Well-developed communications create the conditions for an effective dialogue, the formation of sustainable relationships and increased customer loyalty.

RESULTS

The methodological basis of the study of the natural and historical heritage in the cultural landscape is based on two obligatory aspects: chorological and chronological. The territorial approach reveals the spatial patterns of interaction between natural and historical-cultural heritage objects, their organization in the cultural landscape.

The historical approach demonstrates the temporal features of changing states of cultural landscapes (natural and historical heritage), their change under the influence of natural and socio-economic factors. Both aspects should be considered and used only in interconnection and interaction. The most important aspect of the study is regional geographic analysis. It aims to identify the features of natural and cultural heritage evolution at various historical stages within a specific territory. Methodologically, it should be based on the functional, structural and situational types of analysis.

This approach provides for multi-stage dismemberment of the region according to natural, socio-economic characteristics and features of the manifestation of the natural and historical heritage in the cultural landscape.

Cultural landscapes represent multi-level historical formations. They formed during the complex interaction of diverse natural, technical and social processes as a result of economic and information natural territorial complexes development and

reflect the characteristics of the local population material and spiritual culture. The change of states (evolution) of cultural landscapes implies the need to study the natural and historical heritage, cultural traditions that ensure the livelihoods of the region's population, and the features of innovative technologies implanting.

The general program for the identification of cultural landscapes should include: the first stage is landscape analysis; it allows to reflect the area natural conditions originality (variety) that determined the territory economic development features and the aesthetic qualities of landscapes; the second stage is the analysis of the existing settlement system and the degree of the territory economic development; the third stage is an analysis of the ethnographic features of the localities, manifested in the originality and special way of life of the local population; the fourth stage is a cultural analysis of historical and memorial monuments, ancient villages and estates, historical and cultural centers associated with famous scientists and artists; single monuments of civil architecture, temples, industrial architecture objects.

The most important directions for optimizing of the natural and historical heritage in cultural landscapes usage and preservation are: 1) compilation of the natural and historical heritage objects cadastre, the recreational and economic value of heritage objects determination; 2) ensuring the development of the cultural landscape with the aim of reviving folk traditions, crafts, folklore, and traditional forms of nature management; 3) identification of factors that destroy the cultural landscape; the organization of the natural and historical heritage objects monitoring, improving control over compliance with sanitary and hygienic conditions; 4) a set of measures development to ensure the landscapes attractiveness conservation and the image of natural and historical heritage in cultural landscapes promotion; 5) the creation of infrastructure (guest houses, mini-hotels, service firms); conducting investment campaigns to attract funds for the restoration, conservation, restoration of heritage sites.

Analysis and visualization of ethno-geographical space is carried out on the tourist portal in order to increase the recreational potential implementation. Information on developed forms of tourism, as well as established destinations at the national level, is supplemented by interactive maps. They illustrate the territorial importance of tourism and its main forms, form a picture of cultural landscapes with a high degree of recreational and tourist potential. The portal forms a model of the cultural national landscape that provides coordination of the search and rational use of data on ethno-geographical space. To effectively display the multilayer structure of ethno-geographical space on the portal, mutually complementary methods of displaying information are used: an interactive map and an encyclopedic block.

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ENHANCING SOCIAL CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGHOUT CULTURAL EVENTS. A CASE STUDY OF EASTERN POLAND

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Abstract: The aim of the research is to analyse the relationships between cultural events and the creation of social capital. The research is dedicated to small-scale cultural events organized in Eastern Poland. Although literature on festivals and events is vast, little studies are dedicated to the group of festival vendors, their characteristics and the possible relationships that are created among them and with local communities. Through a survey carried out at 7 small-scale events, the study shows that characteristic features of social capital are present among festival vendors. The research revealed that social capital enhanced throughout the selected events has an individual (professional and personal) as well as regional effect. The majority of vendors participating in the study were established in the same region as the events, in consequence this situation may imply positive effects on local development of the voivodships of Eastern Poland.

Key words: social capital, small scale events, festivals, events stakeholders, festival vendors, local development, Eastern Poland

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INTRODUCTION

There is vast scientific evidence that lists and characterizes the possible impacts of events (i.e. Soteriades & Dimou, 2011, Chen et al., 2013, Chanaron, 2014, Scholtz, 2019). The effects of events organization are of social, cultural, economic, environmental and political nature. Literature concerning the impact of events is mostly dedicated to the economic impacts, with a majority of the studies based on quantitative research (Kim & Kaewnuch, 2018) and concentrated on bigger events i.e. sporting events of worldwide significance, cultural festivals of national or international importance as well as political celebrations or inaugurations. Certainly events of a larger scale, namely mega events or hallmark events, have a greater impact on local society, economy and environment (Getz, 2000) and this impact is of positive as well as negative nature. Events are used by national governments to enhance future social and economic development throughout

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investments in infrastructure (Chaberek & Ziółkowska, 2017) and place branding (Richards, 2017). Events are also seen as means to strengthen social capital (Arcodia & Whitford, 2007; Gibson & Stewart, 2009; Edwards, 2012; Mair & Duffy, 2018).

Numerous small-scale events are organized by local governments, sporting or cultural organizations. The impacts of this type of events are significantly smaller when compared to mega events but at the same time smaller events of a local character and created by local community have a great potential to attract tourists (Carlsen et al., 2000).

This attractiveness is based on the unique cultural character of this type of events as well as their specific location resulting from the natural and anthropogenic heritage (Ziółkowska, 2015). Small-scale events created by local communities are gaining interest of researchers. Several studies underline their importance as tourists attractions and triggers of social and economic development (i.e. Jamieson, 1995; Gibson & Stewart, 2009; McCartney, 2010; Mair & Duffy, 2018; Kwiatkowski et al., 2019). According to Getz (2003) the economic and image-related effects of events can be greater in locations with smaller populations than in large cities. In Poland several large-scale events have been organized in the past 10 years. These include for example the European Football Cup Euro 2012 (in Gdańsk, Poznań, Warszawa, Wrocław) or the Conference of the Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (COP 24) in 2018 (in Katowice), not to mention concerts of world-renown artists. Small-scale events of a local character, including fairs and festivals are organized in rural areas of all regions of Poland (Bank Danych Lokalnych, 2018). The widespread presence of this type of events implies the need to study their character and implication on local development, especially in areas where other development factors are scarce. The study concentrates on the macro-region of Eastern Poland, which is a region that still requires structural adjustment to attain the average level of development of other regions in the European Union (Strategy for socio-economic development of Eastern Poland until 2020, 2013).

Small-scale, local events

As presented by Koh and Jackson (2006) local events are those whose audience is primarily local, they are small-scale events, often less sophisticated, of short duration and promoted only in the local media, which in the case of effective organization can turn into events of a regional scale. Regional events, organized on a larger scale than local events, are to attract local and non-local people, their duration is longer, they are promoted outside the local media. Regional events that achieve the greatest success can become hallmark events. An unquestionable advantage of small-scale events is the fact that their organization does not require important investments or infrastructure requirements and at the same time it is possible to indicate several benefits of their organization. There are numerous criteria for the distribution of effects of the organization of events. The discussion contained in literature regarding the organization of events (both large mega-events and small-scale events) presents the problem related to the assessment of the effects of their implementation in ex-ante (pre-event) and ex-post (post-event) terms. The effects of events can also be divided into two groups: positive effects and negative effects. Another division of the expected effects of organizing events, often found in literature, is the division into tangible and intangible effects. The effects of organizing events can also be considered in the short or long term. It is assumed that the impact of mass events on local economy varies depending on the scale and type of event. With the increase in the size of the event, the potential number of visitors, media interest and the potential costs and benefits of their organization, including economic benefits, also increase (Janeczko et al., 2002).

Expected results of events organization can vary depending on the interested party (Table 1). Van Niekerk and Getz (2016) identified 8 main groups of festivals stakeholders,

which can be further divided into more specific ones leading to 43 different stakeholders. Those groups include among others: festival attendees, festival vendors, local community, competitors, owners, suppliers and employees. According to McCartney (2010, p. 260), the scope of influence of individual stakeholders on the event will depend on such factors as: personal motives, strength and power, resources and the degree of involvement in the event. Stakeholders may be intentionally involved in the process of implementing the event or may be included in it indirectly or accidentally (*ibidem*). This statement can also be applied to beneficiaries who can participate in the implementation of the event or benefit from it even in the absence of involvement (e.g. local shopkeepers). Stakeholders will also include individuals, groups of people or institutions that do not directly benefit from the event, but often incur significant costs of its implementation. On the other hand, the beneficiaries can be those individuals, groups of people or institutions that, as a result of the event, achieve primarily benefits - they are recipients of its positive effects.

Table 1. Beneficiaries of events and expected effects

Direct beneficiaries	Expected effects of events
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - industry associations (related to the field of the event) - local trade - service providers (including catering, accommodation, transport) - other enterprises - construction companies - owner of the venue - employees - media - performers (artists) - vendors 	economic (including related to tourism and trade)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - pro-environmental groups (associations) 	related to infrastructure and environment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - local and national authorities - industry associations 	political
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - volunteers - local community - participants (performers, exhibitors, vendors, etc.) - tourists and other visitors participating in the event 	social and cultural

A key to the successful event, in terms of attractiveness for the audience and in terms of reaching positive effects is the quality of cooperation between stakeholders. From the perspective of local development it is possible to identify 3 main groups of stakeholders and at the same time beneficiaries of the event: local governments and their institutions, local community and local businesses. Among the group of local community and local businesses an important group consists of the vendors, who in the case of small-scale events play a very important role – they create the atmosphere of the event (Michel, 2012). Robertson et al. (2009, p. 162) cite an analysis carried out by MacKellar, which showed that the connections arising as a result of mass events (also one-off) helped to build further connections within regional communities and became an opportunity for people to work together and to discuss and solve problems important for the community. Interactions that occur as a result of events are of a lasting nature, they are repetitive both for the organizers and for the participants.

These are unique bonds that cannot be moved to another place, and therefore constitute the unique potential of a given location. As suggested by Kim & Kaewnuch (2018) the supply side of event management is not as well covered by research as the demand side and additionally the group of stakeholders studies is not evenly covered as

well. In the analysis of literature on events and festivals carried out by Kim and Kaewnuch (2018, 462), it was indicated that out of 153 analysed articles 94 concerned participants and visitors and only 5 dealt with the issues of vendors.

Eastern Poland

Eastern Poland is a macro-region consisting of 5 voivodships: Warmińsko-Mazurskie, Podlaskie, Lubelskie, Świętokrzyskie and Podkarpackie. It is an area with special features that distinguish it from other macro regions of Poland. The current socio-economic situation of Eastern Poland is the effects of various phenomena of both internal nature, including a lack of localization of industrial investments, lack of sufficient investment in communication infrastructure; and external nature including the change of Poland's borders after World War II. Despite the political transformation of 1989 and Poland's accession to the European Union in 2004, the situation of Eastern Poland did not improve significantly. In 2016, GDP per capita of voivodships included in this macro-region was still below the EU average, while in all other voivodships of Poland it was above 50% of EU average (Regions of Poland 2018, p. 31).

The largest city in Eastern Poland is Lublin with 339 850 thousand residents, other voivodship cities are: Białystok (297 288 thousand), Kielce (196 804 thousand), Rzeszów (189 662 thousand) and Olsztyn (173 070 thousand), these cities are respectively 9, 10, 12, 13 and 14 positions in terms of population among all 16 voivodship cities in Poland (Rocznik demograficzny, 2019). The urbanization rate in the voivodships of Eastern Poland is one of the lowest in Poland and in the ranking of voivodships it places them in 16th (Podkarpackie), 15th (Świętokrzyskie), 14th (Lubelskie), 10th (Warmińsko-Mazurskie) and 8th (Podlaskie) positions of Polish voivodships (eRegion, 2018). Eastern Poland is also characterized by a low level of investment outlays per capita (Regions of Poland 2018, data refer to 2016). Similarly, with respect to the activity of enterprises, Eastern Poland has the lowest number of commercial companies – the mentioned voivodships occupy the last places in the ranking (Regions of Poland 2018, data refer to 2016).

The complicated economic situation of Eastern Poland is undoubtedly one of the many factors contributing to serious social problems in the region. One of the most important phenomena concerning all voivodships of Eastern Poland is the decrease in population. According to the data of the Central Statistical Office of Poland, the majority of all Polish communes for which a decrease in population of more than 10% is forecasted by 2030 is located in this region (Population forecast in communes for 2017-2030, 2017, p. 8). In the case of the Podlaskie voivodship, it is as much as 44% of communes (ibidem). In terms of the material situation of households in the voivodships of Eastern Poland the level of income poverty is above the average for Poland in all five voivodships, while the level of poverty of living conditions is above the average in the voivodships: Lubelskie, Świętokrzyskie and Warmian-Masurian (Regional differentiation of the quality of life in Poland based on the Social Cohesion Survey, 2017). An important problem of the macro region in question is insufficient transport accessibility, not only with large growth centers within Poland (and hence also limited access to European centers), but also centers within Eastern Poland itself. The location of the region on the outskirts of the EU and difficult transport access result in low interest from foreign investors.

Another problem resulting from this factor is low tourist traffic despite the region being rich in cultural and natural attractions as well as renowned for high quality environmental conservation. The National Strategy for Regional Development 2030 (Krajowa Strategia Rozwoju Regionalnego 2030, p. 50) adopted in 2019 puts special emphasis on the development of Eastern Poland and assumes increasing investment attractiveness, strengthening competitiveness and stimulating economic activity in this area as well as strengthening social capital.

The role of social capital in local development

Social capital is seen as one of the drivers of development, it is an intangible asset referring not only to individuals but also to groups of people or nations. A vast number of studies is dedicated to analyse the sources of social capital and the consequences of its development, especially in regions where other resources are limited. The concept of social capital is in the scope of interest of a great number of scientific disciplines. From a geographical perspective social capital is seen as a mean to achieve social and economic growth and the research concentrates mostly on presenting the spatial distribution of social capital level. French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu is considered to be the first of contemporary researchers who indicated the existence of social capital and undertook its analysis. Bourdieu defined social capital as "the sum of real and potential resources that are associated with having a permanent network of more or less institutionalized relationships based on mutual knowledge and recognition" (Bourdieu, 1980, p. 2). According to Bourdieu, the size (volume) of social capital owned by a given entity is directly proportional to the capital held by other related entities and depends also on the possibility of "launching" this network of connections.

The author also indicates that the social capital possessed gives the possibility to use other forms of capital - economic, cultural or symbolic, owned by other units in the group. Social capital is not given by nature, nor does it result from family connections - it has no genealogical background, but is the result of work dedicated to creating and maintaining lasting and useful ties with other individuals. The purpose of these ties are benefits of material or symbolic significance. According to Bourdieu, what ensures mutual knowledge and recognition is the "alchemy of exchange" (French *alchimie de l'echange*) which is the basis for the transformation of accidental bonds into bonds resulting in lasting obligations expressed in gratitude, friendship or respect or rights.

As Bourdieu emphasizes, social capital is the least material of all types of capital, because it exists only in the sphere of relations and social networks, while human capital is hidden in human abilities and physical and economic capital take material form. Social capital, in particular its impact on the creation of human capital, was also the subject of research by James Coleman. According to Coleman (1988, p. 101), the key function of social capital is its utility - the ability to use resources arising from the existence of social capital by individual units to meet their own goals.

Coleman suggests, that individuals would not be able to satisfy these goals (both economic and non-economic) in the absence of social capital. Particularly valuable may be those relationships that enable the acquisition of information needed and thus facilitate the undertaking of specific actions (Coleman, 1988, p. 104). When analysing the impact of social capital on local development, it is possible to take into account local differences affecting the "baseline" of this capital. These differences may result from historical, ethnic, religious, political and other conditions.

However, the basis for this analysis should be the "existing" supply of social capital at a given aggregate level (Triglia, 2001). The condition for choosing the right path for development may be the general availability of social connections networks, stretching between individual units (companies, employees) and collective actors (interest groups, public institutions) (ibidem, p. 433-434). Trigilia (ibidem) makes interesting observations regarding social capital as a source of local development in the context of the impact of globalization processes. In his opinion, globalization has a twofold impact on the use of social capital in local development. On the one hand, it makes it easy to move businesses and choose the most advantageous locations from the entrepreneur's point of view, which harms regions that are unable to offer the right resources. On the other hand, it enables more innovative and social capital-using areas

to benefit from a growing market. Attracting companies and investors to a given region may depend not only on the incentives offered to them (e.g. in the form of support for investment location and other facilities) but on the ability to use social capital in the development of a certain level of knowledge and specialization, which will ensure sustainable development of the area in the future (ibidem, p. 433).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The research covered 7 cultural events located in the 5 voivodships of Eastern Poland. They were periodical events of a cultural nature referring to specific elements of the tradition of each region. The range of the examined events can be defined as local or regional for 6 events, in the case of one of the events it is supra-regional (as defined by Koh & Jackson, 2006). When choosing the events for the study, the location, type of event and its tradition (periodicity) were key factors. In the case of location, the basic factor determining the choice was the location on the territory of Eastern Poland.

Four voivodships were covered by the research (Table 2). Podlaskie voivodship was not covered by the survey research among vendors due to technical problems, but a questionnaire was administered to the manager of “Jarmark Dominikański”, an event held in Choroszcz. The focus on events promoting local culture (related to the tradition of a given region) meant that the organizers of the examined events included only self-government institutions or non-governmental organizations. The research was carried out between July 4 and August 16, 2015. A comparable methodology was used by Bakas et al. (2019) to study small-scale events in Portugal.

Table 2. Distribution of studied events

Name of the event	Location	Voivodship
Powojenne T argi Końskie	Lutowiska	Podkarpackie
Turniej Rycerski o Miecz Króla Kazimierza Wielkiego	Szydłów	Świętokrzyskie
Jarmark św. Kiliana	Skierbieszów	Lubelskie
Jarmark Holeński	Hola	Lubelskie
Święto Mazurskiego Kartoflaka	Szczytno	Warmińsko-Mazurskie
Regionalny Festiwal Pogranicza Kartaczewo	Gołdap	Warmińsko-Mazurskie
Dymarki Świętokrzyskie	Nowa Słupia	Świętokrzyskie

The research tool was an interview questionnaire composed of 21 questions, including 2 general questions (participant type, place of business) and 19 specific questions (7 open-ended questions, 7 closed-ended questions and 5 semi-open questions).

RESULTS DISCUSSIONS

88 vendors took part in the study, among them were craftsman and folk artists (the largest group, $n=40$) as well as farm owners or representatives of rural associations. In the case of all the examined events, the vast majority of participants came from the voivodship in which the event was carried out ($n=78$). In contemporary literature social capital is analysed in relation to various administrative units, both on a macro scale (e.g. social capital of the European Union) through the mezzo scale (social capital of a given country, province) to the micro scale (social capital of a commune or town). The location of participants in the surveyed events indicates that they participate primarily in events located within the region in which they operate. A total of 10 of the participants surveyed came from outside Eastern Poland: 4 from Mazowieckie Voivodship, 3 from the Śląskie Voivodship, and respectively 1 from the voivodships of Małopolskie, Łódzkie and Pomorskie. The scale of the effects of social capital arising as

a result of mass events organization is difficult to determine. However, one can point to a certain range of economic and social results appearing in the form of benefits for both participants and event organizers (broadly understood not only as the institution but as the host community of the event). Referring to the views of Theiss (2007), it is possible to observe the emergence of social capital at the regional and individual level. At the individual level, consisting of cooperation between participants, it is possible to observe:

1. Informal coordination, which is more favourable than formal coordination: a direct effect may be, for example, the influence exerted by the participants on the organizers in matters related to the implementation of the event.

2. Reduction of transaction costs, which may result in the exchange of semi-finished products or joint creation of final products by a group of participants, as well as a better adjustment of the quality of semi-finished products to the needs of the final product manufacturer.

3. Maximizing the benefits of participating in the event by sharing the costs of participation (e.g. transport, accommodation).

4. Information flow, including sharing detailed knowledge about individual events in terms of their artistic values and potential earning opportunities.

At the organizer level the following results are visible:

1. Better cooperation with participants - matching the program and infrastructure of the event to their needs, co-creating the event program.

2. Involving the local community in cooperation: dialogue between the local authority and the local community.

3. Improving the quality of life of the local community by enabling it to expand its network of contacts and strengthen its sense of connection.

4. Improving the efficiency of governance by strengthening the sense of purposefulness of expenses incurred for the organization of mass events.

The effects presented above refer to key resources at the disposal of individual participants. The relationships taking place on the basis of participation in the surveyed events lead to knowledge, information and experience exchange. Those resources constitute the endogenous potential of local development. Undoubtedly, they are used in the particular interests of individual participants (vendors), but they can also be a drive for the development of a given commune, especially if this development is based on cultural values. The key here is cooperation between the market sphere, social networks and development policy (Triglia, 2001). As field studies have shown, the organization of a cultural event can be based on the use of human resources and "existing" infrastructure in a given location. Social capital facilitates the flow of information. The provision of information allows to obtain detailed knowledge directly, reduces the risk of economic failure and the associated costs. Social capital, like any other form of capital, is characterized by productivity, leads to the achievement of a certain specific benefit, which can undoubtedly be information.

The study showed that when searching for information about events, their participants use knowledge derived directly from other participants (28 out of 95 answers), some participants also receive invitations from the organizers. An interesting answer given by respondents regarding the question about the source of information on the event was a reference to the event's tradition, which suggests that in many cases the event is "inscribed" in the minds of the participants. This situation results from the geographical proximity of the participant and the event being examined. The source of information about the event is also the Internet, which has no clear picture as to the impact on social capital. Its strength, as a factor creating social capital, can be both mobilizing, neutral and negative (Markowska-Przybyła, 2017). Unfortunately, the study

did not allow to indicate to what extent knowledge obtained by participants from the Internet, comes from websites and to what extent from social media sites. There is no doubt, however, that information about various cultural events circulates between event participants and these are both positive and negative opinions about them.

Barriers to participation in events can be considered as possible obstacles for social capital development. Participants of the surveyed events in the vast majority declare that they consciously avoid to participate in some events (n=66). Their decision is motivated by economic considerations regarding the organization and nature of the event as well as poor cooperation with the organizers and difficulties in obtaining a place at the event. Economic reasons include: high travel costs (too large distance from the place of business), high fees or lack of time. Organizational issues relate to the low attractiveness of the event (low number of visitors, poor promotion of the event, poor organization). In the area of the nature of the event, participants point to the inappropriate profile of the event (not related to their activities, e.g. traditional folk art or folklore). The most interesting reason indicated as a barrier to participation in some events is the situation of rejection of their participation due to the lack of connection with the local social network. As emphasized by Łuczyszyn (2013, p. 131), strong bonds of local communities are becoming barriers to the influx of new ideas, new residents, and consequently they are not conducive to development.

This observation confirms the common view among participants of local cultural events who stated that they do not travel to some events because they feel "unwanted". They indicated as well that in some cases registration is refused by the organizers because of their origin outside of the region in which the event is being held. It should be emphasized that the respondents have extensive experience related to active participation in events. 80 of them participate in other events during the year, including 35 who participate in more than 10 events. For the respondents, participation in events is not only a source of income, but also a way of life and spending time. As observed, many participants are present at the event with the family. The vendors declare to know each other and meet at various events throughout the year.

The goal of each human activity is to fulfil a certain set of needs and achieve specific benefits. When asked about the benefits of participating in the event, the participants indicated several possible answers. Most participate in events in order to make a profit (n=61), while at the same time many pointed out that this profit is symbolic or additional to income from other activities. Another benefit is the promotion of products sold (n=53). 54 respondents indicated social benefits as those that are significant to them. In this case, as mentioned by the vendors, it is about establishing relationships with the local community and other participants, exchanging experiences, meeting friends and showing respect for the work done by the participants. The answer to the question about mutual relations between event participants leads to an interesting conclusion - 78 respondents know other participants personally or in a professional field. Such result indicates that the participants form a community related to their interests, in which they share knowledge and experience and also support each other by providing information about other events (including whether they are worth participating in). Relations that facilitate obtaining information, which are a resource arising from social capital are derived from joint participation in the event.

CONCLUSION

It is important to note, that tools and measures typical of studies on social capital were not used to conduct this research. The research based on interviews and observations allowed not to determine the specific level of emerging social capital, but

to state that such capital has a chance to arise as a result of organizing small-scale cultural events. The source of this capital is undoubtedly the personal characteristics of individual participants and their mutual relations based on trust and cooperation.

An important factor that supports the creation of social capital is the conditions in which this capital is created, and thus the immediate environment (atmosphere of the event, cooperation with the organizers), as well as historical and cultural conditions. Undoubtedly, the atmosphere accompanying these events is conducive to the emergence of social capital among participants. A study led in South Africa indicates that local events generate social inclusivity, cohesion and empowerment (Bob et al., 2019, p. 1248). If we treat local development, in general, as a set of circumstances leading to a comprehensive formation of optimal living conditions for the community, social capital is an indispensable element of such development (Działek, 2011).

At the basis of development, not only in the local dimension, lies adequate, effective cooperation of various types of formal and informal institutions, as well as individual units. Bartkowski notes that social capital influences the creation of favourable conditions for cooperation and exchange in society, it is a tool that stimulates local and regional development (Bartkowski, 2007, p. 91-92). Small-scale cultural events can trigger social capital and thus support local development through trust, information exchange and cooperation between different stakeholders located in the region. For local development, especially in the conditions of limited availability of external resources, resources that are established within the local community, such as social capital, may be crucial.

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ASSESSMENT OF RECREATION CARRYING CAPACITY OF ILE-ALATAU NATIONAL PARK IN KAZAKHSTAN

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Abstract: Recreation carrying capacity is an important concept in park and protected area management for estimation of optimum recreation use and sustainable tourism management. In fact, the recreation carrying capacity concept has been used as a method to regulate the maximum number of visitors to a specific recreational site in many occasions. The Ile-Alatau national nature park in Kazakhstan is located close to Almaty, largest city of Kazakhstan and it is a popular place for tourism activities and regular weekend tours. In the Ile-Alatau Nature Park, fauna and flora are characterized by high diversity and concentration in a relatively small area. By using Framework for Assessment Carrying Capacity for Protected Areas, this manuscript aims to estimate the recreational carrying capacity of the Ile-Alatau nature park in Kazakhstan. Result showed that the estimated recreational carrying capacity is between 67-70 people per ha. This number is higher than actual average park visitation. This study outcomes have important implications for the management and can improve long-term planning and decision-making process of the Ile-Alatau National Park.

Key words: national park, recreation carrying capacity, sustainable tourism, Kazakhstan

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INTRODUCTION

The problems of assessment of recreational capacity of the national park for tourism purpose have become more relevant. This is due to the need to solve two interrelated and contradictory tasks such as ensuring a complete rest of visitors and protecting environmental nature in recreation areas. Abernethy (2001) defines recreational carrying capacity as an instrument which support the specific impacts for sustainability assessments of tourism activities and this instrument can be used as a method to regulate the maximum visitation to a specific site at any environment. Nakajima & Ortega (2016) defined four types of the carrying capacity including i) economic; ii) psychological; iii) environmental or ecological; and iv) social.

According to Koshim et al. (2019) economic carrying capacity defines the impact of tourism through economic indicators. Vujko et al. (2017) and Saparov et al. (2017) mentioned that psychological carrying capacity examines the level of visitors' satisfaction by destination and service. Iskakov & Medeu (2007) indicated that environmental carrying capacity regards the impact of tourism activities on environment. Some authors give specific definition of ecological carrying capacity is the maximum use that the biota or the physical processes of an area can withstand before becoming unacceptably or irreversibly damaged (Singtuen & Won-In, 2018). Finally, McLachlan & Defeo (2017) viewed on social carrying capacity as the reaction of local community to tourism.

In addition, there is recreational carrying capacity. Erdavletov (2000) defines the recreational capacity of a territory as the maximum allowable number of visitors who can stay in that territory without causing a pressure on the sustainable natural balance and thereby worsening the conditions of rest. In the case of a tourist route, this concept is defined as carrying capacity without violating safety regulations. In context of national park's carrying capacity, the recreational capacity is defined as an area for vacation, which includes a national park determines the maximum number of sports and recreational tourists who can stay at the same time without compromising the natural environment sustainability and normal life rhythm of the region (Sharma & Kamal, 2019). Cupul-Magana & Rodriguez-Troncoso (2017) argue that using the carrying capacity concept in a touristic area, may generate a satisfactory experience for the tourism with an acceptable or minimum impact on the resource of the protected area. Iskakov & Medeu (2007) and Atanga (2019) proposes to calculate the recreational carrying capacity in the number of visitors per day in recreational area or recreational facility for a certain period of time.

Each territory has its own carrying capacity and permissible environmental load, depending on the ability of the reproduction of natural resources, as well as to a large extent related to the presence of effective environmental protection infrastructure. Therefore, optimization of the interaction of production and natural systems involves the alignment of the scale and forms of management with the natural capabilities of the territory (Koshim et al., 2018). When comparing the capacity of the ecological-economic system with the actual environmental load, it is possible to determine the degree of imbalance of the territory from the standpoint of economic development, the social sphere and environmental degradation. Such comparison develops a set of measures to harmonize the pace of development of the ecological-economic system with its ecological capacity. The tourism industry, on the one hand, places high demands on the quality of the environment, on the other it is associated with large anthropogenic pressures on the environment. Consequently, the development of recreational activities in the territory must be developed in accordance with the principals of sustainability, which also include the determination of recreational carrying capacity (Zhang et al., 2016). Many studies have been conducted concerning different aspects of the carrying

capacity for national parks and protected areas (Papageorgiou & Brotherton, 1999; Manning, 2001; Janeczko & Gucma, 2015). Many of these studies devoted to the standards and assessments of the recreational carrying capacity of natural parks (Butler, 1996; Saveriades, 2000). Many standards of carrying capacity are based on data from observations or are derived empirically based evidence.

For example, there are evaluation results from studies of the Rosgiroles Institute, where permissible recreational loads depending on the functional zones were determined in the following limits: zone of quite rest – up to 5 visitors per ha; zone of recreation – up to 20 visitors per ha; zone of active recreation area - from 20 to 100 visitors per ha (Rosgiroles Report, 2009). In Kazakhstan, there is no universally accepted methodology to quantify the carrying capacity of national parks and protected areas. However, a long-term management plan for each park was prepared to determine the conditions of access, protection, development, and management. Furthermore, these plans were not utilized and functioned only as inventory tools when needed. They included nothing about visitors, their management or most of the recreational experiences available. Based on existing assessment methodologies, this manuscript aims to estimate the recreational carrying capacity of the Ile-Alatau national park in Kazakhstan.

STUDY AREA

Kazakhstan is landlocked and ninth largest country in the world, and located in Central Asia with rich historical, cultural and natural resources (Karatayev et al., 2016; Rivotti et al., 2018). The geographic positioning of country result in a unique combination of different fauna and flora elements, and underpins the significance of the biodiversity of Kazakhstan and the need for its conservation in the regional context (Karatayev & Hall, 2017). About 3% of the world's known flora and 5% of the world's known fauna can be found in the country. Developing networks of specially protected nature areas is one of the means to provide long-term conservation of biological and landscape diversity of national, regional, and global importance (Valeyev et al., 2019).

Kazakhstan has been carrying out sequential actions towards the ecological network establishment inside the country as well as regionally. The national protected nature system is established and developing based on national legislations and international agreements ratified by Kazakhstan. In this enormous territory, specially protected natural territories occupy about 9% of the country's area or 24.7 million hectares. Currently, there are 13 state nature parks, 66 state nature reserves, 9 state natural monuments, 2 state nature habitat and 2 transboundary protected areas. The main regulatory legal acts regulating tourism activities in protected areas are the Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan on specially protected natural territories, the Land Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan, and the Forest Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan. National parks have developed in Kazakhstan only in the last 30 years. The first national park was established in 1986. The main idea of creating national parks is to preserve the unique nature while providing people with opportunities to engage in recreational activities, to get knowledge about nature. Natural parks and tourism are interrelated, while there is a need for tourists to travel to ecologically clean areas of the Earth.

The object of this research is the Ile-Alatau national natural park. The natural park is located on the northern macrohillside of the ridge Trans-Ili Ala-Tau, which is the part of Northern Tyan Shan physical geographic province. The ridge of Trans-Ili Ala-Tau is complex and by its topology relates to the northern spur of Tyan Shan. The territory is peculiar of vertical zonality or belt character of relief, which specified a wide variety of landscapes. The Ile-Alatau Natural Park was established following a decree by the

Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan dated February 22, 1996 with the 164 450 ha territory. Later, the territory of the park was extended to 199 252 ha. This territory is currently divided into 4 zones. First zone is conservation area with 62137 ha (31,2 %). The defining function of this zone is the preservation fauna, flora and biodiversity. The second zone is environmental stabilization zone with 16412 ha (8,2%). The main function of the zone is to provide conditions for the preservation of natural complexes and objects, restore disturbed natural complexes and objects of the nature reserve fund. The third some is area of recreational activities with 15408 ha (7,8 %). The main function of the zone is to ensure the conservation of natural complexes and objects of protection with simultaneous strictly regulated use for tourist and recreational purposes. The zone is divided into sections of regulated short and long stay of tourists and recreation of visitors to the park. The fourth zone is limited business area with 105295 ha (52,8%). It is intended for the placement of administrative facilities associated with the activities of the Ile-Alatau park, as well as individuals and legal entities on the basis of lease agreements with the main land user in accordance with the country's legislation.



Figure 1. The location of Ile-Alatau national recreational park in Kazakhstan

GEOGRAPHICAL AND RECREATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

The basic pattern of distribution of vegetation, soils and wildlife in the Ile-Alatau national recreational park is characterized by vertical zones. The boundaries of vegetation zones coincide with the boundaries of soil areas:

Foothill-low mountain steppe belt. The steppe zone covers the whole territory of foothills and low mountains. Steppe vegetation covers the slopes of foothills and low mountains of various exposures, as well as the bottom and the dry inter-mountain valleys of the foothills. Dominant vegetation is steppe fescue-forb and sagebrush-grass community. They are dominated by fescue striated, found in large quantities sedge lignocaine, Kochia, Artemisia, etc. The vegetation of these barrens is low and only in spring it has bright green color, which is already the middle of summer, becoming yellow-

grey. Stony-gravelly slopes of low mountains are covered with sparse vegetation of sagebrush-grass and fescue-sagebrush type. These are dry steppe with a predominance of *Artemisia*, *teresken*, *Kohei*, feather grass, fescue, etc. The characteristic feature of this zone is the extensive development of bushes, which are ubiquitous, almost completely covering the entire system of hills, with the exception of ravines. Shrubs are represented mainly by the following species: dog rose, honeysuckle, *Spiraea*, cotoneaster, ash tree, and barberry. The soils of this zone vary. At the top of the belt and within the lowlands of the mountain there is common, brown soil, and in the lower part – light brown soil. The soil is mostly thin, often stony and gravelly. The structure is lumpy-granular. By the mechanical composition soils there are stony and clayey.

Mid-mountain forest-meadow-steppe zone. This belt occupies a large area in the range of absolute height from 1100-1300 to 2000-2200 m. Forest dominant tree species here are walnut and juniper. The densest forests with a small number of shrubs, well-developed moss and sparse herbaceous cover grow on steep northern slopes.

Juniper forests are unique and have ecological, sanitary-hygienic, health, and soil conservation value. On the floodplains the stands of ash, birch, poplar and willow grow, and on terraces and mountain slopes hawthorn. Shrubs are found everywhere – on the slopes of mountains and among forests. Characteristic species are – cherry shrub, cotoneaster, *spiraea*, honeysuckle, wild rose, barberry, *afatunia*, *abelia*, etc. The soils of the forest zone here are mountain forest black and dark-colored soils. These soils are spread mainly on the slopes of northern exposition. Forming on steep slopes, mountain-forest soils are usually gravelly and stony.



Figure 2. The main physico-geographical and recreational characteristics of Ile-Alatau park

Sub Tien-Shan zone. The sub Tien-Shan belt is located above the forest belt, within altitudes from 2000 to 2500m, sometimes 3000m. With the change of the altitude the forest-meadow-steppe zone gradually passes into the sub zone, characterized by diverse natural conditions. The climate is temperate-cold and less humid than in the forest belt. The sub Tien-Shan meadows have rich herbaceous species composition. The predominant types are: Jerusalem sage, globe-flower, geranium *Collina*, cuff fluffy, blue forget-me-not, Highlander and a number of other medium grass species with large and colorful

flowers. The herbaceous layer is typically dense with the coverage of 80-100% (Sakypbek & Aktymbayeva, 2017). Soil profiles become fairly powerful compared to the previous belt. They are better differentiated into horizons and contain more humus, which is associated with increased activity of microorganisms. The fir and spruce forests grow here. Depending on the degree of moisture these soils under fir and spruce forests can have two subtypes: a) dark-colored peaty ordinary in and dry fir and spruce stands; b) dark peaty leached in more humid fir and spruce stands.

Tien-Shan zone. This belt occupies the most elevated part of the lands with absolute heights of 2500-3500m. At the whole northern macroslope of Trans-Ili Ala-Tau there are more than 300 glaciers, total area of which more than 300 sq. km. The glaciers are frequently surrounded with a border of massive clumpy moraines, which are tending down the valleys down to the altitude of 2 750 m (Nesterova et al., 2017).

The Tien-Shan zone is widespread, but is not a continuous strip, as in many places covered with rocks, talus or destroyed by mudflows. Vegetation on Tien-Shan meadows is short-grass. Due to high altitude and low temperature, the vegetation does not have time to complete a full life cycle within a short summer season. All the plants are short, and their root system is shallow. Under humid conditions between hills and floodplains there is a dense continuous cover of sedge, bluegrass purple, viviparous knotweed, Albert buttercup. Here the characteristic of the Tien-Shan zone are forb -grass meadows, and in the conditions of high humidity - meadows with predominance of sedges with a dash of herbs. Large areas of the Tien-Shan zone are cliffs, talus, uncovered by vegetation. Soils of the Tien-Shan belt are poorly developed. Severe natural (climatic) conditions of this belt are the reason that the soil formation processes proceed very slowly. The Tien-Shan soils are generally thin, weakly differentiated into horizons, mostly of low humus and gravelly. Low temperatures inhibit the decomposition of organic residues to humus, resulting in the Tien-Shan mountain-meadow semi-peaty soils.



Figure 3. The main physico-geographical and recreational characteristics of Ile-Alatau park

By climatic features the territory relates to Trans-Ili subregion, which is notable for moderately warm climate with a late spring-summer maximum of sediments. The vertical zonality of the climatic features is vividly expressed. Their most appreciable displays are inconvertible temperature drop and magnification of intensity of solar

irradiation, annual and seasonal volume of atmospheric precipitation in accordance with magnification of terrain clearance altitude. Endurance of solar light is above 2000 hours per year. The mountain band of middle altitude is notable for gentle winds (1.5 - 2 m/s). During short-term periods of time in low and high-mountainous zones the speed of wind may exceed 20 m/s. In winter the inverse of temperature of air diffusing up to the altitude of 2000 m has place. At the altitude of 800 m the mean temperature of January is -6.8° , at the altitude 1529 m is -3.7° , and at the altitude of 1942 m is 6.3° (Nesterova et al., 2017). The summer in low altitude part is long-term and hot.

Mean temperature of July is $20-22^{\circ}$. As altitude increases the summer becomes shorter and more cool. In the middle altitude part mean temperature of July is $10-15^{\circ}$, and in high-mountainous part is $5-10^{\circ}$ (Vukolov & Woodward, 2010). The volume of sediments with altitude is being increased: from 616 mm (at the altitude of 800 m) up to 1000 mm (3500 m). With altitude endurance of conservation of snow overlying strata and its altitude also is increased. In a low part the snow is laying 190 days, and its altitude in the spring reaches 100 m. In high-mountainous bands the snow lays more than 250 days, and its altitude exceeds 100 m (Iskakov & Medeu, 2007).

Features of natural climatic conditions specify forming of intensive surface sink and advanced hydroplot network. By nature of feeding and drains all rivers of Trans-Ili are subdivided into three types: high-altitude glacial, middle-altitude and low-altitude. The largest are the rivers of the first type. Among them are the rivers Chemolgan, Kaskelen, Aksai, Major and Minor Almatinka, Talgar, Esik, Turgen. It is the rivers of glacial feeding, which are deep and have great area of water collection. High standing of water in these rivers has place for a long time - from the beginning of thaw of snows (in April) up to the end of August. The depth of their valleys reaches 800-1000 m (Nesterova et al., 2017). Maximum average annual rates of stream are observed scored at the rivers of Talgar -10.3 m^3 per year, Turgen -7.04 m^3 per year, Esik -4.99 m^3 per year. Middle-altitude rivers, the sources of which are located at the altitude of less than 3000 m, are fed mainly by atmospheric precipitation and underground waters. In most cases they take originating from springs getting out of tectonic faults and fractures of bedrocks (Begembetov & Vinogradova, 2006). Most of them are small (15-20 km) highland rivers with high inclination of channel and rapid stream. The third type includes many originating in low-altitude band of the ridge of the shallow seasonal rivers, in which water appears only in spring, and in summer they dry up. There is a number of lakes of various sizes in the territory. By origin and aqueous mode there are the following types of lakes: glacial, starved, starved retaining and landslip tectonic.

The sizes of them are changing from 100-200 m in a diameter up to 1-1.5 km. To the latter type the lakes of landslip tectonic origin are related - Esik and Major Almaty lake. Landslip dam of the former one had been destroyed during intense mudflow of 1963 (Vukolov & Woodward, 2010). The breaking have barred later artificially and again formed lake has considerably smaller area. Level of the second lake is artificially uplifted up by a dam, and it is a potable water storage for Almaty, thus, the territory which is included in national park is a place of forming of the aqueous drain providing water supply of settlements and agricultural zone of piedmonts.

RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES

The main goals and objectives of the national park are to conserve and restore unique natural complexes and provide people with various recreational activities for both summer and winter holidays. For these purposes special sites are allocated, which are under recreational accomplishment. 170 places for picnic, in a summer time 10-15

yurts and tents camping's are working, historical and ethnographic visit-center Kieli-Bulak is under re-construction. There are 22 tourist routes and 5 ecological tracks (Nesterova et al., 2017). In 2017, about 140000 people spent time in the national park. 69 organized tourist groups where 3450 people were accepted. More than 5000 copies of the booklets, notes for the tourists attending national park are issued (Sakypbek & Aktymbayeva, 2017). The growing tendency of outdoor recreation among Kazakhstani residents have both positive and negative impact on the national park activity.

Positive impact consists an income, infrastructure development and etc. Negative impact characterized by increased pressure on the natural systems of the park, increasing general pollution of the territory, air basin and degradation of ecosystems due to increased anthropogenic load, insufficient attention to the problem of garbage collection and general pollution of the territory and lack of effective monitoring of recreational and tourist activities, which does not allow regulating the recreational load and redistribute flows of tourists in order to preserve the ecosystems of the Ile-Alatau park. However, an uncompleted inventory of flora and fauna reduces the attractiveness of the territory for tourists of a special scientific and scientific-cognitive orientation.

Recreational loads for the Ile-Alatau park were developed during the preparation of the project "Correction of the feasibility study of the Ile-Alatau National Natural Park in terms of developing a master plan for the development of infrastructures" in 2013 (Geldiyev, 2013). According to this document, the existing tourist routes of the Ile-Alatau park of different directions can accommodate 8879 visitors per month, 36040 visitors per year. But according to the Park report, in 2018 the Ile-Alatau park was visited by 202 351 people. Because of the problems of segmentation of groups of tourists, it is unclear the number of tourists who used hiking routes. Due to lack of control over the number of tourists on popular sites, it is necessary to reconsider the recreational load on the park. As all national parks, Ile-Alatau park has a management plan in order to conserve and protect biodiversity and nature of the territory to use the natural resources in appropriate way. However, there are currently no carrying capacity data for the primary sites. At the same time when calculating the carrying capacity of the national park, it is proposed to consider not only the number of visitors who are vacationing, but also the residents living in the given territory. In the total area of the territory for which the recreational load is provided, there are included, in addition to specially protected territories, lands occupied with agricultural production, residential and recreational buildings, etc.

RESEARCH METHOD

McCool & Lime (2001) suggests that development objectives are determinant in the calculation of carrying capacity and can help manage the inevitable negative impacts from leisure activities; whilst Martin & Uysal (1990) outlined that the carrying capacity provides the optimum level upon which resources can deteriorate or damage to the ecosystems are irreversible, providing a mathematical formula of how many tourists are enough. Papageorgiou & Brotherton (1999) indicated that despite several criticisms, carrying capacity assessment remains a powerful concept that can be used for planning and management of sustainable tourism; Davis & Tisdell (1995) reported that apart from outlining all factors that limit tourism growth, the concept of carrying capacity also indicates compensatory tools to manage tourism flows to a destination; whilst Shelby & Heberlein (1984) indicated that this concept should be seen as a positive and dynamic prism contemplating the temporal space as a basic value for implementation of sustainable beach management principles. To assess the recreational carrying capacity, the Carrying Capacity Assessment for Protected Areas framework developed by Saarinen

(2006) and further explained and applied by several other authors (Maltceva, 2007; Akimova et al., 2011; Zelt & Kireev, 2012) was used. This framework attempts to establish the maximum number of visitors that an area can have based on the physical, biological and management conditions of the area, considering three main levels: the physical carrying capacity (the maximum number of visitors that can physically fit into a defined area over a particular time), the real carrying capacity (the maximum permissible number of visits to a specific site) and the effective or permissible carrying capacity (the maximum number of visits that a site can sustain considering the management capacity).

Based on existing methodological tools, the recreational carrying capacity was determined by the following formula, provided by Saarinen (2006):

$$\Sigma_{\max,t} = \frac{M_{load}}{S_{area}} * k * f * g * j * q \quad (1)$$

Formula 1, where Σ_t - index of a recreational carrying capacity of the territory defined as the maximum permissible number of visits to a site, once the corrective factors derived from the particular characteristics of the site have been applied to the physical carrying capacity; M_{load} - maximum and minimum load of the territory, visitors; S_{area} - total area of the territory for recreation, ha; k, f, g, j, q - a system of correction factors that consider the degree of development of the ecological infrastructure and the level of development of the recreational area.

The maximum and minimum load of the territory was determined using the following formula (Saarinen, 2006):

$$M_{load} = \frac{Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3 + Q_4}{4} \quad (2)$$

Formula 2, where, Q_1 – permanent residents' number; Q_2 - number of park employees; Q_3 and Q_4 - number of seasonal visitors.

It is important to consider corrective factors are closely linked to the specific conditions and characteristics of each site and obtained by bio-physical, environmental, ecological, social and management variables. They are expressed as the following formula (Sayan & Atik, 2011):

$$g = g_y \times g_c \quad (3)$$

Formula 3, where g is the coefficient of the corrective factors of the territory, g_y is the limiting magnitude of the variable, and g_c is the total magnitude of the variable.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The method outcomes defined that the average index of the recreational capacity of Ile-Alatau park will be approximately 67-70 visitors per ha. Many visitors can be permanently in the territory of the Ile-Alatau park, the rest should only temporarily stay no more than 8 hours. Also, according to formula, the minimum carrying capacity is one visitor per hectares. These numbers are only theoretical and incorporating the correction factors. By determining the usage level of an area without exceeding certain levels, the physical carrying capacity has been extensively viewed as a panacea for recreational park management and as a tool to reduce impacts from tourism. However, there is a degree of subjectivity when identifying the desired level of each indicator and the difficulties of establishing the relationship between number of visitors and each indicator. Another

point that generates controversy around recreational capacity is that it does not consider the level of interaction between tourists themselves and between tourists and local communities. Although the carrying capacity has significantly higher current number of visitors, an important aspect should be included: the management capacity of the park.

To measure management capacity, it is necessary to address several variables such as the juridical background, policies and regulations, equipment, personnel, funding, infrastructure and facilities and the management capacity would be defined as the best status or conditions that park administrators should keep in order to develop their activities and meet proposed objectives. Furthermore, tourism as a vehicle of culture, prosperity and peace must conserve without damaging, protect without plundering and create without destroying. Especially in nature protected areas, this statement achieves greater significance if parks as eco-social landscapes in which use patterns, perceptions and behavioural attitudes are completely dependent on the users or tourists. As a result of these patterns, there is a need to preserve and protect these fragile natural sites.

Regarding sustainable management of park, since 1991, a modern and effective legal framework has been created, a system has been developed for attracting additional sources of funding for nature reserves and national parks, and their geographical network has expanded. Since 2010 a specialized department has been created under Ministry of Environmental Protection, which is engaged in direct management of the system of state nature reserves and parks. Constructive steps have been taken to adapt the scientific activities of the reserves to the conditions of the modern scientific community. The capabilities of the protected areas have increased. The fragmentation in the management of national parks have been eliminated. New conceptual approaches to the development of territorial nature conservation at the national and regional levels have been developed. Public environmental organizations began to play a fundamentally new role in supporting parks. And most importantly, in extremely difficult political and socio-economic conditions, it was possible to preserve and expand the system of specially protected natural territories, primarily state natural reserves and national parks. A wealth of practice has been accumulated in the world, showing that the increase in the attendance of protected areas is not necessarily the destruction of natural complexes and the invasion of the natural course of natural processes. On the contrary, this phenomenon have a positive effect on the conservation of nature and cultural heritage, including a living traditional culture. In this regard, further study of the role of tourism in the activities of protected natural areas is necessary including a detailed analysis of the differences in potential and its implementation in nature reserves and national parks; the relationship of tourism with other functions of these environmental institutions; its impact on the management of protected areas. This, in turn, will allow us to formulate a range of tasks for managing the development of ecotourism in accordance with the most important goals of the functioning of protected areas.

Finally, taking into account increased recreational pressure on park, in order to obtain objective information necessary for making operational decisions and long-term programs for the prevention and elimination of the negative consequences of various types of use of natural resources, Ile-Alatau national park is recommended to conduct periodic inventories and systematic monitoring of the state of natural complexes and objects, or their monitoring. Monitoring programs in national park may include monitoring the status of: ecosystems that play a special role for the survival of rare species of animals and plants; biodiversity and qualitative composition of biota (flora and fauna), primarily vertebrates and vascular plants; number of rare species of plants and animals included in the Red Book or regional lists of specially protected species; number of

hunting and commercial animal species, especially valuable medicinal plants and other species of significant economic or social importance; species especially vulnerable due to the formation of mass clusters (colonial birds, marine mammals, etc.); edificatory species. It is advisable to conduct observations separately for functional zones, periodically summarizing these data for the national park as a whole. Monitoring should be carried out according to specially developed programs to all national parks and state nature reserves. A complete inventory of plant and animal objects should be planned by the Ministry of Environmental Protection of Kazakhstan at the request of national parks. These works should be carried out by specialized state organizations with a frequency of 10-15 years.

CONCLUSIONS

The recreational carrying capacity concept is a dynamic concept which depends on variables that have to be measured and can change with time. This study outcomes have important implications for the management and can improve long-term planning and decision-making process of the Ile-Alatau National Park. This paper made assessment of recreational carrying capacity assessment in the Ile-Alatau National Park. The result found that Ile-Alatau park could accept more tourists than existing number of visitors.

To do so it should be improved the state of current infrastructure such as parking places, roads, camping zones etc. However, defining the optimum number of visitors is not the end and there is a need of applying other frameworks that based on the upper limits of acceptance can help in the process of identifying the load or the level of impact that the Ile-Alatau National Park will sustain and codes of conduct that park visitors should follow. Currently, camping places as well as hiking trails became popular in Ile-Alatau National Park. And the damage for the biodiversity and environment of the national park cause from the campers' side. Also, a weak system of collection and sorting of waste, unformed responsible attitude of the majority of tourists to the environment will not be allowed to take more than existing number of tourists. While the development of tourism is at the initial stage, it is necessary to take a course on sustainable development.

As a tool for assessing and regulating the use of recreational facilities, the procedure for environmental monitoring of the territory should be recommended.

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THE EFFECT OF SERVICE QUALITY ON REVISIT INTENTION IN TOURIST BEACH

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Abstract: The purpose of beach management practices has widened in recent years, although there is still no complementary or bottom-up research that determines the preferences and demands of beach users. Therefore, this study seeks to evaluate the service quality perceptions of international tourists' intentions to revisit beach routes. The study uses a cross-sectional questionnaire survey to collect data from 185 respondents who are international tourists. Specifically, this paper aims to assess service quality perceptions of international tourists based on a survey conducted in Langkawi Island in Malaysia. The study employs PLS-SEM to analyse the data collected on service quality perceptions and the revisit intentions of tourists to beach routes. The study shows that three factors namely assurance, responsiveness and tangible have influences on the service quality perceptions of international tourists. The findings are fundamental for service providers to gain better insights into the perceptions of service quality of international tourists.

Key words: Service Quality, Revisit Intention, Beach Routes, Tourism, Malaysia

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INTRODUCTION

International tourism has experienced rapid development in the past three decades, and this had attracted the attention of researchers, practitioners and governments from several countries, including Malaysia (Connell, 2006; Pemayun & Suderana, 2019). The benefits of the development of the tourism industry are not felt only in the industry, but it also generates a significant economic flow that influences

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other sectors including stores, transport and building (Hui et al., 2007; Sadeh et al., 2012). Essentially, tourism businesses have the potentials to provide substantial revenues for a country through jobs creation for the unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled labour (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Saner et al., 2019). Consequently, the government of Malaysia recognised the tourism industry as one of the National Key Economic Areas in the Government Change Programme which is necessary to spearhead the transformation of the country into a high-income nation by 2020 (Pemandu, 2010). This present study was conducted in Langkawi Island, a destination which is renowned for its exquisite beaches and different habitats that comprise mangrove wetlands, tropical rainforests, caves and coral reefs. The Malaysian government began the marketing of Langkawi as an important tourist destination since the 1980s, and this has resulted in the development of the facilities with a view to providing enhanced services.

Basically, Island destinations provide distinctive attractions because they signify excellent residing laboratories. Therefore, they provide crucial locations to investigate the effect of tourism development on Island tourists, residents, surroundings as well as the economic climate (Andriotis, 2004; Carlsen & Butler, 2011; Moon & Han, 2019). Conversely, Island development is usually confronted with several issues because of the complex interactions of various economic, social and environmental factors (Chapman, 2007; Kaltenborn et al., 2012; Royle, 2010). There is also the issue of how to transform an Island into a distinctive destination via tourism development so as to make it an important part of a modern tourism (Ryan, 2002; Wilkinson, 2012).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Nowadays, beaches signify the primary concentration of global travel, vacation and leisure, thereby making them to become the icons of modern tourism (Holden, 2000; Pereira & Dantas, 2019; Retama et al., 2019). Nonetheless, the concentration of people and their activities in beaches are capable of causing the degradation of the surroundings (Prata et al., 2020). These could have effects on the environment and the tourists' recreational experiences, which may be detrimental to the host interests (Fullana & Ayuso, 2001; Tretiakova et al., 2019). Empirical literature (e.g. Cihar & Stankova, 2006; Daily, 1997; Priskin, 2003; Song et al., 2019; Mujan et al., 2019; Rodella & Corbau, 2020) posited that it is necessary to add public perceptions, needs and preferences relating to environmental quality to any evaluation so as to produce a better-informed and context-based process. As for tourist beaches, a wide-ranging and meaningful information relating to users' perceptions of beach quality are necessary to coastal managers to effectively plan the management of the environment and improve sustainable tourism.

The essence of this paper is to inform the management on the appraisal of the quality of the beaches situated in famous tourist areas. Hence, we examine the behaviours and perceptions of beach users regarding beach quality. More precisely, this study seeks to examine the demographic variables or determinants which influence the perceptions of beach users with a view to providing meaningful information to seaside executives.

BACKGROUND ON BEACH QUALITY

Although several scholars have investigated the perceptions of beach users (Tudor & Williams, 2003; Villares et al., 2006), very few studies focused on the variety and factors that affect beach users. For instance, Williams et al. (1993) examined the socio-demographic factors which influence peoples' choice of beach, and reported that the three significant factors are gender, socioeconomic status and planned length of stay. According to Morgan et al. (1993), individuals of high socioeconomic status have the tendency to place a lower priority on visitor services but are often concerned about shortages of

facilities including dearth of lavatories. Furthermore, Wolch and Zhang (2004) developed a conceptual model that relate the rates of beach use to the characteristics of individuals, geographical access, interactions with coastal environments, coastal knowledge and attitudes towards nature. However, these aspects were not absolutely independent because demographic factors could form environmental attitudes thereby performing an adverse role. The study failed to address the way diverse environmental attitudes or values could influence peoples' choice or preference of beach entertainment.

Although adequate empirical researches on this subject matter have not been conducted, Wolch and Zhang (2004) opined that individuals who have anthropocentric attitudes could make different choices compared to individuals with ecocentric attitudes.

Based on the suggestions of the study, persons who have anthropocentric attitudes could have preferences for consumptive entertainment (e.g. restaurants, deck chairs, etc) and well-equipped beaches. Conversely, persons who have ecocentric attitudes could have preferences for other activities (e.g. walking, snorkelling, biodiversity observation, etc) and unspoiled beaches. Similarly, Tunstall and Penning-Rowell (1998) conducted an empirical study on the meanings and values which individuals attach to experiences at the beach. Evidence from the study revealed that individuals related beaches to the concept of naturalness as well as to their previous personal experiences. There are some other essential studies that dealt with specific problems. For example, Pendleton et al. (2001) investigated the way perceptions of environmental quality and pollution-associated risks were connected to beach visitation. The study concluded that the information provided about a beach in the media had a significant influence on the perceptions of risk. Similarly, Bonaiuto et al. (1996) investigated how local and national identity processes influence the perception and assessment of beach pollution.

The study revealed that individuals who have greater attachment to their towns or nations have the tendency to consider their beaches (local and national) as less polluted. According to the study, these opinions represented the reactions to the physical evaluation enforced by external groups which could threaten the identity of a place. Lastly, the empirical researches conducted by Villares (1999) and Villares et al. (2006) focused on public perceptions or opinions of beach erosion processes.

A FIVE STEPS PROCESS TO ASSESS BEACH QUALITY

According to the methodological protocol, a research program on quality of beach consists of five steps. It is based on the notion that beach perception is a significant aspect of research which cannot be examined distinctly from the characteristics and frequentation of beach. The demarcation of beach sites is necessary to decide which aspect should be incorporated in the study with a view to assisting beach management comprehensively. The degree of beach sites is contingent upon the physical and anthropogenic factors (e.g. extent of urbanisation and beach facilities). Figure 1 shows the five successive areas of the Langkawi Island beach sites from the land to sea. They include the access road to the beach, the parking area, the footpath, crossing the dune, the beach itself, and the bathing and water activation area (Figure 1).

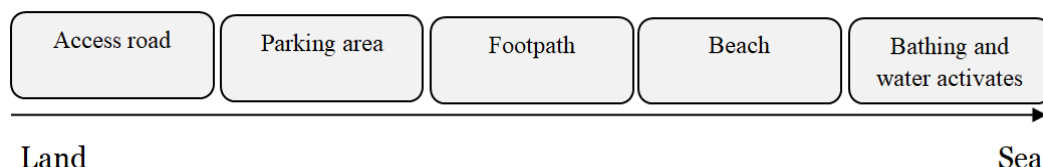


Figure 1. Quality beach routes research programs

TOURIST REVISIT INTENTION (TRI)

An investigation into the revisiting intentions of tourists remains an attractive and different type of tourism in contemporary tourism literature (Lam & Hsu, 2006). There are differences in the choices and requirements for tourists which continues to experience modifications with several outlooks. Basically, one of the fundamental tasks of tourism entrepreneurs is how to obtain meaningful information regarding the comprehensive purchasing actions of tourists and utilize this information to forecast their future intentions to revisit. According to Wang (2004), it is cheaper to attract repeat visitors compared to new visitors. Moreover, it had been asserted that repeat visitors usually spend more money and stay longer compared to first-time visitors (Lehto et al., 2004; Wang, 2004). Therefore, an insight into revisit intention represents an essential issue for destination administrators since repeat visitors could provide greater income and decrease their travel expenses (Park & Yoon, 2009; Li et al., 2010). Basically, behavioural intention is the origin of the notion of revisit intention.

Thus, a behavioural intention denotes an intention for preparing to perform a particular behaviour (Oliver, 2014). Individuals have greater likelihood of executing a specific behaviour whenever they possess greater or powerful intention to perform the behaviour (Sparks et al., 2002). As for the tourism and entertainment dimensions, this implies a repurchase of a tourism service, leisure service, or a revisit to a destination or visitor attraction (Akama & Kieti, 2003). A large number of studies have revealed a significant connection among tourist satisfaction, revisit intention and positive recommendation (Som & Badarneh, 2011). From the exploration perspective, Kandampully and Suhartanto (2000) reported that the two vital factors that influenced the behavioural intention of visitors include destination image and satisfaction.

Some empirical studies have also showed that motivation and satisfaction are fundamental factors that influenced behavioural intention (Van et al., 2013). The study also indicated that travel motivation such as family togetherness, relaxation, fun and safety have positive effects on revisit intention. In the competitive market of tourism destinations, revisit intention was considered as a crucial research subject. Despite the large amount of empirical studies on repeat visitors, it remains unclear the factors that enhance individuals repeat visitations as well as the type of characteristics that encourage repeat visitors (Assaker et al., 2011). Essentially, a behavioural intention signifies an intention of considering conducting a particular behaviour (Williams & Hall, 2000).

From the perspective of consumption process, tourists' behaviour could be categorized into three distinct stages namely pre-visitation, during visitation, and post visitation (Rayan, 2002; William & Buswell, 2003). Moreover, Chen and Tsai (2007) opined that tourists' behaviours encompass a choice of place to visit, following assessments, and future behavioural intentions. Thus, the subsequent assessments consist of the journey experiences or significant value and the general satisfaction of the visitors. Whereas the future behavioural intentions denote the view of the visitor regarding the likelihood to revisit the same destination as well as the motivation to recommend it to other visitors.

SERVICE QUALITY (SQ)

As a kind of view, service quality is evaluated by customers according to their knowledge of service delivery process which assesses their desires for the services they gained by this appraisal (Gronroos, 1984). Based on this distinction, service quality is contingent upon two features namely expected and perceived services. According to Gronroos (1984), previous experiences regarding a particular service could influence the requirement of the customer, whereas perceived services begin from the perception of the customer about the services. Practically, service quality represents a kind of perception

which is related to the satisfaction of the customer. Nonetheless, it is not identical and generates via customer expectation in assessment of the operation of an organisation (Parasuraman, 1988). Table 1 presents the total quality management dimensions in nongovernmental sectors in line with quality professionals as follow:

Table 1. Total quality management dimensions (Source: Azizzadeh, 2013)

Latent variable	Sources
Tangibles, reliability-responsiveness, credibility, empathy and commitment	Parasuraman (1998)
Quick delivery, accuracy, aesthetic, informing, appropriate behaviour-legitimacy easiness	David Garvin (1993)
Humbleness, responsiveness-completeness, clarity, accuracy-carefulness cleanliness	Keith smith (1993)
Tangibles, validity and reliability-sensitivity-personnel knowledge and ability humbleness	Zeithaml (1996)
Speed-courtesy-easiness and cleanliness-friendly interaction	Jayson (1998)
Availability-quick and smoother interaction-communication retention communication quality-solidarity and honesty	Peter Sengh (1998)
Services accuracy and completeness guarantee, empathy and cooperation-services permanent responsiveness	Murray and Atkinson (1998)

According to Parasuraman et al. (2002), the five dimensions of service quality (such as tangible, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy) have high correlation with service performance. For instance, tangible comprises the physical facilities, equipment, and personal appearance, while reliability implies the ability of service employee to accomplish the service as promised. Besides, responsiveness signifies the desire of an employee to support and deliver prompt service, while assurance shows the ability, courtesy and knowledge of an employee to inspire trust. Finally, empathy indicates the quantity of caring and individualised attention which a firm offers to its customers. Although service quality comprises five dimensions such as tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy, customer appraisal of service quality often does not utterly depend on the characteristics of the service. Hence, it is necessary to also consider other dimensions such as the customer's emotions or memory (Jiang & Wang, 2006). Therefore, it could be inferred that service quality is determined by the customers based on the pleasure they obtain from a specific service (Malik, 2012).

Table 2. Definitions of dimensions of SERVQUAL model (Source: adopted by Lim et al.,1999)

Dimension	Definition
Tangibles	Physical facilities, equipment, the external appearance of the store and appearance of personnel.
Reliability	Company's potential for performing the promised service dependably and accurately.
Responsiveness	Company's willingness to help customers and provide prompt service.
Assurance	Employees' knowledge and courtesy levels and their ability to inspire trust and confidence. This dimension also includes competence, courtesy, credibility, and security.
Empathy	Caring and personalised attention that the firm provides to its customers. This dimension also includes access, communication and understanding the customer.

Empirical literature has shown that pleasure, reliability and perceptions concerning the speed of delivery influence service quality perceptions (Shamdasani et al.

, 2008). Basically, SERVQUAL model is the most renowned and utilized model among the models used to measure service quality in diverse industries. The SERVQUAL model proposed by Parasuraman et al. (1988) entails fivedimensions of measuring

perceived service quality such as tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy (Parasuraman et al., 1988; Zeithaml et al., 1990) (Table 2).

TANGIBLE (IV₁)

According to Parasuraman et al. (1985), tangibility refers to the visual attraction of employees, physical facilities, equipment as well as written materials. As for their study on the private sector, Ananth et al. (2011) described tangibility as the possession of contemporary physical facility, equipment, properly dressed employees and creatively attractive elements. Therefore, this current study considers the definition of tangible in line with Ananth et al. (2011).

H₁: Tangible has a positive influence on tourist revisit intention (TRI).

RELIABILITY (IV₂)

Reliability comprises accurate order fulfilment, records, quote, billing, computation of commissions as well as keeping services' promise. Basically, reliability encompasses dealing with service problems, accomplishing the right services at the first time, offering services at the appropriate or promised time as well as keeping flawless records. Parasuraman et al. (1988) posited that reliability represents the most essential element in conventional service. In the retail market, reliability denotes the period plans and exactness of service which employees utilize when handling visitor issues and accomplishing their promises to a tourist (He & Li, 2011). It could have a significant effect on the perception of service quality by the customers. A previous research showed that reliability represents one of the fundamental characteristics upon which the service quality's expectations of the customers are formed (Dabholkar, 1996). Besides, reliability comprises accurate order fulfilment, records, quotes, billing, computation of commissions as well as keeping services' promise (Yang et al., 2004).

H₂: Reliability has a positive influence on tourist revisit intention (TRI).

ASSURANCE (IV₃)

According to Parasuraman et al. (1985), assurance refers to the employees' knowledge, courtesy and capability to stimulate trust and confidence. In the service sector however, Sadek et al. (2010) described assurance as the existence of courteous and friendly staff, knowledgeable and experienced team of service provider, ease of access and interior comfort. This present study considers assurance as a vital element of inspiring the revisit intentions of international tourists.

H₃: Assurance has a positive influence on tourist revisit intention (TRI).

EMPATHY (IV₄)

In the context of service quality, empathy is concerned with the way business cares for and offers individualised attention to their customers with a view to creating the feeling of highly specific and valued customers (Delgado & Ballester, 2004). Moreover, Parasuraman et al. (1985) described empathy as the care and specific interest which a firm offers to its customers. It entails giving individual attention to customers and employees who understand the desires of their clients and convenience of business hours. In their study on private sector, Ananth et al. (2011) described empathy as the provision of distinct attention, suitable operational hours, offering individual attention as well as ideal attention in the heart based on the realization that the customers have individualized desires.

H₄: Empathy has a positive influence on tourist revisit intention (TRI).

RESPONSIVENESS (IV5)

Parasuraman et al. (1985) opined that responsiveness denotes the service provider's disposition or readiness to deliver service. It encompasses the appropriateness of services, understanding the international tourists' needs and desires, suitable hours of operations, specific individual attention, as well as giving prompt attention to handling problems and safety of the customers in their transactions (Kumar et al., 2009).

H₅: Responsiveness has a positive influence on tourist revisit intention (TRI).

THE CONCEPTUAL RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Figure 2 illustrates the proposed conceptual framework that was developed for this study. It employs this framework to determine the direct relationships between the independent variables (service quality dimensions such as tangible, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy) and the dependent variables (tourist revisit intention) as shown in Figure 1. We developed the research hypotheses of this study based on the conceptual research framework. The conceptual model comprises five key hypotheses which are to be tested with Smart-PLS analysis.

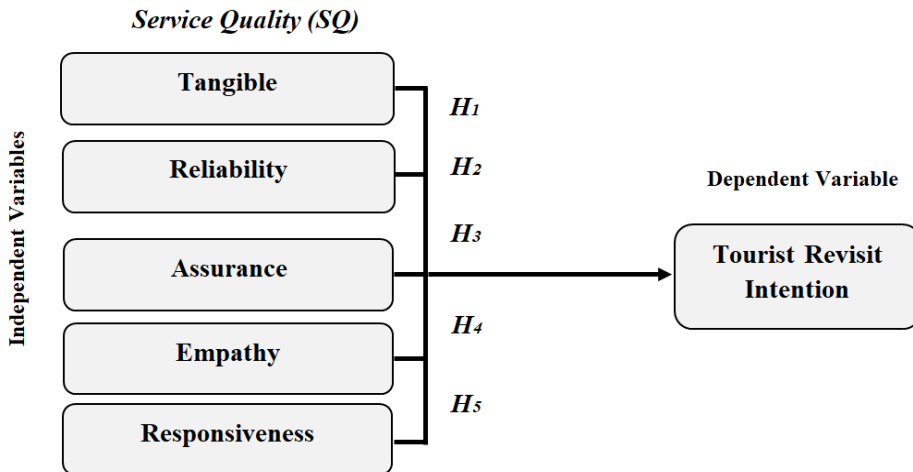


Figure 2. Conceptual Research framework with Hypothesized Relationships

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Data collection procedure and sample

This study employs a methodology that obtained information on tourist revisit intention by conducting a survey on a small sample drawn from the population of international tourists in Langkawi Island. The questionnaire used to obtain information from the respondents contained questions that were adapted from a past research.

It assesses service quality by focusing on the five dimensions of the "SERVQUAL" instrument with questions focused on each dimension. Therefore, the survey questionnaire was designed to focus on the considerations of the respondents (international tourists) on service quality. The questionnaires were designed for the specific respondents of the study who are the international tourists that visited Langkawi during the period of data collection. From the data collected from the international tourists, the responses of 185 respondents regarding the link between service quality perception and tourist revisit intentions were useable.

These responses covered five dimensions of service quality such as tangible, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy as well as the dependent variables (tourist revisit intention). The study employed random sampling and distributed about 220 questionnaires. However, only 195 questionnaires were returned, and out of which 185 questionnaires were used for data analysis. This study conducted Harman's single factor test to ascertain the absence of Common Method Bias in the questionnaire survey. It revealed that the first factor accounted for 21.224 of variance, and this value is lower than the threshold value of 50% of total variance explained.

From the 34 possible linear combinations, it was found that only 10 combinations were taken from the principal component analysis that fulfil the requirement on ten values which should be greater than one. Thus, the Eigenvalue should be greater than one so as to have a lower residual variance since the Eigenvalue ratio represents the ratio of explainable to unexplainable variation. Based on this process, it showed that 83.269% of the entire variation was explained by the ten factors, and this value is greater than the 50% the threshold proposed by Podsakoff et al. (2003).

The statistics reported in Table 3 indicate that most of the respondents 125 (67.57%) were first-time visitors to Langkawi Island, 56 (30.27%) were second time, whereas very few 4 (2.16%) were 3 to 5-time visitors. Hence, the main targets of this study should be first-time visitors. The educational levels of the respondents revealed that 64 (34.59%) of them had a bachelor's degree, 46 (24.86%) of them possessed a diploma, 32 (17.30%) of them had high school, and 31 (16.76%) of them had a master's degree. The marital status of the respondents showed that 101 (54.59%) of them were married, while 84 (45.41%) of them were single. Regarding their preferences, 54 (29.19%) of the respondents had preferences for water sports as the most enjoyable activities, whereas 32 (17.30%) of them preferred a view and fresh air. As for the kind of accommodation, most of the respondents 120 (64.86%) stayed in a hotel, and 33 (17.84%) of them stayed in a guest house. Most of the international tourists 105 (56.76%) of them stayed for a maximum length of 1-2 days, 68 (36.76%) of them stayed for 3-7 days, very few respondents stayed for between 8-14 days. The age of the respondents showed that 40 (21.62%) of them were more than 45 years old, 36 (19.46%) of them were between 31 to 35 years old, and 34 (18.38%) of them were between 21 to 25 years old. The gender of the respondents revealed that 95 (51.35%) of them were male whereas 90 (48.65%) of them were female. Regarding the sources of information, 72 (38.92%) of the respondents obtained their information from the internet, while 59 (31.89%) of them obtained their information from the words of mouth of a friend or relative. Finally, 72 (38.92%) of the respondents indicated that they dislike litter. Table 3 presents the demographic profile and the travel patterns of the respondents.

Table 3. Profile of the respondents and travel pattern (n=185)

Variable	Description	Number of Respondents	%
Gender	Male	95	51.35
	Female	90	48.65
Age (Years)	21-25	34	18.38
	26-30	32	17.28
	31-35	36	19.46
	36-40	26	14.05
	41-45	17	9.19
	More than 45	40	21.62
Marital status	Married	101	54.59
	Single	84	45.41

Education	High School	32	17.30
	Diploma	46	24.86
	Bachelor's Degree	64	34.59
	Master's degree	31	16.76
	Ph.D./Doctorate	6	3.24
	Other	6	3.24
Number of visits	First Time	125	67.57
	Second Time	56	30.27
	3-5 Time	4	2.16
Length of stay	1-2 Day	105	56.76
	3-7 Days	68	36.76
	8-14 Days	12	6.49
Type of accommodation	Guest house	33	17.84
	Backpackers	18	9.73
	Hotel	120	64.86
	Lodge	8	4.32
	Homestay	6	3.24
Source of information	Internet	72	38.92
	Map	10	5.41
	Friend/Relative words of month	59	31.89
	National government tourist official	4	2.16
	Magazine/Travel Guidebook	4	2.16
	Travel Agency	26	14.05
	TV/Radio	4	2.16
How much per day	Expo/ exhibition /Tourist Fair	6	3.24
	Less than 1 hour	48	25.95
	1-4 hours	110	59.46
	4-8 hours	23	12.43
	More than 8 hours	4	2.16
More enjoyable activities	Drink in a Bar	33	17.84
	Water Sports	54	29.19
	Eating or Picnic	2	1.08
	Swimming	4	2.16
	Sunbathing	12	6.49
	Walking	21	11.35
	Sight-Seeing	21	11.35
	View and Fresh Air	32	17.30
	Dine at cafe and restaurant	4	2.16
	Children's Play	2	1.08
Dislike	Litter	72	38.92
	Poor Facilities	58	31.35
	Water Quality	17	9.19
	Sewage	8	4.32
	Noise	22	11.89
	Poor Access	8	4.32

Measurement

The study adapted all the questions' items in the questionnaire from extant literature and altered them to suit the objectives of this present investigation. It used the 5-point Likert-scale for the responses (e.g. 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree). Six questions items relating to the five

dimensions of service quality (tangible, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy) were adapted from Parasuraman (1988), whereas the SERVQUAL instrument was utilized to measure expectations and perceptions of customers relating to a particular service transaction. Four questions items relating to tourist revisit intention were adapted from some previous studies (e.g. Lai et al., 2007; Correia & Pimpão, 2008).

SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The study used VB-SEM with Smart-PLS to analyze the 185 samples, and to test the study's hypotheses. Firstly, it analyzed the convergent validity which comprises a latent variable, question items, main loadings, average variance extracted (AVE), and composite reliability (CR). It was found that the main loading of all items exceeded the 0.5 value recommended by Hair et al. (2009). However, some of the question items such as E1, E4, R1, R2, R6, T1 and T6 were deleted because their main loadings were lower than 0.50. As for the remaining questions items, their main loadings were greater than 0.60, with RI2 having the maximum main loading of 0.892.

The study utilized the average variance extracted (AVE) to evaluate the convergent validity, and all constructs have AVE greater than above 0.5. This implies an acceptable level of convergent validity based on Fornel and Larcker (1981). Moreover, tourist revisit intention has an R-square value of 0.558, and all constructs had composite reliability (CR) greater than 0.80. This is an indication that it satisfied the rule of thumb recommended by Hair et al. (2013), as well as surpassed the 0.7 value suggested by Hair et al. (2009). The results of the measurement model are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Measurement model of PLS (IVs on DV) (n=185)

Latent variable	Question Items	Main Loading	AVE	Composite Reliability
Assurance	A1	0.601	0.529	0.870
	A2	0.765		
	A3	0.742		
	A4	0.701		
	A5	0.680		
	A6	0.851		
Empathy	E2	0.820	0.706	0.906
	E3	0.858		
	E5	0.873		
	E6	0.807		
Reliability	RE3	0.670	0.593	0.813
	RE4	0.848		
	RE5	0.783		
Responsiveness	RES1	0.826	0.651	0.918
	RES2	0.775		
	RES3	0.829		
	RES4	0.798		
	RES5	0.794		
	RES6	0.820		
Tangible	TAN2	0.849	0.559	0.834
	TAN3	0.644		
	TAN4	0.718		
	TAN5	0.764		
Tourist Revisit Intention	RI1	0.838	0.693	0.900
	RI2	0.892		
	RI3	0.780		
	RI4	0.817		

This study tested the discriminant validity. In all the cases, the square root of AVEs were above the off-diagonal components in their related row and column, implying that the required discriminant validity was fulfilled. Generally, the measurement model indicated satisfactory convergent and discriminant validity. Fornel and Larcker (1981) posited that the evaluated discriminant validity for each construct's square root of AVE should be greater than the inter-correlations of the construct with the other constructs in the model. Table 5 illustrates the analyses of the confirmed discriminant validity of all constructs.

Table 5. Discriminant validity of measurement model (n=185)

Variable	Assurance	Empathy	Reliability	Responsiveness	Tangible	Tourist Revisit Intention
Assurance	0.727					
Empathy	0.512	0.840				
Reliability	0.412	0.451	0.770			
Responsiveness	0.643	0.809	0.607	0.807		
Tangible	-0.026	-0.042	0.219	0.102	0.747	
Tourist Revisit Intention	0.467	0.395	0.397	0.588	0.482	0.833

Note: In bold represent the squared root of average variance extracted (AVE) while the other entries represent the correlations

Descriptive statistics of the latent variables

The statistics indicated that the exact mean value of the six latent variables ranges from 3.294 to 3.586, while the standard deviation varies from 0.541 to 0.797 based on a 5-point Likert scale. However, the mean values of all the variables were greater than the midpoint of 2.50. It showed that Tangible had the highest mean value of 3.586, whereas Empathy had the lowest mean value of 3.294. Based on the distribution values reported through the standard deviation it indicated that tourist revisit intention had the highest value of 0.797, whereas Assurance had the lowest value of 0.541. Accordingly, the lowest value of all the six variables varied from 1.50 to 2.33, whereas the highest value varied from 4.00 to 5.00. The descriptive analysis is shown in Table 6.

Table 6. The results of the descriptive analysis

Latent variable	No of items	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Tangible	4	2.25	5.00	3.586	0.656
Reliability	3	2.33	5.00	3.579	0.683
Assurance	6	2.33	4.67	3.452	0.541
Empathy	4	1.75	4.00	3.294	0.611
Responsiveness	6	1.50	4.67	3.347	0.680
Tourist Revisit Intention	4	1.50	5.00	3.572	0.797

Assessment of structural model

The R-square value of tourist revisit intention is 0.558, signifying that service quality perception explained 55.8% of the variance in tourist revisit intention (Figure 3). The study measured the path coefficients of the structural model and applied a bootstrap analysis with 500 resamples to test the structural model in order to determine the significance of the direct effects of path coefficients. It evaluated the significant effects stated by the research model. The results showed that the effects of tangible on tourist revisit intention ($\beta = 0.447$, $t\text{-value}=6.765$, $p < 0.001$), assurance on tourist revisit intention ($\beta = 0.223$, $t\text{-value}=2.129$, $p < 0.05$), responsiveness on tourist revisit intention ($\beta = 0.499$, $t\text{-value}=3.055$, $p < 0.01$) were significant and positive.

Hence, service quality perception had a positive relationship with tourist revisit intention, therefore, H₁, H₃ and H₅ are supported. Table 7 and Figure 4 indicate the relationship and results. Conversely, the results showed that there is no significant relationship between reliability and tourist revisit intention, as well as between empathy and tourist revisit intention. Thus, H₂ and H₄ are rejected.

Table 7. Significance of direct effects- Path coefficients (n=185)

Hypotheses	Path	Beta-value	Sample Mean	Standard Error	t-value	Decision
H ₁	Tangible->Tourist Revisit Intention	0.447	0.456	0.066	6.765***	supported
H ₂	Reliability ->Tourist Revisit Intention	-0.062	-0.039	0.092	0.668	Not supported
H ₃	Assurance ->Tourist Revisit Intention	0.223	0.245	0.105	2.129*	supported
H ₄	Empathy ->Tourist Revisit Intention	-0.076	-0.066	0.117	0.651	not supported
H ₅	Responsiveness ->Tourist Revisit Intention	0.499	0.457	0.163	3.055**	supported

Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

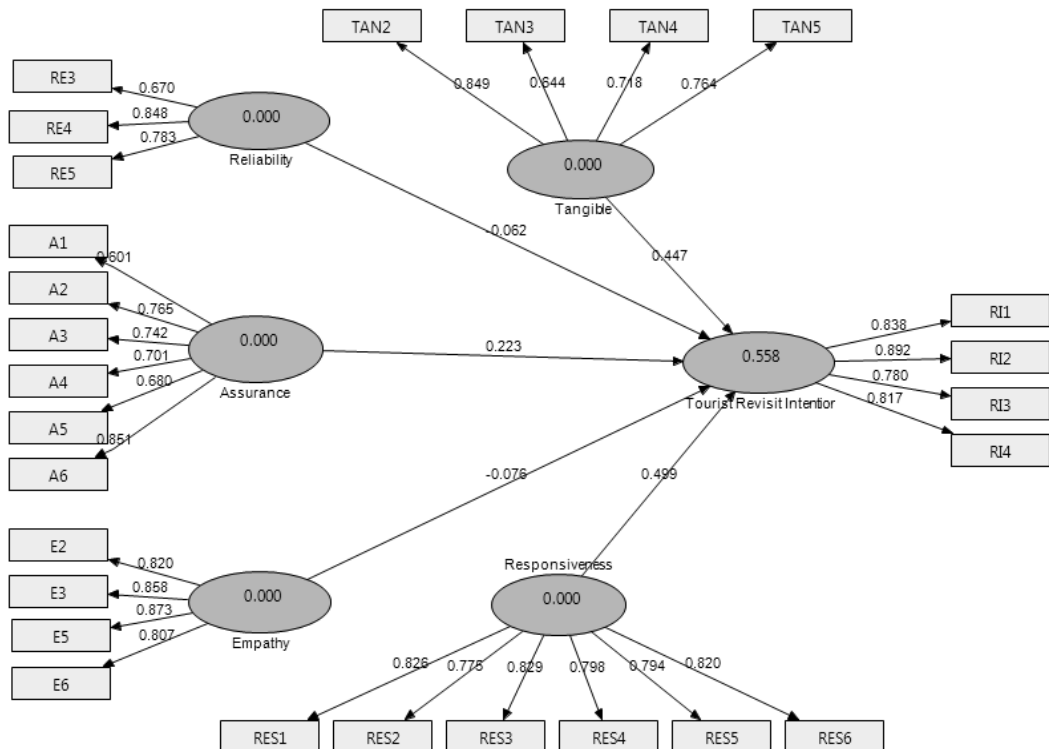


Figure 3. PLS-Path analysis of Beta-value and R-square values (n=185)

DISCUSSION

Public variety shows which differences between social groups could create diverse outdoor entertainment and leisure styles. According to Wolch and Zhang (2004), beach

usage rates differ considerably by age, class, immigrant status, ethnicity, leisure activity choice as well as the distance between home and beach. The study highlighted the particular indicators that relate the profiles and perceptions of beach users. Tunstall and Penning-Rowse (1998) opined that local residents may possess special information regarding the local seaside conditions, currents, tides as well as the sources of pollution. The negative perception of residents regarding environmental aspects could be attributed to their daily life in an area, which makes them to have greater knowledge of the influences during the summertime. Essentially, local people have less tolerance to litter, possibly because of their knowledge of its origins (e.g. invasion by visitors and tourism). The views and specifications of leisure places by beach users should be considered in evaluating and guiding beach management practices. The variability of the awareness and needs of beach users were revealed to be partly related to social demographic factors and should be taken into consideration. More precisely, the results of this research could help in identifying the weaknesses in a management model and create new improvements for beach planning (sustaining or eliminating particular beach uses). Moreover, it could also assist to encourage environment, behaviour and the details perceptions of beach users. These could develop recognition, promotion, enhance information policies as well as improve specific unknown constituents including the natural or cultural values of a beach.

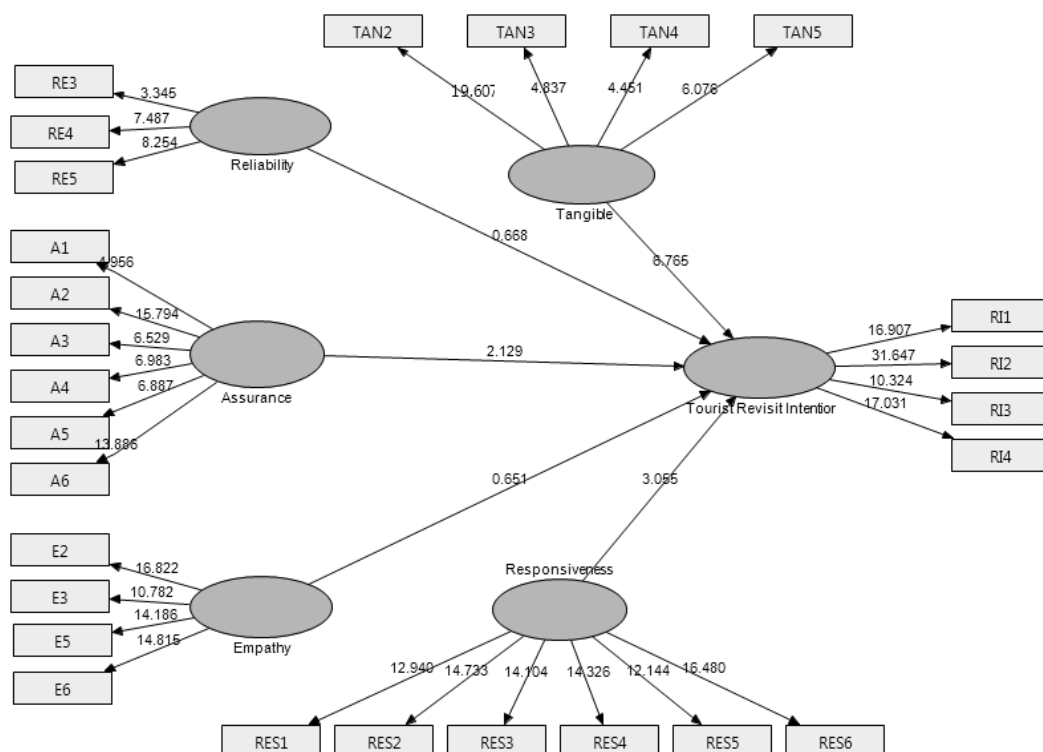


Figure 4. PLS-Path analysis of t-values (n=185)

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

This study is not, nevertheless, free from limitations. One of the limitations is that we only examined service quality perceptions of international tourists' intentions to revisit

beach routes. Further studies should be conducted to investigate service quality perceptions of local residents in this area. Furthermore, this study has been conducted on one destination in Malaysia and this can be considered as another limitation of this study.

More studies in other destinations are needed to get more consistent results and generalize the results of the current study. Besides, the current study was conducted with heterogeneous respondents who were from different countries and cultures. These differences among the respondents make an extreme influence on respondents' responses, group and compare the results obtained. Other work should be assumed to amend the existing model with the inclusion of cultural differences not only among international tourists but between residents and international tourists. Attitudinal differences could take the shape of perceptions of traditions, values, beliefs, as well as religious practices.

CONCLUSIONS

In most of the Mediterranean basin, beaches represent the icons of mass tourism. Hence, the approaches of beach management require substantial effort and accuracy. The scope of beach management practices had expanded in recent years, with several parameters (e.g. public education, safety, water quality, geomorphology and facilities) incorporated into the processes of the evaluation of these practices.

Nonetheless, the models utilized could become homogeneous if the specific features of each beach are neglected, both in terms of natural diversity and social uses. Thus, this current study investigated the perception of service quality by international tourists at Langkawi Island in Malaysia. Evidence from the study showed that assurance, responsiveness and tangible have significant and positive effects on services quality perception, whereas the effects of empathy and reliability were insignificant.

Thus, assurance denotes being safe, and the international tourists indicated that assurance is a vital dimension of the service quality perception. Responsiveness signifies the appropriate response to the needs of the international tourists. This study implied that responsiveness had a positive effect on tourist revisit intention. Some services including infrastructure facilities are necessary since this study suggested that tangibility is significant for delivering quality of service. Reliability is concerned with the accuracy and timeliness of delivering services, but it had insignificant relationship with tourist revisit intention. This study suggested essential perspectives of how to assist service provider to acquire a better understanding of the perception of service quality by international tourists with a view to seeking for ways of improvement.

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URBAN TOURISTIC DEVELOPMENT IN THE COASTAL CITIES: CASE STUDY: AQABA, ALEXANDRIA, ANNABA AND CASABLANCA CITIES

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Abstract: This research aims at clarifying the various opportunities offered by tourist destinations in the Arab cities (Aqaba, Alexandria, Annaba and Casablanca) from four different countries, which allow identifying the various obstacles that can pose challenges through which a comprehensive strategy for the development of urban tourism can be drawn up. The four cities (Aqaba, Alexandria, Annaba and Casablanca) are studied as case studies for this research. The directorates of tourism, traditional industries and some websites are used to obtain statistical data related to the number of tourists visiting urban destinations in the studied cities, which allowed showing paradoxes among them that increase when there is a focus on Arab coastal cities. The analytical descriptive approach was used to diagnose the various opportunities of urban tourism as well as the comparative approach to identify the different paradoxes between the four cities at the levels of urban tourism development achieved. The results revealed the practice of many urban tourism activities in the four cities, which face many challenges related to the industry sector and the consequent emergence of pollution in various forms, in addition to the seasonal tourist market and the spread of chaotic housing. This is considered as an obstacle that prohibits the enhancement of its urban tourism development.

Key words: Touristic destination, urban tourism, opportunities, challenges, Coastal cities

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INTRODUCTION

The economic and social transformations in cities have, during the last years, contributed to the reconstruction of their urban structures, as a response to their tendency to embrace open society, which is in need for more social mobility, recreation

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and cultural activities (Blažević & Nižić, 2015). This has led to new transformations in the uses of various fields in the urban areas (Hayllar et al., 2008), where the cities have started working on creating many aspects of entertainment, recreation and leisure. Whether by exploiting the existing heritage buildings or by finding more modern new areas, matching to what have been found by the information and telecommunication technology revolution (Renau, 2018), which has made the concept of tourism loses its traditional meaning, concentrated on travel for the purpose of discovering other places characterized by their different cultures and customs; or to the purpose of travelling to practice urban tourism in a new concept, that is the "urban tourism" (Griffin & Hayllar, 2009). Although entertainment and leisure are among the most important urban activities in cities, that have become tourist attractions, they are subjected to urban planning in their availability and distribution in a manner that guarantees quality and excellence in the urban environment, and allows the local population participation in consolidating the values of identity and belonging (Yildiz & Akbulut, 2013).

In the context of urban tourism, recreation and entertainment areas emerge as a chain of concert and integrated natural, historical, urban and human attractions, in addition to the facilities, the services and the constructions that might be available and influencing in their intended destination to visit them and stay in them for a period of time (Cave & Jolliffe, 2012). This will increase number of visitors and extend their duration of stay which will have an increase revenue; this is known as urban touristic development, which is concerned with the upgrading and the expanding of touristic services and needs in the framework of a strong competition among the cities touristic destinations, to providing regenerated potentials, to attract tourist, in various ways (Gârbea, 2013), so the cities that could accommodate most of the tourists are large multi-functional entities, that would easily accommodated tourists, where many of the urban facilities and services could be intensively utilized (Jiménez et al., 2017), but little of the city was created specifically for the touristic us. It is worth mentioning that tourism contributes in great economic benefits to cities, especially those cities whose economies rely heavily on tourism. These cities can acquire a large and varied economic base, and can have much benefit from tourism. At the same time, these cities are less dependent on urban tourism (Ashworth, 2011).

Urban tourism has begun to demonstrate a great importance in all aspects and in many cities of the world; urban interventions have led to a shift in the style of life (Nogués-Pedregal, 2019), that were particular to many ancient historical places (Barrera-Fernandez et al., 2016). These areas have become, as well, constituting the most embracing part of implementing urban policies (Wu et al., 2018), and controlling the direction of flow of tourists and thus represents a domain of strategic function of cities (Vles, 2011). We will try, in this regard, to clarify in this research, the tourism destinations, that activate urban touristic development in a number of Arab coastal cities, and the investment in such countries, as one of the traditional touristic opportunities alternatives, and to clarify the paradoxes existing between the current situation in practicing urban tourism and the mechanism of exploiting entertainment and recreation areas, in light of the challenges imposed by the economic and social development policies adopted in each city, and the prospects drawn for urban touristic development.

The cities, especially the large cities, form the most important touristic destinations in the world. They are major links to the system of air transportation to different geographical regions of the world. Therefore, they receive local and international tourists; they attract an increasing number of tourists every year. City tourism, which is also known as urban tourism, is a sort of touristic trips made by tourists to cities or to world populated places for short periods between one day and

three days (Nogués-Pedregal, 2019). According to statistics of the Tourists World Organization, the number of international tourists has risen steadily, and that 100 leading cities in the world witnessed in 2013 the arrival of foreign tourists in a growth ratio reach to 5.4%. The importance of urban tourism is also evident in traffic trends during the holidays. The percentage of beach tourism reached 31% during the past five years. The percentage of touristic journey towards the cities grows also up to 21% over the past five years. This latter percentage is known to vary among the cities of the world, while it is clearly rising in cities with beaches, it is ranging between 38-42% (Bock, 2015). However, on the Continents level, urban tourism is growing rapidly in the economies of developed and developing countries. In 2014, the market share of the city's holidays was 21% in Europe, 17% in North America, 25% in Asia and the Pacific and 22% in Latin America. This creates employments in urban cities (Postma et al., 2017). In order to achieve this outcome, they consume large areas within urban areas to provide entertaining parks, leisure and recreational areas. Since the fifties of last century, urban tourism has given keen interest in the Arab cities, that has been organized to develop their economies, which was appropriate and right in this choice.

It is necessary to envisage a rational urban tourism management ensuring the ability to respond to the expectations of tourists, the image of the city and the normal life of its inhabitants (Al-Saad & Ababneh, 2017). The cities of Aqaba (Jordan), Alexandria (Egypt), Annaba (Algeria) and Casablanca (Morocco) demonstrate an appropriate example illustrating the importance of urban touristic development in coastal cities, that are geographically dispersed in variant urban environments and enjoy potentials and opportunities for diverse urban tourism, coming out from the privacy of their locations, ancestry of history, urban structure, and the exploration of various obstacles and challenges associated with the development of urban tourism in the coastal Arab cities.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Urban tourism is considered as one of the most important forms of tourism on word level, but it has been given a little attention from researchers in both tourism and cities (Ashworth, 2003). Despite its importance, the concept of urban tourism remains inaccurate and somewhat ambiguous. Urban tourism first appeared in 1970, in the United Kingdom, Western Europe, and North America; the aim was to push forward the wheel of urban economy as a result to the economic deterioration of their cities (Murillo et al., 2013). Consequent to the positive results urban tourism caused in many cities of the world, most governments have in recent years, found it necessary to augment at and develop such results, which once again gave rise to researching interest in urban tourism. However, this interest does not reflect the extent of importance tourism already enjoys in other destinations (Estelaji et al., 2012). With the global economic recovery of the 1980s, from which many cities benefited in executing the urban innovating projects, which returned in benefit on those cities.

This is because those projects were areas of interest for the city tourists, which directly encouraged the promotion of urban tourism in them (Van Den Berg et al., 1995), who extensively worked to give concepts to the urban tourism, and to identify opportunities and challenges that tourism may face, that are greatly evident in all Dharmwani works in 2013, who took keen interest in the State of Rajasthan that acquires many tourist components such as customs, traditions, culture, food and traditional clothes that could be a model of tourism in India. However, the State of Rajasthan is facing many challenges, embodied in the undeveloped transport and communications networks, housing problems and absence of urban tourism management partners (Dharmwani, 2013). In Barcelona-Spain, Valls and colleagues dealt in 2013 with

the issue of the significance of planning and management of urban tourism in Barcelona city, that was able within 15 years to achieve an increasing growth in the number of tourists and in the number of touristic nights till it became one of the most visited European cities been visited during challenges related to the competitiveness capability of the city, especially with the lack of spatial balance for distributing of the touristic destinations in the city, adding to that, the fierce competition on these destinations, between the city's residents and the tourists, and the lack of transport and other problems that require adoption of integrated and rational touristic management, in order to enhance touristic destinations and strengthen competitive ability, in order to return back the image and tourist status of Barcelona within the network of European cities (Valls et al., 2013).

It is worth mentioning that the State of Ethiopia has worked on the development of its urban tourism, especially in the capital Addis Abeba. This is reflected in the researches of Kidane-Mariam, who clarified possibilities that the city of Addis Abeba embodied, in the natural and cultural heritage, and the city's high level of urban development. Wherever low touristic services and the lack of qualified human resources hinders the urban tourism in the city. In addition to the study related to Hawassa city, which is very rich in natural and heritage resources, such as the Lake Hawassa, the Gudumalere creation area, the Smuda archeology, the Woldeamanuel, the Loke Palace, the Alamura and Tabor mountains and so on, which are considered touristic attraction areas in Hawassa city. However, these assets were not exploited, except Lake Hawassa, which was attracting large numbers of tourists. So the situation requires placing a rational management for these attractions to increase the number of tourists and to develop the urban tourism in the city (Kidane-Mariam, 2015). In Canada, the city of Montréal is promoted as a cultural and recreational tourist destination in order to develop the urban tourism. This was confirmed by 'Pradel' in his studies and research related to the city in 2015. Montréal was established as the 'city of festivals' that serves both its residents and tourists. So festivals became pillars of the cultural and tourist activity of the city, which contribute significantly to the economy. As a result, the city of Montréal seeks to be the capital of festivals and cultural performances to compete with New York, Boston, Quebec at the activities by involving various actors and decision makers (Pradel, 2015).

In London, urban tourism has been driven by sustainability as exemplified by Maxim in 2016, who considers that sustainability has received little attention in the development of urban tourism by city decision-makers through promotions as well as limited initiatives from sustainable tourism. Therefore, it is necessary to move towards achieving the sustainable urban landscape, especially with the noticeable improvement in the economic climate and the attention to social and environmental issues in London (Maxim, 2016). In addition to that, Bader and colleagues in 2016, were interested in analyzing the challenges and opportunities of urban tourism in Jordan, and many rehabilitated Jordanian cities, in the term of trends and developments, focusing on the city of Amman as a case study, by clarifying the concept of urban tourism and determining the role of urban areas in this type of tourism, as being touristic destinations and entry gates. He also discussed the evaluation of main elements that can attract tourists to urban areas, by providing new opportunities, and overcome difficulties and facing the challenges related to the development of Amman city as a center for urban tourism (Bader et al., 2016). In 2017, Shiji explained the concept of urban tourism and the factors influencing it, its basic elements (basic, secondary and additional), its economic, social and legislative impact, highlighting the status of urban tourism within the urban planning policies in India. In addition to his classification of the Indian touristic cities in 10 main categories according to their population volume and variant of their touristic

potentials from one city to another. Therefore, developing the urban tourism in India is inevitable and it is to be encouraged by decision-makers (Shiji, 2017).

During the same year, Al-Saad and Ababneh, discussed in their two researches, the current status of Arab tourism, relying on the three Arab cities: Amman, Cairo and Dubai, highlighting the different opportunities and potentials of tourism development. Despite the success that Amman, Cairo and Dubai achieved as major destinations, they face some common challenges, and each city as well faces different challenges; which requires facing the significant major challenges, especially those related to seasonality, pollution, congestion, instability, competition and financing, in order to address the various problems in a systematic manner according to the requirements of cultural and urban tourism (Al-Saad & Ababneh, 2017). With the growing of urban tourism significance in sustainable development. Hakeem and Khan in 2018 highlighted the concept of urban tourism, focusing on the characteristics of the urban city, the costs and benefits of urban tourism highlighting the city of Cambridge. They demonstrated that the local awareness and the governmental support strengthen the role of public and private sectors in urban tourism in Cambridge (Hakeem & Khan, 2018). The interest in urban tourism has continued in many studies and researches that have necessitated the marketing of tourist destinations for urban development, as evidenced in the study of Benghadbane and Khreis in 2019 in a comparative study between the cities of Constantine (Algeria) and Amman (Jordan) There are significant differences in the marketing strategy of the tourism product in the cities of Constantine and Amman, accompanied by a sharp variation in the quality of tourism development projects from both cities, which are reflected by the numbers and categories of tourists coming to them (Benghadbane & Khreis, 2019).

METHODOLOGY

The research aims at clarifying the opportunities that the coastal cities have a primordial role in developing urban tourism, through various recreational and entertaining areas of tourism, which allow drawing strategic plans for the development of urban tourism so the studied cities become Centers for urban and coastal tourism in the Arab world. In so, we will rely on the analytical descriptive approach that allows diagnosing the various opportunities available in the coastal cities, as well as the comparative approach to highlight all the differences between the four studied cities, and to show the levels of urban tourism development achieved, according to the different development policies adopted in each city. The researcher relied upon a set of theoretical references from books, research and studies to collect data and information related to the subject of research, to the field of research and to the domain of research, we mean the four cities that represent the case studies, which required the development of some tactical techniques to achieve clear results in the search.

IMPORTANCE OF LOCATION ON THE ROUTES OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM FLOWS

The four studied cities (Aqaba, Alexandria, Annaba and Casablanca) have their strategic geographical locations in the Middle East and North Africa region, qualified them to play important role in the global tourism market. They are large coastal cities overlooking various water surfaces; the city of Aqaba in Jordan overlooks the Red Sea received many tourist and commercial flows, especially from commercial ships and cruise ships (Al-Saad et al., 2018). Alexandria, Egypt which is overlooking the Mediterranean Sea, nearby the Suez Canal is an important touristic destination for tourists crossing the Suez Canal onboard of the international cruise ships (Eldaidamony, 2011).

The city of Annaba is located on the eastern side of the Algerian coast. Its Mediterranean location contributed to the influx of tourists (Cataldo, 1999). Casablanca, Morocco, overlooks the ocean. The Atlantic is open to all European, American, African and Australian directions. It is therefore a city that welcomes tourists in large numbers from different nationalities and from all regions of the world (Berriane, 2002) (Figure 1).

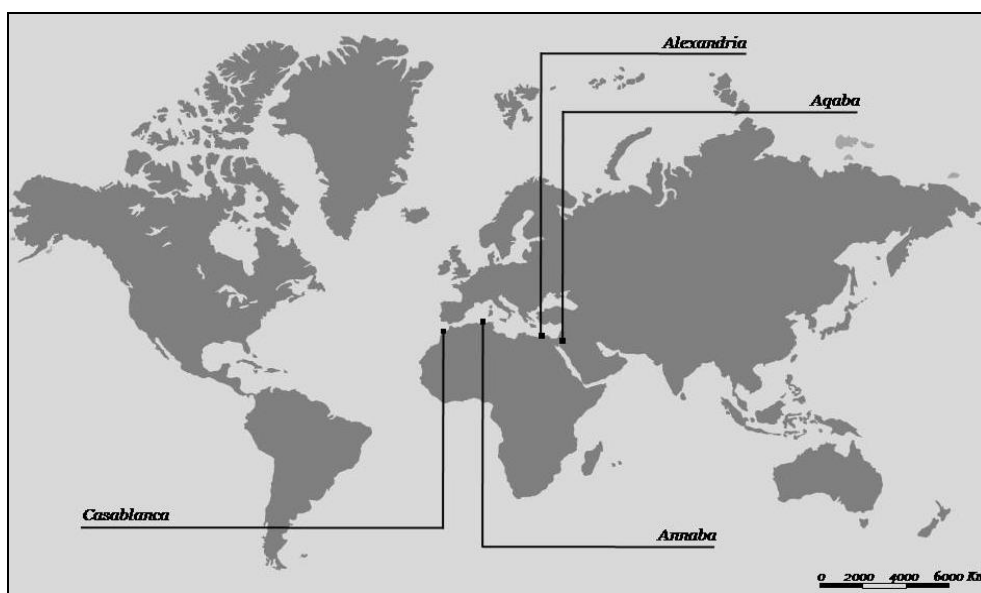


Figure 1. Geographical location of cities (Aqaba, Alexandria, Annaba and Casablanca)
(Source: www.mapsofworld.com, 2018, Personal treatment for researchers, 2020)

Their strategic locations become more important, when we know that, each of these four cities has a double activity seaport (commercial and passengers transportation) as well as an international airport links the city with different destinations around the world. This makes the cities occupy important geographical locations in the international tourism directions, and enjoy touristic destinations required by different tourists of the world. In 2017, the number of international tourists visited to the Middle East and North Africa was about 80 million, it is highest number since 2011. The number of international tourists arriving in the Middle East increased by 5% with a total of 58 million tourists, by an increase of 3 million additional tourists in 2017 compared to 2016, this was due to the development of some touristic destinations and the improvement in their touristic services, especially when both Aqaba and Alexandria cities belong to the Middle East, thus they enjoy a large share of the tourists number. On the other hand, the area of North Africa in which the two cities of Annaba and Casablanca are located have registered growth in the number of international tourists arrivals, amounted to about 13%, with a total of 21 million tourists, with an additional of 3 million tourists in 2017 compared to 2016 (WTO Committee for the Middle East, 2018).

THE POTENTIAL DIVERSITY OF THE COASTAL DESTINATIONS AND THE ASSOCIATED TOURISM ACTIVITIES

The city of Aqaba is located in the far south of Jordan. It is about 330 km away from the capital Amman and 80 km from Petra. It has a population of about 148,398 in

2015 (Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, 2016), making it the fifth largest city in the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. Its strategic position on the Red Sea at the intersection of roads linking Asia, Africa and Europe attracted many civilizations such as Nabateans to use the port of Aqaba for their trade (Khreis, 2016). Aqaba became increasingly important through its port, which played an important role after the establishment of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan in 1946, especially in the transit trade Iraq and northern Saudi Arabia, as well as in the transfer of oil, a pipeline 'Tabline' from Saudi Arabia to the ports of the Mediterranean (Al- Nasarat, 2012). As a result of this site-specificity, the city of Aqaba has gained an important place with in the Jordanian tourist cities as well as its economic importance as the only maritime port linking Jordan to the world via the Red Sea. It is also a center for receiving tourists visiting the various tourist attractions in Aqaba, (Attaallah & Al-Ehewat, 2014) because of its closeness accessibility, the possibility of spending the longest time with the port and the King Hussein International Airport (Amira, 2011). Aqaba embraces many attractions including the Aqaba historical sites such as: Mamluk fortress, established in the sixteenth century by the Mamluk Sultan and the 'Mosque of Sharif bin Hussein bin Ali' that was established in 1975. It is distinguished by wonderful architecture and designs from white stones and by its very high Minaret (Abu Al Haija, 2011). The natural attractions are generally a range of beaches along the coast of Aqaba (Palm Beach, Al-Hafayr Beach, Very-nice Beach, Ghandour Beach) and the diving centers rich with coral reefs (Al-Omari, 2018) (Figure 2).

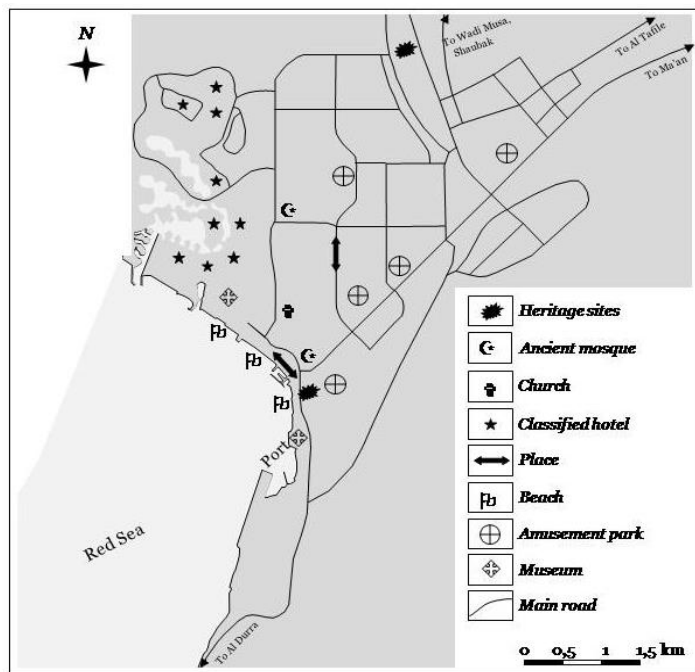


Figure 2. The tourist potential of Aqaba city
(Source: Mathieu A., 2013, Field investigation, 2020)

Being important tourist destination, the city of Aqaba witnessed during the first half of 2018, high increase in the number of tourists arriving to Aqaba which reached about 477,322 tourists compared to 306,588 tourists during the same period of 2017. It is

worth noting that the foreign tourists constitute 54% of the total tourists. The Russian tourists top the foreign tourists in the city of Aqaba, followed by French and Polish tourists, while Saudi Arabia leads the first place for Arab tourists. The hotel occupancy rate during the first half of 2018 reached 51% instead of 49% during the same period of 2017. The number of nights spent by the tourists in Aqaba reached 3.7 nights compared to 3.4 nights (Economic Policy Council, 2018).

The city of Alexandria, on the Mediterranean coast of the Arab Republic of Egypt, is one of the most important destinations for urban tourism (Jansirani & Mangai, 2013). It is the second city of Egypt after Cairo, which spans 183 km to its northwestern direction. It is Egypt's largest port with a population attain the 5,100,000 inhabitants in 2017 (CAPMAS, 2017). The history of the city dates back to more than 5000 years. This has allowed the availability of many tourist areas, such as castles and museums that embody various civilizations: Pharaonic, Greek, Roman and Islamic (Abdelnaby, 2017), represented by the Roman Theater located in the city center, it is one of the most important monuments. The Alexandria Lighthouse and the 'Kayitbay' Citadel, located at the end of Pharos Island in the far west of Alexandria (Darwish, 2018), surrounded by the sea on three sides, giving it an excellent architect view of the Mamluk architecture, the Pillar of the Sowar, it is one of the most famous monuments in Alexandria (Elsorady, 2014). The area of the Muslim cemetery, known as the 'Tombs of the column' and the Koum al-Shakafa archaeological plateau and other monuments that can promote cultural tourism in the city of Alexandria (Aggour, 2017), especially with the presence of about 07 specialized museums: such as the Greco-Roman Museum and the Museum of Royal Jewellery without forgetting the Bibliotheca Alexandrina (UNESCO, 2003). Religious tourism in the city of Alexandria can also be practiced in the presence of the mosque 'Al Morsi Abu Al Abbas', which is one of the most important mosques in the city along with many churches and Jewish shrines. The site of the city of Alexandria is the acquisition of approximately 23 beaches spread along its coast between the Gulf of AbiQar and Agami, and the beaches of: Al-Anfushi, Ibrahimia, Al Maâmora where various marine sports can be practices alongside the Eastern port dedicated to water sports (diving) (Abdel-Salam, 1995).

Despite the fact that Alexandria has multi-tourism potential, it is noted that there has been no increase in the number of hotels in Alexandria which has remained constant in 52 hotels since 1996. This is due to the lack of demand for the establishment of new rooms as occupancy rate of rooms did not exceed 58% (peak point); this was in 2001 due to the official opening of the library of Alexandria. The number of hotel rooms represented 8.7% of the total number of hotel rooms in Egypt. The room occupancy rate ranged between 47-53.6% during 1992-1996 (Ali, 2015), the most famous hotels in Alexandria include: Hilton, Sheraton, Windsor Palace Hotel, Ramada Hotel and Palestine Hotel... (Figure 3). The city has known an increase in the number of tourists coming to it since 1996; their number has increased from 318,000 tourists to 413,000 tourists, while the average tourist duration of stay decreased from 2.2 to 1.8 nights per tourist, the percentage of tourists coming to Alexandria is about 10.6% of the total tourists coming to Egypt, this percentage is distributed among 22% of foreigners, 10% of Arabs and 68% of Egyptians (El Menshawi & Eldaidamony, 2017). Studies indicate that the number of tourists is expected to reach 822,000 tourists in 2017, and room occupancy is expected to reach 55% (Eldaidamony, 2011).

Annaba is the fourth largest city in Algeria (232,533 inhabitants in 2008) (ONS, 2008). It is located on the eastern side of the Algerian coast, within the coral bay, 600 km from Algiers. It is connected by a dense network of national, highways and railways which link it with the rest of the Algerian cities and with the sites of the natural resources

(Boukhadra Mines, El Onk Mountain) (Lucette, 1958), in addition to 'Rabeh Bitat' Airport (Tomas, 1977). The city of Annaba has many recreational and entertainment areas that spread within its urban fabric, there also are many historical sites that coincided with the building of the city during the 13th century B.C till present, through the sequence of many civilizations. It is from the Roman city "Hippone" on the banks of Seybouse valley (Cataldo, 1999), to modern Bouna on the mountain of "Aqabet El Ennab" to the Casaba on Mount 'Abed' to Annaba along the western plain stretching along the coastline from the north of the gulf to its south, which reflect the city's heritage and its long history : it is a suitable area to stimulate cultural tourism, especially with the presence of the museum 'Hippone' next to the site of the Roman city. Within the urban fabric of the city of Annaba, many tourist areas spread where tourists find a space for entertainment, recreation and leisure 'Revolution Square'. The center of the city of Annaba, which is adjacent to the old city "La place d'arme", is located to the east and the seaport to the south (Laouar et al., 2019). To the north and west are residential neighborhoods with a European character that host a variety of commercial activities which constitute the center of Annaba (Bensaâd-Redjel & Labii, 2015). The city embraces ancient mosques, the most important of which are: the 'Abou Merwane' Mosque, the 'El Bey' Mosque, and some corners such as the corner of 'Sidi Brahim Ben El Toumi' and El Zawia 'El Allaweya', as well as 'Saint Augustin' Church which is located in the southern entrance to the city (Derdour, 1982), which allows the practice of religious tourism, as well as beach tourism as there are many beaches from the North to south along Annaba Bay such as 'La Kharoubé' Beach, 'Belvedere', 'Chapui', 'Toche', where various coastal sports and diving sports can be practiced (Marikhi, 2010), as well as mountain tourism in the western part of the city, and many species of birds can be seen (Boumaza, 2011). The practice of this type of tourism is encouraged by the presence of the telepark.

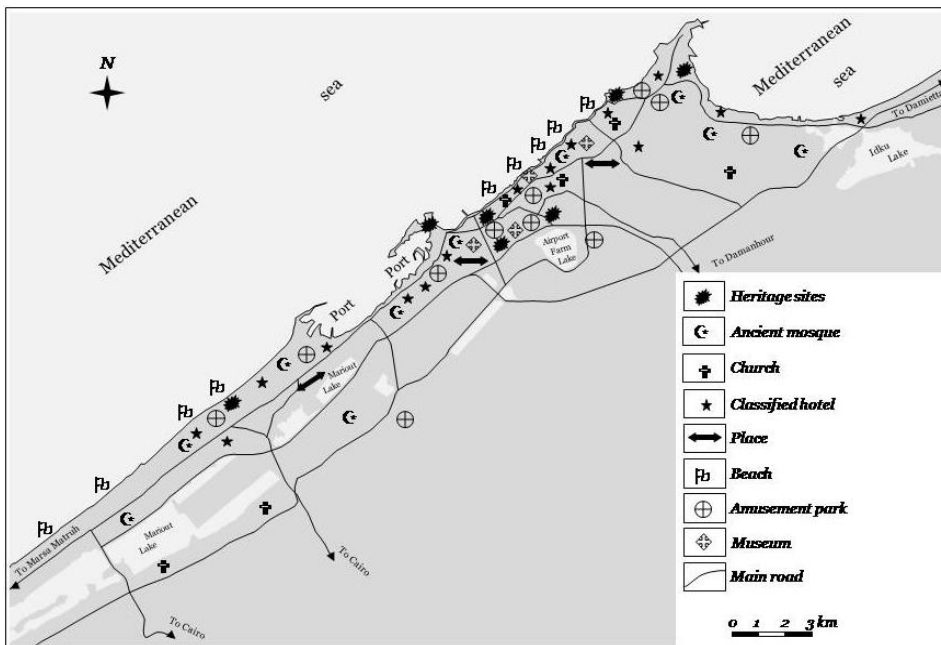


Figure 3. The tourist potential of Alexandria city
(Source: El Menshawi & Eldaidamony, 2017, authors 2020)

Regarding the tourism assets: The city of Annaba has a number of world-class hotels in terms of tourism services provided by a total of 29 hotels with a capacity of 2411 beds, namely: Seybouse International Hotel, Sheraton Annaba Hotel, beautiful Reem Hotel, Sabri Hotel (Directorate of Tourism and Traditional Industries of Annaba wilaya, 2017) A number of high-end tourist restaurants such as Orient, Bamako, Carrafal are restaurants that cater traditional meals and dishes. This is a catalyst for prolonging the stay of tourists in Annaba especially to learn about the traditional crafts and crafts of the city in traditional dress and jewelry, as well as the presence of the brain Roll music festivals (music Malouf) and film (Film festival Mediterranean Bouna) (Figure 4).

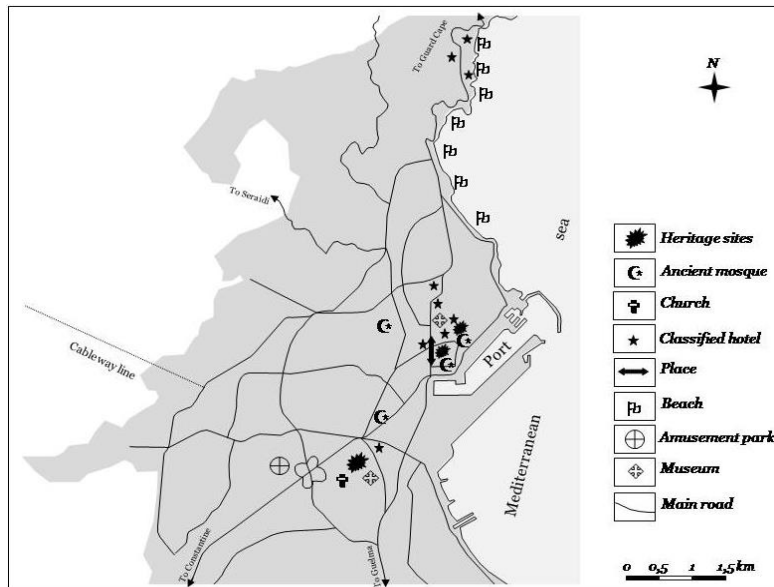


Figure 4. The tourist potential of Annaba city
(Source: URBACO-EDR, 2007, Field investigation, 2020)

The number of tourists who participated in the development of urban tourism in Annaba reached 155,601 tourists in 2016, of whom 18,292 were foreign tourists, or 11.95%, compared to 9.69% (Directorate of Tourism and Traditional Industries of Annaba wilaya, 2016). The city of Casablanca is located in Morocco, overlooking the Atlantic Ocean 95 km south of the capital Rabat, which is the largest city in the country with a population size of 4.270.750 people in 2014 besides it is the third largest city in Africa after Lagos and Cairo (Zerouali Ouariti & Hamri, 2014), Casablanca was known as 'Anfa' (Rhinane et al., 2011). Its small harbor was considered as a commercial station for boats coming from the Chaouia plain to obtain barley and wheat, and then the city developed over the years to become the economic and commercial capital of Morocco (Troin, 2002).

The city of Casablanca is famous for its recreational places for urban tourism, the most important of which is the ancient city adjacent to the port, surrounded by the wall and its gate, which allows the visitor to identify the traditional old houses and the old customs of the city, and see the old door of Marrakech, which is the most important door to the old city of Casablanca and the most important symbols of tourism where there are lined up vendors, and the tower "twin" located in the city center is the most important feature of the city of Casablanca. The two high-rise towers consist of 29 floors, which

include many companies working in the domain of business and attract many tourists from all over the world, especially as they are located near the field (square) 'Mohammed V' (Jabbar & Bouaouinate, 2014), which is an area of meeting and gathering of tourists from all parts of the world to buy souvenirs from the central market and sit in cafes and enjoy the facades of the hotels, in addition, the city is characterized by the presence of the mosque "Hassan II" that is situated near the old city on the coast of the Atlantic Ocean, the largest religious artefact in Morocco and the seventh largest artefact in the world, which highlights the Moroccan architecture (Troin, 2006), in addition to the Church of 'the Sacred Heart', built in 1930 by the French (Boukherouk, 2017).

On the coastline of the Atlantic there many beaches ranging from the 'Hassan II' Mosque to the beacon of the neck. Here it is worthy to mention the 'Ain El-Dhiab' Corniche, which includes many fine restaurants, cafes, and luxury hotels that attract local tourists (Moroccans) and tourists from all over the world day and night (Barthel, 2010) (Figure 5). The city of Casablanca is characterized by its festivals, which attract a growing number of tourists, that reflect openness and preservation such as the Casa Music Festival, the Urban Music Festival, the Theater and Culture Festival and the International Marathon festival. It is also distinguished by the traditional dress (Coftan), Moroccan ornaments, French and Spanish cuisines are also available through which the Mediterranean dishes are presented (Morocco's National Tourism Office, 2010).

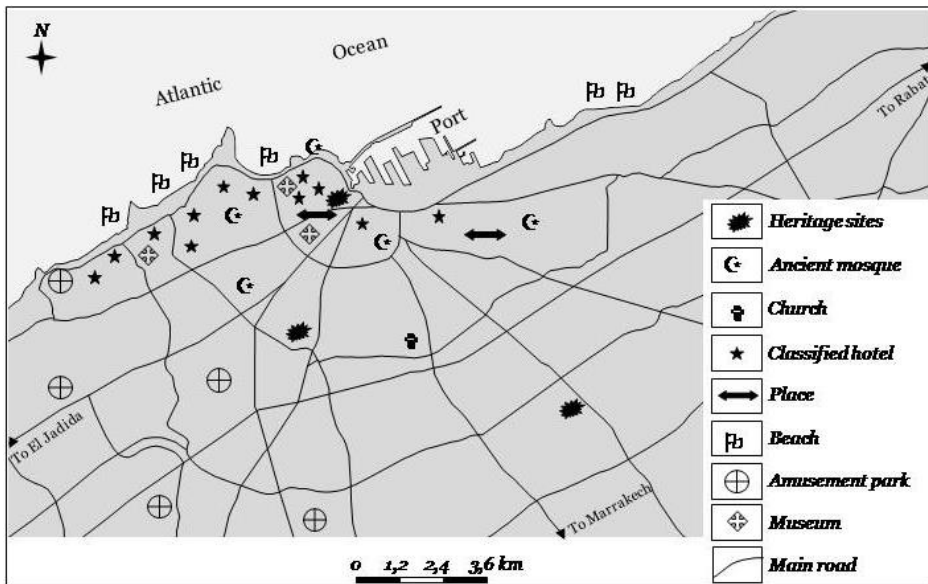


Figure 5. The tourist potential of Casablanca city
(Source: Jabbar & Bouaouinate, 2014, authors 2020)

In 2016 Casablanca was ahead of all Arab Country, it occupied the fourth place in Africa in terms of visiting tourists, for receiving about 961,694 tourists. While Johannesburg, in South Africa, had topped the list with a total of 4.570.000 tourists. The second place was for Cape Town city with about 1.052.000 tourists. Lagos occupied the third place with about 1.004000 tourists. Where, the fifth place was for Cairo that was visited by about 820,959 tourists (Steenbruggen, 2016). However, the city of Casablanca offers, to all tourists arriving into the city, a wide range of touristic services, including the

‘accommodation services. The city’s hotels have about 1,349 rooms distributed over the 22 hotels, which account for 26% of the hotels in Morocco. (Tourism Observatory, 2013). The number of overnight stays in the Casablanca hotels has increased by 11%, reaching to 1,789,901 overnights in 2017 compared with 1.605.407 overnights in 2016.

The German tourists constituted the significant percentage of tourists, with the highest number of nights in hotels by 24%, followed by Italians and Americans by 23% for both, while leading the mainland The ranking of hotels in Casablanca was 39%, followed by American tourists by 33%, with the number of tourist stays in different accommodation in Casablanca not exceeding two days, over the period between 2010 And 2017 (Tourism Observatory, 2018). This is due to the movement of tourists to other Moroccan cities for the purpose of visit and recreation because the two poles of tourism in Morocco are Marrakech and Agadir, which alone accounted for 60% of the total number of overnight stays, both destinations increased by 10-8% respectively, recorded other positive results. The other positive results, especially the cities of Fez (17%), Rabat (10%) and Tangier (10%) (Tourism Observatory, 2018).

Table (01) shows the different places that are practicing urban tourism in the studied Arab Coastal Cities (Aqaba, Alexandria, Annaba and Casablanca).

Table 1. Distribution of Places Practicing Urban Tourism Coastal Cities (Aqaba, Alexandria, Annaba and Casablanca), (Data source: Treatment of Researchers Based on Many Sources, 2020)

Variables Cities	Climate	Beaches	Archaeological Sites	Public Squares	Religious Monuments	Museums
Aqaba	Desert climate, Hot summer, Mild winter	The coastline along 5 km	- City of ‘Aila’ - Aqaba Castle	Spread along the coast	- Mosque of ‘Sharif bin Hussein bin Ali’. - One church.	Numerous and specialized museums
Alexandria	Mediterranean climate with hot dry summer and mild wet winter	Heavy spread of beaches from ‘AbiQar’ to ‘Agami’	- The city of Maria - Lighthouse of Alexandria. - Roman Theater. - kayitbay castle	Many squares inside the city	- ‘Al Morsi Abu Al Abbas’ Mosque - Christian Churches. - Jewish attractions	Specialized Museums
Annaba	Mediterranean climate with hot and dry summers, cold winters and wet	There are 07 beaches from the top of the guard to the mouth of the Seybous valley	- ‘Hippone’ Romanian. - ‘Bouna Hafsia’. - The Casbah.	Revolution Square	- ‘Abou Merwane’ Mosque. - ‘El Bey’ Mosque. - The corner of "Sidi brahim ben Toumi".	Two museums
Casablanca	A mild climate subject to the marine influences in the humidity and wind	The beaches extend along the waterfront of the ‘Ain al- Dhiab’	- The old city "Anfa". - The ancient door of Marrakech. - Twin Tower.	Mohammed V’ Square	- Mosque of ‘Hassan II’. - Church of the ‘Sacred Heart’.	Museums

CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS OF URBAN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN COASTAL CITIES

The four cities comprising the study cases face many challenges in order to achieve urban tourism development, mainly related to the development strategies adopted by each city. Aqaba is the only Jordan’s port to the outside world, and area of economic

exchanges because of the port. It is also a commercial and tourist center, and plays a large role in the city's economy. About half of the workforce of Aqaba works in the Port. They work in the loading and unloading, transport and storage. The construction sector comes in the second, and then followed by the industrial sector in the third place, where the industrial zone was constructed at the south of the port included fertilizers, timber and mining factories port. The services sector, including tourism, restaurants, hotels and trading ranked fourth of the total labor force, while the sector of fishing and agriculture activities declined at present, their importance diminished due to the change occurred to the city economic function (Abu-Ghazalah, 2008). It is worth mentioning that the port of Aqaba witnesses an active movement, it receives more than 2500 vessels annually. The volume of exported and imported goods exceeds 125 million tons per year. The passengers' traffic port is also active. The number of passengers arriving and departing through the port exceeds one million passengers per year (Buda, 2016).

The Aqaba Special Economic Zone Authority (ASEZA) has directed the development of the tourism sector and other economic sectors, especially the heavy industries, within its development strategy by applying the strategy of transforming Aqaba into an internationally recognized tourist destination within a highly competitive regional system, Tabah and Nuweiba (Mathieu, 2013). Many studies have reached that, despite the multiple potentials that qualify the city of Alexandria (Sirry, 2007), there is a decline in tourism development in city, especially with the emergence of resorts and tourist villages on the Red Sea Coast, where the international tourism movement had stopped, and tourism was confined to domestic tourists and to the Arab tourists. This decline in development is due to a number of administrative and financial obstacles. However, one of the future aspirations is the work to restore tourism movement, that was reached during 2010 (Ragheb et al., 2016). Pointing out that Egypt recorded during that year a tourism movement of about 14 million tourists while it has been increasing until 2018, when it achieved 9 million tourists. This was supported by the establishing of an integrated leisure city to be a tourist and leisure center and therapeutic touristic center.

In addition, there is the 'Al-Alamein' project (Hussien, 2017), which is hoped to be a core (center) for a number of other touristic projects. In an attempt to developing Beach Tourism, cultural Tourism and therapeutic tourism in Alexandria, especially with the availability of the natural and human factors and the necessity to exploit such factors, within a strategic plan capable of bringing together all these various factors, in particular the foreign investors (El Menshawy et al., 2011). Annaba city, in order to achieve comprehensive economic development, adopted during the 1970's the industrialization policy, resulted in the settlement of the most important industrial compounds in Annaba city, namely 'El-Hadjar' complex for iron and steel, 'Asmidal' compound for nitrogenous and Phosphate fertilizers, and a heavy spread of industrial units in four industrial zones and even within the city's urban fabric, where all industrial settlement factors (port, railways, highways, international airport, labor, raw materials, water) are available (Benghadbane, 2017).

During the last few years, in order to promote the tourism sector, the tourism development plan for preparing tourism for the horizons of the 2030 has been found. The city of Annaba is one of the tourism excellence poles, which allowed it, as part of a tourism development strategy, to benefit from many tourism programs. Some of them on the city level, these programs assess the potential of tourism development by involving various actors, including enhancing accommodation capacity by more than 2500 new beds, by receiving projects in progress that have reached about 70% renovating, such as the 'Orient' Hotel overlooking the 'Revolution' Square after completion of restoration work, which represents an architectural masterpiece and services geared towards the development of

urban tourism and business tourism. Urban tourism is also reinforced by the reopening of the Hotel 'El-Hoggar' in 'George Ishac' Square after similar renovations and rehabilitation.

In addition to launching of the modernization and rehabilitation program of the hotel 'Seybouse' International, which represents the first urban and modern hotel opened in Annaba in 1975 with a capacity of 518 beds as a 5 star hotel equipped with luxury dining suites and leisure, entertainment spaces, shopping and other business and services in international standards, also in the framework of this strategic program will also start rehabilitating and modernizing the Park 'El Mountazah' in Seraïdi municipality, which was built in 1971 with a capacity of up to 202 beds ; the physical education and rehabilitation center 'Craps' in Seraïdi will be reopened in the next few months. The two tourist expansion areas of Seraïdi and Chetaïbi municipalities were also supported by 18 tourism projects, combining hotels, tourist residences, chalets and programmed tourist vehicles (Directorate of Tourism and Handicrafts of the Wilaya of Annaba, 2017). Annaba, with its numerous qualifications, is steadily moving towards the developing of many activities of promoting tourism, through the emerging of clubs with environmental activities, such as the 'Fly by Parachutes' club and the 'Seraïdi Adventures", which attract many young people from inside and outside the country, to participate in sports entertainment and tourism promotion courses across Mount Edough (URBACO-EDR, 2007).

Regarding to Casablanca city, there are future aspirations to promote touristic development in the city (Berriane, 2002). This can be done through a project to develop the sea port, by transferring a part of it from commercial to touristic activities, funded by the Gulf Investment Fund (Wesal Capital). Also new other developing projects will be initiated in different areas of the city, which include the establishing of a new urban center and the renovating of the traditional old city, and the rehabilitating of the touristic coastline, and promoting the city as a pioneering destination for the cultural tourism, business tourism and maritime voyages (Moroccan National Tourist Office, 2016).

The city also hopes to promote both family tourism and eco-tourism, through the participation of various partners and investors from the UAE, Gulf, Arab and Asian countries, under the slogan 'YougoMorocco 2018', who presented many development options in the framework of Arab cooperation, in order to develop the touristic investment tools and to promote the Moroccan touristic destinations so as to attract the Arab tourists from the Middle East and the Arabian Gulf to develop the sector of tourism in Casablanca city, and from there to all the Moroccan cities (Moroccan National Tourist Office, 2016).

RESEARCH RESULTS

The coastal Arab cities offer important touristic destinations to promote tourism development, which were varied levels in accordance with the development strategy adopted in each city. Therefore, the analysis of the various coastal touristic destinations in the four cities (Aqaba, Alexandria, Annaba and Casablanca) to reach to the following results:

- The four cities occupy strategic geographical locations in the focus of the international tourism, supported by their acquisition of important maritime ports (commercial and tourist activities) and international airports to attract tourists from different regions and nationalities.

- The Arab coastal cities, in their different geographical locations, whether in the Arab East or North Africa, possess much natural, historical and urban potential that represent areas of recreation and entertainment, and allows the practicing of many types of coastal, cultural, religious, therapeutic and urban tourism and promote the development of tourism in those cities.

- The geographical origin of the tourists coming to each Arab coastal city is varied, whereas to Annaba city arrive tourists from Algeria (local) in high ratios compared with foreigners who represent the nationalities of European countries (French, Russian, Italian), while to the city of Alexandria, most of the tourists are local (Egyptians) and some Arab nationalities, while the cities of Aqaba and Casablanca, the majority of tourists are foreign tourists who make up many nationalities.

- Seasonal tourism variably dominates the touristic market of the four studied cities. The seasonality is marked by the absolute dominance of the city of Annaba, which is active in beach tourism during the summer, and to a lesser extent in the city of Alexandria. In the city of Casablanca, seasonality is absent, as the tourism activity continues all the tourist season. This city constitutes a transit to other Moroccan tourist cities (Marrakech, Fez, and Tangier). The city of Aqaba is working to overcome the seasonal phenomenon by setting a strategic plan for tourism development within the framework of the Golden Triangle: Aqaba, Wadi Rum and Petra.

- All the four cities, subject of the study, suffer from the deterioration in their environmental system due to the pollution resulting from industrial settlement, especially the cities of Annaba and Casablanca, which are witnessing the intensification of the industrial units and heavy industry vehicles, where this pollution affected the air, water and soil, as a result of dumping industrial waste and accumulation, whereas the city of Alexandria is less affected by the pollution meanwhile the industrial pollution hit the coastline as well as 'Mariout' Lake. The city of Aqaba has a low pollution rate due to the lack of industrial activity compared to the previous three cities.

- The four mentioned cities are characterized by chaotic housing and slums, due to the intensive industrialization these cities have witnessed, in the framework of their economic and social development strategy, which was more severe in the city of Casablanca, where the slums cover large areas, next to it is the city of Alexandria. Whereas the city of Annaba has been disposed of the pockets of chaotic housing by providing adequate housing, as part of its development strategies, for all residents of the city, while Aqaba is considered almost free of slums.

- The historical and archaeological areas and monuments in the four cities are located within the urban fabric, between the residents' dwellings, which form a barrier in the face of constructing wide roads to enable the tourists reach to, and connect these locations to the rest of the recreation and entertainment locations in these cities.

- The lack of green areas and meeting places, especially in the city of Aqaba, followed by Alexandria, then the city of Casablanca and the city of Annaba.

- The lack of interest in the traditional industries, and the lack of awareness to the necessity of the community's participation in the development of tourism. This seems more evident in Annaba city and to a lesser extent in Alexandria city, but in the cities of Aqaba and Casablanca there are efforts to spread cultural awareness among the local community.

- In all four coastal cities, there is an interest in developing the touristic services, especially in providing reception structures and hotels, that there is constantly increasing, except in the city of Alexandria where the number of hotels has remained constant since the nineties; but what draws the attention is the high cost of accommodation in these hotels which has its impact on the low index duration of stay.

- In each of the four cities, there is a difficulty in the movement of tourists between the touristic destinations, because of their lack of connection to the

transport, which already suffers from congestion and high fare. Therefore, these cities will continue to suffer from the problems of transport and traffic, which constitute the greatest obstacles in attracting tourists.

Table 2 shows the most important characteristics of urban touristic development in the Arab coastal cities: Aqaba, Alexandria, Annaba and Casablanca).

Table 2. Most important characteristics of urban touristic development in the coastal cities (Aqaba, Alexandria, Annaba and Casablanca), (Data source: Researchers Study, 2020)

Variables Cities	Geographic Origin of arriving tourists	Season Degree	Environ. Deterio- -rating Degree	Slums Spread	Infra- structure	Ultra- Struc- ture	Reaching Tourist attrac- tions	Green areas in city	Trans- port	Commu- Nity partici- pation
Aqaba	15% Local 85% Foreign from different countries	Very weak	Weak	Semi total absence	Highly developed	Very Good	Easy	Weak	Good	Encour- aged
Alexandria	80% Local 20% Arab Tourists	High	Average	High	Average	Average	Difficult	Average	Average	Starting Sprea- ding
Annaba	85% Local 15% Foreign Tourists	Very high	Very high	Weak	Average	Good	Average	Average	Average	Semi Total absence
Casablanca	15% Local 85% Foreign Tourists	Weak	Very high	Very high	Developed	Very Good	Easy	Weak	Good	Interested in Partici- pation

RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

In light of the above-mentioned, some recommendations can be included to promote urban tourism development in tourist cities, including:

- The necessity of implementing urban touristic development plan, in the cities subject of this study, each city individually, taking into account the interests of the local population on one hand, and fulfilling the tourists' aspirations in leisure and recreation in the urban touristic destinations.

- Identifying the roles and responsibilities when adopting a rational management of urban tourism, combining the characteristics of touristic destinations and the urban planning.

- The necessity of involving the various actors, especially the urban population, when programming of urban tourism projects.

- Encouraging the traditional crafts and industries, and display them to the tourists in a way that the social and economic benefits may be obtained out of them. This can be by organizing exhibitions, festivals and markets in the touristic cities, which facilitate good relationship between local people and tourists.

- Completing the construction of classified four and five-star hotels in the cities of Annaba and Alexandria in order to ensure providing high-quality touristic services for foreign tourists, to increase their number and increase the number of touristic night-stay.

- Investing in the historical and archaeological buildings, by equipping and preparing them, to provide a distinctive touristic presentation for the old cities and lighting them, especially the city of Annaba, and the recruitment of touristic guides to introduce them, which would encourage the expansion of such touristic investments to all heritage areas.

- Establishing of classified restaurants in the old cities after their maintenance, and offering of traditional cuisine in such restaurants.

- Conducting awareness campaigns to introduce the importance of urban tourism in all studied cities, through giving the classes and lectures by specialists in the field, directing these campaigns to the youth group, in order to clarify the relationship between the city and tourism,

- Developing an efficient and strict traffic plan that may connect and reach to various touristic destinations, taking into account the allocating of corridors and roads between patrols and vehicles.

- Regulating the anarchic trade in a way that would develop traditional crafts and industries.

- Rehabilitating and prequalifying the waterfront of Annaba city to be a touristic destination on the national, Maghreb and Mediterranean levels, suiting their geographical location, appropriate to the presence of the port and Mount Edough, that would give them the distinctive style of the Mediterranean cities and make them future significant touristic destination.

- Developing renewed plans to promote the potentials of urban tourism in each city, in line with the available financial resources, taking into account the requirements of the touristic market at different spatial levels, starting from local (domestic) marketing before the international, taking into account the entity and category to be targeted.

- Spreading the culture of tourism and awareness of tourism among the various doers, especially the residents of Annaba, encouraging them to participate and work within the plan of tourism promotion, as a local community capable of developing the traditional industries (crafts) that directly contribute to touristic development.

- The necessity of overcoming the phenomenon of seasonal tourism, by stimulating, in the studied cities, the practice of all types of tourism (beach, cultural, sports, mountain) so long as they are cities similar in their acquisition to many different touristic potentials.

- Encouraging the sustainable urban tourism, that attempts to achieve urban ecological balance, to ensure the welfare of the population and tourists alike.

- Compelling the industrial establishments in the entire cities subject of the study, to take all precautionary measures in order to limit the pollution phenomenon, especially by initially treating of waste before disposal, and to encircle all industrial areas with a green belt (trees), and furnishing the green spaces in all cities.

- Providing various investment incentives in Annaba city to integrate the private sector as a key partner in the development of urban tourism, especially fees, taxes, and banking facilities... in order to expedite completing of various touristic projects.

- Benefiting from the experience of the city of Aqaba in a rational manner, in the development of the tourist city of Annaba, in line with the particularity of the Algerian tourism market.

- Promoting urban tourism in Alexandria to return the city back to its former tourist status in the Mediterranean basin.

- To continue the touristic development in the two cities of Aqaba and Casablanca, and to encourage the digital tourism in them; and work to upgrade the two cities to international tourist cities, especially as they enjoy important locations in the international touristic movement.

CONCLUSION

This study points out the importance of developing urban tourism in the coastal cities, clearly among the four Arab cities studied: Aqaba, Alexandria, Annaba and Casablanca, despite the convergence recorded in the potential of urban tourism, but there are obvious paradoxes, where coastal tourism dominates as the prominent type of tourism in city of Annaba and cultural tourism in the cities of Alexandria and Casablanca, while most of the types of tourism in the city of Aqaba, and these cities suffer from many obstacles highlighted in the seasonal tourism, and the emergence of pollution as a result of industrial activity that competes with tourism in these cities (Infrastructure, natural resources, labor), as well as the weakness in some tourism services, particularly in the hotel sector, that are required to develop some strategies to remedy this situation so that the urban tourism be promoted through the multitude of touristic projects, the investment opportunities and employment opportunities, based on continuously renewed promotion ways and methods on various internal and international levels, through which the largest number of tourists from specific and targeted categories, is attracted to increase their revenues; supported by a number of incentives, to occupy a distinguished position in the international touristic market which is supported through its geographic location.

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UNDERSTANDING LOCAL COMMUNITY IN MANAGING SUSTAINABLE TOURISM AT BALURAN NATIONAL PARK – INDONESIA

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Abstract: Tourism is one of the most effective solutions to overcome poverty in rural communities. The economic benefits derived from the diversity of livelihoods are a reason for them to preserve their environment – the research gap in this paper aimed at sustainable tourism in the tourism management community group. Design research used to explain how community understanding in sustainable tourism management is descriptive qualitative. The survey was carried out in three villages supporting the Baluran National Park. In total, there were 53 data collected by interview. The analysis shows that sustainable tourism based on reasons for a sense of ownership of the surrounding environment. This knowledge generates the economic benefits they get from providing tourist services. Changes in managerial patterns for the management of Baluran National Park, in the form of service restrictions, provide opportunities for the community to be involved in tourism activities. In this case, support from the government can be a catalyst for tourism development. The result is an improvement in the quality of life of the people.

Key words: sustainable tourism, community, buffer villages, national park

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INTRODUCTION

The focus of the study in this paper is how community groups manage sustainable tourism. Tourism is one of the most effective methods of alleviating poverty (Croes, 2014)

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in traditional community groups in the form of opportunities for the diversity of livelihood sources that are accessible to them (WTO, 2002; Lee, 2011; Lepp, 2007). Tourism developed by communities will indirectly increase the economic level (Lee & Jan, 2019), and has been proven in various developing countries (Lepp, 2007; Dodds et al., 2018). Potential forms of tourism are managed by communities that present the unique local culture of rural communities (Wang et al., 2016; Thomson et al., 2016; Reggers et al., 2016). The concept of sustainable rural tourism began to develop in the buffer zone of Baluran National Park in 2015. This park is part of the Ijen-Baluran National Strategic Area (KSPN). Among the three national parks in the East Java region, Ijen-Baluran KSPN has a higher and more diverse visit pattern than Bromo Tengger Semeru National Park (Purnomo et al., 2019) and Gunung Sewu Pacitan GeoPark.

The development of tourism using community-based concepts will trigger the development of existing facilities in the village, such as roads or parks. The impact of improving the quality of life they feel will build knowledge to preserve their social and physical environment (Brunt & Courtney, 1999). Tourism visits with special cultural interests increase the cultural preservation efforts of communities (Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011; Wearing et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2013; Yachin & Ioannides, 2020). On that basis, community-based tourism has a vital role in improving welfare because of its role in sustainable community development. However, of all the positive things that have presented, there are negative impacts from local community tourism activities, such as rising living costs (Lee & Back, 2006), income distribution inequality (Alam & Paramati, 2016), comfortable wages for workers with low skills (Davidson & Sahli, 2015), deterioration in the quality of the physical and social environment (Bowers, 2016; Torkington et al., 2020), and increasing crime (Lee & Back, 2006). The negative impacts that have described have the potential to damage the quality of the physical or social environment. These conditions will hamper the aspects of tourism sustainability. To achieve tourism sustainability, reducing negative impacts through community efforts or government support is needed (Lee & Jan, 2019; Croes, 2014). This paper will explain how the process of communities in understanding sustainable tourism management.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Most of the conservation literature view community as a small spatial unit, a homogeneous social structure with shared norms and interests (Agrawal & Gibson, 1999; Olsder & Donk, 2006). Although the current literature on tourism development has noted that communities are central to sustainable tourism development, they rarely devote much attention to analyzing community concepts or how communities affect outcomes. Communities are groups of people with a common identity and who may be involved in various aspects related to livelihoods; they also have strong links with the area culturally, socially, economically and spiritually (Scherl & Edwards, 2007).

The community is the main driving force of tourism; this means they can enhance tourism development (Olsder & Donk, 2006). The development of tourism in the community can better explain using two concepts, namely sustainable tourism and sustainable development. The World Tourism Organization defines sustainable tourism as a tour that leads to the management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be filled while maintaining cultural integrity, important ecological processes, biodiversity and life support systems (Shah et al., 2002). Therefore, tourism development can be meaningless if the community does not obtain the socio-economic and environmental benefits. The community is already familiar with the environment used as a tourist location. Historically, they coexisted with the main tourist areas (Bushell & McCool, 2007). Therefore, his involvement in tourism

development cannot ignore because of their important role. Their involvement in tourism development is very important in bridging the gap between governance and the use of resources in a tourist destination (Jamal & Stronza, 2009). Apart from the economic contribution that can obtain from tourism, their involvement can also benefit tourism development because they can create effective environmental management that built on indigenous, local and scientific knowledge, economic development, social empowerment, protection of cultural heritage, the creation of interpretive experiences, and nature-based learning tours and cross-cultural appreciation (Jamal & Stronza, 2009).

The role of the community as a provider of the main components of tourism cannot be separated from their basic knowledge of the surrounding environment, especially in buffer villages around National Park. The main components in tourism include attractions, amenities, and accommodation (Inskeep, 1991). The attraction is a major element in attracting tourists and is the main reason for them to come back again (Vengesayi, 2003). The form can vary, such as nature, culture, routine events, or artificial (Abdulhaji & Yusuf, 2016). There are two conditions so that attractions can hold tourists to spend more time, namely, activities and objects (Soekadijo, 2003). The attraction is the most important element in tourism activity because it is a basic reason for tourists to travel (Purnomo & Listyo, 2016). In addition to attractions, supporting facilities are needed to support and facilitate potential tourists to enjoy all the attractions above. Facilities to go to or at tourist sites are not the main factors that stimulate tourist arrivals, but their absence can prevent tourists from enjoying tourist attractions (Burkart & Medlik, 1974). Own amenities include amenities and accommodations. Amenities are everything in the form of facilities that support the convenience of tourists in carrying out activities in an area/region/tourist attraction while accommodation is a whole component that supports the movement of tourists in the form of transportation modes/routes, types of transportation, roads leading to tourist attractions, and directional signs.

On the one hand, tourism development is believed to be like other industries that contribute to environmental destruction. While on the other hand, with proper planning and management, tourism can improve the environment and be a positive change (Walmsley et al., 1983). Positive changes include improving facilities and infrastructure, while negative changes include disruption to people's lives through noise, pollution, garbage, vandalism and crime. The extent of the change depends on the tourist destination and the nature of the tourism activity occurring, while the pace of development, the size of the tourism industry and the importance of tourism to the local economy are also important elements. Changes that occur due to tourism will have an impact on how people respond in the future, this depends on the nature and importance of tourism locally and the level of community interaction, their economic attitudes and dependence on it, and the character of tourists (Carmichael, 2000). Social and cultural impacts include three spaces in society, namely; tourists, communities, and forms of community relations with tourists (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). However, while considering these impacts, it is important to recognize that communities in the tourism sector do not represent homogeneous groups (Brunt & Courtney, 1999).

To understand community relations in tourism, it is important to note the aspects of how the two meet. Community responses to the impact of tourism formed from social contact between individuals (communities and tourists) from different cultural backgrounds can result in overall positive or negative attitudes, perceptions, and experiences (Tosun, 2002). Therefore the nature of this relationship is a major factor influencing the extent of its impact felt by the communities (Smith, 1989).

Sustainable tourism is mostly dependent on the perception of the surrounding community. This perception was built because they realized that the benefits derived from

tourism (Lee, 2013). However, a positive perception from the community will accelerate the development of tourism. This perception influenced by demographic factors (which include age, sex, education level, and length of stay (Huh & Vogt, 2008; Vargas-Sánchez, et al., 2009), bonds between citizens (Lee et al., 2013), tourism development planning (Choi & Murray, 2010), and local economic conditions (Hunt & Stronza, 2014; Lundberg, 2015; Diedrich & García-Buades, 2009). The study shows how sustainable tourism from the point of view communities; this study focuses on the economic benefits it receives and how social impacts are (Gursoy et al., 2002). Some research results show that environmental impact is also a factor to measure sustainable tourism (Lee et al., 2013; Lundberg, 2015; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2009; Diedrich & García-Buades, 2009). Other indicators that can be used to measure sustainable tourism include politics, social, environment, technology, and culture (Choi & Murray, 2010).

The development of tourism is dynamic. The pattern of development follows five primary stages, namely (1) exploration, (2) community involvement, (3) development, (4) consolidation, and (5) stagnation (Butler, 1980). At the exploration stage tourists come in small numbers and are serviced accidentally by the local community. Then along with the increasing number of visits, it will have an impact on the need for workers to serve tourism. The people involved then begin to feel the economic or social benefits of the tourism activities begin to develop to get more benefits. The next stage is the stability of the tourism management agency. A stage of stagnation generally follows this stage because the patterns of tourists or management that appear are no longer diverse. There are two possibilities after this stage, namely the decline or rejuvenation. The decline occurred due to the reluctance of managers to minimize negative environmental and social impacts. The result is a decrease in environmental and social quality that has an impact on the number of tourist visits. However, rejuvenation occurs if the manager develops from a new perspective by promoting sustainability. Tourists see this as a form of innovation and have an impact on increasing the number of visits.

In the early stages of community-based tourism (from now on referred to as CBT) development, the managerial pattern of the community on its environment will have an impact on its future (Sebastian & Rajagopalan, 2008). Through proper planning, community-based tourism will improve the quality of life of the community, preserve local culture, and maintain biodiversity (Gurung & Seeland, 2008). Improved quality of life derived from economic benefits. Multiple effects of economic benefits will make people aware that the culture or environment they live in can be an alternative source of livelihood. However, if tourism is not well-organized, eating may have a severe impact on the surrounding environment, such as environmental pollution and decreased biodiversity (Teh & Cabanban, 2007). However, if these conditions continue, they will have an impact on the main livelihoods of communities (Lepp, 2007). Communities may tolerate this impact because of the economic benefits it receives (Diedrich & García-Buades, 2009). Therefore there needs to be sustainable tourism management.

To create sustainable tourism, managers need support from related parties such as tourism observers and university researchers to plan better. In developing countries such as Indonesia, relevant parties were mentioned accompanying communities in the form of education to manage their physical and social environment (Rodríguez-Martínez, 2008; Sebastian & Rajagopalan, 2008), especially support from the government is needed to make regulations (Gurung & Seeland, 2008).

METHODS

Design research used to explain how community understanding in sustainable tourism management is descriptive qualitative. The three stages of data collection begin

with a preliminary study to design data collection instruments. The results of the preliminary study used to develop survey instruments to all tour managers in the buffer village of Baluran National Park (Figure 2). At the data collection session, a companion from the local manager helped to interview the subject. From the total of all managers, 53 interview data collected from managers and providers of tourism services between Marc to Sept 2019. This questionnaire was developed from a preliminary study in the form of observation to develop initial instruments. This observation then used to identify the reasons for the construction of a questionnaire distributed to communities and tourists as the second stage of data collection. The next phase consisted of a small number of in-depth interviews with communities. The reason for doing the qualitative stage after quantitative allows respondents to comment on some of the initial findings in the interview and for triangulation, allowing the phenomenon to be seen from more than one source (Decrop, 1999; Davies, 2003). The integration of this data collection method provides several benefits and limitations. The main advantage is being able to observe the behavior of the situational nature (Veal, 1992), and the tourism environment directly rather than merely being inferred or remembered. The observation log was developed to enable general orientation (Moser & Kalton, 1971) and systematically observe various dimensions and settings from expert sources. Data obtained from questionnaires and in-depth interviews were then processed using a single tabulation descriptive analysis. Its function is to see the pattern of existing data and provide coding by the theme and case for natural reduction and presentation of data. The event-structure analysis is used to arrange the sequence of events that make it easier to see the causal relationship (Newman, 2017). This analysis will show the sequence of community involvement in developing tourism and the relationship between elements in it (Figure 1).

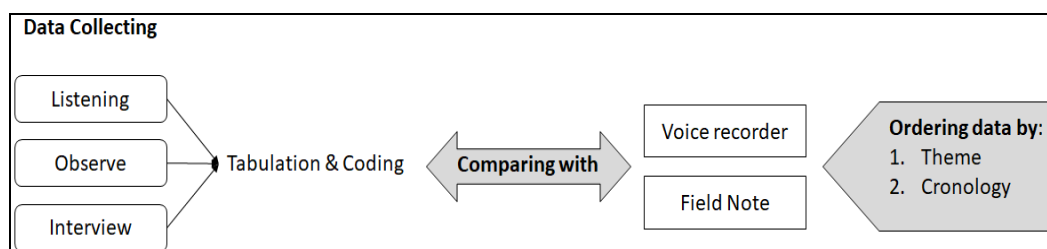


Figure 1. Data Analysis Diagram

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Baluran National Park was inaugurated in 1980 with a focus on the conservation of large mammals such as the Java Bull and Deer. The physiography is composed of materials that are limestone. Therefore, it is possible that the Baluran complex was the platform which then lifted. The Baluran is more like a plateau, which experiences a gentle breakdown which is more a result of the weathering and erosion processes than the folding process (Sastrohadi et al., 2014). To describe the process of communities managing the environment as a tourism destination, data collection aimed at managers from three buffer villages (Figure 2) tourism around Baluran National Park.

The three buffer villages have different characteristics, Sumberanyar - Situbondo is in the westernmost location of the park, the village is developing a tourist service in the form of a halfway house. Wonorejo village - Situbondo is at the eastern end of the park and is developing multicultural thematic tourism services. Then for Bajulmati Village - Banyuwangi to develop supporting tourism services such as restaurants and alternative tourism in the form of Bajulmati reservoirs. The demographic conditions of the

population in the buffer village of Baluran National Park were dominated by the working-age population (26-45 years) (Figure 3). However, with this potential workforce, their ability to provide tourism services is of moderate proficiency. This condition is because they lack training from experts. The skills they get come from direct experience serving guests who come and provide feedback. The services they provide are only lodging services for Baluran National Park visitors.

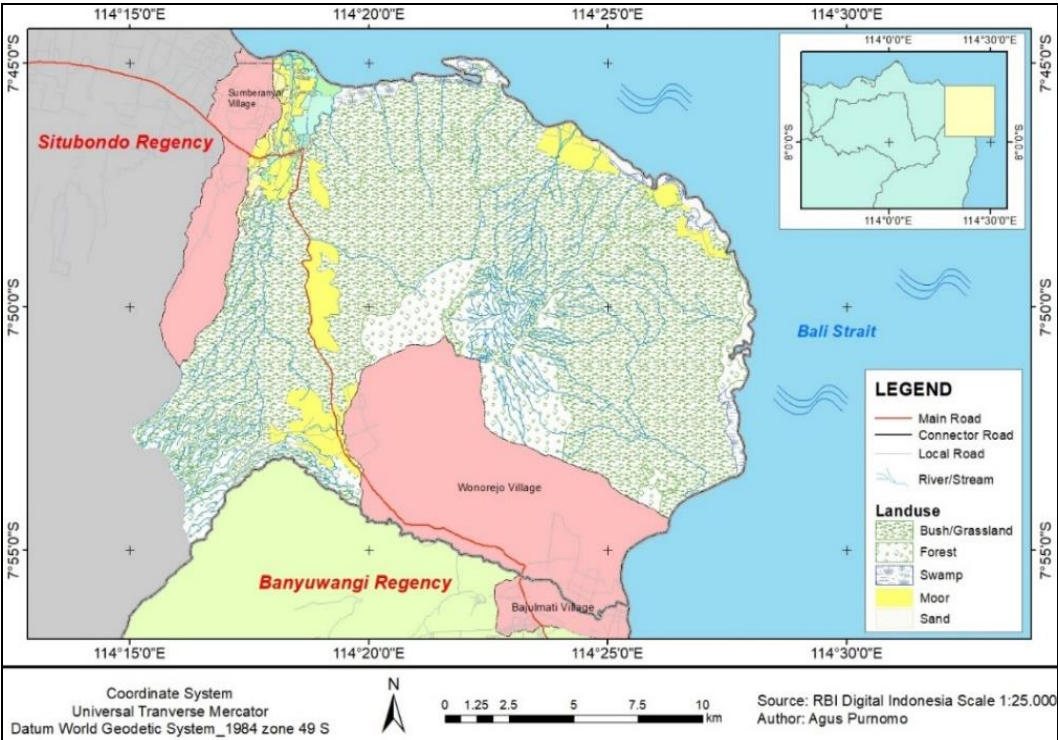


Figure 2. Baluran National Park Buffer Village

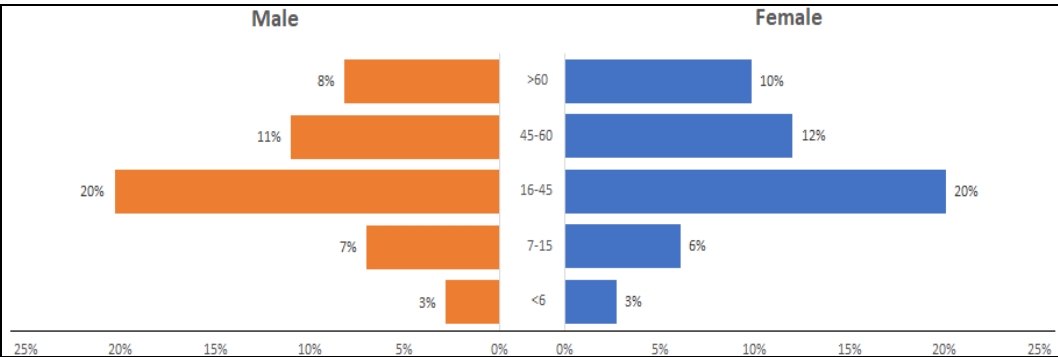


Figure 3. The composition of the population based on the age group of the buffer village of Baluran National Park

Tourist characteristics include four aspects, namely geography, physiography, demographics, and trends. Geographical aspects explain the tourists' origin. Origin of

tourists can describe how the reach of publications or promotions that have been done by the manager or visitor satisfaction and disseminate the information (Arionesei & Ivan, 2014; Brunt, 1997). the majority of tourists visiting the Ijen-Baluran KSPN are dominated by archipelago tourists from around East Java (56%) and others from outside East Java with 5% from foreign countries. For tourists, access is not an obstacle to making visits but can be an obstacle (Abdulahji & Yusuf, 2016). Access to Baluran National Park is on the main route of Java-Bali, but the limitations of the attractions are the majority of the taste and try patterns that are dominated by young visiting groups, families (family trips), and some are doing research (field trips). The main function in the form of a conservation area is limiting tourist attractions/activities (Olsder & Donk, 2006) that can be performed at this location. But the uniqueness of the prairie biome (pasture) is the main attraction.

The origin of tourists can also be one of the basic analysis of the development of attractions. Tourists who come will tend to look for souvenirs or find culinary specialties, or other things that make more time to spend time for his visit (Tang et al., 2009). Increased foreign tourist arrivals from abroad require managers to have foreign language skills in providing services (Agrawal & Gibson, 1999; Purnomo et al., 2018; Salazar, 2012). Residents involved in tourism activities can also take advantage of the presence of foreign tourists if they have foreign language skills. Characteristics of tourists Baluran National Park visitors come with a group pattern (family/friends), which is dominated by unplanned visits. The age distribution of visitors and visit planning, the pattern of tourists who visit is dominated by taste and try tourists, family trips, and young travelers, this means that most of the visitors tend not to plan to return to this tourist location. One reason is because of the limited attractions/activities that tourists can do.

Some tourists expressed that one of the attractions of Baluran is an affordable ticket. Accommodation costs incurred by tourists only focus on the use of vehicle fuel consumption and consumption. The lack of tourism products in the form of souvenirs makes economic turnover to communities still minimal (Stynes & Daniel, 2016; Du et al., 2016). For example, a local product that is around Baluran National Park in the form of processed cow's milk produced in the buffer village (Wonorejo Village, Situbondo), the problem is that they only carry out the compilation of orders. This production pattern makes consumers who come without promises of difficulties in getting the product intended. Based on the pattern of tourist visits to Baluran National Park, there are a total of six characteristics, namely cocoon traveler, family trip, field trip, taste and try, honeymooner, and young traveler (Table 1). Conclusion drawing of these characteristics is based on four aspects, namely geography, physiography, demographics, and trends.

The typology of visitors is one of the basics of tourism development and planning (Sarbaitinil & Pristiwasa, 2018). Managers need to see where tourists are visiting, how their interests are, how to spend money, to the age of tourists who visit. One example is Bali, to facilitate visitors of old age, one of the managers provides senior tourism (Widyarini, 2017) to facilitate them. The reason is that this market segment is the most potential because most of them are retired workers who have money and time, so they tend to spend more time in tourist areas (Tang et al., 2009), this means that more money spent in tourist destinations. From the tourism development stage, the managers are still in the second stage (involvement). They are still working on how to increase the involvement of all elements of society to be involved in tourism activities. This second phase is still running for three years after the first five years (exploration).

The exploration phase began in 2010, after a crisis in the number of wild buffalo in the National Park. This crisis occurred because of a program run by the Natural Resources Conservation and Management Agency (BKSDA East of Java). In 1990, the number of wild buffaloes that were not native animals in Baluran National Park was more

than native animals, namely the Java Bull and Deer. The manager is worried that if this condition continues, it will become an obstacle for the conservation of native animals. Therefore the manager decides the depopulation program by involving communities. Residents taught how to catch wild buffaloes for livestock or sale.

This method is an effective solution for both parties, low-cost management for the National Park to balance the animal population, and economic benefits for the local community in the buffer village. After the proportion of animals is proportional, the manager stops the wild buffalo depopulation program. However, the community's habit of obtaining new livelihoods from catching buffalo is challenging to break. In 2006 the manager issued a warning and threat of punishment for those who catch wild buffalo. Unfortunately, the number of wild buffalo catches does not decrease significantly from year to year. In late 2010 the manager changed the pattern by viewing the community as the second manager. Baluran National Park limits tourism services to visitors inside the park, and to get these services from communities in the buffer village. This policy resulted in the community starting to open halfway houses. In the five years of management, the community explores the potential that exists in their area as additional support and attraction. However, the process was slow because of limited knowledge about tourism management. They only develop it based on feedback obtained from visitors.

Tabel 1. Ijen-Baluran Tourist Typology

Foreign tourists: The majority come from European countries such as Germany and France, as well as from Australia, Malaysia, and Singapore			
No.	Physiographic	Characteristics	Trend
1	Interested in existing forms of culture	Cocoon travelers, Family trip, Field trip	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Online travel booking services• There is a special travel agent• Interest in the natural beauty and culture of the community• There are promotional facilities in the form of magazines, websites, or newspapers and are equipped with reviews of tourist destinations• Demand for tourism needs is increasingly complex and time and experience-oriented
2	Interested in the natural scenery of the prairie	Young travelers, Field trip	
3	Specific and accurate information	Cocoon trevellers	
4	Choose a short trip and move around	Taste and try	
5	Travel in groups	Field study, Family trip, Honeymooners	
6	Love photography	Young travelers	
Local tourists: the majority are students who are studying in the City of Jember or communities around KSPN such as Bondowoso and Banyuwangi, and the rest are from Jakarta, Yogyakarta, Central Java, West Java, and Bali			
No.	Physiographic	Characteristics	Trend
1	Interested in existing forms of culture	Young travelers, Family trip	<ul style="list-style-type: none">•The trip is planned independently•Interest in natural beauty
2	Interested in the natural scenery of the prairie	Young travelers,	
3	Specific and accurate information	Cocoon Travelers	
4	Love photography	Young travelers, Honey Mooners	

The flexibility of community involvement results in consciously continuing to improve the quality of tourist services provided. Guest visits, such as students or village tourism managers also benefit from sharing management information. The results of this activity will be in the form of social exchange (experience and knowledge) in managing tourism (Lee & Jan, 2019). Social exchange is an advanced form of manager

interaction with tourists. This interaction shows that the community accepts tourism as part of their lives (Nunkoo, 2016). This acceptance makes tourism has a positive impact on the economy, social, and environment (Ward & Berno, 2011). Interaction with tourists in the form of feedback will also provide insight into their hopes and needs (Chuang, 2010; Purnomo et al., 2018). Knowledge of the expectations and needs of tourists will have an impact on the ability of managers to improve their services. The need to improve services is based on the expectations of managers getting positive reviews from users (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). The need for this positive review is due to tourism trends shifting to digital information for reference (Browning et al., 2013). Digital tourism trends are a very effective marketing channel for tourism managers with low costs and extensive coverage (Castro et al., 2017; Királová & Pavlíčka, 2015).

This exploration phase lasts until 2015. One of the buffer villages, Wonorejo Situbondo Village, has begun to develop thematic tourism, with the theme *Kebangsaan* Village. The main attraction offered is a harmonious life between religions in one area (Muslim, Christian, and Hindu). This stage indicates that the community has begun to engage in more coordinated tourism activities. They began to set aside the economic benefits they got to improve the quality of their services. However, in reality, the concept of thematic tourism concept is still unable to attract tourists to make it an alternative tourism Baluran Tourism Park (Figure 4). The main attractions are unable to attract tourists. They provide feedback so that managers develop tourism products that involve more visitors — such activities as gardening, or just sorting fish caught by fishermen on Pandean Beach. Preliminary studies show that tourism is an effective way to overcome the problem of poverty (Croes, 2014; Lepp, 2007). However, studies of the stages of tourism development managed by the community and the role of the government are still minimal. Through a study of the stages of tourism development, suggestions for a follow-up to managers will be better understood.

The economic benefits gained by the community are the main trigger for the second phase (community involvement). Tourism produces a variety of livelihoods that can be managed by them (Lepp, 2007; Diedrich & García-Buades, 2009). Management carried out by the community to provide tourism services/products will continue to develop even without the support of the government. Because development can still occur from interactions with tourists when providing tourism services/products, this condition provides an opportunity to exchange knowledge (Uysal et al., 2012).

The pattern of people who are easy to imitate in providing tourism services/products in the first stage (exploration) will have an impact on competition. However, if managed correctly, they will become an active community. The benefit of having a community is the dissemination of benefits obtained from tourism activities. The community also provides a role in strengthening the carrying capacity of the social or physical environment (Lee & Jan, 2019; Wahyuningtyas et al., 2019). The findings show that tourism activities increase the number of communities who are increasingly concerned with the preservation of the social and physical environment. They realize that the environment around their homes is an attraction for tourists (Lee, 2013).

The impact is the profits they get are partly invested in improving environmental quality (Uysal et al., 2012; Huh & Vogt, 2008). Therefore at this stage, managers do not feel significant economic benefits. The economic benefits they get are prioritized for investment in quality improvement, and the aim is to increase the number of tourist visits (Uysal et al., 2012). In the future, an increase in the number of tourist visits will have an impact on managers' efforts to develop more diverse attractions. That stage (community involvement) will build a lot of negative or positive knowledge about the existence of tourism in the vicinity (Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2009). Positive knowledge is limited to how

they benefit economically; meanwhile, negative knowledge formed from people's concerns about health aspects (tourists who carry infectious diseases when they go to their homes), security, or disruption to their personal lives. The role of the government to minimize internal conflicts due to differences in community knowledge is quite vital (Diedrich & García-Buades, 2009). The government has the role of control through policies or increasing the ability of managers to provide tourism services/products. Policies produced to control the negative impacts of tourism activities must base on a study of the carrying capacity of the social or physical environment (Lee & Jan, 2019).

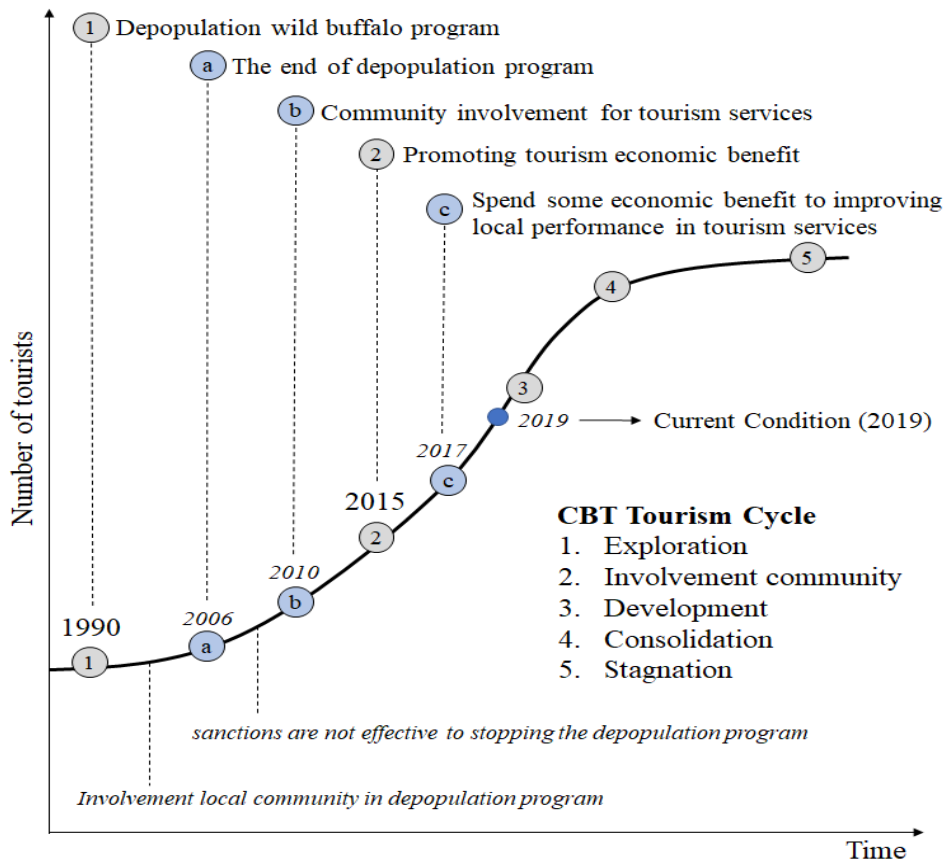


Figure 4. Conditions for the Development of Tourism in the Baluran Village Buffer Village (adapted from Butler, 1980)

Clear division of tourism zones can also minimize the negative impacts of tourism activities. The clarity in the location of settlements and tourism development areas will avoid the negative impression of disturbing people's private lives due to tourism (Diedrich & García-Buades, 2009; Brunt & Courtney, 1999). Zoning is also beneficial to protect the environment from excessive tourism activities (Bowers, 2016). The clarity of tourism zonation also contributes to the sustainability of tourism.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings, the series of stages in developing community-based sustainable tourism focuses on the first two stages. After the exploration phase of tourism

potential, managers must focus on the distribution of economic benefits to the communities involved. The distribution is in the form of developing supporting and educational facilities. The function is that they can independently promote tourism for further development. Education also plays a role in providing tourism services according to standards as well as producing unique tourism products such as crafts. However, because this research is only viewed from the aspect of economic benefits from the community's point of view, it is necessary to review how the local community as a whole.

At this stage, the availability of new employment opportunities for the community will increase their income. The distribution of economic benefits that were partly used for managerial knowledge investment will have an impact on the sustainability of tourism. They will be the frontline in protecting the social and physical environment. Simple forms such as putting up warning signs or directions from local guides will form a more responsible atmosphere. Such knowledge will also help divide tourism zones so that they do not mix with their daily lives. A further benefit is minimizing the conflict that can result from negative public perceptions about tourism.

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SUSTAINABLE MANAGEMENT OF ECOTOURISM IN WESTERN RAJASTHAN, INDIA: A GEOSPATIAL APPROACH

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Abstract : An Ecosystem is a community based of living organisms in conjunction with the non-living components in which people live without affecting their environment and Society. Development of ecotourism is not an isolated approach, so there is need to focus on that. Ecotourism thus implies a visit to an ecosystem for fun and adventure. Ecotourism, in true sense of the term, is not only travelling to such ecosystems but also conserving them and protecting the peculiar ethnicity and culture of the locality and wellbeing of the local inhabitants. In short, it is about uniting conservation, communities and sustainable travel. Ecotourism is the most important way for securing the tourism sector in sustainable way. The reputation of any country is depending on the tourism, education, employment, social values, cultural aspects, infrastructure, safety and security etc. The main objective of writing this paper is (i) Providing positive experiences for both tourists and local people; (ii) Providing sustainable development of the area and generating quality employment for the local people which fulfill their basic necessities; (iii) Respecting environment and cultural peculiarities of the area; (iv) Minimizing negative impact of tourists which ultimately enhance the tourism Industry.

Key words: Ecotourism Management, sustainable development, tourism, employment generation, experiences

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INTRODUCTION

Ecotourism derived from two words “Eco” and “Tourism” in Eco means “*Environment friendly*” and Tourism means “*Travel*” (Jamal & Stronza, 2009). Ecotourism continues to be embraced as the antithesis of mass tourism because of its promise of achieving sustainability through conservation mindedness, community development, education and learning, and the promotion of nature-based activities that

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were sensitive to both ecological and social systems (Fennell, 2015) (Figure 1). Rajasthan has a glorious place in the annals and geography of India the history of the state echoes with tales of chivalry, gallantry and brave deeds for, in their efforts to preserve Indian culture and heritage, the people of Rajasthan resisted all destructive or corruptive invasions from outside (Erlet, 1993). Western Rajasthan occupies significant place on the world map taking into consideration the most favored destinations of the tourist of the whole world. In Rajasthan, tourism is being commercially developed. Tourism here is culture (Kanga et al., 2014). That's why a large number of tourists visit Rajasthan which is most famous in the whole world for the magnificent strongholds atop the hills. Record number of tourists arrived in Rajasthan in the year 2006 (Sharma, 2008).

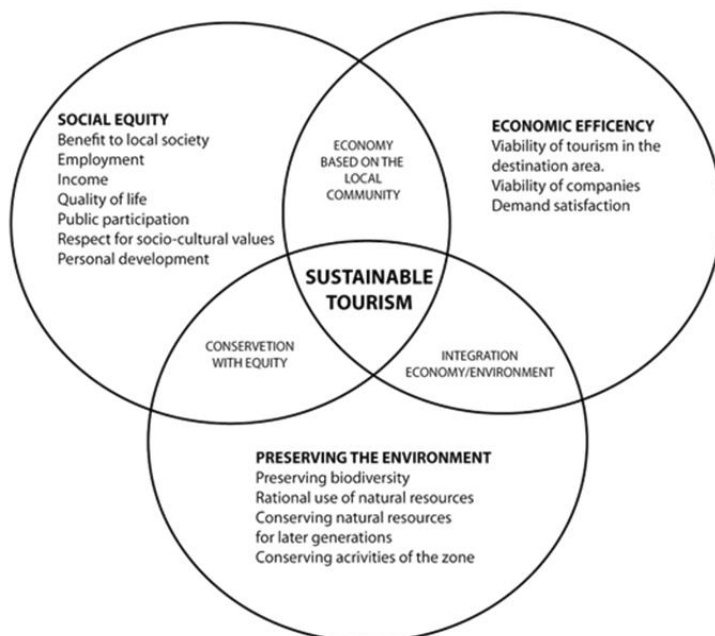


Figure 1. Sustainable Ecotourism Development Model (Source: Dorobantu & Nistoreanu, 2012)

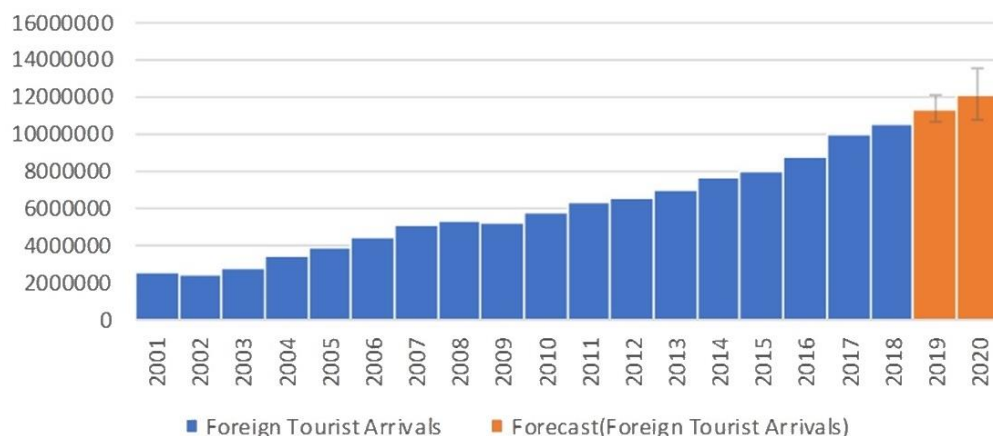


Figure 2. Foreign tourist arrivals year wise visits in India with forecasted data (Source: India Tourism Statistics 2018, Ministry of Tourism, India)

Tourism is a growing industry in India, with people from all over the world traveling there to experience the country's natural beauty and visit its vast array of states and their differing cultures and climates (Chakrabarty & Mandal, 2018). The largest number foreign tourist arrivals are usually seen in December and January during the cooler winter months when temperatures are more bearable (Figure 2). Tourism industry today has turned into a key driver of socio-economic progress (Kanga et al., 2013), through which the creation of jobs, enterprises and infrastructure development globally (Stausberg, 2012). Over the past six decades, tourism has experienced continued expansion and diversification, to become one of the largest and fastest-growing economic sectors in the world (Terzidou et al., 2008). Past years have seen the global Travel & Tourism industry growing at a higher rate than significant sectors such as automotive, financial services and health care (Liu, 2003).

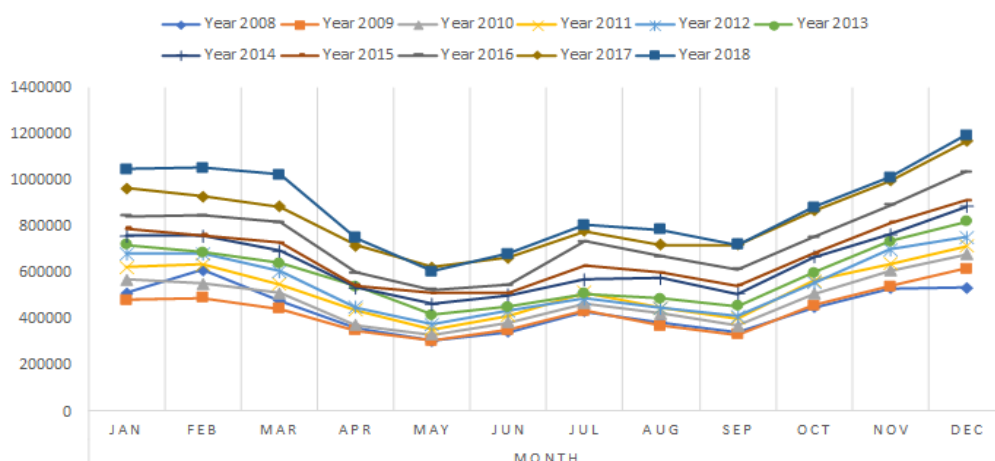


Figure 3. Foreign tourist arrival comparison monthly and year basis
(Source: India Tourism Statistics 2018, Ministry of Tourism, India)

In 2016, India's tourism industry was expected to directly contribute 91.3 billion U.S. dollars to the country's economy, and this value was forecasted to rise to 148.2 billion by 2027. As per (Figure 3), tourism has been one of the biggest revenue generators for the state for a long time (Wearing & Neil, 2009). According to the Ministry of Tourism, Rajasthan accounted for 2.7% of the tourists in the year 2013. Rajasthan accounted for 7.2% of the total international tourist arrivals in India in the same year. Historic palaces, especially those in Jaipur and Udaipur, offer opportunities to expand the luxury ecotourism segment (Singh Chandel & Kanga, 2018). Moreover, tourists visit wild life sanctuaries and desert locations for the exclusive experience they provide. In Rajasthan, tourism accounted for 2.7% (5.2% after adding indirect effects) in Gross State Domestic Product and 1.9% (7.2% after adding indirect effects) in state employment. The industry of tourism is rapidly becoming the leading of economic in the most developing countries (Singh et al., 2017). Many governments pay a lot of money to develop and expand this sector to be a major source for the development of economy in their countries. Furthermore, those governments try to make their tourism places fully marketed and explored.

STUDY AREA

Western Rajasthan is one of the major parts of the Rajasthan in terms of ecotourism. Ecotourism is today's necessities for future generation. Western Rajasthan mainly include Four District Bikaner, Barmer Jaisalmer & Jodhpur (Figure 4). Some facts of four district are as follows:

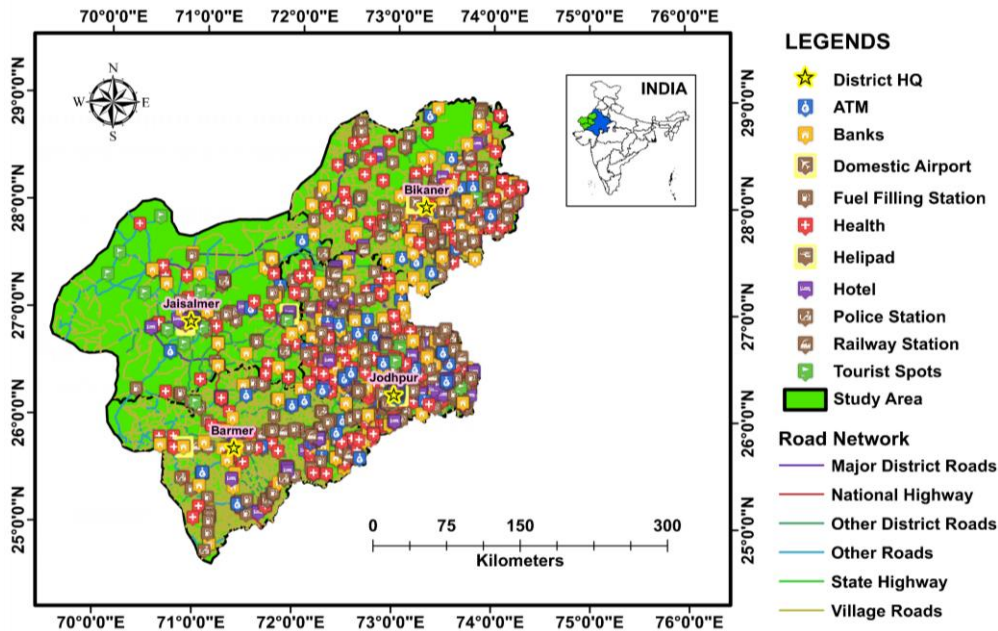


Figure 4. Location Map of Western Rajasthan

Geographical Features

The arid and forbidding Thar Desert lies in north-west Rajasthan and is characterised by shifting sand dunes and high summer temperatures of up to 45° C (Figure 5). Jodhpur lies on the edge of this arid tract and is the link between the desert on the west and the semi-arid but cultivable regions to the East (Sharma & Bisht, 2018). The region receives very little rainfall - 90% of it in the monsoon (July-September) (Figure 6). As per census population of Jodhpur is more than 10 lakhs which is the largest city in the region. It is also the second largest city in the state. Other important cities in the region include Bikaner 6 lakhs, Barmer 96 thousand and Jaisalmer has 65 thousand (Wearing, 2011). The Desert circuit is the largest though the most sparsely populated region in the state. Given the climatic profile of the Desert circuit the tourist season is limited to the winter months and almost the entire tourist traffic comes from October to March.

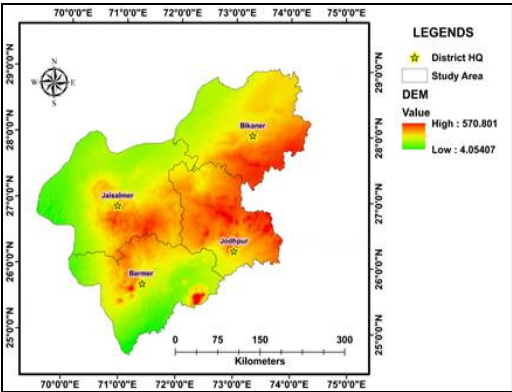


Figure 5. Elevation Map

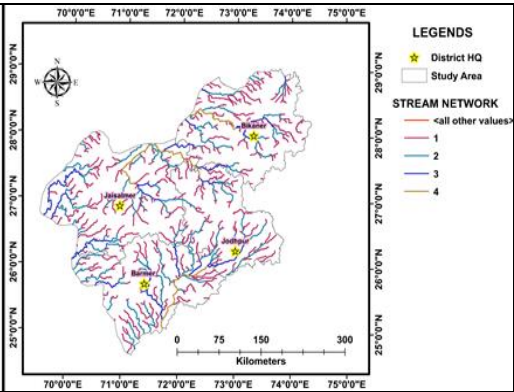


Figure 6. Stream Network Map

Travel Link: Jodhpur Civil Aerodrome (located 4 Kms from the city centre) is the only airport in the Desert region with daily commercial passenger flights operated by Alliance Air, and Jet Airways from Delhi, Mumbai, Jaipur and Udaipur. Commercial air services to the other airport within the region - Jaisalmer have been temporarily discontinued recently given its sensitive position near the forward areas.

A well-developed broad-gauge rail network connects the Desert region to the main cities in the country. There are regular train services between Jodhpur and Bikaner to cities like Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai and Bangalore. Onward connections to Jaisalmer are available ex-Jodhpur. The Desert region is also well connected by roads with NH15 passing through Bikaner, Jaisalmer and Barmer. Jodhpur is connected to all the three places by state highways and district roads.



Figure 7. An Important Tourism Circuit of Western Rajasthan

Major Tourist Spots and Attractions

The major tourist locations and attractions in the Desert circuit (Figure 7). The region has several tourist attractions, though the most popular are in and around Jodhpur, Jaisalmer Bikaner and Barmer. Unlike most other circuits in the state, the Desert circuit does not have one particular 'hub' though Jodhpur is the most popular entry point. Given the large geographical area covered by wide road network (Figure 8), the major cities in the region are hubs for the tourist undertaking local excursions. Some salient observations with respect to the main tourist locations and the type of tourists they attract are as follows:

- **Jodhpur:** Jodhpur, one of the principal cities in the circuit, has the massive 15th century Mehrangarh fort. The city also houses the grand Umaid Bhawan palace (and hotel), the only 20th century palace. Other attractions include the beautiful white marble royal cenotaphs of Jasvant Thada and the ancient capital of Marwar, Mandore with its cenotaphs and gardens. Another emerging destination, around an hour's drive from the city is the Osian village, which houses 15 beautifully sculpted Jain and Brahmanical temples belonging to five different centuries.

▪ **Jaisalmer:** Jaisalmer, the golden city of Rajasthan, is one of the favourite destinations for both domestic and foreign tourists. The main attraction is the Jaisalmer fort, which houses an entire living area within its ramparts and is known for its beautifully carved forts and its ancient Jain temples. Attractions outside the fort, are the intricately carved forts such as the Patwon ki Haveli* and the Salim Singh ki Haveli* and the Gadisar Lake. Other famous attractions ex-Jaisalmer include the Lodurva Jain temples, Sam sand dunes, the Desert National Park and the Khuri village safari. The popular tourism 'products' of the region include the desert village camps, desert safaris and the desert festival.

▪ **Bikaner:** Bikaner lies at the northern most point of the desert circuit, and is famous for its forts, palaces and forts. Places of tourist interest include the Junagarh fort and museum and the Lallgarh palace. Other attractions are the Camel Research Farm and the Bhandeshwar and Sandeshwar temples (visited by the domestic tourists). The popular excursions from this city include the famous Karni Mata temple (at Deshnok), the Gajner Palace and wildlife sanctuary and Shri Kolayat temple.

▪ **Barmer:** A small desert town, Barmer is famous for its carved wooden furniture and hand block printing. It is best visited during the annual fairs held nearby. The places of interest in this region include the ruins of Juna Barmer and the Kiradu temples. Other places in the district like Khed and Jasol are also known for their temple architecture.

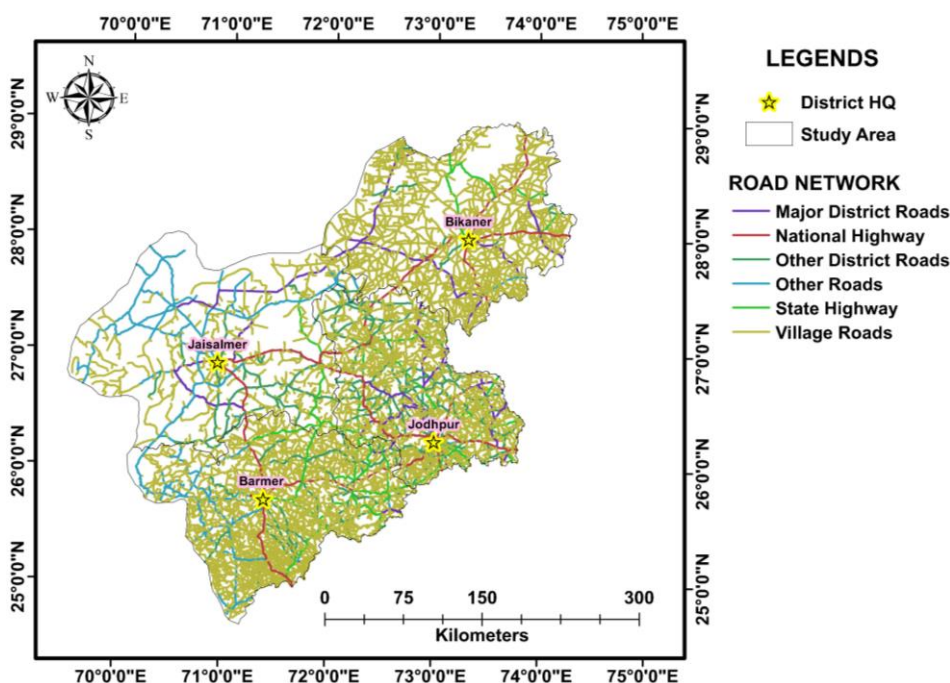


Figure 8. Road Network Map of Western Rajasthan

Objectives of the study

The main objectives of writing this paper are: (i) Providing positive experiences for both tourists and local people; (ii) Providing sustainable development of the area and generating quality employment for the local people which fulfill their basic necessities; (iii) Respecting environment and cultural peculiarities of the area; (iv) Minimizing negative impact of tourists which ultimately enhance the tourism Industry.

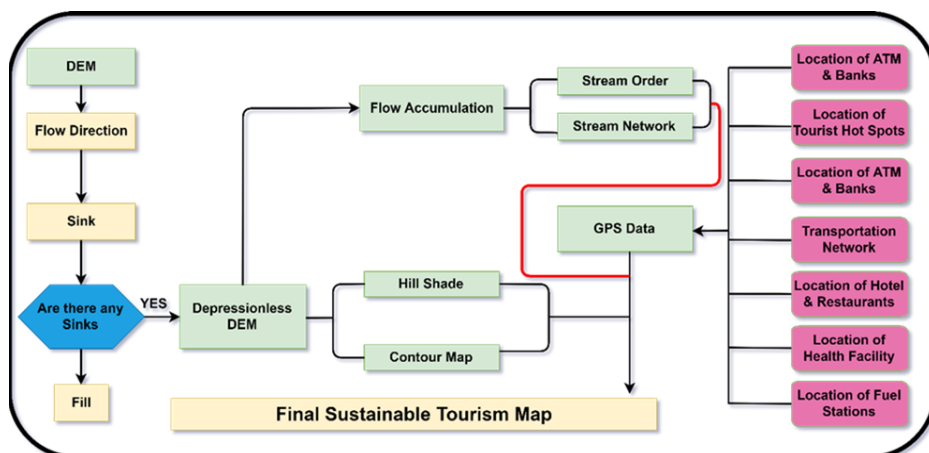


Figure 9. Methodology Adopted

Database and Methodology

As per the latest statistics of Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Planning Department, Government of Rajasthan (2018), total geographical area of Rajasthan is 342239 sq.km encompassing 11% of the total geographical area of the country. In which western Rajasthan covers nearly 116882 sq. km (Figure 10-15). Approximately an area of 32,737 sq. km which is 9.57% of the total geographical area of the Rajasthan is covered by the forest. The Methodology adopted is shown in (Figure 9).

Jodhpur: Jodhpur, one of the largest districts is situated in the western part of the Rajasthan state. The average elevation of the city from mean sea level is 250-300 meter. It is situated between north latitude and between east longitude, covering geographical area of 22850 sq. kms. It is bounded in the east by Nagaur district, West by Jaisalmer district, North by Bikaner districts and Barmer as well as Pali on Southern side. The Climate of Jodhpur is extremely hot and arid. The summer season is from April to June followed by rainy season from July to mid-September. The winter season is from November to March. The annual average rainfall is 366 millimetres, but this is not uniform throughout the year. The city receives most of the rain during monsoon season. The temperature shoots up in summer and drops in winter. The average annual rainfall in the city is 351 millimetres. Nearly 80% of the rainfall is received during the south-west monsoon season. The variation in the annual rainfall from year to year is very large in the year 2007 the average rainfall was 204 mm, whereas in the next year it was 482.4 mm.

Jaisalmer: Jaisalmer largest district of Rajasthan and one of the largest in the country is located within a rectangle lying between 26°.4' - 28°.23' North parallel and 69°.20' - 72°.42' east meridians. The width (East-West) of the district is 270 Kms and the length (North-South) is 186 Kms. In present map, district Jaisalmer is bounded on the east by Jodhpur and Bikaner Districts, on the west & south-west by Indian boarder, on the north by Bikaner and on the south by Barmer and Jodhpur. The length of international boarder attached to District Jaisalmer is nearly about 471 Kms. Jaisalmer District, comes under Great Indian Thar Desert, is sandy, dry and scorched. About 60 kms of radius is formed of stony and rocky terrain like structure of the district. Areas comes under Jaisalmer is barren, undulating with its famous sand dunes and slopes towards the Indus valley and the Runn of Kutch. It has a very dry climate with very hot summer; a cold winter and sparse rains. The climate is extremely hot during summer with maximum temperature reaching up to 49.2°C and extremely cold during winter with minimum temp. in the range of 1°C (Jhajharia et al., 2014). Due to this variation in

temperature from morning to noon and the late midnight is a sudden phenomenon. The average rainfall is only 16.4 cm as against the state average of 57.51 cm.

Bikaner: This district is spread across an area of 30,247.90 sq km, the fourth largest city of Rajasthan and is located between 27°11' and 29°03' N and 71°54' and 74°12' E. Rao Bika, a Rajput ruler in 1486 AD founded the district headquarter. Bikaner has an extremely hot and arid climate is located in the middle of the Thar desert. During summers, the temperature of the region goes beyond 45°C during the day and in winters it dips down below 0°C during the night. Bikaner faces annual rainfall between 260 to 440 mm.

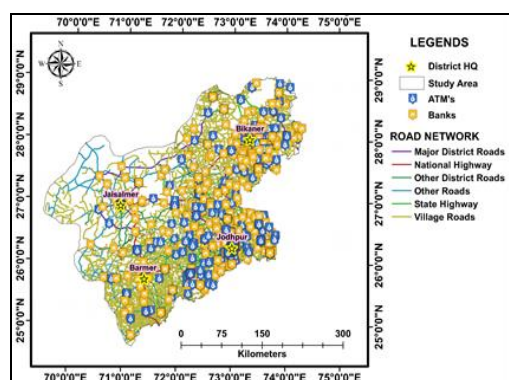


Figure 10. Bank & ATM Map

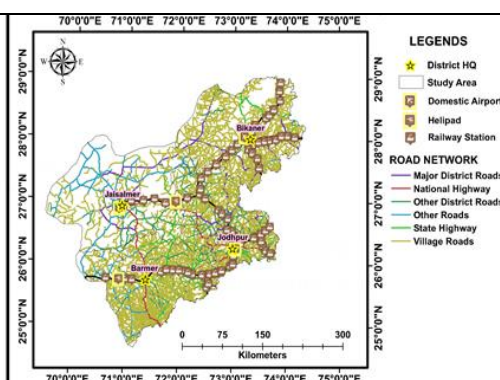


Figure 11. Transportation Map

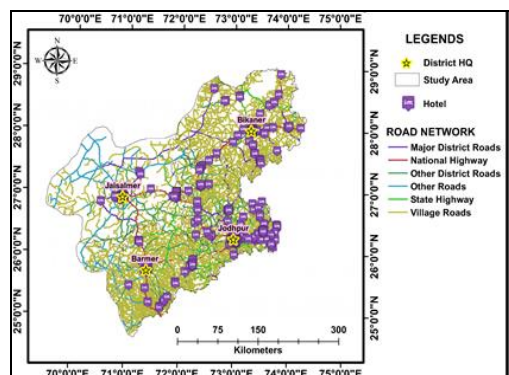


Figure 12. Hotel & Restaurant Map

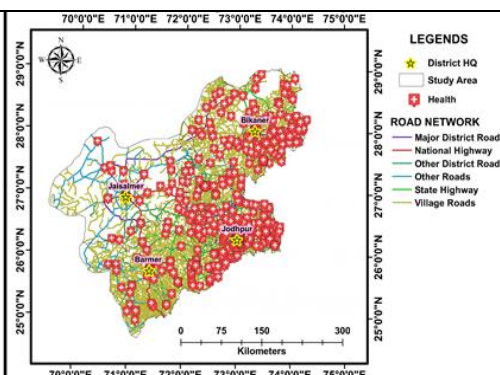


Figure 13. Health Facility Map

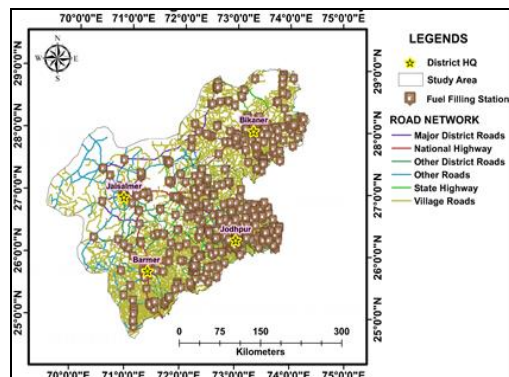


Figure 14. Fuel Filling Station Map

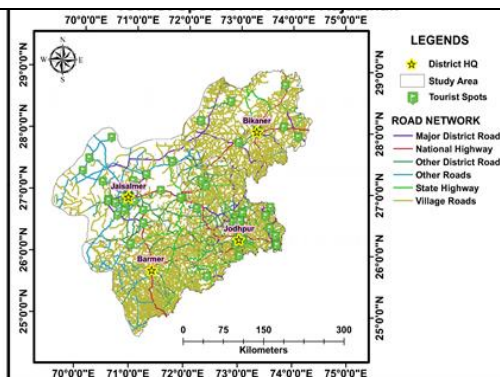


Figure 15. Major Tourists Spots Map

Barmer: Barmer spread across an area of 28,387 sq km, this district is the third largest district of Rajasthan located between 24°58' and 26°32' N and between 70°05' and 72°52' E. The district forms a part of the Thar Desert and is situated in the western part of the state and shares its borders with Jaisalmer in the north, Jalore in the south pali and Jodhpur in the east, Pakistan in the west. Main river of the district is Luni river which is 480 km in length and meets at the Gulf of Kutch flowing through Jalore. Average annual rainfall of the region is nearly 277 mm.

Data & Software Used

During the study both primary and secondary data has been used. During the study primary data has been created in the form of vector map of Western Rajasthan which mainly includes four district Jodhpur, Jaisalmer, Bikaner & Barmer using ArcGIS 10.7 and on the other hand, secondary has been collected from published and unpublished sources mainly from Department of Tourism, Rajasthan as well as from all the four district websites (Figure 16). The published data has been collected from different government agencies, municipal corporation, department of tourism, railway department, department of transportation and other non-government agencies etc.

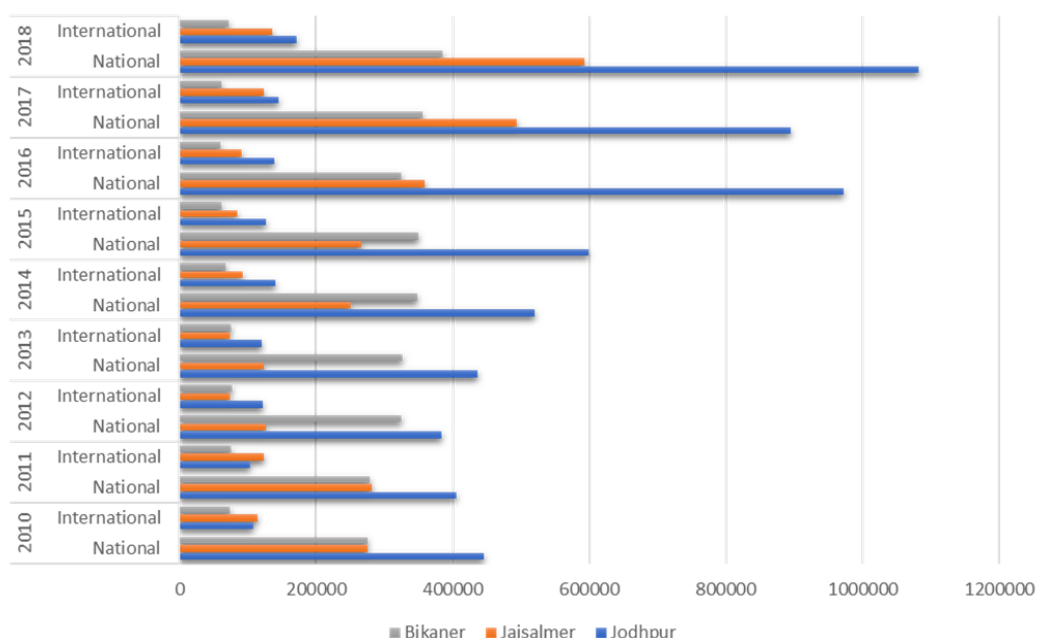


Figure 16. Tourist Arrival Trends of Western Rajasthan (**Source:** Department of Tourism, Rajasthan)

Domestic Tourist Traffic

The domestic traffic is highest in Jodhpur city (~4.5 Lakhs) followed by Bikaner (~1.9 Lakhs) and then Jaisalmer (~1 Lakhs). Although Jaisalmer traditionally ranks behind Jodhpur and Bikaner in terms of domestic tourist arrival numbers, it has recorded an impressive 5% growth in domestic arrivals in the past five years. The other cities have either shown a decline or have grown at a lower rate during the same period. Though there are other tourist spots in the region such as Barmer, Osian, etc. none of them currently have significant tourist traffic (Strydom et al., 2019). Osian is rapidly gaining popularity amongst domestic tourists. Similarly, Barmer as well as others places such as Ramdeora, Deshnok, Kolayat record good domestic tourist arrivals during the fairs and festivals in these places.

Foreign Tourist Traffic

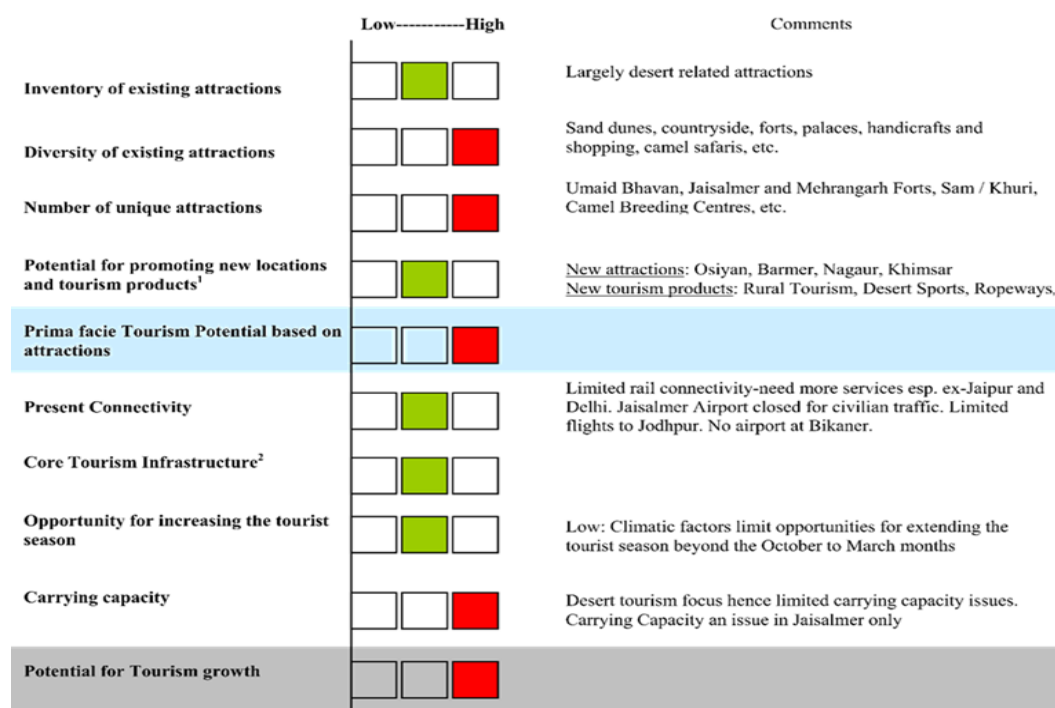
Jodhpur receives the highest number of foreign tourists and has also shown 8% growth in the number of tourist arrivals in the past years. Bikaner has also recorded a 9% growth in the number of foreign tourists, although it ranks behind both Jodhpur and Jaisalmer currently. Jaisalmer, the traditionally popular destination with the foreigners has, however, shown a decline in the number of arrivals in the same period. This decline is attributed to its proximity to the Pokhran nuclear test site, and to the India-Pakistan border. Besides, both Jodhpur and Bikaner are offering tourists new products such as the desert and village safari packages that traditionally originated ex-Jaisalmer.

Main Findings

The main tourist traffic trends in Rajasthan over the past 5 years are as follows:

Slow Growth in tourism in the main tourist locations

The main tourist cities of Rajasthan namely, Jaipur, Udaipur, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer, Bikaner and Mount Abu have seen marginal growth (and occasionally a marginal decline) in total tourist traffic and all these locations (barring a few exceptions) have seen tourist traffic levels in 2001 largely unchanged from 5 years ago (1997).



Note: 1. Tourism products like Eco-tourism, Rural Tourism, Adventure Tourism, Aqua Tourism, etc.
2. Core Infrastructure like accommodation, restaurants, wayside facilities, tour services, etc.

Figure 17. Evaluation of Potential for Tourism Growth

Select Tourist locations are experiencing high growth

In particular, the Ajmer- Pushkar circuit is experiencing high growth in domestic tourists - while foreign tourist traffic at these locations is more or less static, domestic tourist traffic has increased significantly particularly at Ajmer. Also, the Alwar-Sariska belt is experiencing strong growth. Growth in domestic tourism is largely due to its increasing popularity as a weekend gateway from Delhi (as well as a 'conference tourism' venue) while

growth in foreign tourist traffic is led by the growing popularity of the Sariska WLS amongst foreigners who visits Jaipur and / or cover the Golden Triangle circuit. Amongst the smaller tourist destinations, especially Bundi (it is a part of the Hadoti circuit) has seen a tremendous increase in both domestic and foreign tourist traffic (Figure 17). Banswara (also Dungarpur) is slowly emerging on the tourist map though it should be noted that taking Banswara as an example traffic is led by the annual religious festivals / fairs.

• **The ecotourism experience sought from Rajasthan is changing:** Traditionally the Rajasthan ecotourism experience offered palaces, forts, lakes and the desert. However, based on the 5-year trend in tourist traffic, the experience sought from Rajasthan is changing. The traditional ecotourism experience is no doubt desired but the focus is gradually shifting to more varied ecotourism products particularly:

- ✓ Wild life ecotourism (particularly the Sanctuaries)
- ✓ Weekend ecotourism / conference ecotourism (particularly in Northern Rajasthan given its proximity to Delhi and NCR)
- ✓ Value-added desert ecotourism (including adventure ecotourism, desert safaris, desert sports, etc.)
- ✓ Newer (less 'touristry') destinations offering the same traditional experience (e.g. Bundi, distant heritage hotels, etc.)

• **Domestic tourists are gradually becoming more important than foreign tourists:** More so since in the last few years (and particularly in 2001) foreign tourists have been static while domestic tourists have grown.

Table 1. Ecotourism Relevant Infrastructure in Desert Circuit

Category	Current Status	Potential for Development		
		Short Term	Medium Term	Long Term
Connectivity Infrastructure	Fairly developed	✓	✓	✓
		In line with traffic growth		
Accommodation	Moderately developed	✓	✓	✓
		Capacity in the mid-range segment		
Midway/ Wayside Facilities	Fairly developed	✓		
Tourist Offices	Adequate	✓		
Others (Recreational Facilities, Shopping Facilities, etc)	Adequate	✓	✓	✓
		Organised shopping facilities retailing the local art/ handicrafts/ textiles, etc.		
Monuments/ Site Enhancement	Moderately developed	✓	✓	✓
Sanctuaries/ Eco-Tourism	Not developed	✓		
Tourism Products (Rural Tourism, Resort Tourism, Health Tourism, etc)	Not developed	✓	✓	✓

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Western Rajasthan has very huge potential to generate tourism at vast scale. It has variety of tourism places to attract tourist globally. But there is a need to focus by the government to give some subsidiary policy to encourage the tourism sector. By boosting the tourism, it creates more possibilities to the state for generating revenue and employment in different form. In some way development of world class tourism destinations in Western Rajasthan in an integrated manner to provide options to the discerning tourist, to attract investments and generate employment for local people. The smooth implementation and operations of tourism projects by facilitating initiatives in the area of land, human resources development, marketing and promotion and environment improvement. Based on the analysis of this report we can say that

enhancement of ecotourism will give positive experience in between tourists and local people and it also helps in quality employment generation some of the key recommendations for the ecotourism sector:

Policies in Ecotourism: One of the basic initial steps is to have a dedicated state ecotourism policy which outlines how the states would like to project themselves. The prime focus on government policies, specific interventions proposed and planned, new and existing incentives to developers and private players and the vision for development of ecotourism in the state, among others for revenue generation (Chandel, 2013). A comprehensive and robust ecotourism policy is the first step towards achieving the desired tourist inflow for any state.

Road, Rail, Air Connectivity: The State Governments mainly focus on inter as well as intrastate connectivity. The improvement of regional connectivity is today's need and want of tourist for better ecotourism development. The suggested steps must speedily launch of the proposed high-speed passenger trains, constructing new and improving existing rural roads, identifying air strips to be converted into small commercial airports, renovating existing domestic airports into international airports and setting up heliports in select key states which experience more foreign tourist inflow. Inland waterways are another option to explore and improving the connectivity between cities and states.

Facilities for Tourists: One of the main requirements for the foreign tourists is the easy availability of the visa offices and centres at all the key destinations experiencing high foreign revenue. Apart from ensuring basic facilities such as sanitation and drinking water, efforts should be channelized towards provision of parking and way side facilities to improve ecotourism.

Employment for the People: There is an increased focus in many states on the MICE (Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions) sector as an engine of growth for the business in tourism sector. The availability of a number of options across all the cities which are connected through international airports is line with the demand for tourism sector. However, it's a need of today to have a separate strategy to devise and take necessary steps towards leveraging the MICE sector in main cities which are currently not internationally connected since they are facing hard competition from the other cities. Apart from connectivity, next focus on the availability of world-class infrastructure is another area of intervention like as setting up international level convention centers for the peoples. There is a need to take initiatives from the government side to provide incentives and subsidies to attract various investors may be proposed as part of the MICE (Meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions) strategy for the betterment of the tourism sector.

Facilities of Accommodation: India has some of the best luxury hotels and resorts in the world however there are some unexplored destinations which need to upgrade their service levels as well as increase the number of hotels. Secondly Introduction of theme-based resorts and hotels are mainly new options to be explored further in such destinations from the point of view of ecotourism. Some popular themes could be wild life resort, golf resorts, green as well as clean technology resorts in short eco-friendly means ecotourism can facilitate people etc.

Partnership between Public and Private: The higher government authorities of districts need to collaborate and explore the best and possible opportunities to attract tourists by offering wide and comprehensive services as well solutions. This could be done by collaborating with other states and countries for offering custom made experiences and services to the tourists. To create and enable ecotourism-based environment, there is a need to explore more opportunities by government for the enhancement of tourism sector and this can be done proper road map of creating and implementing tourism policies.

Keeping in view the region's colourful culture, Western Rajasthan has a huge potential of ecotourism which needs to be developed further. Some of the potential areas are as follows:

- ✓ **Improving Intra State Air connectivity:** There are currently chartered flights which help in connecting the cities of Rajasthan however they are not cost effective. To improve ecotourism prospects more focus needs to be given to this area.
- ✓ **Special desert tours for enthusiasts who want to know about the culture and history of the region** (Local people in collaboration with the State Government can also conduct such tours, since they can present the best picture of their rich history, art and culture).
- ✓ **Encouraging Corporate Sponsorship for Heritage buildings:** The Government already has in place concessions and subsidies for the same. However, there is a need to promote the policy and identify investors.
- ✓ **Conversion of palaces into heritage hotels:** The state of Rajasthan has huge potential for heritage ecotourism. Outsourcing the maintenance and lighting of heritage monuments can help the state in utilizing this sector for improving ecotourism.

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EXAMINING THE RURAL TOURISM EXPERIENCES OF TOURISTS IN EMERGING RURAL TOURISM DESTINATION: BURDUR PROVINCE, TURKEY

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Abstract: This study examines the rural tourism experiences of the tourists visiting the Lake Salda and Lisinia Doğa of Burdur province, which has shown an important development in rural tourism in recent years. Data has been collected from the comments of the tourists who have visited Lake Salda and Lisinia Doğa on the online platform www.tripadvisor.com and content analysis has been used to examine data. Frequency and word cloud analysis have been performed in MAXQDA Analytics Pro program. Research results indicate that rural tourism experiences are versatile and heterogeneous, based on authentic (unique) experience, activity experience, local food & beverage experience, accommodation experience, local souvenir experience, testify wildlife rehabilitation, transportation experience and negative experience. Tourism businesses may be offered to design and manage their products and services for rural tourism experiences.

Key words: rural tourism experiences, emerging rural tourism destination, Burdur, Turkey

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INTRODUCTION

Burdur province is located in the transition area from the Mediterranean Region to the Aegean and Central Anatolian Regions in the region of the Mediterranean region of Burdur and in the region called Lakes Region, at 29°-24' and 30°-53' Eastern Longitudes and 36°-53' and 37°-50' Northern Latitudes. Burdur is surrounded by Antalya in the South, Denizli in the West, Muğla in the Southwest, Isparta and Afyon in the East and North (Balci et al., 2018). Burdur is of importance in terms of rural tourism activities with its location hosting natural, historical and cultural tourism values on the route transitioning from Mediterranean Region to Aegean Region and to the hinterlands of our country at the region called "Lakes Region" on the roads leading to Denizli-Antalya-Muğla provinces where the important touristic centers of Turkey are located (Temurçin et al., 2019). With the influence of social media in recent years, Burdur has become an

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important destination showing rural tourism development. Tourism in the province has grown significantly, from approximately 12,394 visitors in 2010 to approximately 36,288 visitors in 2018 (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2019). The natural, historical and cultural values of Burdur province play a role in this development.

For example, the best preserved Sagalassos ancient city of Anatolia was included in the UNESCO World Heritage Temporary National List in 2009 and the ancient city of Kibyra in 2016 (Burdur Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism, 2020). Lake Salda, with white sands and turquoise waters, began to be known as the Maldives of Turkey. Lisinia Doğa is a micro rural tourism destination resulting from different projects focused on solutions to social, environmental and economic problems (Erbaş, 2019). In addition, due to the fact that lavender gardens in the Lakes Region (Isparta and Burdur provinces) have attracted the attention of tourists in recent years, the Lavender Stream Project in Yeşilova's Akçaköy Village has turned into a touristic product in which local people make economic gains within the scope of rural tourism activities (Temurçin, 2019: 47).

Studies on experience in tourism literature, regardless of tourism types, are observed under tourism/tourist experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Jackson et al., 1996; Prentice et al., 1998; Li, 2000; Oh et al., 2007; McIntosh & Siggs, 2005; Altunel & Erkut, 2015). Knowing the experiences for different types of tourism will not only increase the satisfaction of the tourists, but also will provide tourism companies with products and services for the experiences. Tourism companies will do their job, package tour and sales according to these experiences. The aim of the research is to examine and understand the rural tourism experiences of travelers who visit Salda Lake and Lisinia Doğa located in Burdur province in the Lakes Region of Turkey.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Rural tourism and its experience

Rural tourism is defined as the presence of people in natural environments, rest and the desire to be together with people with different cultures, to go to rural settlements and stay in accommodation businesses specific to the places, to taste the foods and drinks of that region, to discover and experience the abstract and concrete culture of that region. (Soykan, 2001). Rural tourism is a type of tourism based on natural resources, intertwined with rural settlements (Uslu et al., 2015: 352). Rural tourism is preferred by middle-aged and middle-income, educated, professional professionals and those traveling with family (Soykan 2003, Ongun et al., 2016: 78). In the literature, studies related to tourism / tourist experience are encountered rather than rural tourism experience. Pine & Gilmore, 1998 (unique, emotionally charged, and of high personal value); Jackson et al., 1996; Prentice et al., 1998; Li, 2000 (understand tourist experiences from a number of perspectives); Oh et al., 2007; McIntosh & Siggs, 2005; Altunel & Erkut, 2015 (education, entertainment, esthetics, escapism). Kim et al. (2016) have discussed tourist experience in price, service, atmosphere, overall customer evaluation and food dimensions.

According to Doğan et al. (2016), the tourist experience is the dimensions of atmosphere, price, cleanliness, food, service and staff. Bayram et al. (2017), on the other hand, have examined the image of destination, tourist attractions, natural environment, public, special events, culture and art, infrastructure, transportation, accommodation, information, food and beverage, pleasant, exciting, refreshing and relaxing experience. İnanır et al. (2019), has examined the experiences of Cittaslow tourists in terms of nature and scenery, local products, regenerative facilities, hospitality, tourism businesses, publicity (knowledge), neglect/indifference/pollution (environment), perceived service quality and price. İnanır and Ongun (2019) has examined the experiences of Yeşilova

Lake Salda visitors positively and negatively. The positive experience dimension is natural structure, health, recreational activities, local people, geographical location and gastronomy; the negative experience dimension is the environment, infrastructure and superstructure, information and perceived service quality.

According to the World Tourism Organization, (2004), rural tourism is composed of four main components in which rural communities are located in the center. These are rural areas (mountains, lakes, rivers, forest, natural areas), rural heritage and culture (traditional and industrial architecture, historical buildings, villages), rural activities (ride a horse, biking, fishing, walking, water sport) and rural life (handcraft, local activities, local foods, farm tourism, traditional music, folk dances) (Figure 1).

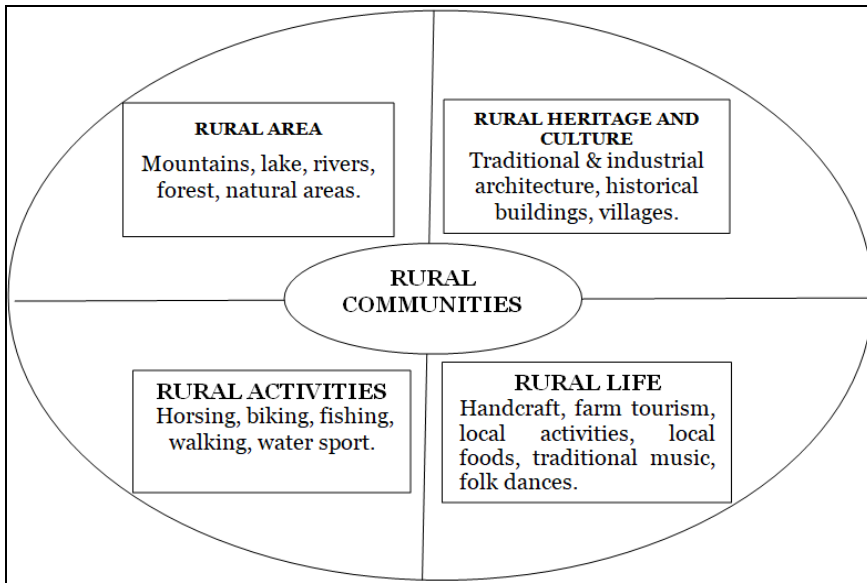


Figure 1. Components of Rural Tourism (Source: World Tourism Organization, 2004)

Burdur as an emerging rural destination: Lake Salda and Lisinia Doğa

Lake Salda is a tourist value with significant rural tourism potential, which has attracted domestic and foreign tourists in recent years. Lake Salda has attracted the attention of tourists who want to explore different places and be in touch with nature with its national and international recognition. As a result, the number of tourists coming to the district has increased considerably (Temurçin et al., 2019: 48).

Lisinia Doğa is a micro rural tourism destination established in 2005 in the city of Burdur (known as region of lakes). With the time, Lisinia Doğa visited by tourists. The tour operators have developed package tours (i.e., region of lake tours) including Lisinia Doğa (Erbaş, 2019: 2405). Lake Salda is located at Lakes Region of Turkey, about 64 km west of the province of Yeşilova district boundaries. The lake has a formation consisting of rocks that are resistant to abrasion and can easily melt. It is a tectonic formation of the Lake Salda formation that occurs between the Late Miocene and Early Pliocene approximately 5 million years ago and is still active (Sert et al, 2018: 656). Despite being Turkey's deepest lake, Lake Salda is called the "Maldives of Western Anatolia" or "Saldives" due to the clarity of its waters. Its height above sea level is 1.140 m. Its surface area is 44 km². The lake is located on the Antalya-Denizli Pamukkale main-tour route,

where tourism is intense during the summer and winter months (Burdur Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism, 2011: 47). Lake Salda is one of the most generous areas of nature, offering alternative holiday opportunities with its beach, beautiful scenery in turquoise color, clean nature, forests and camping sites. It is home to many bird species. Lake Salda offers opportunities such as sailing, canoeing, windsurfing, photo-safari, lake tour, fishing, underwater diving, swimming (Ongun et al., 2016). Lake Salda consists of three different areas: White Islands, Lake Salda Nature Park, Lake Salda Municipality and Doğanbaba Beach. Lake Salda Natural Park was visited by 6,596 in 2013, 34,829 in 2014, 20,995 in 2015, 36,979 in 2016 and 67,115 in 2017 (Table 1).

Table 1. Number of tourists visiting Lake Salda Nature Park (2013-2017)

2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
6,596	34,829	20,995	36,979	67,115

Source: Burdur Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism, 2020

As of 2018, statistics for these three different areas have been kept. In 2018, a total of 689,730 people visited Lake Salda, with 292,000 people visiting White Islands, 97,730 people visiting Lake Salda Natural Park, and 300,000 people visiting Lake Salda Municipality and Doğanbaba Beach. In 2019, a total of 1,079,658 people visited Lake Salda, with 734,505 people visiting White Islands, 122,031 people visiting Lake Salda Natural Park, and 223,122 people visiting Lake Salda Municipality and Doğanbaba Beach (Burdur Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism, 2020).

Table 2. Number of tourists visiting Lake Salda (2018-2019)

Years	White Islands	Lake Salda Nature Park	Lake Salda Municipality and Doğanbaba Beach	Total
2018	292,000	97,730	300,000	689,730
2019	734,505	122,031	223,122	1,079,658

Source: Burdur Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism, 2020

There is a total of 41 accommodation facilities in Burdur with 14 Ministry Certificate and 27 Municipality Certificate (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2019). With the development of tourism in Lake Salda, there are a total of 21 2-3-star hotels, pensions and apart hotels, of which 11 were opened in 2019, 5 in 2018 and 5 in previous years. These accommodation facilities have 182 rooms and 493 beds capacity (Temurçin, 2019: 47). Öztürk Sarıca, a veterinarian and a volunteer of nature, established a village named Nature Based Wildlife Protection and Rehabilitation Center (Lisinia Doğa) in 2005 within the borders of Burdur Karakent Village (Ongun et al., 2015: 107). The project, which was launched in 2005, has realized nearly 1,000 sub-projects under 9 project titles so far. Nearly 20 of them are still active. Projects prominent among them are: a wildlife rehabilitation center, free nature camps, lavender gardens, ecological fields in Lisinia (<https://www.lisinia.com/tr/projeler>).

It is possible to carry out activities such as photography, trekking, camping, cycling, horse riding and lavender care in Lisinia Wildlife Village. Activities carried out in this center are carried out on a voluntary basis (Ongun, 2017: 139). Volunteers stay in rooms for 3 or 4 people free of charge. While Lisinia does not charge volunteers for nature shelter and nutrition, volunteers support production in return. Lisinia Doğa hosted 120,000 visitors between 2005 and 2017, 200,000 in 2018 and 300,000 visitors and more than 5,000 foreign volunteers in 2019 (<https://www.sabah.com.tr>).



Figure 2. Lake Salda

Dimensions of the tourist experiences

Before moving on to the tourist experience dimensions, it is beneficial to explain the concept of “phenomena”. In literal sense, is called the study of “phenomena”: appearances of things, or things as they appear based on our experiences, or the forms which things take when we experience them, in other words, the meaning of things within our experience, is called phenomenology. It is the study of the structures of consciousness experienced from the point of view of the first person: „Me”. A wide range of types of experiences including the perception, thought, memory, imagination, emotion, wishing and strength of will, are studied as well as physical action, social action and the linguistic activity in case of the involvement physical consciousness. An experience is directed at an object based on its content or meaning (what the objects represent, also historically) along with the suitable conditions that apply (<http://www.tourismtheories.org/?p=1503>).

Researching the tourism/tourist experience in the tourism literature, Cohen (1979: 180) notes that tourist experience will not be generally accepted and people with different traits may desire different types of tourist experiences. Cohen (1979: 183) suggested five different tourist modes (recreational mode, diversionary mode, experiential mode, experimental mode, existential mode) based on the religion sociology and tourism sociology for tourist experiences. The first two modes of tourist experiences (recreational and diversionary) refers to the persons travelling with the motivation of spending a good time and escaping the facts, while the remaining three modes (experiential, experimental, existential) points to the persons motivated with the search for uniqueness on various levels (Sağıroğlu, 2019: 92). Cohen (1994) has defined the tourists as explorers, drifters, elite, extraordinary, organized mass tourist and individual mass tourist based on the level of uniqueness they pursue, while Plog (2001) has defined them as adventurous and extrovert. The common ground for all these tourist types is the fact that they are adventurous and open to new things, participate actively, keep the excitement and energy high and they seek experiences outside an ordinary tourist (Polat & Polat, 2016:249).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The comments shared by tourists have become one of the most important sources not only for travelers but also for tourism businesses due to the rapid development of

internet and social media usage. Online comments and forums, travel blocks, websites, social media sites are also common methods of data collection for researchers (Bayram et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2016; Doğan et al., 2016; Zhou, 2014). In this research, 920 Lake Salda comments at www.tripadvisor.com between 2013-2019 and 30 Lisinia Doğa comments between 2017-2019 have been analyzed by different steps.

In the research, the comments at www.tripadvisor.com were carefully read and each comment was recorded by giving the order number to Excel. Then, the data has been transferred to the MAXQDA Analytics Pro 2018 qualitative data analysis program and frequency and word cloud analysis has been performed. As a result of frequency analysis, content analysis has been made from the most frequently repeated words.

RESULTS DISCUSSIONS

When the content analysis of 920 visitors visiting Lake Salda is made, it is observed that tourists have many rural experiences (Table 3). First, it is clear from the travelers' comments that authentic experiences (wonderful atmosphere, sunset, azure, white rocks, white beach, unspoilt nature, turquoise beauty, clay mask, blue sea, watched the landscape, Maldives, Saldiv's, wonderful nature, beautiful lake) of Lake Salda are significant factors that affect their experiences. Activity experiences (swimming, picnic, camping, taking photos, kayaking, bicycling, visiting the village) are another important experience emphasized by travelers. In the literature, activities in rural areas are considered to be one of the key aspects of rural tourism experience (Ongun et al., 2016; Popp & McCole, 2016; Crowley et al., 2015). At Burdur, Yeşilova, Lake Salda and its surroundings, due to tourist mobility, pancake, diced lamb fried on iron plate, Yeşilova minced meat toast, pita, restaurant, coffee house and snack bars that make pita with tahini are the food and beverage experience of the travelers. Comfortable bungalows, boutique hotels, camps around the lake, family and eco-friendly hotels provide accommodation experience. Dickinson & Robbins (2008) stated that tourists prefer rural hotels, hostels, boutique hotels, camps, rural houses and apartments in rural areas. The absence of 4-5-star hotels in the region increases the preferences of rural tourists.

The souvenirs which are part of the tourists' destination experience (Akay & Yılmaz, 2019), natural products such as walnut paste, walnut, grape, souvenir shop, village grocer, small shop for shopping. Tourists buy souvenirs and products that are specific to the region they go to in order to remind them of their travels (Cave et al., 2012). While the tourists visiting Lake Salda are pleased with the availability of shuttle bus, tours of travel agencies and different highways, those coming notably with personal vehicles are disturbed due to non-stable, broken roads and poor village roads. Page (2005) has emphasized that transportation in tourism can be an attraction in itself as it offers a high tourism experience to tourists, Popp & McCole (2016) has emphasized that private car transportation to rural destinations is an important part of the tourism experience and Dickinson & Robbins (2008) has emphasized the transportation problems in rural destinations. Burdur-Yeşilova highway construction started in 2017 and hot asphalt and new traffic signs have been commissioned at the beginning of 2019. The problems may arise before and during the road construction works.

Tourists coming to Antalya, an important coastal tourism destination (more than 15 million tourists in 2019) and Denizli with Pamukkale travertines (thermal spring)-Hierapolis ancient city (more than 3 million tourists in 2019) also visit Lake Salda individually or with tours. As a location, Lake Salda is 2 km to Yeşilova district, 64 km to Burdur centrum, 86 km to Denizli Çardak Airport, 98 km to Isparta Süleyman Demirel Airport and 140 km to Antalya Airport. Travelers request the central administration

(Government Authority), Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Ministry of Culture and Tourism to protect Lake Salda and its surroundings, and the permanence of the restaurant, bungalow and beach services of the municipality (Municipality Authority).

Tourists have warned against the disruption of natural beauty of the Lake Salda, deterioration compared to previous years, garbage and environmental pollution within the area. Activities above the carrying capacity of the lake and its surrounding significantly affect the lake, which has very sensitive features (Kesik et al., 2018: 8). In cases where the carrying capacity is exceeded, the growth of the destination stops and even a rapid decline starts with the deteriorated image (Türkey & Kahraman, 2009; 65). Since Lake Salda is usually visited by excursionists, visitor management, natural heritage conservation and sustainability should be taken into consideration in the coming years.

Table 3. Experience of tourists visiting Lake Salda

Dimension	Sub-Dimension
Authentic (Unique) Experience	Maldives, Saldiv's, Wonderful Atmosphere, Sunset, Azure, Crystal Clear Lake, White Rocks, White Beach, Unspoilt Nature, Turquoise Beauty, Clay Mask, Blue See, Watched the Landscape, Wonderful Nature, Beautiful Lake.
Activity Experience	Swimming, Picnic, Camping, Take Photos, Kayaking, Bicycling, Visit the village
Local Food & Beverage Experience	Turkish Gözleme, Saç Kavrurma (diced lamp fried on iron plate), Famous Yeşilova Toast, Pita with tahini, Small Restaurant, Coffeehouse, Snack Bar.
Accommodation Experience	Comfortable Bungalows, Boutique Hotel, Small Hotel, Salda Forest Camp, Family Hotel, Eco-friendly Hotel.
Local Souvenir & Shopping Experience	Natural Product (Walnut Paste, Walnut, Grape), Souvenir Shop, Village Grocer, Small Shop.
Transportation Experience	Adequate Park Area, Shuttle Bus from Burdur, tour group, by Private Car, by Plane, Excursion, Asphalt Road, Poor Road, Stabilized Road, Willage Road, Dusty Road, Bad Road, Handle Road, Lightless Road, Mountain Road, Smooth Road, Fatigue Road, New Road.
Location	Salda Natural Conservation Area, 2 km From Yeşilova, 64 km from center of Burdur, From Denizli Çardak Airport 86 km, From Isparta Süleyman Demirel Airport 98 km, From Antalya Airport 140 km.
Government & Municipality Authority	Forest Ministry. Tourism Ministry restored, care, protected, regulation, Municipality's Restaurant, Municipality bungalows Municipality Public Beach, Missing Signage
Negative Experience	Natural Impairment, Waste, Crowded, Pollution.

In Figure 3, a word cloud is given from 75 words mentioned at least 30 times out of 69,072 words collected under the themes resulting from the codes above. When creating a word cloud, words such as, *for*, *but*, *and*, are not included in the analysis. When Figure 3 is examined; the words related to authentic experience (Maldives, clay, white, beach, blue, see, nature, sand, turquoise), activity experience (swim, picture, photos, raft, camp, tent, salda), local food & beverage experience (restaurant, eat, food), accommodation experience (stay, night, tent, camp), transportation experience (car, road, bad, visit), location (Turkey, Burdur, Antalya, Salda), government & municipality authority (municipality, public, facilities), negative experience (garbage, crowded, environment) stand out. This word cloud is the validation (testing) of the dimensions and sub-dimensions that make up travelers' Lake Salda experiences in Table 3.

Table 4 shows the different experience dimensions of those who visit Lisinia Doğa. First of all, travelers have activity experience such as photography, trekking, camping, cycling, horse riding, lavender care, volunteer staff and visiting the Village.

Authentic (unique) experience such as natural products, natural beauties, wooden houses, wooden statuary, unique views are another important experience by travelers.



Figure 3. Word Cloud based on Lake Salda visitor reviews

Table 4. Experience of tourists visiting Lisinia Doğa

Dimension	Sub-Dimension
Activity Experience	Photography, trekking, camping, cycling, horse riding and lavender care, visit the Village, work in the projects as volunteer.
Authentic (Unique) Experience	Natural products (organic and edible cosmetics, medicinal liquids, soaps, colognes, peony, lavender-rose oil), natural beauties, wooden houses, wooden statuary, unique views.
Local Food & Beverage Experience	Local product, Burdur shish kebab, lavender tea, ayran, Turkish gözleme, honey, and concentrated food.
Testify Wildlife Rehabilitation	Wild life, injured animals, animal care, stork, wolf, swine, eagle, partridge.
Accommodation Experience	Hotel, Camp, pension, bungalows.
Location	Near the Burdur Lake, 25 km from center of Burdur, 120 km from Denizli Çardak Airport, 38 km from Isparta Süleyman Demirel Airport, 130 km from Antalya Airport.

Local food & beverage (local products, Burdur shish kebab, lavender tea, ayran, pancakes, honey, and concentrated food) are experiences for travelers. While the tourists are making their vacation plans, they also consider food and beverages along with the subjects such as the nature and historical structure of the destinations (Mak et al., 2012: 172). Some travel for gastronomic experience and request a gastronomic guide for local food and beverage experiences (Akay & Özöğütçü, 2019). One of the founding goals of Lisinia Doğa is the rehabilitation of wild animals. Testify wildlife rehabilitation; animals shot by hunters, poisoned by chemicals and diseased ones, is retreated and reintroduced to their natural environment. Hotel, camp, hostels, bungalows create the accommodation experience. In addition, the food and accommodation need of the volunteers who help daily jobs are meet free of charge. As a –location, it is near the Burdur Lake, 25 km from center of Burdur, 120 km from Denizli Çardak Airport, 38 km from Isparta Süleyman Demirel Airport, 130 km from Antalya Airport. Lisinia Doğa is

very close (1.5-2.5 hours) to the main tourist destinations (Antalya and Muğla 15 million visitors in 2018) in Turkey (Erbaş, 2019: 2409). In Figure 4, a word cloud is given from 28 words mentioned at least 5 times out of 1,236 words collected under the themes resulting from the codes above. Words such as natural, products, animals, place, wild, lavender, Burdur, lake, oil, nature, life, country, see, area in the word cloud highlight the rural areas of Lisinia. It is understood from the words like beautiful, many, great, value, stop, need and how much the visitors of this center are affected.



Figure 4. Word Cloud based on Lisinia Doğa visitor reviews

CONCLUSION

Lake Salda was discovered within the last decade with the effect of social media (Instagram, Facebook, Twitter, Travel Sites) with its magnesium-containing white rocks and beach, clean, turquoise blue color and began to receive a high number of visitors. Lake Salda trended many times on Twitter, had 74,900 related posts on Instagram, thousands of posts on Facebook and 920 comments on TripAdvisor. It started to be known as the Maldives of Turkey and Saldives. Established in 2005 by veterinarian and volunteer Öztürk Sarıca, Lisinia Doğa is an initiative that presents different projects focused on solutions to social, environmental and economic problems (future without cancer, nature school, ecological production). Lisinia Doğa has made its mark on social media and various platforms by animal lovers, nature lovers, volunteer tourism professionals, people who have migrated from the village to the city and escaped from city stress, tourists looking for new experience. The experiences of tourists visiting Lake Salda can be defined as versatile and heterogeneous based on authentic (unique) experience, activity experience, local food & beverage experience, accommodation experience, local souvenir experience, transportation experience and negative experience. Tourists visiting Lisinia Doğa get activity experience, authentic experience, local food & beverage experience, testify wildlife rehabilitation, accommodation experience.

Different rural tourism experience dimensions such as authentic (unique) experience, activity experience, local food experience, accommodation experience, local souvenir experience, wildlife experience come to the fore in Burdur as an emerging rural destination. These dimensions provide tourists with experience on these qualities and features in the destination (Çetinkaya, 2017: 113). Experience specific to Lake Salda and Lisinia Doğa are important points that tourism businesses should focus on.

Recreation enterprises from tourism enterprises should focus on swimming, photography, horseback riding, water sports, camp; food and beverage establishments

should focus on local delicacies such as pancake, roasting, minced meat, toast, with tahini pita, and local dishes such as Burdur Shish Kebab; accommodation enterprises should focus on small hotel, pension, apart hotel, boutique hotel, camp, bungalow; souvenir businesses should focus on different products such as natural product (walnut paste, walnut, grape, lavender, lavender tea, lavender oil, rose product). It can be recommended to the managers of existing tourism enterprises to improve their service quality for these experiences and to start new businesses according to these experiences. In addition, for the development of Burdur province as a rural tourism destination, it should establish a destination management organization consisting of public and private sector, universities and non-governmental organizations and undertake the protection, use and promotion activities of the destination. In future researches, a survey can be created from these research dimensions and applied to visitors. Rural tourism experiences can be compared in different rural tourism destinations. Reviews of ancient cities of Sagalassos, Kibyra, Kremna can be examined as cultural tourism destinations experience. The research is expected to be a guide for rural tourism experience research, rural administrators (government & municipality authority) and rural tourism operators.

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ACCELERATING TOURISM DEVELOPMENT BY COMMUNITY PREPAREDNESS ON DISASTER RISK IN LOMBOK, INDONESIA

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Abstract: Disaster is a threat to the tourism sector. The losses incurred both material and non-material are one of the tangible forms of interaction between the tourism sector and the disaster phenomenon. This study aims to provide an overview of the preparedness of the community in the area of tourism in responding the phenomenon of disaster and its implications for the tourism sector. This study used a qualitative method with a descriptive approach. The results showed that the community lacked preparedness in facing disasters. Indicators of assessment of preparedness including preparedness for knowledge and attitudes, policies, emergency response plans, disaster warning systems, and resource mobilization. The lack of community preparedness for disaster risk has implications for disaster mitigation management that is not working correctly according to tourism management standards.

Key words: community preparedness, disaster risk, tourism development, Lombok

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INTRODUCTION

Disaster is a term that is very familiar to the people of Indonesia. The various impacts caused by disaster activities are not a new reality for Indonesia. Various

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disasters, such as earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, landslides, typhoons, and tornadoes, occur in almost all corners of the country (Hidayati, 2008). It is undeniable that based on a geological review, Indonesia is a region that is in a collision of three large plates such as Eurasia (Europe-Asia) from the North, Indo-Australia from the South, and the Pacific Plate from the East (Puturuhi, 2015; Wahyuningtyas et al., 2019).

This condition not only contributes to abundant natural resources both biological and non-biological but also impacts the magnitude of the potential for disasters in Indonesia. In 2018, there were 2,930 disasters occurring in Indonesia, both geological and hydro-meteorological disasters. These disasters included floods 760 times, landslides 548 times, tidal waves 35 times, waterspouts 997 times, drought 130 times, forest and land fire 374 times, earthquakes 30 times, tsunami twice, earthquake and tsunami two times, and volcanic eruptions 52 times (BNPB, 2017).

Such conditions, both directly and indirectly have an impact on losses experienced in areas that have a vulnerability to disaster activities. Material and non-material impacts are one illustration of how spatial interacts with the phenomenon of disaster. The loss of lives, damage to public facilities, even to the paralysis of several vital sectors, especially in the tourism sector both at the regional and national scale are inevitable. At the same time, the tourism sector has had a massive impact on a country, especially in the region. Also, the role of the tourism sector indirectly provides significant economic opportunities for people's lives (Orhan, 2016).

According to analysis from the World Travel and Tourism Council and the World Bank in 2016, the growth of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in the tourism sector is above the industry average. The tourism sector is the 4th rank of national foreign exchange earner, amounting to 9.3%, the highest foreign exchange revenue growth in a country, by 13%, marketing costs 2% of foreign exchange projections, and contributing 9.8 million jobs, with a percentage reaching 8, 4%. It also can create employment by 30% in 5 years and create the cheapest US \$ 5,000/job (Suwena & Widyatmaja, 2017).

If explored more deeply about the potential in such a large tourism sector, it turns out it has a variety of complex problems. Disaster problems in macroeconomic studies have quite crucial impacts on a country (Murray & Watson, 2019). According to BNPB data, it states that in 2018, Indonesia's tourism sector would receive losses due to natural disasters of Rp. 12.4 trillion, with 4,636 tourists (victims of natural disasters) (BNPB, 2017). Previous research conducted by Artiani (2011) explicitly stated that disasters could disrupt tourism activities in the affected areas, mainly related to disruption of macroeconomic sector indicators such as GDP (Gross Domestic Product), Gross investment, the balance of payments, and public finance.

One example of a disaster affecting activities in the tourism sector is reflected in the conditions of Indonesian tourism in 2018, precisely in Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara. Lombok Island is one of the ten national tourism priority areas developed by the tourism ministry. The earthquake that occurred in 2018 not only brought physical and mental impacts on the victims but also had an impact on the tourism sector. The impact of economic losses due to the earthquake is estimated to potentially lose foreign tourists in one month (6 August - 6 September 2018) around 100,000 tourists with losses reaching USD 100 million, assuming USD 1,000 per visit. Furthermore, spatially, the area affected by the disaster in the tourism sector includes important tourism objects on the island of Lombok consisting of climbing areas of Mount Rinjani, Gili Terawangan, Gili Meno and several other places on the island of Lombok (Adha, 2019).

One of the tourism sectors affected by the 2018 Lombok earthquake is the tourist area of Tangsi Beach (Pink Beach), Sekaroh Village, Jerowaru District, East Lombok Regency. Tangsi Beach Tourism is one of the two leading tourism destinations in East

Lombok Regency besides Paradise Beach. The Tangsi Beach area is included in eight key destinations on Lombok Island besides Senggigi Beach, Gilli Island, Selong Belanak, Sade Beach, Mount Rinjani, Tanjung Aan, and Pura Meru Temple (Adha, 2019).

Despite having such great potential, the pink beach also faces several problems, including the vulnerability to disaster hazards. One of the threats that affect the existence of the tourism sector in Tangsi Beach is the existence of natural disasters. In general, the threat of disasters such as earthquakes, tsunamis, extreme waves and abrasion, fires, extreme weather, drought, and landslide hazards are serious concerns that need to be addressed primarily in the tourism area (Riyadi, 2016). The role of community preparedness as an actor in dealing with and interacting with disasters needs to be encouraged in order to increase capacity in minimizing the impact of disasters. Losses due to disasters are closely related to the low awareness and preparedness in facing the threat of danger such as the low aspects of preparedness in preparing, preventing, taming, overcoming, and defending themselves from the disasters (Oloruntoba et al., 2018).

Capacity is one element in describing disaster activity that is negatively correlated with vulnerability and danger in the function of disaster risk. Capacity illustrates the ability of an area in dealing with disasters. The role of capacity is enormous in contributing to reducing the risk of disasters. Capacity or resilience is a positive aspect of the existing situation which if mobilized can reduce vulnerability and minimize an area's risk of disaster (Rosyidie, 2004). The capacity for reducing disaster risk has a central role in disaster mitigation activities. This aspect is reflected in the preparedness of the community in the scope of the disaster. Some literature has discussed the community preparedness. Puturuahu (2015) briefly alluded to the importance of community preparedness in responding to disasters, some issues regarding disaster, to its impact which was influenced by the low awareness and community preparedness in responding to disasters. Rosyidie (2004) indicated that the role of capacity which is an essential element of contributing preparedness could minimize the impact of disasters on the tourism sector. Capacity cannot be realized without the aspect of community preparedness in responding to disasters.

The resilience of an area in the tourism sector affects tourist visits. The need for safety for tourists who are at the destination is a top priority in viewing disasters as a factor in the disruption of the development of the tourism sector. The low level of community preparedness for the high vulnerability of Teluk Pelabuhan Ratu as one of the Leading Tourism Areas was also examined by Paramesti (2011). The assessment of the determination of the leading tourism area is based on the location's uniqueness and the high intensity of tourist visits. In addition, the aspect of community preparedness in disaster is the orientation of the development of sustainable tourism.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The method used in this study is descriptive qualitative with a case study approach. This approach was chosen based on the location of the study which has the main characteristics related to the topic. Case studies are research on certain cases in more depth by involving the collection of various sources of information (Raco, 2010). The primary data were collected through interviews, observations, documentation, while secondary data were taken from literature studies such as documentation (photos), journals, books, and various other supporting documents.

Leading tourism destinations in East Lombok with inadequate infrastructure development and high vulnerability to disaster risk was the focus of this study and assumed as the appropriate object rather than other places in Lombok. The research was conducted in May to December 2018 and it emphasizes disaster mitigation in the tourism sector, specifically disaster mitigation in Tangsi Beach, Sekaroh Village, Jerowaru

District, East Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia. The informants consisted of the people of around Tangsi beach, headman and village officials of Sekaroh, coordinator of local community, and the victims of earthquake in 2018.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Tangsi Beach

Tangsi Beach or Pink Beach is one of the leading tourist destinations in East Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia. The beauty of nature in the form of exotic pink beaches and historical tourism aspects offered is the main attraction for both local and foreign tourists. The meaning of Tangsi Beach in Indonesia is a barracks or hiding place (Fanny & Raditya, 2014). The name refers to the history of the arrival of Japanese troops in 1942 who made barracks in the area. The strategic condition of the beach with the shoreline directly facing the sea causes this location to be a strategic military area of Japan in overseeing the Allies. There are many caves and former Japanese military equipment found along the coast and its surroundings.

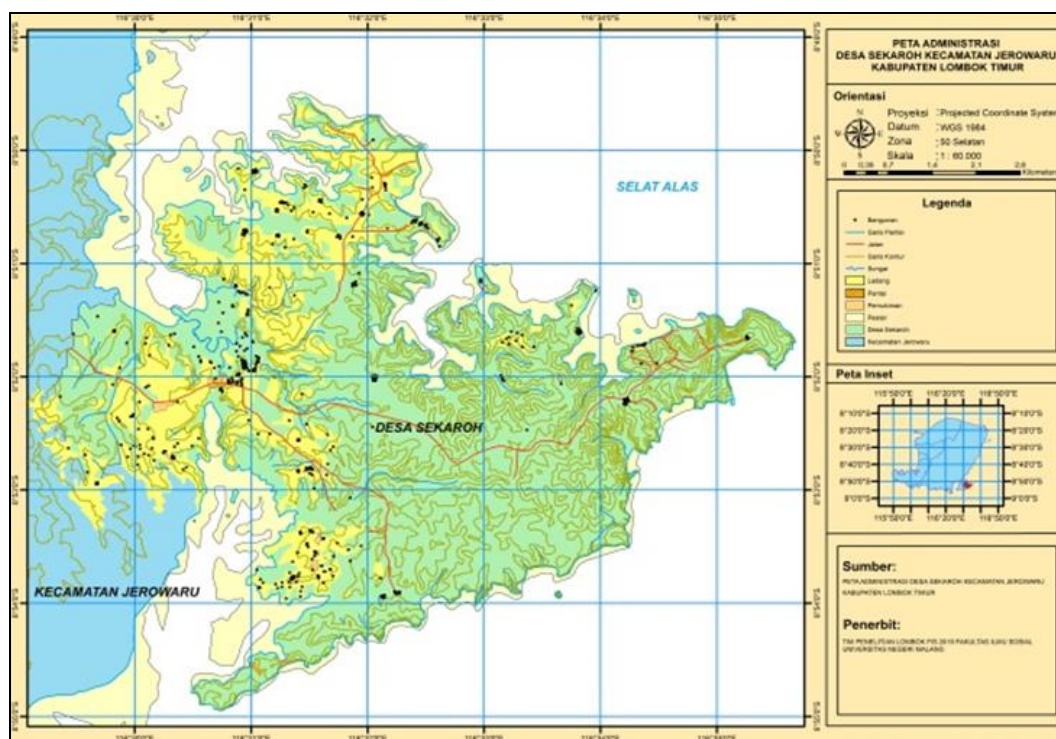


Figure 1. Map of Sekaroh Village, Jerowaru-East Lombok, Indonesia
(Source: BPS East Lombok, 2019)

In terms of accessibility, Tangsi Beach (Pink Beach) is 80 km from the center of Mataram City with an estimated relative distance of 2.5 hours. The beauty of the pink beach is an asset for the region in particular considering the uniqueness of the pink beach which is one of the seven beaches in the world and one of the two beaches in Indonesia with pink sand (Permadi et al., 2018; Saufi et al., 2019).

Pink Beach is located in Sekaroh Village, which is one of the 15 villages in the Jerowaru District, East Lombok. Administratively, Sekaroh is a village formed by

Pemongkong Village in the same sub-district. The village consists of seven hamlets including Pengoros, Aro Inak, Ujung Gol, Ujung Ketangga, Telone, Sunut, and Transmigration. Geographically, Sekaroh is a coastal area with elevations ranging from 0 - 12 meters above sea level, has an annual rainfall of 600 mm/year and average temperature ranges from 30 - 40 °C. Demographic conditions range from 4821 inhabitants spread across seven hamlets. The total number of family heads who live in Sekaroh reaches 1863 families. In terms of livelihoods, in general, there are two leading potential economic sectors of society such as agriculture and tourism. Agriculture includes both land agriculture (rice fields and fields) and marine farming (ponds).

Leading potential tourism associated with the tourism sector both natural and artificial is the Pink Beach area (Tangsi Beach). The prospect of developing the tourism sector in the Tangsi beach area is very high. Various natural resources and educational tours based on historical tourism are essential aspects that become tourist attractions. According to Fadrika in Rayadi (2016) Tangsi Beach has a regional suitability index of 84.61%. This means that the area has high potential as a tourist attraction.

Furthermore, from the disaster aspect Rayadi (2016) through his research entitled "Potential Study for Ecotourism in Tangsi Beach, East Lombok Regency, West Nusa Tenggara Using Swot Analysis" includes the attribute of disaster as one of the elements of threats in addition to competition with other tourism objects. Thus, it is necessary to study the condition of Tangsi Beach community preparedness in order to accelerate the development of tourism based on disaster mitigation.

Community Preparedness

Preparedness is a crucial element in disaster. This element becomes an important parameter for assessing how much the community in the affected area reduces disaster risk. Various efforts both in the implementation of the concept of mitigation structurally and non-structurally became the main priority in community preparedness in the interaction with disaster. The emphasis on community preparedness is rooted in the people who experience and are affected exclusively about disasters.

Thus, it is necessary to develop a disaster mitigation framework concerning community-based disaster risk reduction. The community preparedness framework is needed as a standard to find out what needs to be prepared before, a moment, and immediately after a disaster occurs (Hidayati, 2008). This framework is used as a tool to assess the extent of community preparedness in an area (Houston et al., 2019). This framework has been based on the LIPI-UNESCO / ISDR standard in 2006, which includes knowledge and attitudes, policies, emergency response plans, disaster warning systems, and resource mobilization (Paramesti, 2011).

Knowledge and Attitude

Knowledge is a series of processes in humans by utilizing all the sensing components in interpreting certain phenomena. In general, knowledge gives a picture to humans about a past phenomenon to be used as a lesson in the future. Disaster knowledge is the ability to remember events or series of events that threaten and disrupt people's lives and livelihoods caused by both natural and non-natural factors as well as human factors that can cause human casualties, environmental damage, property losses, and psychological impacts (Adiwijaya, 2017).

In the aspect of knowledge about disasters, people around Tangsi Beach are only able to explain the definition of disaster and the types of general natural conditions that cause disasters. Communities around Tangsi Beach, on the aspect of knowledge about disasters, are only able to explain the definition of disaster and the types of general natural conditions that cause disasters. Respondents explained that the area was only affected by several disasters in the low category. Whereas, according to the BNPB (2017)

disaster risk index in Sekaroh, in general, and Tangsi Beach tourism area, in particular, were categorized as moderate to high with types of disasters including drought, forest fires, earthquakes, and tsunamis. All types of disasters have the potential risk of impacting people's lives (Nolet, 2016; Rindrasih et al., 2018; Van Manen et al., 2015).

In general, respondents explained about the disasters around Tangsi Beach that community knowledge was the result of the reconstruction of life experiences. The lack of experience of disasters in people's lives makes the community seem to rule out the risk of disasters that can occur at any time. This is theoretically confirmed that the absence of one's experience, psychologically, will tend to be harmful towards the object and personal attitudes are formed based on the strong impression experienced by a person (Ningtyas, 2015). Experience gives a significant influence on community preparedness. The lack of experience has an impact on the low level of community response to the phenomenon of disaster. Yulkardi et al. (2012) found that there was a close relationship between experience and community attitudes that were manifested in community action systems in disaster-prone areas.

The description of receiving information about disaster content is also obtained only limited to the type of emergency response information from the relevant agencies or institutions, only information on the current condition of disaster phenomena in some spatial regions. Efforts to deepen the types of disasters that affect Tangsi Beach tourism area in terms of vulnerability, risk, and history of disasters, have not been undertaken by tourism managers and the community. Thus, the position of information literacy regarding disaster is needed especially for the preparedness of the community in disaster-prone areas. This is relevant to the findings of Marlyono et al. (2017) that information literacy has an impact on community preparedness of 46 percent. This means that the position of information literacy related to disaster holds almost 50 percent in the aspect of community preparedness in responding to disasters.

Policy Making

Regarding the policy parameters in community preparedness in responding to disasters, the form of the policy is a collective agreement. The geographical condition of Tangsi Beach, which is faced with hills in the coastal area is an alternative gathering point during the evacuation process. Community initiatives in the evacuation process are a form of community response in the spatial. In summary, these conditions can be explained by the behavior-environment interaction model in which the response to the environment is a form of mutual influence between moderator variables (social and individuals) as intermediaries and variable mediators (internal processes) as recipients (Veitch & Arkkelin, 1995). The results of these interactions are manifested in the results of evaluations or evaluations of mediator variables, whether the environment is rated as pleasant or unpleasant. In this context, the response of the community around the Tangsi beach to their environment illustrated the environmental conditions which were seen as pleasing (comfort and safety) in responding to disaster risks.

Emergency Response Plan

The community divided the emergency response plan into several indicators, including plans to respond to emergencies, evacuation plans, first aid, meeting basic needs, equipment and supplies, essential facilities, and preparedness training. For plans to respond to emergencies, the people of the Tangsi beach area, in general, are not optimally implemented. This is indicated by the absence of division of tasks and roles in emergencies. Distribution of its primary role in emergency response situations is needed to reduce the impact of disasters (Burger et al., 2019). The survey results on disasters that occurred in Japan (the Hanshin-Awaji 1995 earthquake) showed the importance of the division of roles in disasters. The percentage of survivors 34.9% was obtained from saving

themselves, 31.9% were helped by family members, 29.1% were helped by friends or neighbors, 2.60% were helped by passers-by, and 1.70% were helped by rescue teams.

The evacuation process is simple, only away from the coastal location at high tide. Regarding the evacuation plan, there are no maps, evacuation routes, even no unique places for evacuation during disasters around the beach. While relating to aspects of first aid based on observations is also not yet available. Furthermore, meeting basic needs was found to be very low. This is based on the low accessibility which is one of the obstacles for the Tangsi beach community. Connectivity with several vital facilities such as hospitals, fire stations, police stations, drinking water companies, electricity, and telecommunications makes the community have low preparedness. Related to simulation activities, informants stated that during their lives in the area the disaster simulation activity was never held. The unavailability of access to material and disaster preparedness education and the low frequency of training is closely related to accessibility (Kachali et al., 2018).

Disaster Warning System

Indicators of community preparedness in responding to disasters consist of traditional, technology, dissemination of warnings and mechanisms, as well as exercises and simulations. Traditionally people know various characteristics of disasters based on spatial conditions such as tides seen from the full moon and the rotation and revolution of the earth towards other celestial objects. Technologically, they use digital literacy related to high disaster information. The use of various disaster-related applications as well as an understanding of the messages conveyed about disaster is also implemented by the community. This is relevant to the findings of Asteria (2016) that in brief the role of information in the aspect of disaster has a function as socialization and education to shape community preparedness for disasters. The obstacle in the disaster warning system lied in the dissemination of warnings, mechanisms, and simulations.

Geographical conditions that are not supported with relatively difficult outreach become their obstacles in community preparedness. Geographical conditions that tend to isolate people from the outside world are both obstacles and challenges. This is consistent with the findings of Sudibyakto (2018) that one of the characteristics of a disaster location is always associated with difficult accessibility. This situation has an impact on the socialization process which is only limited to obtaining information digitally, and usually the frequency of access to obtain disaster warning information is shallow. In addition, another finding is that evacuation route maps, disaster risk maps, installation and EWS (Early Warning System) applications based on field observations were not found. The implementation of various media in the warning system is also essential in the aspect of disaster. In the Tangsi coast area, it was found that the use of various media warning systems was very minimal. The lack of a warning system in disaster-prone areas will have a significant impact on community preparedness. There is a positive relationship between the existence of an early warning system on community preparedness for disasters (Anwar, 2012; Oloruntoba et al., 2018; Rindrasih et al., 2018). In this case, the position of the warning system plays a vital role in community preparedness.

Mobilization of Resources

Resource Mobilization, in general, is related to human resource management in disaster reviews. The purpose of the procurement of human resource management is to increase the resilience of the disaster area community. The role of socialization and education both from the community and related institutions is needed. In this context, it has not yet emerged in the Tangsi Beach tourist area either in terms of human resources or funding. The community only relied on the existence of a tourism awareness group (POKDARWIS), which incidentally was limited to the tourism sector rather than disaster. The purpose of Pokdarwis is as a government partner in increasing public awareness in

the field of tourism, increasing human resources, encouraging the realization of “Sapta Pesona” (security, order, beauty, coolness, cleanliness, hospitality, and memories), improving the quality of tourism products in order to improve competitiveness of tourism business (Nurmayasari, 2017). The effectiveness of socialization from government institutions has not been maximal yet. The socialization and education process did not reach the Tangsi Coast community. This condition gives rise to negative perceptions of related institutions such as low public trust in government institutions. Sociologically, the situation experienced by people in the Tangsi Coast region is closely related to social functioning. Social functioning will develop if individuals are satisfied with roles in their lives, and are satisfied with relationships with others. In this case, the government has not yet played its role optimally, and this has an impact on community preparedness especially concerning information disclosure (Appleby-Arnold et al., 2018; Houston et al., 2019; Raharjo, 2013). Acceptance of public outreach and education from the government is one obstacle besides the accessibility factor in preparedness.

The management of the tourism area is legally managed by the Forestry Service considering that geographically the Tangsi Coast area is surrounded by protected forest based on Minister of Forestry Decree No. 8214/kpts-II/2002. The historical point of view of the Sekaroh community, which has a long-standing conflict over land rights has also become a mindset that is embedded in people's lives. The problem of uneven development until the impact of the 2018 earthquake in Lombok also became another cause of the low public trust in the government. People who are affected by disasters often reject efforts to control or order them (Pramono, 2016; Sutton & Tierney, 2006).

CONCLUSION

Tourism Development needs to pay attention to community preparedness in responding to disasters. Meeting the basic needs of the community contributes more to the responsiveness of the community in preparing for disasters. Equitable development is a critical factor in community preparedness and regional resilience both physically and economically. The linkage between disaster and tourism positively provides its primary influence concerning tourist visits which impacts on declining regional income, primary revenue in the tourism sector. Integration between stakeholders plays an essential role in the creation of community preparedness in the scope of disaster including tourism.

Aknowlegments

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AN ANALYSIS OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF TOURISM ON ECONOMIC GROWTH IN SOUTH AFRICAN PROVINCES: A PANEL ANALYSIS

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Abstract: The snail-paced growth of South Africa's economy has become a major concern. If not addressed, it has the ability of causing a technical recession. Despite this economic epidemic, the researchers contend that the tourism sector has a pivotal starring role to play in alleviating the stagnant economic growth in all the South African provinces. Thus, the aim of the study was to explore the role of tourism on economic growth. In achieving the study's aim, the study employed a panel regression analysis from 1996-2018. The study outcomes show a positive association among infrastructure index, tourism receipts, number of local, international tourists and economic growth. Therefore, the study recommends that the factors of production be shifted to the tourism industry for high productivity.

Key words: Tourism, South Africa, provinces, panel analysis, economic growth

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INTRODUCTION

The economic structure in several developing and emerging economies is shifting from traditional sectors such as agriculture and manufacturing to modern sectors such as tourism contributing a larger stake in developing countries. This shift is largely attributed to globalization, thus, developing countries have accepted the gospel of a structural change model (Brelík, 2018). The structural change model claims that developing countries should focus on sectors such tourism and financial services because of their high productivity (Mihajlović, 2014). This assertion has also been confirmed by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) which noticed an increase in the number of tourism activities in developing countries over the past decade (WTO, 2019a). Government authorities have applauded the diversification tourism has brought in their economies (Kum et al., 2018).

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Zhuang et al. (2019) noted that government authorities have realized that tourism has become one of the major sources of positive externalities since its relevance is witnessed in infrastructure development, job opportunities and poverty alleviation. The contribution of the tourism industry is ultimately transmuted to economic growth. For instance, the tourism sector contributes more than 10 percent to the world's economic growth (WTO, 2019b). This finding is in line with other Southern African countries such as Seychelles, Mauritius, South Africa and Tanzania (World Travel & Tourism, 2019). The organization further mentions that there is an increase in tourism in the region. The aforementioned issues raise the crucial interrogation: does tourism play a role on economic development?

The interrogation whether tourism plays a role to economic growth is crucial. The answer to this question is twofold, that is, the complementary and substitutive view. The complementary view subscribes to the idea that tourism provides foreign currency in the economy accounted as receipts from tourists' consumption (Chulaphan & Barahona, 2018). The foreign currency is then used to buy capital goods from other countries and improves the economic growth. The complementary view further stipulates that tourism leads to an improvement in the fiscal sector due to an increase in investment and revenue from infrastructure investment (Kum et al., 2018). There are stylized facts which argue infrastructure development leads to multiplier effects by creating employment which in turn improves household disposable income leading to economic growth (Adobayo & Iweka, 2014). The complimentary view also subscribes to the idea that tourism provides mentoring services to local small firms (Shi & Smith, 2012). The local firms get to enjoy economies of scale that enables them to grow big and reduce their cost of production. On the other hand, the substitutive view shares the notion that expenditure by foreign tourists changes the local buying patterns that are inflationary in nature (Kum et al., 2018).

Furthermore, tourist activities cause negative externalities such as pollution and congestion. The consequences of these outcomes are usually felt in the long run and are manifested land degradation, water and air pollution among others. There is therefore need to create a balance between short run monetary gains and long term non-monetary costs.

It is established knowledge in South Africa that economic growth has been stagnant for the past few years, oscillating between 1.3% in 2017, 0.7% in 2018 and around 1.5% in 2019 (South Africa Reserve Bank, 2020). This has been an issue of concern among researchers. South Africa's economic growth is projected to grow to 1.5 percent in the year 2019 (StatsSA, 2019a). However, the economic growth of 1.5 percent is not enough to sustain the highly populated South Africa. Nevertheless, holding all other things constant, tourism is supposed to be the catalyst to economic growth since the National Treasury (2019a) has identified the sector as one that was exempted from the effects of macroeconomic shocks. The second issue of concern relates to the available writings on economic growth and tourism. Of note is that there is scant literature on tourism and economic growth in Africa, specifically in South Africa. The few scholars that attempted to investigate the relationship focused on a time-series analysis and used variables such as tourism expenditure and the number of tourists to measure tourism (Bandula, 2015; Yusuff & Akinde, 2015; Alhowaish, 2016; Kum et al., 2018). However, the current study shifts the attention from the number of tourists to local and international tourists. Moreover, the study has included the infrastructure development related to tourism that was not used by other researchers. According to the knowledge of the author, there is no study that scrutinized the connection between economic growth and tourism in the provinces of South Africa. Simply put, the current study's main objective is to study the contribution of tourism on economic growth in the South African provinces. The paper organized as follows. Section 2 discusses the nature of tourism in South Africa. Section three is the literature of the study, while data and methods are discussed in section four. The discussion of results is discussed in section five and the conclusion in section 6.

TOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa is naturally endowed in such a strategic geolocation to an extent that Cape Town residents witness the natural wonder of the waters of the Indian and Atlantic Ocean meeting without blending. This is symbolic of its position in both Africa and the rest of the world where South Africa has the privilege of sharing its border with several southern African countries whilst at the same time enjoying the economic benefits of accessing the two oceans. This gives it a comparative advantage of directly linking with other continents and countries such as Brazil and other South American economies which are also to some extent transitional economies; developed economies like the United States of America (USA) and the European Union (EU). At the micro level, South Africa has one of the most diverse tourist attraction centres ranging from beautiful beaches, mountains, wildlife reserves, cities and among others. Complimentary to this is its rich history and diverse culture demonstrated by its adaptation of eleven official languages.

Preceding 1994, South Africa's economy was dominated by traditional sectors such as mining and agriculture. After 1994, the economic, social and political scenery changed drastically. Modern sectors began to kick-in due to globalization (Krige, 2019). South Africa turned out to be one of the best tourist destinations in the continent. This is illustrated by an increase in the number of tourists in the country (Winchester, 2018).



Figure 1. Number of Tourists in South Africa (Source: PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2019)

Figure 1 shows a substantial increase of tourists in South Africa. For instance, in the year 1994, the number of tourists was recorded at 3.9 million but had significantly increased to over 10 million in 2010. These changes could be attributable to the end of apartheid era and the subsequent hosting of the Rugby World Cup in 1996 and the Africa Cup of Nations in 1998. A survey conducted by the Department of Tourism (2019) reports that tourists come to South Africa for shopping, holiday and visiting their friends and relatives. Notable is a sharp rise from 2010-2011. There was a surge in the number of tourists due to the 2010 Soccer World Cup (idem). Major sporting events have a significant influence in placing the host nation in the limelight. The 2019 announcement by the International Netball Federation and Netball South Africa of the coming of the Netball World Cup in 2023 in Cape Town is likely to lead to a rise in tourist figures as indicated by the positive projections in the figure below. From 2010-2018 a noteworthy growth in the number tourists is noted. The number keeps on increasing since tourists visit places like Table Mountain, Nelson Mandela Gateway,

Mangaung Cultural festival, Kruger National Park, Game parks just to mention a few (DOT, 2018). Department of Tourism (DoT) conducted another survey on the reasons that lead tourists to prefer South Africa as their destination. The findings were that South Africa provides first-class tourism services. The survey also found that South Africa is naturally attractive with affordable tourism activities to accompany its attractive tourist sites. Economists and researchers further forecast that the number of tourists will increase to 20 million by 2023. Worth noting is that the majority of tourists are from the Netherlands, United States of America, France, the United Kingdom and Germany (StatsSA, 2019b). This forecast is in line with the World Travel and Tourism (2019) which predicted the doubling in the number of tourists in the next decade.

An increase in tourists is a good indicator as it has the potential of creating employment and improving economic growth in the country. The National Treasury (2019b) reported that tourism adds at least 3 percent to economic growth of South Africa. The organization further reports that tourism is the accelerated rising sector in the country, region and worldwide. These findings are in line with the National Development Plan (NDP) of 2030. The first objective of the NDP clearly stipulates that South Africa's economic growth must improve by 2030 and tourism should be a vehicle to this economic growth (StatsSA, 2019a). Currently, tourism in South Africa is strong in entertainment services, accommodation, transport and food subsectors World Travel and Tourism (2019). The state of the art road, rail and air transport networks give South Africa a huge comparative advantage over its African counterparts. Notable also is the fact that the sub-sectors linked to tourism have contributed about 10 percent to employment (DoT, 2017). The numbers are expected to double in the next coming decade (StatsSA, 2019b).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The connection of economic growth and the tourism sector can be argued using the Keynesian multiplier model. The tourism sector should be treated as the exogenous variable since it is one of the accelerating rising sectors (Kum et al., 2018; WTO, 2019). The Keynesians theorists argue that the proceeds from tourism could transform the economy through the multiplier effect (Brelík, 2018). Thus, an increase in the number of tourism activities generates income that is invested back into the economy, thereby creating employment (Kim, 1998). Employment generates wages for the people involved in the production processes and the wages are injected again in the economy. If done repeatedly, this process could result in job creation and an increase in economic growth.

Furthermore, an improvement in the tourism sector further improves other primary and secondary sectors. However, it is critical to understand that the multiplier model works under the assumption of exogeneity. Thus, in this sense, the Keynesian model does not fully explain the relationship because tourist activities should have generated by factors which are independent of government policy like natural factors, for example, the Table Mountain. In reality, endogenous factors such as government policy will always have significant influence on tourism and economic growth.

A majority of the studies seem to point to a positive association between economic growth and tourism (Bandula, 2015; Yusuff & Akinde, 2015; Alhowaish, 2016; Kum et al., 2018). In fact, a positive relationship between the two variables is a generally accepted stylized fact. A few studies show an inverse association between economic growth and tourism (Chou, 2013; Samimi et al., 2013). Ekanayake and Long (2012) conducted a study that found no link between the two variables. More specifically, a study conducted by Yusuff and Akinde (2015) in Nigeria explored the role of tourism on economic growth. The authors employed time series techniques from 1995-2013. The results revealed a

positive association between tourism development and economic growth in the long-run. However, the authors observed an inverse relationship in the short-run. The authors argued that tourism development yields fruits after a long period since the short run is usually associated with huge sunk costs such as investment in infrastructure and high advertisement costs in international markets. Bandula (2015) arrived at the same conclusion after using the cointegration analysis to investigate the effect of tourism on economic performance in Sri-Lanka. The author claims that tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors, thus, it improves economic growth. Interesting results were found by Ekanyake and Long (2012) who investigated the relationship between tourism development and economic growth in less developed countries. The study used the cointegration technique from 1995-2009 and found no relationship between these two variables. The authors argued that developing countries struggle to develop their tourism sectors as they barely manage to meet their basic needs. Balcilar et al. (2014) countered the argument claimed by Ekanyake and Long (2012) when he investigated the effect of tourism receipts on economic growth in South Africa. Balcilar et al. (2014) established that tourism positively influenced economic growth. The authors employed a Vector Error Correction Model and argued that tourism receipts play a significant role in improving the economic performance. The authors additionally claim that developing countries have natural attractiveness that is sufficient for income generation that improves economic growth.

Samimi et al. (2013) conducted a study to examine the role of tourism on economic growth. The authors used panel data from 1995-2009 and found that tourism inversely influenced economic growth. Shakouri et al. (2017) found contrary results from (Samimi et al., 2013). The authors used the panel data regressions focusing on tourism expenditure and tourism revenue in Asian countries. The study established a positive connection between total expenditure, tourism revenue and economic growth. Notable is that these two studies used different variables and models hence the results did not tally. However, the results of Sakhouiri et al. (2017) tallied with the study conducted by Shih and Do (2016) who examined the impact of tourism on long-run economic growth in Vietnam from 1995-2013. The study employed an ordinary least squares test and found tourism as a driving force to economic growth and development. Godveli and Derekci (2017) examined the relationship between tourism and economic growth in OECD countries.

The study was from 1997-2012 utilizing the panel cointegration tests. The study focused on 34 OECD nations. The outcomes of the study revealed a positive relationship between tourism and economic growth. Another study conducted in European countries showed different results (Chou, 2013). The study revealed a negative connection between economic growth and tourism. The overwhelming fact is that these studies were conducted in the same countries and used the same research methodology but found different results. However, Kim (1998) supported the results of Godveli and Derekci (2017). He argued that tourism is the catalyst to economic growth. The author arrived at this conclusion by the same methodology used by the aforementioned authors.

The other empirical evidence that established a positive relationship on tourism and economic growth includes that of (Akan et al., 2014; Lean et al., 2014; Ajvaz, 2015; Akighir, 2017). Ajvaz (2015) looked at the contribution of tourism on economic growth in Sweden. The study used panel analysis from 2003-2013 in 21 countries. Thus, the study results of the study illustrate a positive association between tourism and economic growth. Akighir (2017) used a different methodology to investigate the effect of tourism on economic growth in Malaysia and Singapore. The study used economic growth as a dependent variable while tourism receipts was an independent variable. International trade and exchange rate were used as control variables and established a positive

connection between tourism and economic growth. Akighir (2017) and Akan et al. (2014) used a time series analysis to examine the contribution of tourism on economic growth in Nigeria and Turkey respectively. The results of both studies found that tourism causes growth in both countries. The reviewed literature on tourism and economic growth shows an inverse and positive relationship between the two (Chou, 2013; Bandula, 2015; Yusuff & Akinde, 2015; Kum et al., 2018). These studies have focused on tourism receipts, tourism expenditure and number of tourists to measure tourism. However, this study contributes to the literature by using infrastructure index, international tourists and local tourists. Therefore, the next section discusses how these variables were measured.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Model Specification

Since the purpose of the study is to examine the contribution of tourism on economic growth, the study adopted the panel data analysis. The panel data analysis was deemed fit because it provides precise parameters on economic variables. Hsiao et al. (1995) propounds that panel data has less multi-collinearity challenges and is capable of simplifying the intricacies of human and economic behavior (Baltagi & Levin, 1986). On the other hand, a panel data analysis is complex when estimating the variables under study. Moreover, the panel data is expensive and mind-numbing (Baltagi, 2005). Important to note is that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages, thus the study employed panel data. The panel data model is specified below

$$GDPP = f(infrindex, inttour, loctour, tourec) \quad 1$$

This can be translated into panel form and equation 2 is formulated as:

$$\ln GDPP_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln infrindex_{it} + \beta_2 \ln inttour_{it} + \beta_3 \ln loctour_{it} + \beta_4 \ln tourec_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad 2$$

Where $\ln GDPP$ represents the economic growth in each province, $\ln infrindex$ is the infrastructure related to tourism in each province. $\ln inttour$ and $\ln loctour$ is the number of international and local tourists in each province respectively. $\ln tourec$ is the income from tourism activities in each province. All variables are in natural logarithms as indicated by $\ln(\chi)$, where χ is the variable. Components i and t represent provinces and time (years), respectively. β_{0-4} represents the coefficients estimated, ε is the error term and it represents panel data. The study employed secondary annual data from 1996-2018 that was sourced from Global Insight (2019). The data is for the nine provinces in South Africa namely: Eastern Cape, Gauteng, Limpopo, Free State, Northern Cape, North West, Mpumalanga, Kwazulu Natal and Western Cape. The data for these provinces' forms part of the panel data framework. The data includes economic growth, number of international tourists, number of local tourists, tourist receipts and infrastructure index. Of note is that economic growth was used as a dependent variable which is a measure of all goods and services produced in each province considering its population (Malik et al., 2010). On the other hand, the number of international and local tourists, tourism receipts and infrastructure index were used as independent variables. The number of international tourist's measures amount of international tourists coming South Africa, while local tourists are the number of all local tourists within each province (Ozcan et al., 2017). The study is expecting a positive association between the number of international tourists, local tourists and economic growth. Tourist receipts is the income from all tourism activities (Rogerson et al., 2018). The study expects a positive link between economic

growth and tourism receipts. The infrastructure index shows the number of infrastructure projects that are related to tourism in each province (Global Insight, 2019). The study expects a positive relationship between economic growth and infrastructure index.

Pre and post estimation tests

Pre- and post-estimation tests were conducted prior to interpretation of results. Firstly, panel stationarity tests were conducted to assess the variables' order of integration. Three methodologies namely Levin, Lin and Chu (LLC), Im, Peseran, Shin (IPS) and ADF tests (Maddala & Wu, 1999) were used in complementary fashion to ensure robustness of results. These tests assume that all the cross-sections are independent in nature and they deal with the autocorrelation problem Maddala & Wu, 1999; Levin et al., 2002). The tests set their null hypothesis on unit root test and if the hypothesis of unit test is recognized then the variable is not stationary. Equally, if the null hypothesis is rejected then the variable is stationary (Garidzirai et al., 2019). The standard panel unit root test is specified by Maddala and Wu (1999) is illustrated in the equation 3 below.

$$\Delta Y_{it} = \rho_i \Delta_{i,t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{\rho_1} \sigma_{i,j} \Delta Y_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad 3$$

Where ρ_i undertakes that all the cross-sections are the same, while change in Y represents a difference term and ε is the error term. Notable is that the results of the panel stationarity specify whether researchers should employ cointegration tests or not. The rule of thumb is that when the variables are integrated at order one then the cointegration analysis can be employed. Secondly, the panel cointegration analysis was suggested by Pedroni (1999). The main aim of the test is to check for the association among variables. To achieve the objective, the study employed the Pedroni cointegration. The Pedroni panel permits the slopes of the equation and heterogeneity in the intercepts (Ekanyake & Long, 2012). The Pedroni cointegration has seven tests that it uses to check if the long-run association between variables exists.

This includes the panel v statistic, panel Phillips-Perron type p-statistic, Panel Phillips Perron type t-statistics, Panel Augmented Dickey-Fuller statistics and Group Phillips-Perron type p-statistics, Group Phillips-Perron type t-statistics and Group Phillips-Perron ADF statistics (Pedroni, 1999). Important to note is that, if the p-values of the aforementioned tests are less than 10 percent the null hypothesis of no cointegration is rejected. Thus, the variables are cointegrated and the study proceeds to test a long-run relationship. The panel econometrics literature suggested the use of FMOLS and DOLS if the variables under study are cointegrated.

Hence, the current study employed both the Panel Dynamic Ordinary Least Square and Dynamic Ordinary Least Squares. The advantages of employing these two techniques is that they deal with heterogeneity among individuals, eliminates individual short-run disturbances and regulates the problem of endogeneity (Pedroni, 2004).

Panel Granger Causality Analysis and Cross dependency test

Thirdly, the study also conducted the panel granger analysis as proposed by Engle and Granger (1987) to solve heterogeneity and cross-sectional dependency issues (Shakhouri et al., 2017). Probability values of the w-stat and z-bar which are less than 10% indicates that variables homogenously cause each other while probability values greater than 0.05 using Pearson CD, Lagrange Multiplier and Breusch Chi-Square indicates that the model is free from cross-sectional dependency problems (Garidzirai et al., 2019). Having observed the following, the study concluded that the model was fit and results were robust and fit for interpretation.

Empirical Results

Panel Unit Root Tests

The panel unit root results are illustrated in table 1. In general, all the variables under study were stationary at first difference and integrated at order one.

Table 1. Panel Unit Root Test

Variables	LLC	IPS	ADF
lnGDPP	2.25346	-0.58237	22.9679
	0.9879	0.2802	0.1918
D(lnGDPP)	-2.25400	-4.46199	52.5920
	(0.0121)**	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***
lnnfrindex	-0.91909	1.41855	12.4607
	1.7900	0.9220	0.8226
D(lnnfrindex)	0.03973	-1.76010	29.9843
	0.5158	(0.0392)**	(0.0376)**
lnInttour	0.75993	-2.22536	15.8381
	0.7764	0.4108	0.6038
D(lnInttour)	3.63273	-2.89097	38.7738
	0.9999	(0.0019)***	(0.0031)***
lnloctour	4.71794	2.23181	11.2816
	1.0000	0.9872	0.8820
D(lnloctour)	2.54054	2.32645	32.4236
	0.9945	(0.0100)**	(0.0196)**
Intourrec	0.17692	0.65368	12.9365
	0.5702	0.7433	0.7953
D(Intourrec)	6.64138	-4.11681	50.8162
	1.0000	(0.0000)***	(0.0000)***

Note **, *** represents 10% and 5% significance level respectively

Since the panel stationarity results indicate variables that are integrated at 1(1), a panel cointegration model can be estimated and analysed. Thus, the next section discusses the panel cointegration analysis.

Panel Cointegration Results

Table 2 illustrates the panel cointegration results. The results show that four out of seven tests are showing a long-run relationship among tourism and economic growth at a 1 and 10 percent level of significance. Therefore, the results illustrate an overwhelming evidence of a long-run relationship of the variables under study. Since the panel cointegration results show that the variables are cointegrated, the study employed the FMOLS and DOLS. The next paragraph discusses the nature of the long-run relationship.

Table 2. Panel cointegration results

With Dimension			Between Dimension		
	Statistics	p-values		Statistics	p-values
Panel v stat	0.61871	0.2681	Group rho stat	1.83867	0.9670
Panel rho stat	0.60654	0.7279	Group pp stat	-1.34425	0.0894*
Panel pp stat	-1.62922	0.0516**	Group ADF stat	-3.20749	0.0007***
Panel ADF stat	-2.82965	0.0023***			

Note*, **, *** represents 10%, 5% and 1% significance respectively

The panel cointegration results have confirmed a long-run association between the variables. Thus, the study employed both the Fully Modified Ordinary Squares (FMOLS) and the Dynamic Ordinary Least Squares (DOLS). The results of these models are shown

in table 3. For instance, the influence of infrastructure index was found to be positive (9.26) and statistically important at 5 percent using the FMOLS. Therefore, a 1 percent increase in the infrastructure index causes a rise of 9.26 percent in economic growth. The same results were obtained by Shih & Do (2016) in Vietnam. The authors concurred that infrastructure development leads to an improvement in economic growth.

The impact of international tourists on economic growth was also found to be positive (0.17027) and statistically significant at 5 percent. Accordingly, a 1 percent increase in the number of international tourists improves economic growth by 0.17 percent in South African provinces. In other words, international tourists have a role to play in improving economic growth since they provide South Africa with foreign currency to buy capital goods. The results are in line with the studies conducted by Shakhouri et al., (2017), Akighir & Aaron (2017). The study concluded that international tourism is the vehicle to economic growth in developing countries. The FMOLS results illustrates that local tourism contributes to economic growth. This relationship was found to be statistically significant at 1 percent. Hence, a 1 percent increase in the number of local tourists improves economic growth by 0.47 percent. Such a relationship was also found by Shih & Do (2016). The researchers concluded that local tourists play a role in economic building of the country. The link between tourism receipts and economic growth was found to be positive in both models but statistically insignificant in the FMOLS model. For DOLS, the link between tourism and economic growth was statistically significant at 1 percent level. Consequently, a one percent increase in tourism receipts improves economic growth by 0.45 percent. The rationale is that the spending by tourists creates jobs that give residents income to spend and improve the number of goods and services produced in a country. The results were also found by tourism experts such as Lean et al. (2014) and Ajvaz (2014).

Table 3. Long-run analysis

Variables	Coefficient	Standard error	t-statistics	P-value
FMOLS				
lnnfrindex	9.26	3.61E-08	2.5656	0.0111**
lnInttour	0.17027	0.0778	2.1864	0.0300**
lnloctour	0.46985	0.08037	5.8458	0.0000***
Intourrec	0.06805	0.04530	1.5023	0.1347
DOLS				
lnnfrindex	1.69E-07	5.70E-08	2.96022	0.0044***
lnInttour	0.19875	0.091969	2.18238	0.0331**
lnloctour	-0.019451	0.172291	-0.11289	0.9105
Intourrec	0.44983	0.145765	3.08596	0.0031***

Note**, *** represents 5% and 1% significance level respectively

Table 4. Cross-section dependency test results

Test	P-values
B-Pagan Ch-Square	0.0000***
Pearson LM	0.8832
Pearson CD	0.3487

Note*** represents 1% significance level

Cross Dependency Test

The cross-sectional dependency test was employed and the results are illustrated in table 4. The Pearson CD, Breusch-Pagan Chi-Square and Pearson LM results show the absence of cross-section dependency and emphasize that the model used in this study was stable and produced robust results. In realizing the study's objective set in section one, the study examined the influence of tourism sector on economic growth in

the South Africa provinces. The study measured tourism using the tourism infrastructure, tourism receipts and the number of local and international tourists.

The main aim was to assess whether these variables influenced economic growth. To achieve the objective, the study employed the FMOLS and DOLS. The FMOLS and DOLS reveal a positive relationship between tourism infrastructure, local tourists, international tourists, tourism receipts and economic growth. The cross-sectional dependency tests show that the results of the study were robust and the model was stable.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In a globalized world, tourism is envisaged to be a catalyst to economic growth. Thus, the study examined the link between tourism and economic growth using a provincial panel analysis. The purpose of the study was to enhance the existing literature on tourism and economic growth by employing the panel regression from 1996-2018. The panel cointegration established a long run relationship between tourism and economic growth. Therefore, the study recommends that the government adopts the structural change model as it has high productivity. In terms of opportunities for further research, the study recommends inclusion of qualitative variables such as quality of tourism activities and duration of stay.

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THE IMPERATIVES OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE TOURIST SERVICES MARKET IN SPATIAL POLARIZATION OF THE REGIONAL TOURIST SYSTEM

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Abstract: The article deals with the imperatives of the development of the tourist services market, which determines the parameters of the aggregate value of the sub-indices of the meso- and local levels in the spatial polarization of the regional tourist system. The methodology of spatial polarization of the regional tourist system, which provides convergence of the infra-structural space of tourist services, formation of an innovative nucleus, minimization of manifestation of destructive factors, balancing of interests of regions and the country as a whole is substantiated. It has been proposed the scientific-methodical approach to the definition of the target landmarks for the development of the tourist services market, which implements polarized tourist space in terms of quantitative and qualitative parameters, makes it possible to analyze the destructive determinants of the periphery and determinants-producers of the tourist center of activity, evaluation

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and forecasting of the safe level of the hierarchy of the regional tourist system, determination of clear impulses for the development of the tourist services market and density of interaction of the periphery with the center. Revenues from the sale of tourist services of local level enterprises have been analyzed. A comprehensive approach to the assessment of the concentration of the aggregate value of the security index of the regional tourist system, which is differentiated by the components of the regional security potential and threats, guarantees the development of the tourist services market and modifies the tourist system on the meso-level as a whole.

Key words: tourism revenues, tourism expenditures, tourism product, innovation potential, security index

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INTRODUCTION

The development of the tourist market of states is based on the spatial, resource, production and consumer potentials of specific territories. Under favorable conditions and adequate levers of state support, the territories are capable of providing the increase in innovative capacity and are able to activate the regional tourist system, which is the main catalyst for the rise of socio-economic processes in the world. At the same time, the scale, dynamism, heterogeneity of tourist market development and transnationalization of tourism activity in the leading countries are predominantly elitist and have a significant impact on tourism in the periphery countries. It leads to uneven tourism demand in potentially identical tourist destinations, and the diverse impact of tourism on the socio-economic development of states leads to transformational shifts in the polarized regional system of the tourist market. Integrating international tourism processes and effective competing in the tourism market can only be done on the basis of exploiting all the possibilities of the regions, resources of the subjects of certain economic activities and spatial infrastructure of tourism, which largely depends on the doctrine of state development and targeted regional programs that generate innovative potential with a high level of technical and technological composition.

The study of the regional economy as an ontological and concrete component of social systems has been reflected in the works of Kocziszky et al. (2015), Timmer et al. (2019), Partridge (2017), Chen & Zeng (2018), Wood et al. (2017), Brailly (2016), Brozovic (2020), Cosenz et al. (2020), Cano Guervos (2020). Theoretical and applied aspects of tourist services market development are widely studied by such scientists as: Khalid, et al. (2020), Gorban (2017), Guryanova & Prokopovich (2013), Chi et al. (2020), Lohmatov (2011), Aleksushin et al. (2020), Spalding & Parrett (2019), Moiseeva (2018). The processes of spatial organization and spatial polarization of the tourist services market were studied by Avramchikova (2018), Bhola-Paul (2015), Brandão et al. (2019), Kisswani et al. (2020), Gorina (2016), Majewska & Truskolaski (2019), Krasavceva (2014), Maltseva (2016), Zarezadeh et al. (2019), Mitrofanov (2013), Çakmak et al. (2019).

Adoption of the axiom that the infrastructure components of the tourist services market, which change the parameters of functioning of certain spheres of economic activity is due to socio-economic, historical, cultural and geographical features of the meso-level, and their differentiated impact modernizes the process of preserving the potential of natural resources through innovative dominance, the level of potential of the regional tourist system. Therefore, there is an objective need to study the imperatives of the development of the tourist services market, which determine the

parameters of the aggregate value of the sub-indices of the meso- and local levels in the spatial polarization of the regional tourist system.

METHODOLOGY

Spatial polarization is an objective condition for the development of the tourist market, caused by differences in the distribution of natural resources, climatic features of the regions, cultural and historical conditionality and uneven placement of transport, communication, resort and recreational infrastructure, asymmetry of the distribution of resources. However, significant regional disproportion and spatial differentiation, uneven economic and social development of territorial entities lead to an imbalance between the economic growth rates of donor territories and recipient territories. Provision of polarization development of regions with the allocation and support of a network of powerful centers of local, regional and interregional levels is due, on the one hand, to the properties of natural resource potential, on the other hand, processes of financial, economic and political-legal character (Serrano et al., 2019).

In this regard, the development of the tourist services market, taking into account the polarizing aspects of the regional tourist system, is characterized by the presence of two parallel interrelated tendencies: on the one hand, the undoubted influence of the economic space (the environment of the existence of the regional tourist system) and the resources of the subjects of tourist services, on the other hand – the simultaneous spread of its active influence on the space of its functioning, through a complex of interconnected tourist subsystems, ordered by certain qualities of the system.

The methodology of spatial polarization of the regional tourist system implies convergence of the infrastructure space of tourist services, formation of an innovative nucleus, minimization of manifestation of destructive factors, balancing of interests of regions and the country as a whole. The heterogeneous spatial hierarchy of the regional tourist system in the form of a nucleus (center) of concentration of tourist activity determines the financial, investment, information and technological opportunities of the tourist services market and shapes the dynamics of tourist flows (revenues from tourism). The cumulative effect and dynamism of these factors leads to a change in the position of the nucleus and, accordingly, of the spatial framework of the tourist services market, thus transforming the relationship between the center and the periphery.

It should be noted that the hierarchy of centers of tourist space is the result of center-peripheral relations, which are manifested at all spatial levels in the following forms: the center and periphery of the world economy (macro-level), central and peripheral regions of regional (meso-level) and local (micro) levels. Spatially polarized regional system, which ensures the development of the tourist services market, substantiates the patterns of interaction between the nucleus and the periphery. The nucleus controls material, financial, innovation, information flows, applies new technologies and processes, possesses more sophisticated forms of work, is a “provider of intellectual resources”, it generates innovation (Tolstoguzov, 2012). Thus, the constant dominance of the center over the periphery ensures the continuity of innovative activity: the center has the most intense and close contacts, better access to information.

The periphery has both an internal (near) spatial connection to the nucleus (directly receiving impulses to development), and an external or distant (deep) connection to which the nucleus has virtually no mobilizing effect. Center and periphery at any spatial level are interconnected flows of information, capital, goods and labor.

It is the direction of these flows that determine the nature of the interaction between the central and peripheral structures, transforming the space into a semblance

of a force field. Length and distance between the center and the periphery are important in the degree of power of influence and density of interaction.

The interaction of the nucleus and the periphery with the diffusion of innovations is seen as the process of expanding the territory covered by technical, technological, economic, environmental, social and other innovations. In a negative sense, this process is determined as a diffusion of outdated innovations, which contributes to a certain development of the periphery, but consolidates its subordinate position towards the center (Shablyj & Soxaczka, 2012), which leads to the impulse to maintain uneven development. Schematically the interaction of the center and the periphery within the economic space of the regional tourist system is presented in Figure 1.

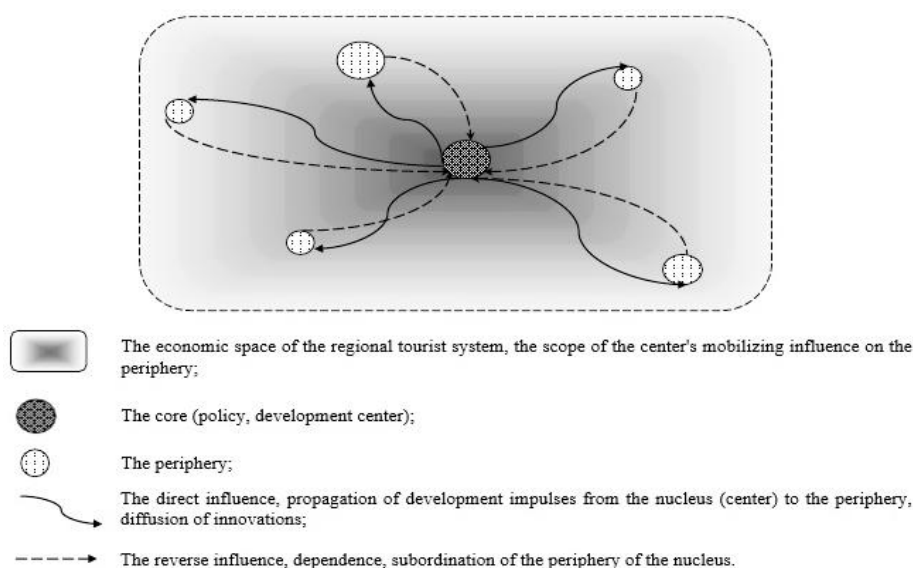


Figure 1. Interaction between the center and the periphery within the economic space of the regional tourist system (Source: developed by the authors)

Within the framework of the economic environment of the regional tourist system, a scientific and methodological approach to determining the target landmarks for the development of the tourist services market is proposed, which implements polarized tourist space in terms of quantitative and qualitative parameters on the basis of methodological tools, thus enabling:

- analysis of destructive determinants of the periphery and determinants-producers of the center, by identifying specific threats and risks of the formation of the tourist services market, ensuring the optimal composition of factors that can reduce the gap with the center of the tourist space (regional tourism system) or join its architecture;
- reduction of time spent on structural restructuring of the economic space of the regional system through minimization of the involved tourism resources, intensification and optimization of the positive effect of the defined space;
- assessing the level of the hierarchy of the regional tourist system due to the intensity of the momentum of tourist market development and the nature of innovation diffusion;
- predicting the safe level of functioning of the regional tourist system and identifying clear impulses for the development of the tourist services market, reducing the gap and increasing the powerful impact on the density of interaction of the periphery with the center.

The scientific and methodological approach that underlies the methodology of spatial polarization of the regional tourist system is recommended to be considered on the basis of 5 stages.

Step 1. Determining the level of the regional tourist system (scale of the tourist services market) to evaluate transformations in the polarized structure of the tourist space at the level of tourist meso-regions (sub-regions).

Step 2. Formation of a system of indicators, which are transformed into indicative parameters of the development of the tourist services market using a multifactor matrix. The first parameter is the intensity of international tourist flows (ITF). The second parameter is an integral indicator of the development of the tourist services market (I), which forms the aggregate value of sub-indices by the following indicators: tourism revenues, tourism contribution to GDP, capital investment in tourism, expenditures related to inland tourism, expenditures concerning inbound tourism.

To bring different indicators of tourist services market development to the integral ones, they need to be normalized - to make the transition from absolute values to normalized values by the formula (Gorina, 2016):

$$P_i = \frac{P_i - P_{i(\min)}}{P_{i(\max)} - P_{i(\min)}} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

where, P_i – is the normalized value of the i -th index being analyzed; p_i – the value of the i -th index being analyzed; $P_{i(\max)}$ and $P_{i(\min)}$ – are respectively the maximum and minimum values of the i -th indicator being analyzed. The integral index is proposed to be determined by the formula (Gorina, 2016):

$$I = \sum_{i=1}^m P_i \times \alpha_i \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

where, I – is an integral indicator of the development of the tourist services market; m – the number of indicators analyzed; P_i – is the normalized value of the i -th indicator being analyzed; α_i – is the weight factor of the i -th indicator.

Weighting factors equal to one are determined by the expert method.

Stage 3. Increasing the efficiency of the development of the tourist market of the meso-region by increasing the economic results of the tourist entities for each unit of tourism costs for the service of one consumer of the package (voucher). This necessitates the introduction of a unified methodological approach to the polarization of costs and results of tourism activities of local entities, transforming the calculation of economic efficiency from a formal economic procedure into a vital, focused on the specific functioning of tourist operators and travel agencies in the economic space of the regional system.

The tour is a market product, a form of consumption of services, a measure of the realization of the purpose of the trip and at the same time the result of the activity of the tourist enterprise, the source of its profit. The route and the program of measures of life support of consumers is carried out during the journey from the conditions of safety and comfort at registration of tourist services. (Kim & Bramwell, 2019). In this case, the tour package program represents the cost of tour operators for the services of third-party organizations, that is, a list of services provided for safety and comfort in meeting the needs of the consumer: accommodation; transport service; hotel and transport

reservations; food; transfer (airport pick-up and return to the hotel); excursion service; insurance of tourists; health care; visa services and other expenses related to tourist travel; cultural, entertainment, sports services; service of guides, interpreters and accompanying groups, etc (Voskresenska, 2013).

Given the above conditions, the calculation of tourist costs for the maintenance of one consumer of the package (voucher) is represented by the formula (Voskresenska, 2013):

$$Q_{tp} = \frac{C + P - D(+/-R)}{N + N''} \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

where, Q_{tp} – tourist costs for servicing one consumer of a tour package in national currency or conventional currency depending on the direction of the tour: domestic tour – in national currency; foreign – in conventional currency; combined - payments for tourist services within the state are made in national currency, outside it – in conventional currency; C – the main tourist expenses for services under the terms of the tour package; P – profit of the tourist operator; D – discounts provided by the tourist operator to the consumer for certain types of tour package services; $(+/-R)$ – a travel agency commission, where $(+)$ is a mark-up to the price of the tour package, and $(-)$ is a discount given to a travel agency by a travel operator; N – number of tourists in the group; N'' – number of people accompanying the group on this route.

Step 4. Modeling the development of the tourist services market based on the polarization of the innovative core of the meso- and local levels of the tourist system. This determines the degree of concentration of the trait, which is studied in accordance with the units of the aggregate or in assessing the uneven distribution. As the theory and practice of analyzing the proportionality of the distribution of economic indicators substantiates the relationship of distribution, in particular resources in the economic space of the tourist system (Ruan et al., 2019), so ensuring the proportionality of the innovation core of meso- and local levels streamlines the consistency of the distribution of innovative resources and results of activities of travel operators and travel agencies. At the same time, modeling of development of the tourist services market on a group basis implies the definition of clusters of innovative potential of tourism enterprises. The formalized process of constructing the proportionality models in a generalized form is presented as a correlation between the effective (the volume of tourist services sold in monetary terms) and the factor (cost of resources of innovative potential) features (Belhassen, 2020).

The consistency of proportions is dynamic. Revenues from the sale of tourist services will be marked as (q) , the cost of resources of innovative potential – W . The share of the cost of the volume of services provided by the i -th enterprise in the total amount will be (Davydova, 2015; Gerasymov et al., 2003; Gorodyskyj, 2007):

$$d_q = \frac{qi}{q} \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

share of cost of innovative potential resources (Davydova, 2015; Gerasymov et al., 2003; Gorodyskyj, 2007):

$$d_W = \frac{Wi}{W} \quad \text{Equation 5}$$

The ratio of shares of revenue from the sale of services and the cost of resources at enterprises as a coefficient of localization (K_{loc}), is calculated by the formula (Davydova, 2015; Gerasymov et al., 2003; Gorodyskyj, 2007):

$$K_{loc} = \frac{d_q}{d_W} \quad \text{Equation 6}$$

The coefficient of localization (K_{loc}) characterizes the ratio of the proportion of the productive trait to the fraction of the factor. If $K_{loc} < 1$, then there is an excess of growth in revenue from the sale of services over the proportional share of the factor trait (cost of resources of innovative potential), and vice versa. That is, the proportionality model consists of two indicators: the proportion of the productive trait d_{res} and the proportion of the factor trait d_{fac} . The corresponding localization factor is determined by the formula (Davydova, 2015; Gerasymov et al., 2003; Gorodyskyj, 2007):

$$K_{loc} = \frac{d_{res}}{d_{fac}} \quad \text{Equation 7}$$

The localization coefficients distinguish two groups with indicators $K_{loc} < 1$ and $K_{loc} > 1$, i.e. with different and positive values of proportionality of distribution. To determine their effect on the total concentration for each group of indicators, the sums of modules are calculated (Davydova, 2015; Gerasymov et al., 2003; Gorodyskyj, 2007):

$$D^- = \sum |d_{res} - d_{fac}| \quad \text{and} \quad D^+ = \sum |d_{res} - d_{fac}| \quad \text{Equation 8}$$

The indicators characterize the weight of the groups in the formation of both. The indicators characterize the weight of the groups in the formation of both excellent and added distribution characteristics and are used in the development of appropriate management decisions. For the summary characteristic of the proportionality of both distributions, we use the Lorentz concentration curve and, accordingly, the concentration coefficient. Constructing the Lorentz curve: it is calculated using the fraction of signs of resultant d_q and factor d_W . For each group, we calculate K_{loc} ; determine the ranks of enterprises by value K_{loc} ; build a table of distribution of the enterprise according to the values of ranks K_{loc} ; we calculate the series of cumulative values and construct the Lorentz curve on the basis of these values. If the Lorentz curve coincides with the line of uniform distribution, then the shares of the resultant and factor traits coincide. The more the Lorentz curve deviates from the line of uniform distribution, the more the distributions deviate from each other (Davydova, 2015).

The degree of concentration is determined by the concentration coefficient K_{conc} by the formula (Gerasymov et al., 2003; Gorodyskyj, 2007; Davydova, 2015):

$$K_{conc} = \frac{1}{2} \sum |d_y - d_x| = \frac{1}{2} \sum |d_q - d_W| \quad \text{Equation 9}$$

If $K_{conc} = 0$ – the distributions are the same; $K_{conc} > 1$ – there are significant

differences in the distribution. The dynamics of these characteristics allow us to determine the integral indicator of the intensity of revenues from the sale of tourist services and the integral indicator of the intensity of using the innovative potential of tourism enterprises as the cost of aggregate resources.

Step 5. Assessment of the safety level of the regional tourist system (RTS) based on proposed methodological approach that determines and provides spatial distribution of parameters of the aggregate value of subindices integrated into the overall indicator of potential and security threats, guarantees optimal criteria for the functioning of the RTS. At the same time, indicators of threats show the volume and scale of destructive processes and phenomena that increase the instability of RTS.

The mathematical formalization of the calculation of the total security index (S) of the regional tourist system is as follows (Krasavceva, 2014; Mason, 2003):

$$S_p = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{S_n - S_{(\min)}}{S_{(\max)} - S_{(\min)}} \quad \text{Equation 10}$$

where, S_p – is the integral security potential index of RTS; S_n – the numerical value of the security potential of RTS; $S_{(\min)}$, $S_{(\max)}$ – the minimum and maximum values from the corresponding data series; n – number of subindices being studied; i – the essence of the constituent subindices of the regional tourist system. Similarly, the total threat index (T) is calculated by the formula (Krasavceva, 2014; Mason, 2003):

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{T_n - T_{(\min)}}{T_{(\max)} - T_{(\min)}} \quad \text{Equation 11}$$

As the security index is interpreted as the difference between integral subindices of potential and security threats of RTS ($I_s^t = S - T$), the final formula for calculating the security index of a regional tourist system will be (Krasavceva, 2014; Mason, 2003):

$$I_{rts}^s = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{S_n - S_{(\min)}}{S_{(\max)} - S_{(\min)}} - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{T_n - T_{(\min)}}{T_{(\max)} - T_{(\min)}} \quad \text{Equation 12}$$

On the basis of the formed database, a target model of typification of regional tourist systems of the state is formed, provided that the program objectives are modernized and differentiated within the strategy of development of the tourist services market.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The complex system of internal and external socio-economic processes of the countries, which generates demand for tourist services, operates in the economic space of different levels with certain thresholds of instability and is extremely sensitive to the effects of destructive factors of different origin. At the same time, the nature of tourism, as a social phenomenon, causes a close interconnection of regional systems at different levels, leading to a significant increase in the spatial intensification of tourist flows (The UNWTO Tourism Dashboard, 2019; Guliyeva et al., 2018; Song & Lee, 2020). Thus, the time lag of transformational research in the polarized regional tourist system of 2012-2018 has allowed to rank the markets of tourist meso-regions according to key indicative parameters of the intensity of international tourist flows (ITF) and an integral indicator of

the development of the tourist services market (I). Using the interval scale of ranking, the meso-regions were distributed in the tourist geospace, their place in the service markets was determined and the Center-Periphery model was implemented (Table 1).

Table 1. Hierarchical architecture of tourist meso-regions in the Center-Periphery model, 2012, 2018

*Borderline location in the hierarchical architecture of the regional tourist space of the meso-level
(Source: developed and calculated by the authors (Yefimova & Grynko, 2015))

	2012 p.	(I; ITF)		2018 p.	(I; ITF)
Deep periphery	I ≤ 100; ITF ≤ 25			I ≤ 150; ITF ≤ 25	
	Central America	(9.64; 6.52)	●	Central America	(18.44; 10.28)
	South Asia	(58.8; 8.05)	●	Oceania	(96.89; 14.24)
	Oceania	(88.64; 10.53)	●	North Africa	(36.79; 18.03)
	North Africa	(35.51; 13.72)	●	Caribbean	(34.42; 23.94)
	Caribbean	(28.04; 18.94)	●		
	Sahara Desert Region	(74.26; 23.04)	●		
Advanced periphery	South America*	(134.77; 18.2)	●	South Asia*	(108.83; 18.27)
	I ≤ 100; 25 < ITF ≤ 50			100 < I ≤ 200; 25 < ITF ≤ 50	
	Middle East	(74.66; 39.11)	●	South America	(172.35; 30.77)
Semi-periphery	South-East Asia	(92.81; 49.31)	●	Sahara Desert Region	(94.68; 35.44)
	100 < I ≤ 200; 50 < ITA ≤ 100			100 < I ≤ 400; 50 < ITF ≤ 125	
	Northern Europe	(211.45; 52.9)	●	Middle East	(111.62; 53.33)
	North-East Asia	(398.32; 87.62)	●	Northern Europe	(242.44; 75.95)
	Central (Eastern) Europe	(78.66; 87.91)	●	South-East Asia	(180.15; 104.63)
Center				Central (Eastern) Europe	(97.89; 126.61)
	I > 300; ITF ≥ 100, also ITF ≥ 75, if I > 400			I > 300; ITF ≥ 125	
	Western Europe	(372.62; 142.7)	●	North-East Asia	(731.66; 142.08)
	South (Mediterranean) Europe	(314.47; 158.0)	●	Western Europe	(397.85; 179.95)
	North America	(754.84; 89.93)	●	South (Mediterranean) Europe	(335.61; 225.21)
				North America	(905.12; 127.58)

In the hierarchical architecture of the meso-regions of the tourist area of 2012, the deep periphery was formed by the subregions: Central America (international tourist arrivals – 6.2 million people; integral indicator of the development of the tourist services market was equal to 9.64), South Asia (8.05 million people; 58.81), North Africa (13.7 million; 35.51), South America (18.2 million; 134.77), Sahara Desert Region (23.04 million; 74.26), The Caribbean (18.94 million; 28.04) and Oceania (10.53 million; 88.64).

In 2012, South America had a limit value, given the low tourist flows of 18.2 million people for the Advanced periphery and the low level of the integral indicator – 134.77 for the deep periphery. In the polarized tourist area the Advanced Periphery was formed by the countries of the Middle East (39.11 million; 74.66), South-East Asia (49.31 million; 92.81), which differed in the unevenness and instability of trends in the market of services.

The Semi-periphery was made up of the sub-regions of Northern Europe (52.9 million; 211.45), North-East Asia (87.62 million; 398.32), Central (Eastern) Europe (87.91 million; 78.66). The Center for Global Tourist Space, with a significant gap in the number of tourist arrivals and revenues, was formed by the countries of Western Europe (142.7 million; 372.62) and South (Mediterranean) Europe (158.0 million; 314.47), which have a diversified market for tourism products and a high intensity of tourist exchanges. North

America was ranked in the center of the polarized tourist space, given the unprecedentedly high integral figure (89.93 million; 754.84).

The development of tourist services in the subregions under study in 2018 has undergone changes in the restructuring of the polarized space of the tourist system. Thus, only the countries of Central America (international tourist arrivals – 10.28 million people; 18.44), Oceania (14.24 million; 96.89), North Africa (18.03 million; 36.79) formed the hierarchical level of the Deep Periphery, the Caribbean (23.94 million; 34.42), characterized by low levels of tourism revenue for international tourist arrivals. The boundary between the Deep periphery and the advanced periphery was occupied by South Asia, due to low tourist flows – 18.27 million people for the advanced periphery and the low level of the integral indicator – 108.83 for the Deep periphery.

The Advanced periphery in 2018 completely changed its structure and was formed by the countries of sub-regions: South America (30.77 million people; 172.35), Sahara Desert Region (35.44 million people; 94.68). The periphery of the tourist area has not undergone any significant changes. The countries of the Middle East (53.33 million; 111.62), Northern Europe (75.95 million; 242.44), South-East Asia (104.63 million; 180.15) are characterized by a rapid increase in their position in the tourism market. The countries of Central (Eastern) Europe show an intensive increase in tourist flows with a modest income from tourism (126.61 million; 97.89). The center of tourist space with a large margin is consistently formed by the countries of Western Europe (179.95 million people; 397.85), South (Mediterranean) Europe (225.21 million people; 335.61).

The countries of the Center are characterized by the generation of tourism innovations, which in the process of spatial diffusion, have rapidly increased tourist flows and mid-region tourism exchanges. It was joined by the countries of North-East Asia (142.07 million; 731.6). Due to the highest value of the integral indicator, the North American subregion was assigned to the World Tourism Area Center with average international tourist arrivals (127.5 million; 905.12).

The structure of the economic space of the regional tourist system of Ukraine for the years 2012-2018 was transformed from the Semi-Periphery to the Advanced Periphery of the tourist services market, due to the inability to form a stable platform for financing and attracting financial resources for introducing innovations (Table 2). According to WTTC, international tourist flows in Ukraine decreased by 47.5 billion USD in 2012-2018. The direct contribution of the tourism sector to the country's GDP is 16.9 billion USD (42.8 billion USD in 2018, or 1.8% of GDP), indirect contribution – 45.3 billion USD (115.0 billion USD in 2018, or 5.7% of GDP), capital investment in tourism – 5 billion USD, internal costs – 7 billion USD. Travel expenses increased by 45.5 billion USD. In addition, tourism infrastructure remains uncompetitive compared to the infrastructure of the Central Subregions of the countries of the world.

It should be noted that the greatest impact on the increase in the cost of tourist services in Ukraine has a polarization of income and expenditure of tourism activities of local businesses (Figure 2). Aggregate income from the provision of tourist services (excluding VAT, excise taxes and other mandatory payments) by tourist enterprises of the Black Sea meso-region of Ukraine increased by 2.2% in 2012-2018 to 14.23 million USD. The share of legal entities in the formation of total income is 60.6%, of private entrepreneurs – 39.3%, respectively. The increase in profitability from the sale of tourist services is observed in the context of the Odessa and Kherson subregions (1.7 and 4.2 times, respectively). The Mykolayiv subregion has dynamics of decrease of profitability from tourism at the level of 73.5%. Income from excursion activities in the Black Sea meso-region increased by +51%, its share in the total income from the provision of tourist services is

3.0%, with an average value of 0.45 million USD in 2012-2018. The dynamics of change in the income of commissions, agency and other fees in the structure of income from the provision of tourist services (excluding VAT, excise duties and other payments) in the meso-region increased by +46%, which equals to an average of 1.54 million USD and constitutes 10.8% of the aggregate share of the total income (at the expense of the tourist services provided by the entities of the Odessa subregion, the proportion of which is equal to 88.7% of the subregional indicator). At the same time, there was a clear tendency for increase of operating expenses from tourism activity by + 7.1%, the average value of which was equal to 6.24 million USD, or 43.8% of the total income in tourism of the subregion.

Table 2. Parameters of the tourist services market in the spatial polarization of the tourist system of Ukraine in 2018 prices, billion USD (Source: Manzo, 2019)

Ukraine	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2018 at 2012 (+,-)
1. Visitor exports	95.5	91.0	40.6	37.7	39.3	43.7	48.0	-47.5
2.Domestic expenditure (includes government individual spending)	99.2	100.5	87.3	78.8	79.5	86.7	92.2	-7.0
3.Internal tourism consumption (= 1 + 2)	194.8	191.5	127.9	116.5	118.8	130.4	140.0	-54.8
4.Purchases by tourism providers, including imported goods (supply chain)	-135.0	-131.7	-89.0	-81.3	-82.6	-90.8	-97.3	+37.7
5. Direct contribution of tourism to GDP (= 3 + 4)	59.7	59.8	38.9	35.2	36.2	39.6	42.8	-16.9
Other final impacts (indirect & induced)								
6. Domestic supply chain	97.2	97.3	63.4	57.2	59.0	64.5	69.7	-27.5
7. Capital investment	13.4	11.5	8.7	6.9	7.2	7.9	8.4	-5.0
8. Government collective spending	24.0	24.0	22.6	20.7	21.8	21.9	22.1	-1.9
9. Imported goods from indirect spending	-11.9	-9.3	-9.3	-10.0	-10.5	-11.0	-11.2	+0.7
10. Induced	37.8	39.0	26.4	22.7	23.0	24.4	26.0	-11.8
11. Total contribution of tourism to GDP (= 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9 + 10)	220.0	222.4	150.7	132.7	136.7	147.2	157.8	-62.2
Employment impacts ('000)								
12. Direct contribution of tourism to employment	382.9	367.0	226.0	206.6	206.7	228.1	243.0	-139.9
13. Total contribution	1420.4	1384.7	887.6	789.6	788.8	855.9	910.3	-510.1
Other indicators								
14. Expenditure on outbound travel	83.1	91.1	97.3	104.3	114.1	127.3	128.6	+45.5

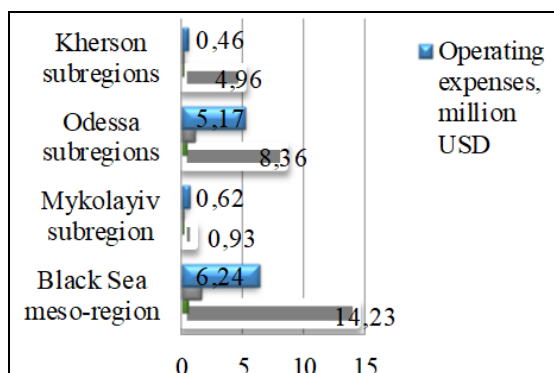


Figure 2. Revenues from the sale of tourist services of local level enterprises in the structure of the Black Sea meso-region of Ukraine for 2012-2018, million USD (Source: Statistical publication of the Regions of Ukraine, 2017; Statistical publication of the Tourism Activity of Ukraine, 2018)

The polarization of expenditures on the tourist activities of the local level subjects of the Black Sea meso-region of Ukraine is presented in Figure 2.

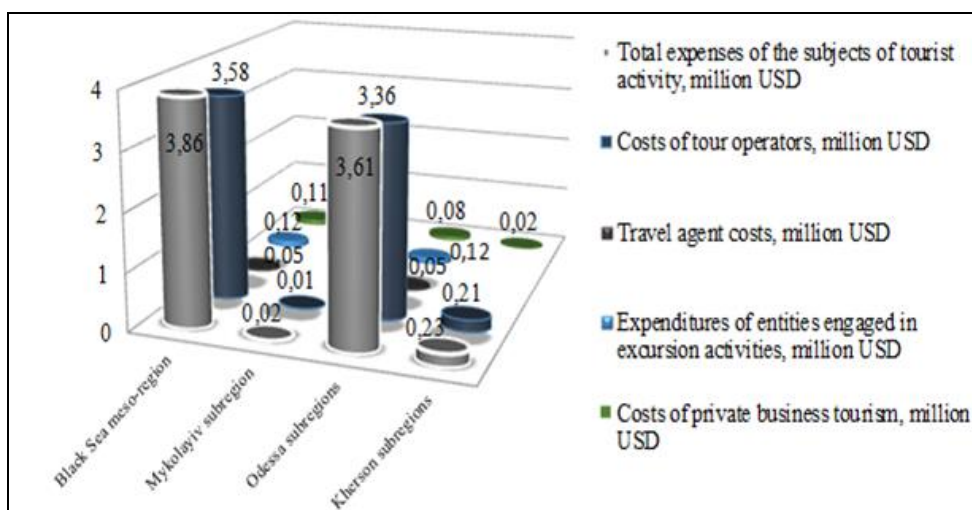


Figure 3. Polarization of expenditures on services of tourist activity of local level entities in the structure of the Black Sea meso-region of Ukraine for 2012-2018, million USD
(Source: calculated by the authors according to the data (Statistical publication of the Regions of Ukraine, 2017; Statistical publication of the Tourism Activity of Ukraine, 2018))

The dynamic trend of spending on tourism services in the Black Sea meso-region tends to reduce total costs by 62%. Such dynamics are characteristic of both the tourist operators of the mesoregion (-63%) and tourist agents (-32%), whose value was on average at the level of 3.58 and 0.05 million USD. However, such a vector is not inherent in the subjects that carry out excursion activity, their cost, on the contrary, increases by 4.0 times (up to 0.12 million USD). Given the increasing spatial trend of costs from macro-tourism activities (see Table 2), in the meso-regions of Ukraine, expenditures of tourist operators and travel agencies on services used in the production of tourism products increased by an average of 40-95% in 2012-2018 (Table 3). Differentiation of expenditures of resources used by tourism enterprises in the production of tourism product in the subregions has the largest distribution on accommodation – 59.06% (177.33 million USD) and transport services – 30.6% (90.68 million USD).

Modeling the development of the tourist services market based on the polarization of the innovation core of the meso- and local levels of the tourism system of subregions of Ukraine is conditioned by determining the proportionality of the distribution of the value of the aggregate resources of tourism enterprises by the integrated indicators of the intensity of income from the sale of tourist services and the intensity of innovative development (Table 4-5). The last integral indicator is calculated by expert evaluation on the following criteria: enterprise readiness for innovation, enterprise attitude to innovation, innovation intensity, scope of innovation, sufficiency of financing of innovations, information support of innovations, resource support of innovations, results of dissemination of innovations. The most widespread subjects in the tourism market of Ukraine are travel agencies (1172 enterprises), which mediate between tour operators and consumers, they are engaged in retail sales of the tourist product; the minimum amount of financial security is 2,000 EUR. Another subject of the tourism market is the

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Travel and Excursion Bureau (Travel Bureau, Excursion Bureau), which is the least developed sector of the tourism market, but under certain conditions, these enterprises can intensify the recreational appeal of the subregions of the country. For the study of innovative potential, 24 tourism enterprises were selected (12 travel operators (TOs), 8 travel agents (TAs), 4 travel and excursion bureaus (BESs)).

Table 3. Differentiation of expenditures for the consumers of tourist services by subregions of Ukraine on the average for 2012-2018, million USD (Source: Statistical publication of the Regions of Ukraine, 2017; Statistical publication of the Tourism Activity of Ukraine, 2018)

Indicators	Travel operators	Travel agencies
Accommodation costs	173.14	4.19
Food costs	8.17	0.41
Health care costs	0.82	0.07
Excursion service costs (excluding transport services)	0.83	-
Visa costs (including travel expenses)	1.00	0.05
Costs of transport services	89.69	0.99
Costs of cultural, educational and leisure services, cultural organizations	0.48	0.04
Costs of other tourist product manufacturing services	19.06	0.38

Table 4. Dynamics of revenue intensity indices from services of tourism enterprises in spatial polarization of subregions of Ukraine

Tourist enterprises	Revenue intensity index for services (I_{ri})				Integral indicator of the intensity of innovation potential development (I_{ip})			
	2015	2016	2017	2018	2015	2016	2017	2018
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
TOs №1	1.12	0.98	0.967	1.01	1.126	0.985	0.972	1.053
TOs №2	1.103	0.97	0.952	1.03	1.127	1.303	1.333	1.068
TOs №3	1.106	1.294	0.984	1.088	1.106	1.294	0.984	1.088
TOs №4	1.143	0.952	0.966	1.041	1.099	0.979	0.985	1.045
TOs №5	1.126	0.985	0.972	1.053	1.321	0.972	0.968	1.081
TOs №6	1.067	1.218	0.921	1.014	1.103	0.97	0.952	1.03
TOs №7	1.081	0.923	1.057	1.175	1.143	0.952	0.966	1.041
TOs №8	1.082	0.919	0.934	0.996	1.147	1.665	1.278	0.89
TOs №9	1.128	1.028	0.998	0.925	1.074	0.925	0.944	1.028
TOs №10	1.128	1.175	0.984	0.923	1.081	0.923	1.057	1.175
TOs №11	1.099	0.998	1.014	0.932	1.089	0.932	0.909	0.998
TOs №12	1.096	0.984	0.996	0.901	1.075	0.901	0.908	0.984
TAs №1	1.115	1.014	1.001	1.218	1.067	1.218	0.921	1.014
TAs №2	1.118	0.996	0.998	0.919	1.082	0.919	0.934	0.996
TAs №3	1.091	1.001	0.989	1.614	1.067	1.614	0.933	1.001
TAs №4	1.097	0.998	0.963	1.215	1.049	1.215	0.922	0.998
TAs №5	1.097	0.989	0.992	1.379	1.039	1.379	1.214	0.989
TAs №6	1.093	0.963	0.988	1.376	1.054	1.376	0.903	0.963
TAs №7	1.088	0.992	1.291	1.189	1.065	1.189	0.905	0.992
TAs №8	1.043	0.895	0.899	1.291	1.045	0.91	0.911	0.988
BESs №1	1.065	1.291	1.298	0.895	1.043	0.895	0.899	1.291
BESs №2	1.045	0.953	0.951	0.859	1.026	0.859	0.903	0.953
BESs №3	1.043	1.298	1.029	1.026	1.021	1.12	1.066	1.298
BESs №4	1.026	0.859	0.903	0.953	1.011	0.831	0.857	0.951

We calculate the coefficients of localization and concentration of incomes depending on the intensity of development of innovation potential of tourism enterprises for 2015-2018 (Table 5).

Table 5. Dynamics of coefficients of localization (K_{loc}) and concentration of incomes depending on intensity of development of innovative potential of tourist enterprises (K_{conc})

Tourist enterprises	2015	2016	2017	2018
Coefficients of localization (K_{loc})				
TOs №1	1.1076	0.94207	0.97736	1.0889
TOs №2	1.02725	1.25906	1.70162	1.08296
TOs №3	1.00537	0.93729	0.98241	1.04443
TOs №4	0.96667	0.96387	0.96346	1.04844
TOs №5	1.17948	0.92492	0.98647	1.0722
TOs №6	1.03929	0.74644	0.95042	1.06091
TOs №7	1.06303	0.96674	1.07496	0.92532
TOs №8	1.06577	1.69813	0.71797	0.93328
TOs №9	0.95724	0.84338	1.03861	1.16073
TOs №10	0.96348	0.73627	0.91456	1.32958
TOs №11	0.99622	1.09589	1.09589	1.11839
TOs №12	0.98611	0.85823	1.07762	1.15687
TAs №1	0.96209	1.12585	1.06774	0.8695
TAs №2	0.973	0.86483	1.04973	1.13194
TAs №3	0.98326	1.51127	1.04138	0.64775
TAs №4	0.96138	1.14109	1.0261	0.85789
TAs №5	0.95222	1.30689	0.80276	0.74905
TAs №6	0.9695	1.33926	1.07488	0.73095
TAs №7	0.98412	1.12342	1.40143	0.87138
TAs №8	1.0073	0.953	0.96947	0.7993
BESs №1	0.9846	0.64978	1.01843	1.50655
BESs №2	0.98709	0.84484	1.03463	1.15872
BESs №3	0.98417	0.80875	0.94831	1.32132
BESs №4	0.99067	0.90673	1.03514	1.04224
Concentration of incomes depending on intensity of development of innovative potential of tourist enterprises (K_{conc})				
K_{conc}	0.138701	0.811138	0.055302	0.690402

The presented calculations indicate a low concentration of revenues from the sale of services in the spatial polarization of the innovation core of tourism enterprises and the intensity of the latter. Accordingly, there is a need to introduce a comprehensive approach to assessing the concentration of the aggregate parameters of ensuring a safe level of functioning of the tourist system, which is differentiated by the components of the regional potential of security and threats, guarantees the development of the tourist services market and modifies the tourist system on the meso-level as a whole (Table 6, Figure 4).

The relative homogeneity of groups of subregions that have the same differential of the security indices and which are adjacent to the city of Kiev is proposed to be identified as macro-regions. Thus, the Type I macro-region (Western) is characterized by the lowest level of threats of the safe level of RTS and is the second in Ukraine after Kiev by the value of the general index (Figure 5). The Central macro-region (Type II) contains the largest number of subregions and only the Type IV (Eastern) macro-region

is ahead of the RTS Security Index. Type III macro-region (Southern), despite its maritime location, is characterized by averages of all calculated indices. The Eastern macro-region has the lowest security potential of RTS and a fairly high level of threats and, as a consequence, the lowest in Ukraine in the overall index.

Table 6. Typology of components of a secure level of the regional tourist system of Ukraine

RTS security components	RTS security potential subindices (n_i)	RTS subindexes of threats (t_i)
Political	n_1 – the presence of a common border with EU countries;	t_1 – the presence of a common border with the the Russian Federation; t_2 – proximity to areas of military and political conflict;
Social	n_2 – number of cultural monuments; n_3 – proportion of persons with higher education in the population; n_4 – share of Ukrainians among the population; n_5 – number of foreigners served in collective accommodation facilities; n_6 – the share of the population of the region aged 25-34; n_7 – number of university graduates in tourism specialties; n_8 – the level of income of the population;	t_3 – index of corruption in the region; t_4 – unemployment rate; t_5 – number of crimes against public safety, order and morality; t_6 – number of crimes against property;
Economical	n_9 – investments in hotel and restaurant business; n_{10} – number of tourist subjects activities (tour operators and travel agents); n_{11} – revenues from the provision of tourist services;	
Ecological	n_{12} – share of nature reserves in the area of the region;	t_7 – the amount of pollutant emissions substances in the atmospheric air; t_8 – the volume of waste generation I-III hazard classes;
Informational	n_{13} – the region's share of the nationwide Internet audience; n_{15} – number of tourism-related websites.	

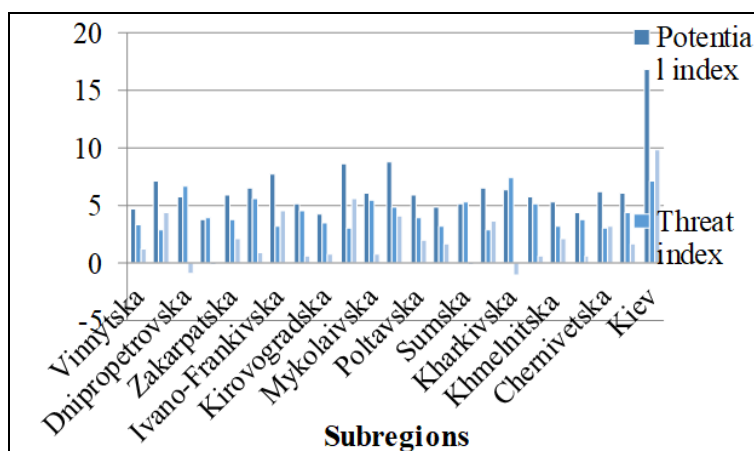


Figure 4. Differentiation of RTS security and threat indices in subregions of Ukraine

In the distribution of factor loadings by the security potential indexes (ni) and threats of RTS (ti), it is revealed that the first factors have the highest values of the subindices with intensive development of the tourist services market, first of all, on the basis of large tourist centers. Indirectly, this aspect of the influence of the first factor may be related to the processes of urbanization of subregional centers with a population close to one million and in the city of Kiev. The load of the second factor is more spatial than the structural and functional embodiment. This factor is related to the geopolitical location of megacities and their proximity to areas of military and political conflict.

At the present stage, the second factor can be interpreted in the context of political and social threats to the security of RTS. At the same time, the second factor demonstrates a clear polarization along the west-east axis and is most pronounced in the Western macro-region of Ukraine, in particular in the subregions characterized by the highest share of Ukrainians among the population and bordering EU countries.

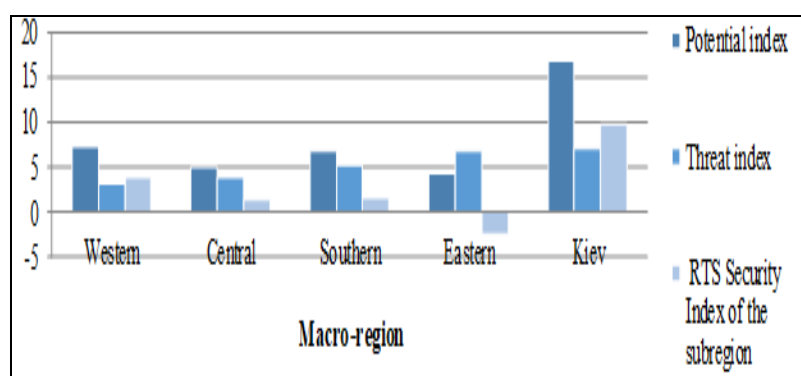


Figure 5. Differentiation of RTS security indices in macro-regions of Ukraine

The results of the study indicate a significant differentiation of the safety indices of the regional tourist system of the macro level, taking into account the acceleration of the rate of change of its functioning parameters, with a steady increase in competition. In this regard, we believe that in the process of developing and implementing strategic and program goals for the modernization of the tourist market in the Ukrainian market, it is necessary to take into account the regional differences.

CONCLUSIONS

Strengthening Ukraine's position in the tourist market is possible under the conditions of creation of a national competitive tourist product, image of macro-regions (meso-regions, subregions), adoption of an early strategy and implementation of sustainable development policy for solving urgent problems of ensuring the stay of foreign citizens; the use of information technology to promote the tourism product, meet the needs of consumers; improvement of management and marketing of foreign economic activity in tourism; improving national transport links and roads; implementation of the principles of corporate social responsibility in the tourism business; procurement of environmentally friendly products and green building development; responsibility for natural resources; the protection of terrestrial ecosystems, the rational use of forests and the cessation of biodiversity loss.

Creating a strategic management system to ensure a secure level and competitiveness of the regional tourist system will allow the most complete satisfaction of

the needs of the target markets, increase the level of consumption of tourist services. Only a well-designed and consistently implemented strategy can counteract constant dumping, falling solvent demand, declining real income, and profit in tourism businesses.

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INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS' PROTECTION INTENTIONS TO USE FOOD HYGIENE CUES IN THE CHOICE OF DESTINATION LOCAL RESTAURANTS

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Abstract: This study examines international tourists' protection intentions to utilize food safety cues in the choice of destination local restaurant, reducing the risk of contracting a foodborne illness. A survey was conducted of 398 first-time foreign travellers to Malaysia. The results driven by Exploratory Factor Analysis reveals that food safety indicators comprised three dimensions: visual food safety cues, information food safety cues, and the level of restaurant patronage. Cluster analysis confirmed that protection intention to use different food hygiene cues differs across tourists' subgroups of gender, age, nationality, level of income, level of education, travel purpose, and trip arrangement.

Key words: food hygiene, food safety, local restaurant, foodborne illness, traveler's diarrhea, Malaysia tourist

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INTRODUCTION

For a growing number of international voyagers, traveling to enjoy familiar food, or trying new cuisine, has become a vital element of the tourism experience (Ahlawat et al., 2019). Locally produced food products and culinary traditions express cultural identity (Yilmaz et al., 2018) via taste, food procurement, preparation, and the entire dining environment (Henderson, 2014). Indeed, the diversity and unique flavors of destination local food consistently delight travelers (Hendijani, 2016), and contribute

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significantly to the sustainability of tourism (Sims, 2009). It is no surprise that the strong link of local food to travel and tourism is reflected in the menu trends of destination restaurants, which can determine the distinctiveness of one destination over another and creates a unique selling point (Haven-Tang & Jones, 2006).

While sampling destination local food on a plate may be a wonderful game and exotic cultural activity, a voyager's stomach isn't always up to the challenge of foodborne illness. This problem can potentially become the primary travel issue (DuPont et al., 2009) and the top tourist concern when considering international destinations (Reichel et al., 2007). Even though the vast majority of foodborne illness cases in tourists go unreported or are not systematically investigated, contracting a foodborne illness while traveling, known as the "traveler's diarrhea", is the most common travel-associated disease (Hagmann et al., 2014). Traveler's diarrhea affects almost 30% to 70% of tourists (Heather, 2015), particularly travelers in South East Asia, Africa, and Latin America (Barrett & Brown, 2016). It occurs when tourists consume food and water contaminated by bacteria, viruses, parasites, toxins, chemicals or physical matter, which may cause a range of symptoms including fecal urgency, abdominal cramps, tenesmus, nausea, or vomiting (Steffen et al., 2015). Regardless of the geographic distribution and prevalence of traveler's diarrhea, destination local restaurants largely contribute to travel-induced diarrhea because of poor hygienic food practices (Centre for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2013; Gautret & Parola, 2017). Food poisoning outbreaks reported in the travel news can easily highlight the high association between tourists patronizing non-sanitary destination local restaurants and traveler's diarrhea (Yasami, 2018). Eating food at destination restaurants with standards of sanitation lower than those to which tourists' immune systems are accustomed, frequently places travelers at high risk of contracting a foodborne illness (Wongleedee, 2013). In Malaysia, cases of alleged foodborne illness associated with patronizing restaurants are nothing new and such association remains one of the major consumer issues (Cheng, 2016; Sharifa Ezat et al., 2013). Despite the Malaysian government's regular inspections of food premises and strict penalties for serious food safety violations, unhygienic food handling practices in Malaysia food premises have been found to play a prominent role in developing foodborne diseases (Soon et al., 2011).

However, the news of travel-induced diarrhea and rising public health-consciousness have led to tourists' feelings of insecurity and concerns toward food safety when dining at international tourism destinations. Although both their choices of food type and eating location expose consumers to food-related hazards (Miles et al., 2004), it is almost impossible for them to verify the safety of their food even after buying it (Golan et al., 2004). As a result, consumers are of the view that they only have control over the choice of their eating environment while dining out. They often rely on the local authorities' regular and constant inspection services to ensure the safety and hygiene of food serving at restaurants. Besides these inspections, there is a broad range of observable food hygiene indicators and external sources of information that largely contribute to the consumer's appraisal of food safety at restaurants (Aksoydan, 2007; Henson et al., 2006). For instance, the perception of restaurant cleanliness is inherent in a set of food hygiene indicators which may operate as decision variables (Barber et al., 2011).

In a nutshell, the high association of foodborne illness and restaurants (Angelo et al., 2017; Gould et al., 2013; Mun, 2020) may lead consumers to hold restaurants most responsible for food safety violations (Omari & Frempong, 2016) thus looking for some extrinsic tangible food hygiene cues in their restaurant selection (Ungku Fatimah et al., 2010). Consumers rely on tangible indicators because the key hygiene aspects influencing

the safety operation of a restaurant, such as kitchen and food storage containers are not always observable (Henson et al., 2006). Moreover, some of the food hygiene indicators, like freshness of food, food temperature, and cooking level are experience features and cannot be evaluated before purchasing. In such contexts, the existence of reliable and observable food safety indicators is decisive. It helps consumers to engage in protective measures by not patronizing restaurants that are judged to increase the risk of contracting a foodborne illness (Yasami, 2018). The intention to adopt a protective health behavior in confronting the threat of restaurant-associated foodborne illness correlates systematically with the protection motivation theory [PMT] (Rogers, 1975). The central premise of PMT is that people tend to protect themselves from the harms that are caused by physical, psychological, and social threats (Williams, 2012). This theory explains how cognitive perception of risk and perceived efficacy variables are thought to predict an individual's protection intentions. In line with the theory, consumers engage in a preventive measure by patronizing restaurants that have a satisfactory level of food hygiene. While the literature sheds light on the roles of these food hygiene indicators in consumer decision-making, there is presently little tourism research directed toward understanding travelers' protection intentions to adopt such cues in their choice of local restaurants.

Furthermore, while different types of "background variables" are of potential relevance to behavioral intentions, as other attitudinal theories propose (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Ajzen, 1991), there is nothing in the PMT to propose which of these factors change the direction and strength of protection intention and hence deserve attention in the travel context. It solely represents the theoretical gap identified by the present study. In an attempt to bridge the gaps, the specific objectives of this study are to:

1. Determine food hygiene indicators that international tourists most/least intend to adopt in the choice of local restaurants.
2. Examine the dimensionality of food hygiene cues that international tourists tend to adopt in their choice of local restaurants.
3. Find out whether or not protection intention to adopt food hygiene dimensions differs across various subgroups of gender, age, nationality, level of education, level of household income, visit purposes, and trip arrangement.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Food hygiene cues and restaurant selection

Growing concerns about restaurant-associated foodborne illness may highly influence consumers' perceptions of food safety risks (Yasami, 2018). This is particularly important in the tourism context, when perceptions of food safety risks, may result in tourist hesitation and refusal to eat local food (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). However, using a risk reliever to reduce the perception of food safety risk is nothing new, and many risk relievers exist, such as utilizing restaurant hygiene indicators in restaurant selection (Bai et al., 2019), searching for specific food brands, information acquisition, taking advice from family and friends, looking for guarantees (e.g., laboratory tests or quality assurance), and images of the food store have been frequently adopted by consumers to mitigate the unpleasant health consequences of consuming unsafe food (Yeung et al., 2010).

Food hygiene is the conditions and actions necessary to ensure the safety of food at each point of the food supply chain, from farm to fork, to prevent foodborne illness. When it comes to restaurants, the key indicators that influence a restaurant's food hygiene operation are usually hidden backstage at the restaurant (Cousins et al., 2002). Therefore, consumers rely heavily on tangible aspects of food hygiene practices, such as the cleanliness of the physical environment, equipment, and staff appearance, to base

their judgment on food hygiene and safety (Jones, 2002). Furthermore, consumer perception of cleanliness attributes linked to staff, restaurant environment, and equipment is thought to influence restaurant selection (Bai et al., 2019; Park, 2014; Ungku Fatimah et al., 2010). The relevant evidence to back up the above facts has been provided by several studies, indicating how consumers rely on some observable food hygiene cues, such as cleanliness of a restaurant's dining rooms and utensils, the waitstaff's appearance and clothing, the level of restroom hygiene, and restaurant exterior, to decide where to eat (Adam et al., 2014; Bai et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2019; Henson et al., 2006; Park et al., 2016; Park & Almanza, 2014; Yassami, 2018). Additionally, consumers associate the level of patronage with restaurant reputation (Kim et al., 2010) and a crowded restaurant with a lot of customers usually represents high quality of food and standards of food safety (Henson et al., 2006). Previous studies also supported different sources of information used by consumers to assess the safety of food and resulting impacts on restaurant selection. These are restaurant inspection notices, press media, and broadcasting, friends and relatives' recommendations, and internet-based information (Ali et al., 2019; Bai et al., 2019; Choi et al., 2013; Choi et al., 2019; Harris et al., 2018; Seo et al., 2015; Uggioni & Salay, 2014; Wong et al., 2015; Yannopoulou et al., 2011).

A growing body of the consumer behavior literature suggests that the provision of food safety-related information in the form of inspection notices is a reliable source of information that consumers consider in restaurant selection (Choi et al., 2013; Choi et al., 2019; Fleetwood, 2019; Uggioni & Salay, 2014; Vainio et al., 2020; Wong et al., 2015). These inspection notices either in the form of a letter, or grade, are issued by local health authorities and simply measure a restaurant's compliance with the front of the house and backstage sanitation codes. Posting health inspection grade cards in restaurants often leads to consumers establishments with a higher level of hygiene standards (Jin & Leslie, 2003). Word of mouth (WOM) also has a strong effect on consumer evaluation of food safety in a particular restaurant and future decision-making. This now includes both the traditional form of WOM made by a small group of friends and family (Ali et al., 2019; Bai et al., 2019; Harris et al., 2018) and the online word of mouth (eWOM) generated by social media networks (Seo et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2017). Most specifically in the context of travel, Yeung and Yee's study (2013) indicated that international tourists frequently seek tour guide advice in the choice of destination restaurants to reduce food safety risks.

Bringing up these two strands of the literature suggests that consumers evaluate the safety of a restaurant based on multiple food hygiene indicators. Some of these cues are observable indicators directly perceived by consumers such as the cleanliness of staff, eating environment, and equipment. The other safety cues are mostly formed by external sources of food safety-specific information. These indicators often reflect others' opinions about the safety of food-service establishments, perhaps based on their past patronage. Past researchers have frequently suggested different categories of food hygiene indicators contributing to consumers' judgment of restaurant food safety (Aksoydan, 2007; Barber & Scarcelli, 2009; Henson et al., 2006; Ungku Fatimah et al., 2011; Park et al., 2016). However, the hygiene factors relevant to food, staff, equipment, and restaurant environment remain consistent across almost all of their studies.

Apparently, incorporating food factors such as freshness, temperature, and cooking levels in this classification may be considered irrelevant since safety factors cannot be easily evaluated before purchasing. Following the literature, a tourist's similar reliance on food hygiene cues for the choice of restaurant is not unexpected. Thus, the current paper aims to examine the roles of all these indicators in one study, with a special focus on international tourists and destination local restaurants.

Socio-demographics and travel factors of influence

In the process-based approach, and particularly the value-expectancy class of theories, an individual's motivation to select a protective behavior among different alternatives is a product of his/her success expectations and the value perceived for it (Green, 2002). In these theories, motivation is usually operationalized by the intention that initiates or sustains an actual behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1970; Rippetoe & Rogers, 1987). The well-known figure of the value-expectancy theories is the theory of protection motivation theory (PMT). PMT proposes that the interplay between social background factors (e.g. age, gender, education, religion, etc.) and other PMT constructs including subjective appraisals of threat and coping responses forms protection intention as an immediate antecedent to preventive behavior (Weinstein, 1993). This particular theory has been widely applied to explain health behaviors (Yasami, 2018). However, people with different background factors such as education (Wee et al., 2014), age (Wammes et al., 2005), gender (Quick et al., 2013; Yasami, 2018), and even different country of residence (Hung et al., 2016; Schroeder & Pennington-Gray, 2015; Yasami, 2018) might have different scores of health-protective behavioral intentions.

Most specifically, the variation in adopting food hygiene cues in their choice of restaurants was sometimes observed to be based on socio-demographic characteristics including age, gender, level of education, and nationality (Aksoydan, 2007; Bai et al., 2019; Barber & Scarcelli, 2009; Barber et al., 2011; Becker et al., 1999; Henson et al., 2006; Tuzunkan & Albayrak, 2017). For instance, the study conducted by Aksoydan (2007) indicated that men considered the cleanliness of dining utensils in the restaurant selection, whereas this factor was trifling for women. However, the study's results stand in contrast to the work done by Bai et al. (2019), indicating that women consider more hygiene indicators to evaluate the food safety of restaurants compared to men. Tuzunkan and Albayrak's research (2017) showed how women attributed more importance to the work staff's clothing than men. Similarly, university graduates considered work staff's appearance and high standards of personal hygiene as the most important decision variables.

Moreover, a study done by Henson et al. (2006) illustrated that the use of food hygiene indicators in restaurant selection differs by socioeconomic characteristics of age, gender, and level of education. Young men with a high level of education use food hygiene information cues in the choice of restaurant. On the contrary, the respondents in the older age group predominantly employ visual standards of food hygiene such as the cleanliness of work staff's appearance in their choice. Likewise, mature consumers' perceptions of waitstaff's appearance and behaviors largely influenced their restaurant selection in Kim's study (2008). However, elderly respondents are more concerned with restaurant cleanliness compared to younger respondents according to Barber and Scarcelli (2009) and Henson et al. (2006). The cross-cultural studies conducted by Becker et al. (1999) in the United States and Hong Kong have revealed how national culture also influenced the customer's assessment and expectations of restaurant service quality.

American respondents ranked sanitation as the most important service quality dimension, compared to Hong Kong customers that put it in as the second priority among six service quality dimensions. In the travel context, the study conducted by Yasami (2018) demonstrated that female, African, and tour package travelers have high protection intentions to use food hygiene indicators in the choice of local restaurants. Furthermore, visit purpose and household income explained preference heterogeneity in using different sources of information about destination products and services (Cai et al., 2001; Luo et al., 2008). To sum up, each of the aforementioned socio-demographic and travel characteristics may influence consumer intention to utilize food hygiene cues in

restaurant selection. Following the lead observed in the literature, this study considered nationality, age, gender, level of education, monthly household income, travel purpose, and trip arrangement as the factors that influence tourists' protection intentions to adopt food hygiene indicators in their choice of destination local restaurant.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Survey instrument

A self-administered questionnaire was developed upon an extensive review of the literature to collect data regarding all the areas investigated. The questionnaire had two parts. The first part required respondents to provide information on socio-demographic and travel characteristics of age, gender, level of education, monthly household income, nationality, travel purpose, and trip arrangement. The second part was designed to address the protection intentions of international tourists to use food hygiene indicators in their choice of local restaurant using a seven-point Likert scale, where 1= strongly disagree and 7= strongly agree. Fifteen food hygiene indicators were adopted and adapted from the previous literature (Aksoydan, 2007; Ali et al., 2019; Bai et al., 2019; Barber & Scarcelli, 2009; Barber et al., 2011; Choi et al., 2019; Harris et al., 2018; Henson et al., 2006; Fleetwood, 2019; Park et al., 2016; Yeung & Yee, 2013). The study instrument was given to a panel of experts in the fields of food safety and hospitality management to evaluate the face and content validity of the food hygiene measures. In line with their suggestions, minor corrections were made on the questionnaire for accuracy and ease of understanding.

Sample and data collection

Convenience sampling was employed to collect data from the arrival section of Kuala Lumpur international airport which is Malaysia's busiest entry point in terms of international arrivals. Kuala Lumpur was selected for its importance as the most visited city by Malaysian international tourists (Huijun et al., 2015). The international first-time travelers were approached at the arrival section and invited to participate in this research. If they agreed to participate, they were asked to select answers based on their preferences of food hygiene indicators in the choice of destination full-service local restaurants.

Full-service local restaurant in Malaysia has been introduced to the respondents as the local Malay, Chinese, and Indian restaurants, where guests are given a range of food options delivered by the wait staff. International students and transient travelers were excluded in line with WHO's definition of tourist (Holloway, 2006). A total of 298 usable questionnaires were obtained from April 2019 through May 2019. This sample size easily satisfied Burn and Bush's sample-size requirements (2010). Once the questionnaires were collected, the content was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18. During data screening, the normal distribution of the dependent variable across each sample group was satisfied since the values of skewness and kurtosis fell into a proper range of +/- 1.5 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Moreover, the Shapiro-Wilks test and histogram graph positively supplement the assessment of normality. No univariate outliers were detected by examination of box plots.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Demographic profiles of respondents

The majority of respondents were male (60.7 %) and Asian (43.3%). The age of respondents mostly ranged from 18 to 37 years old (69.2 %). More than two-thirds of the respondents were educated and claimed to have at least a bachelor's degree (73.9 %). Almost half of the respondents reported their monthly household income as less than 1000 US\$ (58.7 %). Leisure tourists were the largest group among the respondents (65.1%) followed by business travelers (15.8%). Finally, 60.1 % of the respondents arranged their trips individually.

Protection intention to adopt food hygiene indicators

The level of agreement attributed to the various food safety cues was assessed upon a seven-point Likert scale. A large numerical score indicates a high agreement rating. As depicted in Table 1, food hygiene indicators that international tourists most intended to adopt in the choice of the local restaurants were “the cleanliness of restaurant dining tables, chairs, and utensils” ($M=5.17$, $SD=1.450$) and “high patronage of the international tourists” ($M=5.12$, $SD=1.361$). The adoption of risk mitigation measures may substantially deviate from required action solely due to the perception of disease risk. The item “The people’s opinions and views posted on Facebook, Twitter, Yelp, and other social media platforms” demonstrated the minimum contribution ($M=4.66$, $SD=1.507$). The food hygiene indicators which reflect others’ comments on the restaurant selection, were considered to be less strong among the food hygiene indicators under study. This may be because comments are perceived as reliable when they are posted by people with whom readers have close social relationships (Pan & Chiou, 2011) as supported by the current study results (see last item in Table 1). Although official inspection scores may be the most reliable and visible indicators to communicate food safety related information to consumers (Fleetwood, 2019), the respondents highly relied on their subjective judgements of cleanliness of restaurant environment, equipment, and staff in restaurant selection. The adoption of these risk mitigation measures may substantially deviate from required action solely due to the perception of disease risk (Usuwa, 2020). On the other hand, international tourists may not understand the meanings of the Malaysian grading system and therefore not adequately employ them in the choice of local restaurant.

Table 1. Mean scores of the 15 items measuring respondents’ protection intentions to use food hygiene cues in the choice of local restaurant ($n = 298$)

Food Hygiene Attributes	Mean	SD
Clean exterior/outside	5	1.592
Pleasant odor/smell	5.10	1.566
Clean work staff 's clothing and appearance	5.07	1.541
Clean dining tables, chairs, and utensils	5.17	1.450
Clean toilets	4.96	1.579
Clean floor	5.32	1.355
Clean menu	4.81	1.421
No flies in the restaurant	4.68	1.522
Good inspection score	5.02	1.368
High patronage/crowding of the international tourists	5.12	1.361
High patronage/crowding of the local people	4.94	1.461
Highly recommended by other tourists on TripAdvisor	4.71	1.493
Highly recommended by people on Facebook, Twitter, Yelp, etc.	4.66	1.507
Highly recommended by the tour guide	4.74	1.545
Highly recommended by family and friends with past visit experience	5.01	1.477

Dimensions of Food Hygiene Cues Using EFA

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was employed to examine the dimensionality of the fifteen food hygiene indicators in the restaurant selection. Two attempts were made to extract the final results. The first attempt came up with two items reporting cross-loading. They were “cleanliness of floor” and “no flies in the restaurant”. After removing these two items, a second attempt at EFA was made. Three factors with a minimum eigenvalue of 1.0 or higher were identified through a principal component method with Varimax rotation. The adequacy of data was supported by the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin ($KMO=.954$)

and significant Bartlett's test (Beavers et al., 2013). Thirteen items were retained as the cut-off point for the factor loadings set at an absolute value of 0.45 (Andriotis et al., 2008). These dimensions accounted for 83.35 % of the total variance and consisted of visual food safety cues, information food safety cues, and level of patronage. Cronbach's alpha was higher than 0.7 for all dimensions, suggesting a suitable internal consistency as proposed by Hair et al. (2010). The details are reported in Table 2.

The first factor, visual food safety cues, accounting for 68.6 % of variation across the sample, heavily loaded onto "cleanliness of exterior", "pleasant odor/smell", "cleanliness of waitstaff's clothing and appearance", "cleanliness of dining tables, chairs, and utensils", "cleanliness of toilets", "cleanliness of restaurant menu", and "inspection score". This factor was all about the respondents' visual appraisal of the food hygiene indicators of restaurants, of which the tourist's visual assessment of the cleanliness of dining tables, chairs, and utensils was the most important consideration in the restaurant selection. Items loading strongly onto the second factor were "reviews posted in TripAdvisor," "reviews posted in Facebook, Twitter, Yelp, etc., or other social media platforms," "tour guide's advice," and "family and friends' advice". This factor indicates that food safety cues explained 8.56% of the variation across the sample. The results discussed so far, indicate that family and friends' advice were considered by the respondents as the most important source of food safety-related information (M=5.01, SD=1.477). Factor three, the level of restaurant patronage consists of "level of patronage of the international tourists" and "level of patronage of local people" explained 6.08% of the total variance. The high mean value of the patronage level of international tourists (M=5.1, SD=1.361) illustrates that travelers are more likely motivated to comply with what other travelers judge about the safety of a restaurant.

Table 2. Cronbach's α and exploratory factor analysis results

Food hygiene attributes	Factor Loading	Eigen value	% of variance explained	Cronbach's alpha
Factor 1- visual food safety cues		7.93	68.60	0.96
Cleanliness of restaurant exterior	0.81			
Pleasant odour/smell	0.83			
Cleanliness of work staff clothing and appearance	0.84			
Cleanliness of dining tables, chairs, and utensils	0.82			
Cleanliness of toilets	0.78			
Cleanliness of menu	0.72			
Inspection score	0.76			
Factor 2- Information food safety cues		2.11	8.56	0.74
Reviews posted on TripAdvisor	0.786			
Reviews posted on Facebook, Twitter, Yelp, etc.	0.819			
Tour guide's advice	0.834			
Family and friends' advice	0.733			
Factor 3-Level of restaurant patronage		1.179	6.08	0.93
Level of patronage of the international tourists	0.93			
Level of patronage of the local people	0.72			
Total			83.35	0.96

Cluster analysis

To investigate whether particular subgroups of travelers are more or less inclined to utilize the food safety indicators in their choice of local restaurants, the factor scores were subjected to the cluster analysis with squared Euclidian distance applying the Ward

algorithm. The three-cluster solution was selected as the best fit for the study data (Table 3). Cluster 1, accounting for 47% of the respondents, was intended to utilize both the observed standards of restaurant hygiene and level of patronage in the choice of a local restaurant, suggesting a reliance on self-assessment of restaurant hygiene and crowding. Cluster 2, accounting for 37.9% of the respondents, intended to utilize both the observed standards of restaurant hygiene and level of patronage in the choice of a local restaurant, suggesting a reliance on self-assessment of restaurant hygiene and crowding. The respondents in cluster 3 based their protection intentions on the restaurant patronage level and external sources of information, suggesting that they were reliant on restaurant crowding, and advice from others in their restaurant selection. This cluster accounted for 6.4 % of the respondents.

Table 3. Clusters of factor loadings for respondents' intentions to use food safety indicators

Factor	Cluster1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
	Self-assessment of restaurant hygiene	Self-assessment of restaurant hygiene and crowding	Restaurant crowding and advice from others
Visual food safety cues	0.62	0.71	-1.08
Information food safety cues	-0.18	0.34	0.53
Patronage levels	-0.20	0.58	0.89
Numbers of cases	143(48%)	136(45.6%)	19(6.4%)

To figure out how protection intentions to use the three identified dimensions of food hygiene in the restaurant selection differed by socio-demographic and travel characteristics, the demographic composition and travel patterns of the three clusters were explored (Table 4). The respondents grouped in cluster 1, had an over-representation of females.

They had an undergraduate degree and an over-representation of the respondents were between 28-37 years old. The majority of the Middle Eastern people were categorized in this cluster. The nationality, level of education and income, visit purpose, and trip arrangement balance of cluster 1 approximately followed the sample as a whole. The over-representation of female respondents in cluster 1, may stem from the women's higher tendency to have control on the coping responses (Zimmermann et al., 2013).

The membership of cluster 2, had an over-representation of men, the youngest (aged 18 to 27 years) and oldest (47 years and over) age groups, with an undergraduate degree. Europeans were mostly grouped in this cluster. Finally, cluster 3, to which only a small proportion of respondents belonged had over-representation of the youngest age groups, respondents that had received their master's degree or higher. They were mostly group travelers from western countries with higher income (>\$3,000) that aimed to visit Malaysia for business purposes. The high proportion of travelers who bought tour packages in cluster 3, refers to the group travelers' high reliance on a tour guide's advice and other tourists' judgments of food safety. The particular pattern of the cluster membership can be also explained by the fact that travelers from Western countries with higher education levels and higher annual household income are more likely to use the Internet to assess information towards travel products and services (Heung, 2003). The current study findings comply with past studies reflecting the influence of socio-demographic and travel characteristics on the use of different food hygiene indicators in the choice of restaurant (Aksoydan, 2007; Bai et al., 2019; Barber & Scarcelli, 2009; Barber et al., 2011; Becker et al., 1999; Cai et al., 2001; Henson et al., 2006; Luo et al., 2008; Tuzunkan & Albayrak, 2017; Yasami, 2018).

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Upon existing literature, the present study provides the first in-depth analysis of tangible food hygiene indicators that operate as the decision-making variables in

restaurant selection. According to the study findings, three distinct food hygiene dimensions were detected. The first dimension refers to the observable indicators of restaurant food hygiene. The second dimension encompasses information food safety cues reflecting others' opinions and reviews about restaurant safety. The third dimension was associated with the level of patronage in the restaurant. International tourists were inclined to utilize visual food safety cues alongside information cues and the level of restaurant crowding in their choice of a local restaurant, reducing the risk of foodborne illness. Further, the research results illustrated that intentions to use different food hygiene cues differed across tourists' subgroups of gender, age, nationality, level of income, level of education, travel purpose, and trip arrangement.

Table 4. Cluster membership by respondent socio-demographic and travel characteristics (n=298)

Characteristics	Cluster 1 Self-assessment of restaurant hygiene	Cluster 2 Self-assessment of restaurant hygiene and crowding	Cluster 3 Restaurant crowding and advice from others
Gender			
Male	59 (41.2 %)	107 (78.7 %)	15 (79%)
Female	84 (58.8 %)	29 (21.3 %)	4 (21%)
Age			
18-27	9 (6.3%)	63 (46.3%)	14 (73.7%)
28-37	101 (70.6%)	11 (8.1%)	2 (10.5%)
38-47	25 (17.5%)	38 (28%)	2 (10.5%)
48-57	8 (5.6%)	24 (17.6%)	1 (5.3%)
Nationality			
Asian	67 (46.9%)	60 (44.1%)	2 (10.5%)
African	23 (16.1%)	15 (11%)	1 (5.3%)
American	10 (7%)	21 (15.4%)	5 (26.3%)
European	5 (3.5%)	27 (19.9%)	8 (42.1%)
Middle East	23 (16%)	2 (1.5 %)	0 (%)
Oceanian	15 (10.5%)	11 (8.1%)	3 (15.8`%)
Level of education			
High school or equivalent	23 (16.1%)	37 (27.2%)	0 (0%)
Vocational/technical school	3 (2.1%)	16 (11.7 %)	0 (0%)
Bachelor degree	78 (54.5%)	78 (57.4 %)	2 (10.5%)
Master degree	20 (14 %)	4 (3 %)	14 (73.7%)
Doctoral degree	19 (13.3%)	1 (0.7%)	3 (15.8%)
Monthly household income			
Under US\$ 1,000	66 (46.2%)	77 (56.6%)	2 (10.5%)
\$1,000 - \$2,999	49 (34.3%)	59 (43.4%)	2 (10.5%)
\$3,000 - \$4,999	26 (18.1%)	0 (0%)	10(52.7%)
\$5000- \$6,999	2 (1.4%)	0 (0%)	5 (26.3%)
Visit purpose			
Business	4 (2.8%)	26 (19.1%)	17 (89.5%)
Visiting friends and relatives	1 (0.7%)	32 (23.5%)	2 (10.5%)
Holiday/leisure	119 (83.2%)	75 (55.2%)	0 (%)
Medical-related trip	19 (13.3 %)	3 (2.2%)	0 (%)
Trip arrangement			
Tour package	43 (30%)	59 (43.4%)	17 (89.5%)
Individually planed	100 (70%)	77 (55.6%)	2 (10.5%)

From the theoretical viewpoint, the study outcomes represent a significant advancement in the study of consumer behavior in the travel and tourism context. Information seeking and utilizing tangible resturant hygiene indicators in the choice of

local restaurant are the subsequent behavioural responses to perceived risk as a motivational construct in consumer psychology. Because the risk of contracting a foodborne illness involves consumers' perception of the negative consequences of consuming unsafe food, consumers cope with this situation by using various risk-reduction strategies that they believe effective. The previous research has focused largely on the health-protective behavioral intention of the consumers, with little significance attached to international tourists, who represent the most vulnerable population against foodborne illness. On the other hand, the proven differences in protection intentions according to socio-demographic and travel characteristics suggest that these characteristics may no longer deserve to be treated as "background factors" influencing protection intention indirectly through perception, attitude and self-efficacy as attitudinal theories propose (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Ajzen, 1991; Rogers, 1975, 1983). They directly influence protection intentions as well. From the tourism perspective, the current study findings add to the existing body of knowledge by explaining the heterogeneity of tourists' safety preferences in the local restaurant selection.

From the managerial perspective, the research outcomes are expected to benefit the tourism and hospitality industry by drawing awareness towards the food hygiene scale used by international tourists to evaluate the food safety standards of destination local restaurants. It also brings to light the less emphasized but effective components that need specific plans to remove the barriers from using them (e.g. food inspection score, online restaurant reviews). Moreover, results relevant to the dimensionality of food hygiene indicators help to improve the planning of future effective risk communication messages through the most used communication channels. Such intervention is critical, as traveler's diarrhea may put tourists' travel plans on hold and ruin the overall tourist experience (Yiamjanya & Wongleedee, 2013) which in turn, may easily damage the destination image. The use of food hygiene cues in the choice of destination local restaurants can reduce the risk of restaurant-associated foodborne disease. As a result, fewer cases of food poisoning leads to the spread of positive word of mouth. Such an unpaid spread of positive messages plays a crucial role in promoting a destination's food image and enhancing potential travelers' intentions to consume destination local food.

The study findings also make incentives for local food establishments to pursue the proper standards of food hygiene to affect tourists' feeling of food safety and security. Additionally, socio-demographics and travel factors provide a well-constructed segmentation of international tourists, which efficiently directs resources and risk communication efforts for the segment targeted. As the study respondents were first-time travelers, this research predominantly examined the protection intention of travelers whose perception was "a priori" perception (Di Marino, 2007). This type of perception originates from the media and promotional efforts and represents a mental picture of a destination without actual visitation. "A priori" perception is different from "a posteriori" and "in situ" perceptions, as tourists with later perceptions hold a more realistic perception of the destination's products and services. Future studies may wish to examine such differences. Asians, who made up a high proportion of the study respondents, were mostly from Malaysia's neighboring countries where people share a large similarity in food culture. This similarity might influence the present study findings.

Moreover, this study contains no direct factors underlying protection intention, such as perceived risk, attitude, self-efficacy, or social support. Further research would be valuable to figure out the links of these aforementioned factors to protection intention. The current study greatly emphasized the observable standards of the restaurant's food hygiene, which is mostly linked to the eating environment. Therefore, improvement to the hygiene scale could be made by incorporating additional measurement items related to the waitstaff, who largely determine consumers' perceptions of restaurant services (Pettijohn et al., 2004).

These items can be relevant to the expected behaviors of staff working at a restaurant, like not coughing or sneezing onto food or never touching food with their hands.

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ELEMENTS OF MOLOKAN CULTURE IN THE KARS REGION WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF CULTURAL GEOGRAPHY AND CULTURAL TOURISM

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Abstract: In the present study, traces of the Molokan culture in the Kars region have been discussed in term of human-locality interaction. In this context; what the reasons that forced the Molokan to migrate from Russia to Kars were, what kind of cultural traces they left during their stay in the region, and which communities they interacted with in the region were all examine. Furthermore, it was aimed to produce answers to the questions such as what the cultural elements starting with the Molokans in the region and surviving in the present day were, how the existing Molokan cultural elements could be evaluated in the context of cultural tourism. For this purpose, the villages of Çakmak, Boğatepe, İncesu, Porsuklu and Yahınçayır where the Molokans lived densely, were selected as a sample and observation trips were organized to these villages. The interview method was used in order to obtain the information and opinions of the local people. As a result of the studies carried out, it was understood that the architectural elements such as houses, dairy farms, stables, mills, bridges and cut stone paved roads survived in the region from the Molokan to the present day, and they led the local people in many professions, especially cheese making and milling.

Key words: Kars, Molokans, Migration, Culture, Cultural Tourism

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INTRODUCTION

Culture is one of the important means in shaping the geographical appearance. While culture, which is a way in which groups of people can adapt themselves to the environment through collective behavior and technology (Sutton & Anderson, 2014: 14), allows people to adapt to their environment, on the one hand, it enables the environment

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to be adapted to the human's own needs, needs and goals, on the other hand (Cuche, 2013: 9-10). According to their characteristics of cultural development, people can create a social order on the one hand, and develop civilizations with different levels of development within the physical environments on which they live.

The different cultural elements generated by the societies form the cultural landscape of the place they live on together; in other words, its cultural geographical appearance. Cultural groups can change their locations over time for natural, human or economic reasons and transfer their cultural accumulation to their new locations.

This situation is both related to habits and accumulations and it is a manifestation of the desire to create and maintain the old in the new locality. The ethnic or religious groups participating in the migration movement and make sure that they live and maintain their culture in their new locations. They embrace their culture as the only element that holds their communities together. They are anxious about being assimilated or melt away within the new cultural pots. However, they interact with different cultural groups where they migrate and acquire new cultural elements.

Geographical spaces provide a basis for the development of human communities and different geographical environments determine the formation of different nations and cultures. In a nut shell, geographical diversity is the precursor of ethnic and cultural diversity (Atasoy, 2019: 80). As Lev Gumilev stated: *"The reason why Homo Sapiens species exists in the natural environment is the ethnos, and the differences between ethnos are not determined by language, religion, education or races, but are determined by the attitudes and behaviors of people. We should not forget that the most powerful factor determining these attitudes and behaviors is the way people accommodate themselves and adapt to the geographical environment"* (Slavev, 2006: 15). In other words, ethnos or ethnic communities are an integral part of geographic space; they are both influenced by it and influence it. Ethnos emerge in certain geographical spaces, shaped by ecosystems and their natural elements; they evolve, spread here, and sometimes disappear here as well when they are due. Geographic space is inevitable for ethnic communities; it is because the place of birth, growth and development, and the place of death of the ethnos are their geographic space, which is their destiny. In summary, ethnic identities emerge, develop or spread in certain geographical spaces under the influence of certain conditions, in which this complex and multidimensional process is called "ethnogenesis" (Somersan, 2008: 76). At the stage of ethnogenesis, while the ethnic communities are influenced by the socio-cultural characteristics of neighboring states, cultures and societies, they have an impact over them to a certain extent well as. Geographical space is the place where ethnic communities both influence and are influenced thanks to their human, economic and natural features; it is also the beginning and end of ethnogenesis; it is its place of birth as well as death (Atasoy, 2019: 80).

The Molokans of Kars Region, which is the subject of this study, is a community which has been subjected to migration at certain intervals and has been detached from its cultural places. Nevertheless, Molokans managed to preserve their cultural values and were able to shape their new spaces in line with their culture.

According to scientific sources in Russia, the founder of the Molokan movement is Semen Uklein (Ruslan, 2017). In the late 17th century, Dukhobor and Molokan (or Spiritual Christian) denominations emerged in Russia. These groups were the free peasants whose social base was based on the ideas of Western Protestantism. It was because their teachings contained ideas that undermined the secular authority. Including the defense of the homeland, they faced difficulties both in the Tsarist and Soviet times because they rejected violence (Inikova, 2007: 78).

There are three theories put forward by the Russian scientists about the origin of the name Molokan: According to the first theory, the Molokans drank only milk on the days of fasting because the Christian Orthodox laws prohibited the food intake. Moloko means milk in Russian. That is the reason why they were called Molokan, which means 'drinking milk'. According to the second theory, the Molokans were named after the Molochna (Молочной) stream in the Melitopolsk district, where they were exiled from the northern coast of the Azov Sea. According to the third theory, the Molokans chose to refer to the "spiritual milk" metaphor of the Holy Bible, they called themselves by the same of this community (Baptistru, 2020). The religious dissidents, called Spiritual Christians or Russian Serkans, gathered from steppe areas during the reign of Tsar Alexander I from 1801 and settled on the plains around Sütlü Creek (река Молочна) in the north of the Azov Sea; they were, then, deported to the Caucasus with an ultimatum given by Nikolai (Akçayöz, 2015: 27). The Molokans who were forced to leave the Molochna region were told that they had no place in any territory within the borders Russian Empire except the Caucasus, it has been reported to be located, the Molokans and Starovers took to the roads looking for new locations for immigration and established villages on the borders of Armenia, Georgia and Turkey (Denisenko, 2009: 62).

Molokans who were settled around Azerbaijan, Georgia, and Armenia in the Caucasus between 1830-1839 in order to establish Russian settlements on the new border line of Russia remained neutral during the Ottoman-Russian War of 1877-1878 and established very good relations with indigenous peoples. After the war, they were settled in the Kars and Erzurum regions where the Russian settlements in the Caucasus were located (Denisenko, 2009: 62). As it is commonly known, Kars and its surroundings were given as compensation to the Russian Empire at the Berlin Conference which was convened as a result of the 1877-1878 Ottoman-Russian War (the '93 War). Thus, for more than 40 years, Kars and its surroundings remained under the Russian rule. During this period, various ethnic and religious communities were displaced, forced to immigrate and settled in line with the settlement policy of the Russians. Starting from the end of the XIX century till the beginning of the XX century, the Russian population in the Kars region reached about 11000 people. About 6500 of this population consisted of Molokans and about 3000 Dukhobors (Semyenov & Karagöz, 2009: 112).

Since the Molokans considered murdering someone as a great sin, they refused to fight and go into the military service; for this they were sentenced to years of imprisonment and exile and were persecuted. As a result of their pacifist, peaceful beliefs against the war, the Molokans resisted the mandatory arming of Tsar Alexandr III in 1887-1889, and instead of succumbing to the pressure of the Tsar government, they began to emigrate extensively in 1904-1911 from the Russia, especially to the Americas. The Molokans, who settled in the United States at the end of their permanent migrations, continued their peaceful attitudes and they did not participate in 1st and 2nd World Wars (Denisenko, 2009: 60). The Molokans in the Caucasus region immigrated to the USA (California), Canada, Mexico and Australia. It is stated that the famous Russian writer Lev Tolstoy donated the income of his novel "Resurrection" to the migrating Molokans and sent letters to the countries to which they were going to (Arat, 2019: 209).

As a result of the Ottoman Russian War of 1877-1878 (the '93 War), Kars and its surroundings, which were under the Russian rule, were reclaimed in 1920 and the borders were drawn with the 1921 Moscow and Kars Agreements. While a significant part of the Molokans returned to Russia, some stayed and continued to live in peace in Turkey (Arat, 2019: 209). Finally, in 1962, the Molokans immigrated to the city of Saratov, which was founded by the Volga River in Russia (Figure 1). It is commonly known that the

political and social developments that took place during the USSR era caused psychological and social unrest among the Molokan community. Moreover, in the Molokan belief system, since it was a sexual taboo to marry even with someone from 5-6 generations earlier, the fact that they did not want to have to marry with very close relatives and that they did not marry with indigenous people caused this migration (Türkdogan, 2005: 7). In the interviews conducted in the region, it was emphasized that the Molokan girls married with the local people and continued to settle here, but the Molokan boys had almost no marriages except their own people.



Figure 1. Migration map of the Molokan communities
(Source: It was drawn from google map with ArcMap 10.2)

The Molokans who left Turkey for Russia, they maintained their folklore, economic activities and cultural traditions during the period they lived in the Kars region; they contributed to the local culture in many areas, especially in cheese making and milling.

OBJECTIVE AND METHODS

The Molokan families, who had lived in the Kars region for almost 80 years, maintained their cultural accumulation with them during this period; they shared many cultural characteristics, especially cheese making and milling, with the local people, interacted with them and made certain social, economic and cultural contributions to the shaping of the cultural landscape.

Up to the present time, various studies have been conducted on the religious, ethnic and social structures of Molokans. However, it was observed that the studies focusing on the subjects such as human-locality interaction and the organization of the

locality, which constituted the focal point of the geographical studies, have not been included. The aim of this study is to identify the economic, socio-demographic and cultural traces of the Molokan community in the Kars region, and examine all of these in the context of cultural tourism and introduce their possible contributions to the local tourism. In this context, answers to the following questions were sought;

- What are the reasons that have forced Molokan communities to migrate from Russia to Kars region?
- Which architectural, economic and socio-cultural traces (ruins) have the Molokan communities left during their stay in the Kars region?
- After the 1877-1878 Ottoman-Russian War (the '93 War), were there any other nations that immigrated to the Kars region?
- Which communities did the Molokan communities interact with in the Kars region and what is their evidence?
- What are the socio-cultural elements that have started with the Molokans in the Kars region and survived today?
- How can the Molokan cultural elements in the Kars region be utilized in the context of cultural tourism?
- What initiatives can be taken to get the Molokan communities living in various countries and regions of the world to visit the Kars region on certain dates each year and contribute to the region by spending foreign currency in the region?

Furthermore, during the field studies, the problems faced by cultural values were noted down, and it was aimed to make suggestions about what could be done for the protection and sustainability of these cultural values, which really make a difference and provide richness for the region. Qualitative research methods were used for the study.

Firstly, documentary data related to the subject were searched and secondary data related to the study were compiled. In order to establish the conceptual framework of the study, theses in YÖK Thesis Center were searched thematically, and all the academic and scientific publications about the Kars region and Molokans were collected and examined. After that, the primary data that would form the framework of the study was started. For this purpose, observation trips were organized to these villages and observation notes were taken, photographs were taken and interview method was used to obtain information and opinions of the local people. Semi-structured interview forms were used in the face-to-face interviews. The interviewees were identified by snowball sampling.

SETTLEMENT OF THE MOLOKAN COMMUNITIES IN THE KARS REGION AND THEIR REPERCUSSION ON THE ECONOMIC LIFE

As a result of the Ottoman-Russian War of 1877-1878, the Kars region was acceded to the rule of the Russian Empire. Kars, which was a district of the Erzurum Province during the Ottoman period, expanded its borders as far as the Ardahan and Oltu Townships when it was transferred to the Tsarist Russia and was incorporated as an Oblast into the General Governor of Zakafkasya (Ortaylı, 1978: 344). During this period, Kars region witnessed intense Slavic migration in accordance with the settlement policy of the Russians. Families of Slavic origin settled mostly in Kars, Zaruşat (Arpaçay), Şuragel (Akyaka), Cilavuz (Susuz), Novo Selim (Selim) and Ardahan townships. As of 1888, there was a Slavic population of 10671 in 1426 households in 22 villages. Among these, Molokans constituted the most populous group with a total of 6612 people in 937 households in 12 villages (Table 1). At the end of the 19th century, in addition to the people of Slavic origin, there were also people of other communities such as Germans, Swiss, Greeks, Assyrians, Armenians and Yezidis who settled in Kars. The Molokans managed to

live in peace with these ethnic groups and the Turks, interacted with them culturally and made significant contributions to the cultural and economic development of the region.

Table 1. Population of Slavic origin living in the Kars Province in 1888
(Data Source: Badem, 2010: 88)

Group	Number of Villages	Number of Households	Population
Orthodox Russian	4	179	1.086
Duhobor	6	310	2.973
Molokan	12	937	6612
Total	22	1426	10671

Since the Molokans settled in the region of Kars generally chose the rural areas instead of city life and possessed developed agricultural culture, they preferred the fertile land areas and waterfronts where they could do milling; they established new villages such as Sulakyurt (Nikolayevka), Şahnalar, Karahan, Çakmak (Blagodarnoe) and İncesu (Malaya Voront-sovka). In addition to this, they lived in the villages of Meydancık, Yalınçayır (Zührip), Yolboyu (Romanovo), Eşmeyazı, Boğazköy (Prohladnoye), Yolaçan (Aleksandrovka), Kümbetli (Vladikars), Planting (Novo Mihailovka), Çamçavuş (Vorontsovka), Karakale and Boğatepe (Zavod) (Figure 2).

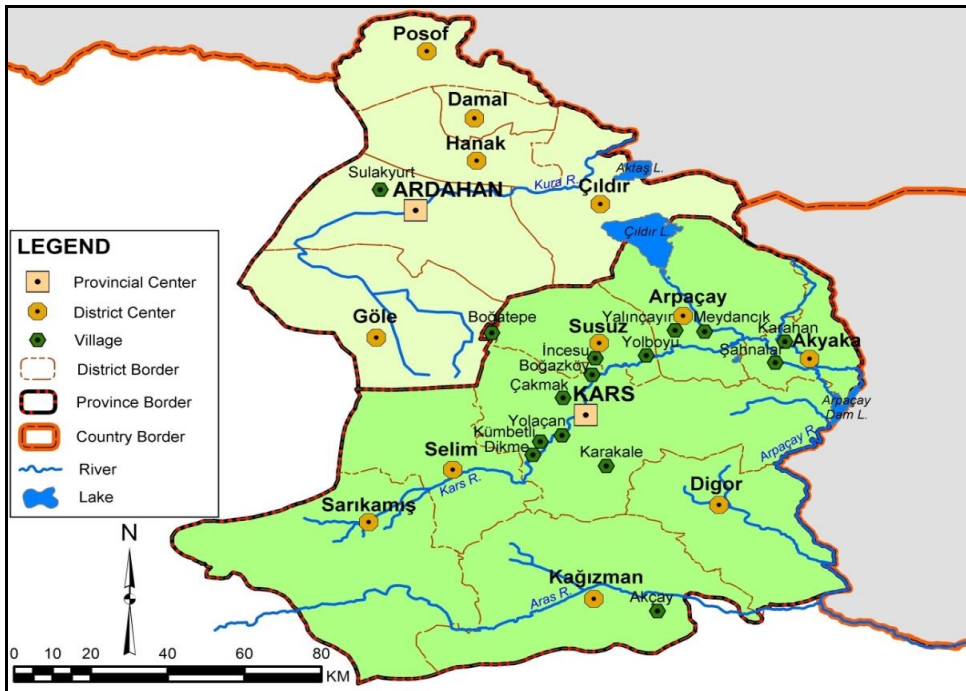


Figure 2. Main Villages where the Molokan Communities Lived in the Kars Region
(Source: It was drawn from google map with ArcMap 10.2)

The village of Boğatepe, which is located in the central district of Kars, was allocated to the Molokans as a plateau as it was located on a plateau flat of 2200 m altitude, approximately 5 km west of Büyükboğa Tepe (2732 m). The village of Boğatepe is one of the most recently established and developed settlements. On a trip to the region he

made, a Swiss citizen named David Moser found that milk was produced and that the milk was of suitable quality for cheese production. Boğatepe made significant progress with the establishment of four “Zavods”, which means a factory in Russian (Atış & Çelikoğlu, 2018: 315). The endogamic community structure of the Molokans because of their beliefs made them a homogeneous society in terms of ethno-cultural characteristics that were resistant to external religious and social influences and changes (Figure 3).



Figure 3. Molokan family with traditional clothes (Source: Rusian7, 2017), Molokan men in 1970's (Source: Molokans Wordpress, 2012)

However, contrary to these conservative features in their socio-cultural structures, the Molokans, which were open to innovations in technological field, were the most important driving force of the region in the modernization process in agriculture and animal husbandry (Suvani, 2013: 70). Under the rule of the Russian Empire, there were significant developments in animal husbandry and agricultural technology in the Kars region. In agriculture, horse and heavy plow were widely used; as a result, from 1884 to 1913 arable land increased 2 times, agricultural population 4 times. The horses used here were an interesting hybrid breed of big horses, what the local called “the Molokan Horse”. Until the Second World War, the horse was regarded as a «combat vehicle» in Turkey, strong and muscular breeds to be used in agriculture were bred. Kars was an exception in this regard during the occupation period. The Molokan horse, a big horse breed of Kars origin, carried the blood of the cold blooded big horse breeds of Europe such as Ardene, Percheron, Breton and Clydestale and Beljik. The breed, which emerged after mixing with Orlof and Bituyik breeds in Russia, was hybridized with the native breeds of Kars and 1.48-1.58 tall pack horse called Molokan horse emerged. However, this breed has been degenerated due to lack of good breeding in Kars (Ortaylı, 1978: 355).

Dairy breeding and dairy farming developed in Kars during this period, and a hybrid cattle breed called Zavod cow or Molokan cow became a common species. This cow is probably a cross breed called Siemental species where one of the native breeds was hybridized with Danish red (Ortaylı, 1978: 355). During the Molokans period, beekeeping, cattle breeding and soap production became widespread in Kars and its surroundings. Beekeeping, which is still an important source of income in the Kars region, became widespread thanks to the innovations in the hive and honeycomb methods introduced by the Molokan families. Moreover, the honey produced in the Kars region is among the highest quality honey in the world. The Molokans benefited from mechanical energy as well as the organic energy in the region. The Molokans who achieved great success in soap

manufacturing established their own repair shops and these shops still exist today (Akça & Kıyanç, 2017: 38). Since the Molokans were humble and hardworking, they established new villages wherever they settled down in the Caucasus; they planted products that had never been planted previously in the regions by harvesting products; they sold their harvest by using their food, the railways, and all kinds of transport and earned their living. They were quick to build a mill on many rivers in this mountainous region. By the end of the century, they generally became financially self-sufficient. Among the Molokan families, there were also those who became rich thanks to milling and agricultural trade and eventually rode very high (Denisenko, 2009: 62-63).

MOLOKAN CULTURAL ELEMENTS IN THE KARS REGION

During their stay in the Kars region, the Molokans left their cultural traces in such fields as architectural styles, dairy and stables, mills, roads, bridges and cemeteries, as well as soap making, beekeeping and cheese making, and applied their own traditional cultural experiences in some local activities. These people who were settled in the villages of Kars and its vicinity contributed significantly to the local culture. In their villages, which they planned with a new town planning approach, they tended to build houses in a sequential order on both sides of a wide and long-held main street. They paved their streets and avenues with stone. The entrances of the dwellings faced the avenues and the walkway was paved with stone and the edges were designed as a flower garden.

After the Molokans migrated to the Kars region, they established many villages in the region or settled down in villages vacated by the Muslims. These villages had a unique architecture. These villages, built on wide plains and wetlands, consisted of houses on both sides of the road. Wide spaces were left on both sides of the road. The houses consisted of thick walls and a roof. The opening of the doors to the south and the high windows were important measures taken to keep pace with the seasonal conditions.



Figure 4. An example for the single-storey houses of Molokans with cradle roofs and verandas from the village of Boğatepe located in the Kars region

While the ceiling heights of the houses provided better temperature preservation, the stoves called with wall heating feature ‘peç’ were used. In the gardens of the houses, there was a separate part called “Orchard” where fruits and vegetables suitable for the climate as well as flower species were grown. Additionally, there were fields called “Napızar” which were suitable for the regional structure. Between each of the seven

houses there were roads called “Gaps”. These roads were used to reach the fields as well as the passage of small and large cattle. This architectural order and settlement structure in the Molokan villages has largely been destroyed today. In the study conducted in the region, villages such as İncesu, Çamçavuş, Meliköy, Çakmak and Yolboyu in the Susuz district of Kars are among the best examples of the Molokan village structure. It was established that there were large architectural differences between the villages established later in the region (Akça & Kıyanç, 2017: 35-36). The application of wooden pole patio in front of the houses in the Kars region was introduced for the first time by the Molokans. It was observed in later years that the local people adopted this architectural style in their houses as well. It is clearly seen that the people of Molokan attached importance to fine carving technique ornaments on the wooden door and window shutters. Furthermore, the Molokans spread the use of cradle roofs reinforced with wooden beams instead of flat roofs in Kars and its surroundings (Özkan, 2015: 11) (Figure 4).

Even though the Molokan houses are mostly single storey, there are also examples of two-storey houses. In the two-storey examples, it is observed that the entrance of the guest room was separated from the family space for the purpose of hosting guests well and protecting the family privacy (Figure 5). The Molokan houses have basement floors called “badval”. Perishable products such as meat, fresh vegetables, green vegetables and fresh fruits are stored here. The roof sections of the houses have sections called “grışga”. They serve as storage for the durable household items.



Figure 5. An example of two-storey Molokan house in the Kars region

On the south-facing façade of the Molokan houses, there is a veranda section with wooden steps built with masonry rubble stone, which can be reached with several steps. The use of a veranda on the front façade is a characteristic of the Molokan village houses. This architectural element was gradually adopted by the local Turkish people and became widespread around Kars and Ardahan provinces (Özkan, 2015: 11).

In the Molokan houses in the Kars region, it is clearly seen that stone and wood materials were used to a certain extent. It is possible to say that the natural environmental characteristics of the region have also contributed to this. The widespread distribution of volcanic lands in the region has enabled the use of basalt rocks in the building structures. The stone material was mainly used as masonry material for raising houses from 60 to 80 cm above the ground floor. In this way, it was aimed to extend the life of the building both by placing the house on a solid ground and by reducing the

moisture effect. In some houses, it is seen that the verandas are open underneath and they are placed on basalt stones in order to prevent the wooden porch from decaying by breaking the contact of the wooden veranda with the soil. One of the areas where stone material is used in the Molokan houses is the walls. It is clearly observed that masonry was mostly applied on the walls of the houses.

The fact that the Kars Region is close to Göle and Sarıkamış forests has enabled the use of wood materials. In this way, elements such as verandas, ceilings and roofs, doors and windows, shutters, floor divisions and interior stairways stand out as the main areas where wood has been used. Some houses have a horizontal rectangular window on the door in order to illuminate the interior. Windows on the façades are generally rectangular in shape and have double sashes. Some houses also have window shutters.

The wooden components of the houses are decorated with examples of Molokan culture. This application is most commonly observed in windows and doors and balcony railings. In the ornaments, symmetrically processed geometric shapes have been used instead of religious figures as a manifestation of their beliefs (Figure 6).



Figure 6. Examples of Molokan culture decoration in the wooden components of the houses (the Kars region)

The Christian Molokans were opposed to worshiping in majestic churches. They thought that for the places of worship which they called “sobranie”, it was sufficient for these worshiping structures to have one section, be unpretentious and possess limited amount of furniture. As a matter of fact, the Molokan-made “sobranie” building located in the Eşmeyazı Village, which is currently used as a school building, does not at all bear the appearance of a church. The cultural features of the Molokans, such as the fact that they did not include the symbol of the crucifix in their places of worship, their lives and graves, that they were peaceful and sharing people, and that they did not eat pork, were effective in their acceptance by the Muslim people in the region. The Molokans are a community experienced in water milling. In this context, one of the important structures in the villages is the mills, which were used by the Turks in the region in the following years (Figure 7). In some villages, it was mentioned that the local people talked about the Molokan millers who continued the flour milling work during the Republican Period. In the interviews, it was stated that there were public baths resembling houses based on common use among the Molokan structures in the local villages. However, it was also stated that such structures were either demolished or transformed into another area of use.

It was observed that some possessions from the Molokans are still used today in the Kars region. One of these is the wooden cabinets, which Molokans call the “ışgap”, taking on the task of today's showcase cabinets. The word “İşgap” or “ışgaf” also appears as a cabinet in the Turkish Language Association's compilation dictionary. The “ışgaps” are functionally covered cabinets in which dry food and various items are kept. While there are drawers in the middle of the cabinets, the upper compartments consist of shelves with glass doors. It is observed that carved and relief samples are frequently used on the cover and drawers. The manifestation of the inner world and accumulation of the people of Molokan are the Molokan carpets which are among the elements that reflect cultural richness. In the Molokan carpets, one can clearly observe the symmetrical use and preference of geometric shapes, floral patterns and vivid color (Figure 8).



Figure 7. An old mill from the Molokans on the Kars Stream



Figure 8. Molokan-Made İşgap (Cabinet) in the Çakmak Village
in the Kars region and an example of a Molokan carpet from the Boğatepe village

Stables and dairies in the Kars region that have survived from the Molokan to the present day are important. It is clearly observed that these buildings were covered with 40-50 cm of soil in accordance with the climate of the region and grasses grew on them. In this way, stables and dairy farms were kept isolated against extreme cold in winter. The stables were usually built with high ceilings and a large structure. In this way, an airy environment for animals was created indoors. Wooden beams on the ceilings of the stables and thin beams of basalt were used to cut the bonding of the planks laid at half-

meter intervals to the soil and prevent rain leakage (Figure 9). The roof structure in question makes the stable cool in summer and warm in winter. Due to the favorable weather conditions indoors, some dairies today are used as rest rooms for Kars kashar and Gruyere cheese. In fact, it is emphasized that the cheeses rested in these structures turn out to be more mouth-pleasing than those rested in the new reinforced concrete structures. The basalt plateaus in the Erzurum-Kars-Ardahan region are among the Turkey's busiest cattle breeding zones; the fact that there is sufficient rainfall in summer in this region has generated economic consequences such as the fact that the extensive alpine meadows remain green throughout the summer and high grass yield (Doğanay, 2011: 201). The province of Kars located on the Erzurum-Kars plateau has been an important livestock center and livestock market since ancient times thanks to its rich grass presence and promoted itself with dairy products (Koday, 2005: 180).

In the Kars region, under the rule of the Russian Empire, a hybrid cow type called “zavod cow” or “the Molokan cow” generated an increase in meat and milk yield in livestock (Yurt Encyclopedia, 1982: 4497). This cow breed was named “zavod”, which means the factory in Russian because of its high milk yield. This term also refers to dairy farms in Turkish. As a matter of fact, gruyeres and kashar cheeses and dairies producing butter, namely “zavods”, became widespread in Kars in the period in question.



Figure 9. Views of the stables and dairies surviving from the Molokans to the present day

The Molokan (Zavod) cattle have an important role in the development of cheese production in the Kars region. Molokan immigrant families applied many types of cheese from the Caucasus in the newly settled Kars region and achieved very fruitful results. Gruyere cheese, one type of the cheese produced was transferred from the Swiss to the Molokans and from the Molokans to the Karapapak. The Molokan cheese was brought to Turkey by the Molokans through migration.

Quality Gruyere cheese is obtained only from cow's milk. A mixture of sheep and goat milk can be applied for kashar cheese. Morning milk milked in the Kars region in the May-July period gives the best results for Gruyere and kashar production. Immediately after milking, since it is easier to process milk without losing its natural temperature and it maintains its quality, the milk that is milked in the early hours of the morning (around 5:00 am) is taken into the Molokan-made silver cauldrons. The milk cooked in silver cauldrons of about 120 years is often fermented with the şırdan yeast, one of the natural yeasts. The fermented Gruyere cheese is put into large ring-shaped molds. The cheese is compressed and rested to remove the hard water. After a while, the cheese is thrown into the salt pool and is expected to absorb the salt here for a few days (Atış & Çelikoğlu, 2018: 319). During the interviews conducted in the Kars region, it was stated that Gruyere cheeses produced in the environment, and with the tools and equipment created by the Molokans were better quality than the fabricated products. Molokans also left important marks on the road construction in the Kars region. The 5 km long Molokan stone road and stone bridge in the Çakmak village are the main examples used still today. These transportation works can be considered as a part of Turkey's cultural tourism.



Figure 10. Samples of Molokan tombs from the Çakmak Village

Cemeteries are important cultural sites that leave a mark on the cultural geographical appearance and reflect the societies' understanding of life, death and faith. Cemeteries are works with social, psychological, artistic, folkloric and ethnic reflections as well as density of settlements, historical background and population characteristics. Traditions and customs of a society are cultural works that give clues about land use, understanding of art, religious laws and landscape architecture. Moreover, the cemeteries are one of the important parts of the cultural landscape which strengthens the bond of the locality with the people and forms a bridge from the past to the future. As can be seen in Figure 10, one of the reflections of the Molokan culture in the Kars region is the cemeteries dating back from past to the present day. Since the Molokans did not adopt the belief of the trinity, no marks of cross

symbolizing Christianity are found on their tombstones. When the tombstones are examined, it is understood that some Molokans living in the region during the Republican period converted to Islam. The movie “Deli Deli Olma”, shot in the Eşmeyazı village of Kars and released in 2009, provides a snapshot of the socio-cultural and economic lives of the Molokans in Kars. The film whose screenplay was written by Hazel Sevim Ünsal, produced by Taygun Aydın and Tolga Aydın, and directed by Murat Saraçoğlu is about the unattainable love of a Molokan youth named Mishka (Tarık Akan) and a Turkish girl Pabuc (Şerif Sezer). In the movie, Mishka is a miller in the village. The movie featured the migration of Molokans to Kars, their funeral ceremonies, their arts and instruments, Easter celebrations, their relationship with relatives in different localities, and their longing for the relatives in distant lands. In a song that is sung accompanied by a piano in the movie, the Molokans regarded themselves as a society that was dismantled like a couch grass from every place they settled down, but they, in fact, desired to be ivy.

CULTURAL TOURISM POTENTIAL OF THE MOLOKAN CULTURE ELEMENTS

The Orient Express, which has recently been the center of attention between Ankara and Kars thanks to rail transportation, has brought many domestic and foreign tourists to the province of Kars and enabled the revival of local tourism. The “Ani Archaeological Site”, which is located within the borders of Kars and includes the Ani Ruins, was included in the UNESCO World Cultural Heritage List in 2016 (UNESCO, 2020). The Ani Archaeological Site, one of 18 World Cultural Heritage assets of list in question has a significant tourism potential. The Kars Castle, 12 Apostles Church, Fethiye Mosque, historical public baths and stone bridges and examples of Ottoman and Russian civil architecture are among the main tourist attractions of the Kars province.

Furthermore, the Kars province has the touristic sites such as the winter tourism center in the district of Sarıkamış and the Allahu Akbar Mountains National Park that hosts the martyrs' cemetery of the troops that froze to death in the Caucasus military operations, the Lake Çıldır located on the Kars-Ardahan border protected as the 13th site under the Ramsar Convention of Turkey and the Kuyucuk Lake wetland, which is frequented by important bird species. Furthermore, there is a rich cultural accumulation in terms of gastronomic tourism, especially the rich varieties of cheese and Kars Honey and Kars goose. In addition to these, local produce such as the Kağızman churchkhela of the Kağızman district, fruit pulp, walnut and apricot together with the Kağızman Long Apple which have protected designation of origin with geographic indication registered dated 30.12.2017 and numbered 307 contribute to the diversification of the gastronomic tourism of the province. In recent years, the Boğatepe village has been one of the important destinations proved to make a significant progress in tourism in the province of Kars (especially after 2009). In 2009, an old building from the Molokans in the village was restored with the financial support of 59000 TL from the Serhat Development Agency and an eco-cheese museum was established. The museum in question that is Turkey's first and world's second eco-cheese museum has been one of the places frequently visited by domestic and foreign visitors (NTV, 2019). While establishing our eco-museum, it was aimed to establish the repository of local culture, protect the past cultural accumulation and transfer these to the next generations (Yemek, 2018).

It was thought that eco- museology was an umbrella that protected the local production and local cultures in the face of the developing industry, cultural interaction created by cheese production was emphasized and information obtained through oral history was transformed into products by being supported by the objects and documents. In the museum, what is needed in the production process of cheese from past to present is

exhibited and at the same time it is ensured that it is preserved and transferred to the future generations. The museum allows the accumulation of knowledge and preservation of the food production chain (Figure 11). Furthermore, exhibiting the materials used by the Molokans also increases the cultural tourism potential of the museum (Anadolu Agency, 2019). Activities such as serving breakfast to tourists by more than 20 of 85 households in the Boğatepe Village, thus allowing them to taste the cheese varieties produced in the village in person, marketing the medicinal and aromatic plants dried in the plant drying workshop established within the “Boğatepe Environment and Life Association” established by the women living in Boğatepe, organizing horseback rides around the village, and visits to the Boğatepe eco-museum, Turkey's first cheese museum constitute an important potential for the rural tourism. It is anticipated that the village of Boğatepe, which is already visited by more than 20000 tourists annually will host more tourists in the future.



Figure 11. A view from the eco-cheese museum in the Boğatepe village, the first cheese museum in Turkey

Similarly, taking the necessary steps in the name of rural cultural tourism in other villages, especially in the village of Çakmak, and introducing the arrangements including the cultural heritage of communities such as Molokans and Duhobors will begin to benefit to the other villages as well in terms of tourism. As a matter of fact, it has been stated that the communities in question have visited Kars in recent years in order to trace their ancestors. In this context, the fact that Molokans and Duhobors living in different countries of the world visit Kars more frequently and their accommodation here will make an important contribution to the local tourism. For this purpose, it will be beneficial to protect and promote the structures such as houses, stables, mills and Sobranie within the region of Kars and the tools of their own culture that have survived today.

The two peoples, living together and exchanging culture for a long time left peacefully while leaving. In this respect, by meeting some of the Molokans living today, contacting with Molokans and their grandchildren who left our country in the 1960s and organizing cultural events can be an important tourism resource for Kars and its surroundings, where Malacans lived at that time (Zaman, 2015:223).

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Kars and its surroundings remained under Russian rule for more than 40 years as a result of the Ottoman Russian War of 1877-1878 (the '93 War). During this period, in line with the settlement policy of the Russians, approximately 11000 people migrated to the region, including 6500 Molokans and 3000 Dukhobors. On October 30, 1920, annexation

of the Kars region by the Turkish army led by Kazım Karabekir and the Moscow and Kars treaties in 1921, a significant portion of the Molokans like the other communities who immigrated to the region eventually returned to Russia, and one part of them remained in Turkey. However, in 1962, almost all of the remaining Molokans in the Kars region migrated to Saratov, Russia, which was founded by the Volga River. It is commonly known that the political and social developments that took place during the USSR caused psychological and social unrest among the Molokan community. Moreover, in the Molokan belief system, since it was a sexual taboo to marry even with someone from 5-6 generations earlier, the fact that they did not want to have to marry with very close relatives and that they did not marry with indigenous people caused this migration. Today, it is stated that about 11 Molokans currently continue to live in the Kars region (Gazete Pusula, 2017).

Molokan communities lived in peace and solidarity with the local people about 80 years after they came to the Kars region. During this period, the local people had various socio-cultural, demographic and economic interactions with Molokans. As a result, the Molokans introduced the Molokan and Gruyere cheeses, the Zavod cattle (Molokan cows), Molokan horses, milling, vegetable cultivation, beekeeping and horticulture, the use of Molokan horses in agricultural works, cradle roofed architecture, stables with various strictures and dairy farms and various ornaments to the local culture. Molokans, on the other hand, learned ovine breeding, cheese varieties such as head cheese and knitted cheese specific to the region, and carpet and rug weaving from the local people.

In the Kars Region, architectural elements such as houses, dairy farms, stables, mills, bridges and stone paved roads of the Molokans have survived. In addition to this, the beekeeping and cattle breeding methods used by Molokans are among the elements that continue to exist in the region today. In addition, the Molokan soap factories and their own repair shops are among the cultural elements that continue to exist today.

Consequently, it is clearly observed that the Molokan cultural elements that have existed in the region have an important potential in terms of cultural tourism. These elements can be both transferred to the future generations with an effective approach for protection and contribute to the development and diversification of the local tourism.

In the interviews conducted in the Kars region: It was understood that the ancestors of the Molokans had an interest in the Eastern Anatolian lands where they lived for a period, and that the local people also had a positive opinion of the Molokans. Attracting the Molokans living in various parts of the world to the region in the context of cultural tourism will create a new source of income for the local people and contribute to the sustainability of Molokan cultural elements in the region. In this context, the Molokans who live as diaspora in different parts of the world, especially in California, USA, Canada, Mexico and Australia can be contacted. Web pages with English and Russian language options can be set up to introduce the region to Molokans in detail. In addition, an international congress about Molokans and Duhobors can be organized with the cooperation of Kafkas University and Ardahan University, Molokan and Duhobor scientists, researchers and students living abroad can be encouraged to come to the region and get to know the places where their ancestors or relatives once have lived.

The “Ani Archaeological Site”, located within the borders of Kars province and hosting the Ani Ruins, was included in the UNESCO World Cultural Heritage List in 2016. Moreover, the Lake Çıldır located within the borders of Ardahan province and the Kuyucuk Lake wetland, which is the 13th site under the Ramsar Convention of Turkey and frequented by important bird species are also located in this region. The Orient Express, which has gained popularity in recent years, adds a new dimension to the local tourism. Furthermore, scientific and artistic activities organized by the Kafkas University also add diversity to local tourism. It is emphasized that there has been deficiency in such areas as

accommodation, food and beverage facilities and tourism guidance in the face of the increasing tourism demand in the region. In this sense, the Molokan houses can be restored and converted into boutique hotels and restaurants. The Molokan structures and articles can be preserved and exhibited. In addition, it will be beneficial to develop complementary elements such as guidance and transportation services for tourists in order for the region to get its share at the desired level from the international tourism and ensure that the region gets the deserved coverage in the domestic and foreign printed and visual media.

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SPATIAL ORIENTATION AND THE PATTERNS OF THE TRADITIONAL SETTLEMENT IN THE EASTERN BALI: INVESTIGATING NEW TOURISM ATRACTIONS

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Abstract: The configuration of the traditional Balinese settlement is translated from a spiritual orientation related to the polarity concept. In this concept, the world is constructed upon opposite poles. It inspires spatial orientations and configurations, including the layout of villages. Since this spiritual orientation is based on geographical orientation, the highland, which stretches in the middle of Bali from east to west, causes the variations of spatial orientation system. This system produces the variations of spatial orientation patterns between the southern and northern. This system also generates a pattern's variation in many villages in the eastern part of Bali. This uniqueness influences the traditions of the communities, including the pattern of the architectural setting and the traditional settlement pattern. This uniqueness can be used as a means to present their identity and in the tourism economy can attract tourists. However, the variations have not been investigated yet, so tourists, even the local people, have not been aware of the uniqueness. In order to investigate this uniqueness, this paper examined the pattern of some villages in the eastern part of Bali. It uses architectural examination and spatial stories of people's activities as a method of investigation. This method involved architectural documentation, visual analysis, and narratives of people's cultural activities. This paper states that the geographical orientation is the impotent component to create the settlement pattern. The traditional settlement patterns of each village vary even though the villages are located close together.

Key words: Spatial orientation, geographical condition, landscape of Bali

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INTRODUCTION

Spatial orientation is an essential aspect of configuring the space of residential areas and traditional houses in Bali. In general, the traditional spatial orientation in Bali, *kaja-kelod* and *kangin-kauh*, is harmonized with a spatial orientation that applies globally (north-south and east-west). *Kaja* means toward the mountain and *kelod* means toward the sea. On the other hand, the direction of *kangin-kauh* is aligned with the east-west direction. Its aligned position and the opposite poles are an essential aspect in determining the direction of sacred-profane spaces and certain gods occupy each direction. This spatial and spiritual orientation is used as a basis for settlements and traditional housing in Bali in general. This basic spatial pattern for settlement is to produce harmonious spaces for occupants in which natural and built environments, creativity and spiritual and other components of people's life become a grand orchestra (Gupta, 2017). However, some villages, especially in eastern Bali, have unique and only local directions of *kaja-kelod* and *kangin-kauh*. The uniqueness of this spatial orientation has the potential to influence and create unique and specific variations in the patterns of space for traditional residential areas in the region. As other traditional settlements that tried to address the topography conditions (Vaisakh & Sood, 2017), this orientation concept is also influenced by the condition of the mountains of Bali, where the highlands are located in the center of the island, which extends from west to east.

This topography condition causes Bali is divided into two parts, namely southern and northern Bali and *kaja* and *kelod* to change depending on location. *Kaja* is north and *kelod* is south in the southern part of Bali and vice versa. On the other hand, *kangin* and *kauh* are fixed directions where *kangin* is the direction of the sunrise and *kauh* is the direction of the sunset. However, some areas in the eastern part of Bali, especially in villages located around Mount Bisbis (Lempuyang), have different orientation directions. Unlike villages in general that refer to the highlands in the central part of Bali, which stretches from west to east, the villages in this region are oriented to two mountains (Mount Bisbis and Seraya), which are not too high but have an essential meaning (Wassmann & Dasen, 1999). In order to explore this orientation system, a based line survey was undergone to inventory the pattern of the settlement and housing. This inventory and interviews with the occupants are the way to reconstruct the unique and specific pattern of the traditional settlement and houses in this area (Putra et al., 2017).

The existence of a unique and specific spatial orientation that only applies locally is a tradition that shows cultural diversity in Bali. It is exciting things to deeply explore to understand the influences of spatial conception and patterns and the arrangement of spaces in traditional villages in the Eastern of Bali. This exploration can be an effort to inventory cultural textures and specific architectural practices, as well as reveal and explore the diversity of architecture in Bali and Indonesia. The uniqueness of this architecture can also be used and developed as one of the new tourist attractions in Bali. Therefore, the uniqueness of this region can also be the first step and new research fields not only related to the world of architecture but also associated with other fields such as anthropology, cultural arts and social structures of society and the field of tourism. Furthermore, this can be developed to support local wisdom-based tourism.

TRADITION AND CONCEPT OF SETTLEMENT AND HOUSE

Balinese traditional settlements and housing are one manifestation of the Balinese culture and traditions. Its settlements and housing reflect the broad experiences of the past and the inheritance of cultural aspects. These cultural aspects can be seen as a resource for creating a cultural identity (Hall, 1990; Derek & Japha,

1991; Proshansky et al., 1983). This identity expresses the traditions and cultural similarities between members of the community and expresses differences with those who are not members (Brubaker & Cooper, 2000). Settlements, houses and their traditions are interrelated and bequeathed from generation to generation. A vernacular building including houses and residential areas are considered as an intersection of the bequest of property and traditions (Lozanovska, 2011). Balinese traditional settlements and housing is a space that shows that the world is divided into two opposite poles, the nature associated with the divine and the lower realm (nether). The upper realm is a sanctified world, while the underworld is profane (Hobart et al., 2001; Eiseman, 1989). Furthermore, between the two poles above, there is a space that is called *madyapada/mertyapada* as a space for living beings (Hobart et al., 2001; Swellengrebel, 1984).

Balinese people believe that they have a religious philosophy in maintaining harmonious relations with God, human beings and protecting the environment. This philosophy is called *tri hita karana* (Hobart et al., 2001). This philosophy inspired other concepts from the physical division of the universe to the physical divisions of living things such as the concept of *tri loka* and *tri angga*. The concept of *tri loka* includes the upper realm for God (*swah loka*), the middle world for living beings (*bwah loka*) and the underworld (*bhur loka*). The concept of *tri angga* includes *utama*, *madia* and *nista* or head, body and feet (Eiseman, 1989).

The orientation concept in most villages in Bali is influenced by the geographical condition of Bali. The village (Figure 1) is divided into three parts. The sacred direction (*utama*) is located in the highland/mountains called *kaja*. For Balinese, the highest mount (Mount Agung) is the most sacred place. The opposite direction (*nista*) is *kelod* meaning the seaward (Gelebet, 1996; Rigg, 1996). In between the two opposites direction is the intermediate world for human beings (*madya*).

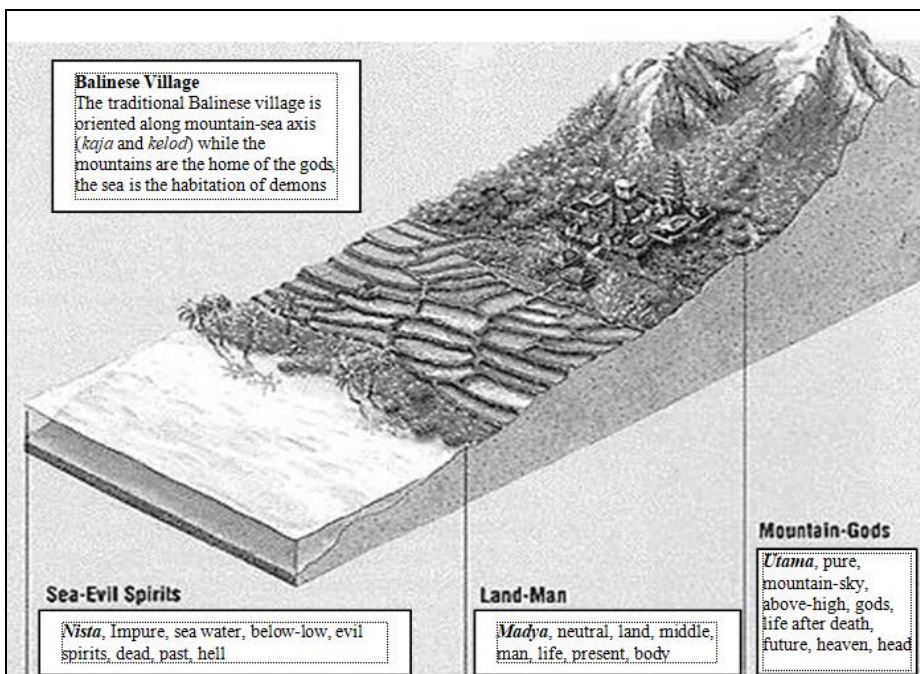


Figure 1. The Concept of Balinese Villages (Source: Rigg, 1996)

However, most villages of Bali use the highland that is stretching from east to west in the middle of Bali, as the main direction for a sacred place. This topography condition causes *kaja* and *kelod* to change depending on location. The spatial orientation in Bali is then divided into two parts, namely southern and northern Bali. *Kaja* is north and *kelod* is south in the southern part of Bali and vice versa. On the other hand, *kangin* and *kauh* are the fixed directions where *kangin* is the direction of the sunrise and *kauh* is the direction of the sunset (Figure 2) (Budiharjo, 1986; Gelebet, 1986; Meganada, 1990).

Kangin, where the sun rises that brings light and life, is the sacred direction whereas, on the contrary, *kauh*, where the sunset is the profane region (Hobart et al., 2001). The two main directions, *kaja-kelod* and *kangin-kauh*, are a coordinate system and orientation, ritual behavior and the arrangement of social spaces (Hobart et al., 2001). However, some areas in Bali have different orientation directions. Some villages are oriented to mountains near the villages, which are not too high but have an essential meaning. This area includes several villages, such as Seraya Village in the south.

In this village, like other villages in south Bali, *kaja* is north and *kangin* is east. However, other villages around it showed different things. *Kaja* in each village remained oriented to the top of the mountain. Therefore, the direction is different in many places. Other villages in Bali have the direction of *kangin* and *kauh* fixed. However, in these regions, the direction of *kangin* continues to change according to the location of the villages. The further away from Seraya Village (the counter-clockwise movement), the direction to miss moving continues to be northward parallel to the coastal landscape, such as in Banyuning and Batukaseni. In these villages, *kangin* is to the north while the sun rises in *kelod* (towards the sea) (Wassmann & Dasen, 1999).

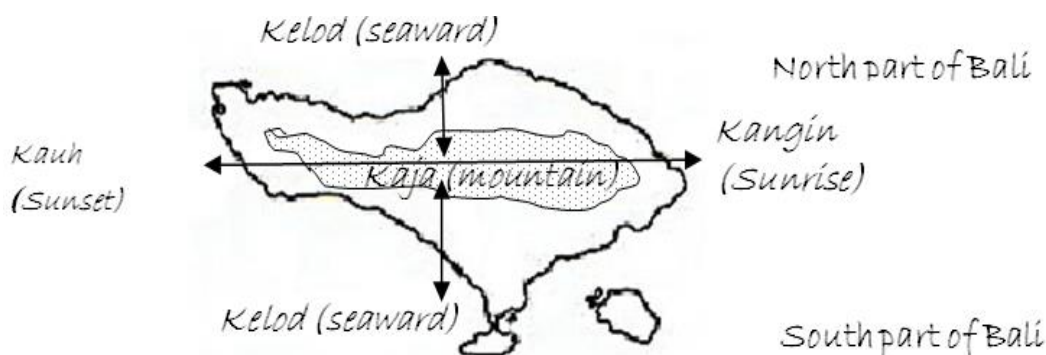


Figure 2. The two opposition concept, *kaja-kelod* and *kangin-kauh* in most villages in Bali
(Source: Budiharjo, 1986)

In the variation of the village orientation, there is general concept of the Balinese village called *desa pekraman*. Unlike in the modern perspective that focuses on the numbers of the population (Smerdon et al., 1997), in Bali, the term “village” is about territory and congregation. A Balinese village is an organization of people living in a particular territory as members of a village (*krama desa*). They discuss, prepare and conduct many village ceremonies and festivals to maintain the sanctity of their village (Sukawati, 2004; Parimin, 1986). The unity of villagers is related to *karang desa*, the area of dwellings of villagers; *awig-awig*, the rule that is made and imposed to villagers; and *kahyangan tiga*, the three temples (Puseh, Desa and Dalem) as a system of temples for villagers for praying (Pitana, 1994). A village has the autonomy to manage its area in cultural and religious activities. It also has and creates its own traditional rules (*awig-*

awig) and elects a head of a village called *bendesa*. Any decisions and policies in the village are stated in a meeting of members. Usually, a village is divided in some traditional neighborhood communities called *banjar*. This traditional village system is handed down from Balinese ancestors. However, in order to address novel conditions, the new system has been created to complete the old. The old called *desa pekraman* still managed religious and traditional practices while the new managed secular activities. These two systems have been applied since the Dutch administration in Bali and are still applied until today (Vickers, 1989; Picard, 1996; Nordholt, 1986). Therefore, *desa pekraman* is more “a ritual –symbolical entity than a practical administrative one” (Warren, 1993, p. 7).

However, the engagements with other cultures and the novel condition of social movements have influenced the process of cultural transformation in Balinese communities. The transformation that profoundly influences the process of accepting new traditions in many parts of Bali has been stated by many studies on Bali such as those of Agung (1991), Dharmayuda (1995) and Picard (1996). These factors cause the variation of not only the process of inheritance of traditions but also acceptance and recommendations, based on the various motives of recipients. This process varies in every society to produce a variety of cultural practices. This variation can be presented in the traditional Balinese houses influenced by the variation of the villages. The villages are divided into two types, namely the Bali Aga and Bali Daratan. The first mostly lay in the highland areas, while the second that are the majority in Bali are influenced by the Majapahit culture (Parimin, 1986). Under the external force of the Majapahit cultures, the Balinese culture has been transformed. This transformation is the result of both conquest and colonialism. The transformation has also undergone until today in which the Balinese culture is also influenced by Tourism Economy (Putra et al., 2019).

The Bali Aga villages are few in numbers. However, they have various local traditions. The main characteristic of this village is a communal street running from *kaja* (toward the mountain) to *kelod* (toward the sea) such as Julah, Tenganan and Bugbug (Figure 3). However, every Bali Aga village has a specific pattern (Parimin, 1986).

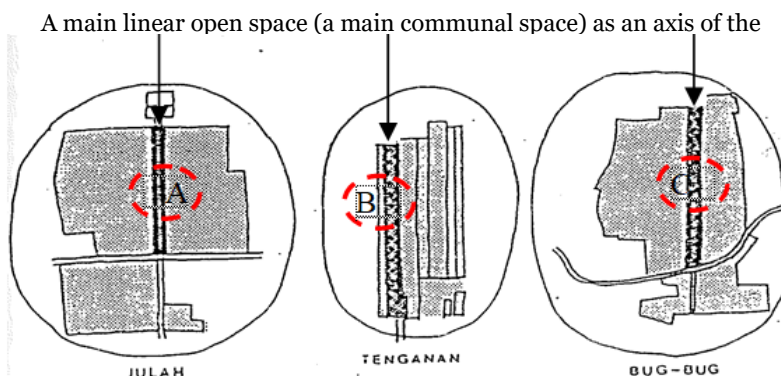


Figure 3. Plans of Bali Aga villages (Julah, Tenganan and Bugbug), (Source: Parimin, 1986)

The main physical feature of the Bali Aga village is a linear communal open space consisting of various facilities. This space is significant in the village to perform social and ceremonial practices as communal activities. The communal space in Tenganan, for example, consists of temples; *ayunan*, a traditional swing; *bale agung*, a meeting hall of the village; *bale kulkul*, a wooden bell tower; *jineng*, a typical rice granary; *bale lantang*, a place for performing ceremonial activities and *bale teruna*, a meeting hall for the youth

(Samadhi, 2004). In contrast, the Bali Dataran villages that are influenced by Majapahit culture have few village facilities. The pattern is similar because of cultural standardization by the Gelgel Kingdom, which is the inheritor of the Majapahit Kingdom from Java in Bali. The pattern of the village has copied the Majapahit prototype (Parimin, 1996). Based on Majapahit system, a village is divided by two main axes (*kaja-kelod* and *kangin* (east) –*kauh* (west)) called *catus patha* (Figure 4). Spaces around the crossroad are locations of some village facilities including a market, temples, and a community meeting pavilion called *wantilan*. In these spaces, villagers carry out ceremonial and traditional practices including many ceremonies and social activities.

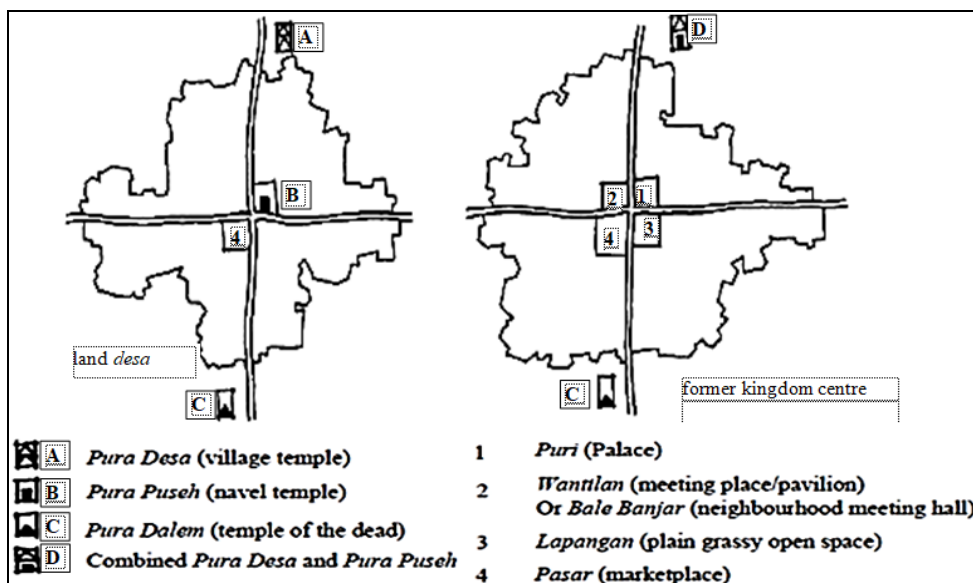


Figure 4. Plans of Bali Dataran villages (Source: Parimin, 1986)

On the other hand, unlike most villages in southern and northern Bali, villages in the eastern part of Bali, especially the villages around mount Bisbis such as Culik, Bangle, Sega, Amed and Bunutan, have different local spatial orientation systems in every village (Wassmann & Dasen, 1999). In this area, the orientation system uses mount Agung as the peak point for *kaja* direction if the mount is visible from the village such as Culik and Amed. However, if the mount Agung is invisible, the orientation for *kaja* is toward another mountain nearby such as Mount Bisbis and Seraya. Both mountains are small and not too high but have a particular value for both villages. While in southern of Bali, *kaja* is the north and *kangin* is the east, in Sega, *kaja* is north-east direction and *kangin* is almost east while in Bangle the next village, *kaja* is south-west and *kangin* is south-east. In Amed, *kaja* is west and *kangin* is south while in Bunutan, *kaja* is the south-west while *kangin* is east (Figure 5) (Wassmann & Dasen, 1999).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Factors that influence the pattern of a traditional village and settlement are spatial orientation that has been used for generation to generation. The orientation influences the zonation and the way people perform their socio-cultural and domestic activities. This paper used the architectural and historical investigation as an essential method of

examination. This method involved architectural documentation, graphic analysis, spatial stories of people's and narratives of people's cultural activities and traditions to produce the inventory of spaces in the settlements. This inventory was an essential stage to examine physical characteristics of the settlement that can carry out through a based line survey. This based line was undergone to record and explore the pattern of the settlement and housing. Physical transformations of the village were documented and examined through visual investigation. This inventory and interviews with the occupants are the way to reconstruct the unique and specific pattern of the traditional settlement and houses in this area (Putra et al., 2017). This paper has identified three villages (Culik, Sega and Amed) as case studies for the examination of the variation of the spatial orientation and the pattern of the traditional village as a new tourist attraction in the Eastern Bali. The patterns of the villages are varied. The variations depend on the spatial orientation that is oriented to the mountains that have an essential meaning.

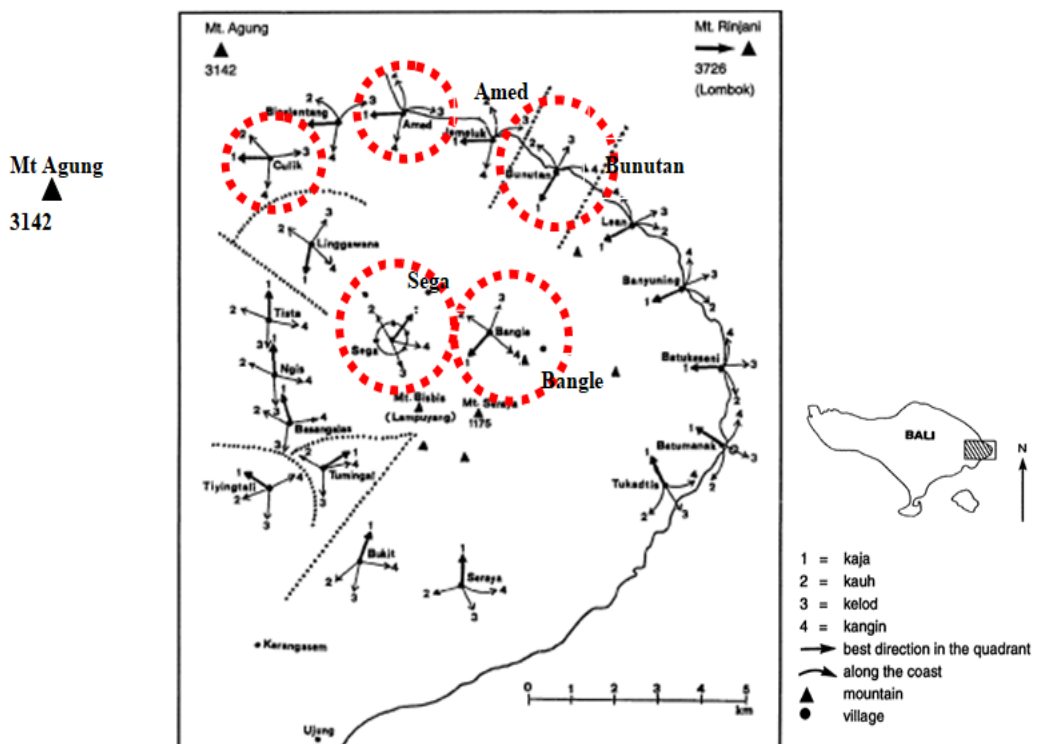


Figure 5. Traditional orientation system in many villages in Eastern of Bali
(Source: Wassmann & Dasen, 1999)

As an architectural production, the patterns are cultural products that express the sameness of the members of society. Amed is located in the east of Mount Agung, the most important mount in Bali. Since the mount is visible from the village, the mountain is believed as a sacred place for the people. Therefore, *kaja* in Amed is directed to the west (toward Mount Agung) while *kelod* in Amed is directed along the coast and *kauh* towards the sea. Similar to the first village, *kaja* in Culik is the West. However, when Amed is a beach village, the center of the Culik is a little bit far from the beach. On the other hand, Sega is a highland village. In this village, *kaja* is to the top of the slope. Spatial orientation

produces a different pattern of the villages. In an attempt to capture this variation, the three villages, which have a different location, geographic condition and spatial orientation, were selected as the locations for this study. They are Amed that is a coastal village, Culik that is the center of the village is far from a beach and Sega is a highland village.

A TRADITIONAL VILLAGE AS A STAGE OF CULTURAL TOURISM

Villages and traditional houses can be seen as a stage to perform many ceremonial activities. Many festivals are performed in a temple and utilize many areas of the village during the ceremonial process. *Melasti* is one of the rituals during a festival in a temple that attracts visitors. This activity is dedicated to God in order to purify spiritual offerings. Villagers bring offerings and parade from a temple to either a river or a beach. *Ngaben* is another ceremony that is performed in both a traditional house and village facilities. This ceremony is performed in a house, and the families, helped by the villagers, bring a dead body to a graveyard using a tower building called *wadah*. Such activities are found in almost every village in Bali and become a cultural performance to attract tourists. Ceremonial practices that are dedicated to God, ancestors, the environment and human beings are also performed in a traditional house. These activities are performed in pavilions and *natah* (the courtyard).

The activities generally involve relatives, members of a village and friends to help the family to manage the practices. Similar to the ceremonies in the village, ceremonies in the traditional house also utilize many offerings. A culture consisting of artifacts and other cultural practices is a resource for tourism development in many regions, including Bali. The Balinese culture, inspired by the Hindu Balinese religion, is utilized as an asset by the Balinese. Tourism development has an interrelationship with culture.

Tourism has motivated the consciousness of the people to preserve their cultural practices because cultural preservation has supported tourism development (Sanger, 1989; McKean, 1973). Since the emerge of cultural tourism in the 1980s, the satisfaction of tourists in a tourism destination has been no longer enjoying the natural beauty and completeness of tourist facilities but also has tried to visit historical and cultural sites, attend special events, or visit museums (McKercher & Cros, 2002). The uniqueness of the village patterns and the environment-friendly of the villages can be a new solution for tourism development (Susyanti & Latianingsih, 2014). In cultural tourism, all elements in a village are potentials for tourist attractions. The village is a stage to perform its traditions, culture, environment and activities that are different from other villages.

THE PATTERN OF THE SETTLEMENT AS TOURIST ATRACTIONS IN THE EASTERN OF BALI

The variations of settlement in Bali can be seen as an idea of uniqueness that offers a sense of dignity. As an architecture production, the patterns of settlements are cultural products that express a commonality of tradition and culture among the members of a society and sharp distinctiveness, from non-members. The differences in the orientation system in the eastern part of Bali have influenced the variation of the pattern of the settlement. Since Mount Agung is located in the west of the village, *kaja* in Amed is directed to the west. The mountain is visible from the village so that the mountain is believed as a sacred place for the people. Unlike other villages in Bali that is *kelod* toward the sea, *kelod* in Amed is directed along the coast and *kauh* towards the sea. This orientation then is used as a reference to arrange spaces. Like other villages in Bali, the direction of *kaja-kangin* is a sacred area, while the profane zone is in the direction of *kelod-kauh* (Figure 6). Figure 6 also demonstrates that the village has one

main axis that connects the Puseh temple (Figure 7a) to the cemetery with the graves where the houses of the residents are in between them. Every resident's house has an exit toward the main corridor. Some alleys are in the vicinity of the main corridor (Figure 7b) with several houses using the path as the primary access.

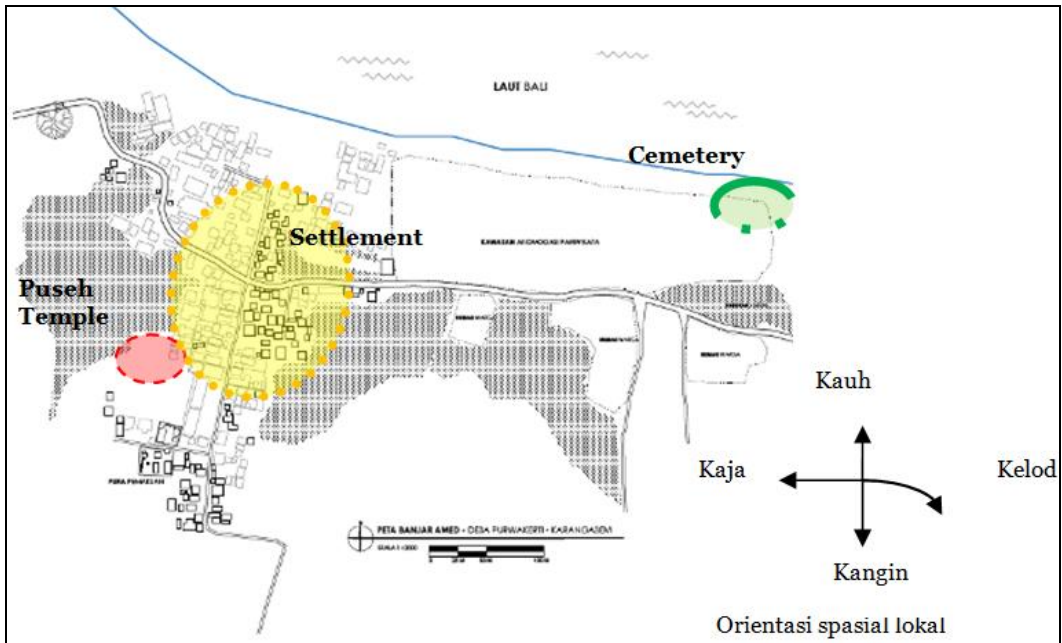


Figure 6. The pattern of Amed (Source: Modified from Satellite Image-Google Earth, 2019)



Figure 7. Puseh Temple (left) and the corridor of Amed (right)

Similar to Amed, Mount Agung is visible from Culik so that the most sacred place is directed to *kaja* (west). In this village, the center of Culik traditional village facility is Bale Agung temple that is the center of the cultural activities of Culik. The zoning of the main functions in Culik uses local spatial orientation where the direction of *kaja* is a sacred area and the location of a holy place, while the profane zone is in the direction of *kelod* (Figure 8). The village pattern, in general, is in the form of *catus patha* in the direction of

kangin from Bale Agung temple (Figure 9a). In the direction of *kangin-kauh* there is a village market which then extends as a trading area around the *catus patha* extending along the road. In the middle of the *catus patha*, there is a statue of the goddess Danu which is related to the history of the village. The residential area stretches along the main path of the *catus patha* (Figure 9b). Each house has an exit toward the main corridor and there are several alleys where several houses access to the alley.

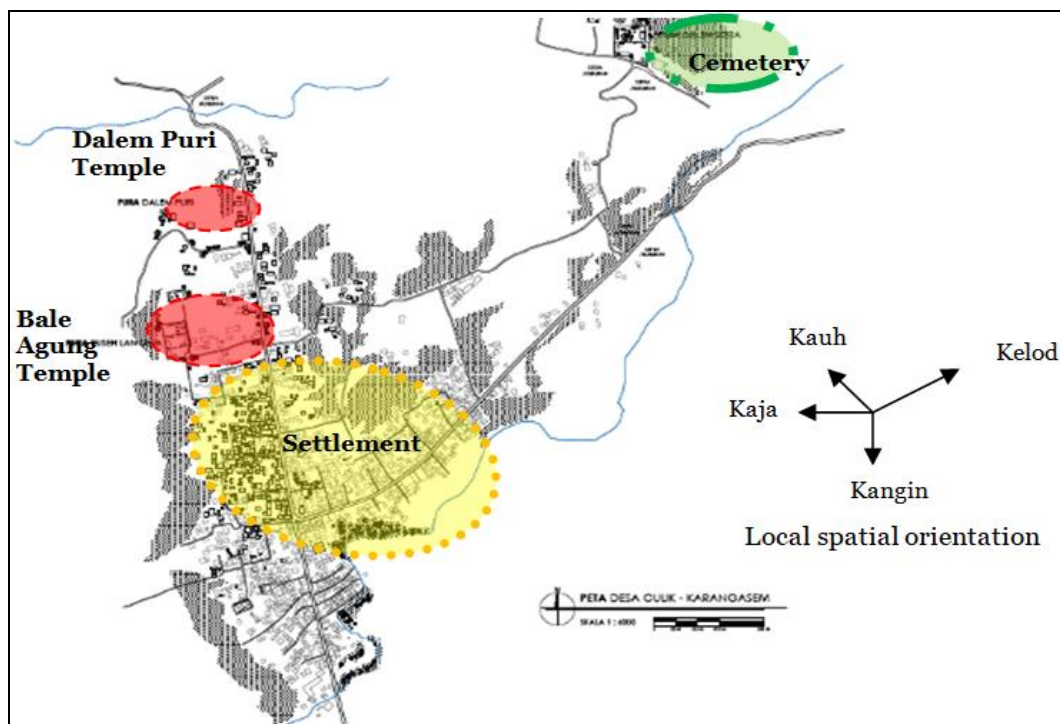


Figure 8. The pattern of Culik (Source: Modified from Satellite Image-Google Earth, 2019)



Figure 9. The Bale Agung Temple (left) and the *catus patha* (right) of Culik

The difference between the other two villages, Sega is a traditional village that has an extensive area with the village center is in a plateau. In Sega, *kaja* designates the top

of the slope on which the village lies. On the other hand, *kelod* is directed toward Mount Bisbis (Lempuyang) while *kangin* is towards sunrise. The uniqueness of this village is that the sacred place is located at upstream location called *hulu* that is at the direction of *kauh* (north-west) (Figure 10). The abovementioned local direction then influences the setting of the village. The main temple in Sega (Bale Agung and Puseh Temple) is located in *hulu* direction not in *kaja* like other villages (Figure 11a). Around the temple, there are also several *kawitan* temples, the temple for a kinship group. Meanwhile, the cemetery is in the direction of *teben* (profane direction). Residents' housing is more or less from the sacred area where people's houses lead to the main road. The settlement has two main corridor lanes where each resident's house puts the gate towards the corridor (Figure 11 b). Several houses use small alleys as access to the main corridor. In the past, this corridor had access to the village to other villages.

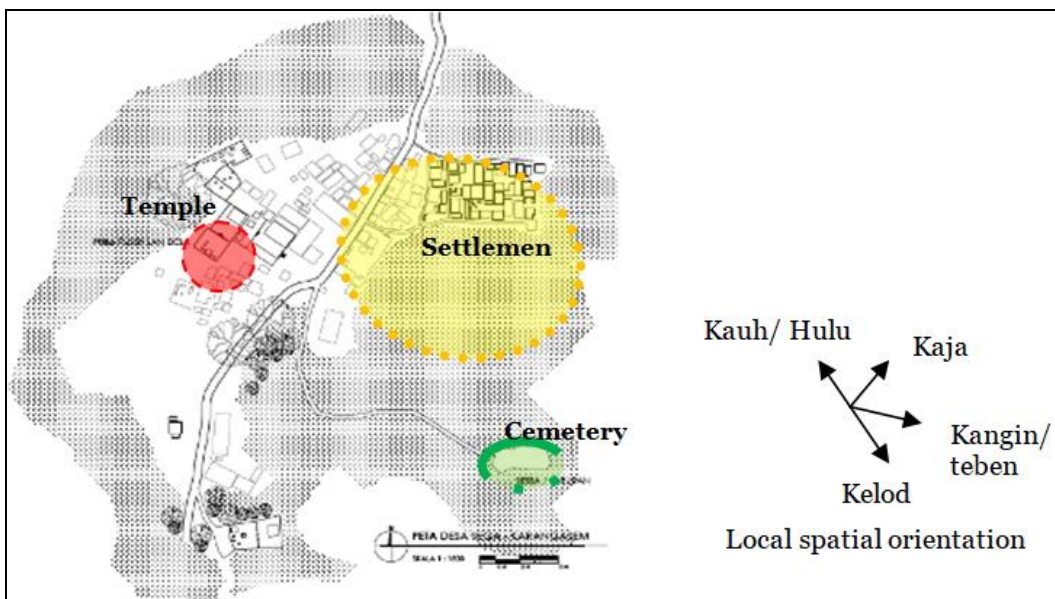


Figure 10. The pattern of Sega (Source: Modified from Satellite Image-Google Earth, 2019)

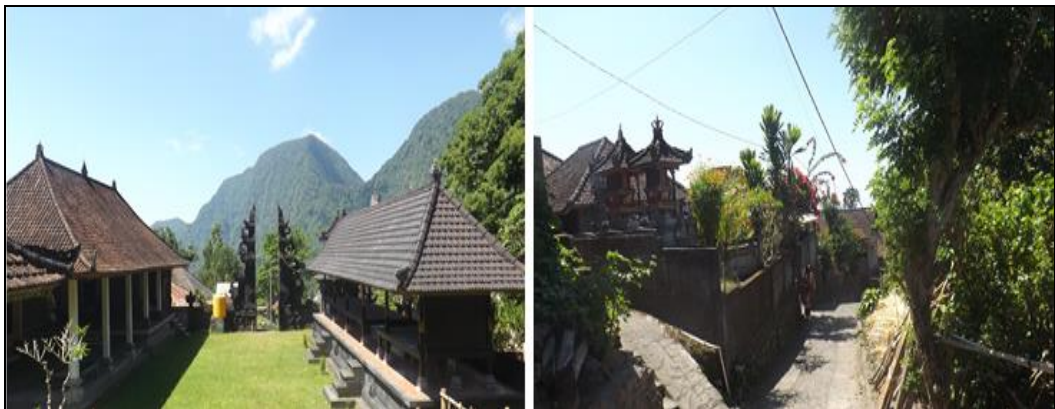


Figure 11. The Bale Agung and Puseh temple (left) and the corridor (right) of Sega

The differences in spatial orientation have produced the differences and variations of the patterns. Since Bali has relied on its culture to develop the unique tourism model, these variations have become the resources of tourism development to attract tourists. The motivation of tourists is not only to look for the natural environment but also to search for exotic cultural experiences (Yang et al., 2006) that are known as cultural tourism. This phenomenon is inspired by cultural motivations such as performing arts, cultural trips, and other related activities (World Tourism Organisation, 2012). Based on this motivation, many regions try to preserve their culture and promote them to generate traveler attention (Yang & Wall, 2009). Bali, as the main traveler destination in Indonesia, accentuates its culture to be a magnet for tourism. However, tourism in Bali is separated into two, ("*sunlust*" and "*wanderlust*"). Gray (1970) stated "*sunlust*" is tourists motivated by the desire for rest and relaxation at the three "s" (sun, sea and sand) (Heitmann, 2011, p. 33). On the other hand, "*wanderlust*" is tourists who travel and are interested in different traditions and cultures. A motivation of tourists to experience different cultures gives opportunities to the villages around Mount Bisbis (Lempuyang) in the eastern part of Bali that have variations of spatial orientation and settlement patterns to develop their unique tourism models. These variations will produce the variations of cultural activities and practices in which the spaces in a village become the theater of the cultural activities. The spaces on the settlement can be seen as a stage to perform many ceremonial activities. The uniqueness of the settlement, including the spatial pattern of the village and the use of spaces in performing socio-cultural activities, can create new tourism products. These opportunities are influenced by the guests' motivation for authenticity, which is fundamentally a quest for cultural diversity (MacCannell, 1976). As a part of the culture, the uniqueness of culture becomes a strategy to seize opportunities in the development of tourism products (Sugiyarto & Amaruli, 2018). The significant role of cultural diversity for attracting tourists may help to preserve cultural practices (Cohen, 1988). The uniqueness of a tourism product, including cultural and ceremonial activities, architectural styles, traditional houses and traditional settlement and pattern, should be evoked and utilized as resources to attract tourists.

These unique resources should be conserved for continuous use in the future, in which they are not only significant for the natural environment but also crucial for cultural identification (Schlüter & Schumann, 2018). The original culture helps people to distinguish their uniqueness, in which a culture experiences a unique response of a community to face novel conditions, including the dynamic phenomenon of the tourism economy. The response is an ongoing process and historically unfinished (Clifford, 1994; Salamone, 1997). In Bali, this process has been described as a "never-ending quest" or "a state of flux" in which the Balinese persistently transform their traditions to face novel circumstances and demands (Nordholt, 1986, p. v). Since tourism demonstrates an interest in local culture by presenting their unique culture artifacts, it presents new opportunities for preserving the uniqueness of local culture. The people in the eastern of Bali can confirm their settlement unique pattern and identity, including the unique spatial orientation and pattern. The villages, in which domestic and ceremonial practices are performed, have opportunities to be used for tourist facilities. Even though there are some negative impacts of tourism on their unique culture (Hanna, 1972; Bugnicourt, 1977; Picard, 2003; Achmadi, 2007), tourism can support cultural preservation.

Its development has motivated the consciousness of local communities to maintain the uniqueness of their culture (Sanger, 1989; Dogan, 1989). Therefore, the use of unique culture, such as traditional settlement pattern, as a tourism asset provides a more suitable model for tourism development in eastern part of Bali. However, local communities

should be aware the sustainability of their culture that is related to the ability to resist the negative impact and preserve the genuineness of the culture.

CONCLUSIONS

There are variations of the pattern of the traditional Balinese settlement, including those in the eastern of Bali. The orientation of most villages in Bali is north-south as the main axis. This direction traditionally is a *kaja –kelod*. However, in the eastern of Bali, the kaja is centered into the peak of Mount Bisbis or Seraya, so that way, the directions differ from one village to another. This direction causes variation in the pattern of settlements in this region. These variations become the resources of tourism development because Bali has relied on its unique culture to attract tourists.

This technique is used because the motivation of tourists is not only to the desire for rest and relaxation but also experience different people and cultures. This motivation gives opportunities to the villages, which have variations of spatial orientation and settlement patterns, to develop their unique tourism models.

The uniqueness of the settlement patterns can be used as an approach appealing to tourists to manage the village as a place not only to perform domestic and socio-cultural practices but also to gain economic benefit from tourists. The villages that used to be only a place to perform domestic and socio-cultural activities now can also have a new additional function called tourist activities. The trading activities, which used to be just in a market, today can also take place in many places in the villages, including the houses, main core of the villages and rice fields. Since tourism demonstrates an interest in the local culture, it presents new opportunities for local communities to use their culture as an asset to attract tourists. This model also becomes an opportunity for increasing the people's awareness to preserve and maintain the uniqueness of their culture.

Aknowlegments

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FACTORS AFFECTING THE SATISFACTION LEVEL OF MEDICAL TOURISTS: A CASE STUDY OF DELHI NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION

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Abstract: The medical tourism industry is considered to be one of the fastest growing niche forms of tourism globally. In numerical terms by 2024 it is expected to generate revenue close to 28 billion USD. According to Ministry of Tourism India's medical tourism industry could generate revenue worth 9 billion USD considering a growth of 200% by 2020. The study was conducted on 400 medical tourists in Delhi National Capital Region to find their perception pertaining to their satisfaction on various variables of medical tourism. Factor Analysis was utilized to reduce these 12 variables into 3 factors i.e. hospital services, quality of treatment, touristic services. A multiple regression was employed to eventually identify the factors affecting the overall satisfaction level of medical tourists visiting Delhi National Capital Region. The study indicates that quality of treatment has contributed the most and has stronger effect towards the satisfaction level of medical tourists as compared to other independent variables in Delhi National Capital Region.

Key words: Medical tourists, satisfaction level, Factor Analysis, Delhi National Capital Region, Multiple Regression

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INTRODUCTION

India has seen a boom in the medical tourism industry and in terms of scale it is expected to grow by 200% by 2020 according to the forecast made by Ministry of Tourism. Medical Tourism is one of the fastest growing niche forms of tourism. The top ten source markets feature from south Asia, Middle East, central Asia and Africa. To make the e-tourism visa regime more viable the government of India has expanded its horizons and touched newer scales by introducing medical visas on February, 2019. The maximum duration permitted for availing the medical visa is six months. There is a huge potential in the medical tourism sector in India. There are many lucrative offers on store in the medical tourism sector such as cost effectiveness, qualitative health care, specialized treatments, minimum waiting periods, new countries to explore and a totally new experience. India

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stands tall on several aspects pertaining to medical tourism. India offers cost effective medical treatment, state of the art medical technologies, strict compliance of quality standards and following the norms of NABH (National Accreditation Board for Hospitals and Healthcare Providers) and JCI (Joint Commission International), trained medical professionals, English speaking healthcare service providers. India is majorly known globally in specialized medical areas such as hip replacement surgeries, ophthalmological treatments, cardio-vascular disorders, bone marrow transplants to name a few.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Advent of Medical Tourism:

Medical tourism has always seemed to be an area of health tourism in the scholarly works pertaining to this area of study. (Reddy et al., 2010), and is a new global niche market (Hunter, 2007). Health tourism points towards the idea of a systematized travel outside one's own domicile for the preservation, augmentation or refurbishment of the individual's well-being (Carrera & Bridges, 2006). It is witnessed that few Asian countries i.e. Thailand, Singapore, India, South Korea, and Malaysia laid impetus in promoting medical tourism which has eventually helped them to successfully attract 1.3 million medical tourists from all over the world and numerically it continues to surge (Jafari et al., 2014). In 2012, the health tourism sectors in India and Singapore earned \$2 billion and \$1 million in incomes respectively from medical tourism (Momeni et al., 2018). Medical Tourism is undertaken by people who travel outside one's own domicile country to acquire medical, dental, and surgical care while concurrently being in pursuit of leisure and recreation (Connell, 2006).

Medical tourism comprises of two major constituents: one is medical subcontracting which is travel undertaken from one's own domicile to obtain treatment in another country (Jones & Keith, 2006). The second constituent points towards restoration and the leisure activities available at the destination (Hunter, 2007). Numerous scholarly researches point towards the upsurge of medical tourism in recent years (Hall, 2011).

Growth of Medical Tourism

Medical tourism came into existence because of high cost of treatment in one's own domicile country (Burkett, 2007; Carrera & Bridges, 2006; Demicco & Cetron, 2006), the deficiency of certain medical procedures (Crooks et al., 2010; Henderson, 2004; Lunt & Carrera, 2010; Smith et al., 2011), looking for advanced qualitative medical care (Hunter, 2007; Teh, 2007), prolonged waiting queues (Connell, 2006; Gupta, 2004; Lunt & Carrera, 2010; Jones & Keith, 2006; Teh, 2007), lesser restrictions to travel in terms of visa facilitation (Carrera & Bridges, 2006).

Medical tourism has seen an upsurge in recent times focusing extensively on the ever-expanding medical tourism market. The areas touched upon by the scholarly community includes the global trends, emerging markets, risks and perceptions, prospects and opportunities (Arellano, 2007; Burkett, 2007; Carrera & Bridges, 2006; Castonguay & Brown, 1993; Connell, 2006; Demicco & Cetron, 2006; Goodrich, 1993; Henderson, 2004; Hunter, 2007; Jones & Keith, 2006; Teh, 2007), decision making techniques adopted by prospective medical tourists (Bies & Zacharia, 2007; Caballero-Danell & Mugomba, 2007; Heung et al., 2010; Martin et al., 2011) and reviews of previous researches on medical tourism (Crooks et al., 2010; Lunt & Carrera, 2010; Smith et al., 2011). Scholarly work also indicates towards exploring behavior of medical tourist, motivation of medical tourist in pursuit of seeking medical treatment (Ye et al., 2011), opinions of medical tourists (Reddy et al., 2010), tourists' quest for medical tourism (Yu & Ko, 2012) and overall factors influencing medical tourism (Moghimehfar & Nasr-Esfahani, 2011). Among health tourism sub-groups, medical tourism can be regarded as a product of the rapid growth of the health industry (Aziz et al., 2015).

Tourist Satisfaction

Tourist satisfaction is a well-researched aspect in the scholarly literature as it is of paramount importance for the destinations and understanding the psyche of the tourists is an important aspect in evaluation of destination products and services' performance (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Multiple scholarly research accentuates the idea that the level of tourists' satisfaction influences both destination selection of first time visitors and the dynamics of repeat visit (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). Researches also indicate that the tourist's satisfaction level is closely related to their trustworthiness pertaining to the destination as apparent in their repeat movement patterns as well their endorsements to other prospective customers through word of mouth (Huh & Uysal, 2003). In respect to satisfaction level of medical tourist's qualitative medical services are often named in the scholarly literature whereby the medical tourist finds it difficult to assess the quality of the service even after the service is consumed. Literatures also point that an ill-advised destination selection might result in below par medical service quality and a likely disastrous outcome for the medical tourist. Since the risk factor is high medical tourism is a very high-involvement product and needs thorough investigation (Bies & Zacharia, 2007; Lamb et al., 2010).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The data was collected from 400 medical tourists who Delhi NCR for seeking medical treatment. Since they are the primary customers of the healthcare facility their satisfaction level needs to be gauged by the policy framers. Descriptive and analytical statistics were used to derive inferences from the data. Both primary and secondary data were used to present meaningful explanations. A structured questionnaire was chosen to collect the primary data among the medical tourists visiting Delhi National Capital Region. The Data Analysis was carried out through the following steps:

- a. Primary Data was collected from medical tourists pertaining to medical infrastructure, credibility of doctors, service orientation of medical staff, quality of medical treatment, less waiting time, low cost of treatment, seeking advanced technologies or quality care, hygienic factors in hospitals, infrastructure of the hospital, image of India as a tourist destination, quality certifications of hospitals, tourist attractions;
- b. Descriptive and Analytical Statistics is employed;
- c. Employing statistical tools.

DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND RESULTS

In order to investigate the satisfaction level of medical tourists a compilation of 12 variables were done. 400 patients were surveyed in order to understand their overall satisfaction on the various facets pertaining to medical tourism in India. The variables used for the study were derived based on secondary data. These were medical infrastructure, credibility of doctors, service orientation of medical staff, quality of medical treatment, less waiting time, low cost of treatment, seeking advanced technologies or quality care, hygienic factors in hospitals, infrastructure of the hospital, image of India as a tourist destination, quality certifications of hospitals, tourist attractions. The above mentioned 12 variables were reduced to 3 factors through factor analysis. A multiple regression was also employed on these 3 factors which were considered as independent variables and overall satisfaction of the medical tourists was considered as dependent variable. This eventually helped in identifying the main factors affecting the overall satisfaction of medical tourists.

The variables with a mean value higher than 4 included medical infrastructure, less waiting time, hygienic factors in hospitals, quality certification of hospitals. Infrastructure of the hospital and service orientation of medical staff have lowest mean values.

Table 1. Attributes pertaining to Satisfaction of Medical Tourists

Attributes	Mean	Standard Deviation
Medical infrastructure	4.51	0.88
Credibility of doctors	3.51	1.03
Service orientation of medical staff	3.41	1.04
Quality of medical treatment	3.91	0.95
Less waiting time	4.13	0.74
Low cost of treatment	4.81	0.43
Seeking advanced technologies or quality care	3.71	0.90
Hygienic factors in hospitals	4.60	0.67
Infrastructure of the hospital	3.24	1.06
Image of India as a tourist destination	4.72	0.73
Quality certifications of hospitals	4.01	1.05
Tourist Attractions	3.60	0.80

FACTOR ANALYSIS

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was done for applying factor analysis. It was equal to 0.832 (Table 2) that specified goodness of sample greater than 0.5 of acceptable limit. Bartlett's test of sphericity was applied and the data delivered a value of 0.00 which was less than 0.05 and reinforced the rationality of the data for factor analysis.

Table 2. KMO and Bartlett's Test (Responses of Medical Tourists)

KMO and Bartlett's Test (Responses of Respondents)		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Adequacy of Sample		0.832
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square value	309.342
	Df	10
	Sig.	0.000

Table 3. Factor Analysis

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.400	45.003	45.003	5.400	45.003	45.003	5.090	42.419	42.419
2	2.859	23.826	68.829	2.859	23.826	68.829	3.015	25.129	67.548
3	1.347	11.226	80.056	1.347	11.226	80.056	1.501	12.508	80.056
4	.876	7.300	87.356						
5	.575	4.793	92.148						
6	.513	4.279	96.427						
7	.237	1.974	98.401						
8	.141	1.179	99.579						
9	.034	.280	99.859						
10	.015	.122	99.980						
11	.002	.020	100.000						
12	-7.818E-16	-6.515E-15	100.000						

Kaiser (1974) endorses that any value of 0.5 arrived through KMO and Bartlett's is acceptable and factor analysis can be applied in this case. If the value arrived is less than 0.5 then we can think of gathering more data. The values arrived between 0.5 and 0.7 are considered to be the average ones, the values arrived between 0.7 and 0.8 are considered to be rather good, and values in the range of 0.8 and 0.9 are considered to be great and values above 0.9 are excellent. In our case the value arrived is 0.832, which is highly reliable

and great in nature. Factor analysis is suitable and appropriate pertaining to our data. EFA was carried out on the 12 variables in order to condense the number of variables into factors. The variables are condensed into 3 factors with Eigen value greater than 1 and the total variance explicated being 80.056% and is considered to be good displayed in Table 3.

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Variables loaded into three factors have been extracted through Varimax which is the best orthogonal rotation technique as it enhances the interpretability of the factors (Table 4). EFA was carried out for all the 12 variables. These variables are condensed into three different factors which explicated around 80.056 % of the total variance. The first factor explained about 42.419% of the total variance. The second factor explained about 25.129% of the total variance and third factor explained 12.508% of the total variance. All the three factors explained about 80.056% of the total Variance.

Table 4. Rotated Component Matrix

Rotated Component Matrix			
Variables/Factors	Component		
	1	2	3
Medical infrastructure	.030	.768	.114
Credibility of doctors	-.031	.739	.049
Service orientation of medical staff	.781	.418	-.141
Quality of medical treatment	.187	.901	.138
Less waiting time	.908	.288	.188
Low cost of treatment	.756	-.423	-.331
Seeking advanced technologies or quality care	.102	.638	-.621
Hygienic factors in hospitals	.934	.082	.169
Infrastructure of the hospital	.968	.042	.177
Image of India as a tourist destination	.518	.084	.578
Quality certifications of hospitals	.971	-.102	.155
Tourist Attractions	.142	.447	.709

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 5. Identification of New Parameters by factor analysis

Factors	Variables					New Parameters
F 1	Variable 3	Variable 5	Variable 6	Variable 8	Variable 9 and 11	Hospital services
F 2	Variable 1	Variable 2	Variable 4	Variable 7		Quality of treatment
F 3	Variable 10	Variable 12				Touristic services

All the 12 variables are condensed into 3 factors. The extraction of the factors was carried out through the Varimax method and through principal component analysis where the Eigen value should be more than 1. Variables 3, 5, 6, 8, 9 & 11 forms factor 1 which is named as Hospital services. 1, 2, 4 and 7 variable constitute factor 2 which is named as Quality of treatment. Variable 10 and 12 establishes factor 3 and is named as Touristic services shown by Table 5.

Regression Analysis:

The theories and ideologies developed in dealing with sample linear regression (i.e. one explanatory variable) may be protracted to deal with numerous explanatory variables.

Multiple Regression equation:

$$Y = C + \beta x_1 + \beta x_2 + \beta x_3 + \beta x_4 + \beta x_5 + \dots + \beta x_n;$$

Y = prediction relationship of types of variables towards Service Quality;

C = Constant value;

β = Unstandardized Coefficient;

X1, X2, = Dimension of independent variable (Source: Algina & Olejnik, 2003).

The Regression Analysis predicts the extent of dependence of various factors as its exploratory variable. This was carried out by statistical testing and utilizing the first result of the regression analysis i.e. ANOVA (F-test). Further, R square value of the regression analysis is calculated to demonstrate the degree to which the explanatory variables explain the dependent factor. The regression analysis further elaborates the result i.e. t-test along with significant value (p-value) indicates the most significant explanatory variable that influences the dependent variable. The R square value of the multiple regression model is deduced as 0.987, which shows that the dependent variable i.e. **Responses of Medical Tourists** is influenced by all these three variables i.e. i.e. 98.7 percent which is a good indicator for establishing satisfaction level (Table 6).

Table 6. Multiple Regression Summary Output (Responses of Medical Tourists)

Multiple Regression Summary Output (Responses of Medical Tourists)	
<i>Regression Statistics</i>	
Multiple R	0.989
R Square	0.987
Adjusted R Square	0.984
Standard Error	0.020
Observations	400

Table 7. Multiple Regression (ANOVA) (Data source: Developed from the research)

	Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	84.614	3	28.205	4604.336	.000*
	Residual	2.426	396	.006		
	Total	87.040	399			

*Significant at 1 per cent level

Table 8. Multiple Regression Coefficients (Responses of Medical Tourists)

Factors	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value
Intercept	-0.002	0.002	-0.998	0.321
F1	0.194	0.002	100.327	0.000*
F2	0.213	0.012	100.809	0.000*
F3	0.199	0.132	100.574	0.000*

Table 9. Factors and New Parameters

Factors	New Parameters
*F1	Hospital services
*F2	Quality of treatment
*F3	Touristic services

*Significant at 1 per cent level

The ANOVA (F-test) indicates that the scale/ factor i.e. “Responses of Medical Tourists” was quite significant. All the explanatory variables i.e. three factors for studying responses of Medical Tourists regarding overall satisfaction level are quite significant. Further, table 8 depicts that the significant value (p-value) of F-test came out to be 0.000, which means that all three explanatory variables which are Hospital services, Quality of treatment, Touristic services are highly significant with respect to the explained factor i.e. “Responses of Medical tourists”. The above Table 7 determines acceptable result as the significance level of the model is less than 0.01 (1% level). Thus the model employed in this

research is considered to be good. The application of multiple regression on the responses of medical tourists and its constituent variable we can develop the below mentioned equation.

Responses of Medical Tourists (Y) = $-0.002 + 0.194 (F_1) + 0.213 (F_2) + 0.199 (F_3)$

It can be further deduced that the rise of 1 unit of delivery of Factor 1(F_1), may result in the rise of 0.194 units in **Responses of Medical Tourists** (Y). The highest Beta value specifies that independent variables are the most significant variables towards the dependent variable. From the table 8 depicted above, the independent factor 2 of 0.213 is highest amongst all the three factors. This means that independent Factor 2 i.e. quality of treatment has contributed the most and has stronger effect towards the satisfaction level as compared to other independent variables. Further, it is witnessed from Table 8 that the significant value (p-value) of t-test for all items are 0.000, which shows that all the three condensed factors arrived through factor analysis are highly significant with respect to the dependent variables i.e. **“Responses of Medical Tourists”** (Table 9). The application of the ANOVA (F-test) indicates that the scale/factor i.e. “Responses of Medical Tourists” regarding satisfaction level was quite significant. All the explanatory variables i.e. three factors for studying responses of Medical Tourists are quite significant i.e. Hospital services, Quality of treatment, Touristic services. Further statistical Analysis displays that the significant value (p-value) of F-test came out to be 0.000, which means that all three variables are highly significant with respect to the responses of medical tourists regarding satisfaction level”.

DISCUSSIONS AND FUTURE IMPLICATIONS

Though this study is a modest and earnest effort from the researcher to investigate the satisfaction level of medical tourists in Delhi NCR and it is a herculean task to study all the aspects of this emerging segment due to limited resources and abilities of the researcher and confidentiality issues of the hospitals. Hence the study may not be comprehensive to all situations. The study was conducted with a view to provide an all-inclusive view of the satisfaction level of Medical tourists. It also provided few insights on how the stakeholders of the medical tourism industry can address the concerns of medical tourists pertaining to their satisfaction level. The hospitals need to understand the expectations and satisfaction of medical tourists on various parameters and thereby focus on improving their facilities and services to cater to the needs of the medical tourists.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The study is conducted in Delhi National Capital Region. There are other principal medical tourism centres such as Hyderabad, Bengaluru, Mumbai, and Kolkata. The findings of the study may not be generalized to these areas.
2. Hospitals are reluctant and hesitant to reveal information pertaining to medical tourists from their data base.
3. No prior major research work has been conducted in this area.
4. The study was highly time consuming and incurred financial constraints.

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STAKEHOLDERS INVOLVEMENT TOWARDS SUSTAINING ECOTOURISM DESTINATIONS: THE CASE OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AT MANGALAJODI ECOTOURISM TRUST IN INDIA

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Abstract: Ecotourism and sustainable development are widely debated topics in tourism industry in this 21st century. However, there are no proper strategies for protecting the ecosystem in developing countries. In India, majority of the population live in rural areas and therefore the Government faces a lot of challenges in protecting the natural ecosystem. In order to develop a successful sustainable ecotourism destination, there should be adequate involvement of stakeholders and their incentives. Mangalajodi Ecotourism Trust is a community owned and managed ecotourism facility promoted by Royal Bank of Scotland Foundation India (RBSFI) in partnership with Indian Grameen Services (IGS) and local Government bodies. The project is based on the principles of community ownership and Ecotourism involvement of key stakeholders for destination development. This paper describes the participatory framework and descriptive case study which analyze the various key stakeholders to the development of the Mangalogdi ecotourism destination. The research methodology involved in-depth interviews with key decision makers and communities involved in the destination development. The findings show a destination development system model that represents the various stakeholders, including local communities, local organizational involvement, tourism enterprises and tourists, with roles to promote and sustain the destination.

Key words: Sustainable Development, Social Entrepreneurship, Stakeholders Involvement, Ecotourism, Community development

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INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, a large amount of research has been down to understand the importance of biodiversity and ecosystem service for humans (Kremen, 2005; Foster et al., 2011). Ecosystems are often analyzed in terms of the services they provide to society.

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The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment framework brings more challenges to the service industry (MEA, 2015). Cultural ecosystem service represents the recreation and spiritual enrichment values (Hernández - Morcillo, 2013; Abson & Termansen, 2011). The interaction between tourism and landscape could be solved through the new development methods for natural and cultural historical benefits of ecosystems.

Tourism, selected as a cultural ecosystem that gained significant growth in service industry, has attained larger contribution of sustainable development discourse and gained momentum. As an industry, tourism accounts for about 10 percent of the total global GDP (Hirotsune, 2011; Vos & Meekes, 1999). According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), international tourism arrivals are expanding to the tune of 6.5 percent annually and the income generated has increased to 11.2 percent by 2016. It is further estimated that by 2030 there could be 1.8 billion tourists cross the international borders for tourism purpose (UNWTO, 2017). There is a growing trend that social entrepreneurship which traditionally aims to address social and environmental problems has now started looking into tourism as a potential area in order to enhance local potential (Tetzschner & Herlau, 2003).

Social enterprises innovate to address social or environmental problems while adopting bottom-up approaches with strong participation from various stakeholders involved. Overall, this trend aims to achieve sustainable development while addressing several social problems at local levels. However, due to its nascent nature, the theory of social entrepreneurship still lacks systematic research scholarship (Austin et al., 2006; Lenssen et al., 2005). Ecotourism is one of the popular forms of alternative tourism. It is often defined as sustainable natural-based tourism. However, ecotourism also incorporated social and cultural dimensions where visitors interact with residents. Ecotourism is something new, but its market is increasing in global market. Eco tourists are very concerned about nature and culture of the environment and they are intent to minimize negative effects on the environment and willing to pay high for quality vacation Wight (2001). Nowadays tourists don't prefer current urban tourism products because of over tourism in these destinations Vainikka (2014). Increase in natural and cultural awareness is the biggest factor that determines the growth of ecotourism, along with concern for the fact that the quality of natural resources will lead to decrease the environmental and cultural inequality in tourism destination (Carvache-Franco et al., 2019). These facts show that proper development of ecotourism will improve the welfare of stakeholders surrounding or within the area of ecotourism destinations. Their involvement will also ensure environmental sustainability (Situmorang et al., 2012).

Social entrepreneurship focuses on producing social change beyond the profit-seeking motive of private sector entrepreneurship. The involvement of social entrepreneurship in tourism industry is an emerging arena (Von der Weppen & Cochrane, 2012). There is little nominal written scholarly literature about tourism and social entrepreneurship (Buzinde et al., 2017). It is clearly indicated in Lordkipanidze et al. (2005), paper that there is a number of difference between the goals and objectives of social entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship, but their main goal is sustainable way of business with involvement of stakeholders for destination development. In their discussion of social entrepreneurs involvement in tourism Hall et al. (2010), note that, in general, the involvement of social entrepreneurs needs a fundamental change to reduce the negative social and environmental impacts and increasing businesses activities in sustainable way. According to Brock and Steiner (2010), social entrepreneurship is the creation of social impact by developing and implementing a sustainable ecotourism business which involves innovative solutions that benefits local communities (Figure 1).

According to (Seelos & Mair, 2005) tourism social entrepreneurs aim to create some social values for this humanity. There are several goals to create the social values for local communities: poverty reduction, environmental awareness, improving the local communities economy, environmental sustainability, and improving the health conditions of local communities. Tourism enterprises must go beyond the reduction of negative social value. According to (Dees & Anderson, 2003) it is important to note that some types of socially entrepreneurial tourism ventures could be considered examples of sustainable development, however the values may not always be true. Academic discussions on tourism and social entrepreneurship have remained rare. A study by Vonder et al., (2012) investigated several for-profit tourism ventures to understand how they balanced commercial with social and environmental objectives toward sustainability.

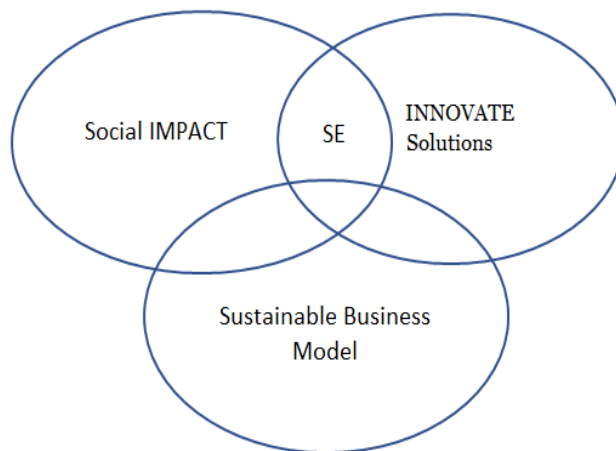


Figure 1. Social entrepreneurship business model (Source: Brock & Steiner, 2010)

*SE: Social entrepreneurship

The conceptual framework of tourism entrepreneurship for community development was identified in social system theory. Since the 1980s, the tourism literature has called for the inclusion and involvement of local communities in tourism; local residents are seen as a key resource in sustaining the product (Strydom et al., 2019). The 1992 Rio Summit introduced Agenda 21, which means a blueprint for action by local communities, which calls for tourism community interactions which are essential for destination development strategies for sustainable use. Adopted by 178 countries at Rio submit Agenda of 21 promotes rural community participation to maximize the rural community's ability to control and manage its resources (Eshun & Tichaawa, 2019). The Indian National Ecotourism policy aims "to achieve sustainability in tourism development and to ensure regulated growth of ecotourism with its positive impacts of environmental protection and development" (Maikhuri et al., 2000, p.334). Further the Working Group Report (2006) also highlights the role of tourism in achieving sustainable human development and calls for "creating a unique brand for Indian tourism which is vibrant and based on sustainable development". Thus, it can be deriving that the policy on ecotourism advocates to foster sustainable development.

It is further identified that Indian ecotourism destinations have emerged as one of the key areas of involvement for social entrepreneurs to transform the field where both nature, tourists and communities benefit equally from the developing practices (Das, 2011). In social entrepreneurship, stakeholders retain superior value Atanga (2019).

According to Freeman (2010) stakeholders are "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of an organization's purpose". Thus stakeholders' theory argues that stakeholders are key for survival of an organization, because they gain or lose momentum depending on how organizations grow. Similarly, social entrepreneurship focuses on benefiting the communities whom they serve in addition to the employees and other stakeholders that they associate with. The bottom-up approaches largely adopted by social enterprises lead to enhance holistic participation of the stakeholders in the entire process and enable them to take responsibility in the creation and promotion of the enterprise (Ghodeswar, 2013; Hemmonsbey & Tichaawa, 2019). The social entrepreneurship organizational process is used to understand how stakeholders are managed to accomplish the organization's mission. Currently, there is limited research addressing the social entrepreneurship and ecotourism business model process (Covin & Lumpkin, 2011). The entrepreneurship process in this study is understood to be the 'construction, evaluation and pursuit of opportunities' (Roberts & Woods, 2005).

Study Objectives:

- 1) To assess the involvement of different stakeholders in Mangalajodi ecotourism operations.
- 2) To identify the leverage points for development of Mangalogdi ecotourism destination.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The researcher selected Mangalogdi ecotourism destination to conduct the field research. The researcher stayed in MET organization lodging for two and half months (October to December 2017) while conducting the field work. Face to face focused in-depth interviews were conducted with 16 respondents. The main reason why focused interviews were used in this research was because it allows people's views and feelings to emerge but at the same time the interviewer has some control over the issues being discussed (Robson, 1993). The formal interviews were conducted with the key informants in the village, and stakeholders of the organization (Table 1) in which they could express their views and feelings, and their involvement in particular situations. After transcribing the interviews, it resulted in about 150 pages of data.

Table 1. Mangalajodi organization interview members

Sector	No of people Interviewed	Organizations and Communities
Organization management	4	Member of the Mangalajodi organization and local residence
Local Government Members	3	Village major, district administrative members
Stakeholders of Mangalaj odi	4	Royal Bank of Scotland, Chilka development authority, Local tourism authorities
Local Communities Members	5	Who is majorly involved in organizational activates

The data was then analysed manually. As part of the analysis, researcher read through the transcripts and then coded the text. A discourse analysis method was then applied to the scripts which consisted of identifying the convergent leverage points provided by respondents in relation to specific questions. Although a mix of quantitative and qualitative data were obtained during these interviews the analysis was mainly focused on qualitative elements for evaluation stages of social entrepreneurship organization to the protection of the destination. Some quantitative data was collected from local communities to understand their social and economic situation. For this, the researcher asked local communities to fill a questionnaire form. A total number of

(n=57) local communities filled the questionnaire, which means all local communities who were involved in Mangalajodi ecotourism. In order to view social and economic characteristics of local communities, the researcher used descriptive statistical analysis.



Figure 2. Map showing the regional location of Mangalajodi ecotourism near Chilika Lagoon

Study Area

Mangalajodi is a fishing village settled in the marshy shores, north east of Chilika Lake in south western state of Odisha in India. The area (about 10 sq.km) is primarily a fresh water zone connected, by channels cutting through the reed beds, with the brackish water of Chilika lagoon. The numerous channels that crisscross through the greenery, harbors thousands of water birds, both migratory and resident visit every year. The place is a waterfowl haven. Its vast wetlands attract thousands of migratory birds from far-off places in the Siberian region and other parts of the world, yes, of course tourists, researchers and bird lovers. Its vast wetlands host more than 1, 50,000 of birds of different species in the peak season. November to March is the best time to enjoy an amazing experience of a visit to this haven. It has been declared as an "Important Bird Area (IBA)" by Birdlife International. A community based institution known as Mangalajodi Ecotourism Trust has evolved in this ecosystem during the last sixteen years with specific goal and objective of protecting and developing this once deteriorating ecosystem to a birds' paradise while providing economic sustenance to the local people who once earned their livelihood from hunting migratory birds.

Poachers to Protectors

Earlier, local communities of **Mangalajodi** of Khordha district, Odisha (India) were making their living mostly by catching fishes from the **Chilika** Lake at **Mangalajodi** and by illegal poaching of migratory birds and selling at the nearby market for their economic wellbeing purposes. As time passed by, large scale poaching activities resulted in ecological imbalance, biodiversity degradation and with a lot more negative impacts gradually started becoming ardent threat for the future of biodiversity at this **Birds Paradise**. The alarming scenario got a kind of rejuvenation with the introduction of **ecotourism** and related activities at **Mangalajodi**. This initiation employs almost 200 families of the village. The poachers eventually turned into protectors of biodiversity Pattanaik, (2007). This is a classic example of development of ecotourism at **Mangalajodi** in a sustainable manner with the participation of various stakeholders such as local communities, **Mangalajodi Ecotourism Trust (MET)**, NGOs like; **Indian Grameen Services (IGS)**, **Corporate house like; RBS Foundation India (RBS FI)**, travel operators, government organizations, and tourists at various levels. Another major aspect is to figure out various socioeconomic, environmental and other key driving factors influencing local residents in such a remarkable transformation from destructor of the environment to getting involved in ecotourism activities. The concept of ecotourism at Mangalajodi wetland has truly inspired people from many spheres to come and experience, the local government and authorities, communities residing around Chilika Lake. The demonstration of ecotourism services and conservation efforts by the locals for the past 7-8 years has significantly contributed towards restoration of the wetland ecosystem, community resilience, and a preferred destination for many nature lovers, wildlife enthusiasts and photographers, bird watchers, and researchers. The ecotourism model at Mangalajodi is so simple, and has immense potential for replication anywhere around the wetland landscape.

Stakeholder Participation in Met

Various stakeholders' involvement in Mangalajodi Ecotourism Trust initiative started with the key partnership of RBS Foundation India as their corporate social responsibility initiative and Indian Grameen Services (IGS), a livelihood promotion institution provided handholding support to establish Mangalajodi Ecotourism as community owned and managed social enterprise. RBS Foundation acts as financial and intellectual partner and IGS acts as implementing partner, in knowledge building, skill transfer and community

development. IGS has played a key role in bringing partnership efforts and contribution for the larger cause of conservation and livelihoods through responsible tourism services.

Based on the primary research and organizational documents, it is observed that besides members of MET there are many institutional stakeholders associated with MET and the Project (Mangalajodi Ecotourism Project). The state level departments are Forest, Environment and Tourism and the district level departments are Revenue, Panchayati Raj, Water Resources, and Fisheries. The association and relationship with various stakeholders of the Governance system of Mangalajodi Ecotourism Trust has been assessed through interaction with different stakeholders. Based on the type of association, different stakeholders have been consulted using different checklist.

Table 2. Stakeholders Involvement at MET

Stakeholders	Their involvement in Mangalogdi ecotourism Organization
RBS Foundation (Royal Bank of Scotland)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Related to overall improvement in the Project approach - Related to policies of MET - Related to Fund Management
IGS (Indian grameen services service)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Related to overall improvement in the destination area - Related to capacity Building - Initiating Convergence - Motivate Other stakeholders involvement - Project component wise interventions - Related to Fund Management - Suggestions to improve the destination
Community based institutions Village committee/ Local Government/ other ecotourism institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Related to overall improvement in the Project area - Relationship between different institutions - Contribution towards common objective for village development - Suggestions to improve the destination
CDA (Chilika development authority)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Related to overall improvement in the Project area - Involvement at different level of the project components - Suggestions to improve the destination
Forest Department, Govt. of Odisha	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Related to overall improvement in the Project area - Involvement at different level of the project components - Suggestions to improve the destination
District Level government Departments like Revenue, Panchayat raj Water resources and Fisheries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Carrying out development activities in the area - Financial and administrative support - Suggestions to improve the destination.

RESULTS AND DISUSSIONS

To understand the new strategies of social entrepreneurship ecotourism development I found out some leverage points which affect Mangalogdi ecotourism trust.

- 1) The impact of increasing tourism development will affect the Chilika wetland ecosystem in terms of the garbage of villagers and which tourists throw into the lake
- 2) Poor infrastructure facilities such as inaccessibility to Chilika wetland, sanitation facilities, recreational activities, and accommodation facilities
- 3) Ignorance of local communities about sustainability
- 4) Low wage employment for local communities from tourism
- 5) Scarcity of natural resources like drinking water,

The above leverage points are categorized by three group of issues mainly: communities economy through tourism, natural resources and social characteristics conditions. These groups are as summarized in the below (Table 3).

Social Characteristics

During the interviews with stakeholders of the Mangalajodi ecotourism trust, local communities identified the need for increasing the tourist arrival to Mangalajodi

ecotourism with demand. The local government need to improve the infrastructure facilities such as accessibility to Chilika wetland, sanitation facilities, recreational activities, and accommodation facilities. To identify the social background of the local community of Mangalogdi, researcher used questionnaire data to identify the social background of local communities a quantitative descriptive analysis performed. The findings of the research on social characteristics of Mangalogdi local communities are discussed based below.

Table 3. Social entrepreneurship characteristics for ecotourism development

Social Characteristics	Community Economy	Natural Resources
Poor infrastructure facilities such as accessibility to Chilika wetland, sanitation facilities, recreational activities, and accommodation facilities	Most of the local communities tourism is secondary source of income during off tourism sessions most of the local communities unemployed	Limitation of natural resources like drinking water
Low level of education and Unskilled local communities about sustainability	Low wage employment for local communities from tourism	Diminishing lake attractiveness (Dredging of channel for boat routes)
Pollution at Chilika lake village residence dumping garbage into lake	Limited employment opportunities at villages causes migration to cities	Lake of residences awareness about sustainability
Lake of skilled tour guides and marketing agents		Loss of biodiversity

Table 4. Social condition of local communities (n=57) (Data source: based on primary data)

What is your main employment in this destination?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Accommodation	12	12.1	12.1
Transport	12	12.1	12.1
Agricultural activities	19	21.2	21.2
Souvenir Shop	12	12.1	12.1
Do you own a house or other property in this destination?			
Yes	54	90.9	90.9
No	3	9.1	9.1
Total	57	100.0	100.0
Tourism is a Primary source of your income?			
Yes	41	71.9	71.9
No	16	28.1	28.1
Total	57	100.0	100.0
Are you associated with this organization or your work is related to the concerned organization?			
Yes	57	100.0	100.0
Organization related work If yes			
Volunteer work	10	12.1	12.1
Project related work	18	36.4	36.4
Part of this origination	22	45.5	45.5
Others	7	6.1	6.1
Total	57	100.0	100.0

Table 4 categorized different aspects of social condition of local communities. Firstly, the table for the variable “What is your main employment in this destination?” it is evident that there are more percentage of people (42.42%) who do other works than the ones

mentioned under the variable. The second majority of people (21.21%) are depending upon the agricultural activities and then the remaining people (12.12%) depend on providing accommodation, souvenir shop like maintaining resorts and hotels and local transportation to tourists. Secondly from the above Table, it is observed that there are 90.91% of people having their own property in the destination and the remaining very least percentage of people 9.09% do not have any kind of property in this destination. Thirdly, it is noticed that all respondents, 100% are associated with this organization and they do the organizational related works. Lastly from the above table, it is observed that there are 82.14% of people associated and being part of the organization and the remaining 18% of people are not associated with the organization but they are divided into three parts such as volunteer work (7.14%), Project related work (5.36%) and others (5.36%).

Table 5. Economic condition of local communities (n=57) (Data source: based on primary data)

What are some of the primary recreational activities that you offer to tourist?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
SIBT SHOP	4	9.1	9.1
Site Seeing, Village Walk and Agriculture	37	51.5	51.5
Football	1	3.0	3.0
Handicrafts	1	3.0	3.0
Training Programs	6	15.2	15.2
Cooking, Dancing and Singing	3	6.1	6.1
Tour guide and boating	5	12.1	12.1
Total	57	100.0	100.0

Do you belong to any local clubs, groups, organizations, or associations?

Yes	55	93.9	93.9
No	2	6.1	6.1
Total	57	100.0	100.0

Educational Qualification?

School Level	24	42.4	42.4
High School Level	08	15.2	15.2
University Level	10	18.2	18.2
Others	15	24.2	24.2
Total	57	100.0	100.0

What is your total annual household income?

10,000 to 25,000 INR	38	63.6	63.6
25,000 to 50,000 INR	15	30.3	30.3
50,000 to 75,000 INR	2	3.0	3.0
75,000 to 1,00,000 INR	2	3.0	3.0
Total	57	100.0	100.0

Tourism is a primary source of your income?

Yes	22	39.4	39.4
No	35	60.6	60.6
Total	57	100.0	100.0

Community Economy

Ecotourism development at Mangalajodi creates more employment opportunities (like tour guides, boatman, cooking people, and handicraft shops). Moreover, increased demand for local products encourage craft market in the village. Chilika lake fishing is primary employment opportunity for lots of local residences. Subsequently, to most of the local community, tourism is secondary source of income. During off tourism

sessions most of the local communities remain unemployed. To identify economic background of the local community of Mangalogdi researcher used questionnaire data to identify the economic background of local communities. A quantitative descriptive analysis was performed during the field work. The findings of the research on economic conditions of local communities of Mangalogdi local communities.

The above Table 5 categorized different aspects of socio-economic condition of local communities. Firstly, from the above Table on 'What are some of the primary recreational activities that you offer to tourist?' it is observed that local communities activities mostly provided to tourist are village walks and agriculture activities site seeing (51.52%).

Secondly, offered by training programs (15.15%). Thirdly tour guide (12.12%). Fourthly SBIT shops (9.09%). Fifthly cooking, dancing, and singing (6.06%).

Lastly Handicrafts and football activities (3.03%). Further, it is observed that most of the community members in this destination (93.94%) belongs to Mangalogdi organizational membership and (6.06%) are not related to organization but they work for organization when there is high density of tourists at destination. Secondly on Educational qualification, it is observed that overall education qualification of community members is primary school level studies (42.42%). Others like uneducated people is (24.24%) considered as least level of qualification. High school level of educational qualification (15.15%) and finally university level (18.18%). Fourthly annual income of local communities, it is observed that there are more percentage of community members (63.64%) whose income is between 10,000 to 25,000 INR. The second majority of community members (30.30%) have their income between 25,000 to 50,000 INR and then about 3.03% of community members income between 50,000 to 75,000 INR. None of communities had their income between 75,000 and 100,000. Overall observation is that community members' economic conditions are better during tourism season. Lastly when it comes to tourism being the primary source of income, it is observed that 39.39% of community members are totally related to tourism income in that destination and the reaming 60.61 percentage of communities are not related to tourism. They have other works in that destination like fishing, construction work, and agricultural activates.

Natural Resources

Lake Chilika has a range of natural resources that play a crucial role in sustaining local communities' livelihoods and create employment opportunities through ecotourism. As a result, the tourist density at Mangalajodi part of Chilika has increased, which leads to decrease of migratory birds, increase in waste and water pollution, affecting the drinking water, causing problems for local residence since Chilika Lake is not for useful purposes. Most of the local residence lack the awareness about ecosystem sustainability. During the interview with Chilika development authority, it was evident that "local residents were not fully aware of sustainability. They are more interested in financial benefits than environmental protection". Therefore, Mangalajodi ecotourism trust started awareness programs to local residences. Another important negative impact to the ecosystem is Channel Dredging because of siltation on the main channel which joins the open Chilika, becoming difficult for the fishermen who sails boats for fishing. Similar is the situations of the small creeks through which the local community uses for bird watching as a part of ecotourism. So, many times the fishermen use motor boats entering into the bird watching areas to pass through for open Chilika which disturbs a lot for the birds and their safe feeding habitats because of the noise of motor boats.

Number of Tourist Visiting Mangalajodi Ecotourism

Ecotourism in Mangalajodi is still at an early stage of development. As many tourist visit, Mangalajodi ecotourism consider this for promoting local communities economy as

well as improving the infrastructure of the village. However, because tourism development in Mangalajodi is new, only few numbers of tourist visit every year but growth is rapidly increasing. Figure 3 indicate annual tourist visit to Mangalajodi ecotourism trust. Stakeholders plays a crucial role in promoting sustainable tourism practices at Mangalajodi organization development.



Figure 3. Number of tourists who visited Mangalajodi ecotourism
(Source: based on data received from MET office during field work)

Ecotourism Infrastructure at Mangalajodi

Destination infrastructure plays a major role in the development of a destination (Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2008). Development of proper infrastructure such as accommodation, roads, restaurants, build recreational activities, and safety tour boats. During field work, it was observed that Mangalajodi lacked this infrastructure facility due to government failure to allocate budget for development of this village. From interviews with stakeholder of Mangalajodi we found that major negative feedback about this destination was infrastructure facilities, and sanitation was a serious issue, with open defecation on the road sides at the entry areas of the wetland. It creates unhealthy situations for tourist who visited Mangalajodi. Also, it paints a negative image for Mangalajodi and the district administration regarding sanitation.

CONCLUSION

This paper is set to identify stakeholder involvement in social entrepreneurship organizational ecotourism development and their framework to understand the social entrepreneurs ecotourism development in Mangalogdi ecotourism destination. This study identifies the leverage points for development of ecotourism for sustainability. The points are classified as a social, economic and natural leverage points that includes development of ecosystem, tourism infrastructure, increases the tourism visitors to destination, social entrepreneurship organizational marketing strategies to improving the attractions of the destination (Dwyer et al., 2009; Baggio, 2008; Meadows, 1999).

Social entrepreneurship organizations give superior value to stakeholders their main concern about sustainable business model (Mort et al., 2003). With the help of stakeholders, they protect the natural resource through socio-economic conditions of local communities. Village infrastructure concern as a negative issue at Mangalajodi. Parks, alternative tourist attractions, hotels and restaurants, recreational facilities, accessibility to Chilika Lake and pollution at Chilika wetland concern main issues to solve communities who lives around Chilika mostly depend on water transport. Almost 6000

local communities use inland motor boats every year which causes water pollution, being a main point of concern which require support from government to solve this issues (Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2008; Iwasaki et al., 2009). In Mangalogdi village there are serious issues of open defecation on the road sides at the entry areas of wetland. It creates unhealthy situations for tourist who visited Mangalajodi. Also, it gives a negative image for Mangalajodi and the district administration regarding sanitation.

“Hence, to address the issue Mangalogdi team will facilitate the listing of households who are using that area for the nature’s call and other households of the village who lacks toilets and coordinates with the block and district level officials for the execution under Swachha Bharat Yojana” Ghosh et al., (2006). The district administration through appropriate department/authorities needs to focus on this as a priority to execute well before the forthcoming tourism season start. Mangalogdi team would assist the people to facilitate construction of toilets. At the same time, as part of sensitization and creating awareness among the community, information, education and communication (IEC) materials can be displayed through posters, banners and continue with campaign.

In Chilika Lake and wetland poaching is still happening in some places where local residents don’t have employment and enough income to sustain their life. The government needs to provide some financial support or employment opportunities to residents near to Chilika Lake. Mangalajodi ecotourism organization is a well-organized sustainable entrepreneurs business model. This organization is in the developing stage and this Organizational business model has significantly Involvement with above mentioned different stakeholders to development of the destination. The main aim of the stakeholders is protecting the environment and provide the financial support to local communities.

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FACTORS INFLUENCING THE EMPLOYEES SERVICE PERFORMANCES IN HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY CASE STUDY AQBA FIVE STARS HOTEL

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Abstract: Amies-The present study aims at understanding and exploring factors that may effect on staffs of the employees in Aqaba hotels. Methodology - The study population consisted of all spectrums of the community interested in tourism in Aqaba city. Findings - The study shows that hotel administrations don't take into consideration the importance of training for new employees to offer the best service. The training courses guide new employees to the best and correct techniques which improve their skills, knowledge, and abilities to wok within one teamwork. The multiple correlation coefficient $R=0.652$ indicates that there is a positive correlation between the independent variables (training, transformational leadership, teamwork, work environment and performance appraisal) and service performance. The R^2 indicated the generalizability of the model. It allows us to generalize the results taken from the respondents to the whole population. In this case it equals 0.425. The results showed that F-ratio for these data is equal to 113.561, which is statistically significant at $p<0.05$. Contribution : This study offers deeper understanding about the Service Performance in Hospitality Industry Case Study Aqaba Five stars Hotels, to create a balanced sustainable tourism development in Aqaba.

Key words: Training, transformational leadership, teamwork, work environment, Performance Appraisal

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INTRODUCTION

The present research studies the role of Human Resources (HR) department in improving employees' performance since employees have the chief role of offering the best services. Moreover, this paper sheds lights on the importance of studying factors that affect employees' performance positively and help to keep employees for a long period of time which decrease the average of work rotation. Not to mention the importance of establishing an encouraging and motivating system to increase the effectiveness of employees' performance which rises up the financial returns? As a result, and firstly, it is very important for hotel managers in Aqaba to attract and encourage employees to keep them working in their organizations by understanding their employees' needs and expectations by offering the highest level of quality of services for customers. Secondly, hotel managers have to follow administrative strategies which may increase employees' satisfaction which leads to stimulate professionalism in performance. Consequently, some hotel administrations in Aqaba are casting about for enabling their employees by creating an organized atmosphere depending on administrations' efforts. To do so, building a well-organized atmosphere, hotel managers may involve employees to build permanent relationships with visitors by offering the best services (Bouranta & Pantouvakis, 2017; Lin, 2007; McDermott, 1999; Rai, 2011; Reid, 2003; Yang, 2010; Tsai, 2008; Leonardo et al., 2016; Lam & Zhang, 2003; Jung & Yoon, 2015; Latham, 1990).

Studies show that there is a positive relationship between the human resources system in an organization and the cumulative achievements for this organization such as the organized performance, productivity improvement, financial achievements, innovative performance and task rotation (Ann & Blum, 2020; Lee & Ravichandran, 2019; Mahnert & Torres, 2007; Miles & Mangold, 2004; Mitchell, 2002, Murphy & Ensher, 2001). Most studies focus that the competition and interest in the subject of performance, all of which requires hospitality organization to focus on the human element to achieve their goals through the effective use of resources and the exploitation of available opportunities and available capacities, all of these drivers require raising the level of human performance and institutional performance of institutions in order to provide services quickly and with high quality, In order to respond to the needs and expectations of employees. To effectively manage performance, employees must know on what basis their performance will be measured. The measures should be transparent and fair applied across the organization. Ideally, there should be a mixture of individual and group measures, and measures related to the inputs and outputs of each performance. Job performance occupies its place especially within any institution, as the final product of the outcome of activities in it, at the level of the individual and the institution, because the institution is more stable and longer stay when the performance of the two years is a distinct performance and in general, the administration's interest and leadership in the level of performance usually exceeds the interest in workers. With it, therefore it can be said that performance at any organizational level within the organization (Abualoush et al., 2018a; Belber & Erdoğan, 2018; Panno, 2019; Popa & Glonți, 2020).

Use performance assessment as an effective management tool to make management decisions related to identifying the training and development needs of employees and for the purposes of promotion, motivation, and transfer and to enable employees to perform their work by providing devices, equipment, and work tools. This is in addition to using performance evaluation to take administrative decisions related to better planning for human resources management, improving the effectiveness of administrative policies and systems, simplifying work procedures, restructuring the administrative apparatus, reclassifying jobs, and other administrative decisions related to

improving administrative performance (Gallo et al., 2019; González-Rodríguez et al., 2020). Today's organizations are beginning to focus heavily on individuals' performance because of the importance the human element represents for the organization, and the concept of performance management focuses on performance starting from the moment the job specifications are placed on the job card, from responsibilities and duties to results that the employee must present in the end (Rogerson & Collins, 2019; Vanić et al., 2019). The performance management focused on cooperation between the manager and subordinates in the process of jointly planning, monitoring and evaluating performance so that the employee feels his importance as an effective element in the organization, as well as in order to work to achieve the goals required of him as he has become an important part in its development (Bavik, 2020; Lockwood & Pyun, 2020).

Performance management focused on periodic evaluation of workers not for punishment as much as it focused on correcting the mistakes that workers make during work in order to reduce errors to the lowest possible degree so that the organization turns into an efficient and effective organization that is able to take advantage of all available resources from its human resources. The importance of employees training emerges as a result of the competition among hospitality companies emphasizing on employees' skills. Hotel managers, therefore, adapt to investment in training to reinforce their employees' skills and abilities. Some studies indicate that choosing the qualified employee for training leads to create a reliable workforce results in having the best qualified employees. Those employees are empowered enough to adopt novel ideas and an effective distinguished method to accomplish a task. In addition, training has a key role in enabling employees by refining their work skills and attitudes toward working in hospitality field (Chen, 2013).

LITERATURE REVIEW

In today's business world, the role of teamwork is essential for the survival of a company (Al-Hussein et al., 2015). Based on Sheikh et al. (2011), teamwork is commonly defined as the collaboration among groups of people who possess certain level of competency, ability, and knowledge to perform tasks together, at the same time they also are responsible for the outcomes as well. Generally, teamwork is developed through three major phrases, which are team inputs, team processes, and team outputs (Boone Kurtz, 1995; Sheikh et al., 2011). Ultimately, work is supposed to be a tool for human resource collection and must be used effectively for the purpose of enhancing the overall performance of the organization (Alanzeh et al., 2018). He also tries to engage people to achieve goals together (Alanzeh et al., 2018). Between, they require coordination, goal setting, problem-solving, team leadership and monitoring (Ahmad et al., 2012) in order to develop efficiently. Moreover, team performance depends heavily on team interaction (Kakayi, 2012). The excellent participation of staff, leader or chairpersons will be able to achieve the common goal. It is more likely to be working as a team able to create such a link. The importance of employees training emerges as a result of the competition among hospitality companies emphasizing on employees' skills.

Hotel managers, therefore, adapt to investment in training to reinforce their employees' skills and abilities. Some studies indicate that choosing the qualified employee for training leads to create a reliable workforce results in having the best qualified employees. Those employees are empowered enough to adopt novel ideas and an effective distinguished methods to accomplish a task. In addition, training has a key role in enabling employees by refining their work skills and attitudes toward working in hospitality field. However, enabling employees has no effect or value without building a

base of trust between the administration and employees. In addition to a group of factors which affect employees' motivations for work such as incentive systems which are crucial for ameliorated prosperous hospitality companies based on the reinforcement of employee's professionalism, cooperation, skills sharing and creativity and so competition among companies depends on all these factors (Obouy, 2013).

As long as prices do not attract tourist, the image and the model of services offered by an organization does which may increase the financial returns and benefits. In 1995, Boone explained in his theory Mc Gregors that students at hospitality institutions should be interactive in their learning environment through teamwork which promote effective learning of solving problems by discussion and cooperation. This method of learning builds knowledge as an integral part of social experience i.e. work atmosphere. As a consequence, the thriving of a company depends mainly on knowledge, motivation, affording opportunities to practice new acquired skills. Having an investigating eye on what has discussed before, the researchers emphasize on the importance of rewarding employees to achieve satisfactory result. Teamwork require a consideration level of interaction among hotel employees which partakes in improving employee's performance taking in account that every employee has different and distinguished skills and experiences that other employees may have not. Therefore, teamwork is solid strategy for each organization for flourishing. The performance of teamwork; however, rely generally on the interaction between employers and employees on the first place and among employees themselves on the other to achieve aims of the organization (Jawabreh, 2014).

Not to mention that, creating teamwork provides employees a chance to discover innovative and creative ideas because of interaction among them. Hotels in Aqaba may be privileged by introducing original and unique ideas to stay in the global hospitality market. Therefore, this is the reason why managers are more likely to assign more team projects to employees nowadays (Bouranta et al., 2017; Chivandi & Maziriri, 2018). In overall, teamwork enhances the productivity of the organization since it has gathered all of the abilities, competencies, talents, and skills from different individuals to perform those tasks. It also ensures that most of the tasks can be run smoothly since each task may need a different type of knowledge to establish it. Between, clear visions should be stated or communicated before establishing an effective teamwork (Jung & Yoon, 2015).

The work environment is potential to share into higher employee performance because only prosperity employees can achieve desired outcomes, thus enhance the overall performance (James, 2011; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Therefore, this study will explore the influences of these determinants in Jordanian hotel industry and how it can affect the employee performance. There is positive significant correlation between work environment and employee performance in the organization. It is because, employee performance and work environment are interrelated; Employee will carry out duties and tasks effectively if they are given friendly work environment (Kotler, 2008).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section provides the methodology applied in the current study. It consists of the research model, operational definitions of the study's independent and dependent variables, research hypotheses, besides data collection tool and research population and sample.

Research Model

The elements of this research are established based on preceding literature, either theoretically or empirically. Indeed, this study used variables that are common in tourism development literature. Figure (1) represents a model for the study that shows the independent variables, the dependent variable, and the proposed relationship between them.

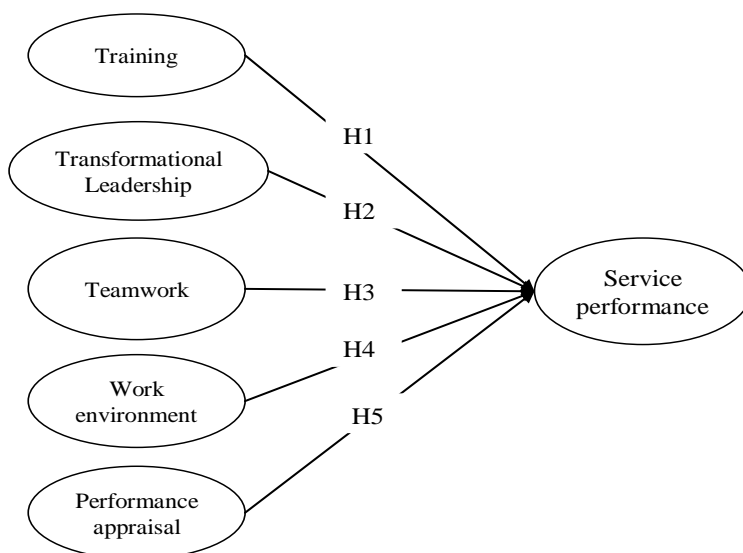


Figure 1. Research Model

Operational Definitions

Adapted from (Chng et al., 2014) the current research considers five independent variables (i.e. Training, transformational leadership, teamwork, work environment and performance appraisal) which were measured in the research questionnaire through eight, five, five, five and seven items respectively; one dependent variable (i.e. service performance) which is adapted from (Chng et al., 2014), and measured through seven items.

Research Hypotheses

In order to test the research model, the study is hypothesized as follows:

H1: There is a significant relationship between training and service performance.

H2: There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and service performance.

H3: There is a significant relationship between teamwork and service performance.

H4: There is a significant relationship between work environment and service performance.

Population and Sampling

The Study population consisted of all spectrums of the community interested in tourism in Aqaba city includes all age levels (from 18 to 40 years and above). 1000 questionnaires were distributed and considered 600 of them for statistical analysis, thus the response rate was 60% which is high for the community of the city of Aqaba.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Measured using 5-points Likert scale that varies between strongly disagree =1 and strongly agree =5. Also, reliability and validity analyses were conducted; descriptive analysis was used to describe the characteristic of sample and the respondent to the questionnaires besides the independent and dependent variables. Also, multiple regression analysis was employed to test the research hypotheses.

Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are two important measures to determine the quality and usefulness of the primary data. Validity is about accuracy and whether the instrument

measures what it is intended to measure while reliability is about precision; it is used to check the consistency and stability of the questionnaire. Indeed, the researchers depended on scales and items that were previously developed and used by other researchers with similar interest. Also, a draft of the questionnaire was formulated, and then it was reviewed by four academic lecturers –who have a sufficient knowledge and experience in this scope– to insure that each item is measuring what is intended to be measured, and to avoid the ambiguity and complexity in the phrasing of questions. The reliability of the instrument was measured by the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Further, some scholars (e.g. Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) suggested that the values of all indicators or dimensional scales should be above the recommended value of 0.60. Table (1) represents the results of Cronbach's alpha for the independent and dependent variables. Cronbach's alpha coefficients of all the tested variables are above 0.60 which suggesting the composite measure is reliable.

Table 1. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of study variables

Variables	Number of items	Cronbach alpha
Training	7	0.768
Transformational leadership	5	0.745
Teamwork	5	0.759
Work environment	5	0.775
Performance appraisal	7	0.738
Service performance	7	0.735

Respondents Demographic Profile

As indicated in Table (2), the demographic profile of the respondents for this study showed that they are typically males, most of them between 30-50 years old with monthly income between 250JD and 450 JD, work in the public sector, and the majorities hold bachelor degrees.

Table 2. Description of the respondents' demographic profiles

Category	Category	Frequency	Percentage%
Gender	Males	53	53.0
	Females	47	47.0
	Total	100	100.0
Age	Less than 20	4	4.0
	20 years - less than 30	21	21.0
	30 years - less than 40	26	26.0
	40 years - less than 50	28	28.0
	50 years - less than 60	21	21.0
	Total	100	100.0
Monthly income	less than 250JD	14	14.0
	250 - less than 350JD	33	33.0
	350 - less than 450JD	28	28.0
	More than 450 JD	25	25.0
	Total	568	100
Occupation	Private sector	46	46.0
	Public sector	54	54.0
	Total	100	100.0
Education	High school	8	8.0
	Bachelor degree	84	84.0
	Postgraduate	8	8.0
	Total	100	100.0

Descriptive Analysis

In order to describe the responses and thus the attitude of the respondents toward each question they were asked in the survey, the mean and the standard deviation were estimated. While the mean shows the central tendency of the data, the standard deviation measures the dispersion which offers an index of the spread or variability in the data (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). In other words, a small standard deviation for a set of values reveals that these values are clustered closely about the mean or located close to it; a large standard deviation indicates the opposite. The level of each item was determined by the following formula: (highest point in Likert scale - lowest point in Linker scale) / the number of the levels used = $(5-1) / 5 = 0.80$, where 1-1.80 reflected by "very low", 1.81-2.60 reflected by "low", 2.61-3.40 reflected by "moderate", 3.41-4.20 reflected by "high", and 4.21-5 reflected by "very high". Then the items were being ordered based on their means. Tables (3) and (4) show the results.

Table 3. Overall mean and standard deviation of the study's variables

Type of Variable	Variables	Mean	StandardDeviation	Level	Order
Independent Variables	Training	2.8700	0.57434	Moderate	2
	Transformational leadership	2.7900	0.54411	Moderate	4
	Teamwork	2.7360	0.47726	Moderate	5
	Work environment	2.8220	0.54893	Moderate	3
	Performance appraisal	2.9357	0.49793	Moderate	1
Dependent Variable	Service performance	2.9643	0.43567	Moderate	2

Performance As presented in Table (3), data analysis results have shown that service in Aqaba is applied to a moderate level in which the mean score is 2.96. Also, performance appraisal, training, work environment, transformational leadership, and teamwork were applied in moderate levels as well with means of 2.93, 2.87, 2.82, 2.79 and 2.73 respectively. Table (4) demonstrates the mean, standard deviations, level, and order scores for items for each variable.

Table 4. Mean and standard deviation of the study's variables

Training	Mean	SD	Level	Order
Supervisors do not get together with employees to set their personal goals.	2.79	1.445	Moderate	4
Satisfying customers is the most important work guideline.	3.17	1.334	Moderate	1
Meeting customers' needs is emphasized in performance appraisals.	2.76	1.272	Moderate	5
The organization an orientation for newcomers to learn about the company.	2.74	1.468	Moderate	6
The organization continuously provides training programs.	2.55	1.298	Low	7
The organization invests considerable time and money in training.	3.00	1.310	Moderate	3
Training is comprehensive, not limited to skill training.	3.08	1.186	Moderate	2
Transformational leadership	Mean	SD	Level	Order
My supervisor discuss about most important values, beliefs and missions about my work units.	2.82	1.250	Moderate	2
My supervisor encourages me to make the most of real skills and capacities to the jobs.	2.93	1.350	Moderate	1
My supervisor challenges me to think about old problems in new ways.	2.76	1.357	Moderate	4
My supervisor has ideas that have forced me to rethink something that I have never questioned before.	2.80	1.318	Moderate	3
My supervisor gives me careful attention on working conditions.	2.64	1.375	Moderate	5

Teamwork	Mean	SD	Level	Order
This team's overall goals and objectives are clear.	2.75	1.234	Moderate	3
On this team we understand each other's roles and are able to be flexible and creative with them.	2.46	1.403	Low	5
Everyone on this team knows what's needed to make the team work well.	2.81	1.285	Moderate	2
Although no one says it, sometimes it's hard to get help with things because people feel that "it's not my job".	2.96	1.118	Moderate	1
People on this team are always frank and open with each other.	2.70	1.360	Moderate	4
Work environment	Mean	SD	Level	Order
Reacts quickly to solve the problem when told about safety concerns.	2.85	1.306	Moderate	3
Invests a lot in safety training for workers.	2.93	1.289	Moderate	1
My workspace is provided with efficient lighting so that I can work easily without strain on my eyes.	2.79	1.266	Moderate	4
Number of windows in my work area complete my fresh air and light need.	2.66	1.139	Moderate	5
My work area is sufficiently equipped for my typical needs (normal storage, movements, etc).	2.88	1.274	Moderate	2
Performance appraisal	Mean	SD	Level	Order
Performance appraisals provide employees feedback for personal development.	2.95	1.351	Moderate	4
Performance appraisals are based on multiple sources (self, co-workers, supervisor, customers, etc.).	2.99	1.259	Moderate	2
Performance appraisals are based on objective, quantifiable results.	3.15	1.306	Moderate	1
Understands duties and responsibilities of the work and complete the tasks with the level of proficiency required.	2.83	1.319	Moderate	6
Extend to which employee can be counted on to carry out instructions and fulfil job responsibilities accurately and efficiently.	2.81	1.237	Moderate	7
Punctuality of workers. Reports to work as scheduled and follows established procedures for breaks.	2.86	1.326	Moderate	5
Extent to which employee demonstrates a positive attitude, and promotes cooperation with supervisors, peers and others.	2.96	1.271	Moderate	3
Service performance	Mean	SD	Level	Order
Our employees are able to help customers when needed.	3.07	1.402	Moderate	2
Our employees explain items (services) features and benefit to overcome customers' objection.	3.07	1.335	Moderate	2
Our employees point out and relate item (service) features to customers' needs.	3.04	1.392	Moderate	3
Our employees approach customers quickly.	2.45	1.486	Low	6
Our employees suggest (services) customers might like but did not think of.	3.15	1.366	Moderate	1
Our employees ask good questions and listen attentively to find out what customer wants.	2.98	1.414	Moderate	5
Our employees are friendly and helpful to customers.	2.99	1.345	Moderate	4

Hypotheses Testing Results

The current research is mainly seeking to investigate the impact of Training, transformational leadership, teamwork, work environment and performance appraisal towards service performance in Aqaba city in Jordan. Consequently, in order to test the hypotheses developed for this study, multiple regression technique was used. Further, the level of significance (α -level) was chosen to be 0.05 and the probability value (p-value) obtained from the statistical hypotheses test is considered to be the decision rule for

rejecting the null hypotheses (Creswell, 2009). If the p-value is less than or equal to α -level, the null hypothesis will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis will be supported. However, if the p-value is greater than the α -level, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected and the alternative hypothesis will not be supported. In addition, normality of the independent variables and the absence of multi co-linearity problem (a case of multiple regression in which the independent variables are themselves highly correlated) were checked. According to Pallant (2005), most of the values should be inside the adequate ranges for normality (i.e. -1.0 to +1.0). For this purpose, skewness and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) were investigated; table (5) includes the results.

Table 5. Skewness and VIF for the independent variables

Variables	Tolerance	VIF	Skewness
Training	0.920	1.087	0.167
Transformational leadership	0.976	1.025	0.109
Teamwork	0.977	1.023	0.234
Work environment	0.962	1.039	0.334
Performance appraisal	0.925	1.081	0.282

As can be noticed from table (5), the skewness values were within the normal values (-1.0 to +1.0) suggesting that the data of the independent variables is normal. The VIF values were less than the critical value (10) which is most common among the most studies, suggesting no multi co-linearity problem among the independent variables. However, the results of testing the four hypotheses on the impact of training, transformational leadership, teamwork, work environment and performance appraisal towards service performance are demonstrated in Table (6).

Table 6. Result for the study model (b)

Variable	r	R ²	F	Sig (f)	β	t	Sig (t)
Training	0.652	0.425	113.56 1	0.000a	0.423	2.341	0.001
Transformational leadership					0.411	2.124	0.001
Teamwork					0.350	1.993	0.042
Work environment					0.348	1.991	0.041
Performance appraisal					0.091	0.421	0.580

a. Predictors: (Constant), Training, transformational leadership, teamwork, work environment and performance appraisal

b. Dependent variable: Service performance

Refer to Table (6) the multiple correlation coefficient $R = 0.652$ indicates that there is a positive correlation between the independent variables (training, transformational leadership, teamwork, work environment and performance appraisal) and service performance. The R^2 indicated the generalizability of the model. It allows us to generalize the results taken from the respondents to the whole population. In this case, it equals 0.425. The results showed that F-ratio for these data is equal to 113.561, which is statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. Therefore, we conclude that there is a statistically significant impact of the independent variables on service performance.

The β indicates the individual contribution of each predictor (independent variable) to the model, if other predictors are held constant.

Table (6) shows the standardized coefficients for each independent variable. The value of β for training, transformational leadership, teamwork, work environment and

performance appraisal are 0.423, 0.411, 0.350, 0.348, and 0.091 which are negative. The level of effect of these variables depends on the β value, the higher β value the higher effect on dependent variable. We can infer from the values of beta that the variable that has the highest contribution in the model is Training.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Result of the present study direct and guide hotel administration in Aqaba, since the main aims are raising the accommodation capacity for hotel from 4500 rooms to 10000 rooms and to increase the number of tourists to a half million every year, to adopt team work and rewarding to achieve the previous aims. Moreover, the study shows that hotel administrations don't take in consideration the importance of training for new employees to offer the best service. The training courses guide new employees to the best and correct techniques which improve their skills, knowledge and abilities to work within one teamwork. The multiple correlation coefficient $R = 0.652$ indicates that there is a positive correlation between the independent variables (training, transformational leadership, teamwork, work environment and performance appraisal) and service performance.

The R^2 indicated the generalizability of the model. It allows us to generalize the results taken from the respondents to the whole population. In this case it equals 0.425. The results showed that F-ratio for these data is equal to 113.561, which is statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. Therefore, we conclude that there is a statistically significant impact of the independent variables on service performance. Therefore, we are strongly recommended that the future researchers have to add more independent variables in their research so as their research is able to study this topic in different perspectives and more precise and accurate results will be occurred. The present study aims at understanding and exploring factors that may affect on staffs of the employees in Aqaba hotels. As it is known that the poor performance of employees in an organization leads to its declining and downward slope. On the contrary, a prosperous organization is built on its employees' achievements and endeavors. Depending on what has been mentioned, the prosperous of tourism industry depends on employees' success.

Economically and regarding the national economic returns, the economical investment returns in Aqaba are around 13\$ billion according to the chairmen of Aqaba Special Economic Zone Area (ASEZA), 50% of these returns are from hospitality sector. To be and compete in the international hospitality market, tourist companies have been looking out for the highest standards of assurance of hospitality services. Consequently, some hotel administrations in Aqaba are casting about for enabling their employees by creating an organized atmosphere depending on administrations' efforts. To do so, building a well- organized atmosphere, hotel managers may involve employees to build permanent relationships with visitors by offering the best services.

The present research studies the role of Human Resources (HR) department in improving employees' performance since employees have the chief role of offering the best services. Moreover, this paper sheds lights on the importance of studying factors that affect employees' performance positively and help to keep employees for a long period of time which decrease the average of work rotation. Not to mention the importance of establishing an encouraging and motivating system to increase the effectiveness of employees' performance this raises up the financial returns. As a result, and firstly, it is very important for hotel managers in Aqaba to attract and encourage employees to keep them working in their organizations by understanding their employees' needs and expectations by offering the highest level of quality of services for customers. Secondly,

hotel managers have to follow administrative strategies which may increase employees' satisfaction which leads to stimulate professionalism in performance.

Studies show that there is a positive relationship between the human resources system in an organization and the cumulative achievements for this organization such as the organized performance, productivity improvement, financial achievements, innovative performance and task rotation. The importance of employees training emerges as a result of the competition among hospitality companies emphasizing on employees' skills. Hotel managers, therefore, adapt to investment in training to reinforce their employees' skills and abilities. Some studies indicate that choosing the qualified employee for training leads to create a reliable workforce results in having the best qualified employees. Those employees are empowered enough to adopt novel ideas and an effective distinguished method to accomplish a task. In addition, training has a key role in enabling employees by refining their work skills and attitudes toward working in hospitality field. However, enabling employees has no effect or value without building a base of trust between the administration and employees. In addition to a group of factors which affect employees' motivations for work such as incentive systems which are crucial for ameliorated prosperous hospitality companies based on the reinforcement of employees professionalism, cooperation, skills sharing and creativity and so competition among companies depends on all these factors (Obonyo, 2013; Abu Rumman et al., 2013).

As long as prices do not attract tourist, the image and the model of services offered by an organization does which may increase the financial returns and benefits. In 1995, Boone explained in his theory Mc Gregors that students at hospitality institutions should be interactive in their learning environment through teamwork which promote effective learning of solving problems by discussion and cooperation. This method of learning builds knowledge as an integral part of social experience i.e. work atmosphere.

As a consequence, the thriving of a company depends mainly on knowledge, motivation, affording opportunities to practice new acquired skills. Having an investigating eye on what has discussed before, the researchers emphasize on the importance of rewarding employees to achieve satisfactory result. Teamwork require a consideration level of interaction among hotel employees which partakes in improving employee's performance taking in account that every employee has different and distinguished skills and experiences that other employees may have not. Therefore, teamwork is solid strategy for each organization for flourishing. The performance of teamwork; however, rely generally on the interaction between employers and employees on the first place and among employees themselves on the other to achieve aims of the organization. Also, creating teamwork provides employees a chance to discover innovative and creative ideas because of interaction among them. Hotels in Aqaba may be privileged by introducing original and unique ideas to stay in the global hospitality market.

According to the present study, some hotels in Aqaba don't care enough for the susceptibility of work hotel manager, as well as don't propose new and effective solutions for constant the face. This is asserted by sounded in 2012 that the key role of hotel manager is to encourage employees to be creative productive and constructive employees to achieve the foremost aims of the organization which is the super service to give customers satisfaction and increase the economic benefits. Thus, we are suggesting that the future researchers should not merely using one method while distributing their questionnaires or getting information from the respondents. Furthermore, it is advised that the future researchers should build up mediating mechanism in between each independent variables and employee performance, thus enable to reflect their relationship more clear.

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THE DINAMICS OF ACCESS ON TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN LABUAN BAJO, INDONESIA

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Abstract: Tourism is one of the sectors encouraged by the Indonesian government to increase economic growth. one of the efforts made is to establish Labuan Bajo as a national tourism strategic area. This study aims to explain the dynamics of access contested by some actors in tourism governance in Labuan Bajo. A qualitative approach was employed in this study. Data were gathered through interviews, focus group discussion, and document analysis. The results of this study indicate that tourism access is dominated by actors who have the power of capital and they control access to economic circles of the tourism management. On the other hand, societies are unable to involve as the main economic actors around the tourism governance.

Key words: Tourism, Development, Access, Labuan Bajo

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a strategic sector because it can contribute to economic growth, encourage and create jobs, investment development, and increase community income (Kim et al., 2016; Du et al., 2016). In addition, this sector spurs economic growth in a region (Cárdenas-García et al., 2015). In Indonesia, the tourism sector ranks 4th after oil and gas, coal, palm oil in terms of national foreign exchange earnings (Ministry of Tourism, 2016). Consequently, the Indonesian government expects that by 2020 it can become a major source of foreign exchange to exceed 3 other commodities. An effort was carried out to project 10 priority destinations by making Bali a national tourism pilot. One of them is in the area of Labuan Bajo, West Manggarai Regency.

Deciding Labuan Bajo region as one of the national tourism priority destinations is because the region has a high tourist attraction both in the eyes of local and international tourists. Labuan Bajo is one of the gates of tourism in eastern Indonesia due to the presence of the Komodo National Park (Kodir, et al., 2019). At present, the region has four infrastructure development programs in accordance with Presidential Regulation No. 32 of 2018 concerning operational procedures in Labuan Bajo and Flores. The four programs include: 1) Mapping out Labuan Bajo Tourism Strategic Area; 2) Developing International Komodo Airport; 3) Installing 20 Mooring Buy Points within the Komodo National Park area; 4) Constructing Integrated Waste Management of Labuan Bajo.

So far, the contribution of the tourism industry in West Manggarai Regency is quite large towards the increase in Regional Original Revenue (PAD). PAD obtained in 2017 reached 125 billion rupiah. In addition, the regency also receives increased income at 4.76%, compared to previous revenues which only amounted between 4.45% in 2015 and 4.08% in 2014 (Padarnews.com, 2019). The increase is obtained through the number of tourist visits from ticketing and hotel taxes. In recent years, there has been an increase in the number of tourists and hotels in the region (Figure 1 and Figure 2).

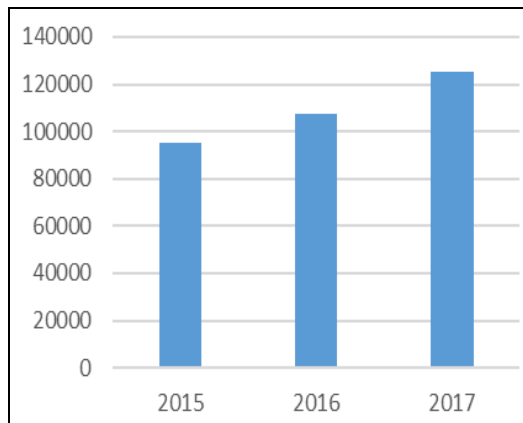


Figure 1. Number of tourists in West Manggarai (Source: Badan Pusat Statistik, 2018)

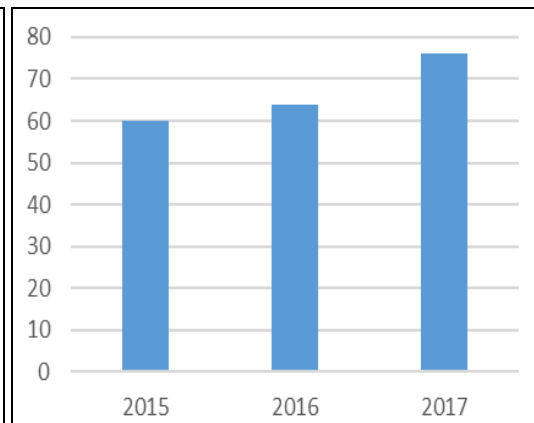


Figure 2. Number of Hotel Growth in West Manggarai (Source: Badan Pusat Statistik, 2018)

However, such conditions do not exclusively benefit local people from the development of tourism in West Manggarai. Wahyuti et al. (2015) argues that the benefits of tourism for local people are not well attained due to limited absorption of labor as a result of the low level of education and skills possessed by the communities.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The beauty of nature, biodiversity and culture are an important capitals for Indonesian tourism. This capital is one of the keys that encourages international tourists to visit and enjoy tourism in Indonesia. One indicator to see positive trends about Indonesian tourism is the increasing number of tourists contributing to foreign exchange which reached 12 million billion dollars in 2016 (NESPARNAS, 2016).

The trajectory of Indonesian tourism development began in the 1960s (Hampton & Jayacheya, 2015) and has experienced growth since the 1980s (Booth, 1990). With this increase, tourism studies in Indonesia have been carried out by both domestic and foreign researchers throughout Indonesia (Henderson, 2009; Fallon, 2011; Sutawa, 2012; Divinagracia et al, 2012; Cole 2012 & 2017; Kurniawan et al, 2016; Towner, 2016; Wardani et al, 2017; Hampton & Mahaden, 2017; Atmojo et al, 2017; Kodir, 2018; Kinseng et al, 2018; Kodir et al., 2019; Atmodjo et al., 2019; Darajat et al., 2020).

Studies on tourism and its development have been enacted in Labuan Bajo which documented several implications for the local people. First, Erb (2014) explained that Mega events such as Sail Komodo held in Labuan Bajo attracted many visitors but did not have a direct impact on increasing the income of the local people.

Second, Wahyuti et. al (2015) also added that local communities did not fully benefit from tourism activities due to their low education level to be hired. Lastly, the local government has spent funds reaching 30 billion for tourism needs. However, people in Labuan Bajo area experienced a water crisis because only 24 percent of the houses were flowed by the local water company (PDAM). Based on the aforementioned complexities above, this present study investigates tourism policies enacted in Labuan bajo, Indonesia through a framework of Access by Ribot and Paluso (2009).

METHOD AND RESEARCH SITE

This research was conducted on 2 June 2019 until 27 July 2019. A qualitative approach was employed in this study. The data data was gathered in two stages. First, conducting interviews with several related stakeholders such as Department of Tourism; Investment and Licensing Office, Komodo National Park Manager, Tourism Entrepreneurs (Hotels, Resorts, Diving & Snorkeling), West Manggarai DPRD, Local Operators, Tourism Authority Agencies, Fishermen Groups, Sunspirit - NGO, and Local Communities. Second, collecting data through focus group discussion. In addition, Observations were conducted in tourism activities. To gain deeper analysis, secondary data gathering was also done through document analysis from the Badan Pusat Statistik in West Manggarai Regency, Tourism Business Map, Map of Determination of BOP Labuan Bajo, Map of Supporting Infrastructure Development, Legislation and Other Supporting Documents.

Analysis of the data of this study uses thematic analysis. Where the thematic analysis is carried out on the results of the interview (Bryman, 2016). There are several stages carried out from the thematic process of analysis. First, do the transcript of the results of the interview. After that, coding the results of interview transcripts from several parisipers, grouping the results of interviews according to the theme of the discussion. And the last is to interpret the findings from the predetermined themes (Bryman, 2016).

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The context of tourism development in Labuan Bajo

The history and development of tourism in Labuan Bajo, cannot be separated from the presence of the Komodo National Park (TNK) (Widaningrum & Damanik, 2016). On March 6, 1980, the government designated the area between Sumbawa Island and Flores

Island as Komodo National Park. KNP, with an area of 173.300 ha, covering Komodo Island, Rinca Island, Padar Island, Nusa Kode, Gili Motang, and surrounding small islands. The beauty of the tourist nature and the presence of endangered species of Komodo (*Varanus Komodensis*) have served as intriguing attractions that lure tourists to visit. The designation of Komodo dragons as the Land of Humans and Biosefer by UNESCO in 1977, followed by their designation as World Natural Heritage in 1991, had a significant impact on the development of tourism, including in Labuan Bajo.

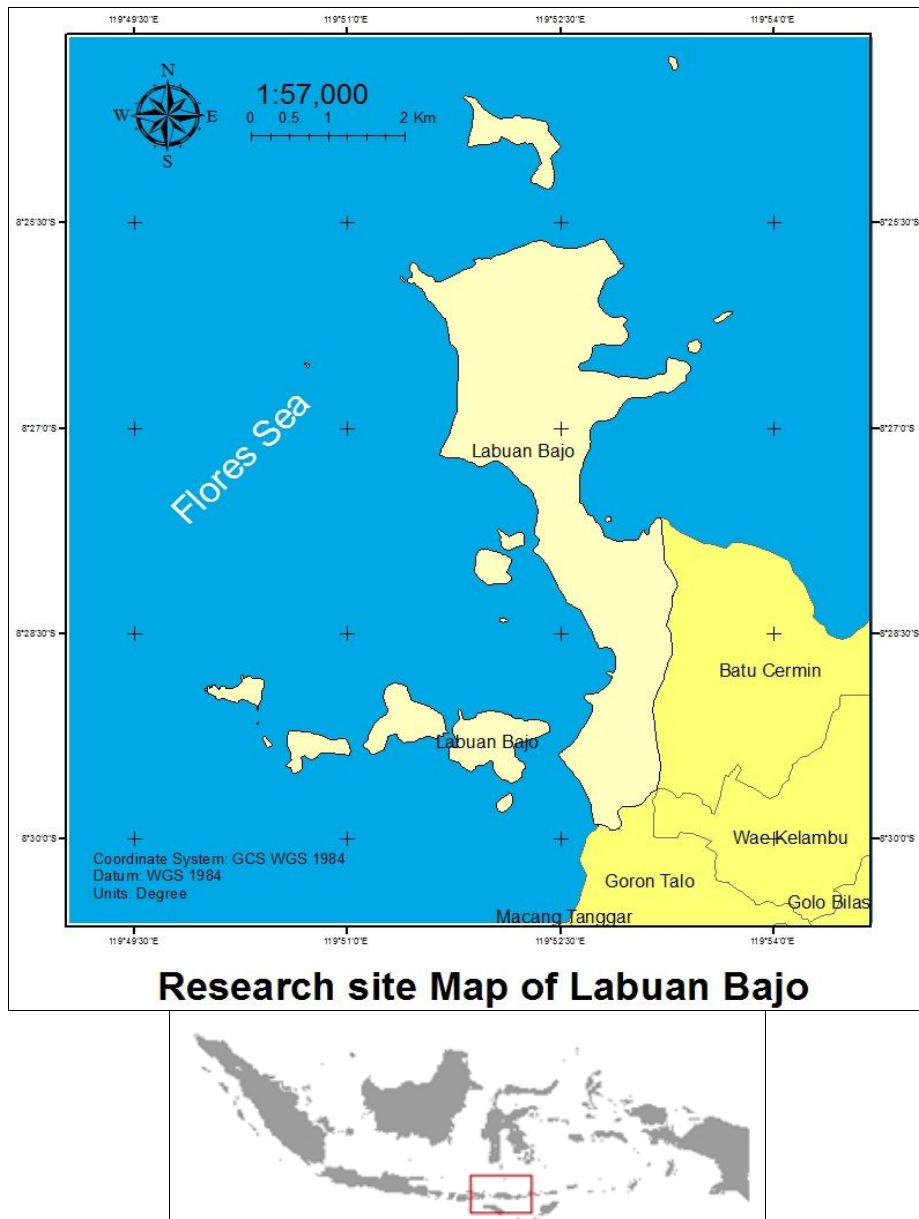


Figure 3. Research Site Maps

This can be seen from the number of tourist visits in the 1980-1990 period which reached 20-40 thousand tourists per year (Afioma, 2016). In the era of decentralization - where marine tourism, landscapes, and cultural attractions are also the focus of development - the tourism sector is increasing. The development of tourism in West Manggarai began when the Provincial Government of East Nusa Tenggara (NTT) established Labuan Bajo as one of the NTT provincial tourism destinations in 1996.

From 1995 to 1997 there were around 26 thousand foreign tourists visiting the Manggarai district, which most of them visited to see the charm of the giant lizard tour, Komodo (Haryanto, 2018). Additionally, Labuan Bajo is the main entrance to the island of Flores (Damanik, 2016). The mining sector also had served as one of the economic boosters of the Manggarai area, especially in Labuan Bajo. However, the irony of mining led to protests everywhere including in Labuan Bajo in 2008, so tourism was then seen as the only good and appropriate sector (Afioma, 2016).)

Tourism development and its supporters also continue to be improved, do not miss the promotions carried out to invite tourists to visit. In 2011 KNP was chosen as one of the finalists of the New Seven Wonders of Nature. Even though the government finally withdrew KNP from the event, it cannot be denied that KNP's prestige as the home of the Komodo dragon species has skyrocketed. Promotional activities continue to be improved, one of them is through the Sail Komodo event in 2013 and the Tour de Flores event with a budget of 3.7 trillion and 32 billion rupiah, respectively. However, the concern that arises subjects to corruption cases (Erb, 2015).

In the development sector, Labuan Bajo continues to enhance the development of supporting infrastructure for tourism such as airports, ports and highways. In addition, in 2013, East Nusa Tenggara was designated as a tourism support region in the Master Plan for the Acceleration of Development and Expansion of Indonesia's Economic Development (MP3EI) 2011-2025, one of them thanks to the rapid development of KNP and Labuan Bajo tourism. Then in the same year, the INFEST (Flores Ecotourism Development Innovation for Sustainable Trade) program was held in a number of villages and cities in Flores, one of which was held in Labuan Bajo.

The great potential of Labuan Bajo also received more attention from the Central Government when in 2016 it was chosen to be one of the "10 priority tourism destinations", followed by the establishment of the Tourism Authority Agency by the central government in 2018, as an effort to accelerate tourism development in Labuan Bajo. The capital of West Manggarai is considered as the entrance to access tourism areas, both in KNP or tourism destinations in NTT, so it needs to be continuously optimized. Currently, the development of tourism in Labuan Bajo along with its supporting facilities is quite rapid. Exclusive resorts, star hotels, and entertainment venues are widely available. Tourist ships and cruise ships also leaning around the waters of Labuan Bajo. In addition to the tourist attraction of the KNP region, tourist attractions in Labuan Bajo, which until now continue to be developed, such as Puncak Waringin, Angel Island, Batu Cermin Cave, Verhoven Stacking Stone, Tanjung Rangko, Toro Sitangga, Ular Island, Bird Island, Kelumpang, Menjerite Beach, Pramuka Peak, Komodo Warloka, Pasir Putih, Tanjung Boleng, Watu Wangkung, Pontianak, Golo Mori and M. Tanggar, are also choices for tourists (Haryanto, 2018).

Access to Tourism Development in Labuan Bajo

Access is an ability to take advantage of something that depends a lot on the constellation of power (Ribot & Peluso, 2009). Including attracting a profit from tourism sources. Access is a relevant analysis in explaining the relations of the interests of actors fighting over-tourism management, especially in Labuan Bajo, Indonesia. Labuan Bajo is

the locus in developing access analysis because tourism development in the region is quite significant. Labuan Bajo is the main entrance before tourists will go to the Komodo National Park. Through access theory developed by Ribot and Peluso (2009), the authors aim to identify and critically review access to tourism development in Labuan Bajo. By focusing on natural resources, which are also sources of tourism, the author wants to do then do an in-depth exploration of power. Power becomes one part of the mechanism, process, and relationships that are closely related to a bundle of power and a web of power that forms access resources are no exception to tourism sources.

In the context of this study, some people and institutions with pretensions have considerable possibilities in controlling tourism resources with the power relations they have (Bowen et al., 2017; Saito & Ruhanen, 2017). But on the other hand, some of these people or institutions maintain their access through who controls the resources. In addition, an analysis of access also helps in understanding why some people or institutions benefit from resources in the presence or absence of ownership of goods in them. From the results of this study, the writer has identified several actors and their interests in accessing tourism development in Labuan Bajo.

Local Government, Investors, and Tourism Authority Agencies (BOP): Strengthening the relationship between a bundle of powers and a web of powers

The number of tourists visiting Labuan Bajo every year shows a positive trend. Consequently, tourists need adequate accommodation facilities for the convenience of their trip. Therefore, development is necessary to support tourism needs. In addition, local governments consider the people of Labuan Bajo to be unable to adapt to changes in tourism. In addition, they also have capital constraints in developing business in the field of tourism. With this gap, investors are given as much opportunity as possible to invest their capital, and at the same time can easily obtain tourism management permits and their territory. Because after all, investment is an inseparable part of tourism development (Banarjee, et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017; Sokhanvar, 2019). This is inseparable from the target of the central government that wants to boost the number of tourists and foreign exchange earnings from the tourism sector in Labuan Bajo, which is as many as 500,000 visits in 2019 and 20 trillion rupiahs of foreign exchange.

There are several actors involved in tourism management such as local governments, entrepreneurs, BOP, and local communities. Some of these actors have different interests. Some of these actors have the advantage of access to control and access to rule except the local community. Access to control is the ability to mediate other accesses. Control leads to the examination and supervision of actions, functions, or forces that supervise and regulate free action whereas access control requires power to maintain some access resources openly. In practice, access control can be realized through its institutions and apparatus while access to rules works through regulations and laws. Through clear regulations and laws, investors or business people feel safe to invest their capital through the development of the tourism industry.

Meanwhile, the influx of large investments provides benefits for the regional government or the Tourism Authority Agency (BOP) to increase the number of tourists which will directly have an impact on increasing the country's foreign exchange and local revenue. Institutions and regulations are important drivers for the actors to achieve their interests. Because basically between access to control and access to the rule are two complementary things. Both of these, have an important role in efforts to formulate relations between actors in the relationship to resources, management, and

use of tourism resources. The emergence of regulations and apparatus that are accommodating to the tourism industry, of course, is not something that has suddenly arisen. However, because in access, there are a variety of bundles and webs of powers that make these actors able to benefit from the management of tourism.

The power relation runs on the carrying capacity of politicians who then have networks with business people and investors. The relationship between local government, political elites, and business people is unavoidable. Business/investor needs are looking for maximum profits in the West Manggarai area through various types of businesses that they run, especially in the tourism sector. Wahyuti (2013) explained that the money circulating in the Labuan Bajo area was 838 billion rupiahs. However, most of that amount of money was received by tourism operators and ship entrepreneurs, most of whom were foreigners with a percentage of 75.55%.

The Komodo National Park and the Regional Government received 2.09%. Hotels, restaurants, retail/souvenir shops get 22.36%. While on the other hand, local governments are trying to bring in funds for development. In the midst of the limitations of the Regional Revenue Budget (APBD) in developing underdeveloped areas in West Manggarai, local governments often aim at projects that come down from the center as wetlands hunting for profits made through corrupt budget absorption, and buying and selling political permits (consensus, operating permits, and land concessions) (Erb, 2015). Therefore, if there are projects that come from the center, they always receive and are very well facilitated.

Another actor who has a big interest in tourism management is the Tourism Authority Agency (BOP). The BOP is an independent and non-ministerial body formed directly by the President through Presidential Regulation number 32 of 2018. BOP has the task of accelerating the development process in tourism with a principle of developing sustainable and sustainable ecotourism, supporting the establishment of a single destination single management system in the effort to manage tourism in the regions, encourage investment rates, and organize major promotions to introduce tourism destinations and try to attract tourists to travel to Indonesia.

In the context of tourism in Labuan Bajo, BOP has two different sides. On the first hand, BOP is very useful in advancing regional development through its authority that can carry out and control the activities of development permits (investment), make policies and synchronize policies with local governments where the role according to the people in local government is very helpful because if implementation development only relies on APBD funds so it will not be able to run quickly. That is because the funding owned by BOP comes from APBN funds worth 16 Trillion rupiahs, non-binding donation funds, and cooperation with local developers. However, on the other hand, BOP can be a threat. Since the existence of BOP is under the President and the Agency has authority, this is awfully disturbing in the implementation of development at the regional level, each of which is carried out through the Regional Autonomy Law. One case that occurred was when the Sail Komodo event was held in 2013, a budget that reached 3.7 Trillion rupiahs disbursed from the center does not have a significant impact on people's lives, and the involvement of local governments is also completely invisible.

In addition, BOP will also be given full rights in the management of sea and land areas. With its authority, BOP has the right to rearrange the spatial plan and apply to zone to coastal areas and small islands, including granting management rights to third parties to obtain rental results. Thus, through a set of regulations and institutions, these actors gain legal access to tourism resources even though at first, they did not have any basis for rights. Whereas at the time, the interests of the local community did not get a place in

tourism management. Tourism is only centralized by local governments and legal entities without presenting the role of local communities (Yankholmes, 2018).

Position of Local Communities Interest among the Interests of Tourism Investment

From the results of the field research, at least the researchers dug up information relating to the interests and needs of the local community in dealing with the big wave of the tourism industry in Labuan Bajo. First, local people who live in coastal areas need a boat/fast engine to become a mode of transportation in the waters, both for the needs of fishing in the ocean and tourist boats owned by the community.

Second, the people of Labuan Bajo need adequate access to capital and are not loan sharks for them to buy production/capital needs for their businesses whether they are already running or will be running. Because so far many people have relied on pawnshops and private lenders who can be said to charge huge interest for people who pawned their goods or borrowed some money for capital.

And lastly, they have an interest so that the government immediately issues regulations/laws that can protect their interests in; tourism participation as manager, protection, and distribution of community work goods such as rice/garden harvests, fish/livestock, handicraft items, cultural products (clothing and accessories), and protection of ownership of customary lands from investors. Which will be purchased to be rebuilt into a resort, hotel, restaurant or other building. However, until now, the interests of the community have not been accommodated by the local government.

In short, they only become a complement to the tourism sector. This is due to their limitations on market access and capital access (Ribot & Peluso, 2009). Not only that, their lack of knowledge of the important role of tourism in development (Sihombing et al., 2017). In addition, in the coastal areas, most of them left their livelihoods as fishers and turned into guides, Shipmen (ABK), chef. The involvement was not of their choice because they were aware but rather the pressure of the tourism industry.

CONCLUSION

The development of tourism in the tourism sector in Indonesia is essentially needed, especially to unfold reliance on state revenues such as coal, gas oil, and palm oil, which have the risk of environmental damage. The results of this study indicate that the tourism sector in Labuan Bajo still needs to be developed, considering the target provided by the government is quite high for tourists. For this reason, several actors are needed in managing tourism. However, there are management gaps in tourism access. Access to tourism management has been dominated by actors with large capital strengths such as investors, local governments, and BOP. Whereas the community has limited access to tourism because of its limitations on access to capital.

The local community is only a compliment does not have a significant role in the development of tourism in Labuan Bajo. This research is only limited to the identification and interests of the actors involved in accessing tourism management. It is hoped that in future studies, other researchers can explain related strategies of local communities in tourism management involvement even with limited access.

In addition, by considering the problems that arise from the development of tourism, researchers provide recommendations for the parties involved to do the following things: first, the central and regional governments to discuss the limits of government power, especially in the realm of tourism development in Labuan Bajo. This negotiation must also involve the local community as the 'host' and the investor's

representative as the party needed to encourage development activities in the Labuan Bajo area. The purpose of this negotiation is to accommodate and voice all aspirations and needs of the community and tourism management actors directly.

This negotiation is expected to produce fair regulations from problems that have existed or have not yet been resolved, such as the unclear authority of regional and central government in tourism management, privatization of tourism resources, community limitations on clean water, and land liberation. Second, the community to form community based forums based on region and profession that will be very useful for them in building people's power and bargaining power, as a communication forum for internal / external communities in a particular area, as a forum in which they discuss development developments, oversee and criticize the government, and determination of attitude.

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EXPLORING THE SATISFACTION OF ECOTOURISM IN PROTECTED NATURAL AREAS

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Abstract: Enhancing the tourists' visit to protected areas is vital for destinations that have natural and cultural wealth. The objective of this study is to analyze the aspects of satisfaction with ecotourism in three important protected areas. The empirical study was conducted in situ at Morro Mangroves Wildlife Refuge, Santay Island National Recreation Area and Samanes National Recreation Area in Ecuador. Hence, with the use of quantitative correlational techniques, 382 questionnaires were analyzed. Findings reveal high satisfaction and loyalty in ecotourism. The most valued factors in the satisfaction were the tranquility, conservation of the natural and monumental heritage, the humane treatment received and the access to the infrastructure. In ecotourism, general satisfaction influences the intentions of returning, recommending and expressing positive things about the destination. These findings will contribute to the development of efficient marketing plans in destinations related to ecotourism.

Key words: Ecotourism, satisfaction, loyalty, demand, Ecuador

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INTRODUCTION

Ecotourists, on average, show high satisfaction with their ecotourism experiences (Buckley, 2009; Butler & Boyd, 2000; Lawton, 2001; Weaver, 2008). Also, managers increasingly realize the economic importance of meeting the needs of their visitors and providing them with memorable experiences (Fletcher & Fletcher, 2003). In this sense, visitor satisfaction is a vital aspect of the marketing and management practices of national

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parks (Hwang et al., 2005; Ramkissoon et al., 2013). Most studies of protected areas evaluate some necessary attributes of the site, such as boats or trails, identifying a similar trend of high satisfaction (Fletcher & Fletcher, 2003). Likewise, finding megafaunas and impressive ecosystems are key expressive attributes of satisfaction in protected areas (Curtin, 2003; Hvenegaard, 2002). Furthermore, understanding the concept/perception of satisfaction allows managers to provide facilities and services that match the expectations of visitors (Borrie & Birzell, 2001; Tonge & Moore, 2007). Similarly, understanding the expectations and satisfaction of visitors helps to plan the allocation of resources and provision of services (Bushell & Griffin, 2006). It also allows visitors to obtain the natural and relaxation benefits they expect (Crilley et al., 2012). Therefore, the efficient management of visitor satisfaction is often a significant goal that park managers seek to achieve (Tonge & Moore, 2007). Additionally, in tourism marketing, visitor satisfaction and behavioral intentions remain an essential area of research (Prayag et al., 2013). However, research in destinations related to nature and protected areas have been scarce in the scientific literature (Castellanos-Verdugo et al., 2016).

In this framework, the three protected areas are located in Guayas province in Ecuador, where ecotourism is a relevant modality due to the diversity of species of flora and fauna in the areas that belong to the National System of Protected Areas of Ecuador (SNAP). These were Morro Mangroves Wildlife Refuge, Santay Island National Recreation Area and Samanes National Recreation. This manuscript aims to analyze satisfaction in ecotourism and provide information to tourism marketers. Thus, it contributes to the planning of efficient marketing strategies. This paper is divided into six sections. The first section contains the introduction. The second section describes the literature. The third section displays the study area. The methodology appears in the fourth section. The fifth section shows the results. The manuscript ends with a sixth section with the discussion, conclusions, limitations and future lines of research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Satisfaction is an emotional response derived from a consumer experience (Spreng et al., 1996). Similarly, satisfaction is as a post-consumer assessment that determines whether it meets or exceeds the expectations of tourists (Engel et al., 1993). Another definition for satisfaction is the cognitive-affective state derived from a consumer experience (Bosque & Martin, 2008). Tourist satisfaction refers to the positive feeling or pleasure obtained after experiencing or consuming any tourist product (Beard & Ragheb, 1980). Furthermore, satisfaction is a psychological aspect that derives from visiting an environment and an emotional state of mind after exposure to an opportunity (Howat & Crilley 2007; Zabkar et al., 2010). In addition, the satisfaction of tourists who visit a national park or a protected area can be measured indirectly through the stimuli that tourists receive from that area. Moreover, satisfaction results from the experiences of visitors who are in contact with the natural characteristics and identity of a protected area (Chhetri et al., 2004; Bigné et al., 2005). Several researchers have recognized that satisfaction depends on the products, prices, quality of the services provided and the friendly attitude of the local inhabitants (Qu & Li, 1997; Ryan, 1999; Stevens, 1992).

Some researchers have found that satisfaction is a general evaluation after purchase (Devesa et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2013; Yoon et al., 2010), which increases the likelihood that tourists will return to visit and recommend the destination to friends and family (Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Furthermore, satisfaction comprises the choice of destination, the consumption of products and services, and the decision to return (Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Zabkar et al., 2010). Hence, satisfaction is fundamental for tourism given the strong relationship between satisfaction and future customer behavior. This means that a satisfied consumer

will repeat the visit and communicate the positive experiences to others (Emir & Kozak, 2011). Therefore, satisfaction is conducive to repeat visits (Seetanah et al., 2020; Tonge et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2018), achieve visitor loyalty (Abd Razaka et al., 2020; Chen & Tsai, 2007), and promote frequent visits (Sivalioğlu & Berköz, 2012).

Several studies reveal that satisfaction has a positive influence on post-purchase behavior (Abd Razaka et al., 2020; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Fornell, 1992; Keaveney, 1995). In addition, some studies have shown that repeated visits to a tourist destination are related to higher levels of visitor satisfaction because it motivates people to return to the same destination again (Carvache-Franco et al., 2019; Rittichainuwat et al., 2002; Tian-Cole et al., 2002; Yuksel, 2001). In addition, other studies have found an impact between general satisfaction and satisfaction with different aspects with the intentions to return and recommend (Alegre & Cladera, 2006; Carvache-Franco et al., 2020; Um et al., 2006). For Carvache-Franco et al. (2020), there is a significant and positive correlation between general satisfaction with the intentions to return and recommend an ecotourism destination. Regarding ecotourism satisfaction studies, the study by Tsiotsou & Vasioti (2006) on tourism services in Greece identified several factors related to the satisfaction that include "staff satisfaction," "satisfaction with food," "satisfaction with the excursion," "satisfaction with socialization," and "satisfaction with the landscape." Furthermore, Meng et al. (2008) in their study on the satisfaction of nature-based tourist complexes in Virginia, identified some satisfaction factors, among them: friendly service/quality, outdoor activities, accommodation and natural landscapes.

In addition, Lee (2015) found the following satisfaction factors: information services, recreational facilities, and safety and sustainability. Similarly, Dolnicar et al. (2015) mentions that it is necessary to identify which attributes or factors of the service are more important and should improve to increase satisfaction and which attributes are not as important or have little influence on customer satisfaction. On the other hand, Adam et al. (2019) investigated the satisfaction and motivation of ecotourists visiting the Kakum National Park, and found the following factors: "educational satisfaction," "social satisfaction," "satisfaction with sanitation," and "satisfaction with relaxation". Moreover, representative examples in ecotourism include a high satisfaction rate of 66% in the Pirongia Forest Park of New Zealand (Pan & Ryan, 2007) and a 60% satisfaction level in the Amboseli National Park of Kenya (Okello et al., 2008). For Abd Razaka et al. (2020) understanding the factors of tourist satisfaction leads to long-term relationships with customers and positively contributes to business growth.

STUDY AREA

In this section, the authors describe the protected areas with ecotourism potential: Morro Mangroves Wildlife Refuge, Santay Island National Recreation Area and Samanes National Recreation Area. These sites are located in Ecuador.

Santay Island National Recreation

It is located on the Guayas River, between the cities of Guayaquil and Duran in the Guayas Province. This protected area has international recognition as a wetland.

It is a Ramsar site since 2000. This declaration has made this site of global interest and a priority for nature conservation. Waterfalls visit this wetland for resting, sheltering and nesting. Moreover, the area houses 60 plant species, 12 reptile varieties and 128 types of birds, of which 12 are listed. This site is also notorious for its mangroves and, some trees protect unique mammals. Flora and fauna are the main ecotourism attractions, and tourists admire mangrove marine birds. Another attraction of the island is the Ecovillage, where visitors can observe crocodiles and observe the typical homes of the community of this site (Figure 1).

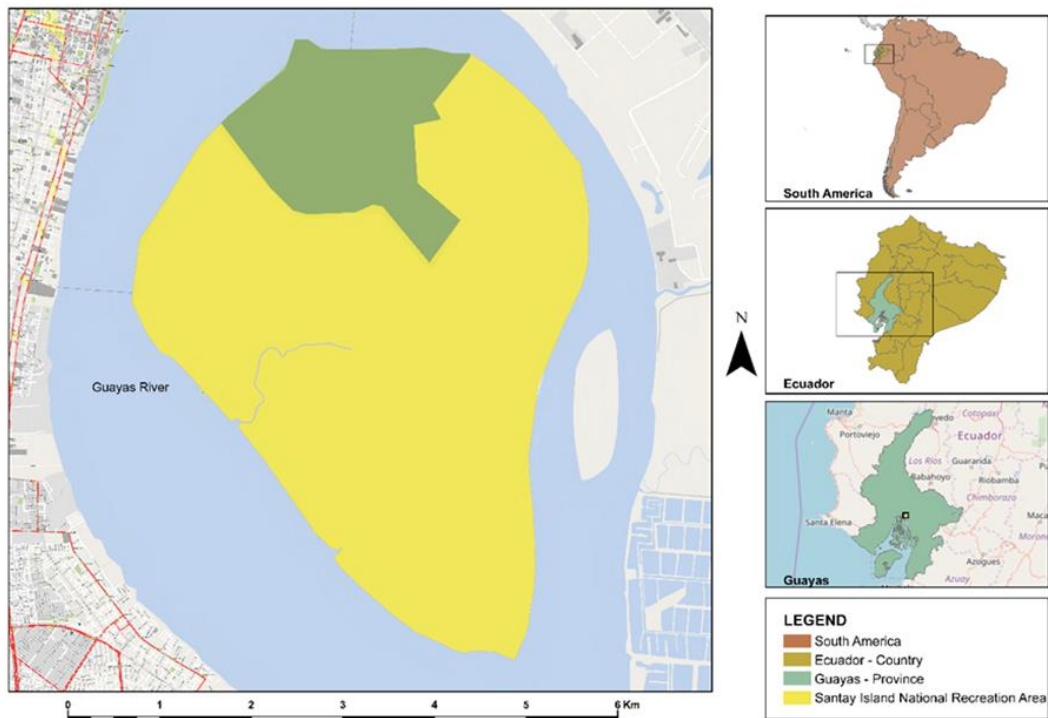


Figure 1. Geographical location of the Santay Island National Recreation

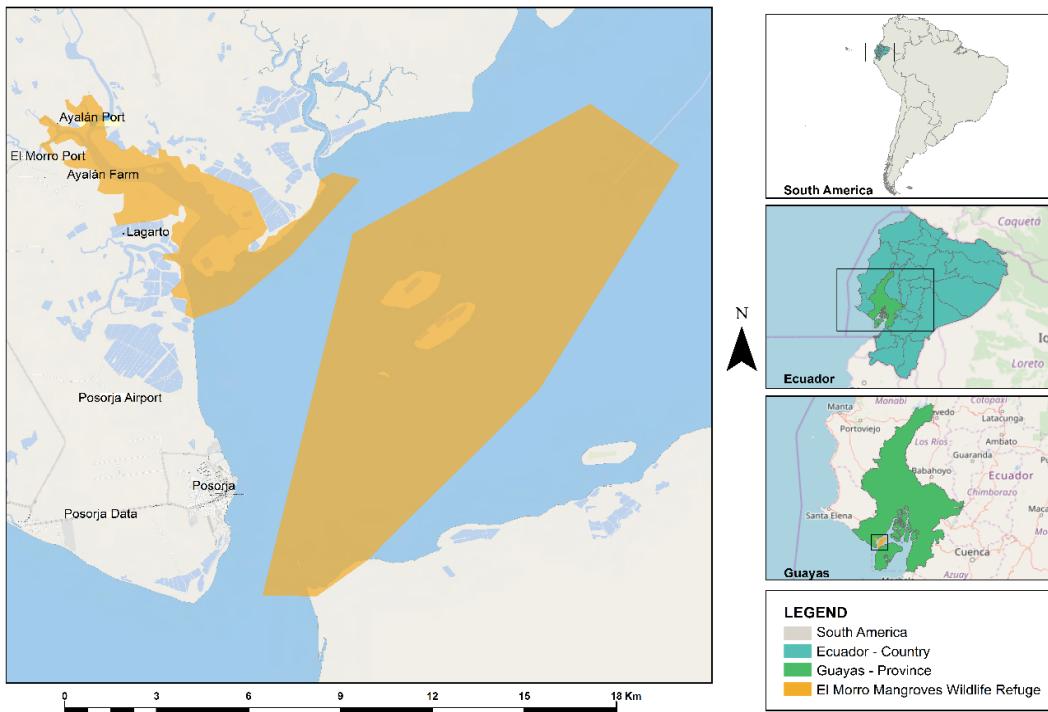


Figure 2. Geographical location of the Morro Mangroves Wildlife Refuge



Morro Mangroves Wildlife Refuge

It is located in the north of the Gulf of Guayaquil in Ecuador. A large population of dolphins inhabits the Morro Canal, and a frigate colony occupies Manglecito Island. The frigate colony contains approximately 6,000 individuals, which makes this site one of the highest concentrations of these birds in the world. There are four types of mangroves on this site: red, white, black and button. On its mainland, the refuge protects a small parcel of dry forest. More than 80 species live on this site, and seabirds are the most abundant in the refuge. Among the main attractions, visitors can observe dolphins, frigates, pelicans, blue-footed boobies, pink spoonbills, white ibis and cormorants. There are also shelters and nesting sites for frigates, pelicans and blue-footed boobies on Manglecito Island (Figure 2).

Samanes National Recreation Area

It is located in the north of Guayaquil, Ecuador. Remains of dry coastal forest and alluvial plains, which preserve the characteristics of the Guayas river basin, endure this area. The coastal dry forest is particularly frequent in the highest areas, where tourists can see trees such as Kapok, Vytex cymosa, Bototillo, Guasmo and even Guayacan, as well as the tree that gives the area its name, the Rain tree. The Samanes National Recreation Area is also home to many species of waterfowl such as cormorants, whistling ducks, coots and herons. On this site, visitors can enjoy several sports and leisure facilities (Figure 3).

METHODOLOGY

The questionnaire used in this study was adapted from previous studies on ecotourism satisfaction (Adam et al., 2019; Devesa et al., 2010; Lee, 2015; Meng et al., 2008; Tsiotsou & Vasioti, 2006). The instrument contained two sections. In the first section, the researchers collected sociodemographic information. The second section

dealt with the satisfaction and intentions of returning, recommending and making positive commentaries about the destination. Several types of questions, such as closed and five-point Likert scale were used to obtain reliable results. The satisfaction scale contained 13 items with a Likert scale of five points, corresponding to the different aspects of the destination. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the final scale resulted in a robust value of 0.89 (close to 1). Surveys were conducted in situ during January and July 2018 in the three protected areas. The authors trained the interviewers who completed the surveys when the tourists did recreational or leisure activities. The tourists surveyed were Ecuadorian adults and foreigners visiting one of the protected areas studied. The visitors completed the surveys while they rested after their ecotourism activities. The surveys were anonymous, and the interviewers assisted the visitors whenever they had questions. The interviewers collected a total of 382 valid questionnaires, and the infinite population was used. The researchers considered the sample performed the study with a margin of error of $\pm 5\%$, a confidence level of 95% and variability of 50%. The Spearman correlation coefficient was used to know the significant relationships between the different variables. The statistical data was collected, organized, tabulated and analyzed through the SPSS program, version 22.

RESULTS

The sample consisted of 90.8% national tourists and 9.2% foreign tourists. Of the study population, 42.7% were men and 57.3% were women. 61.3% were in the age group between 20 and 29 years old, and 19.4% were in the group of 30 to 39 years old. The vast majority of tourists had university education at 77.0%. From the tourists who visited the protected areas, 49% did so in the company of their family and 35.1% with friends. The visitors mostly arrived in groups of 3 to 5 people (58.1%), followed by those who arrived with less than three people (26.70%).

General satisfaction and loyalty

General satisfaction and loyalty was measured with a 5 point Likert scale (one means little, and five means a lot), the general satisfaction of the experience of visiting the destination in ecotourism had an average of 4.22. The response suggests the high potential of the resources in these three protected areas. Regarding aspects of future behavior, the intention to return to the destination obtained an average of 4.3, and the intention to recommend the protected area obtained an average of 4.34. The variable "when I speak of these protected areas I mention positive things" obtained an average from 4.33. Hence, findings show the high loyalty of visitors and the potential of ecotourism as a modality.

Table 1. Satisfaction and loyalty

Variable	N	Min.	Max.	Mean
Satisfaction				
General satisfaction	382	1	5	4.22
Loyalty				
I intend to return to these protected areas	382	1	5	4.30
I have the intention to recommend these protected areas	382	2	5	4.34
When I talk about these protected areas, I will give positive comments	382	2	5	4.33

Relationship among general satisfaction and the intentions to return, recommend and say positive things

Through a Spearman correlation, the relationship among general satisfaction with intentions to return, recommend and say positive things about the ecotourism destiny has been analyzed. As shown in Table 2, overall satisfaction presented a significant and

positive correlation with the intentions of returning, recommending and saying positive things about the destination. Therefore, by improving the level of general satisfaction of tourists, the intentions to return, recommend and say positive things about the ecotourism destination will increase. Hence, to increase the level of general satisfaction of tourists, there must be an analysis of the relationship between general satisfaction with satisfaction in the different aspects of the service. In addition, the aspects of the service that have the most significant influence on the overall satisfaction should be known.

Table 2. General satisfaction with the intentions to return, recommend and say positive things

Variable	Correlation
I intend to return to these protected areas	0.552**
I have the intention to recommend these protected areas	0.606**
When I talk about these protected areas, I will give positive comments	0.579**

**Significance 1%

The satisfaction with the appearance of the site

The satisfaction in protected areas was measured with a 5 point Likert scale (one means little and five means a lot). Findings reveal that the most valued aspects were: tranquility with an average of 4.19, followed by conservation of the natural heritage and monumental with 4.09, the human treatment received with 4.04 and access to infrastructure with 3.96. These results indicate that the natural and cultural resources of the destination are well-preserved. Moreover, there is vast tranquility forecreation in natural areas, and there is adequate access to infrastructure (Table 3)

Tables 3. The satisfaction with the appearance of the site

Variable	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Stand. Dev.
Calmness	382	1	5	4.19	0.886
Conservation of natural and cultural heritage	382	1	5	4.09	0.893
How locals treat tourists	382	1	5	4.04	0.928
Accessibility and infrastructure	382	1	5	3.96	1.013
Traffic signs	382	1	5	3.92	1.049
Parking	382	1	5	3.92	1.031
Prices	382	1	5	3.89	0.991
Tourist information and signs	382	1	5	3.87	1.013
Sport facilities	382	1	5	3.85	1.159
Gastronomy	382	1	5	3.79	1.029
Restaurant facilities/equipment	382	1	5	3.74	1.013
Complimentary leisure activities (festivals, shows)	382	1	5	3.41	1.264
Guided tours	382	1	5	3.21	1.725

Relationship of different aspects of satisfaction with general satisfaction

The relationship between the different aspects of satisfaction and general satisfaction was analyzed with the Spearman correlation coefficient. The results are shown in Table 4. According to Table 4, all the satisfaction aspect variables presented a significant and positive correlation with the overall satisfaction.

Therefore, the variables that had a more significant influence on the overall satisfaction are the equipment and facilities of the restaurants, gastronomic quality, prices and local's behavior with tourists. These were the service variables that should be improved to increase the level of overall satisfaction in this destination.

Relationship of satisfaction by aspect with the intention to return to the destination

Table 4. Different aspects of satisfaction related to general satisfaction

Variable	Correlation
Restaurant facilities/equipment	0.464**
Gastronomy	0.439**
Prices	0.431**
How locals treat tourists	0.410**
Parking	0.401**
Accessibility and infrastructure	0.400**
Tourist information and signs	0.397**
Conservation of natural and cultural heritage	0.395**
Calmness	0.378**
Sport facilities	0.367**
Traffic signs	0.361**
Complimentary leisure activities (festivals, shows)	0.352**
Guided tours	0.351**

**Significance 1%

The relationship of satisfaction by aspect with the intention of returning to the destination was analyzed with the Spearman correlation coefficient. The results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Satisfaction by aspect with intentions to return to the destination

Variable	Correlation
Accessibility and infrastructure	0.432**
Prices	0.429**
Parking	0.418**
Traffic signs	0.401**
Conservation of natural and cultural heritage	0.384**
Calmness	0.368**
Restaurant facilities/equipment	0.360**
Sport facilities	0.349**
How locals treat tourists	0.341**
Gastronomy	0.340**
Tourist information and signs	0.338**
Guided tours	0.236**
Complimentary leisure activities (festivals, shows)	0.296**

**Significance 1%

According to Table 5, all the satisfaction aspect variables, except for guided visits, presented a significant and positive correlation with the intentions of returning to the destination. Thus, the variables that had more considerable influence on the intentions of returning to the destination were: access to infrastructure, prices, parking, and signaling on roads. These were the service variables that could be improved to increase the level of intention to return to this destination.

Relationship of satisfaction by aspects and the intentions to recommend the destination

The relationship of satisfaction by aspect and the intention of recommending the destination was analyzed with the Spearman correlation coefficient. The results are shown in Table 6. According to Table 6, all the satisfaction aspect variables present a significant and positive correlation with the intention of recommending a destination. In this sense, the variables that had a more significant influence on the intentions of recommending the destination were: Prices, parking, human treatment received and

access to infrastructure. The findings show that these were the service variables that should be improved to increase the level of intentions to recommend the destination.

Table 6. Satisfaction by aspect and the intention to recommend the destination

Variable	Correlation
Prices	0.445**
Parking	0.430**
How locals treat tourists	0.424**
Accessibility and infrastructure	0.423**
Calmness	0.421**
Traffic signs	0.415**
Conservation of natural and cultural heritage	0.385**
Restaurant facilities/equipment	0.381**
Tourist information and signs	0.378**
Gastronomy	0.361**
Complimentary leisure activities (festivals, shows)	0.325**
Guided tours	0.317**
Sport facilities	0.286**

**Significance 1%

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings show that overall satisfaction was high, along with the intention to return, recommend and say positive things. The most valued factors in the satisfaction by aspect were tranquility, conservation of the natural and monumental patrimony, the humane treatment received and access to the infrastructure. Therefore, in ecotourism, general satisfaction influences the intention of returning to the destination, similar results were found in other studies (Abd Razaka et al., 2020; Carvache-Franco et al., 2020; Seetanah et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2018). Moreover, satisfaction influences the intentions of recommending a destination. Similar findings were presented in other studies (Carvache-Franco et al., 2020; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Additionally, satisfaction influences the intention of saying positive things about the destination. Analogous results were identified in studies (Carvache-Franco et al., 2020; Emir & Kozak, 2011).

Furthermore, all the variables of satisfaction by appearance influenced general satisfaction. Also, all the variables of satisfaction by aspect influenced the intention of returning to the destination and the intention of recommending the destination. Similar results were observed in other studies (Alegre & Cladera, 2006; Carvache-Franco et al., 2020; Um et al., 2006). In ecotourism, general satisfaction is more influenced by the equipment and facilities of the restaurants, gastronomic quality, prices and the humane treatment received. While the intention to return to the destination is affected by access to infrastructure, prices, parking and signaling on roads. On the other hand, the intention of recommending the destination is more influenced by prices, parking, the humane treatment received and the access to the infrastructure. Therefore, to improve the service, it is necessary to increase the level of general satisfaction of tourists.

Thus, the intention to return and recommend a destination increases. Above all, improving prices, access to infrastructure, and treatment received will increase overall satisfaction and future visits to ecotourism destinations. Among the practical implications, companies related to ecotourism should plan strategies to improve the level of satisfaction in the different aspects of the service. In this way, they should be able to improve the level of general satisfaction of tourists, increase future visits of tourists, and enhance the recommendation of the destination. Thus, the companies contribute to the development of the destination and the community. Finally, the main

limitation of the present study was the temporality of the information gathering because the demand can vary depending on the tourist season. A future line of research is the relationship between satisfaction and demand segments.

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STAKEHOLDERS, SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND REMUNERATION PRACTICES IN THE MALAYSIAN TOURISM SMALL AND MEDIUM-SIZED ENTERPRISES

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Abstract: The tourism small and medium-sized enterprises play a vital role as the backbone in the Malaysian tourism industry, hence becoming a significant portion of entrepreneurial enterprises for the country. It is therefore essential for the enterprises to efficiently perform particularly in their managerial aspects. A study was conducted among 229 employees of the tourism small and medium-sized enterprises in Malaysia to investigate three major managerial practices namely, the stakeholders practice, the social responsibility practice and the remuneration practice in line with a better performance of the enterprises. The findings highlight that all three practices are considered as vital component in managing the tourism small and medium-sized enterprises. Majority of the respondents agreed that the stakeholders of the enterprises would establish fair procedures for goods and services based on considerations of quality, pricing and performance. Further, most of them also agreed that environmental management is essential as their social responsibility practice in the enterprises. Additionally, the findings indicate that most respondents found that the incentive of top management in the enterprises would ensure the alignment of the management and stakeholders' interest. The study significantly contribute to the tourism small and medium-sized enterprises in creating better management scenario within the enterprises in order to achieve strategic planning competitiveness in the industry.

Key words: Tourism, small and medium-sized enterprises, stakeholders, social responsibility, remuneration

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INTRODUCTION

The definition of small and medium-sized enterprise (SME) varies from country to country. Several guidelines exist to assist firms or organizations to better understanding of SME. In such country for example Egypt, SME is defined as having more than 5 and fewer than 50 employees (Dalberg, 2011). As for Vietnam, SME is considered as having employees between 10 and 300 in the organization. In further definition, the Inter-American Development Bank defines SME as having a maximum of 100 employees and less than \$3 million in revenue. According to Natarajan and Wyrick (2011), countries in Europe define SME as having manpower fewer than 250 employees while in the United States, SME is defined as those with employees less than 500 standard definition. Additionally, the World Bank (2002) defines SME as those enterprises with a maximum of 300 employees, \$15 million in annual revenue, and \$15 million in assets. For several countries such as Malaysia, Japan, Hong Kong and Thailand, SMEs are defined in various sectors to differentiate the SMEs' business activities such as manufacturing, wholesaling, retailing, agriculture and services.

This is because different sectors have different characteristics, particularly in terms of the number of employees. Most countries also use the number of employees to categorize the firms into small and medium sizes. However, the number of employees what makes up small and medium-sized firms differ across the countries. As for Malaysia, SMEs are defined by the National SME Development Council (NSDC) based on the number of full-time employees or the total sales or revenue.

In Malaysia, it is reported that many of the SMEs are in the services sector, with more than a third of the firms involved in the tourism industry in 2010 (Department of Statistics, 2012). The tourism small and medium-sized enterprises (TSMEs) make a significant portion of SMEs, and as a matter of fact play a big role as the backbone in Malaysia tourism industry. TSMEs in Malaysia offer tourism products and services, and have unique characteristics compared to tangible manufactured products.

The Malaysian government sees the potential of the tourism industry through its contribution to economic growth and social development hence it has taken a strategic approach to developing the performance of its tourism industry. As tourism emerged as one of the world's major industries with significant changes in the structure and operation of the tourism industry worldwide, the tourism products and services have engendered the need for tourism small and medium-sized enterprises (TSMEs) to develop strategies to become competitive in the changing global economy.

Problem Statement

Several studies note that TSMEs play important role in the industry as to achieve the significant changes in global tourist consumption, and the increase of differentiated and niche tourism products (Page et al., 1999; Getz & Carlsen, 2005; Ateljevic, 2009). TSMEs performance and survival in the industry are particularly important to Malaysia because apart from their key role in delivering tourism products to the tourist, they also play an active role in advancing the local community.

Additionally, a report by the Small and Medium-Sized Enterprise Corporation Malaysia (2012) emphasized an increase percentage in the tourism industry from 21.1 % to 41.1 % of growth of overall SMEs in 2005 indicating a number of 100,637 firms to 239,110 firms. During the Sixth, Seventh and Eighth Malaysian Plans, the government has aggressively invested in the growth of TSMEs such as hotels and relevant tourism and recreation projects. The Economic Planning Unit (1996) report showed that the government investment in the Sixth Malaysian Plan 1991-1995 increased to RM8.8 billion

while in the Seventh Malaysian Plan 1996-2000 increased to RM18.2 billion. In relation to the Seventh Malaysian Plan 1996-2000, the government spent RM484.2 million to the expansion of various range of tourism activities, products and marketing (Economic Planning Unit, 1996). Further, due to this aggressive action, the average hotel occupancy also increased by 55 per cent in 2000 with a number of SME hotels increased from 1,220 in 1996 to 1,492 in 2000. Given this phenomenon, the Malaysian government has made concerted efforts to spur the tourism industry through empowering and supporting TSMEs. It is believed that understanding the key success factors of TSMEs and at the same time recognizing the important of TSMEs are therefore pertinent to ensure TSMEs will reach their full potential. Further, to ensure TSMEs in Malaysia continue to support the national tourism industry and remain a source of employment to the community, the government has focused on determining the key success factors of Malaysian TSMEs' performance with a focus on tourism entrepreneurs' motivation and management. Malaysia has come out with various TSMEs programs and policies implemented by the government to promote the Malaysian tourism industry. As reported by the Small and Medium Enterprise Corporation Malaysia (2012), the government spent RM 4,677.1 million in the form of 183 training and financial programs for TSMEs in 2011, thus increasing the funding on the development allocation.

Additionally, the Malaysian government has also encouraged the active participation of TSMEs through vigorous promotion and marketing, diversifying target markets, as well as improving the competitiveness of tourism products and services in an effort to sustain tourists' interest in Malaysia. The TSMEs need to compete with other industries not just concerning the creation of a business plan but more of engaging in business networking and managing business performance.

Many studies emphasize the problems in managing TSMEs. For instance, the TSMEs are found to have a shortage of financial resources, lack of management and marketing skills, lack of industry expertise and strategic vision (Beaver et al., 1998; Boer, 1998; Dewhurst & Horobin, 1998; Friel, 1998; Wanhill, 1998; Webster, 1998; Shaw & Williams, 2002; Augustyn, 2004; Thomas & Augustyn, 2007). A report from the Ministry of Tourism and Culture Malaysia highlighted that the tourism industry employs more than a third of employees in the services sector and is considered the second highest earner in foreign exchange and national income (MOTAC, 2011). Hence, the issue of corporate governance in TSMEs must be given serious attention. TSMEs in Malaysia employ about 991, 419 workers accumulate to 38.1 per cent of total employment in SMEs services sectors. Taking into account that TSMEs in Malaysia play significant role in the economic development of the country with 239,110 active establishments including 142,721 firms (59.7 per cent) offering food and beverage services, 40,025 firms (16.7 per cent) offering transportation services and other miscellaneous tourism services and 19,643 firms (8.2 per cent) offering accommodation services; arts, entertainment and recreation services; and travel agency, tour operator and tourism guide services, it is important to study the related issues concerning the managerial practices in TSMEs.

Research Objective

The primary objective of the study was to investigate the perceptions of TSMEs employees on the three managerial practices in the enterprise. The study embarked on the following questions:

1. What are the perceptions of TSMEs employees on the stakeholders practice in managing the enterprise?

2. What are the perceptions of TSMEs employees on the social responsibility practice in managing the enterprise?
3. What are the perceptions of TSMEs employees on the remuneration practice in managing the enterprise?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many studies have been conducted on different segments of SMEs in the tourism industry for instance constrained growth of the tourism sector, environmental goals of rural family-owned/-operated tourism, small business performance, financial performance, leadership and motivation behavior and family businesses. However, an intensive literature review also reveals that there have been very few studies on tourism entrepreneurship and small businesses in the tourism industry. This is probably due to the fact that entrepreneurs in the industries might possess lower levels of entrepreneurial characteristics compared to other industries. In fact, it is believed that entrepreneurs are not motivated by the desire to maximize economic gain. They often operate businesses with low levels of employment and their managerial decisions are often based on highly personalized criteria (Dewhurst & Horobin, 1998). In the perspective of education, Matlovič and Matlovičová (2016) highlight that to create specific value for potential employees, organization must give vital attention to knowledge, skills and competences.

Additionally, several studies indicate that most tourism entrepreneurs begin TSMEs due to the low entry barrier in the industry (Morrison & Thomas, 1999; Skokic & Morrison, 2011; Brouder & Eriksson, 2013; which gives them an opportunity to be part of the industry (Jaafar et al., 2011). Further, Mazzarol et al. (1999) and also Skokic and Morrison (2011) suggest that the owner–manager's socio-economic characteristics such as age, gender and education level also form a part of the obstacles that have a considerable effect on entrepreneurial intention and business performance of SMEs.

Tourism SMEs have to face many challenges just like other SMEs elsewhere are facing such as, a shortage of financial resources, lack of management and marketing skills, lack of industry expertise and strategic vision (Beaver et al., 1998; Boer, 1998; Dewhurst & Horobin, 1998; Frie,l 1998; Wanhill, 1998; Webster, 1998; Shaw & Williams, 2002; Augustyn, 2004; Thomas & Augustyn, 2007).

TSMEs also play a crucial role in the tourism industry by delivering tourism products and services to the tourist, thus vigorous efforts have been made by the Malaysian government to utilize the advantages that TSMEs can offer (Page et al., 1999; Getz & Carlsen, 2000; Ateljevic, 2009). There are various TSME programs and policies implemented by the government to promote the Malaysian tourism industry through TSMEs (Small and Medium Enterprise Corporation Malaysia, 2012). The government has placed high expectations on TSMEs to play their role as a vital component in increasing the country's foreign exchange earnings. Looking at the perspective of an entrepreneurial firm as SME, it is believed that there is a need to access resources for growth. They need inputs on business operations, good strategy and best practices in the industrial sector.

The three managerial practices in SMEs which are considered essential for managing the enterprises effectively have been studied by several researchers. Mohd. Shariff et al. (2018) had conducted a study to develop a framework of corporate governance best practice in TSMEs and noted that three out of nine elements in the framework are stakeholders, social responsibility and remuneration. According to Freeman et al. (2007), the central idea of the stakeholder theory is to manage and incorporate the relationship and welfare of shareholders, customers, suppliers, employees and other groups in a way that guarantees the organization's long-term

success. Moreover, stakeholders such as expert and non-expert communities' perceptions are considered important to be taken into consideration not just in an organization but further in marketing a brand image of a destination (Matlovičová & Kormaníková, 2014). In fact, a study by Jaswadi et al. (2015) emphasized that stakeholders play important aspect in encouraging the growth and sustainability of SME in Indonesia. Hence, the stakeholder practices should be applied in managing the TSMEs. Additionally, Wood and Gray (1991) suggest the collaboration between stakeholders and other groups are important as the dimension could explain the success of the dynamic interactions between SMEs and their stakeholders, through which the stakeholders try to influence the SMEs' operations system.

The corporate social responsibility in SMEs was critically studied by Bikefe et al. (2020) by investigating 62 articles in the published journals. The study focused on the implementation of the social responsibility activities as to improve the governance of SMEs. A similar study was conducted by Maldonado-Erazo et al. (2020) using more articles on corporate social responsibility in SMEs. Their study reviewed 277 related articles and found that corporate social responsibility can result in an action that enriches the company by obtaining economic returns and at the same time increases its competitiveness in the market. The social responsibility practice is somehow observed in previous study as factor which show a direct relationship between the firms' sizes (Leóna et al., 2017). More, social responsibility practices are likely to be established by the managers of micro and small enterprises compared to the medium-sized enterprises. Edwards (2018) emphasized that corporate social responsibility activities are important to improve corporate image and competitiveness of the SMEs, hence, SMEs need to communicate their corporate social responsibility in their governance mechanisms.

Several studies have been conducted to determine the importance of remuneration practices in company particularly SMEs. Remuneration practice is believed will enhance productivity, quality and financial performance of the firm's (Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2009). Additionally, remuneration is also concluded as one of the most important human resource practices and by adopting the compensation practice organizational performance can be increased (Khan & Khan, 2012). In the context of destination development, a study by Klimovský et al. (2016) found that the amount of money spent had significant relationship with the characteristics of access to education, basic infrastructure and healthcare. Similarly, Subramanian et al. (2011) note in their study undertaken in Malaysian SMEs that proper compensation or remuneration policies will increase the employee and organization's performance. Hence this fact indicated the vital role played by remuneration practice in determining the enterprise's success.

METHODOLOGY

The secondary data in the study was obtained from various sources extensively from the Ministry of Tourism and Culture Malaysia (MOTAC), Tourism Malaysia, and SME Corporation located in Putrajaya and Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. As for the primary data, the study used questionnaire survey where the information was obtained and compiled with the purpose of investigating the perceptions of TSMEs top management on the three managerial practices in managing the company. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), survey questionnaire is an efficient data collection mechanism to ensure relevancy and consistency of information gathered as the responses are objective, standardized and comparable. Additionally, the questionnaire was designed and presented in simple and unbiased wordings. The purpose was to make sure that the respondents can easily understand the questions and provide answer based on their own perception (Zikmund et

al., 2010). 229 employees of the Malaysian TSMEs were selected as respondents. The questionnaire consisted of two parts namely part one asking the respondents to describe their profiles and part two asking them to indicate their perceptions on the three managerial practices in the company namely the stakeholders practice, the social responsibility practice and the remuneration practice. The information and data were then analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Science version 19.0 (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were employed to describe the respondents' profiles and perceptions.

FINDINGS

Table 1 indicates that majority of the respondents were top management of the TSMEs (80.0%). Majority of them were also female (54.6%) and the remaining were male (45.4%). The findings further indicate that most of them were also below 30 years old (46.3%), it then follows by 30 – 50 years old (42.8%) and only few of the respondents were below 50 years old (10.9%). As for the level of education, most respondents stated as having diploma (39.7%). Some of them also were categorized as undergraduate (30.6%) and only few had postgraduate degree (3.5%).

Table 1. The respondents' profile

Items	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Position:			
Top management	184	80.3	80.3
Others	45	19.7	100.0
Gender:			
Male	104	45.4	45.4
Female	125	54.6	100.0
Age:			
Below 30 years old	106	46.3	46.3
30 – 50 years old	98	42.8	89.1
Above 50 years old	25	10.9	100.0
Level of education:			
School certificate	42	18.3	18.3
Diploma	91	39.7	58.0
Undergraduate	70	30.6	88.6
degree	18	7.9	96.5
Postgraduate degree	8	3.5	100.0
Number of years working:			
Less than 5 years	98	42.8	42.8
5 – 10 years	86	37.6	80.4
More than 10 years	45	19.6	100.0
Company founded:			
Before 1980	19	8.3	8.3
1981 – 1991	26	11.4	19.7
1992 – 2002	91	39.7	59.4
2003 – 2016	93	40.6	100.0
Number of workers:			
Less than 30	114	49.8	49.8
30 - 99	67	29.3	79.1
100 - 200	33	14.4	93.5
More than 200	15	6.6	100.0

Additionally, the findings of the survey highlights that majority of the respondents had been working in the company for less than 5 years (42.8%), follows by

5 – 10 years (37.6%) and the others stated as more than 10 years (19.6%). Most of the TSMEs were founded in year 2003 – 2016 and having less than 30 workers (49.8%).

Table 2. Perceptions on the stakeholders practice

Items	Agree (%)	Mean
The enterprise will establish fair procedures for goods and services based on considerations of quality, pricing and performance.	86.0	4.074
The enterprise is to establish mechanisms for passing benefits along to the surrounding community.	85.2	4.079
The enterprise is to institute mechanisms designed to ensure the fair treatment of the employees.	84.8	4.153
The enterprise is to establish mechanisms for monitoring compliance with laws and regulations governing its line of business.	84.0	4.079
The enterprise will establish mechanisms for allowing its customers to make inquiries, suggestions and claims.	82.5	3.952
The stakeholders practice plays vital role in managing the enterprise effectively.	81.6	4.031

Perceptions on the stakeholders' practice

Table 2 depicts the findings of the study regarding respondents' perceptions on the stakeholders practice in TSMEs. The findings indicate that all the six items in this aspect produced high mean value ranged from 3.952 to 4.153. Most of the respondents agreed that the enterprise will establish fair procedures for goods and services based on considerations of quality, pricing and performance (86.0%). They also agreed that the role of the enterprise is to establish mechanisms for passing benefits along to the surrounding community (85.2%). Additionally, the findings show that majority of the respondents also agreed that the institute mechanisms designed to ensure the fair treatment of the employees (84.8%). They believed that the purpose of the enterprise is to establish mechanisms for monitoring compliance with laws and regulations governing its line of business (84.0%). Further, the findings indicate that the respondents agreed the enterprise will establish mechanisms for allowing its customers to make inquiries, suggestions and claims (82.5%) and finally, they believed that the stakeholders practice plays vital role in managing the enterprise effectively (81.6%).

Table 3. Perceptions on the social responsibility practice

Items	Agree (%)	Mean
The enterprise will promote sound environmental management and help control the environmental impact of their operations, products and services.	86.9	4.158
The enterprise will need to develop strategies for preventing and minimizing environmental and human impacts and risks.	86.4	4.070
Social responsibility is a vital practice in managing the enterprise effectively.	83.8	4.118

Perceptions on the social responsibility practice

Table 3 depicts the findings from the analysis pertaining to the social responsibility practice in the TSMEs. The findings highlight that three items in the practice derived with high mean value ranged from 4.070 to 4.158. Majority of the respondents agreed that the enterprise will promote sound environmental management

and help control the environmental impact of their operations, products and services (86.9%). This is followed by the enterprise will need to develop strategies for preventing and minimizing environmental and human impacts and risks (86.4%).

Further, the respondents also agreed that the social responsibility is a vital practice in managing the enterprise effectively (83.4%).

Table 4. Perceptions on the remuneration practice

Items	Agree (%)	Mean
The incentives of top management ensure the alignment of the management and shareholders interest.	80.3	3.974
The director's remuneration should be appreciable and reflect the responsibility and commitment of the directors.	78.6	4.004
Remuneration is a vital practice in managing the enterprise effectively.	78.1	3.978

Perceptions on the remuneration practice

The study also investigated the respondents' perceptions on the remuneration practice in the TSMEs (Table 4). The findings indicate that all the three items in this practice produced high mean value ranged from 3.974 to 4.004. Majority of the respondents agreed that the incentives of top management ensure the alignment of the management and shareholders interest (80.3%). The respondents also agreed that the director's remuneration should be appreciable and reflect the responsibility and commitment of the directors (78.6%). Finally, most of them found that remuneration is a vital practice in managing the enterprise effectively (78.1%).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Generally, the findings of the study regarding the three managerial practices in the TSMEs highlight that the stakeholders, social responsibility and remuneration practices are vital in managing the TSMEs effectively. Hence, these practices are believed by the employees of the TSMEs could lead to the successful of the enterprise.

The findings are also in line with the previous studies where the stakeholders are claimed to provide greater accountability not just in managing such company but also on the sustainability issues related to the company (Raja Mohd Rasi et al., 2014; Mohd Shariff et al., 2018; Bikefe et al., 2020; Maldonado-Erazo et al., 2020).

Further, the findings are consistent to the current study by Leóna et al. (2017) where they reveal that the establishment of social responsibility programs could promote and support responsible initiatives particularly in the micro SMEs.

The study is also in line with previous studies by Edwards (2018), Bikefe et al. (2020) and Maldonado-Erazo et al. (2020) regarding corporate social responsibility as factor determining the competitiveness of SMEs. Additionally, remuneration is also considered as a vital practice in the SMEs as it will enhance productivity, quality and financial performance of the company (Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2009) and further is seen as the factor that increase the company's productivity (Zakaria et al., 2011). Moreover, the study supports the findings from Jaswadi et al. (2015) where they found that stakeholders such as management board and supervisors can provide governance mechanisms in SME through the adaptation of good governance.

The study has significantly highlighted the importance of the stakeholders, social responsibility and remuneration practices in managing the Malaysian TSMEs effectively. However, there is still a limitation of the study such as it only focused on the three managerial practices in their organizations. Hence, further research should be conducted

to investigate the significance of these practices and also studying other significant practices which may provide greater impacts to the success of the Malaysian TSMEs. The findings would assist the TSMEs employees particularly the top management in managing TSMEs effectively. Vital attention given to the three managerial practices namely the stakeholders, social responsibility and remuneration would significantly provide positive impacts of managing TSMEs in line with the growth of tourism industry.

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THE MOST VALUABLE ERRATIC BOULDERS IN THE WIELKOPOLSKA REGION OF WESTERN POLAND AND THEIR POTENTIAL TO PROMOTE GEOTOURISM

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Abstract: In the present paper, twelve erratic boulders in the Wielkopolska region of western Poland are described in detail, indicating their Scandinavian source area, location, form of protection, petrographic type and morphology. In particular, special attention is placed on an evaluation of these boulders' current and potential significance for geotourism with the aim of promoting geotourism. The point bonitation method was used, which took into account scientific, educational, economic and protective values of boulders and other factors. The analysis demonstrated that the Boulder of St. Adalbert has the greatest potential to promote geotourism. All the erratic boulders studied are elements of the geological heritage and are important in the comprehensive geodiversity of the region's natural environment.

Key words: Scandinavian erratic boulders, an inanimate nature monument, geodiversity, geological heritage, geotourism, Wielkopolska region

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INTRODUCTION

Erratic boulders, a large fraction of the rock material transported by the Scandinavian Ice Sheet, together with the relief forms of glacial (MIS 2 [marine isotope stage; e.g. Wright, 2000] = and Late Vistulian/Weichselian) and fluvioglacial, fluvial, and aeolian origin are valuable georesources, creating the geomorphological heritage of the Wielkopolska region. Their spatial diversity, together with other natural geological elements, creates the unique geodiversity of the area. This quality determines the geotourism value of the region. Most of the erratic boulders described in this study occur *in situ* mainly resulting from their size. The final size of a boulder (usually a fragment of rock with a shorter axis length of not less than 50 cm) is influenced by several factors, among which the most important is its joint of a massif in the source area. This is a set of cracks and fissures in the rocks that can arise as a result of solidification of magma, tectonic movements and/or weathering. Plutonic and metamorphic rocks are

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predominant among large erratic boulders. Due to good block separateness of this rock type in the source areas, the erratic boulders reach considerable size. Volcanic rocks are significantly less numerous among erratic boulders. Such rocks are characterised by poor block separateness in the source areas therefore the erratic boulders are smaller. Sedimentary rocks, which are susceptible to weathering, do not form large erratic boulders. Only 2% of large erratic boulders are sedimentary rocks (Schulz, 1996).

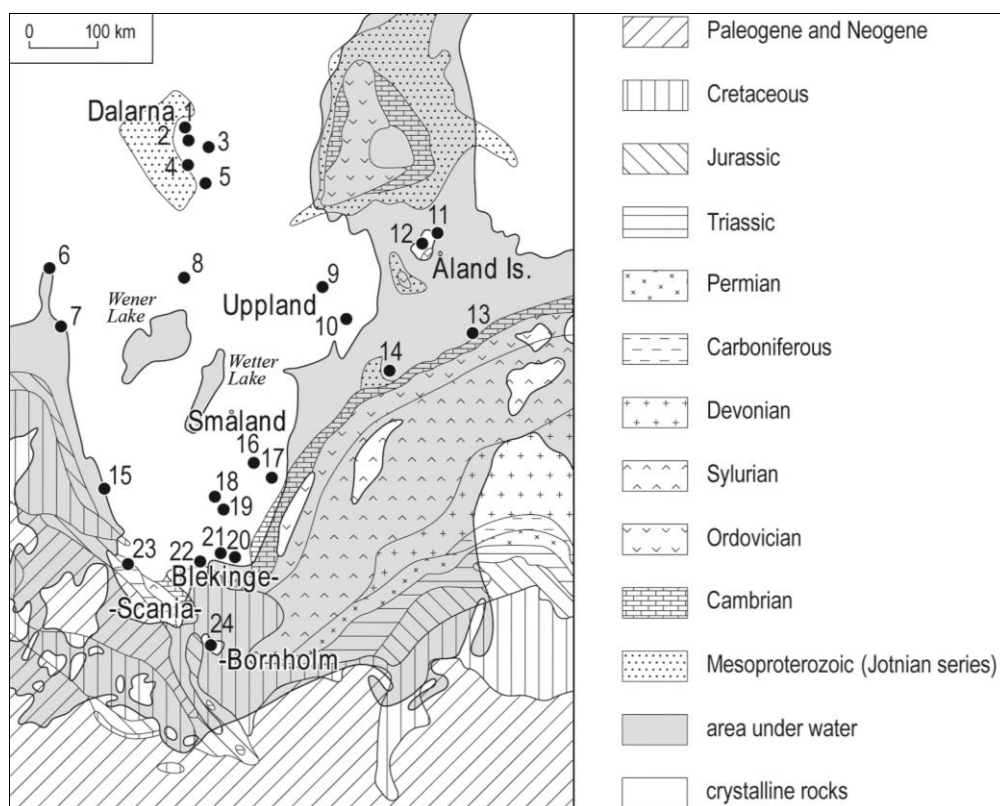


Figure 1. Schematic map of the source area of selected indicator erratic boulders found in the area of glacial deposition, including in the Wielkopolska region. Explanation of numbers:

- 1 – Bredvad porphyry, 2 – Garberg granite, 3 – Grönklitt porphyry, 4 – Dalarna porphyry, 5 – Siljan granite,
- 6 – Oslo porphyry, 7 – Bohus granite, 8 – Filipstad granite, 9 – Uppsala granite, 10 – Stockholm granite,
- 11 – □ Åland granite and □ Åland rapakivi granite, 12 – Åland quartz porphyry, 13 – red Baltic porphyry,
- 14 – brown Baltic porphyry, 15 – charnockite, 16 – Småland granite, 17 – Påskallavik porphyry,
- 18 – grey Väckjö granite, 19 – red Väckjö granite, 20 – Karlshamn granite, 21 – Halen granite,
- 22 – Vänga granite, 23 – Scania basalt, 24 – granites and gneisses of Bornholm

The occurrence *in situ* is of important scientific value in an erratic boulder. This location, unchanged from the time when a boulder was deposited, indicates the presence of an ice-sheet in a given place. Erratic boulders indicate the extent of glaciation, helping to reconstruct Earth's climate history (Reynard, 2004, 2012). Moreover, such boulders are used in recent attempts to date the beginning of the Peribaltic deglaciation through the analyses of in-situ cosmogenic isotopes such as ^{10}Be (Rinterknecht et al., 2005, 2012; Ivy-Ochs and Kober, 2008; Tylmann et al., 2018, 2019) or ^{36}Cl (Dzierżek & Zreda, 2007). Based on indicator erratics (*sensu* Lüttig, 1958; Meyer & Lüttig, 2007) and auxiliary (or

so-called statistical, *sensu* Vinx, 1993) erratics it is possible, with great probability, to indicate the source areas (Figure 1) and direction of advance of the Scandinavian Ice Sheet, and its ice streams, that reached central Poland (Górska, 2006; Gałązka, 2004; Czubla, 2015; Górska-Zabielska & Wachecka-Kotkowska, 2015; Górska-Zabielska et al., 2019a, b, c; Czubla & Sokołowski, 2019) and thus the Wielkopolska region between 25 and 21 ka BP (Tylmann et al., 2019). Similar research has been conducted in other European (Boulton & Hagdorn, 2006; Meyer, 2004; Lüttig, 2005) and North American regions (Bouchard & Salonen, 1989; 1990; DiLabio, 1990; Atkinson, 2007). The research of Dyke & Morris (1988) and Stokes & Clark (1999) has shown that the remote transport of rocks from their source area to deposition sites was carried out through ice streams. As a result, they were deposited in the form of Boothia scattering cones.

Examination of the surface of an erratic boulder can identify the processes it underwent during transport inside or at the ice/bed interface. Most often, boulders have a smooth, rounded surface and one of the walls, called the glacial polish, is rather flat. Normally it is formed as a result of scouring against the crystalline bedrock when the boulder was transported in the bottom layer of a moving ice-sheet. Glacial striae are often observed on the glacially polished surface as parallel grooves and/or crescent chatter marks. These microforms of the boulder surface are formed as a result of the subglacial erosional activity of an ice-sheet. Their shape and orientation on an erratic boulder cannot be considered in the context of determining the direction of ice sheet transgression, because erratics are redeposited. On the contrary, when such microforms occur on rocks in the source area they clearly indicate the direction of ice-sheet movement. The morphogenetic processes occurring after the ice-sheet retreat in the zone where a boulder was deposited are also recorded on its surface. Wind abrasion traces are frequently found in a cold and dry periglacial environment. The exfoliation of rocks is also a commonly observed process. The morphological effects of these processes will be presented in the boulder descriptions. Glacial erratics are usually protected legally due to their part in geoheritage (Reynard and Brilha, 2018 and references therein), co-creating geodiversity (Gray, 2013, 2018; Najwer & Zwoliński, 2014) and their geological and cultural importance. For instance, there are such cases in Germany (Schulz, 1964; Meyer, 1983; Svenson, 2005), Switzerland (Reynard, 2004, 2012, 2015) and in Canada (<https://www.alberta.ca/okotoks-erratic-big-rock.aspx>). Unfortunately, not all erratics in the Wielkopolska region have been officially listed as protected monuments of inanimate nature. On the other hand, almost all erratic boulders described in this article are entered in the Central Register of Polish Geosites (<http://geoportal.pgi.gov.pl/portal/page/portal/geostanowiska>). The inclusion of each erratic boulder on the list of geosites (*sensu* Reynard, 2004; Migoń, 2012) of the Wielkopolska region should encourage relevant institutions to provide legal protection to all valuable geological objects.

Many erratic boulders, not only those in Wielkopolska, belong to their region's cultural heritage and appear in folk legends, tales (Grimmberger, 2017) or serve as protector beings (Motta & Motta, 2007). Some boulders have been named after saints or prominent figures; sometimes their shape resembles a particular object and hence their name. Symbols, letters and inscriptions have been carved onto the surface of some erratic boulders. Erratic boulders have served as border posts in the past and are of important historical value. Although there are no examples from the Wielkopolska region, there are at least two such boulders in northern Poland (Górska-Zabielska & Kamińska, 2017) and one in the central Poland (Górska-Zabielska et al., 2019a, c). Erratic boulders play an educational and geohistorical role as they have been used to commemorate important historical events (Reynard et al., 2009; Górska-Zabielska, 2010, 2019a, c). Their educational

value is demonstrated in 'green school' programs or geocaching (Zecha & Schiller, 2015). Both students and tourists who visit an erratic boulder should receive an explanation of, among other things, processes such as glacial erosion, transport and accumulation.

Large erratic boulders have geotourism potential, although this has not been widely reported nor appreciated so far (Reynard, 2004, 2015; Reynard et al., 2009; Górską-Zabielska, 2015, 2019b; Górską-Zabielska & Dobracki, 2015; Górską-Zabielska & Zabielski, 2018; Duraj et al., 2017; Chylińska & Kołodziejczyk, 2018). Only the aesthetic value of boulders is commonly appreciated with tourists often taking pictures of themselves against the backdrop of these objects. The appropriate geological description, perhaps in the form of an information board or leaflet, presented with a wider background of the geodiversity of a region would be valuable. In this way tourists can not only admire the beauty of a boulder but also learn about its significance within the geological history of the region. It is also necessary to stress the importance of erratic boulders in the reconstruction of the geological past of an area (Reynard, 2008).

Unfortunately, there are only a few information boards next to the boulders in the Wielkopolska region. There are, however, examples in other parts of Poland where local authorities provide appropriate background information (Górską-Zabielska & Dobracki, 2015; Górską-Zabielska, 2019). The perception, recognisability and role of erratic boulders in the natural environment are still little known (Górską-Zabielska & Zabielski, 2018; Górską-Zabielska et al., 2019b). This partly results from the lack of awareness of the importance of these objects in the geological and cultural heritage of a region. At the same time, in the absence of unambiguous legal regulations that would clearly protect these geological objects, erratic boulders can disappear irretrievably from fields and forests (Górską-Zabielska, 2016) as they are used in the production of gravestones and other stone accessories (Chrzęszczewski, 2009; Piotrowski, 2008).

The erratic boulders that are most attractive in terms of shape and colouration occasionally disappear from baulks and forests and appear as decorations in private gardens. Unfortunately, large erratic boulders are also used as surfaces for graffiti.

PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

The main goal of the present paper is to estimate the potential of Wielkopolska erratic boulders for the development of geotourism in the region. For this purpose a point bonitation method was used. The described in details and evaluated in this paper glacial boulders, have appeared in the Polish literature in form of short notes. The boulders have been mentioned in older studies published in Polish by Szulczewski (1924), Głowińska (1932) and Krawiec (1933) and recently aroused the interest of the author (Górską-Zabielska, 2010, 2015b). Some boulders in Wielkopolska have been subject of the ^{10}Be exposure age analysis recently (Tylmann et al., 2019). These indicators of the ice sheet retreat after the Local Last Glacial Maximum are important scientific values which rise geoturistic attractiveness of the erratic boulders. Neither the selected boulders nor any other erratic boulders from the Wielkopolska region have ever been subject of evaluation analysis towards indicating their potential to promote geotourism.

Before erratic boulders disappear completely from our landscape, it is worth making efforts to rescue them from oblivion. Therefore this article aims to serve this purpose as well. It presents 12 erratic boulders as examples of the geodiversity of the Wielkopolska region. The descriptions include dimensions for length (a), width (b), height (c), perimeter, volume and weight. The volume of the rock is calculated according to the formula: $V = 0.523 \times a \times b \times c \text{ [m}^3\text{]}$ (Schulz, 1964; Speetzen, 1998) and its weight taking into account the dependence: $1 \text{ m}^3 = 2.7\text{-}2.8 \text{ tons}$ (Table 1).

Table 1. Basic information about the erratic boulders studied in the Wielkopolska region

Number	Erratic name	Length [m]	Width [m]	Height [m]	Diameter [m]	Vol. [m ³]	Weight [t]	Appears	Location	Petrographic type and name of erratic if possible to state	No. on Figure 1 or mother region	Form of protection, date confer the status of a monument of inanimate nature
1	Johnny	250	190	145	710	3.6	9.91	<i>ex situ</i>	52°35'18,1"N 16°01'34,1"E	Småland granite	16	Monument of inanimate nature, 30.01.2003
2	Lutom	350	270	125	1200	6.18	17	<i>in situ</i>	52°38'12,1"N 16°08'59,1"E	Småland granite	16	Monument of inanimate nature, 6.02.1997
3	Enchanted carriage	250	200	150	410 (640)	3.92	10.7	<i>in situ</i>	53°02'37,6"N 17°06'55,6"E	Åland rapakivi granite	11	Monument of inanimate nature, 1957
4	Enchan- -ted Inn	650	3400	230	1600	26.6	73.1	<i>in situ</i>	52°57'13,4"N 17°07'31,7"E	gneiss	-	Monument of inanimate nature, 28.03.1957
5	Erratic Boulder of St Adalbert	725	480	400 (30a.s.)	2000	72.8 of entire boulder	200.2 of entire boulder	<i>in situ</i>	52°43'33,0"N 17°19'22,4"E	Småland granite	16	Monument of inanimate nature, 1840
6	Erratic boulder Piast	240	210	800	?	?	?	<i>in situ</i>	52°36'11,1"N 18°23'37,5"E	Småland granite	16	Monument of inanimate nature
7	Erratic boulder of Fire	100	60	?	?	?	?	<i>in situ</i>	52°33'27,2"N 18°22'24,3"E	Småland granite	16	Monument of inanimate nature
8	Biggest erratic boulder in Poznań	450	420	550	1200	54.4	149.5	<i>ex situ</i>	51°57'56,9"N 17°09'05,8"E	gneiss	-	-
9	Erratic Boulder of Prof. A. Wodziczko	170	60	105	455	0.56	1.54	<i>ex situ</i>	52°14'59,0"N 16°48'58,1"E	Järeda granite	Småland	-
10	Erratic boulder in Rogalin	300	265	210	1000	8.73	25.24 t weighed !!!	<i>ex situ</i>	52°14'15,6"N 16°55'42,0"E	Småland granite	16	-

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11	Erratic Boulder in the Dolskie Hills	430	350	130	1200	10.26	28.22	<i>in situ</i>	51°57'56,9"N 17°09'05,8"E	Jotnian sand- stone	Mainly Dalarna and/or Cambrian outcrops in the Baltic Sea	Monument of inanimate nature, 29.08.1956
12	Erratic Boulder of St Hedwig	800	500	400	2200	73	200	<i>in situ</i>	51°51'09,3"N 17°55'51,3"E	Småland granite	16	Monument of inanimate nature, 28.03.1957

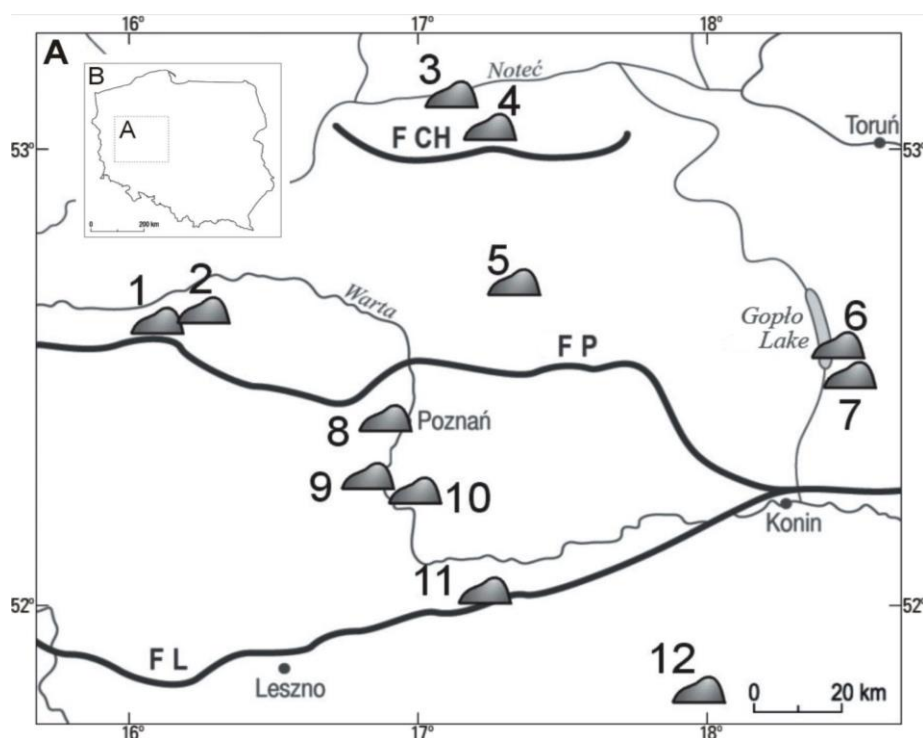


Figure 2a. Location of erratic boulders in the Wielkopolska region against the ice-sheet extent of the Vistulian glaciation (MIS 2); **2b.** Location of the Wielkopolska region on the map of Poland
FL - Leszno (Brandenburg) Phase 20 ka BP, SF P - Poznań (Frankfurt) Phase 18.8 ka BP, F CH - Chodzież (Kolmar) Phase 17.7 ka BP (extent lines, age and names: Liedtke 1981; Kozarski 1995).
Erratic boulders: 1 - Johnny; 2 - Lutom; 3 - Enchanted Carriage; 4 - Enchanted Inn; 5 - Boulder of St. Adalbert; 6 - Piast; 7 - Boulder of Fire; 8 - The largest boulder in Poznań; 9 - Boulder of Professor A. Wodziczko; 10 - Boulder in Rogalin; 11 - Boulder in Dolskie Hills; and 12 - Boulder of St. Hedwig

An important part of the boulder descriptions is their petrographic type. Great emphasis was placed on this issue, taking into account the gaps (Czernicka-Chodkowska, 1983), and sometimes serious errors, in the existing documents (e.g., the list of inanimate nature monuments kept in the Regional Directorate for Environmental Protection in Poznań), lists and information boards (Górska-Zabielska, 2010).

If a boulder is an indicator erratic (*sensu* Lüttig, 1958; Meyer & Lüttig, 2007), its Scandinavian provenance is given for the first time (except for the Polish literature) and

this source region is marked on a schematic map (Figure 1). Twelve erratic boulders in the Wielkopolska region (Figure 2) are presented and evaluated in this study to estimate their potential to promote geotourism. They have been selected, according to the author's field work within the study area, experience, and comparison with other studies (e.g., Treichel, 1959; Meyer, 2004; Reynard, 2004; Obst, 2005; Svenson, 2005; Górska-Zabielska, 2015b; Górska-Zabielska & Dobracki, 2015; Woźniak et al., 2015; Górska-Zabielska et al., 2019a, c), due to their above-average scientific, educational, cultural and aesthetic value. This perspective takes an interdisciplinary scientific approach to the issue (Reynard, 2005; Reynard et al., 2009). Each erratic boulder has been studied in terms of its significance to the natural and/or cultural heritage of the region, that is its importance for the development of social identity (Reynard et al., 2009).

EVALUATION ANALYSIS

Twelve erratic boulders, which are part of geological heritage of the region, were evaluated in detail (Table 3). Considering the importance of these objects for local geotourism, the following values were assessed: scientific, educational, economic, conservation and additional (Table 2). The grading method used in this study was already applied in similar cases (among others Pereira et al., 2007; Bruschi & Cendrero, 2005, 2009; Kubalíková, 2013; Górska-Zabielska & Kamińska, 2017; Górska-Zabielska et al., 2019c). Recently Brilha (2016) reviewed the procedures used in the development of a systematic site inventory applied to different scales and values. As a consequence, he proposed a new approach to the concepts of geosite and geodiversity site in context of effective geodiversity inventories to support geoparks' strategies. The criteria for evaluation were selected specially for the purposes of this work and the specificity of the region.

Table 2. Categories, criteria and scoring used in this study to evaluate the potential for erratic boulders in the Wielkopolska region to promote geotourism

CATEGORY	CRITERION	SCORE		
		0	0.5	1
SCIENTIFIC VALUE [max 4 points]	Location after ice thawing	<i>ex situ</i>	within 20 metres from the excavation site	<i>in situ</i>
	Type of erratic	none	so called statistical	indicator
	Geodiversity (number of different features or processes visible in geosite)	only 1 visible feature/process	2-4 visible features /processes	more than 5 visible features / processes
	Scientific knowledge	lack = not investigated site	scientific paper in a national journal	extensive knowledge of the site, published monography
EDUCATIONAL VALUE [max 4 points]	Representativeness and visibility/ clarity of features /processes	weak representativeness /clarity of form and process	medium representativeness, mainly for specialists	high representativeness of form and process, also for amateurs
	Quality of educational example, educational usefulness	weak example, weak educational usefulness of form and process	good example but of limited educational usefulness	very good example with high educational and geotourist usefulness
	Existing educational products	lack	leaflets, maps, web pages	information boards, information next to the site
	Existing forms of use for educational purposes (specialist tour, guided tour)	lack of educational use	site is a part of specialist tour (eg. for students, geotourists)	guided tour for the general public

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ECONOMIC VALUE [max 3 points]	Accessibility	restricted access (e.g. private area)	unrestricted access, less than 1000 m from the car park	unrestricted access, less than 1000 m from the public transport stop
	Presence of tourist infrastructure (picnic area, shop, accommodation)	more than 10 km from the existing tourist facilities	5-10 km from the existing tourist facilities	less than 5 km from the existing tourist facilities
	Local products	lack	several products	the place is a symbol for several local products
CONSER- VATION VALUE [max 4 points]	Existing threats and the risk of damage	natural and anthropogenic threats	threat that may destroy the site	low risk and almost non-existing threat
	Potential threats and the risk of damage	natural and anthropogenic threats	threat that may destroy the site	low risk and almost non-existing threat
	Current state	continuous destruction of the site	destroyed site but the action is taken to stop further destruction	no destruction
	Legal protection status	lack of legal protection	existing legal protection	effective legal protection in form of an abiotic monument
ADDED VALUE [max 4,5 points]	Cultural values (historical, archaeological, religious) connected with the abiotic site	lack	existing cultural values but without a close connection with the abiotic site	existing cultural values in close connection with the abiotic site
	Ecological value	unimportant	existing influence but without much significance	important influence of geomorphological features on ecological value of the site
	Aesthetic value (number of colours, structure types, viewpoints, exposed position, volume)	0 – 1 colour, 0.25 – 2-3 colours, 0.5 – more than 3 colours	0 – only 1 structure, 0.25 – 2-3 clearly distinguishable structures, 0.5 – more than 3 structures	0 – lack of observation points, 0.25 – 1-2 observation points, 0.5 – 3 and more observation points
		0 – no exposed position 0.5 – exposed position	0 – volume below 1m ³ 0.25 – volume between 1 and 2m ³ 0.5 – volume more than 2m ³	

The category scientific value was evaluated based on four criteria: occurrence *in/ex situ*, type of erratic, the number of features evidencing the geological processes affecting a boulder and scientific investigations of a boulder. The category educational value was evaluated based on four criteria: representativeness and clarity of identification of geological process, quality of educational values, existing educational materials and existing educational trails. The category economic value was evaluated based on three criteria: accessibility, presence of tourist infrastructure and available local products. The category conservation value was evaluated based on four criteria: existing threats and the risk of damage, potential threats and the risk of damage, current state and legal protection status. The category of additional value was evaluated based on three criteria: existence of cultural values, ecological values and aesthetic values. Within the above-mentioned criteria there is little to evaluate the potential of erratic boulders to promote geotourism. The latest research (Górska-Zabielska et al., 2019b) indicates these are

mainly: existing educational materials containing information on erratic boulders, existing trails providing easy access to boulders, as well as the presence of aesthetic values, which may attract a geotourist to the geosite. Information by a specialist is also welcome.

DESCRIPTION OF ERRATIC BOULDERS

Jaś (Eng. Johnny), Sieraków Landscape Park (No. 1 in Figure 2); Φ : 52° 35' 18.1" Δ : 16° 01' 34.1"

The boulder is an indicator erratic—Småland granite—with outcrops occurring in southeastern Sweden (Figure 1). The smooth surfaces and rounded edges of the boulder are evidence of the destructive effect of the ice-sheet. Some fragments of boulder surface reveal intensive physical weathering (exfoliation) (Figure 3).

The boulder is situated on a dirt road connecting the neighbouring villages within Sieraków Landscape Park and is easily accessible. A bike trail (the blue trail) and the National Uprising Route run along the dirt road. A plaque on the boulder commemorates an important local historical event on March 10, 1769. It was then that 300 confederates ended their young lives, while standing up for the sovereignty of their homeland against the growing Russian omnipotence and the appropriation of the country. Therefore, the boulder plays important educational, geohistorical and culture-forming functions.

The erratic boulder has good visibility and is accompanied by an information board. However, the glacial origin of the erratic boulder and its status as an inanimate nature monument are not mentioned on the board. A complete information about this erratic boulder would be an invaluable help for the inhabitants and geotourists.



Figure 3. The top surface of the boulder Johnny undergoes physical weathering (exfoliation)



Figure 4. Properly equipped geosite of the Lutom boulder in the Sieraków Landscape Park

Lutom (also known as the Devil's Stone), Sieraków Landscape Park (No. 2 in Figure 2); Φ : 52° 38' 12.1" Δ : 16° 08' 59.1"

The boulder is an indicator erratic—Småland granite—with outcrops occurring in southeastern Sweden (Figure 1). Despite the fact that its surface is colonised by epilithic flora the boulder's rounded edges and smooth walls can be observed, which indicates it was subjected to glacial erosion when it was transported by the ice-sheet. The erratic boulder occurs in the forest to the north of the village of Lutom, on the east side of Lake Lutomskie in Sieraków Landscape Park. Although originally the top surface of the boulder was even with the terrain, today it has been unearthed. The information boards and a tourist shelter make it a model stop for geotourism in the region (Figure 4). Access to the boulder is easier now with a gravel road and signposts leading to it. However, the distance

of the boulder from the asphalt road can make it unattractive for motorised tourists because the gravel road is only passable for bicycles or forest service vehicles. The boulder has high scientific and educational value due to its above-average size, occurrence *in situ* in Sieraków Landscape Park, and that it is protected as a monument of inanimate nature.

Zaczarowana Karoca (Eng. Enchanted Carriage; also known as the Devil's Vehicle) in the Toruń-Eberswalde Pradolina (No. 3 in Figure 2); Φ : $53^{\circ} 02' 37.6''$ Δ : $17^{\circ} 06' 55.6''$.

This erratic boulder has high geovalues due to its occurrence *in situ* on the first high terrace of the Toruń-Eberswalde Pradolina (ice-marginal valley), the type of rock–indicator erratic–rapakivi granite from the Åland Islands (Figures 1, 6), and the irregular, fanciful shape indicating strong weathering (Figure 5). All these features were already appreciated in 1957 when the boulder was put under legal protection as an inanimate nature monument. The boulder was a local landmark where dirt roads intersected with each other. Therefore, access to the boulder is simple as it is situated at a crossroads in the western section of the small village of Atanazyń.



Figure 5. Enchanted carriage in the Toruń-Eberswalde Pradolina is a strongly weathered indicator erratic of Åland rapakivi granite



Figure 6. Details of the structure and texture of the Åland rapakivi granite of the Enchanted carriage

Zakłeta Karczma (Enchanted Inn) in northern Wielkopolska (No. 4 in Figure 2); Φ : $52^{\circ} 57' 13.4''$ Δ : $17^{\circ} 07' 31.7''$

This erratic boulder is a gneiss without a known specific origin, only that it originated in the Scandinavian Baltic Shield. The boulder surface is smoothed as a result of the destructive activity of the ice-sheet. This *in situ* boulder was dated with ^{10}Be by Tylmann et al. (2019). Its ^{10}Be exposure age is 17.1 ± 1.6 ka, which is an important scientific value of the object and influences its geoturistic attractiveness.

Although the boulder is situated in a private field, access to it is indicated by a signpost. Moreover, it occurs under a high branched fruit tree that can be seen from a distance (Figure 7). The boulder may be taller than the tree because its lower part is below ground level. At the base of the boulder the following inscription (in Polish) is visible (Figure 8; here translated): ...IN MEMORY OF MY MOTHER / ANTONINA NÉE GARCZYŃSKA / H. SKÓRZEWSKA / TEODOR COUNT SKÓRZEWSKI / ---HRZE: 1825(7).

Owing to this inscription, the boulder can be rated among the few objects of cultural heritage in the Wielkopolska region. The boulder is an inanimate nature monument and was entered in the register as early as 1957. Unfortunately, this does not protect it against vandalism in the form of graffiti.

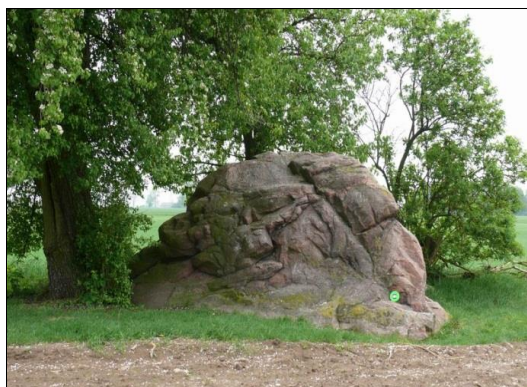


Figure 7. Enchanted Inn—general view



Figure 8. Inscription of Count Skórzewski engraved at the base of the boulder

Głaz Św. Wojciecha (Eng. Boulder of St. Adalbert; No. 5 in Figure 2); Φ : $52^{\circ} 43' 33.0''$ Δ : $17^{\circ} 19' 22.4''$

The Boulder of St. Adalbert is an indicator erratic—Småland granite—that originated in southeastern Sweden (Figure 1). As much as 90% of the boulder surface is colonised by lichens (Figure 9). The structure and texture of the granite is only visible just above ground level. This *in situ* boulder was dated with ^{10}Be by Tylmann et al. (2019).

The ^{10}Be exposure age is 16.9 ± 1.9 ka. This is an important scientific value of the object, which influences its geotouristic potential. It is the second largest erratic boulder in the Wielkopolska region, after the Boulder of St. Hedwig (see this article), and the oldest protected monument of inanimate nature in this part of Poland. In 1840, thanks to the local population, the boulder was entered in the land register as an object protected 'forever'. This regulation protected the boulder from destruction or use for construction purposes. Additionally, there is a legend connected with this boulder—St. Adalbert, speaking to the pagans, stood on its top, as if on a pulpit. When the saint drove away, two pits in the shape of human feet, were seen in the stone. There are also mysterious powers attributed to the boulder—in the distant past, a spring of miraculous water gushed out from under the boulder—who washed his eyes with it—he regained his sight.



Figure 9. Boulder of St Adalbert, the oldest protected monument of inanimate nature in Wielkopolska



Figure 10. Boulder of Fire with a reversed swastika, an inanimate nature monument

Today, the Boulder of St. Adalbert is an exceptional example of how such an object of inanimate nature heritage can be protected. The mayor of the nearby village of Budziejewko is also the custodian of the object and a local guide. Moreover, a geotourist can learn more on several information boards in Polish, English and German.

Piast (Eng. = name of the first historical Polish ruling dynasty, AD 960-1370) by Lake Gopło (No. 6 in Figure 2); Φ : 52° 36' 11.1" Δ : 18° 23' 37.5"

The boulder occurs *in situ* among field thickets, on the east side of Lake Gopło, in the eastern part of the Wielkopolska region. It is only partially dug up, so its height is unknown. This in turn does not allow for calculating its volume and weight (Table 1).

The mineral composition and internal structure of the boulder indicate that it is an indicator erratic (Småland granite), which originated from the outcrops in southeastern Sweden (Figure 1). It is characterised by the occurrence of blue quartz crystals, which are typical of this indicator erratic (Bartholomäus & Solcher, 2002). It is difficult to speak about the aesthetic values of the boulder—in terms of size it is one of the smaller stone blocks in the Wielkopolska region. A characteristic plate, rarely found in the Wielkopolska region, informs us that the boulder is an inanimate nature monument.

Głaz Ognia (Eng. Boulder of Fire; No. 7 in Figure 2); Φ : 52° 33' 27.2" Δ : 18° 22' 24.3"E

The Boulder of Fire is equally small (Table 1) but much more interesting. It is pegmatitic granite, the Scandinavian origin of which, defined by geographical coordinates, is difficult to determine exactly. Therefore, it is not an indicator erratic. However, it is an inanimate nature monument as indicated by the appropriate plate (Figure 10). The Boulder of Fire is an object of cultural heritage due to the inverted swastika engraved on its upper surface. The right-facing form of a swastika, with the shape of the arms imitating the movement of the Sun (as seen from the northern hemisphere of the Earth) is often associated with solar cults, as the symbol of fire and the Sun (circle of rays). It was a lucky talisman and sometimes a symbol of goddesses and thus fertility. The symbol was already known to an ancient culture on the Indus River.

Due to the annexation of the swastika by the Third Reich this symbol is sometimes mistakenly regarded as a Germanic sign. However, the swastika has occurred all over the world (except Australia) from ancient times. One of the oldest cave paintings with the motif of a swastika dates from the Palaeolithic, about 10,000 years (Zasuń, 2011). Skoczylas and Zieliński (2006) wrote about other stonemason's marks, which might have specified to a stone workshop or times, when boulders underwent stone processing.

Unfortunately, access to the boulder is difficult because it is situated in a private garden, near the ferry harbour along the eastern branch of Lake Gopło. Due to this difficult access, it is only possible to estimate some dimensions of the boulder (Table 1).

The largest boulder in Poznań, Botanical Garden of Adam Mickiewicz University (No. 8 in Figure 2); Φ : 52° 25' 08.2" Δ : 16° 53' 02.0"

The largest erratic boulder in Poznań occurs *ex situ*. It was found in northwestern Poland, in the surface deposits left by the ice-sheet during the Pomeranian phase of the Vistulian glaciation (15.2 ¹⁴C ka – Kozarski, 1986, 1988; Marks, 2002; 16.2 ka BP – Kozarski, 1995; 14.8±0.4 ¹⁰Be ka – Rinterknecht al., 2005, 2012; 16-17 ¹⁰Be/³⁶Cl ka BP – Marks, 2012). It is not possible to precisely determine the source area of the boulder because it is not an indicator erratic. It represents metamorphic rocks (a gneiss) (Figure 11). The height of the boulder was greater when it was placed. It has sunk under its own weight to a depth of about 1 m. The boulder is located in the Botanical Garden of Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. In addition to various plants that are protected and

popularised in the Garden, as much as 3000 tons of rock materials of various fractions, including 10 large erratic boulders, have been collected (Górska-Zabielska, 2010, 2013, 2015b). Erratic boulders, exposed in the vicinity of animate nature, enrich the attractiveness of the Botanical Garden. Their scientific, educational and aesthetic value often influence Poznań inhabitants to visit the Garden.



Figure 11. The largest boulder in Poznań—gneiss—is located in the Botanical Garden of Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań



Figure 12. Boulder of Professor Adam Wodziczko—general view

Boulder of Professor Adam Wodziczko, Wielkopolski National Park (No. 9 in Figure 2); Φ : 52° 14' 59.0" Δ : 16° 48' 58.1"

The boulder of Professor Adam Wodziczko (Figure 12) is one of the five large erratic boulders that occur in the Wielkopolski National Park, which is located about 15 km to the south of Poznań, the main city in the Wielkopolska region. The highest scientific and educational values of the boulder result from the fact that it is an indicator erratic—Järeda granite (Figure 13), the outcrop of which occurs in northern part of Småland source area (Figure 1). The boulder is named after the co-ordinator of the Wielkopolski National Park, professor of botany in Poznań, Adam Wodziczko. It occurs *ex situ*.

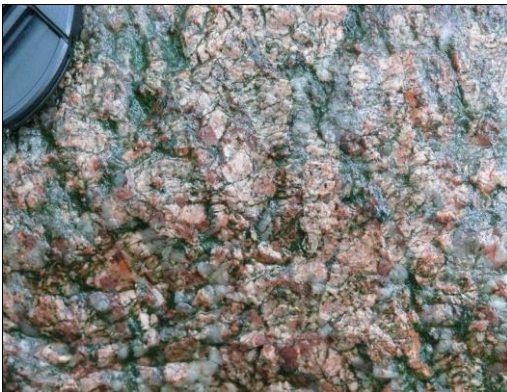


Figure 13. Details of the structure and texture of the Järeda granite



Figure 14. Boulder in Rogalin of Småland granite, general view from the side of the road No. 431; polished sides of the boulder with glacial striae are visible

The described boulder is easily accessed at the intersection of forest roads and tourist trails, including the Trail of Professor A. Wodziczko. Not far from this boulder are other interesting geomorphological objects: Lake Kociołek (an evorsion pothole) and a fragment of the Buk-Mosina esker (called the 'Swedish Mountains'). Their co-occurrence indicates high geodiversity in this part of the Wielkopolska region.

It is also worth mentioning the Petrographic Garden, located near the headquarters of the Wielkopolski National Park in Jeziory, in which 20 Scandinavian indicator and auxiliary erratics have been placed for educational purposes. To preserve the geodiversity of the park and not change the position of the other four large erratic boulders, the boulders for the garden were brought from nearby gravel pits where there are deposits corresponding in terms of age to the surface deposits in the park. More information on the scientific, educational and geotourist values of the Petrographic Garden in Jeziory can be found in articles published by the author (Górska-Zabielska, 2008b, 2009).

Boulder in Rogalin (No. 10 in Figure 2); Φ : 52° 14' 15.6" Δ : 16° 55' 41.8"

The boulder is an indicator erratic—Småland granite—with outcrops occurring in southeastern Sweden (Figure 1). Two polished perpendicular surfaces of the boulder, with visible glacial striae are noticeable (Figure 14). Moreover, closer observation of the boulder surface show the traces of exogenetic processes: the physical weathering of granite (exfoliation) and chemical weathering of feldspars (kaolinization).

The boulder was placed in the buffer zone of the Wielkopolski National Park quite recently, in 2015. It was found in the Kleczew open pit of the Brown Coal Mine in the eastern Wielkopolska region, at the Vistulian till layer at a depth of 20 m below ground level (108 m a.s.l.). The boulder in Rogalin is one of the few in the entire European region where Scandinavian material occurs which has been weighed (25.24 tons) (Table 1).

Boulder in the Dolskie Hills (No. 11 in Figure 2); Φ : 51° 57' 56.9" Δ : 17° 09' 05.8"

The boulder is an indicator erratic—Jotnian sandstone. The outcrops of this rock occur in central Sweden (Dalarna) and at the Baltic Sea bottom (Figure 1). It has been a monument of inanimate nature since 1956; unfortunately, it is not accompanied by a plate informing visitors of its status. The boulder occurs in a small depression that is often filled with water, depending on the season. The total height of the boulder is unknown. It has been dug up as indicated by the earth embankment surrounding the boulder and its location in relation to the ground surface (Figure 15).

The boulder in the Dolskie Hills is particularly worthy of attention due to the preserved microforms of glacial erosion. They are well visible on the surface of the boulder as glacial striae and crescent chatter marks (grooves and scratches) (Figure 16). Both groups of forms can reveal the direction the ice-sheet was flowing only when they are observed on a bedrock in source areas. They were formed as a result of scouring against the crystalline bedrock when the boulder was transported in the bottom layer of an ice-sheet. The smoothness could also have resulted from the scratching of bedrock by a moving ice-sheet sole rich in incorporated pieces of rocks and sediments. This ice-sheet may have changed its direction of movement as indicated by various orientations of the microforms (Figure 16). Due to its scientific and educational values, the boulder is one of the most valuable objects of this type in the Wielkopolska region.

It significantly enhances the geodiversity of southern Wielkopolska, which is high even without it because the Dolskie Hills occur in the glacial marginal zone of the last glacial maximum (Vistulian glaciation). The boulder occurs in the forest, at the Dolskie Hills tourist trail about 4 km from the nearest asphalt road (No. 437). Due to this location it is difficult to reach the boulder quickly. The latest research (Tylmann et al.

(2019) gives an example of another *in situ* boulder, from the neighborhood, which is far better exposed. It is a granite boulder located on a moraine hill close to Brzeźnica village. The ^{10}Be exposure age of this boulder is 21.8 ± 1.9 ka (Tylmann et al., 2019), which is an excellent indicator of the ice sheet retreat after the Local Last Glacial Maximum. This important scientific value of the boulder rises its geoturistic attractiveness.



Figure 15. Monument of inanimate nature in the Dolskie Hills, general view

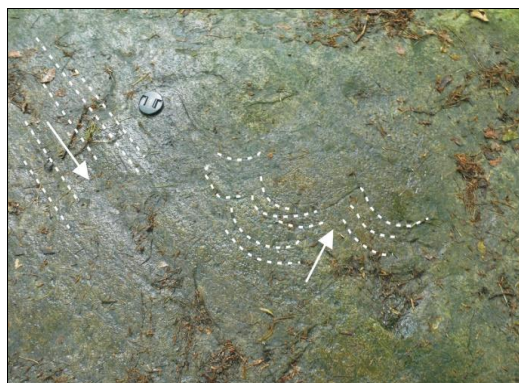


Figure 16. Various directed glacial striae and crescent chatter marks on the Jotnian sandstone indicate the ice-sheet moved in two different directions. Arrows mark the direction of the ice-sheet movements

Głaz św. Jadwigi (Eng. Boulder of St. Hedwig) in southern Wielkopolska (No. 12 in Figure 2); Φ : $51^\circ 49' 58.5''$ Δ : $17^\circ 56' 50.0''$

The boulder of St. Hedwig is the largest erratic boulder in the Wielkopolska region (Figure 17) and the sixth largest in Poland. It is an indicator erratic—Småland granite (Figure 18)— that originated from outcrops in southeastern Sweden (Figure 1). It occurs *in situ*. The deposition of the Boulder of St. Hedwig to the south of the glacial marginal zone of the Vistulian glaciation in its maximum extent as well as its occurrence within the surface deposits indicate it was transported by the ice-sheet during the Wartanian (the late Saalian) glaciation (MIS 6, Marks et al., 2019).



Figure 17. Boulder of St. Hedwig with visible damage to the object

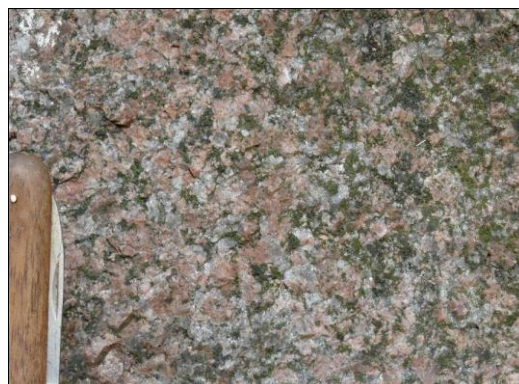


Figure 18. Details of the structure and texture of Småland granite

The long distance from roads and forest location were factors that favoured attempts to split the boulder into smaller fragments. This is evidenced by traces of damage and cavities (Figure 17), which irretrievably lowered the scientific, educational and aesthetic values of the boulder with its polished surface and visible glacial striae. In the immediate vicinity of the boulder there is a convenient picnic spot. Unfortunately, there is no board with information about the boulder and its glacial transport from Scandinavia. This largest boulder in the Wielkopolska region was entered in the register of inanimate nature monuments on March 28, 1957.

RESULTS OF EVALUATION ANALYSIS

Twelve erratic boulders from the Wielkopolska region (Figure 2; Table 1) were evaluated for the first time (Table 3) to determine their potential to promote geotourism. The evaluation analysis was carried out using the categories and criteria presented in Table 2. In the scientific value category, the highest number of points (3 of 4 possible points) has been granted to three erratic boulders: the Enchanted Carriage (No. 3 in Table 3) in the Toruń-Eberswalde Pradolina, the Boulder of St Adalbert (No. 5) and the boulder (No. 11) in the Dolskie Hills. They occur *in situ* and are indicator erratics. Two of them (No. 4 and 5) were dated with ^{10}Be in order to obtain an exposure age. They also co-create a very rich geodiversity in the vicinity of the geosites and therefore differ from the other evaluated erratic boulders. In the educational value category, the Boulder of St. Adalbert (No. 5) has the highest number of points (3 of 4 possible points), mainly due to the existing educational resources. A guided tour by the custodian of the monument of inanimate nature is available. Geotourists can use information boards written in Polish, English and German. The roofed picnic place, located near the Boulder of St Adalbert, can be used to conduct lessons in the field or for a short stop during a walking tour along the tourist trail. Unfortunately, none of the described boulders occur on a geotourist path. The erratic boulders are also not included in the widely available guide services.

In the economic value category only one erratic boulder received 2 points (of a possible 3). Access to the largest boulder in Poznań (No. 8, located within the Botanical Garden of Adam Mickiewicz University) is simple and there is some tourist infrastructure (picnic place, accommodation and provisioning) in the immediate vicinity (within 1 km). Unfortunately, none of the local products (arts and crafts) are associated with the evaluated boulders nor represent them symbolically. In the conservation value category, three erratic boulders (Enchanted Inn, No. 4; Boulder of St. Adalbert, No. 5; and Boulder of Fire, No. 7) received the maximum number of points (4). The largest boulder in Poznań (No. 8), the Boulder of Prof. A. Wodziczko (No. 9) and the boulder in Rogalin (No. 10) are also highly rated because they are within a protected area (the Botanical Garden, Wielkopolski National Park and its immediate surroundings, respectively). The largest boulder in the Wielkopolska region, the Boulder of St. Hedwig (No. 12), has been irretrievably destroyed and therefore received a low rating. Nine of the described erratic boulders are legally protected as inanimate nature monuments. Only three (boulders Nos. 5, 6 and 7) are accompanied by characteristic plates, informing that they are protected legally.

Considering the additional value category, the only object that received the maximum number of points (3.5) is the Boulder of St. Adalbert (No. 5). It is strongly associated with cultural and historical values. It is named after the saint patron of Poland. There is also a legend connected with this boulder and mysterious powers have been attributed to it in the past. The object was the first protected erratic boulder in Poland. There is also notable ecological value—the Boulder of St. Adalbert is colonised by epilithic flora with little influence for their weathering. The aesthetic value associated with the size

of the boulder, possibility of close observation and varied appearance have been observed in this outstanding object of abiotic nature. Fewer points in this category were allotted to the Enchanted Inn, which in contrast is not colonised by lichen flora.

Table 3. Evaluation analysis of the erratic boulders in the Wielkopolska region (western Poland)

BOULDERS	SCIENTIFIC VALUE					EDUCATIONAL VALUE					ECONOMIC VALUE				CONSERVATION VALUE					ADDITIONAL VALUE				TOTAL
	a	b	c	d	sum	a	b	c	d	sum	a	b	c	sum	a	b	c	d	sum	a	b	c	sum	
1.	0	1	0	0.5	1.5	1	1	0	0	2	0.5	0.5	0	1	0.5	0.5	0	1	2	0.5	0.5	1.5	2.5	9
2.	1	1	0	0.5	2.5	1	1	0	0	2	0.5	0.5	0	1	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	1.5	1.5	9
3.	1	1	0.5	0.5	3	1	1	0	0	2	0.5	1	0	1.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	1	2.5	1	0	1.75	2.75	11.75
4.	1	0	0	1	2	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	4	1	0.5	1.5	3	11
5.	1	1	0	1	3	0.5	1	0.5	1	3	0.5	1	0	1.5	1	1	1	1	4	1	1	1.5	3.5	15
6.	1	1	0	0.5	2.5	0.5	0.5	0	0	1	0.5	0	0	0.5	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0.5	0.5	6.5
7.	1	1	0	0.5	2.5	0.5	0.5	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	4	1	0	0.5	1.5	9
8.	0	0	0	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0	1	2	1	1	0	2	1	1	1	0.5	3.5	0	0.5	1.75	2.25	10.25
9.	0	1	0.5	0.5	2	0.5	0.5	0	0.5	1.5	0.5	0	0	0.5	1	1	1	0.5	3.5	1	0	1.25	2.25	9.75
10.	0	1	0	0.5	1.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0	1.5	0.5	0.5	0	1	1	1	1	0.5	3.5	0	0	1.5	1.5	9
11.	1	1	0.5	0.5	3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0	1.5	0.5	0	0	0.5	0	0	1	1	2	0	0.5	0.75	1.25	8.25
12.	1	1	0	0.5	2.5	1	0.5	0.5	0.5	2.5	0.5	0.5	0	1	0.5	0.5	0	1	2	1	0	1.5	2.5	10.5

Legend: Numbers stay for boulders: 1. Johnny, 2. Lutom, 3. Enchanted carriage, 4. Enchanted Inn, 5.

Boulder of St Adalbert, 6. Piast, 7. Boulder of Fire, 8. The largest boulder in Poznań, 9. Boulder of Prof. A. Wodziczko, 10. Boulder in Rogalin, 11. Boulder in the Dolskie Hills, 12. Boulder of St Hedwig

SCIENTIFIC VALUE: a – location after ice thawing; b – type of erratic; c – number of different features visible in geosite; and d – scientific knowledge.

EDUCATIONAL VALUE: a – representativeness and visibility/clarity of features; b – quality of educational example and educational usefulness; c – existing educational products; and d – existing forms of use for educational purposes (e.g. specialist tour, guided tour).

ECONOMIC VALUE: a – accessibility; b – presence of tourist infrastructure; and c – local products.

CONSERVATION VALUE: a – existing threats and the risk of damage; b – potential threats and the risk of damage; c – current state; and d – legal protection status.

ADDITIONAL VALUE: a – cultural values (historical, archaeological, religious) connected with the abiotic site; b – ecological value; and c – aesthetic value (number of colours, structure types, viewpoints, exposed position and volume).

Table 4. Evaluation of the potential of erratic boulders in the Wielkopolska region to promote geotourism

Score		Potential for geotourism	Numbers of erratic boulders
0-7		low	6
7.25-11		medium	1, 2, 4, 7-12
11.25-13.25		high	3
13.5-15		very high	5

In summary, the Boulder of St. Adalbert (No. 5) has the highest (among the analysed objects) potential to promote geotourism in the Wielkopolska region (Table 4). The Enchanted Carriage (No. 3) may promote geotourism to a slightly lesser degree. Eight erratic boulders have a medium potential to promote this part of geoheritage through tourism. The only object which has very low potential for geotourism promotion is the Boulder of Fire

(No. 6). With limited access, poor exposure and a longer distance from any tourist infrastructure, it has the smallest chance of promoting the beauty of inanimate nature.

CONCLUSIONS

The erratic boulders described in this study are lithosphere resources and constitute the geological heritage of the Wielkopolska region. They represent different petrographic types, and thus originate from different source areas in Scandinavia. Their state of preservation is also varied. Their morphological features are evidence of the processes of glacial erosion, which affected them during transport from source areas to the places of deposition, as well as the periglacial processes occurring on the foreland of the retreating ice-sheet. All these values indicate the erratic boulders are undoubtedly elements of the geodiversity of the region. Eight of the twelve erratic boulders occur *in situ* and ten are indicator erratics. These significant scientific values do not always determine the final result of the evaluation analysis. The Enchanted Carriage and the boulder in the Dolskie Hills, both with high scientific value, do not have the greatest potential to promote geotourism. The erratic boulders in the Wielkopolska region (except the boulder in Rogalin) are geosites (Reynard, 2004; Migoń, 2012) and are entered in the Central Register of Polish Geosites (<http://geoportal.pgi.gov.pl/portal/page/portal/geostanowiska>). All the studied erratic boulders are protected as inanimate natural monument (10 objects) or occur in legal protected areas (2 objects).

Several of the described boulders represent cultural heritage. They appear in folk legends and tales, they were the objects of religious cults, or they are named after prominent religious figures and those associated with the region. Sometimes they have a fanciful shape, which undoubtedly contributes to their aesthetic value, together with their dimensions. The results of the evaluation analysis indicate that the cultural and aesthetic value of the erratic boulders in the Wielkopolska region can play a significant role in the promotion of inanimate nature. Other than examples of vandalism, boulders in the Wielkopolska landscape trigger positive reactions and are major tourist attractions in the region. Boulders have always been a favourite destination for tourist trips and play an educational role on nature paths. The boulders may be better known if access to them was facilitated by marking geotourist trails with signposts.

In light of the evaluation analysis, such erratic boulders have great potential to promote geotourism. This would be more effective if the boulders were accompanied by information boards presenting material in an accessible way about source areas and processes over time that have affected the boulders. Per the evaluation analysis, the Boulder of St. Adalbert may be the most useful in terms of providing information and promoting the protection of the remains of the glacial period. Above all, it is a model object to be used in education. The scientific values of the boulder could be higher but its surface is colonised by lichens and the surrounding area has low geodiversity.

Easy access to the boulder and the existing tourist infrastructure may encourage geotourism. The boulder has been well rated because it is protected by law and its historical and cultural value is high. Moreover, it has the highest additional value (important for tourists) of all the analysed boulders. The evaluation analysis demonstrates that the additional value of inanimate natural objects may have a strong influence on the effective promotion of geotourism in the Wielkopolska region.

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COASTAL AND MARINE TOURISM IN THE INDIAN OCEAN RIM ASSOCIATION STATES: OVERVIEW AND POLICY CHALLENGES

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Abstract: ‘Inclusion’ represents one of the central principles behind the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. This article investigates the development of coastal tourism in the Indian Ocean Rim Association (IORA) states and accompanying broad policy challenges. Special focus is on the leveraging of coastal and marine tourism for an inclusive tourism economy. Coastal and marine tourism is a vital expanding segment of the global tourism economy and acknowledged as a critical sector of the Blue Economy across IORA states. Arguably, the significant assets of coastal and marine tourism offer considerable potential for tourism development across IORA states. Multiple challenges confront the sustainable development of coastal and marine tourism including lack of (or inappropriate) planning for coastal area development and management, governance issues, limited innovation, access to finance for enterprise development, absence of data for monitoring, and, the severe threats posed to coastal destinations from advancing climate change. Above all, the imperative for economic inclusion and of achieving a greater spread of the benefits of tourism growth to local communities, especially for marginalised groups, is a critical policy issue. For many IORA states this might require a rethink of the dominant planning model around encouraging mass international tourism (which is often concentrated on all-inclusive resorts or cruise tourism) and instead the reconsideration of the potential for leveraging potential benefits from promoting domestic and regional travel as well as of budget forms of international tourism.

Key words: coastal and marine tourism; Indian Ocean Rim; policy challenges; economic inclusion; inclusive tourism

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INTRODUCTION

Wong (1986: 152) maintains that “if there is one category of tourism that stands out from other forms of tourism, it is likely to be that of coastal tourism”. Indeed, coastal areas are highly valued environments for recreational pursuits with travel to coastal

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destinations for leisure purposes recognised as having a long ancestry (Prideaux, 2004, 2009; Gupta, 2015; Walton, 2016; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020a). Within the present global tourism economy coastal tourism for leisure purposes is viewed as one of its most rapidly expanding segments (Miller, 1993; Agarwal & Shaw, 2007; Honey & Kranz, 2007; Dwyer, 2018; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020b). Annually millions of leisure tourists flock to pleasure resorts in coastal environments of the Mediterranean, the Caribbean and many Small Island Developing States of the Indian Ocean where the tourism sector is the anchor for sustainable economic development (Hampton & Jeyacheya, 2013; Orams & Luck, 2014; Gössling et al., 2018). Carvache-Franco et al. (2020) point out that coastal destinations increasingly offer a variety of activities for experiencing contact with nature (and culture) beyond that of the traditional coastal tourism product offering that focuses on the sun and the beach. In many countries a government policy focus around coastal and marine tourism is part of a broader assessment and policy development for the 'blue' or ocean economy. Although the definition of the blue economy is contested it refers generally to maximisation of the economic potential of ocean resources balanced by the need to ensure ocean health and sustainability (Colgan, 2017; Potgieter, 2018; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2019a; Verma & Jolly, 2019). The World Bank (2017: 22) estimates that tourism accounts for a roughly 26 percent of ocean-based economic activity and is "a key driver of the blue economy". Not surprisingly, therefore, for many coastal destinations planning for tourism development constitutes a key theme within local economic development programming in many countries (Prideaux, 2009; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2019b). Conflicts arise, however, as coastal spaces provide multiple activities and uses and external forces often lack consideration for traditional coastal uses particularly in global South environments (Käyhkö et al., 2019).

The standard definition of coastal and marine tourism is clarified by Hall (2001: 602) as follows: "The concept of coastal tourism embraces the full range of tourism, leisure, and recreationally oriented activities that take place in the coastal zone and the offshore coastal waters. These include coastal tourism development (accommodation, restaurants, food industry, and second homes), and the infrastructure supporting coastal development (e.g. retail businesses, marinas and activity suppliers). Also included are tourism activities such as recreational boating, coast- and marine-based ecotourism, cruises, swimming, recreational fishing, snorkelling and diving. Marine tourism is closely related to the concept of coastal tourism but also includes ocean-based tourism such as deep-sea fishing and yacht cruising". Among others, Orams & Luck (2014) point out that the domain of coastal and marine tourism is expanding and an increasingly important component of the international tourism economy. Globally, Dwyer (2018: 29) estimates that coastal and marine tourism generated a total Gross Value Added (GVA) in 2010 of US\$ 390.11 billion and employed 6.9 million people; by 2030 it is projected to produce a GVA of \$777.14 billion with an expansion of employment to 8.6 million in total. The projected 3.5% annual growth in coastal and marine tourism to 2030 exceeds the projections made by the United World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) of 3.3 % annual growth for tourism as a whole (Dwyer 2018: 30). Arguably, the expansion of the coastal and marine tourism sector can have the potential to catalyse several opportunities for small, medium and micro-enterprises (SMMEs) for local entrepreneurs to enhance the sector's developmental potential and local destination impacts (Attri, 2018; Rogerson, 2020).

The aim in this paper is to examine the core policy challenges facing the development of coastal tourism in the Indian Ocean Rim Association (IORA) states. Special focus is on the challenges for the leveraging of coastal and marine tourism for an inclusive tourism economy. 'Inclusion' represents one of the central principles behind the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals which were agreed to in September 2015

(UNCTAD, 2017). The movement toward inclusion addresses the fact that certain groups or communities often are 'left out of development' processes (Scheyvens, 1999, 2002a; Käyhkö et al., 2019). Within tourism studies there is a growing interest for investigating the extent to which the sector is 'inclusive' and to isolate the drivers as well as the challenges to achieving an inclusive tourism pathway (Biddulph & Scheyvens, 2018; Hampton et al., 2018; Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018; Rogerson, 2020).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The major work undertaken for this study was an internet-mediated desk-top research on coastal and marine tourism with special scrutiny upon issues around economic inclusion and SMME development. The focus in this research was identifying critical debates in coastal and marine tourism and on policy for 'good practice' concerning economic inclusion in the states of the Indian Ocean Rim Association (IORA). In terms of the project tasks, of particular relevance was a search conducted through Google Scholar of the most influential and relevant research on these themes appearing in books, monographs and most importantly of research outputs published in scientific peer-reviewed scholarly journals in tourism and in the field of ocean and marine science. In terms of academic journals, rich material was sourced also from two serials which are geographically dedicated to the Indian Ocean Region. First, is the *Journal of the Indian Ocean Region* which "is to facilitate a regional voice in the identification, research and analysis of policy issues of common regional concern" (Indian Ocean Research Group, 2010: 1). Second, is the recently-established *Journal of Indian Ocean Rim Studies*, which is the flagship serial of the IORA Academic Group.

Although the scholarly material discussed above provides the core source material for this article other data and complementary information was mined from international agencies engaged with tourism. Baseline data on international tourism arrivals, receipts and tourism contribution to GDP in IORA states was obtained from the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 2017). Useful additional material on IORA was secured through internet sources and from information provided through the presentations made at the 3rd Tourism Experts Meeting for the Establishment of the IORA Core Group on Tourism held in May 2018 at Durban, South Africa (Attri, 2018). A further valuable documentary source is the recent appearance of a blue economy handbook of the Indian Ocean region (Attri & Bohler-Muller, 2018).

IORA AND THE BLUE ECONOMY

IORA was established as an inter-governmental organisation on 7 March 1997 with the goal of ensuring peace and prosperity in the Indian Ocean Region. The vision for IORA originated in 1995 during a visit to India by South Africa's first democratic president, Nelson Mandela who stated that the "natural urge of the facts of history and geography... should broaden itself to include the concept of an Indian Ocean Rim for socio-economic cooperation and other peaceful endeavours. Recent changes in the international system demand that the countries of the Indian Ocean shall become a single platform". At its founding in 1997 IORA had 14 members, namely Australia, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Madagascar, Malaysia, Mauritius, Mozambique, Oman, Singapore, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Tanzania and Yemen. Expansion occurred in 1999 with the accession to membership of Bangladesh, Iran, Thailand and the United Arab Emirates.

Since 2010 three further new countries have been added to IORA, namely Seychelles (2011), Comoros (2012) and Somalia (2014). In addition to its 21 member states IORA also has seven dialogue partners, namely China, Egypt, France, Germany, Japan, United Kingdom and United States (Attri & Bohler-Muller, 2018). According to

Attri (2019: 11) the major focus of IORA needs to be on regional economic cooperation to achieve balanced development and growth in the region for the prosperity of the Indian Ocean Region. For Attri (2019) this includes a cluster of challenges including promoting the Fourth Industrial Revolution which comprises of disruptive technologies and trends such as robotics, virtual reality, artificial intelligence and the Internet of Things all of which are transforming the way people live and work. The attainment of the 2030 United Nations Sustainable Development Goals can be leveraged through a focus on Science, Technology and Innovation. Of critical importance for balanced growth is cooperation for a Sustainable Blue Economy, including coastal and marine tourism (Attri, 2019). All this said, as pointed out by Manwa (2019), the central role accorded to coastal and marine tourism does not mean overlooking the competitive potential of other forms of tourism such as cultural and heritage tourism.

Coastal and marine tourism is identified as a vital Blue Economy sector by several IORA countries, with the IORA Action Plan for 2017-2021 specifically isolating the theme of 'Tourism and Cultural Exchanges' as one of its key priority areas (IORA, 2018). In 2017 with South Africa's accession to the position of Chair of IORA, the national Minister of International Relations and Cooperation declared that the country "looks forward to an increased focus on tourism, a critical sector with enormous opportunities for enhanced cooperation towards improved economic growth and development within IORA" (IORA, 2018). A linkage was forged now between IORA's prioritisation of coastal and marine tourism on the one hand, and tourism SMME development on the other, in particular as the latter was highlighted in both the IORA Action Plan 2017-2021 and by the Durban Communique which was issued at the 17th meeting of IORA Council Ministers.

Arguably, the tourism sector is one of the largest sectors of employment in the blue economy of several IORA member states (Dwyer, 2017). Accordingly, over the past 20 years coastal and marine tourism has assumed an increasingly vital role in IORA policy processes particularly in the context of blue economy debates. Indeed, for Doyle (2018: 1) the blue economy, which broadly conceptualizes the oceans as 'shared development spaces', "has emerged as a powerful and contested concept in many of those 27 countries which are part of, either as Member States or Dialogue Partners, the leading Track One regional government organization: the Indian Ocean Rim Association". The Blue Economy debates are especially relevant in this region as in geopolitical terms the Indian Ocean Rim is shifting away "from being identified as the 'Ocean of the South' to the 'Ocean of the Centre', and 'the Ocean of the Future' (Doyle, 2018: 1). Although there is no clear consensus on the definition of the blue economy it is argued that in policy terms "at the core of the concept is the awareness of maritime resources and their capacity to contribute to poverty reduction, human welfare and economic opportunity" (Doyle, 2018: 1). Further it is added that such maritime resources must be used in a sustainable, stable and inclusive manner. Indeed, the critical importance of sustainable resource use is underlined by observations of dramatic population growth in the population of Indian Ocean Rim Countries with projections that by 2050 the region might include almost half of the world's population.

Attri (2017) documents that at the 20th Anniversary celebrations in Jakarta, Indonesia the first ever IORA leaders' summit was hosted under the theme of "Strengthening Maritime Cooperation for a Peaceful, Stable and Prosperous Indian Ocean". Discussions at the Summit covered the current situation faced within the Indian Ocean Rim and culminated in the declaration of the Jakarta Accord by the leaders. One of six commitments relates to promotion of cooperation in 'tourism and culture'. As Attri (2017) points out beyond the six areas of cooperation IORA leaders were also encouraged to strengthen their mutual cooperation in other issues, most importantly the Blue Economy. The October 2014 IORA 'Blue Economy' Declaration signalled a regional

commitment to enhance collaboration in an array of different areas (Doyle, 2018). The deepening strategic importance of cooperation around the Blue Economy represents a logical outcome of further IORA consultations. At the first and second Ministerial Blue Economy Conferences held respectively on 2-3 September 2015 in Mauritius and 9-10 May 2017 in Jakarta the essential role for human well-being and social and economic development was acknowledged of oceans along with coastal and marine resources. The 'Jakarta Declaration on the Blue Economy', issued May 2017, provides a total of 26 recommendations as well as principles for developing and applying blue economy approaches to sustainable development and enhancement of socio-economic benefits, particularly for coastal communities in the IORA region (IORA, 2017). As part of advancing gender equality Rimmer (2017) as well as Kotze & Bohler-Muller (2018) remind us that at the heart of sustainable development for the IORA countries must be the imperative for women's economic empowerment.

Prior to the Jakarta declaration it must be acknowledged that several IORA states have been engaged in developing aspects of the blue economy for many decades, albeit with varying levels of success and commitment (Doyle, 2018). Fisheries, offshore oil and gas, maritime industries and tourism are viewed as "already making a significant contribution to the economies of the Indian Ocean states" (Llewellyn et al., 2016: 52). It is evident that IORA is fully cognisant of serious challenges which are caused by natural and human factors such as overexploitation of resources, increasing marine pollution, biodiversity loss, and the impacts of global climate change. What is new, however, is an extended acknowledgement of the importance and potential of the blue economy among certain IORA states. For example, Mittra (2017: 1) records that the blue economy "presents a unique and unprecedented opportunity for India to reframe its approach in managing the ocean". Likewise, in the case of Bangladesh, Hussain et al. (2018) acknowledge "major opportunities" and argue that, with its underdeveloped blue economy, the country is well positioned to develop untapped sectors including tourism.

Among several academic observers the critical potential is flagged of forging a common pathway towards "sustainable blue economic growth" among Indian Ocean nations (Llewellyn et al., 2016: 52). In a useful contribution Colgan (2017) stresses that the region's imperatives for "transformative development capable of addressing the profound needs for vital economies and poverty alleviation that is simultaneously environmentally responsible including adjusting to the profound challenge of climate change" underscore the research challenge of a greater understanding of the key individual segments of the blue economy. One critical sector now identified within blue economy debates across IORA states is tourism, which is a major employment sector, part of the diversification strategies of several states, and source of valuable income for coastal communities. Colgan (2017: 23) considers tourism "is the blue economy sector which is most dependent on the development of appropriate infrastructure" which would include airports, roads and passenger seaports. It is essential to recognise also that there are consequences for coastal and marine tourism which arise both from its own growth as well as from the operations of other established and emerging segments of the blue economy (Dwyer, 2018). Fostering the expansion of tourism as well as harnessing and developing the blue economy in the IORA region are two crucial issues that are highlighted as part of the IORA Action Plan for 2017-2021. The IORA Action Plan identified in its short-term actions the establishment of a Core Group on Tourism which would "assess the importance of the sector in the Indian Ocean Region and how the Member States of the Association with the support of the Dialogue Partners could develop a sustainable job creating and development framework" (IORA, 2018). The next section turns to overview the role and character of tourism in IORA states and specifically of coastal and marine tourism.

THE ROLE OF COASTAL TOURISM IN THE IORA BLUE ECONOMY

Arguably, measuring the contribution of certain components of the Blue Economy – fisheries, offshore oil and gas or aquaculture – can be done with a relative degree of accuracy (Dwyer, 2018). By contrast, the measurement of the contribution of tourism and assessment of its impacts across countries is problematic for several reasons. The tourism sector does not fit Standard Industrial Classifications rather it is “a diffuse and multiple industry consisting of closely associated and interacting segments such as transportation (international and domestic); accommodation; intermediaries such as tour operators and travel agents; catering services; retail such as souvenirs; local attractions and activities; vehicle rental and so forth” (Hampton et al., 2018: 362). In addition, differing definitions are applied in countries for classifying ‘tourists’ (day visitors as opposed to overnight visitors) and often generally weak systems of data collection (particularly in countries of the global South) result in unreliable or unavailable tourism data for many nations. With these caveats in mind this section aims to provide a profile of tourism in IORA states and offer a picture of the state of coastal tourism.

Table 1. The State of International Tourism in IORA Countries

Country	Length of Coastline (km)	International Tourism Arrivals 2016	International Tourism Receipts (US \$million)	Travel & tourism industry % GDP	Travel & Tourism Projected GDP annual growth rate, 2013-2022
Australia	25 760 (2)	8 263 (8)	32 423 (2)	2.6 (16)	3.4 (16=)
Bangladesh	580 (16)	125 (19)	175 (17)	2.1 (18)	6.1 (4=)
Comoros	340 (19)	24 (20)	40 (20)	No data	No data
India	7 000 (3)	14 569 (4)	22 427 (3)	2.0 (19)	6.4 (2)
Indonesia	54 716 (1)	9 963 (7)	11 349 (7)	3.1 (12)	5.3 (9)
Iran	3 180 (7)	4 942 (9)	3 868 (9)	2.2 (17)	5.7 (7)
Kenya	536 (17)	1 114 (14)	824 (14)	4.8 (7)	5.2 (10)
Madagascar	4 828 (4)	293 (18)	307 (16)	5.9 (5)	5.1 (11)
Malaysia	4 675 (5)	26 757 (2)	18 074 (6)	7.2 (4)	4.4 (12=)
Mauritius	177 (21)	1 275 (13)	1 572 (12)	11.3 (2)	4.4 (12=)
Mozambique	2 470 (10)	1 639 (12)	108 (18)	3.2 (11)	6.1 (4=)
Oman	2 092 (11)	1 897 (11)	1 540 (13)	3.0 (14)	5.4 (8)
Seychelles	491 (18)	303 (17)	414 (15)	21.2 (1)	4.3 (14)
Singapore	193 (20)	12 913 (5)	18 386 (5)	5.3 (6)	3.4 (16=)
Somalia	3 025 (8)	No data	No data	No data	No data
South Africa	2 881 (9)	10 044 (6)	7 910 (8)	3.0 (13)	3.9 (15)
Sri Lanka	1 340 (15)	2 051 (10)	3 518 (10)	3.9 (10)	6.1 (4=)
Tanzania	1 424 (14)	1 104 (15)	2 135 (11)	4.5 (8)	6.2 (3)
Thailand	3 219 (6)	32 588 (1)	49 871 (1)	9.0 (3)	6.7 (1)
United Arab Emirates	1 448 (13)	14 910 (3)	19 496 (4)	4.0 (9)	3.1 (18)
Yemen	1 906 (12)	367 (16)	100 (19)	2.9 (15)	2.4 (19)

Sources and Notes: (1) Coastal data from Miller & Auyong, 1991; different methods are used by certain organisations to calculate length of coastline; (2) Data on tourism arrivals and receipts from UNWTO (2017). For most countries arrivals and receipt data is for 2016 but when unreported for 2016 the most recent available data is included; for India international tourism arrivals are increased by the inclusion of day visitors which would not be classed as tourism in most countries; (3) GDP data and projected estimates are from UNWTO and are provided in Dwyer, 2017, p. 39. (4) Numbers in bracket reflect rank of countries.

The UNWTO data is highly cited as a baseline for measurement of international tourism and of the relative contribution of tourism to GDP. Table 1 provides a situation analysis of the state of tourism in IORA countries using recent UNWTO (2017) data. The UNWTO projects that the volume of international tourism is expected to increase worldwide by an average 3.3 percent a year from 2010 to 2030 which would result in 1.4 billion international tourists by 2020 and 1.8 billion by 2030. Several points must be noted about Table 1. First, the UNWTO international tourism data relates to all destinations and not simply to coastal destinations. In several IORA states there are significant destinations for international travel which are non-coastal destinations; many of these destinations, such as Kuala Lumpur, Delhi, Jakarta, Johannesburg or Tehran, represent important business tourism destinations for international travel. Second, the data reveals an extraordinary range in the numbers of international tourists and of estimated tourism receipts across the 21 IORA states. In terms of ranking by numbers of tourist arrivals the list is headed by Thailand, Malaysia, United Arab Emirates and India; Somalia, Comoros, Bangladesh and Madagascar record the lowest totals of arrivals. In terms of ranking by international tourism receipts a different order emerges with Thailand, Australia, India and United Arab Emirates the leading countries and Somalia, Comoros, Yemen and Mozambique the least significant. The much higher ranking of Australia in receipts as compared to total arrivals is indicative of high average spend of that country's cohort of international tourists as compared to, for example, the case of Mozambique where the lower rank in terms of receipts as compared to arrivals is explained by the much lower average spend per international arrival. Three, it must be understood that several IORA destinations recently have experienced considerable volatility in international tourism arrivals because of political instability, civil conflict or terrorism; examples would be Comoros, Kenya, Madagascar, Somalia and Yemen.

Four, the accuracy of data on tourism contribution to GDP must be again treated with some caution as offering only the broadest sketch across the IORA states. This said, it highlights that several countries such as Seychelles, Mauritius, Thailand, Malaysia and Madagascar record significant contributions of international tourism to GDP; in relative terms the countries for which international tourism contributes the smallest proportions of GDP are Iran, India, Bangladesh, and most probably Somalia for which no data is available. Five, the UNWTO data for future growth in terms of contribution of international tourism to GDP point to the fastest growth potentially occurring in Thailand, India, Tanzania, Mozambique and Sri Lanka. By contrast, the more long-established and 'mature' international tourism destinations of Australia, South Africa, Singapore and the United Arab Emirates as well as conflict-ridden Yemen are projected to record the lowest rates of expanded contribution for international tourism to national GDP. Six, an important point to consider concerning the tourism statistics as shown on Table 1 is to recognise that a substantial (but often unknown or unrecorded) proportion of this expanding economy of 'international tourism' is accounted for by 'regional tourism'.

Several studies stress the enormous recent upsurge of 'intra-regional' travel particularly in Asia but also for sub-Saharan Africa (Ghimire, 2001). Multiple factors coalesce and account for increases in intra-regional mobilities. Most significant are improved economic prosperity associated with the growth of urbanization, the rise in discretionary income in the hands of expanding middle classes, and the facilitating role played by the emergence of budget airlines which offer affordable and faster connections between numerous regional destinations. Taken together with the relaxation of visa controls and improved intra-regional road connectivities there has occurred a substantial growth of 'regional tourism' by middle classes as well as even of less affluent strata which can take advantage of reduced costs and ease of travel between countries (Cohen & Cohen, 2015).

Arguably, this growth in 'regional tourism' as part of international tourism frequently is ignored in analyses of international tourism and its impacts for particular countries. Indeed, for IORA states it is simply incorrect to assert, as does Dwyer (2017: 40), that "intra-regional travel remains relatively limited". In the example of Mozambique the vast majority of its cohort of international tourists are arrivals either from neighbouring South Africa or Malawi. Likewise, in the case of South Africa of the country's estimated total of 10 million international tourists almost 80 percent originate from sub-Saharan Africa, the majority from proximate states of the Southern African Development Community (Rogerson, 2004). Across Asia the proliferation of budget airlines has boosted massively the intra-regional flows of tourists with the clearest examples that of Malaysia-Singapore-Indonesia. The critical importance of unpacking the role of 'regional tourism' in IORA states is underlined by the different characteristics, often different travel motivations and markedly different impacts upon local economies of regional tourists as opposed to the long-haul international traveller.

Typically regional trips are of shorter duration, cheaper than long-haul travel, and involve different expenditure patterns in the host destinations with compelling evidence of greater impacts for local economies from regional as opposed to long haul international travellers because of reduced leakages (Cohen & Cohen, 2015). Seven, Miller & Auyong (1991: 76) state that there are "no standardized practices for reporting tourism statistics within the coastal zone". In global terms the absence of international statistics makes it difficult to determine the share of coastal and marine tourism in global tourism (Dwyer, 2018). Likewise, Dwyer (2017) points out that it is not possible to determine accurately the precise contribution of coastal and marine tourism in IORA states. Several methodological challenges surround the measurement of the impact of coastal and marine tourism (Bob et al., 2018). As noted earlier, in several IORA states there are important tourism destinations which are non-coastal in their geography.

Only in the case of the Small Island Developing States (SIDS) of Seychelles, Comoros and Mauritius can one argue that almost the entire contribution of international tourism arrivals be attributed to coastal destinations. All this said, Daldeniz & Hampton (2013: 507) observe that across the global South international tourism "is often spatially concentrated at the coast, ranging from so-called 3S (sun, sea and sand) mass tourism, to the increasing growth of more active leisure as exemplified by the rapid expansion of scuba diving". In most IORA states it is evident that tourism has a major coastal presence (Harriott, 2004; De Brauwier et al., 2017; Attri, 2018; Kinseng et al., 2018; Al Busaidi et al., 2019). Some illustrative examples follow. In the case of Southeast Asia, including the cases of Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore, Wonga (1998) stresses that the regional states possess the basic resources for coastal tourism in terms of sandy beaches, coral reefs, thousands of islands and a rich cultural heritage to complement coastal tourism development ranging from basic A-frame huts to integrated resorts. Hampton & Jeyacheya (2014) confirm coastal tourism is expanding rapidly across Southeast Asia, especially on small islands.

They highlight significant management issues in terms of planning for the rapid growth of leisure tourism whilst retaining vital economic benefits for local communities. Again, with a focus on Malaysia, Lee (2010) records the expansion of coastal resorts, hotels and tourism related infrastructure. For Bangladesh, the 'undiscovered gem of Asia', Rahman (2015) documents the potential for expanded tourism at Cox's Bazaar with its 125 kilometre long unbroken sandy beach that is reputedly the largest in the world.

Beyond IORA states in Asia the critical economic importance and developmental potential of coastal tourism is also well-documented. In Australia, the best examples are mass beach tourism at Queensland's Gold Coast and marine tourism at the Great Barrier

Reef (Spalding et al., 2017). Van Putten et al. (2016) document that marine tourism is now the largest employer in small regional coastal communities across all states of Australia. For large parts of Africa, including Kenya, Mozambique and Tanzania, Leijzer & Denman (2014: 1) show coastal areas exhibit a “high potential for tourism development”. Despite its iconic safari and nature tourism attractions, in Kenya coastal tourism was attributed for generating 60 percent of tourism’s contribution to GDP (The COAST Project, 2013). Based upon its project work in Kenya, Tanzania and Mozambique the UNWTO (2013:3) endorses the view that “coastal tourism in Africa can bring significant benefits for the local economy, society and the environment, such as revenue generation, employment creation, infrastructure development, conservation of the cultural and natural heritage, and can offer an alternative and sustainable source of livelihood for local communities”.

Elsewhere in East Africa, the growth and potential of coastal tourism in Zanzibar is well-recorded (Anderson, 2013; Murphy, 2019). In the example of Mozambique the country’s beach resources, opportunities for dive tourism and viewing manta rays are considered as major tourist drawcards (Tibirica et al., 2011; Venables et al., 2016; Snyman & Spenceley, 2019). In Oman considerable interest surrounds the current status and future potential of sustainable sea turtle tourism (Al Busaidi et al., 2019). Finally, the possibilities for leveraging assets for the development of coastal and marine tourism in the remaining IORA states – including United Arab Emirates, Iran, Madagascar, Yemen and even Somalia - are documented by Attri (2018) in a recent comprehensive overview.

The dominant focus in marketing for coastal tourism in many IORA African and Asian countries is that of the mass international tourism market either in all inclusive resort developments or in terms of mass tourism through cruise tourism. Nevertheless, it should be recognised that in other countries – most obviously Australia - domestic tourism is the leading component in the volume of trips to coastal tourism destinations. Further evidence exists in research reported about other IORA states to confirm the importance of domestic tourists in coastal destinations. The best illustration is of Goa in India, which is viewed as a classic beach destination for international tourism.

Amongst the ‘paradoxes’ of Goa tourism Wilson (1997) shows the rise and significance of the lower-budget domestic tourists in this destination. Several advantages are observed of domestic tourism flows to Goa. Wilson (1997: 71) notes as follows: “Nor is it as fickle and as vulnerable as international tourism, it does not require so much foreign exchange to develop, it is less dependent on foreign airlines and tour operators, it is less subject to seasonality, it has less of a colonial character, and it can help foster national integration”. Overall the significance of domestic tourism is overlooked in several analyses of tourism in IORA states. This said, domestic tourism constitutes at least 80 percent of tourism flows on a global basis; and, from other observers the figure is higher and domestic tourists might be as much as 10 times larger than international tourism flows (Scheyvens, 2007: 308). Domestic tourists are known to represent a substantial component of the coastal tourism economies of, for example, Australia, Malaysia, South Africa and India. Even in the case of Thailand, the leading IORA destination for international travel, coastal domestic tourism is substantial and expanding rapidly with an increase in numbers of middle-income earners and of improved infrastructure (especially roads) to support local mobilities.

For one IORA state there is available a national data base that allows a reasonably accurate analysis to be offered of both the geography and the importance of coastal tourism relative to the country’s tourism economy as a whole. In the case of South Africa the essential aspects of the characteristics and share of coastal tourism can be calculated using local level data which are provided in the IHS Global Insight data base. Tourism data was aggregated for the four South African coastal metropolitan municipalities (Cape

Town, eThekweni, Nelson Mandela Bay, Buffalo City) and 11 coastal district municipalities (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020b). Several findings emerge from an analysis of 2015 data. First, South Africa's coastal destinations account for 28 % total tourism trips, 33 % bednights but 40 % total tourism spend. Second, in terms of origin, coastal destinations are massively dominated by domestic as opposed to international tourists; in 2015 estimated domestic tourism trips were 9.8 million as compared to 1.6 million for international trips. In terms of geography it is revealed that coastal tourism is dominated by large urban centres; this finding supports the observation made by Prideaux (2009: 171) that coastal cities are now "larger and more significant centres for tourism activity than traditional seaside resorts". Indeed, it is revealed that the coastal tourism economy of South Africa is commanded by the metropolitan centres of Cape Town and eThekweni (Durban). Cape Town accounts for 41 % total spend in coastal destinations and eThekweni a further 24% total spend; other notable coastal destinations as defined by total tourism spend are the district municipalities of Eden (8.0%), Overberg (4.9 %) and Ugu (4.4 %). Total tourism spend is highly concentrated geographically with the five leading destinations responsible for 82 % total tourism spend.

Analysis of the purpose of travel to coastal destinations reveals them to be multi-purpose destinations (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2017). The South African data discloses that of total trips to coastal destinations the major purpose of travel is for visiting friends and relatives (estimated 6.4 million), followed by leisure (2.9 million), business (1.3 million) and 'other' (0.3 million). Differences emerge between the different localities as to the particular significance of different forms of tourism. It is revealed that for all categories of tourism Cape Town and eThekweni are the major destinations; for VFR eThekweni is clearly most important (eThekweni 2.0 million, Cape Town 0.9 million); for leisure and business the most important is marginally Cape Town (for leisure Cape Town 0.78 million trips vs eThekweni 0.75 million and for business Cape Town 0.4 million trips vs eThekweni 0.3 million). That said, as a result of high flows of VFR travel in terms of total tourism trips eThekweni is the most significant South African coastal destination accounting for 27.0 % trips as opposed to 15.6 % for Cape Town.

The differences between relative shares on total tourism trips as compared to total tourism spend reflect the lower spend per trip in eThekweni as compared to Cape Town and can be explained largely by the high number of low spend VFR trips to eThekweni. Finally, it is shown that in terms of recent change in tourism trends that the overall share of coastal tourism in total tourism in South Africa appears to be in relative decline mainly as a consequence of the post-2010 decline/stagnation in tourism and especially of the downturn in domestic tourism occasioned by poor economic conditions, state mismanagement and a resultant recessionary climate that has reduced household discretionary spending on travel (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020b).

POLICY CHALLENGES FOR IORA STATES

In terms of the future development of coastal tourism the works of Attri (2018) and Dwyer (2018) both caution of several broad challenges to the sustainable development of coastal and marine tourism across IORA states. First, is the threat of rapid and uncontrolled urbanisation with coastal development occurring in an unplanned, haphazard or undirected manner resulting in a downgrade of seascapes and landscapes (Papageorgiou, 2016). Along many of the coastlines of IORA states, notably Kenya, Mozambique and Tanzania (especially Zanzibar) Dwyer (2017: 43) points out "tourism has developed in a haphazard and unplanned fashion causing major social and environmental problems". Such challenges, to a large extent, are an outcome of the inability of governments to enforce tourism land use management and development

policies because of weak municipal governance, often a multiplicity of uncoordinated agencies, and sometimes exacerbated by illegal or corrupt practices (Lee, 2010). In Zanzibar Khamis et al. (2017) disclose the pressures on coastal environments from population increase, urbanization and expanding tourism and of the failure of ad hoc management practices. Local residents who depend on healthy ecosystems are at risk of losing their livelihoods with a degradation of marine and coastal environments. According to Dwyer (2017: 49) there can be observed a “failure of good governance of coastal and marine tourism in the IOR regionally, nationally and internationally”.

Second, is the ‘dependency’ syndrome as coastal and marine destinations that overspecialize in tourism become vulnerable to crises within particular source markets or over-reliant on a particular tourism product (such as diving or beach recreation). Among others Farsari et al. (2007) highlight the threats of a tourism monoculture and of the imperative for tourism economies to become diversified. Biggs et al. (2015) maintain that the resilience of local tourism enterprises, in terms of their ability to adapt to or continue to function under changing pressures and circumstances, is critical for the future economic health of coastal and marine tourism. Third, is issues of access and infrastructural provision, the inadequacies of which limit the capacity for tourism to drive the potential for local economic development. This situation is especially problematic for peripheral or remote coastal destinations as is well-illustrated by the problems of tourism development along South Africa’s Wild Coast (Kepe et al., 2001; Rogerson, 2019).

When building an infrastructure for tourism development, however, there is a danger if it is penetrating a previously coastal area dramatic transformative changes are set in motion which can result in conflicts between traditional ways of using coastal and marine spaces and of the needs of a modern tourism industry geared to the market expectations of international visitors (Käyhkö et al., 2019). As coastal spaces are not widely understood or respected as places of multiple values, needs and uses, often “new developments take place without the actors properly understanding either how the local communities have valued and used these spaces over the generations or how these traditions can be linked to improved means of development” (Käyhkö et al., 2019: 65).

Four, the impacts of other coastal activities, most notably industrial development, can threaten the integrity of coastal resources such as unpolluted beaches and waters (Gössling et al., 2018). This challenge has surfaced in several IORA states including India, Kenya and South Africa. For Zanzibar Gössling (2001) draws attention to critical infrastructural issues surrounding freshwater resources as a consequence of the demands from tourism. Five, human resource issues represent another critical issue for coastal and marine tourism enterprises because of seasonality and of limited long-term career pathways which result in difficulties in attracting or maintaining skilled personnel in order to sustain service quality and destination competitiveness (Dwyer, 2018).

Six, for the competitiveness of tourism enterprises constant innovation is essential, including for coastal tourism businesses (Booyens, 2016). The ownership pattern in many coastal areas is often with a dominance by certain large enterprises (such as a hotel chain) and accompanied by the proliferation of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), the latter with limited capacity for innovation and abilities to address core issues which constrain local destination development. The consequence of this situation of low levels of innovation is minimal creative potential for new product development and of reduced potential for local solutions addressing the development challenges of coastal destinations (Booyens & Rogerson, 2017; Booyens & Hart, 2019). Seven, as mentioned earlier, the absence of scientific data and regular monitoring of coastal and marine tourism undermines the possibility for informed and evidence-based policy development and reflects more generally poor governance processes

(Dwyer, 2017). This underscores the need for improved data for monitoring tourism development trajectories and impacts in coastal communities as well as a strengthening of research capacity in order to provide evidenced-based analysis to support planning. An emerging body of work is demonstrating the potential of using participatory geospatial methodologies which “offer an opportunity to incorporate a community’s place-based knowledge into the planning process” (Käyhkö, 2019: 65).

Eight, for local entrepreneurs access to finance is a pressing challenge, most especially for those who are seeking to establish or expand their businesses. In coastal areas of Kenya one of the major identified constraints for the development of SMES linked to tourism value chains is that of access to finance (Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis, 2018). In remote areas of coastal Australia, Jacobsen (2017) shows how tourism SMEs operated by indigenous people struggle with issues of limited business skills. In addition to enterprise funding, finance and support is required also for research and development for innovation in order to support more broadly the long-term development of coastal and marine tourism (Hampton, 2013).

Nine, a critical contemporary challenge is that coastal and marine tourism is the segment of tourism most vulnerable and threatened by climate change and to the ramifications of extreme weather events (Moreno & Amelung, 2009; Moreno & Becken, 2009). In the case of Indonesia coastal tourism has been negatively impacted by climate change with many areas described as “really sensitive and vulnerable to the direct and indirect impacts of climate-related disasters” (Wijaya & Furqan, 2018: 535). The threats of advancing climate change and its damage or destruction of tourism attractions are most acute in the context of Small Island Developing States (Hampton & Jeyacheya, 2013, 2014). Rising sea levels and sea temperatures and increased severity of storms result in beach destruction and coral bleaching which degrade the coastal tourism product (Orams & Luck, 2014; Gössling et al., 2018). The threats posed by climate change are of particular concern to those IORA states that are part of the global South where many countries do not perceive climate change as a policy priority (Mertz et al., 2009). As argued by Noome (2020: 28) the heightened vulnerability and a lower adaptive capacity due to differing socio-economic stressors results “in lower income countries, particularly in the Global South, have adaptation requirements that differ to developed countries in the Global North”. Indeed, as is shown in the case of South Africa, in the short run other socio-economic stressors such as poverty or insufficient housing and infrastructure services are considered as higher and immediate policy priorities and of greater significance than pursuing action towards sustainable adaptation against climate change (Pandy & Rogerson, 2020). Ten, an essential pre-requisite for sustainable development is the imperative for economic inclusion and spreading the benefits of tourism growth to local communities with the outcomes for alleviating poverty, enhancing household livelihoods and improving practices for coastal management and conservation. Yet Dwyer (2018: 33) observes “progressive tourism business models that create local economic impacts and conservation incentives are much less developed in coastal areas”. Further reducing the local impacts of certain kinds of coastal tourism is the high level of leakages which occur outside of coastal areas because of the narrow production base in many coastal and marine destinations. This situation constrains the development of ‘pro-poor’ local supply chains (Ashley et al., 2001; Torres & Momsen, 2004; Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis 2018).

Of significance for extending economic inclusion is the particular variant of coastal tourism in destinations. Globally, the economy of coastal and marine tourism “is dominated by mass tourism, involving the movement of large numbers of people on standardized packaged tour holidays” (Dwyer, 2017: 41). Within IORA states the best

examples of such mass coastal tourism are evidenced by ‘integrated’ beach tourism resorts in coastal areas of Kenya, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia and Mauritius. Dwyer (2015) isolates several positive benefits from the growth of this form of coastal and marine tourism which typically involves large groups of international tourists in search of a ‘sea, sun and sand destination’. Among the benefits are those of stimulating local production, contributing to household incomes and standards of living, generating investment in new businesses, and catalysing the emergence of local businesses (Dwyer, 2015).

For other scholars all-inclusive beach resorts represent precisely the opposite of what is understood as ‘inclusive tourism’ (Shaw & Shaw, 1999; Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018). In the context of Zanzibar Murphy (2019) documents clearly the practices and conjunctures of ‘exclusionary development’. It is shown how local enterprises are increasingly marginal in Zanzibar tourism whilst large-scale resorts and non-local firms capture and subsequently offshore much of the value generated by the tourism industry (Murphy, 2019). Beyond the negative impacts of all-inclusive resorts, the all-inclusive cruise ship model of tourism, one which is increasingly expanding in IORA states, is under critical scrutiny for not creating sufficient local linkages for destinations. Cruise ships provide most services on board and, in some cases, even for land excursions occasionally they furnish passengers with food supplies from the ship thus again constraining opportunities for local entrepreneurs (Hampton & Jeyacheya, 2013).

Arguably, in discussing the potential of economic inclusion in coastal and marine tourism there are a variety of different forms or models of coastal tourism that must be unpacked and assessed. Of particular importance is the need to differentiate the impacts and varying possibilities of coastal tourism focussed on international vs domestic or regional tourism, of mass vs alternative forms of tourism, and of high end or luxury forms of tourism vs budget tourism (Rogerson, 2020). Across the experience of 21 IORA states whilst most governments currently focus in tourism development planning on going ‘up-scale’ and seek to attract the markets of high end international tourists or mass international travel, a caution must be sounded as to whether this is the most appropriate choice. Among others Scheyvens (2002a, 2007, 2011) and Hampton (1998, 2003, 2013) draw attention to the promise for an inclusive tourism pathway from targeting alternative forms of tourist such as domestic travellers or providing for the market needs of backpackers which is a tourist niche that most governments continue to ignore in terms of tourism policy (Martins & Costa, 2017).

Scheyvens (2002b: 145) argues that as a whole “there is much to gain from going low” and that governments should re-consider the hegemonic models of tourism policy. Similar sentiments are expressed about the prospects for inclusive coastal tourism development in South Africa where national government policy commitments include promoting inclusive tourism (Rogerson, 2020).

CONCLUSION

Coastal and marine tourism is a vital and expanding segment of the global tourism economy and the recreational use of the sea and coastal sites is expected to grow in future (Carvache-Franco et al., 2020). Across IORA states coastal and marine tourism is acknowledged as a critical sector of the blue economy (Attri & Bohler-Muller, 2018).

Against this backdrop the objective in this article was to scrutinize the role of coastal and marine tourism across IORA and to identify a set of generic policy challenges with a specific focus on economic inclusion. In reviewing the discussion the extraordinary diversity of countries represented in IORA must be acknowledged from Australia or Thailand on the one hand to Yemen or Somalia on the other. UNWTO baseline data on international tourism discloses the uneven spatial development of

tourism across the 21 IORA states. However, UNWTO data masks the role of intra-regional travel or regional tourism which is a major constituent in the tourism economies of several IORA states. Further, the critical role of domestic tourism is hidden in UNWTO data albeit it is larger numerically than international tourism, and demonstrated to be a substantial element in the economy of many coastal destinations.

Arguably, significant assets of coastal and marine tourism offer considerable potential for tourism development across IORA states. Tourism growth is an external factor that is dramatically reshaping many coastal spaces and environments (Käyhkö et al., 2019). It has been highlighted that multiple challenges face the sustainable development of coastal and marine tourism as a whole, including lack of (or inappropriate) planning for coastal area development and the (mis-)management, governance issues, limited innovation, constrained access to finance for enterprise development, absence of data for monitoring, and, the severe threats posed to coastal destinations from advancing climate change. Above all, one critical issue is the imperative for economic inclusion and of achieving a greater spread of the benefits of tourism growth to local communities and especially for marginalised groups. Addressing this challenge of inclusion demands at the outset an improvement in data concerning coastal communities alongside a strengthened research base that incorporates local knowledge to inform planning for economic inclusion through evidence-based findings. In addition, it is contended that for many IORA states it might require also a fundamental rethink of the dominant planning model around encouraging mass international tourism which is often concentrated on all-inclusive resorts. Instead, what is needed is reconsideration of the potential for leveraging benefits from promoting domestic and regional tourism as well as of budget forms of international tourism.

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KAZAKHSTAN'S MULTIETHNICITY: FACTOR OF INTER-ETHNIC TENSION AND DEVELOPMENT OF CROSS-BORDER TOURISM

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Abstract: The Republic of Kazakhstan seeks to strengthen the protection of the country's geopolitical interests. The main focus is to maintain the control over its territory. The Republic of Kazakhstan is a multiethnic state. Ethnic diversity poses the risk of ethnic conflicts and adverse geopolitical consequences. Therefore, defining areas with high potential for interethnic conflict is a priority for geopolitical research. This article discusses issues related to the phenomenon of "ethnic tension". The authors studied the ethnic composition of society, the settlement of ethnic groups and the culture of interethnic communication. Based on the census data and using statistical methods for each ethnic group and region, ethnic tension coefficients for entire country were calculated. Regions with a certain risk of ethnic conflicts were identified according to their values. Maps of Kazakhstan regions with high values of ethnic tension coefficients were compiled using the ArcGIS software. At the same time, ethnic diversity is a valuable resource for developing cross-border tourism.

Key words: ethnic composition, ethnicity, ethnic groups, ethnic tension, ethnic conflict, geopolitics, cross-border tourism, sentimental tourism

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INTRODUCTION

As of early 2019, the population of the Republic of Kazakhstan was 18,395,567. Kazakhstan is a multiethnic country. It is home to Kazakhs, Russians, Uzbeks, Ukrainians, Uighurs, Tatars, Germans, Turks, Koreans, Azerbaijanis, Dungans, Belarusians, Tajiks, Kurds, Chechens, Poles, Bashkirs and other ethnicities. The beginning of the conflict in Ukraine in 2014 sparked another research interest in ethnic situation in Kazakhstan. In his book "The Clash of Civilizations and the remaking of World Order", S. Huntington wrote that: "... The more fundamental divisions of humanity in terms of ethnicity, religions, and civilizations remain and spawn new conflicts" (Huntington, 1996, p. 66). The Republic of Kazakhstan, as a multiethnic state situated at the crossroads of world civilizations, is one of the regions of the planet with potential risks of ethnic conflicts. In this regard, the interaction between ethnic groups in one sociocultural space and searching for mechanism of peaceful communication is a priority issue in contemporary geopolitics (Zupančič et al., 2018). In this situation, the importance of forecasting ethnic conflicts is significantly higher and, consequently, the science is more accountable to society for such forecasts. If growing tensions between ethnic groups in a specific area of the country are foreseen well in advance, it is possible to prevent the conflict and its major consequences. Therefore, research in this field is now more relevant than ever. "Ethnic tension (ET) is characterized as specific mental state of ethnic community, which is formed in the process of reflection by collective ethnic consciousness of a combination of unfavorable external conditions that infringe on the interests of ethnic group, destabilize its position and impede its development" (Asaul et al., 2010).

The purpose of the study is to identify areas of Kazakhstan with high risk of ethnic conflicts, which should be considered in the course of their prevention and resolution. To achieve this goal, the authors successively addressed the following tasks: 1) calculate interethnic tension coefficient based on the analysis of ethnic composition of Kazakhstan population; 2) reflect interethnic tension coefficient data on the map; 3) identify areas with high risk of ethnic conflict. The findings of this study can be used by Kazakhstan Government in implementing demographic and migration policy in order to bring the interethnic tension coefficient in certain regions closer to safe values. The security agencies, local executive bodies and the Assembly of the People of Kazakhstan can also use the findings to enhance the effectiveness of projected and currently implemented activities.

RESEARCH MATERIALS AND METHODS

The risks of ethnic conflict in Kazakhstan were analyzed based on the ethnic composition of the country's population according to the methodology for identifying potential regions of ethno-political disintegration in Table 1 (Asaul et al., 2010; 65-72).

Table 1. Determining interethnic tension (IET) with regard to the influence of ethnic group in the total population of the country (TP) (Data source: Asaul et al., 2010; 65)
(the percentage of a certain ethnic group in the total population is indicated in%)

Scale of interethnic tension levels					
1	2	3	4	5	6
Insignificant IET	Palpable IET	Essential IET	Significant IET	Very strong IET	Extreme IET
0%-0,5%	0,5%-5%	5%-25%	25%-50%	50%-90%	90%-100%

This scale is determined by the specific weight of any ethnicity in the total population of the country. At the first level, the IET is virtually absent and is primarily

manifested in private. At the second level, the ethnic group is in the position of absolute minority and can count on self-governance on non-essential issues (for example, the development of ethnic culture). At the third and fourth levels of IET, ethnic groups within some regions are characterized by a certain predominance and claim a wide range of self-governance. At the fifth and sixth levels of IET, ethnic groups have the most favorable conditions for an absolute and dominant position in all areas of public life within their regions. Regions where, in addition to Kazakhs, there are ethnic groups with IET values of >5 have a risk of being involved in ethnic conflicts. With such high values of IET, the likelihood of separatist sentiments and threats to territorial integrity and unitary structure of the country is significantly greater. The Republic of Kazakhstan is a unitary state with a presidential form of government. The sovereignty of the Republic shall cover the whole of its territory. The state shall ensure the integrity, inviolability, and inalienability of its territory. Regions predominantly populated by the Kazakh ethnic group do not have high risks of ethnic conflicts. Spatial analysis and synthesis of data were performed using the ArcGIS 10.4.1 geographic information system.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Specific IET levels were calculated in several stages. The calculations were made for entire country and by regions. At the stage I, based on the data obtained from the Committee on Statistics of the Ministry of National Economy of the Republic of Kazakhstan, the degree of influence of country's largest ethnic groups on the level of interethnic tension was determined in accordance with the data given in Table 2.

Table 2. The degree of influence of ethnic groups on the level of interethnic tension. The proportion of particular ethnicities in the total population of Kazakhstan at the beginning of 2019, % (Data source: Statistics Committee of the Ministry of National Economy of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2019 [1])

Ethnic group	Number of people	Proportion %	Degree of influence on IET
Kazakhs	12505251	67,98	5
Russians	3 553 232	19,32	3
Uzbeks	590 993	3,21	2
Ukrainians	270916	1,47	2
Uighurs	270916	1,47	2
Tatars	201492	1,10	2
Germans	178029	0,97	2
Turks	112107	0,61	2
Koreans	108396	0,59	2
Azerbaijanis	110341	0,60	2
Dungans	72361	0,39	1
Belarusians	54690	0,30	1
Tajiks	48749	0,27	1
Kurds	46348	0,25	1
Chechens	33318	0,18	1
Poles	30456	0,17	1
Bashkirs	16732	0,09	1
Other	192060	1,04	2

The calculations were made by the author according to the data of Kazakhstan population as of early 2019 obtained from the Committee on Statistics of the Ministry of National Economy of the Republic of Kazakhstan.

At the stage II, the data obtained at stage I (Table 1) were used to determine the interethnic tension coefficient calculated according to formula 1 (Asaul et al., 2010; 65-72):

$$C_{IET} = \frac{DE_{TP} - D'_{IET}}{D''_{IET} - D'_{IET}} + N_{IET}$$

where C_{IET} is the interethnic tension coefficient, DE_{TP} is the proportion (%) of ethnic group in the total population of the country, D'_{IET} is the lower value of the proportion (%) of ethnic group on ET level scale, D''_{IET} is the upper value of the proportion (%) of ethnic group on ET level scale, N_{IET} - level number on ET level scale.

The calculation procedure can be demonstrated by the example of the Kazakh ethnic group the formula 1 (calculation made by the authors):

$$C_{IET} = \frac{67,98 - 50}{90 - 50} + 5 = 5,45 \quad (1)$$

C_{IET} of Kazakhstan's ethnic groups are given in Figure 1.

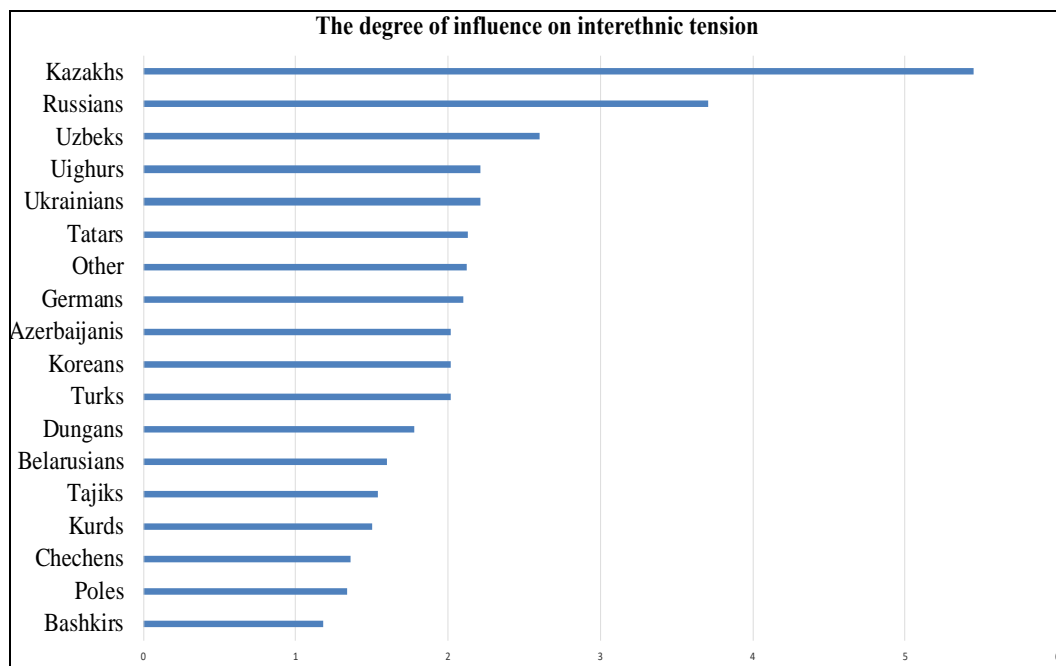


Figure 1. C_{IET} of ethnic groups in Kazakhstan (Source: Statistics Committee of the Ministry of National Economy of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2019 [1])

It was established that at the country level there are only 2 ethnic groups with C_{IET} 3 and higher - Kazakhs and Russians. The proportion of other ethnic groups is roughly identical, and the influence of a particular ethnic group in the multi-ethnic structure of the population is insignificant. At the regional level, due to the densely populated nature of settlements, the picture will be more convincing. Therefore, at the stage III, interethnic tension coefficients regionally exerted by particular ethnic groups were calculated according to formula 1 (based on the proportion in the total population of the region as of early 2019). In terms of administrative structure, the Republic of Kazakhstan is divided into 14 regions and 3 cities of national significance. The results are given in Figure 2.

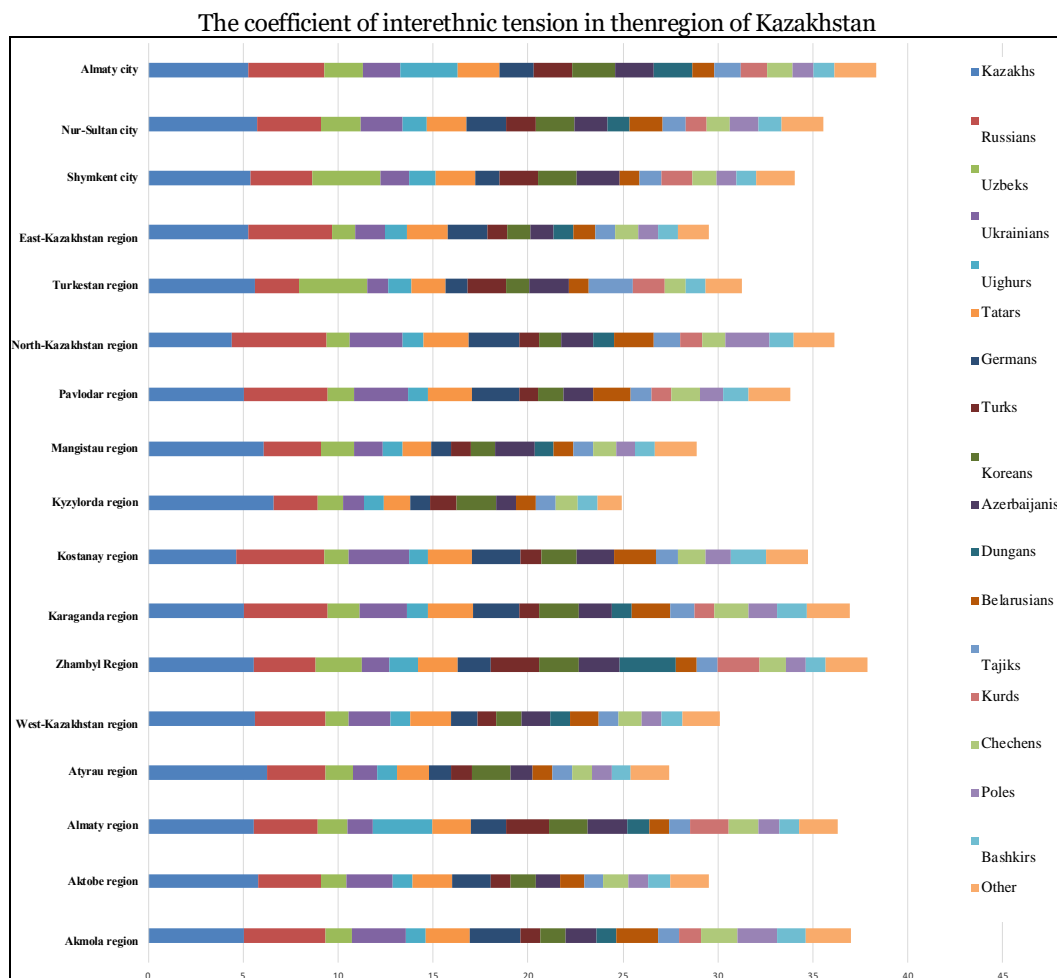


Figure 2. C_{IET} of ethnic groups in the regions of Kazakhstan (Source: Statistics Committee of the Ministry of National Economy of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2019 [1])

The country's population is unevenly distributed. According to Figure 2, the ethnic composition of population in Kazakhstan regions is different and some ethnic groups have interethnic tension coefficient of greater than 3. So, Kazakhs have K_{ET} of more than 3 in all 17 regions, Russians in 15 regions, Uzbeks in 2 regions, Ukrainians in 1 region, Uyghurs in 2 regions, Dungans in 1 region. These results suggest that in certain parts of each region there are areas densely populated by specific ethnic groups and their K_{ET} value will be higher than the average for the country or region. At the stage IV, data on population in administrative areas (districts) of each region were analyzed. The composition of 14 regions includes 163 rural districts, 37 cities of regional significance (1 such city - 1 district). In the cities of national significance, there are distinct urban areas: 4 in Nur-Sultan, 8 in Almaty, 4 in Shymkent. In total, the composition of 216 administrative areas was analyzed.

At this stage, it was established that the proportion of particular ethnic groups in the total population of administrative areas, regions and cities of national significance exceeds 5% and has K_{ET} of > 3 . At the stage V, the authors compiled a map for ethnic groups like Kazakhs, Russians, Uzbeks, Ukrainians, Uyghurs, Germans, Turks, Koreans, Azerbaijanis,

Dungans, Tajiks, Chechens, Poles and Tatars, in order to get a spatial drawing of K_{ET} distribution. Kazakhs have $K_{ET} > 3$ in all 216 administrative areas (Figure 3), Russians in 149 (Figure 4), Ukrainians in 40 (Figure 5), Germans in 25 (Figure 6), Uzbeks in 14, Uighurs in 8 (in 4 districts of Almaty city, Uighur, Talgar, Enbekshikazak and Panfilov districts of Almaty region), Turks in 4 (in Baizak, Zhambyl, Merken and Shu districts of Zhambyl region; in 2 districts of Almaty region - Enbekshikazak and Karasai – the influence Turkish diaspora is close to 5), Koreans in 1 (Karatal district of Almaty region), Azerbaijanis in 1 (Tulkibas district of Turkestan region), Dungans in 2 (Zhambyl and Kordai districts of Zhambyl region), Tajiks in 3 (Zhetysai, Maktaaral and Saryagash districts of Turkestan region), Chechens in 1 (Sandyktau district of Akmola region), Poles in 2 (Astrakhan district of Akmola region and Tayinshi district of North Kazakhstan region), Tatars in 1 (Mamlyut district of North Kazakhstan region) (Figure 7).

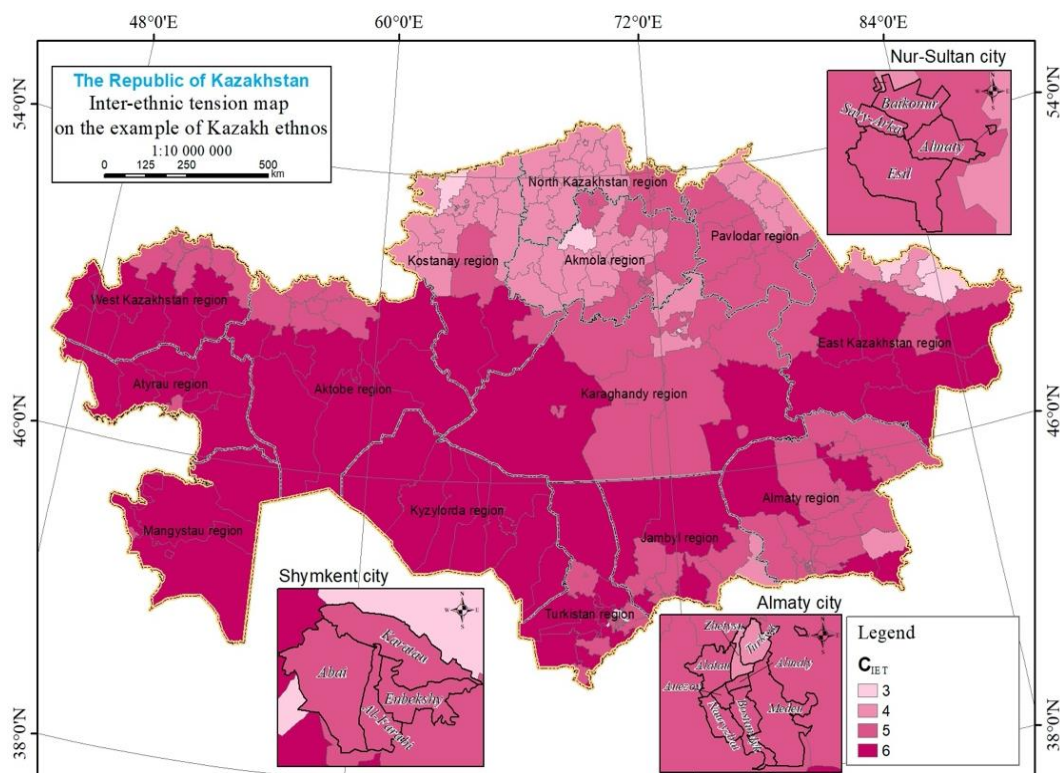


Figure 3. Map of interethnic tension of the Kazakh ethnic group (Source: Statistics Committee of the Ministry of National Economy of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2019 [1])

Areas with high interethnic tension exerted by particular ethnic groups can form entire continuous zones. For instance, one zone of interethnic tension exerted by Kazakh ethnic group extends along the southern Kazakhstan. The second zone in sub-latitudinal direction runs along the northern Kazakhstan from West Kazakhstan to East Kazakhstan region, covering the Karaganda region (Figure 3-6). This zone is formed by ethnic groups like Russians, Ukrainians, Germans, etc. Some ethnic groups form enclave zones of interethnic tension (Tajiks, Dungans, Azerbaijanis, Koreans, Uzbeks, Uighurs, Turks). This phenomenon is mainly seen in southern Kazakhstan (Figure 7). Areas of Tatar, Polish and Chechen ethnic groups are part of the northern zone of interethnic tension.

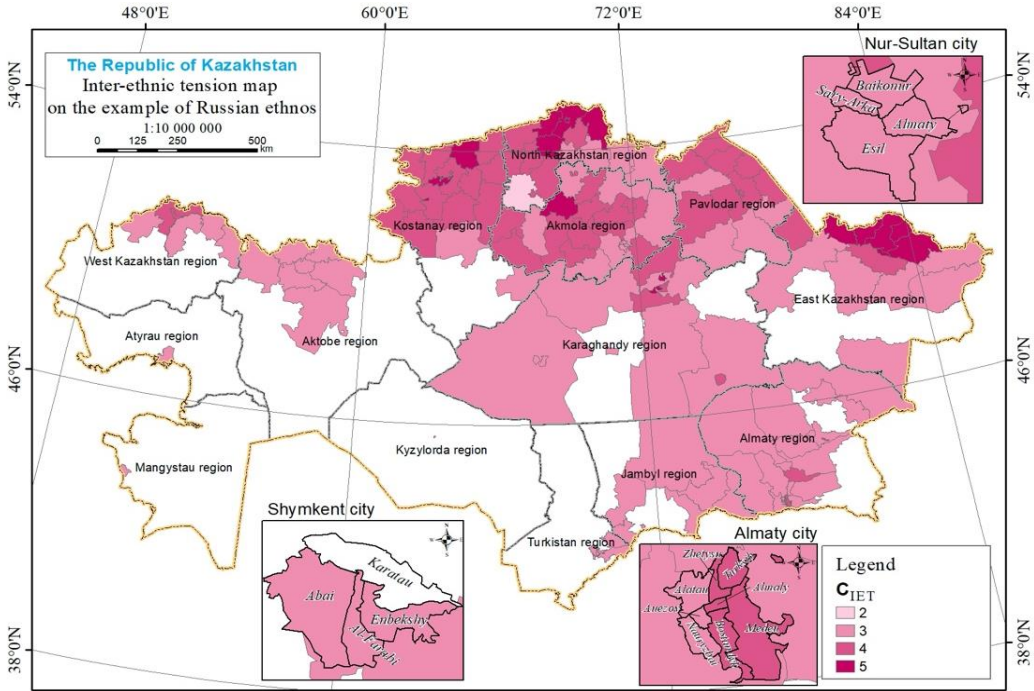


Figure 4. Map of interethnic tension of the Russian ethnus (Source: Statistics Committee of the Ministry of National Economy of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2019 [1])

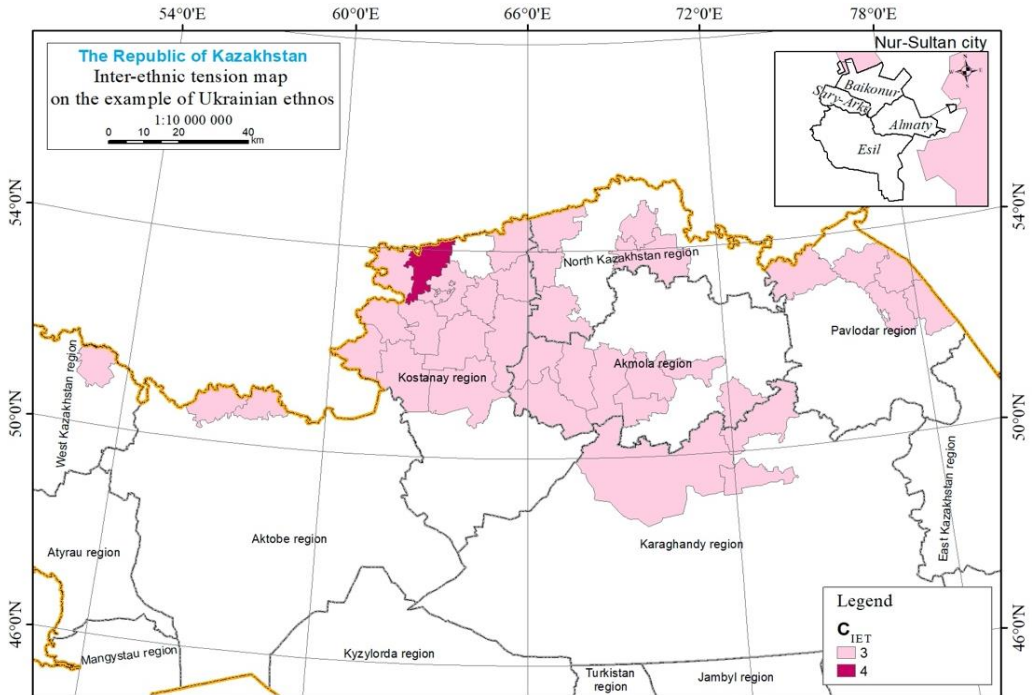


Figure 5. Map of interethnic tension of the Ukrainian ethnic group (Source: Statistics Committee of the Ministry of National Economy of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2019 [1])

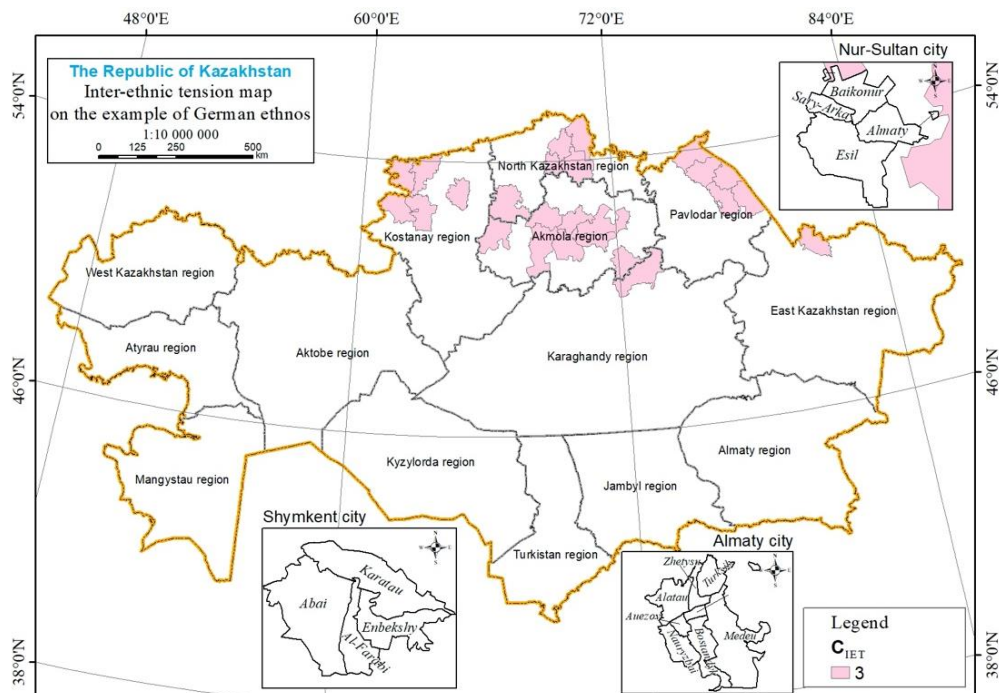


Figure 6. Map of interethnic tension of German Ethnicity (Source: Statistics Committee of the Ministry of National Economy of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2019 [1])

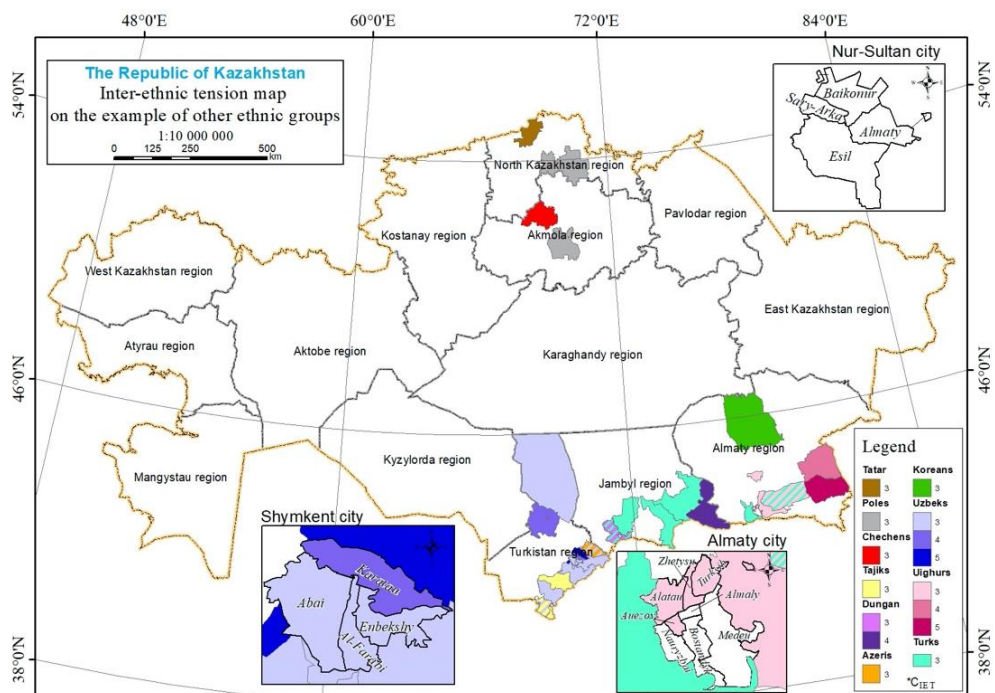


Figure 7. Map of interethnic tension of individual ethnic groups (Source: Statistics Committee of the Ministry of National Economy of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2019 [1])

The northern zone of interethnic tension is also of interest because most ethnic groups (European ethnicities and certain part of other ethnic groups, including Kazakhs, for whom Russian is a first language) comprise the Russian-speaking population, distinguished by Kazakhstan's ethno-political studies as a single major community.

The zones of interethnic tension involving Russian and Uzbek ethnic groups run along the border with Russia and Uzbekistan, the ancestral homelands of these ethnic groups. There are also federation subjects in Russia, which are ancestral homeland for Tatars, Bashkirs and Chechens. The same can be noted for Uighur ethnic group. In the east, Kazakhstan directly borders the Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region of China, which is densely populated by Uighurs. However, Uighurs do not have their own state in China. Countries that are ancestral homeland for Ukrainians, Germans, Koreans, Azerbaijanis, Belarusians, Tajiks and Poles do not have direct border with Kazakhstan.

Table 3. Ethnic conflicts in Kazakhstan

Conflict	Location	Conflicting ethnic groups	Date	C_{iet} of ethnic groups in the region	
Zhanaozen events	Zhanaozen, Mangistau region	Kazakhs vs Lezgins and Chechens	17-28 June 1989	6	1
Clashes in Ust-Kamenogorsk	Ust-Kamenogorsk, East Kazakhstan region	Kazakhs vs Chechens	15 October 1992	4	1
Anti-Caucasus protests in Aktau	Aktau, Mangistau region	Kazakhs vs Lezgins, Chechens and Azerbaijanis	20 August 2006	5	1
Brawl at the Tengiz	Zhylyoi district of Atyrau region, Tengiz oil field	Kazakhs vs Turks (Turkish citizens)	October 2006	6	1
Kazakh-Uighur conflict in Shelek	Shelek village, Almaty region	Kazakhs vs Uighurs	November 2006	5	3
Kazakh-Chechen conflict in Almaty region	Malovodnoe and Kazatkom villages, Enbekshikazakh district, Almaty region	Kazakhs vs Chechens	17-19 March 2007	5	2
Anti-Kurd conflict -in Mayatas village	Mayatas village, Tolebi district of Turkestan region spreading to Sairam and Baidibek districts	Kazakhs vs Kurds	October-November 2007	5	2
Kazakh-Tajik conflict in Bostandyk village	Bostandyk village, Saryagash district of Turkestan region	Kazakhs vs Tajiks	February 2015	5	2
Ethnic clashes between Kazakhs and Turks	Buryl village, Zhambyl region	Kazakhs vs Turks	February 2016	5	3
Fight in the <i>Ancient Rome</i> restaurant	Karaganda	Kazakhs vs Armenians	January 2019	4	<1
Conflict in Masanchi	Masanchi village, Kordai district of Zhambyl region	Kazakhs vs Dungans	7 February 2020	4	4

Georgia is ancestral homeland for Meskhetian Turks. Kurds, originally from Kurdistan, do not have their own state. The study found that the Republic of Kazakhstan has areas with significant risk of ethnic conflicts. Moreover, the modern history of Kazakhstan has witnessed such cases in reality (Table 3).

The analysis of table 3 shows that ethnic conflicts in Kazakhstan occur in rural areas, in places populated by particular ethnic minority. Due to its small size, the ethnic minority seeks to consolidate, has its own economic specialization and organizational effectiveness, and therefore enjoys higher income level. The ethnic majority is unconsolidated and has a wide range of specialization. But due to more dispersed settlement, their standard of living seems to be less favorable. This causes a certain level of cumulative frustration. The start of an open conflict can be triggered by a crime committed either by ethnic minority and ethnic majority.

Zhanaozen events, clashes in Ust-Kamenogorsk, anti-Caucasus protests in Aktau, conflict in restaurant Ancient Rome in Karaganda took place in areas where the proportion of ethnic groups opposing the Kazakhs in the total population is so small that $K_{ET} < 1$. But these cases allow us to conclude that even within settlements with no ethnic neighborhoods and evenly distributed population, there could be public places with temporary or permanent concentration of particular ethnic groups. Within such premises or open spaces, the proportion of ethnic group in the total number of visitors may cause $K_{ET} > 3$. Such places could potentially be the target of ethnic conflicts.

The case of Tengiz brawl is quite new for Kazakhstan because, for the first time since independence, an ethnic conflict took place between Kazakhs and foreign citizens working in our country who have not historically resided here (Turkish citizens).

A review of the conflicting ethnic groups shows that since Kazakhstan became independent state, there have been no ethnic conflicts between diasporas. All conflicts occurred between Kazakhs and Diasporas. This allows us to argue that the likelihood of conflicts between the dominant and non-dominant ethnic groups is higher than between two non-dominant ethnic groups. However there are Diasporas whose ancestral homeland are in a state of conflict (Armenians - Azerbaijanis, Russians - Ukrainians). It is explained by the fact that in Kazakhstan, Armenians mostly reside in major cities in the northern zone, while Azerbaijanis live in southern rural areas. A significant part of Ukrainians became assimilated with the Russian ethnic group and this fact reduces the interethnic tension. But in Zhambyl, Almaty and Turkestan regions, in cities like Almaty, Taraz and Shymkent, Turkish and Kurdish communities reside closely and densely. This should also be taken into consideration when implementing state ethnic policies.

Since the 1990s, no open conflicts have been recorded between the two largest ethnic groups of the country - Kazakhs and Russians. This is due to the fact that both have lived together for centuries, have relatively identical standard of living and education, certain level of "Soviet inter-ethnic upbringing", reside together across the country without forming densely populated ethnic settlement areas.

Political expert Gulmira Ileuova notes (2016, [2]) that potential conflict between Kazakhs and Russians is typically talked about mainly in terms of a possible confrontation between two countries - Kazakhstan and Russia. In the southern zone of interethnic tension exerted by Kazakh ethnic group (Figure 3), as a result of the efforts by ethnic Kazakh activists, the issues of language, history and identity become politicized, which creates preconditions for growing ethnic discrepancies.

The Republic of Kazakhstan has a paramount task to maintain well-balanced relations between ethnic groups living in the country, which form the population of Kazakhstan, and to gradually reduce the level of interethnic tensions. We explored the reasons and significance of raising interethnic tolerance in the conditions of poly-ethnic

Kazakhstan, as well as the theoretic and practical bases of a tolerant personality development in the globalizing world (Togaibayeva et al., 2016; Banshchikova et al., 2015; Jackman, 1997; Soldatova, 1998; Yarakhimova, 2001). So the development of cross-border cooperation and various contacts outside the state is observed.

It is important to study of the integration processes and influence of border on its further development especially in such questions as economy, policy, culture and interethnic tension. Timely adaptation to constantly changing external conditions of managing by means of border and cross-border development of regions is necessary (Ogneva, 2015; Cherkovets, 1998; Kindleberger, 1966; Perkmann, 2002). Aiming to achieve homogeneous ethnic composition of the population in order to reduce ET level is fundamentally ineffective. Therefore, the society and the government must implement other appropriate ways to harmonize ethnic relations. One such effective way is tourism. It expands the interaction between different cultures, develops cooperation mechanisms at the international level, serves as a channel for disseminating cultural and educational models focused on openness and mobility, and is considered as an important tool for managing the intercultural dialogue.

Over the years of independence, more than 4 million people have left the Republic of Kazakhstan. Major migration flows include countries like Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Uzbekistan, Russia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, USA, Germany, Greece, Israel, Iran, Canada, China, Latvia, Lithuania, Mongolia, Turkey and Estonia. Social networks and the media frequently publish that people who leave the country wish to return and visit the places where they were born and lived. On the other hand, some of them still have relatives in Kazakhstan.

This situation creates conditions for developing sentimental tourism. Some researchers in their studies note that sentimental tourism is characterized by feelings such as nostalgia and homesickness (Kozoviy, 2018). Due to precedents such as Germans, Jews and Russians visiting Kazakhstan for sentimental tourism, travel agencies may add additional specialization, and entertainment sector companies may offer nostalgia products (style, design, repertoire). Depending on ethnic composition of the population, each region can specialize in targeting a particular set of ethnic groups (Li Yang, 2011). However, he writes that tourists prefer authentic cultural activities and overly commercialized performances displease visitors and devalue local traditions.

Therefore, hospitality sector organizations need to include authentic sites for sentimental tourism purposes. Among them holy places. The legacy created by multiple generations of ethnic groups becomes sacred. For example, there is major center of Catholicism situated in the village of Ozernoye in Tayynshi District of North Kazakhstan Region. It was founded in 1936 by Poles deported to Kazakhstan from Volyn. When the residents faced the hunger threat, springs suddenly clogged in the vicinity of the village forming a 5-7 km lake full of fish (Nazarova et al., 2019). This event dates from the Annunciation day – 25 March 1941 – and is considered a miracle. In 1954, the status of special settlers began to ease. And in 1956 the restrictions on residents of Ozernoye were completely lifted. At the same time (in 1955), the miraculous lake dried up, but the channel through which a stream of water passed in 1941 is still visible.

The parish and temple of Matki Bożej Królowej Pokoju were created in the village. In 1998, a cross was put up on the Volyn hill - a monument to all victims of repression in Kazakhstan. Benedictine monks from Switzerland and Carmelite nuns from Czestochowa arrived and live here. On 11 July 2011, the parish in Ozernoye was officially declared the national sanctuary of the Holy Mother the Queen of Peace, the

patroness of Kazakhstan. The sanctuary is a place of mass pilgrimage for Catholics from all over the country. International meetings of Catholic youth are held here.

Regarding the sentimental tourism, it is worth noting the opinion of Volodymyr Krool, Anatolii Vdovichen, Roman Hyshchuk that many facilities of historical and cultural heritage have great potential, but are not used widely (Krool et al., 2018).

Friendship centers under the Assembly of the People of Kazakhstan and ethnic-cultural centers can serve as research institutions and resource centers for sentimental tourism (Herman et al., 2019). The friendship centers under the Assembly of the People of Kazakhstan were opened and operate in all regions of the country. The Republican Friendship Center is located in Almaty. In total, there are 12 regional, 7 urban and 13 district friendship centers in the country. Also, there are 321 ethnic-cultural centers. Almost every ethnic group living in Kazakhstan run such centers as public associations.

The development of sentimental tourism can have the following effects on harmonizing ethnic relations:

- full participation of all ethnic communities and groups living in Kazakhstan in all areas of public life;
- facilitating the traditional forms of labor of ethnic communities and groups in the regions (folk arts and crafts);
- forming and spreading the ideas of interethnic and interfaith harmony and cooperation, spiritual unity and patriotism;
- holding workshops, competitions, events and research projects aimed to revive and promote the best traditions and customs of ethnic groups living in the regions of Kazakhstan, using them in educating the young generation, promoting self-awareness based on unifying values and common historical past of all people of Kazakhstan.

Another promising area of tourism development is a cross-border tourism (Bar-Kořelis et al., 2018; Derlaga et al., 2006; Krasnoyarova et al., 2019). It is unique in a sense that it also satisfies the needs of sentimental tourism. Many border areas are already becoming a model of integration of ethnic groups, not only under the influence of economic, social and political factors, but also common cultural and value orientations. This is an important condition for reducing interethnic tension.

For example, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, it was the tourism sector that showed the greatest potential for post-conflict development, but still needs additional research (Causevic et al., 2013, Farmaki, 2016). Kazakhstan has borders with Russia, China, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan, which are the ancestral homeland for several ethnic groups living in Kazakhstan. In turn, numerous Kazakh Diasporas live in these countries. The participation of bordering countries in cross-border tourism should be of mutual priority, there should not be any significant imbalances in contributing to its development (Krotov et al., 2019). This notion is supported by studies conducted by Zoltán Bujdosó, Lóránt Dávid, Dorottya Varga, Altynbek Zhakupov, Ádám Gyurkó and János Péntes (Bujdosó et al., 2015).

The forms of cross-border tourism vary from region to region. Sentimental tourism, shopping, scientific (Koshim et al., 2019) and wide range of recreation activities are the priority forms of tourism between Kazakhstan and Russia, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan. The shopping in China is intensively developing. The tourism cooperation with Turkmenistan is poor due to the closed nature of neighboring state. Cross-border tourism is very sensitive to international security (Anyu Liu et al., 2017).

It is already possible to start promoting some areas currently developing in Europe, such as bicycle touring and varieties of eco-tourism (Vujko, 2013; Mazhitova et al., 2018).

In terms of cross-border tourism development, we believe that what needs to be done is to identify key cities and invest in their development.

These could include Uralsk-Samara, Aktobe-Orenburg, Kostanay-Chelyabinsk, Petropavlovsk-Omsk-Pavlodar, Ust-Kamenogorsk-Barnaul, Almaty-Bishkek, Shymkent-Tashkent. Cross-border tourism needs the same support of all countries that have common borders, Diasporas and other communities. Such support is especially needed by countries that belong to different political systems (Studzieniecki et al., 2007).

Thanks to the cross-border tourism development, countries will enjoy a multiplier effect both in terms of harmonization of ethnic relations and the economy.

CONCLUSION

As a result of the study, a statistical analysis of regional contrasts was carried out and it was found that the current interethnic situation in the country can be described as complex and dynamic, varying from region to region. The cartographic method helped to identify two continuous zones of ethnic tension of sub-latitudinal strike and several enclave areas in the Republic of Kazakhstan. Ethnic conflicts took place in areas with $K_{ET} > 3$. They were mostly seen in small rural settlements. Therefore, it is necessary to pay attention to interethnic relations at the micro level to prevent ethnic conflicts more effectively. The major limitation in presenting the results of the study was an informal taboo on the issue of interethnic relations in the Republic of Kazakhstan and the need to observe political correctness. The aim of the study - to determine the spatial boundaries of interethnic tension zones – was a limitation to some extent.

In this regard, the in-depth nature of ethnic conflicts was not considered. Ethnic diversity is not only a factor of tension, but also an opportunity to develop the hospitality sector. Sentimental and cross-border tourism are important tools for harmonizing interethnic relations. The regions of the country have sufficient capacity for its development. It is also appropriate to look at the experience of European countries. The results of the study can be used to assess the state of interethnic relations, correct policies implemented by government agencies and local executive bodies of the Republic of Kazakhstan, as well as to develop special courses in political geography and geopolitics. In this context, promising direction is to determine a “fault zone” in Kazakhstan between the Orthodox and Muslim civilizations.

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MAKING LOCAL PRODUCT ATTRACTIVE: THE ROLE OF INDIGENOUS VALUE IN IMPROVING MARKET PERFORMANCE

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Abstract: This study scrutinizes the overlooked role of indigenous value as the prime constituent of product attractiveness and demonstrate how the indigenous products' value adds to its market performance in the highly dynamic work environment. Data was collected by a mean of questionnaires which was distributed to 176 Small and Medium Enterprises producing indigenous products. The tool of analysis used was partial least square (PLS). The findings showed that indigenous product attractiveness mediates the relationship between market sensing capability and marketing performance. Nonetheless, the relationship between innovative capability and product attractiveness was not supported.

Key words: market sensing capability, innovation capability, indigenous product attractiveness, and marketing performance

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INTRODUCTION

The tourism market plays a crucial role in both developed and developing countries (Sigala, 2018). Identifying, promoting, and integrating natural, original and traditional heritage in tourism development planning is essential (Ilieş et al., 2010). The purchase of souvenirs is one of tourism spending, as a sign of functional interaction between tourists and the host country (Sims, 2009). Past studies indicated that the purchase of souvenirs represents 80% of tourism spending (Dagooc, 2010), with estimated annual revenue of \$ 17 billion (www.hoovers.com). A country that relies on the tourism industry makes more than \$ 30 million a year from selling souvenirs alone. It is apparent that local products play a fundamental role in fostering economic development, especially in developing countries (Chambers et al., 2007). Therefore, indigenous product has received tremendous attention among scholars worldwide.

However, some studies revealed a deficiency of interest in indigenous products in emerging market economies. The domestic consumers place higher preferences on imported goods while perceiving local products as possessing lower quality and less attractive (Ayob & Hussain, 2016; Dyah & Korry, 2017). Therefore, small businesses (SME) indulging in local products face challenging tasks on how to gain local and international customers' attention through product attractiveness.

Previous researchers have explored factor related to product attractiveness, such as adding features (Angelis et al., 2009), consumer's need adaptability, unfamiliar product (Schnurr et al., 2017), and product innovation (Pono et al., 2019). Meanwhile, in today's rapid business change, making the product attractive is more challenging tasks because consumers are more demanding than ever. They are not only expecting a reasonable price with good quality products but looking for more emotional values. The product connected with indigenous cultures could produce more emotional value to consumers (Chen et al., 2017). However, to our knowledge, there was a little body of research that focused on this issue. Addressing this gap, this study empirically examined the new concept of indigenous product attractiveness on improving SMEs' market performance.

The term of indigenous product is an artifact designed and used by a particular community of people such as tools, clothing, crafts, and goods (Dormer, 1997). Indigenous product is an invented artifact that produces by humans or the community of people whose goals were to fulfill their needs for everyday life. It typically represents the regional identity where the artifacts were created. It is the root of the new invention for future products (Shaari, 2015). The indigenous product creates emotional value, which may engage customer attractiveness. Indigenous product attractiveness consists of three distinguished indicators, and there are indigenous style, indigenous motive, and indigenous design (Setyawati, 2018). Indigenous value could improve product attractiveness through cultural connections between the product and people.

So, indigenous product attractiveness can become one of the critical differentiation strategies in today's competitive marketplace. In the present study, we suggest that indigenous product attractiveness may be an important mediating mechanism that explains how market sensing and innovation capability on market performance. However, only a few studies focused on market sensing and innovation capability in the SME context (Wardani & Widodo, 2020).

Since SMEs tend to have intense personal contact with their customers (Coviello et al., 2000), the market sensing capability and innovation capability become the fundamental factors for SMEs that lead to better performance (Verreneey et al., 2019).

Indonesia is an emerging country that provides many distinctive cultures. Consequently, the growth of local products increasing rapidly. Regarding this issue, the

Indonesian government promotes "one village one product" (OVOP) program to improve the competitive advantage of local products. The primary goal of OVOP is to encourage the use of local resources (e.g., nature, people, and technology), rely on the indigenous value of the local community in order to make the product more attractive.

Finally, this research has several contributions. First, this is the premier research that revealed the importance of indigenous product attractiveness – as the integrating of indigenous value and product attractiveness- on SMEs' market performance. Second, this study investigated the extent to which market sensing capability and innovation capability related to market performance with indigenous product attractiveness as a mediating variable. Based on the resource-based view theory, we proposed a new theoretical model of product attractiveness from the marketing perspective. This study also provides implications and suggestions for future research.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Market Sensing Capability and Marketing Performance

Marketing performance is part of organizational performance. Marketing performance is a measure of the performance of activities throughout a company's marketing process. Also, marketing performance can be viewed as a concept used to measure the extent to which market success can be achieved with a product manufactured by the company. Day (1994) emphasizes the need to design the market sensor as an organizational learning ability to drive strategic marketing, knowing customers, competitors and channel members to respond to market events and trends. Huber (1991) describes Market Sense as a company's ability to acquire and disseminate knowledge and use market intelligence when needed for organizational change.

In Day (1994; 2002), Market Sensing can be divided into three sub-processes: (i) sensing, (ii) sensory production and (iii) response. In a nutshell, meaning refers to the acquisition of information about consumers, competitors and other channel members, while meaning refers to the interpretation of information gathered from past experiences and knowledge. The answers relate to the use of information collected and interpreted during decision making. In other words, through unacknowledged reactions, information and knowledge become visible marketing actions.

Day (2002) stresses that the process of entering the market in market-oriented companies is more systematic, prudent and proactive than in other companies where this process is more ad hoc, reactive, limited and diffuse. Day (2002) organizations that dominate market recognition activities achieve competitive advantage and superior business performance. In other words, a company's ability to learn about its market environment and accurately use this information to guide its actions is a key factor in business performance (Vorhies & Morgan, 2005). The market sensing capability is important in developing market focus to enhance the organizational performance (Bouguerra, 2020; Ahmed et al., 2017; Ardyan, 2016; Foley, 2004; Lindblom et al, 2008).

H1: market sensing capability influences positively on Indigenous product attractiveness

H3: market sensing capability influences positively on marketing performance

Innovation Capability and Marketing Performance

Product innovation has been widely studied in the field of marketing. Product innovation is considered a key driver for success in the market through a series of key initiatives. The initiative is the ability and success to be the first in marketing new products and new services, capabilities, and success that are considered very important by

the customer, ability and success in introducing more innovative products and services, capabilities and success to bring faster new products and services to the market (Akgün et al., 2014; Avlonitis & Salavou, 2007; Banerjee, 2002). Product innovation is the key to organizational renewal and success (Slater et al., 2013). Product innovation is goods, services, and ideas that are perceived as something new and different from goods, services, and ideas that have been there before (Solomon & Stuart, 1997).

This innovation is an attempt by the company to prevent market saturation as well as by increasing the attractiveness of products with innovation. Companies certainly want their products to be different from competitors. Innovations are made based on differences not shared by competitors (Bharadwaj et al., 1993). Therefore, innovation can make the products offered by the company have high attractiveness. According to (Kartajaya, 2004), differentiation is all the efforts made by companies to create differences among competitors to provide the best value for consumers.

Innovation can only happen if the company has the ability to innovative (Laforet, 2011). Innovation capability has a role in improving marketing performance. In the perspective of RBV innovation capability is seen as a company's unique competence in adopting new products, new methods, solving problems through something new and speed in responding to change (Acquaah & Agyapong, 2015; Lawson & Samson, 2001).

According to Lawson and Samson (2001) innovation capability is a basic element in developing innovative output. According to the innovation of Adler and Shenbar (1990) innovation capability is defined as (1) the capacity to develop new products meet market needs; (2) the ability to apply appropriate process technologies to produce these new products; (3) the ability to develop and adopt new products and processes technologies to meet future needs; (4) and the ability to respond to accidental technological activities and unexpected opportunities created by competitors. Innovation capability leads organization to develop innovations continuously to respond the changing market environment (Slater et al., 2010) and its embedded with all the strategies, system and structure that support innovation in an organization (Gloet & Samson, 2016). Previous research states that innovation shows that using traditional resources and capabilities to innovate can produce significant benefits for some industries (Presenza et al., 2019). Innovation capability mediates the relationship between customer orientation and business performance (Huhtala et al., 2014).

H2: innovation capability influences positively on Indigenous product attractiveness

H4: innovation capability influences positively on marketing performance

Indigenous Product Attractiveness and Marketing Performance

Cultural product representations play an important role in creating and reflecting the cultural identity of many cultures throughout the world. These cultural products are considered unique, so they have their charm. The results of previous studies show that the purchase intention of handmade products is higher when the product is used as a gift for close people. They do not consider the price, but rather look at the quality of the product (Fuchs et al., 2015). The attraction is a derivative of social cognitive theory in which the Social Cognitive Theory. Attractiveness is the capacity to cause interest and attract or gain the attention of another party. In a business context, this means that a provider or receiver can attract others' attention, resulting in increased loyalty and improved performance in the relationship (Kim et al., 2020). Baczyńska et al. (2018) revealed attractiveness level was showed by uniqueness, differentiation, interest and curiosity. Indigenous Product Attractiveness defined as product attributes reflected in local culture (Setyawati, 2018). Indicators of the Indigenous Product Attractiveness variables

are indigenous motive attractiveness, indigenous style attractiveness, and indigenous symbol attractiveness. The addition of features to the product is known to be able to increase the attractiveness of the product, but this happens if the addition of these features is following the product (Angelis et al., 2009). Product attractiveness is recognized as a strategic factor to improve marketing performance; the attractiveness of the product must be maintained by incorporating several acculturative attributes (Ferdinand & Fitriani, 2015). Formally, we hypothesize the following:

H5: Indigenous product attractiveness can increase marketing performance

Based on the complete and in-depth literature, a research model can be developed as in Figure 1.

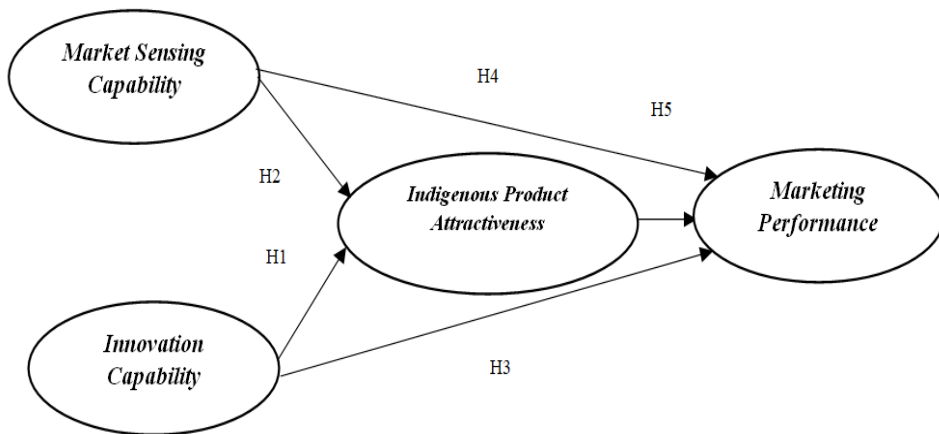


Figure 1. The conceptual model of relationship between market sensing capability and innovation capability to marketing performance through indigenous product attractiveness as a mediating variable

METHODOLOGY

This paper followed a cross-sectional quantitative study. The data was collected through questionnaires. In total, 14 items were used to examine the relationship between market sensing capability, innovation capability, indigenous product attractiveness, and marketing performance. The items used to measure Market sensing capability can be divided into three-item, learning about the environment, tracking competitor strategy, understanding the market trend, responsive. The items used to measure Innovation capability can be divided into three-item new product or service innovation, methods of production or rendering of services, risk-taking by key executives, Seeking unusual and novel solutions (Miller & Friesen, 1983). Indigenous product attractiveness measure by indigenous motive attractiveness, indigenous style attractiveness, indigenous symbol attractiveness (Setyawati, 2018). Marketing performance measure by three-item, sales growth, consumer growth, sales volume (Song & Parry, 1997). Both groups were measured using the ten-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 10 = strongly agree). All of the survey items were translated from English into Indonesian language using a method of forwarding and backward translation (Brislin, 1970). Implementation of this method includes the following steps: forward translation, back-translation expert panel, pre-testing and cognitive interviewing, and final version. The population in this study was 176 SMEs from batik industry located in Central Java. The survey was carried out from January 1st to October 1st, 2019. Convenience sampling method were employed to distributed 176 questionnaires and

only 100 questionnaires were adequately filled. Thus respond rate for the survey is 56,8%. The study used PLS through the SmartPLS 3.0 software to test the hypothesis.

RESULTS DISCUSSIONS

Market sensing capability and innovation capability indicators are all valid with factor loading exceeds 0.7. Indigenous product attractiveness and marketing performance were assessed with three items indicators, and all indicators are considered valid since factors loading exceeds 0.7. As shown in Table 1 was the results of Measurement Model Evaluation Results.

Table 1. Measurement Model Evaluation Results

Constructs / Indicators	Factor Loading
Market sensing capability, CR 0,932; AVE 0,774	
We are able to identify the environment, such as customers and markets.	0,905
We are able to identify competitors' strategies	0,833
We are able to identify new business trends	0,911
We are able to quickly capture the changes that occur	0,869
Innovation capability, Miller & Friesen (1983), CR 0,917; AVE 0,734	
We are able to create new products or services	0,829
We are able to innovate in production methods or service delivery	0,827
We are able to take risks on decisions to innovate	0,853
We are able to find solutions through unusual methods or new solutions.	0,915
Indigenous product attractiveness, CR 0,851; AVE 0,657	
We have interesting local specialties styles	0,908
We have interesting local specialties motives	0,792
We have interesting local specialties symbols	0,722
Marketing performance, Song dan Parry (1997:3), CR 0,938; AVE 0,835	
Our company's sales have increased.	0,952
Our company has a higher growth in the number of customers.	0,862
Our company's sales growth has increased.	0,925

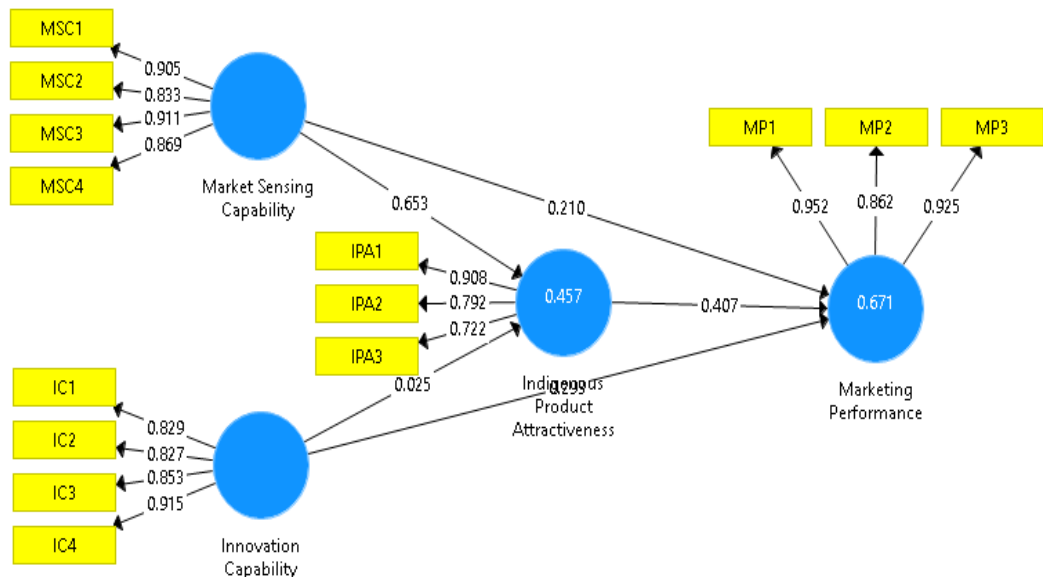


Figure 2. Outer Model

Table 2. Inner Model Relationship Coefficient

Relationship	Original Sample estimate	Standard deviation	T-statistic
Market sensing capability → Indigenous product attractiveness	0,653	0,206	3,169
Innovation capability → Indigenous product attractiveness	0,025	0,204	0,901
Market sensing capability → marketing performance	0,210	0,161	1,303
Innovation capability → marketing performance	0,293	0,195	1,508
Indigenous product attractiveness → marketing performance	0,407	0,117	3,494

Based on the result of the inner model analysis, as shown in Table 2, hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported. As expected Market sensing capability has a positive and significant influence (t-value 3,169 > t-table) on indigenous product attractiveness, and indigenous product attractiveness has a positive and significant influence (t-value 3,494 > t-table) on marketing performance. So, the mediation is partial. But the relationship between innovation capability and indigenous product attractiveness is statistically insignificant (0,901 < t-table). Therefore, the H2 hypothesis is not accepted. The result of mediation analysis is presented in table 2 as follows.

Table 3. Result of Mediation Analysis

Relationship	p-value	Effect
Market sensing capability → Indigenous product attractiveness → marketing performance	0.266	Not mediated
Innovation capability → Indigenous product attractiveness → marketing performance	0.010	Full mediating

CONCLUSION

In this study, we focused on the role of market sensing capability and innovation capability in fostering marketing performance by exploring the mediating effect of indigenous product attractiveness. Consistent with our expectations that market sensing capability has a positive and significant influence on indigenous product attractiveness. In addition, it is also known that and indigenous product attractiveness has a positive and significant influence on marketing performance.

Another significant contribution of this study is to provide empirical evidence that indigenous product attractiveness mediates the relationship between market sensing capability and marketing performance. Analysis of market opportunities is very important because companies need to know the number of opportunities available in marketing their products and can determine whether the market is large enough to support other products and still make a profit. The success of the company in achieving its goals and objectives is very important by companies that advance their products, to advance the market in the future that is needed. Analyzing market opportunities is also to make a decision whether the company will continue to increase its activities by increasing its productivity or having to leave the market.

Market opportunity analysis is a research process of external environmental factors that affect the company's business activities. The external environment is an uncontrollable force, so companies must adapt, and also produce challenges and opportunities. Companies must be careful in analyzing their environment in order to

avoid challenges and take advantage of opportunities. To increase sales volume and compete for a large market, the company must use appropriate policies to obtain market opportunities that exist. Next the company must see the potential of the market.

Companies that care deeply about their markets will learn about consumers, competitors and distribution channels. Because they have a better ability than their competitors in the trends, both current and future. In the batik business, entrepreneurs must be able to analyze the market, so they can create batik that has an indigenous appeal and is expected to improve performance. But, indigenous product attractiveness not mediates the relationship between market sensing capability and marketing performance.

Innovation is usually associated with developing something new and has the potential to attract consumers in the market. Contrary to prediction and different from previous research (Ferdinand & Fitriani, 2015) the relationship between innovation capability and indigenous product attractiveness is statistically insignificant. Attractive products resulting from innovation require large costs and also a long time.

Such as *batik* products, where when the demand for batik products goes up a long time in the manufacturing process requires innovation so that it is fast in the manufacturing process, namely with batik stamp. But the printed *batik* needs a stamp that is not cheap and reduces indigenous appeal. Surprisingly, indigenous product attractiveness fully mediates the relationship between innovation capability and marketing performance. It means innovation capability could increase marketing performance, only if the Batik SMEs could make the indigenous and attractive product. Products with cultural values or in this case referred to as indigenous are seen as unique products that have the potential to attract consumers.

Implications

This research provides several academic and practical contributions. First, by using indigenous product attractiveness as a mediating variable, it gives a novelty for further research. Second, this study also provides guidelines for practitioners, especially in small businesses. This study concludes that market sensing capability innovation capability can increase marketing performance. Moreover, indigenous product attractiveness as a mediating variable provides a fresh finding and it made a significant contribution to the research. To make attractive products, entrepreneurs must have high market sensing capabilities. So that marketing performance will increase, through an increase in profits. And the owner must increase the innovation capability level to increase marketing performance through indigenous product attractiveness.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This study contains several limitations and can be further developed in the future. We discuss limitations and some possible new contributions to future research. First, one of the limitations of the cross-section method is that it cannot prove a causal relationship. Therefore, a longitudinal design is needed. Second, We limited the respondent only owner of *Batik* SMEs, further research must be expand to more general SMEs and use large size sample with the owner of handicraft as respondents.

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Making Local Product Attractive: The Role of Indigenous Value in Improving Market Performance

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REVISITING SPORT AND TOURISM INTERRELATIONSHIPS: THE CASE OF CAMEROON

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Abstract: This study seeks to examine the nature of sport and tourism interrelationships in Central Africa, using Cameroon as a case study area. Using a mixed-method research paradigm, the study assesses such linkages within a complex socio-political environment on the basis that such interrelationships have been studied from a developed world context where the socio-political environment is conducive to sport tourism development, unlike in the current study. Questionnaire surveys (n=1186) were conducted with sport tourism event attendees in four major events in Cameroon, complemented by interviews with key resource personnel (n=16) in the industry. The key findings indicate that the interrelationships between sport and tourism in this context are relatively weak, especially at the policy and planning levels, despite there being potential for strengthening of these at the local operational level for sustainable tourism development. Additionally, such interrelationships between sport and tourism present unique challenges that are informed by the developing world context of the study and thus require a rethink in planning and management.

Key words: Tourism, Sport tourism interrelationships, Tourism development, Sustainable tourism planning, Cameroon

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INTRODUCTION

The interrelationship between sport and tourism has been explored by many scholars who have noted how the growth in the popularity of sport, as well as the notable development of global tourism, have resulted in the recognition of sport tourism as a relevant field of focus for governments and academics alike (see works by Getz, 2013; Hemmonsby & Tichaawa, 2018; 2019; Walker et al., 2013; Tichaawa et al., 2018; Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018b; 2018c). Such a growth, mainly attributed to the bidding for, and hosting of sport tourism events, has been as a result of the more perceptible and

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synergetic relationship between sport and tourism generally (Kennelly & Toohey, 2014; Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011). This relationship has led to an increased academic focus on the existing overlaps between the two, with a view to highlighting the notable growth of the niche area of sport tourism (Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018a; Nyikana, 2016; Getz, 2013; Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011). According to research conducted by Weed and Bull (2004), whilst the sport tourism niche has been topical in both academic and political spheres, most research on the phenomenon has stressed how, historically, the two domains have only been looked at as simply an overlap, and not necessarily mutually beneficial and interlinked disciplines. Resultantly, Kennelly and Toohey (2014) argue that the result has been that academic analysis of sport tourism has lacked comprehensiveness and has tended to be geographically skewed towards the resourceful Global North.

This is, in spite of the fact that there has been a notable increase in the number of developing countries who actively and aggressively participate in sport tourism through the regular hosting of sport tourism events (Hemmonsbeey & Tichaawa, 2019; Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018c; Nyikana, 2016; Gibson et al., 2012; Swart & Bob, 2007). The main goal of such hosting is linked to the perceived associated tourism benefits especially in areas such as infrastructure improvement, branding and socio-economic restructuring of rural and urban destinations (Higham & Hinch, 2002; Honari et al., 2010; Hemmonsbeey & Tichaawa, 2018; Ilies et al., 2018a,b; Marcu et al., 2020). Despite this increased engagement, we argue in this paper that there remain major challenges for sport tourism development in the developing context. In terms of research, what has largely been lacking has been an investigation of the interrelationship between the two disciplines, given the different socio-economic, environmental and political dynamics that manifest themselves relative to the Global North. In addition the situation in the African geography is even more complex, with some destinations known to be more resourceful than others. Ciampicacigli and Maresca (2004) argue that the main challenge with developing nations is that they have not up to this point made sport tourism development one of their points of focus for destination planning.

As an example, Kennelly and Toohey (2014) point out how the agencies and ministries responsible for sport and tourism respectively have often not recognised the importance of collaborating, especially in relation to policy, planning and the implementation of said policies. Consequently, Weed and Bull (2004) opine that development endeavours fail, despite shared interests between the two areas. Specifically, for Tichaawa, Bob and Swart (2018) the lack of planning and the limited purposeful effort put into consolidating the interlinkages between tourism and sport, to accrue mutual benefits, is still largely lacking in the developing, and particularly African context. Moreover et al. (2010) have affirmed that while in the cases where there has been purposeful collaboration, which has yielded relatively positive returns, in cases where this has not been carefully considered and managed, conflicts have been the result.

Offentimes in the context of developing countries, very little purposive effort is put into consolidating the interlinkages for mutual benefits between the tourism and sport industries (Gozner et al., 2017; Ilies et al., 2018c; Kennelly & Toohey, 2014; Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018c; Tichaawa et al., 2018). In the few cases where there has been planned cooperation, it has often been short-term in nature, with differing objectives which, in turn, skews the long-term possibilities for local economic development in the respective destinations (Kennelly & Toohey, 2014; Acha-Anyi, 2018). Sport tourism events in particular draw attention in this regard, because they are often seen as shortcuts to achieving long-term benefits from both sport and tourism respectively (Bob & Swart, 2010; Lincu et al., 2018). This article seeks to understand the interrelationship between sport and tourism in a developing world context, using Cameroon as a case study area.

The study considers the gains made in the area concerning sport and tourism while highlighting the areas that should be of focus if a vibrant sport tourism niche sector is to be realised. The first section of the article provides a literature review which focuses on an overview of sport tourism, highlighting the specific linkages that can be forged between the two domains. The review also focuses on the importance of the economic and socio-political environments required in ensuring growth and development in the sport tourism sphere. Later, the materials and methods used in the study are discussed, and the findings therefrom explained. The article ends off with the conclusions that are drawn from the study, as well as the ensuing recommendations going forward.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sport tourism has been used to extend the sport concept into more of a leisure holiday activity, and in this way developing complementary services and products for visitors to destinations (Ciampicacigli & Maresca, 2004). The concept of sport tourism and the hosting of sporting events, in particular, has gained attention as a potential tool for urban and rural development and regeneration (Radicchi, 2013; Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018a; 2018c). Sport tourism, especially events are known to provide host destinations with several tangible and intangible benefits which otherwise would have taken a longer period to be achieved (Hemmonsbeey & Tichaawa, 2019; Tichaawa et al., 2018; Knott & Hemmonsbeey, 2015; Nyikana, 2016; Nyikana et al., 2014; Smith, 2012; Tichaawa & Swart, 2010). These scholars argue that the successful planning, hosting and management of these events, irrespective of their magnitude, brings about benefits such as the high-profile promotion of existing offerings and opportunities on a global scale; development of world-class sporting facilities; infrastructure and superstructure upgrades; and for developing countries specifically, gaining a head-start for the bidding and hosting of other future events, amongst other benefits.

Besides the benefits mentioned above for sport tourism events hosting, other key considerations include the critical lessons which could be learnt by the stakeholders towards the further development of local sport tourism and in the overall expansion of sport tourism markets, with the aim of accommodating other types of sports and reaching wider audiences (Nyikana, 2016; Bama & Tichaawa, 2015; Getz, 2013; Smith, 2012; Tichaawa & Swart, 2010). According to Smith (2010), these events could also lead to investment stimulus as well as assisting in gaining civic engagement and ensuring that the progress made by the hosting government structures is broadcast to the wider public. In developing countries, the focus tends to be on smaller-scale events due to their perceived ability to expedite development of infrastructure, and their ability to bring about unique tourism gains, while maintaining a vibrant but yet sustainable sport tourism sector (Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018a; Gibson et al., 2012). Moreover, the popular appeal of sport tourism, coupled with the mentioned benefits to hosting destinations, and the large-scale related commercial sponsorship associated with it, remains a significant niche area in the global context (Bob & Swart, 2010).

In any case, the parallel expansion of sport and tourism has resulted in the two disciplines being a focal point of research by academics, and broadly being development options for world governments (Tichaawa et al., 2015; Gammon & Robinson, 2003; Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018c). For its part, sport has become a global affair which attracts large sums of money, a great deal of media attention, political interest in its development and management, as well as large numbers of participants and a global audience alike (Nyikana et al., 2014). On the other hand, tourism has remained one of the world's premier industries, growing at rapid rates, while also generating large amounts of revenue on an annual basis (Sharma & Bisht, 2019; Hemmonsbeey &

Tichaawa, 2019; Acha-Anyi, 2018; Hermann & du Plessis, 2016; Bama & Tichaawa, 2015; Gibson et al., 2012; Nyikana et al., 2014; Rogerson, 2013). Against such developments, the argument for sport and tourism interrelationships and the collaboration between the two emerges (Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018c). In the earlier works, Standeven and de Knop (1999), and later Kurtzman and Zauhar (2003) advocated for this integration and the need to recognise that there exists a symbiotic relationship between the two disciplines, arguing that tourism aids sport in the form of increased numbers at sporting events, while sport also helps further tourism through offering a wider variety of visitor experiences, to enhance the overall tourism experience. Thus, Kurtzman and Zauhar (2003) noted that this evident growth in sport tourism, and the specific points of convergence for sport and tourism have, in recent times, become more perceptible and as such, open up numerous possibilities for the explicit identification of the common areas in order to effectively plan for them and the general sport tourism development agenda, a view closely shared by Hinch and Higham (2003).

Whilst there is general consensus that the points of convergence between sport and tourism have become more visible in recent times (Hinch & Higham, 2003; Kennelly & Toohey, 2014; Swart & Bob, 2007; Weed & Bull, 2004; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2003; Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018c), Weed (2003) argued that these had not been explicitly defined due to the fact that globally, the structures responsible for sport or tourism development tended to be established, developed and operated wholly separate from each other, and as a result of this, any interlink or collaboration tends to be irregular in its nature, a situation which is common in the developing world context. Some studies point out that, even in the few instances where there has been collaborations formed, they have either been of a short-term nature and for a limited time for exploitation of an obvious opportunity, or the coordination thereof has been disappointing and lacking end-product. Other studies (see Kennelly & Toohey, 2014; Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018c; Weed & Bull, 2004; Weed, 2003) point to one of the possible reasons for this failure as the attitude of stakeholders from both disciplines. In this respect, they argue that sport organisations have tended to have a fear that in collaborating with the tourism counterparts, they may be limited in terms of direct gains from the existing tourism benefits linked to sporting events as an example. Swart and Bob (2007) suggested that there be a quantification process of the specific linkages between the two phenomena, in an effort to negate this concern, which would subsequently provide critical evidence of the extent of the linkage involved in the collaboration. Such an exercise would also assist to identify the weaknesses and strengths within the existing interrelationships between the two, making it possible to further strengthen these accordingly as the situation requires.

According to Weed and Bull (2004), in possessing similar interests and target audiences, sport and tourism agencies should collaborate in producing and distributing informative material for tourists and sport participants alike, an exercise which should enhance the relations between them. Besides, the sport and tourism activities tend to interact in the same natural and built resources that are shared by tourists, participants and residents alike, and therefore linking them in terms of the development initiatives and potentially making additional sources of funding more accessible than they might have been individually (Swart & Bob, 2007; Weed & Bull, 2004). However, Swart and Bob (2007) caution that, for this linkage to be effective, careful attention should be paid to the social, economic and environmental concerns that are generally associated with sport and tourism development. In the context of the current study, and on the back of the limited international tourism arrivals in Cameroon, the emphasis tends to be skewed towards the economics exclusively, with little attention to social and environmental concerns (Tichaawa et al., 2018; Harilal et al., 2019).

In summarising the main challenges associated with poor linkages of sport and tourism within the African continent, Swart and Bob (2007) posit that firstly poor communication and coordination efforts between sport and tourism play a key role. Secondly, they argue that the poor execution of leveraging each other's channels into the appropriate target markets is another challenge. Thirdly, a lack of input from smaller event committees, especially in the tourism sphere is a key impediment. The fourth challenge is linked with a lack of access to fan bases by the tourism industry resulting in uncertainty about the most fitting channels to disseminate tourism information for sport tourists. Lastly, the poor alignment of calendars to best capitalise on balancing periods of low activity in either industry is seen as another key obstacle. Therefore, in this study, we argue that sport and tourism in the Cameroonian context exists within a unique setting, which is largely uncondusive to the effective development of the sport tourism sector. In this way, we posit that the stakeholders in the two industries are directed by set rules imposed by way of the national development plan, and because of other global issues. Sport and tourism should be integrated using astute government policy, sound strategic planning, and the development of facilities and services based on the overlapping nature of the two, especially in the context of Cameroon, and similar Sub-Saharan Africa economies.

In attempting to develop African economies, Nunkoo (2012) suggests that national governments should involve themselves through the creation and management of institutions, department and ministries, as well as policies that guide tourism generally, and in this case sport tourism development for environmental, political and economic reasons and outcomes. In sport tourism, the difficulty is that sport federations often set the institutional and political frameworks in pursuit of the goals and design of projects linked to sport tourism events (Cornelissen, 2011). In response to garner more political support from the citizens, governments often attempt to strike a balance between economic priorities, the environment and the local communities (Mosedale, 2015; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). This is on the basis that governments have started to see sport as part of a broader programme of community development, beyond the actual sport itself.

In the African context, much scrutiny is placed on the governments for their inability to effectively deal with socio-economic challenges like unemployment, crime, illiteracy and poverty amongst other social ills (Tichaawa, 2017; Kimbu & Tichaawa, 2018), which hinder citizens' trust in their governance (Nunkoo & Smith, 2013; Tichaawa & Idahosa, 2020). Other challenges include the high levels of corruption amongst public officials, and the lack of equitable treatment of citizens and the protection of their rights regarding proposed developments (Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). Nelson (2012) noted how nearly all African states, except South Africa, Botswana and Namibia, fell in the bottom half of the Transparency International's annual Corruption Perceptions Index regularly. The disappointing levels of infrastructure to support sport tourism, declining economies, and political climates that are not conducive to development have not helped the situation on the continent (Lamberti et al., 2011; Ngoka & Umeakuka, 2013). This is a situation that is not helped by the fact that there is frequent confusion on where government responsibility is, and where the institutional planning for sport tourism belong (Kimbu, 2012; Kimbu & Ngoasong, 2013; Panagiotopoulos, 2015).

Whilst some countries in the Global North have a regulatory framework governing sport tourism activities, in Africa generally there is a lack of such institutional frameworks to support the development of sport tourism (Panagiotopoulos, 2015; Harilal et al., 2019) besides the reliance of Global North frameworks. It is against this basis that sport tourism in Africa should perhaps be developed more from a regional and local competition basis, that adopts a bottom-up and community-led approach, to ensure less formal development and management style

that encourages decision-making and buy-in from those affected (Misener et al., 2013; Tichaawa et al., 2018). In their research, Misener et al. (2013) cite places that have successfully development sport tourism like North America and Europe as places that have typically ensured that governance is characterised by non-hierarchical, shared governance amongst communities and their service providers, especially at local economy levels, something not currently happening in this study's context. Nevertheless, once more, this goes back to the fact that effective community participation may not be achieved due to the inconduciveness of the socio-political conditions in the context. Effective participation of the community rests on the social, economic and political structures, which are directed by the clarity of direction from the national government regarding sport tourism policy, and this is not the case in many parts of Africa.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study adopted a mixed-method research design to collect data from selected stakeholders in the domain of sport and tourism in Cameroon. In-depth, face-to-face semi-structured interviews were held with the 16 stakeholders involved. Such stakeholders operate within different tiers of government and the private sector. Once an interview was completed, a snowball sampling approach was also used, wherein the interviewee was requested to recommend a contact who could provide the required information for the study. This technique was significantly useful for follow-up interviews and to ensure that the relevant stakeholder with information was included in the sample. Questionnaire surveys developed based on the literature review and documentary analysis on tourism in Cameroon were also used to target event attendees at four (4) prominent sport tourism events that were hosted between 2016 and 2018 as shown in Table 1 below. Given that the sample size of the respondents was not known, in intercepting the attendees, a spatially-based systematic sampling approach was employed on event days. In this way, the first respondent was approached randomly, and thereafter every tenth (10th) attendee was targeted. In total, n=1186 questionnaires were collected and deemed usable after the data collection period. The distribution of the questionnaires in relation to the chosen events is detailed in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of surveys (n=1186)

Name of sport event	Total number of questionnaires
2016 Women Africa Cup of Nations	384
Mount Cameroon Race of Hope - 2017	202
MTN Elite One Premier League game - 2018	300
Central African University Games - 2017	300
TOTAL	1186

The questionnaire surveys were self-administered and distributed according to the ratios shown in the table. Where self-administration was not possible, trained fieldworkers were on hand to assist with the completion of the questionnaires. Once the data collection period was finished, the surveys were quality checked, coded, and captured accordingly. Since the study sought to establish the association between sport and tourism in Cameroon, a Chi-square test of independence (Fischer's Exact test) was conducted. Practically, the statements about sport were tested for association with those about tourism in the same question. The question had options for respondents to choose from i.e. YES or NO. According to Bryman, Bell, Hirschohn, dos Santon, Du Toit, Masenge, Van Aardt and Wagner (2014), the Chi-square test is used to establish how confident the researcher can be that there exists a relationship or association

between two nominal variables. Thus, the effect size was measured by the phi coefficient, a correlation coefficient that has values between 0 and 1. Based on Cohen's criteria, a value of less than 0,3 indicates a small effect size, one between 0,3 and 0,5 indicates a medium effect size, while one whose value is greater than 0,5 indicates a large effect size (Pallant, 2007; Field, 2009). For the contextualisation of such associations and interrelationships, excerpts from the interview transcripts were used in conjunction with the quantitative findings. This helped provide the necessary meanings to the relationships accordingly. Qualitative data was thematically analysed.

RESULTS DISCUSSIONS

Summary of respondents' profiles and involvement in sport tourism

In terms of the demographic profiles, an overwhelming majority of those surveyed at the sporting events were Cameroonians (81.2%) as opposed to those from other countries (18.8%). The international visitors included those who were mainly from countries such as Nigeria, Mali, South Africa and Zimbabwe from the African continent, and the United States of America (USA), China, Canada and Germany from the rest of the world, amongst others. In terms of gender representation, there was an almost split distribution with the majority of them (53%) being men, while there were 47% women. This hardly comes as a surprise given that in recent times there has been a considerable growth in the number of women participating in sporting events, indicating that sport is no longer a male-dominated space (Jones, 2008; Tichaawa, 2013; Achu, 2019). Generally, the majority of the attendees were youthful given that a combined 86.2% of them were those between 18 and 40 years of age. On the other hand, the key informants that were interviewed were mainly (82%) in the age category of between 41 and 50 years of age. The respondents were relatively well educated given that a combined majority had obtained a form of qualification ranging from a minimum of a diploma or certificate, right up to a postgraduate degree (60.9%). This was backed up by the large number of those who were either full-time, part-time employees or self-employed (71.9%) accordingly, see Table 2 below.

In the existing literature on sport tourists, involvement and participation are largely dominated by those who are enthusiastic devotees of sport, and who often engage in promotional activities such as watching TV, listening to radio commentary on sports, buying sports merchandise, and travelling to distant places to attend, and spectate sporting events (Smith & Stewart, 2007; Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018b).

In this regard, it was not surprising to find that the majority of the respondents (67.9%) were mainly involved in sport tourism as spectators. This number was followed by those who described themselves as volunteers (20%), participants (18.7%) and workers in the sporting event on offer (11.5%), while only 7.3% indicated their involvement as being event organisers within the sport tourism event space. Nonetheless, the results show that there exists an opportunity to leverage sport tourism for the development of Cameroon's local areas because the spectators and participants were from many different parts of the country and beyond and as such, their commitment to the events presents a multitude of opportunities. Moreover, given the dominance of local Cameroon citizens at the events, there exists a solid platform from which domestic tourism could be tapped into by the relevant authorities in the country.

This is particularly important when considering that many of the attendees were from different provinces within the country, thereby implying that a strong willingness to travel cross-country for sport tourism attendance exists. The domestic tourism opportunities presented by sporting events in this context also link to the need for the promotion of a dynamic domestic tourism market that, up to this point outperforms the international tourism market in Cameroon anyway (Kimbu & Ngoasong, 2013).

Sport tourism interrelationship examined

Sport helps to boost tourism in the local area – Tourism needs sport in order to increase visitor numbers to the local area

Sport has been identified as an effective vehicle that could be used for the revival of tourism in local areas (Bouhaouala, 2015; Gibson et al., 2012; Odounga-Othy & Swart, 2016). In particular, Gibson et al. (2012) have argued that in places where the economy, especially as relating to tourism's contribution to it, have been declining, sport has sometimes been considered as the tool required for injecting the developmental impetus. This is linked to the fact that sport attracts tourists to local areas that they otherwise would not have visited (Nyikana et al., 2014; Radicchi, 2013). The above two statements were tested for association, and the test indicated a significant association with a p value of <0.000 as shown in Table 2 further down.

However, the phi coefficient was 0.193, thus indicating a small effect in terms of the association. This implies that the proportion of attendees who gave the same answer to both statements (either Yes/Yes or No/No) was significantly different from those who gave different answers (Yes/No). Ultimately, the findings show that there is an association between sport and tourism in the context of the two statements. The finding affirms what the existing literature suggests, that in many destinations, sports have constantly been used to boost visitor numbers to said destinations (Nyikana et al., 2014; Smith & Stewart, 2007). However, the strength of this association remains small in terms of the effect. In Cameroon, the onus rests on those involved to increase the effect of this association to advance and fast-track tourism, and more importantly to boost visitor numbers on a domestic and international front (Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018c).

As highlighted in the key informant interviews, a major limitation in Cameroon is that the sport and tourism sectors typically compete for similar markets. However, they fail to capitalise on this fact especially by ensuring that they collectively work on promotion of both the sporting events and the tourist host destinations to the participants and attendees, as well as the tourists alike. This would ensure that they are able to increase the markets for both domains in the long-term, thereby strengthening the relationship between sport and tourism. In this regard, the interrelationship linked to branding, marketing and promotion is seen as being particularly weak in the context of the study, despite the acknowledgements made in relation to its potential.

Sport helps to boost tourism in the local area – Tourism brings more people to sport events

In the existing literature, some authors (Jones, 2008; Smith & Stewart, 2007; Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018b) have suggested that some tourists travel to destinations for many other reasons, but once at the destination, tend to consider attending sport tourism events that are on offer. Thus, tourism plays a hand in increasing the numbers of visitors to sporting events. The test regarding this revealed a significant association between tourism bringing more people to sport events and sport helping to boost tourism in the local area with $p < 0.000$. The phi coefficient of 0.158 however indicated a small effect, thereby indicating that the proportion of respondents who gave the same answer to both statements (Yes/Yes or No/No) was significantly different from those who gave different answers to both statements (Yes/No). What is clear from this is that an association between sport and tourism exist in Cameroon. Moreover, there exists more opportunity regarding the overlapping development interests between the two that could be exploited going forward, provided that the strength of this association is enhanced. As argued by an official from the Ministry of Sport and Physical Education in Cameroon:

Under normal circumstances, when there is a sport competition, especially an international football match or marathon, many people come. Even though they are coming for the match or race, on the days when they are not playing or watching they have to eat and go visit many places that are not the same as those from their country of origin. You see that this is how sport has helped tourism. In addition, in some way tourism helps sport because these happen on days when sport is not taking place.

The above statement shows that, there exists this interrelationship between sport and tourism in the context of Cameroon, even though the strength of it is relatively weak. This is probably linked to what Swart and Bob (2007) argued is the poor communication and coordination efforts between the two government departments and associated stakeholders, linked to the aligning of calendars for sport and tourism respectively. An official from a major sponsor of sport in Cameroon was also critical in this respect suggesting that this strategy was not being executed effectively in the country. He argued that other countries who were successful in sport tourism development enhanced the relations between sport and tourism innovatively; something he felt was not being explored in Cameroon:

In Cameroon, sport cannot contribute to the development of tourism effectively. In some countries, sport is a key asset to tourism development, but not here. We have not tapped into this, so what can we offer to the sport attendees when they come in terms of tourism offerings remains unknown to me.

In respect to the above, it is clear that there exists a major concern regarding the possibility of linking sport and tourism to achieve development initiatives such as urban development and regeneration. In particular, in the interviews attention was drawn to the fact that, theoretically speaking, sport and tourism are favourable vehicles through which urban development initiatives could be executed in Cameroon. However, these are often compromised by the tendency of officials to focus solely on the economics involved in this, neglecting the social and environmental responsibility pillars of development. Thus, the relationship is weak, and currently not being harnessed to its potential.

Sport helps to boost tourism in the local area – Tourism can help raise the profile of weaker sporting events

The test regarding the association between these statements provided interesting results. There was a significant association between tourism helping raise the profile of weaker sporting events and sport helping to boost tourism in the local area, as the test yielded a score of $p < 0.000$. Furthermore, the phi coefficient score was 0.331, indicating a medium effect regarding the association. Once more, the findings confirm what has largely been documented in that tourism is seen as one of the contributors to the visitor numbers at sporting events, and in this instance, being seen as playing a role in growing the profile of the 'weaker' or smaller sporting events in terms of numbers and interest in them. Specifically in this case, the recent endeavours by Cameroon to host major sporting events, and the general rich sporting culture there, there exists a platform for authorities to leverage tourism for the further enhancement of sport, which may ultimately lead to a vibrant sport tourism industry. The challenge in this interrelationship as unpacked by the key informants was that the tourism stakeholders were excluded from the practical activities by their sport counterparts. They argued that they are not involved in any sporting event planning and organising, ranging from the small-scale events to the larger scale events. In this respect, they argued that more emphasis was on making the sport participants and visiting teams feel comfortable and ready for the event, failing to

consider that they had a role to play on days when there was no sporting activity. As described by one official from the Ministry of Tourism and Leisure:

Sport plays an important part in tourism, the two are related. However, when it comes to specific application of this relationship, planning and organising sport events in Cameroon is very disconnected and not linked. The organisers of the events know that they should involve tourism people as a main partner but they do not do this. We have some very good ideas and knowledge of what could be done on non-event days, but we are not consulted.

From the above statement, it is clear that there exists a solid opportunity for sport and tourism interrelationships to be harnessed for the development of both disciplines. What appears to be an obstacle is the lack of trust and collaboration between the two especially as observed by those from the tourism domain, who feel excluded from sport tourism development despite their obvious expertise in the areas beyond the event spaces for the attendees and participants. Likewise, the stakeholders collectively argued that there needed to be more collaborations between the two domains. This collaboration though, they felt could only be enabled by the leaders of the ministries. In particular, they highlighted the need for the two ministries to work together in attempting to align their calendars such that they are able to assist each other, with sport filling in the 'off-peak' periods for tourism, and tourism aiding sport with entertainment opportunities and activities on non-event days. They felt that this would assist in enhancing the relationships between sport and tourism in Cameroon in the long-term.

Table 2. Sport helps to boost tourism in the local area (n=1186)

Statement	Fischer's Exact test P-value	Phi coefficient
Tourism needs sport in order to increase visitor numbers to an area	0.000	0.193
Tourism brings more people to sport events	0.000	0.158
Tourism can help raise the profile of weaker sporting events	0.000	0.331

Sport cannot prosper without the existence of tourists – Tourism needs sport in order to increase visitor numbers to an area

The parallel growth trajectory that has been followed by sport and tourism has meant that the two often tend to coexist and frequently overlap in many areas of operation (Uvinha et al., 2018). Against such a context, the test was conducted between sport and tourism in relation to their (inter)dependence for local areas. When testing this relationship, the test revealed no significant association between the two statements with a score of $p < 0.092$, as shown in Table 3 below. The phi coefficient of 0.066 indicated a small effect in respect of the association, meaning there was no significant difference between those who gave the same answer to both statements, and those who gave different answers. In other words, the attendees did not necessarily make an association between sport and tourism in relation to these statements, probably on the basis that they felt that sport, generally could grow without necessarily getting the boost from tourism. Besides, sport is seen as a way of life in Africa in any case (Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018c). At the same, time, given how the two are often simply seen as an occasional overlap in contexts such as Cameroon, this does not come as a surprise. For example, in the key informant interviews, an official from the Ministry of Tourism and Leisure was quite dismissive about the likelihood of sport being integrated into their planning activities, especially as relating to tourism promotion of local areas:

I do not grasp how sport can promote tourism in Cameroon. I really do not know how it can promote tourism because I do not work at the Ministry of Sport and Physical Education.

Such a response brings about concerns regarding the interrelationships that can be strengthened in the context of sport tourism development in Cameroon. The weak collaboration efforts amongst stakeholders and the lack of initiatives that are geared towards achieving this symbiotic working relationship therefore serves as a major limitation to the potential development of sport tourism there.

Sport cannot prosper without the existence of tourists – Tourism brings more people to sport events

The test between these two statements indicated a significant association with a score of $p < 0.000$. The phi coefficient value of 0.147 indicated a small effect regarding the association. As mentioned above, the respondents felt that while sport may be able to prosper without necessarily calling on tourism assistance, the existence of tourism in the destinations where sport events occur certainly plays a role in sport development because tourism brings more people/attendees to the events. Indeed, prior research studies that have been conducted (Taks et al., 2009; Nyikana et al., 2014) have shown that at times people who travel to a destination for tourism reasons, may in turn seek to participate, particularly through spectating, at existing sport tourism events that they find at the destination. Once more, this shows that, while there is a relatively weak linkage between sport and tourism, potential exists and is acknowledged by those on the ground. However, for this linkage to be exploited, strategic and purposeful planning should be considered for the leveraging of this. This is the recurring challenge as highlighted by the officials that were interviewed. In essence, the officials stress the need for more intensive collaborations across board in order to maximise on the opportunities that are present. As a representative of an NGO that deals with sport promotion argued:

There are many relationships that exist between sport and tourism, because you have to consider that there are many opportunities in the tourism sector in Cameroon that are yet to be explored, where sport could be used to help. The problem is that the government does not have the necessary capacity and time to do it on their own. It needs all of us, private business, sport people, tourism people and NGOs, so that we collectively work towards a good sport tourism sector here.

The interviewees felt that the need for collaboration could not be greater, given that this would likely increase the incentives for investments from both the public and private sectors in sport tourism in the country. A manager from MTN, a major sport sponsor suggested that there were many private organisations for example, which had the capacity to invest in sport and tourism. However, they were reluctant to do so because they do not have trust in government and harboured concerns about the lack of relationships that exist between the different ministries concerned with sport tourism development.

Sport cannot prosper without the existence of tourists – Tourism can help raise the profile of weaker events

When testing for the association between these two statements, no significant association ($p < 0.107$) was found, with the phi coefficient also confirming a small effect (0.063) in this respect. This meant that those who gave the same answer to both statements (Yes/Yes or No/No) was not significantly different from those who gave different answers (Yes/No). Thus, whilst there is merit and acknowledgement of the fact that tourism may assist in raising the profile of weaker sporting events in Cameroon, there was no direct association between sport and tourism specifically regarding the two statements.

Table 3. Sport cannot prosper without the existence of tourists (n=1186)

Statement	Fischer's Exact test P-value	Phi coefficient
Tourism needs sport in order to increase visitor numbers to an area	0.092	0.066
Tourism brings more people to sport events	0.000	0.147
Tourism can help raise the profile of weaker sporting events	0.107	0.063

Sport and tourism are two separate things that cannot be combined – Tourism needs sport in order to increase visitor numbers to an area

As shown in Table 4 below, the test indicated a significant association between tourism needing sport in order to increase visitor numbers and sport and tourism being two separate things that cannot be combined ($p < 0.006$). The phi coefficient value of 0.106 indicated a small effect in relation to this association. This meant that the proportion of attendees who gave the same answer to both statements (Yes/Yes or No/No) was significantly different from those who gave different answers to both statements (Yes/No) given. The findings imply that, while there is an association between the two statements, sport and tourism are currently seen as two separate things that cannot be combined. This is despite the acknowledgement that there is potential for their collaboration. What currently limits this collaboration is the current socio-political climate and setup which does not exhibit much cooperative collaboration between the ministries promoting sport and tourism respectively (Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018c), a situation that occurs in spite of the obvious gains that could be made in relation to sport increasing tourism arrivals in particular. An official from the Ministry of Tourism and Leisure summed this up saying:

Sport and tourism are not as related as they should be here. At our level in the local municipalities, we share ideas with our counterparts, but we all know that those will not go anywhere because those who influence are people who sit there in the capital city in high offices and plan for what is supposed to happen in the future, without considering the realities here on the ground. Therefore, in tourism we plan alone, those in sport plan alone, everything is centralised to the respective ministry.

In further explaining the above statement, the tourism official gave an example of the isolated nature of infrastructural development. He argued that sport and tourism often use the same infrastructure, and as such, if they bundled their planning together, attracting funding for such infrastructural investment would be easier and both domains' purposes would be better served.

Sport and tourism are two separate things that cannot be combined – Tourism brings more people to sport events

There was no significant association between tourism bringing more people to sport events and sport and tourism being two separate things that cannot be combined with $p < 0.672$. The phi coefficient of 0.019 indicates a small effect in this regard as well. This further shows the nuances of uncertainty shown above, regarding uncertainty between what is possible in relation to sport and tourism being interlinked, and the reality of what currently transpires in Cameroon. Once more, the blame for this uncertainty is directed towards the lack of collaboration and the encouragement of such collaborations from the national government plans. An official from the Ministry of Sport and Physical Education indicated that the linkage between sport and tourism especially as relating to the ability of tourism to bring more spectators to sport events was there for all to see during such events. However, there was a lack of acknowledgement and attempt to strengthen this relationship:

I think sport and tourism should link. That is fundamental, because, despite the fact that, at higher levels, as government we tend to disassociate tourism and sports, the fact is sport is a big factor of tourism and vice versa. People travel for sporting competitions, but they also come to discover other aspects of the host destination.

Another key informant from the sport sponsorship expanded on this by suggesting that the disconnection between sport and tourism in this instance was also exacerbated by how little consultation generally happens in all forms of projects in the country. By this suggestion, he argued that investment in both tourism and hospitality tended to be haphazardly designed thus compromising the principles of sustainability generally:

The tourism and sport government officials have this coincidental way of planning and operating. Look at how they have constructed big stadiums, but beyond the stadium, the infrastructure is not connected to the stadium. The roads are bad, there is no signage, and it is bad. Developing the stadium is supposed to complement the area and improve roads and other infrastructure leading up to the stadium. This will bring more people.

Sport and tourism are two separate things that cannot be combined – Tourism can help raise the profile of weaker sporting events

The test between tourism being able to help raise the profile of weaker sporting events and sport and tourism being two separate things that cannot be combined, revealed no significant association between the two ($p < 0.631$). In addition to this, the phi coefficient value of 0.022 indicated a small effect for this association, suggesting that, the proportion of respondents who gave the same answer to both statements was not significantly different from those who gave different answers.

Table 4. Sport and tourism are two separate things that cannot be combined (n=1186)

Statement	Fischer's Exact test P-value	Phi coefficient
Tourism needs sport in order to increase visitor numbers to an area	0.006	0.106
Tourism brings more people to sport events	0.672	0.019
Tourism can help raise the profile of weaker sporting events	0.631	0.034

CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to examine the interlinkages of sport and tourism in Central Africa using Cameroon as a case study area. Self-administered questionnaire surveys were carried out at four distinct sport tourism events in Cameroon, in an effort to establish these interrelationships between sport and tourism. These were complemented by interviews with key informant interviews with stakeholders in both the sporting and tourism sectors in Cameroon. By far and large, the findings reveal that there are a number of interlinkages between the two, especially in relation to the ability of each to enhance the other. For example, existing literature (Odounga-Othy & Swart, 2016; Tichaawa, 2017; Hemmonsbeey & Tichaawa, 2019; Getz, 2013) reveals that tourism has often made a significant contribution towards boosting visitor numbers at sporting events, whilst on the other hand, sport has enhanced tourism by complementing existing tourism offerings at destinations. However, in this study it was found that the specific linkages were relatively weak, owing to a lack of purposeful and cogent planning in the part of the public sector. Of particular concern was that despite the perceptible gains to be made in the planning for, and management of sport tourism, there still remains a lack of policy and planned collaborations between the authorities involved for the two domains. Kennelly and Toohey (2014) stress the need for collaboration even in areas where sport and tourism are managed by different government departments, as this allows for mutual benefits and better coordinated strategies that exploit the long-term gains from the linkage.

In Cameroon specifically, and many parts of Africa generally, sport and tourism tend to be managed wholly separate from each other, with minimal interactions between the two, despite the strong advocating for collaboration in existing literature. In this study, this is exacerbated by the centralised nature of operations, with a lot of the planning for sporting events being done at the highest level, with minimal or no input from those at the operational level, thereby confining the extent to which constructive feedback could be used in driving policies that make the most of the obvious linkages that currently exist between sport and tourism (Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018c). Tichaawa (2017) points out that this approach leads to a fragmented drive in relation to the initiatives that are in place for growing tourism and sport, because there is a lack of effective stakeholder participation process. Amongst the main areas identified that could be improved in this context are infrastructure, investment attraction, branding and marketing, urban regeneration as well as inter-governmental collaborations. These were areas that were found to be relatively weak in terms of relationships in Cameroon. The study therefore argues for a rethink in the way sport and tourism are managed in this context. For the effective promotion of a vibrant sport tourism sector that can revitalize the economy of Cameroon, a bottom-up approach to policy formulation should be implemented; wherein those that are at the operational levels of the sport and tourism overlap (such as the event managers, organisers, local communities where the events are hosted etc.) are given the opportunity to purposefully collaborate, and later given the capacity to use those experiences from the interactions to inform the direction of future developments. In this way, such experiences and information would be channelled towards establishing long-term strategies that could be used to leverage sport tourism, with purposeful collaborations even at the highest levels, and ultimately having a regulatory and institutional framework that governs the development of sport tourism. Such a framework would ensure that sport tourism governance is typified by a non-hierarchical character that stresses shared governance amongst the different stakeholders, including local communities and their service providers for sport tourism events.

Ultimately, clarity and quantification of the interrelationship between sport and tourism would exist, leading to a better understanding of the relationship between the two. Such information could then be used by countries that have similar economies for their sport tourism development initiatives accordingly.

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