

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites

Year XIII

2020/no. 4 supplement

vol. 33



Editura Universității din Oradea



GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites

Oradea University Press

Editors in Chief:

Dorina Camelia ILIEȘ, University of Oradea, Romania
Wojciech RATKOWSKI, Gdansk University of Physical Education and Sport, Poland

Associate Editors:

Doriano CASTALDINI, University of Modena and Reggio Emilia, Italy
Olivier DEHOORNE, University of Antille and Guyanne, France

Technical Editors:

Tudor CACIORA, University of Oradea, Romania
Maria GOZNER, University of Oradea, Romania
Grigore Vasile HERMAN, University of Oradea, Romania
Ioana JOSAN, University of Oradea, Romania

Scientific Committee:

Janne AHTOLA, University of Turku, Finland
Irasema ALCANTARA AYALA, University of Mexico, Mexico
Alina BĂDULESCU, University of Oradea, Romania
Dan BĂLTEANU, Romanian Academy – Institut of Geography of Bucharest, Romania
Huhua CAO, University of Ottawa, Canada
Pompei COCEAN, “Babeș-Bolyai” University of Cluj-Napoca, Romania
Denes Lorant DAVID, Shakarim State University of Semey, Kazakhstan
Stefan DESZI, “Babeș-Bolyai” University of Cluj-Napoca, Romania
Ross DOWLING, Edith Cowan University, Australia
Brahim EL FASSKAOUI, University of Moulay Ismail, Meknes, Morocco
Alessandro GALLO, “Ca' Foscari” University of Venice, Italy
Michael C. HALL, University of Canterbury, New Zealand
Tutut HERAWAN, Technological University Yogyakarta, Indonesia
Thomas A. HOSE, University of Bristol, United Kingdom
Gábor KOZMA, University of Debrecen, Hungary
Zoltan KOVACS, University of Szeged, Hungary
Ioan IANOȘ, University of Bucharest, Romania
Corneliu IAȚU, “Al. I. Cuza” University of Iași, Romania
Alexandru ILIEȘ, University of Oradea, Romania
Alan A. LEW, Northern Arizona University, United States of America
Ionel MUNTELE, “Al. I. Cuza” University of Iași, Romania
Mario PANIZZA, University of Modena and Reggio Emilia, Italy
Elisa PASTORIZA, Universidad Nacional de Mar del Plata, Argentina
Christian ROGERSON, University of Johannesburg, South Africa
Emmanuel REYNARD, University of Laussane, Suisse
Maria Luisa RODRIGUEZ, University of Lisbon, Portugal
Jarkko SAARINEN, University of Oulu, Finland
Stanisław SAWCZYN, Gdansk University of Physical Education and Sport, Poland
Tang YA, Sichuan University, China
Luca ZARRILLI, “G. d'Annunzio” University of Pescara, Italy
Graciela Iris ZUPPA, National University Mar del Plata, Argentina
Dallen J. TIMOTHY, Arizona State University, United States of America
Jan WENDT, University of Gdansk, Poland
Krzysztof WIDAWSKI, University of Wrocław, Poland
Allan M. WILLIAMS, London Metropolitan University, United Kingdom

The Journal is issued under aegis and with financial support of:



University of Oradea, Romania
Department of Geography, Tourism and Territorial Planning
Territorial Studies and Analysis Centre
1 University St., 410087, Oradea, Romania



Gdansk University of Physical Education and Sport, Poland
Faculty of Tourism and Recreation
ul. Kazimierza Górskiego 1, 80-336 Gdańsk, Poland

GTG

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites

Year XIII, no. 4 supplement, vol. 33

Oradea - Gdańsk
2020

PUBLICATION REQUIREMENTS OF ARTICLES IN THE GEOJOURNAL OF TOURISM AND GEOSITES

The Editorial Board goes through each article, which is then submitted to two referees' judgment. Names of referees are confidential to the Editorial Board. Authors may be asked to make revisions to their manuscript. If substantial revision is required manuscripts may be re-reviewed before a decision to accept/publish is made. Final acceptance of manuscripts for publication is at the discretion of the Editors.

Authors alone are responsible for the opinions expressed in their papers.

The GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
is indexed in:

SCOPUS: <http://www.scopus.com/>

GEOBASE: <https://www.elsevier.com/>

INDEX COPERNICUS: <http://journals.indexcopernicus.com/karta.php?action=masterlist&id=3947>
IC Value: **121.20** - 2019; **121.25** - 2018; **109.97** - 2017; **88.82** - 2016; **84.53** - 2015; **68.79** - 2014;
6.59 - 2013; **4.84** - 2011; **4.83** - 2010; **4.15** - 2009; **3.91** - 2008

Review accredited by C.N.C.S.I.S., "C" Category http://vechi.cncsis.ro/cenaposs/2008/Arhiva/reviste_cat_C_08.pdf

ULRICHSWEB – GLOBAL SERIALS DIRECTORY
http://www.ulrichsworld.com/ulrichsworld/ulrichsworld_news/uu/newTitles.asp?uuMonthlyFile=uu201003/new_titles.txt&Letter=G&navPage=9&

WORLDCAT: http://www.worldcat.org/search?q=GeoJournal+of+Tourism+and+Geosites&qt=owc_search

SCIPIO: <http://www.scipio.ro/web/geojournal-of-tourism-and-geosites>

EBSCO: <http://www.ebscohost.com/titleLists/hjh-subject.pdf>

HOSPITALITY & TOURISM COMPLETE: <https://www.ebscohost.com/titleLists/hjh-coverage.xls>

HOSPITALITY & TOURISM INDEX: <https://www.ebscohost.com/titleLists/hoh-coverage.htm>

CAB Abstracts: <https://www.cabi.org/SerialsCited/1429.txt>

ERIH PLUS: <https://dbh.nsd.uib.no/publiseringsskanaler/erihplus/periodical/info.action?id=495196>

DOAJ - DIRECTORY OF OPEN ACCESS JOURNALS: <https://doaj.org/search>

Price of journal:

Individual	10 €
Institutional	15 €
Annual subscription	20 €

Address of the Editorial Office:

University of Oradea Department of Geography,
Tourism and Territorial Planning Territorial Studies and Analysis Centre 1 Universităţii St.,
410087, Oradea, Romania, Phone/fax: +40 259 408 475 e-mail: gtg.uoradea@yahoo.com

On line version:

<http://gtg.webhost.uoradea.ro>

CONTENTS

Bashar Shukri MAAIAH, Osama Naser WOUHOUSH Jordanian Culture and Traditions as a Driving Force for Attracting Dutch Tourists DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl01-592	1450
Folasayo E. OLALERE Solidifying Tourists' Post-Travel Memories Through Souvenir DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl02-593	1456
I Made ADHIKA, I Dewa Gede Agung Diasana PUTRA Reinvigorating Cultural Landscapes for Planning Cultural Tourism in Bali DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl03-594	1462
Cezar MORAR, Vasile GRAMA, Marius I. STUPARIU, Gyula NAGY, Lajos BOROS, Alexandru TIBA, Maria GOZNER, Mariana SZABO-ALEXI Understanding from a Local Perspective, Cultural Tourism to Heritage Sites. The Case Study of Oradea Fortress (Romania) DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl04-595	1470
Rosalina KUMALAWATI, SALAMIAH, Astinana YULIARTI, Karnanto Hendra MURLIWAN Potential Mapping Agricultural Commodities to Mitigation of Food Problem in the Future DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl05-596	1480
Santus Kumar DEB, Shohel Md. NAFI Impact of Covid-19 Pandemic on Tourism: Recovery Proposal for Future Tourism DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl06-597	1486
I Made WARDANA, I Putu Gde SUKAATMADJA, Ni Nyoman Kerti YASA, Made SETINI Comparative and Competitives Advantages: Perspective of Rural Tourism (Study on Tourism in The Province of Bali Indonesia) DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl07-598	1493
Linda NOMPUMELELO The Potential of African Religious Pilgrimages as a Tool for Tourism Development in Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl08-599	1501
Felix John EZE, Juliet John INYANG, Nina Valentine ORJI Determinants of Outbound Medical Tourism: Implications for Service Marketing and Development DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl09-600	1507
Sinan ÇAVUŞOĞLU, Bülent DEMIRAĞ, Eddy JUSUF, Ardi GUNARDI The Effect of Attitudes Toward Green Behaviors on Green Image, Green Customer Satisfaction and Green Customer Loyalty DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl10-601	1513
Tadeusz PALMOWSKI Development of Antarctic Tourism DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl11-602	1520
Kimrochey Goliath-LUDIC, Siyasanga YEKELA Resident's Perception of the Environmental Impact of Tourism: A Case Study of the Bawa Community in Butterworth, South Africa DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl12-603	1527
Emilda K. JOSEPH, Tomy K. KALLARAKAL, Bindi VARGHESE, Jose K. ANTONY Sustainable Tourism Development in the Backwaters of South Kerala, India: The Local Government Perspective DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl13-604	1532

Sri UNTARI, Yusuf SUHARTO		
The Development of Youth and Woman Entrepreneurship Program in Village Tourism Through Partnership		
DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl14-605	1538
Ashraf Mohammad ALFANDI		
Is Jordan Safe to Visit? The Impact of Perceived Risk Perceptions on the Tourist Behavioural Intentions		
DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl15-606	1545
ZUSMELIA, IRWAN, Yossi E. PUTRI, Nilmadesri ROSYA, Felia SISKI		
The Meaning of Creative Economy in the Minangkabau Community in the West Sumatra Tourism Destination Area, Indonesia		
DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl16-607	1551
Ibrahim Kahlil BAZAZO, Omar Abedalla ALANANZEH		
The Implementation of International Standards and Specifications (Iso-Scuba) on Improving the Quality of Diving Tourism in Aqaba, Jordan		
DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl17-608	1557
Thowayeb H. HASSAN, Hossam S. SHEHATA, Mohammed EL-DIEF, Amany E. SALEM		
The Social Responsibility of Tourism and Hotel Establishments and Their Role in Sustainable Tourism Development in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia		
DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl18-609	1564
Walid RAHAL, Mohamed A. REZZAZ, Louardi KHERROUR		
The Preservation of World Archaeological Sites and Promotion of Tourism: Qala'at Bani Hammad (M'sila) Algeria		
DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl19-610	1571
NOTES		
Ninis Agustini DAMAYANI, Encang SAEPUDIN, Neneng KOMARIAH		
The Early Education of Environmental Health Literation as the Effort of Developing Rural Tourism		
DOI 10.30892/gtg.334spl20-611	1579

* * * * *

JORDANIAN CULTURE AND TRADITIONS AS A DRIVING FORCE FOR ATTRACTING DUTCH TOURISTS

Bashar Shukri MAAIAH*

Yarmouk University, Faculty of Tourism and Hotel Management, Department of Tourism, Management, Irbid, Jordan, e-mail: Bashar.maaiah@yu.edu.jo

Osama Naser WOUHOUSH

Yarmouk University, Faculty of Tourism and Hotel Management, Department of Tourism, Management, Irbid, Jordan, e-mail: osamanaser93@hotmail.com

Citation: Maaiah, B.S., & Wouhoush, O.N. (2020). JORDANIAN CULTURE AND TRADITIONS AS A DRIVING FORCE FOR ATTRACTING DUTCH TOURISTS. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1450–1455. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl01-592>

Abstract: Cultural tourism is one of the fastest growing and attracting tourism types in Jordan especially for European tourists. This study aims to analyze the role of the Jordanian traditional aspects in motivating Dutch tourists to visit Jordan. It also shows the technological applications needed to ensure the efficient involvement of Jordanian traditions in the tourism industry. Semi-structured interviews with two groups of participants were performed. The results indicate that the Jordanian traditions are attractive to Dutch tourists once authenticity is provided, which fulfills their cultural needs, thus their satisfaction and Word Of Mouth are generated in their feedback.

Key words: Dutch tourists, Jordan, marketing, tourism, traditions.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is considered as one of the fastest growing industries in the world which forms a crucial segment of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of modern economies. This growth generated developments in the service sector, infrastructures, and employment. Sustainability of growth in the tourism sector demands the existence of variable types of tourism that ensure the fulfilment of the tourists' needs and wants.

1. Tourism in Jordan

Jordan is characterized with the existence of variable tourist attractions (natural and cultural), this diversity enables activities which can meet the needs and wants of a wide scale of tourists. Natural attractions in the country vary from green mountains in the north, beautiful rock formations, deserts, all the way to the red sea in the south and the lowest point on earth and world's biggest spa, the Dead Sea (Zalloom, 2020). Jordan has a rich cultural heritage represented by historical monuments introducing many crucial civilizations that passed on the area, such as the Nabatean, Roman, Byzantine, and Islamic (Goussous and Al-Jaafreh, 2020).

Cultural tourism is one of the fastest growing types of tourism; cultural tourists are characterized by having special travel motivations, which can be folklore, heritage, archaeology, art, galleries and traditions (Richards, 2016). The diversity of cultural tourists' demands generates a necessity for enabling variable types of cultural activities or attractions to fulfil those needs. One of the most important cultural aspects in any country are the traditions of the indigenous people (Butler, 2007). Traditions are considered as one of the most important aspects of the culture, it forms an important part of people's life and it shows their lifestyle. In Jordan, traditions are still strongly noticed including the people's lifestyle (hospitality and daily social life), ceremonies and events (such as weddings), dress codes, and cuisine.

2. Traditions & tourism

The term tradition means the combination of beliefs and behaviour of people which are passed from one generation to another; however there is no term that defines all traditions (Lewis and Hammer, 2007). According to the literature, traditions' segments appeared as (a) **lifestyle**, which include the way people live in villages or Bedouin areas (Oweis et al., 2012), (b) **cuisine**, including the traditional food and beverage and the ceremonies accompanying it (Kivela and Crofts, 2006), (c) **traditional dress codes**, including the embroidery arts and needlework for men and women (Al Haija, 2011), and (d) **events and festivals**, such as weddings (Abu-Khafajah, 2011).

According to Baltus (2018) the Dutch are considered as one of the most travelling populations around the world, with approximately 88% of the population travelling abroad for tourism purposes, i.e. 13 million Dutch tourists a year. A considerable number of Dutch tourists are interested in discovering new cultures and are motivated to discover them. However, and according to the Jordanian Ministry of Tourism and Antiquities, Jordan has received only 14000 Dutch tourists in 2016, which indicates that only (0.00088%) (MOTA, 2018), of them have visited Jordan, representing a very modest number that gives an indicator for the need for more publicity for Jordan in the Dutch tourism market. Several factors including: high numbers of outbound Dutch tourists, the interest of a decent number of them in cultures traditions and ecological tourism, the existence of Jordanian traditions, and the modesty of Dutch tourists numbers in Jordan create a need to find an efficient marketing plan that can attract Dutch tourists to visit Jordan through the involvement of the Jordanian traditions in the tourism marketing process. The involvement of Jordanian traditions enhances the authenticity of the trip and helps in the preservation of the Jordanian traditions, thus this involvement depends on a win-win strategy for tourists and the host community.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Tourism in Jordan

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is an Arab country located in the heart of the middle-east in the western part of Asia with an area of (89,213) square kilometres. According to the United Nations Report (2019), the country is populated by 9.5 million people, the majority of

* Corresponding author

them are Muslims (96%) and (4%) are Christians. The country is characterized with high standards of safety and security which encourages many businesses to take place in it (Bader et al., 2016). Jordan has a decent destination brand image; being the leader in receiving medical tourists in the Middle East (Al-Azzam et al., 2016). Tourism in Jordan relies upon the country's natural and cultural resources (Fischer et al., 2009). Furthermore, the welcoming atmosphere of the Jordanian people for guests and their decent knowledge about tourism are considered as crucial attractions for tourists (Fischer et al., 2009; Alhasanat and Hyasat, 2011; Zamil, 2011).

The diversity of tourism attractions in Jordan helped in increasing the numbers of inbound tourists since the 90s, (Barham et al., 2007). This increase is caused by the existence of various types of tourism that can take place in the country, such as archaeological, religious (Christian and Islamic), adventurous, natural or cultural (Barham et al., 2007; Shunnaq et al., 2008; Neveu, 2010). Tourism is considered as an important source of economic growth in Jordan. It is a sector that needs more social and governmental focus and support in order to generate more benefits (Mahadin et al., 2020,) and more improvements in the service sector (Al-Makhadmah, 2020; Rousan et al., 2020; Khaleefah, 2020). Nevertheless, it causes some problems for the Jordanian destinations such as the commodification of heritage and the change in the local values (Porter and Salazar, 2005; Lanquar, 2015). Recently, the Jordanian government has started the process of rehabilitating some of the Jordanian traditions for its importance for tourism (Trillo et al., 2020).

2. Traditions and tourism marketing

Nations around the world are no longer depending on traditional manufacturing as the main element of economy (Kotler, 2002), but on new types of skills and services (Pidgrina, 2007), which are now forming the bulk of the economies. One of the most important activities for such an economic growth is tourism, which is known as one of the fastest growing sectors in the world, especially in third world countries (Echtner and Prasad, 2003). This needs successful marketing for cities and places (Kotler et al., 1993). Marketing was defined by the American Marketing Association as *"the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large"* (Ringold and Weitz, 2007, pp253).

Tourism marketing is defined as, *"a management philosophy which, in the light of tourist demand, makes it possible through research, forecasting and selection of tourism products/services from suppliers, on the line with organization's purpose and tourist satisfaction."* (Sharma, 2013). Accordingly, the loyalty for tourism marketers can be reached by satisfying the tourists' expectations and wants (Al Muala and Al Qurneh, 2012). Nowadays, tourism marketers are using the new wave of technologies, such as the virtual tourist communities in tourism marketing (Wang et al., 2002). Furthermore, using the World Wide Web is considered to be crucial in marketing tourism destinations (Doolin et al., 2002). The success of the marketing strategy relies on fulfilling each tourist's wants, and treats him as a unique individual in all relevant sectors (travel, accommodation, food and beverage, and recreation and entertainment (Jönsson, 2005).

Tourism marketers are searching for new alternative methods to increase the attractiveness of destinations and motivate tourists to favour it depending on several factors: accessibility, amenities, and local community (Rehman et al., 2020; Reitsamer et al., 2016). The sustainable tourism marketing process sets the involvement of local people and their traditions a priority, and cares about keeping the issue of its preservation away from commodification, which can be noticed in mass tourism (Jovicic, 2016). The involvement of indigenous people in local areas increases destination attractiveness through the traditional hospitality, which makes tourists feel welcomed and treated with generosity (Karayilan and Cetin, 2016). Additionally, marketing for tourism destinations by the involvement of indigenous people, is crucial for tourism marketing and the tourism process in general. Tourism presents a mechanism to promote, preserve and save traditions, as much as traditions help to increase the tourism destination attractiveness and competitiveness (Pickett et al., 2018).

The existence of traditions of one place gives it a unique destination brand and name, thus higher level of competitiveness and attractiveness in the process of tourism marketing (Singh et al., 2016). In tourism, marketing is known as an exchange that generates satisfaction for both the host (the city or the destination) and the guest (the visitor). Successful tourism marketing is the process that convinces the tourist to visit the destination and creates an intention to repeat the visit (Kolb, 2006). In tourism marketing, the marketing process mixes (the 5 Ps) which are the price, promotion, product, place and people, and applies them on the tourism sector segments depending on modern methods, such as the electronic Word Of Mouth (e-WOM) (Wolfe and Crotts, 2011) which has a crucial effect on the choice of potential tourists (positively or negatively) (Magatef, 2015). One of the most important elements in the process of tourism marketing is the attractiveness of the destinations and its ability to have a more solid push and pull factors (Pesonen et al., 2011).

3. WOM and e-WOM

The e-WOM is a dynamic information provider for tourists, which affects their choice of purchase (Litvin et al., 2008). The WOM and the e-WOM are becoming more affective, in comparison with the traditional methods used to obtain information, since they are cheaper, faster and more accessible for potential tourists all over the world (Trusov et al., 2009). Tourists sharing their past experiences upon returning home is a vital part of tourism marketing (Prebensen et al., 2010). When the actual experience meets the expectations of tourists, their level of satisfaction will increase and this will generate a positive feedback and WOM. This in turn will reach potential tourists and increase their interest in visiting the destination (Phillips et al., 2013). WOM is affected by important factors, such as the satisfaction of tourists during their visit (Simpson and Siguaw, 2008). WOM is very important because it can affect the choice of travelling of new tourists, it also helps stakeholders to realize the changes and the developments needed in the tourism destination (Hanlan and Kelly, 2005).

Nowadays, sharing feedback on the internet such as online reviews of travellers is increasing, and it is forming a vital reason to use the World Wide Web. Many tourists rely on it in order to reduce the risk that may be taken in choosing a destination (López and Farzan, 2014; Filieri and McLeay, 2014).

4. Dutch tourists

The Netherlands is located in north-western Europe, with a population of 17 million people, and a very flat geographical nature (Schaufeli, 2018), famous for its cycling roads, the practicality of its people and their enjoyment of life (Pojani et al., 2017). Since 1993, the Netherlands is considered as one of the most important countries in outbound tourism in addition to being one of the highest outbound tourists' exporters in the world with approximately 36 million trips taken annually by Dutch tourist (Bronner and de Hoog, 2011; Isaac, 2008; Kozak et al., 2008). Dutch tourists are characterized by being the fifth highest- spending tourists while seeking high quality services and activities during their trips, with 54% of their expenditures being on transportation and 46% is divided among accommodation, transportation, and personal expenses (Anyango et al., 2013; Thrane and Farstad, 2012; Perez and Juaneda, 2000).

Dutch outbound tourists have recorded their highest numbers in history in the year 2018, where 82% of the population have travelled outside the Netherlands for tourist activities (13 million Dutch tourists), which is considered as the largest growth rate by 18% in

comparison with the year 2016. The Netherlands is expected to export approximately 40 million tourists by the year 2020 (UNWTO, 2002). This indicates that Dutch tourists are characterized by having up to three tourism trips annually per person. This generates a need to increase Jordan's market share of the Dutch outbound tourism market.

Dutch tourists' interest in culture is obvious and they are having a decent amount of travel motivations (Romão et al., 2015). Dutch tourists are concerned with traditional cultural aspects of the tourism activity; this was obvious in many events that have witnessed their high attendance when the sharing of cultures and traditions existed (Richards and Wilson, 2004).

To achieve the aim of the study, there must be deep understanding of Dutch tourists' interest in traditions, needs and wants tourists seek to fulfil, and the efficient methods to rely on to achieve a decent involvement of the Jordanian traditions in the tourism marketing process, from Dutch tourism experts and Dutch tourists' perspectives. Accordingly, qualitative methods were employed by conducting semi-structured interviews, in the period between 18th – Feb - 2019 - 14th – Apr - 2019, with Dutch tour operators and travel agencies managers and employees, in addition to interviewing Dutch tourists who visited Jordan in the period between 19th – Feb - 2019 – 2nd - Apr - 2019. The qualitative semi-structured interviews are a method of gaining further understanding of the research question (Miles and Gilbert, 2005). It enables the researcher to get in depth information through an open dialogue and discussion with interviewees, and it helps in surpassing the barriers, which helps the participant in expressing his/her opinions freely.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

1. Population and Sampling

The population of this study consists of managers and employees from Dutch tour operators and travel agencies located in the Netherlands who sell tours to Jordan, in addition to Dutch tourists who visited Jordan. Sampling depended on saturation point, which is a point achieved when no more information or codes are provided for the researcher and the answers of the interviews are being repeated (Urquhart, 2012). In order to reach the saturation points, the researcher conducted interviews with (22) Dutch tour operators and travel agencies managers and employees of the department responsible for selling tours to Jordan, in addition to (54) Dutch tourists who visited Jordan for tourism purposes. The number of the interviews was pertinent to the saturation point. For interviewing the Dutch tour operators and travel agencies, the researcher used a list containing names and contacts of Dutch tour operators located in the Netherlands and sell tours to Jordan. The researcher then reserved dates for the interviews for each interviewee. Furthermore, the researcher contacted Dutch tourists who visited Jordan to reserve an appointment with them for the interviews conducted via mobile phone.

2. Pre-testing of the interviews (pilot study)

In order to ensure that the interview questions are pertinent to the study aim and objectives, the researcher conducted a pilot study interviews with 7 Dutch tour operators and 20 Dutch tourists. The pilot study aimed to realize the questions recommended by participants, and highlight questions that were not clear. After the pilot study was conducted, more questions were added and a group of questions were removed to minimize repetition and to ensure that the information gained is pertinent to the study problem and topic. This will give a clear realization of the role of Jordanian traditions as a marketing tool in attracting Dutch tourists, and the inclusion of the gathered data in the interviews.

3. Dutch tour operators and travel agencies interviews

The first part of the interviews was conducted through mobile phone with Dutch tour operators and experts and aimed to gain in depth information about the importance of traditions in the tourism marketing process. It also aimed to evaluate its current situation in the tourism cycle from experts' perspectives, and the technologies they recommend for developing the tourism industry and the facilitation of experiencing traditions. This part of the contacted interviews provided information about the WOM and e-WOM importance as a new tourism marketing channel.

4. Dutch tourists' interviews

Dutch tour operators and travel agencies' interviews were conducted in the period (18th-February- 2019 to 4-April-2019) and lasted between 26 to 35 minutes, while the Dutch tourists' interviews were conducted in the period of (18th-February- 2019 to 4th-April-2019) and its' duration varied between 18 – 45 minutes. Snowball sampling appeared for the researcher during the interviews through being provided with contacts of Dutch tourists who visited Jordan and were interested in participating in the interviews.

Interviewing Dutch tourists who visited Jordan aimed to build a solid knowledge about the level of interest they have towards Jordanian traditions, and to what extent it enhances their experience during their visit. Questions aimed to measure their enthusiasm for traditions and the needs they seek to fulfil by experiencing them, and to realize the needed technological applications that facilitate experiencing the Jordanian traditions in the periods of pre, during and post visit. Interviews with Dutch tourists' started with introductory questions, then continued to be more specific towards the role of Jordanian traditions in attracting them to visit the country and how it can provide a positive WOM which can be shared with potential tourists and affect their choice of destinations purchase.

5. Data analysis

Analysis of the interviews was conducted using the Nvivo 12 software, together with thematic analysis, in addition to the manual analysing of the interviews which enabled the researcher to analyse the gathered data and transform them into results.

In order to achieve the aim of the study, data analysis depended on gaining the most critical information provided by participants, and transformed it into clear findings which measures the Jordanian traditions attractiveness to Dutch tourists, the Jordanian traditions role in the tourism marketing process, the most decent technologies to rely on, and the importance of (WOM) and the (e-WOM)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Jordanian traditions and the tourism marketing of Jordan

Participants in the interviews agreed that Jordanian traditions' role in the tourism marketing process is fundamental. This importance springs from an important theme and a crucial element it supports that is **"authenticity"**. Experiencing Jordanian traditions during the tour enhances it through enabling the encounter of originality with local indigenous people who do not work in the tourism industry. In other words, tourists will feel more relaxed and welcomed when they are with people living in villages or Bedouin areas with no commercial backgrounds. Enhancing the authenticity of the trip leads to satisfying and fulfilling the cultural needs of tourists, and thus increasing their level of satisfaction which will then generate a positive feedback that will reach a wide scale of potential tourists (Figure 1).

In the marketing process for potential tourists, experts believe that marketing campaigns are ought to include materials which show the

way indigenous people live. This will be more attractive for tourists seeking a new cultural experience. However, experts indicated that Jordanian traditional aspects are not gaining the amount of attention in the marketing campaigns and most of the focus is on the tourism highlighted destinations i.e. the most famous places. Accordingly, it is suggested to increase the participation of the Jordanian traditional aspects in the marketing campaigns of Jordanian tourist destinations.

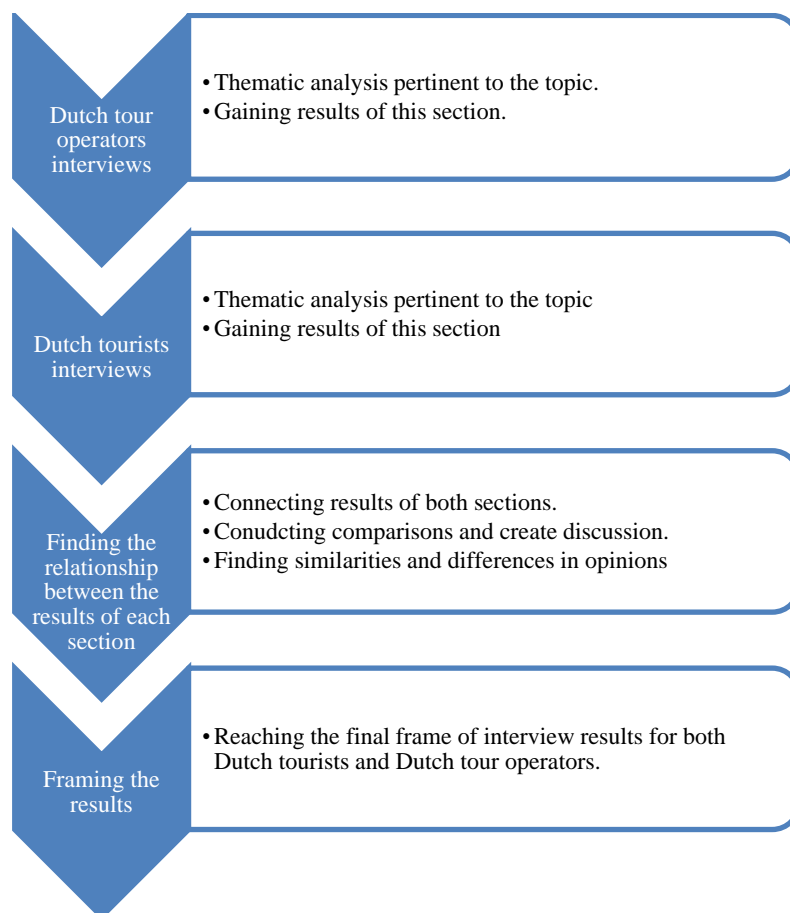


Figure 1. Data Analysis Process

2. Jordanian traditions and Dutch tourists

The study indicates that Jordanian traditions involvement is demanded by Dutch tourists for its' role in enhancing the authenticity and as a participant in the interviews called it *"the real soul of the country"* which fosters their satisfaction and generates a positive WOM that will be delivered to a decent number of potential tourists.

The study found a ranking for the most attractive Jordanian traditions for Dutch tourists as follows: the most attractive tradition was the Jordanian traditional lifestyle, which includes the daily life of Jordanian people and the way they welcome guests. However, it was the least experienced tradition because of the itineraries time limit and its' design which only focuses on the famous tourists destinations and ignores the traditional aspects. The second most attractive aspect found is the Jordanian traditional cuisine, including the dishes and the ceremonies accompanying it, such as weddings and festivals. Lastly, the thirdmost attractive tradition is the Jordanian traditional clothing.



Figure 2. Jordanian Traditions Role in Tourism Marketing

3. Jordanian traditions and technology

The study revealed the most reliable technological applications to depend on in the process of increasing the involvement of Jordanian traditions from Dutch tourists' perspective. The dependence on those technologies is divided into three sections, and each section depends on a specific time period which is pre, during and post visit. Table 1 explains the needed technologies for facilitating the experience of Jordanian traditions for Dutch tourists.

4. WOM and e-WOM as a marketing channel

The study indicated that Dutch tourists consider WOM and e-WOM as their first source of trusted information; because it is from regular tourists who have no advertising or commercial backgrounds. Results show that most Dutch tourists share their opinions about the touristic experience they had in destinations they visited. According to the interviews, participants who encountered the traditional aspects gave it a decent percentage of their feedback shared to their friends and relatives. Technological developments facilitated the process of delivering

their ideas and opinions to people around the world using many applications and websites available, such as Google review, Trip advisor etc., or by sharing pictures and videos on social media. Such reviews affect the choice of purchase of potential tourists.

Table 1. Technologies for facilitating the experience of Jordanian traditions for Dutch tourists

Time period	Technological applications relied on
Pre-visit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Online reviews, such as Google reviews, Trip advisor. - Social media posts, such as Instagram and Facebook - Websites and web-pages including information about the destinations.
During visit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Navigation applications. - Translation applications. - E-guides (software explaining about tourist places; were to go and what to do
Post visit (Feedback)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Social media, such as Facebook and Instagram - Online review applications, such as Google review and Trip advisor

CONCLUSION

In summary, the current study, revealed the importance of Jordanian traditions in attracting Dutch tourists and enhance their touristic experience, which was highlighted by their preference for several aspects of Jordanian traditions, such as cuisine, ceremonies and clothing which was considered to be the most attractive touristic aspect.

Experiencing Jordanian traditions raised the levels of Dutch tourists' satisfaction, and thus generated a positive feedback about the tour in general. This can motivate potential tourists looking for a destination to travel for their holidays or any other tourism purposes. Accordingly, the role of WOM and e-WOM is important, and its' importance is growing because of the technological developments enabling knowledge about different experiences to be shared with a wide scale of people.

REFERENCES

- Abu-Khafajah, S. (2011). Meaning-making process of cultural heritage in Jordan: The local communities, the contexts, and the archaeological sites in the Citadel of Amman. *New Perspectives in Global Public Archaeology*, 183-196. Springer, New York, NY. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-0341-8_14
- Al-Azzam, A. (2016). A study of the impact of marketing mix for attracting medical tourism in Jordan. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 8(1), 139-149. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijms.v8n1p139>
- Al Haija, A.A. (2011). Jordan: Tourism and conflict with local communities. *Habitat International*, 35(1), 93-100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.habitatint.2010.04.002>
- Alhasanat, S., & Hyasat, A. (2011). Socio cultural Impacts of Tourism on the Local Community in Petra Jordan. *Jordan Journal of Social Sciences*, 166(742), 1-30. <https://doi.org/10.1080/04353684.1982.11879467>
- Al-Makhadmah, I.M. (2020). The role of virtual museum in promoting religious tourism in Jordan. *GeoJournal of Tourism & Geosites*, 28(1), 268-274. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.28121-468>
- Al Muala, A., & Al Qurneh, M. (2012). Assessing the relationship between marketing mix and loyalty through tourists satisfaction in Jordan curative tourism. *American Academic & Scholarly Research Journal*, 4(2), 1, Corpus ID: 130904733.
- Anyango, N.M., Duim, R., & Peters, K. (2013). Spending of Dutch tourists: the locality of money. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 43, 639-642. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2013.07.004>
- Bader, M., Alrousan, R., Abuamoud, I., & Alasal, H.A. (2016). Urban Tourism in Jordan: Challenges and Opportunities Case Study: Amman. *British Journal of Economics*, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.9734/BJEMT/2016/24589>
- Baltus. (2018). *Outbound tourism The Netherlands highest figures in history*. <https://www.baltuscommunications.com/en/news/outbound-tourism-the-netherlands-highest-figures-in-history>
- Barham, N., Dorry, S., & Schamp, E.W. (2007). Relational Governance and Regional Upgrading in Global Value Chains-The Case of Package Tourism in Jordan. *Erde-Berlin*, 138(2), 169-186.
- Bronner, F., & de Hoog, R. (2011). Economizing behaviour during travel: Strategies and information sources used. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 17(3), 185-195. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766711409180>
- Butler, R. (2007). *Tourism and indigenous peoples: Issues and implications*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14724040902786641>
- Doolin, B., Burgess, L., & Cooper, J. (2002). Evaluating the use of the Web for tourism marketing: a case study from New Zealand. *Tourism management*, 23(5), 557-561. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(02\)00014-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(02)00014-6)
- Echtner, C.M., & Prasad, P. (2003). The context of third world tourism marketing. *Annals of Tourism research*, 30(3), 660-682. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(03\)00045-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(03)00045-8)
- Filieri, R., & McLeay, F. (2014). E-WOM and accommodation: An analysis of the factors that influence travelers' adoption of information from online reviews. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(1), 44-57. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287513481274>
- Fischer, J., Khan, I., Khemani, T., Mak, D., & Najmi, R. (2009). Jordan tourism cluster. *Report For Microeconomics of Competitiveness*, 8.
- Goussous, J., & Al-Jaafreh, O. (2020). Sustainable Tourism Development in Historical Cities Case Study: Karak, Jordan. In *Sustainable Development and Social Responsibility*, 2, 319-332, Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-32902-0_34
- Hanlan, J., & Kelly, S. (2005). Image formation, information sources and an iconic Australian tourist destination. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 11(2), 163-177. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766705052573>
- Isaac, R. (2008). *Understanding the behaviour of cultural tourists: towards a classification of dutch cultural tourists*. Academy of tourism, Science Guide. ISBN: 9789051798302.
- Jönsson, C., (2005). *Tourism Marketing Basics*. University of the West Indies, 417-443. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10548400802508499>
- Jovicic, D. (2016). Cultural tourism in the context of relations between mass and alternative tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(6), 605-612. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2014.932759>
- Karayilan, E., & Cetin, G. (2016). Tourism destination: Design of experiences. In *The handbook of managing and marketing tourism experiences*, 65-83. Emerald Group Publishing Limited. <https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-78635-290-320161004>
- Khaleefah, Q. (2020). Is there a difference between the capabilities of foreign and domestic managers? A case study at five and four stars hotels in Aqaba-Jordan. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30(2spl), 861-867. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl111-515>
- Kivela, J., & Crotts, J.C. (2006). Tourism and gastronomy: Gastronomy's influence on how tourists experience a destination. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 30(3), 354-377. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348006286797>
- Kolb, B. (2006). *Tourism marketing for cities and towns*. Rutledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780080460758>
- Kotler, P., Haider, D.H., & Rein, I. (2002). *Marketing places: attracting investment, industry, and tourism to cities, states, and regions*. Simon and Schuster. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759403200383>
- Kotler, P., Haider, D.H., & Rein, I. (1993). *Marketing places: attracting investment, industry, and tourism to cities, states, and nations*. The Free Press. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941660208722111>
- Kozak, M., Gokovali, U., & Bahar, O. (2008). Estimating the determinants of tourist spending: a comparison of four models. *Tourism Analysis*, 13(2), 1, 43-155. <https://doi.org/10.3727/108354208785664283>
- Lanquar, R. (2015). Tourism in the Mediterranean. In *Economic and social development of the southern and eastern mediterranean countries*, 111-126,

- Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-11122-3_8
- Lewis, J.R., & Hammer, O. (2007). *The invention of sacred tradition*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511488450>
- Litvin, S.W., Goldsmith, R.E., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism management*, 29(3), 458-468. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.05.011>
- López, C., & Farzan, R. (2014). Analysis of local online review systems as digital word-of-mouth. In *Proceedings of the 23rd International Conference on World Wide Web*, 457-462. ACM. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2567948.2576933>
- Magatef, S.G. (2015). The impact of tourism marketing mix elements on the satisfaction of inbound tourists to Jordan. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 6(7), 41-58.
- Mahadin, B., Akroush, M.N., & Bata, H. (2020). The effects of tourism websites' attributes on e-satisfaction and e-loyalty: a case of American travellers' to Jordan. *International Journal of Web Based Communities*, 16(1), 4-33. <https://doi.org/10.1504/IJWBC.2020.105124>
- Miles, J., & Gilbert, P. (Eds.). (2005). *A handbook of research methods for clinical and health psychology*. Oxford University Press on Demand. <https://doi.org/10.1093/med:psych/9780198527565.001>
- Neveu, N. (2010). Islamic tourism as an ideological construction: A Jordan study case. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 8(4), 327-337. <https://doi.org/10.1080/4766825.2010.521252>
- Oweis, A., Gharaibeh, M., Maaitah, R., Gharaibeh, H., & Obeisat, S. (2012). Parenting from a Jordanian perspective: findings from a qualitative study. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 44(3), 242-248. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1547-5069.2012.01455>
- Perez, E.A., & Juaneda, S.C. (2000). Tourist expenditure for mass tourism markets. *Annals of tourism research*, 27(3), 624-637. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(99\)00101-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00101-2)
- Pesonen, J., Komppula, R., Kronenberg, C., & Peters, M. (2011). Understanding the relationship between push and pull motivations in rural tourism. *Tourism Review*, 66(3), 32-49. <https://doi.org/10.1108/16605371111175311>
- Phillips, W.J., Wolfe, K., Hodur, N., & Leistriz, F.L. (2013). Tourist word of mouth and revisit intentions to rural tourism destinations: A case of North Dakota, USA. *International journal of tourism research*, 15(1), 93-104. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.879>
- Pickett, J.P., Scanlon, M., Peterson, R.D., & O'Neil, S.T. (2018). Promoting Culture and Traditions of CumbeThrough Tourism.
- Pidgrina, V., & Filipchuk, N. (2020). Development of the tourist services market in Ukraine under conditions of transformation changes. *GeoJournal of Tourism & Geosites*, 30(2spl), 794-800. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl03-507>
- Pojani, D., Bakija, D., Shkreli, E., Corcoran, J., & Mateo-Babiano, I. (2017). Do Northwestern and Southeastern Europe share a common "cycling mindset"? Comparative analysis of beliefs toward cycling in the Netherlands and the Balkans. *European journal of transport and infrastructure research*, 17(1). <https://doi.org/10.18757/ejtr.2017.17.1.3178>
- Porter, B.W., & Salazar, N.B. (2005). Heritage tourism, conflict, and the public interest: An introduction. *International journal of heritage studies*, 11(5), 361-370. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13527250500337397>
- Prebensen, N., Skallerud, K., & Chen, J.S. (2010). Tourist motivation with sun and sand destinations: satisfaction and the wom-effect. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27(8), 858-873. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2010.527253>
- Rehman, O.U., Liu, X., Rauf, A., Slama, M.B., & Amin, W. (2020). Internet tradition and tourism development: A causality analysis on BRI listed economies. *Tourism Economics*, 26(6), 926-957. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1354816619846251>
- Reitsamer, B.F., Brunner-Sperdin, A., & Stokburger-Sauer, N.E. (2016). Destination attractiveness and destination attachment: The mediating role of tourists' attitude. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 19, 93-101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2016.05.003>
- Richards, G. (2016). Cultural tourism. In *Archaeological Displays and the Public*, 1-11. Routledge, 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2018.03.005>
- Richards, G., & Wilson, J. (2004). The impact of cultural events on city image: Rotterdam, cultural capital of Europe 2001. *Urban studies*, 41(10), 1931-1951. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0042098042000256323>
- Ringold, D.J., & Weitz, B. (2007). The American Marketing Association definition of marketing: Moving from lagging to leading indicator. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 26(2), 251-260. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jppm.26.2.251>
- Romão, J., Neuts, B., Nijkamp, P., & van Leeuwen, E. (2015). Culture, product differentiation and market segmentation: a structural analysis of the motivation and satisfaction of tourists in Amsterdam. *Tourism Economics*, 21(3), 455-474. <https://doi.org/10.5367/te.2015.0483>
- Rousan, R.A., Ibraheim, H., Bader, M., & Khasawneh, N. (2020). Sustainable Tourism Development in Jordan. Measuring Customer Satisfaction of American Tourists Visiting Petra and Mount Nebo in Jordan. *Journal of Environmental Management & Tourism*, 11(4 (44)), 1001-1012. [https://doi.org/10.14505/jemt.v11.4\(44\).26](https://doi.org/10.14505/jemt.v11.4(44).26)
- Schaufeli, W.B. (2018). Work engagement in Europe. *Organ.Dyn*, 47, 99-106. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.10491.31520>
- Sharma, A. (2013). Destination marketing: Hamper of opportunities for tourism industry. *International Journal of Management Sciences and Business Research*, 2(5), 20-30.
- Shunnaq, M., Schwab, W.A., & Reid, M.F. (2008). Community development using a sustainable tourism strategy: a case study of the Jordan River Valley tourist way. *International journal of tourism research*, 10(1), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.620>
- Simpson, P.M., & Siguaw, J.A. (2008). Destination word of mouth: The role of traveler type, residents, and identity salience. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(2), 167-182. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287508321198>
- Singh, S., Charu, A., & Tyagi, M. (2016). Role of culture and traditions in promotion of tourism. *Journal of Latest Technology in Engineering Management and Applied Science*, 5(2), 2278-2540
- Thrane, C., & Farstad, E. (2012). Nationality as a segmentation criterion in tourism research: The case of international tourists' expenditures while on trips in Norway. *Tourism Economics*, 18(1), 203-217. <https://doi.org/10.5367/te.2012.0110>
- Trillo, C., Aburamadan, R., Udeaja, C., Moustaka, A., Baffour, K.G., & Makore, B.C.N. (2020). Enhancing heritage and traditional architecture conservation through digital technologies. Developing a digital conservation handbook for As-Salt, Jordan. In *International symposium: New Metropolitan Perspectives*, 211-219, Springer, Cham. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-52869-0>
- Trusov, M., Bucklin, R.E., & Pauwels, K. (2009). Effects of word-of-mouth versus traditional marketing: findings from an internet social networking site. *Journal of marketing*, 73(5), 90-102. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.73.5.90>
- Wang, Y., Yu, Q., & Fesenmaier, D.R. (2002). Defining the virtual tourist community: implications for tourism marketing. *Tourism management*, 23(4), 407-417. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(01\)00093-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(01)00093-0)
- Wolfe, Sr.M.J., & Crotts, J.C. (2011). Marketing mix modeling for the tourism industry: A best practices approach. *International Journal of Tourism Sciences*, 11(1), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15980634.2011.11434633>
- Zalloom, B. (2020). Enhancing Tourism by Reconnecting the Fragmented Landscape of WadiAraba in Jordan. *Journal of Urban Planning and Development*, 146(3), 05020010. [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)UP.1943-5444.0000592](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)UP.1943-5444.0000592)
- Zamil, A. (2011). The Role of Jordanian Local Community in Marketing Tourism. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*, 2(3), 42, ISSN 2152-1034.
- *** MOTA (2018). Tourism statistics in Jordan Retrieved from http://www.mota.gov.jo/Contents/Statistics_2018_2nd.aspx
- *** UNWTO (2002). Tourism highlights Retrieved from: <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284406876>
- *** UN. (2019). Jordan Retrieved from <http://jo.one.un.org/en/about-jordan/> Urquhart, C. (2012). *Grounded theory for qualitative research: A practical guide*. Sage. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781526402196>

SOLIDIFYING TOURISTS' POST-TRAVEL MEMORIES THROUGH SOUVENIR

Folasayo E. OLALERE*

Durban University of Technology, Department of Visual Communication Design,
Anton Lembede St, Greyville, Durban 4023, South Africa, email: folasayoo@dut.ac.za

Citation: Olalere, F.E. (2020). SOLIDIFYING TOURISTS' POST-TRAVEL MEMORIES THROUGH SOUVENIR. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1456–1461. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl02-593>

Abstract: This paper explores how souvenir can be designed as a means of promoting tourism destinations and experiences. To achieve the research aim, the study first conducted a survey to determine the attributes that influence tourists' souvenir purchase preferences. A Likert scale questionnaire was used, comprising of questions that cut across the design performance and cultural evaluation indices. The results, which were analysed using descriptive statistics, indicate that the top three attributes that tourists look for in souvenir are features that evoke travel experience, usability and branding with destination features. Based on these findings, experimental research was further conducted to develop a series of souvenir with the attributes embedded. The outcome suggests that the approach could help promote the cultural aspects and also convey the essence of tourism destination to potential visitors.

Key words: cultural product design, experience-centred design, souvenir, product attribute, tourism.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

With the ethnic and cultural diversity, South Africa is known for its indigenous arts and crafts (cultural objects), such as beadwork, pottery, basket making, embroidery etc. However, as South Africans become increasingly urbanised and westernised, aspects of this traditional culture have declined and only sustained among rural inhabitants who still lead largely impoverished lives. But then, evidence shows that these cultural objects, which originate from a multi-cultural blend of traditions, offers great potentials for enhancing tourism sector both locally and in the global market (Olalere, 2017). The tourism sector is one of the largest and fastest-growing industries in the world, contributing to 9% of the global GDP, and accounts for one in eleven jobs worldwide (World Tourism Organization, 2015). The year 2012 was a milestone year for tourism, recording over one billion (1.035 billion) international tourists arrivals globally within a year (World Tourism Organization, 2013); US\$1.2 trillion direct and indirect impact on the world economy, US\$70 billion in investment and US\$1.2 trillion in exports (Fuller, 2013; World Travel & Tourism Council, n.d.). For six consecutive years (2012-2017), there was a sequence of uninterrupted growth in international tourist arrivals, amounting to around 288 million more international tourists between 2012 and 2017, and an average of 4.5% increase in international arrivals per annum (Olalere, 2019; World Tourism Organization, 2019). There was an exceptional growth rate in 2017 (+7%) and 2018 (+6%) (World Tourism Organization, 2020a), and in 2019, the international tourist arrivals globally increased by 4% to reach 1.5 billion (World Tourism Organization, 2020b) (Figure 1).

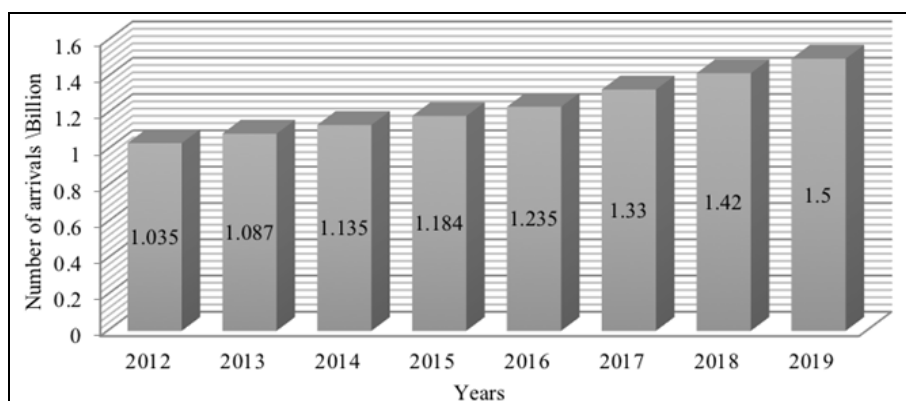


Figure 1. Global international tourist arrivals (Source: World Tourism Organization, 2020b)

As for South Africa, which has been one of the top-most tourism destinations in Africa, the foreign tourist arrivals in 2018 grew by 1.8% (compared to 2017) to 10.5 million and generated R82.5 billion tourism revenue (South African Tourism, 2019a). In the first quarter of 2019 (January to March), South African Tourism recorded R25.1 billion total foreign direct spend, which amounts to 24.1% increase in direct spend compared to the same period in 2018 (South African Tourism, 2019b). Data by South African Tourism (2019a) shows that 64% of the revenue generated in 2018 are from leisure spending. Hence, the high volume of leisure tourists and the top attractions across the country, which are mostly natural attractions and shopping malls, drive the increased revenue generated from tourism.

According to Oh et al. (2004), one of the ubiquitous activities and important leisure pursuit of many people during vacations and trips is shopping. Apart from visiting tourist attractions, many tourists purposefully seek enjoyable shopping opportunities as a familiar activity in an unfamiliar environment. According to the quarterly report by the South African Tourism department, shopping and nightlife are the top activities

* Corresponding author

for tourists in South Africa (Olalere, 2017; South African Tourism, 2016). The estimated value of revenue generated from shopping in the second quarter of 2016 is R4.9 billion, which remains the biggest spend category in South Africa tourism (South African Tourism, 2016).

Even though the complexities, meanings, and practices of shopping have not been well understood (Swanson and Timothy, 2012), studies show that shopping in terms of souvenir is one of the distinctive reasons why people travel to other places (Brennan and Savage, 2012; Lunyai et al., 2008; Swanson, 2004). According to Brennan and Savage (2012), souvenirs are central to the tourism experience, because, they are embedded with strong semiotic messages that transform intangible experiences into tangible memories. Besides, they enable us to freeze a passing moment in an extraordinary reality and to re-live the experience in routine time and space (Collins-Kreiner and Zins, 2011).

Apart from souvenir serving as a memento of tourism experience, it also plays a significant role as an agent of economic development by accelerating economic growth, alleviating poverty and increasing sustainable development within the host communities through souvenir production and sales (Lacher and Nepal, 2011). Besides, it can also help in promoting tourism destination and experiences to potential visitors, which is an effective means of developing the tourism industry. This is evidence in the inclusion of marketing and promotion as one of the key national policies to ignite the tourism engine of growth in South Africa (South African Tourism Task Team, 1996). The policy stressed the importance of marketing and promoting attractions (both well-established and emerging attractions) and experiences to tourists and potential visitors. Similarly, several studies indicated that souvenir could directly or indirectly serve as a means of promoting tourism destinations and experiences (Gordon, 1986; Olalere, 2017; Swanson and Horridge, 2004, 2006). However, there is little or no study that explores how such souvenir can be designed and produced. Most of the studies focus on souvenir purchase intention, behaviour and the factors that influence tourists' purchase decisions (Amaro et al., 2019; Anderson and Littrell, 1996; Bynum-Boley et al., 2013; Haldrup, 2017; Kim and Littrell, 2001; Lunyai et al., 2008; Meitiana et al., 2019; Swanson and Horridge, 2004; Wilkins, 2010). There is apparently no study conducted on how those identified factors (such as product attributes) can be applied to develop souvenir that meets tourists' expectations, promote attractions and experiences.

Research shows that many souvenirs do not meet tourists' expectations, as they often lack aesthetics, functionality and meanings; thus, as time passes, they are most times deserted and stripped of their role as travel mementoes (Collins-Kreiner and Zins, 2011; Lee et al., 2017). Hence, an approach towards enhancing the meaning of souvenirs, as suggested by Lee et al. (2017, 178), is to make them function as an emotional connector that enhances and maintains tourists' travel experiences. Against this backdrop, this study seeks to explore how souvenir can be designed in a way that solidifies tourists' post-travel memories and maintains a connection with tourism destination.

The remaining sections in this paper increase the breadth of knowledge in relation to the study by firstly, describing the method used in data collection, analysis, and the experimental procedures. Secondly, the findings from both the survey and experimental case study were presented, and the methods used were rationalised in the discussion. Finally, the last section of the paper summarises the findings to answer the research questions, highlights the limitations of the study and recommends future research directions.

METHODOLOGY

To achieve the aim of this study, which is to explore how souvenir can be designed to enhance tourism experience, the study was guided by the following research questions:

- i. *What are the product attributes that influence tourists' perception towards souvenirs?*
- ii. *How can the identified attributes be embedded in a souvenir to enhance its meaning as a means of reliving tourism experiences?*

The exploratory study was executed in two stages; survey and an experimental case study.

Survey

The stage employed a quantitative, exploratory research method in the form of a survey to answer the first research question. The population for the survey was foreign tourists who had visited or are on a visit to South Africa. The name and contact details (social media account) of tourists were retrieved from International travel blogs through purposeful sampling technique (Backpackr, Travello, Travelstart, Getaway, and Ranger Diaries). According to the definition by Puhlinger and Taylor (2008), travel blogs are the equivalent of personal online diaries written by tourist to report back to friends and families about their activities and experiences during trips.

The study used an online survey questionnaire (Qualtrics Online Survey), and selected participants who agreed to participate in the survey were sent the link to the questionnaire. Tourists selection from the blogs were narrowed based on two criteria: 1) the person's entries on the travel blog must reflect that he/she was a foreign tourist to South Africa; 2) must report shopping as part of his/her activities during the trip to South Africa. The reason for the second criteria is to focus specifically on recreational or leisure shoppers as first profiled by Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980). The questionnaires comprise of two sections. Section 1 includes six demographic questions while section 2 are questions developed based on ten (10) evaluation indexes, which cut across the design performance and cultural elements as proposed by Hsu et al. (2013). Five-point Likert scales were used, ranging from 5, 'very important' to 1, 'very unimportant.' The respondents (foreign tourists) were asked to rate the criteria they used when purchasing souvenir during their visit to South Africa. The outcome of the research was analysed using descriptive statistics, with the aid of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), and the findings revealed those attributes that greatly influence souvenir purchase decisions.

Experimental case study

To answer the second research question, an experimental study was conducted where the findings from the survey were used as a guide in developing souvenirs. The undergraduate students in a second years design class were selected to participate in this experimental case study. Before the student participated in the experimental case study, they attended two briefing sessions. At the first briefing session, the students were briefed about the initial survey and the findings. The details of the study were presented to the students so that they can have a clear understanding of the purpose of the study, the progress and findings. The second briefing focussed on the application of the findings in developing souvenirs. At this session, students were exposed to the cultural design model by Lin (2007), and examples of products designed using this approach were presented to the student so that they can have a clear understanding of its application.

This transformative approach developed by Lin (2007) called the *Cultural Design Model* uses scenario and story-telling approaches, which comprises of four steps; 1) setting a scenario (investigation); 2) telling a story (interaction); 3) writing a script (development), and 4) designing a product (implementation). Setting a Scenario: Before exploring people's experience, it is important first to understand their background and domain; that is, how they interpret or interact with objects they meet on a daily basis, taking into consideration the economic issues, social culture and technological applications. Hence, this step analysis situations or objects to determine the important features or characteristics that can be applied at any of the three cultural levels: outer level (such as colour, texture, pattern etc.), mid-level (such as usability, function etc.), and inner lever (such as cultural meaning, emotion).

- **Storytelling:** Based on the scenario that has been set in the previous step, this step builds empathy and understanding of users' past experiences to develop a storytelling that describes intended user's need and the features of the product.
- **Development:** This step involves concept development based on the developed scenario and story. Here, relevant ideas are created using visual methods such as text and pictograph, and the product attributes are embedded at three cultural design levels; i) visceral; ii) behavioural and iii) reflective level (Norman, 2004). The embedded attributes at the visceral level are tangible attributes that enhance the physical appearance of the design. At the behavioural level, the attributes are human-related and enhance the functionality, user pleasure, usability etc. In contrast, the attributes at the reflective level are intangible and enhance the subjective level such as self-image, emotion and affection.
- **Design a product:** Here, the design knowledge gained, and the sense of design are combined to create the product. The features applied in the design process are also evaluated.

The class, comprising of twelve students, was divided into three groups (four students per group). Each group was asked to select a tourism destination in South Africa and then design a souvenir that promotes the destination to tourists. The main criteria set for the souvenir design is that it must possess the top three product attributes indicated in the previous survey findings.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Two hundred thirty-one (231) responded to the online survey questionnaire, which amounts to 63.5 per cent responses. However, prior to data analysis, 23 incomplete questionnaires were removed, leaving a total of 208 samples. The sample consists of both male (61.1 per cent) and female (38.9 per cent) participants with the age range from 18 to 59. The highest percentage of the respondents (46.2%) are between the ages of 18 and 29, while 42.3% of the total respondents have income range from \$1000 to \$3999 per month (Table 1). Nearly 60 percent of the participants reported that they travel between 2 to 4 times per year for vacation.

When asked the major purpose of their trip, around two-third (65.4 percent) of the respondents reported the purpose of their trip to be leisure tourism, 15.4 per cent are education tourists while 7.7 per cent are business tourists.

Table 1. Demographic data of participants

Demographic Factor		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	127	61.1
	Female	81	38.9
Age	18 - 29	96	46.2
	30 - 44	72	34.6
	45 - 59	40	19.2
Income per month	Less than \$1000	80	38.5
	\$1000 - \$3999	88	42.3
	\$4000 - \$11,999	40	19.2
How often do you go on vacation?	Once per year	64	30.8
	2-4 times per year	120	57.7
	5-8 times per year	24	11.5
What type of tourist do you often go for?	Business tourist	16	7.7
	Education tourist	32	15.4
	Leisure tourist	136	65.4
	Others	24	11.5

The purpose of this survey was to identify the product attributes that influence tourists' souvenir purchase decision. In other words, investigate why tourists buy souvenirs during their trip(s) to South Africa and their expectations when buying souvenirs. When the respondents (foreign tourists) were asked about the major purpose for buying a souvenir, 53.8 per cent of the participants reported that they purchased a souvenir to serve as a reminder of their travel experience. Since respondents were allowed to select as many answers as applied to them, the result obtained based on the descriptive statistics also revealed that 46.2 % buy a souvenir as evidence of visiting a place while 42.3 per cent indicated that they buy souvenir both as a representation of famous icons and as a gift for family and friends (Figure 2).

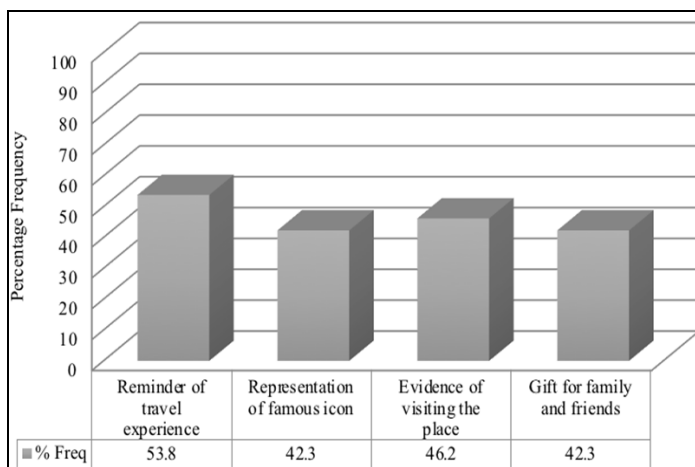


Figure 2. Purpose of souvenir purchase (Source: Olalere, 2017)

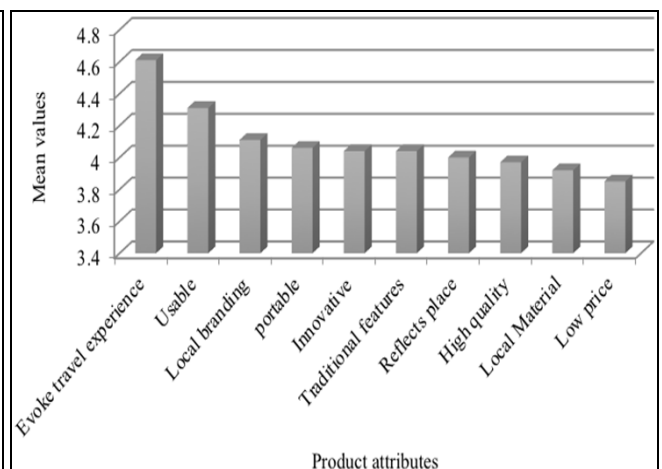


Figure 3. Mean values of the product attributes' influence on souvenir purchase preference

Figure 2 shows that "reminder of travel experience" is the most stated reason for buying a souvenir, which is evidence that souvenirs play a significant role in sustaining travel experiences (Olalere, 2017). This finding is similar to Brenna and Savage's definition of souvenir as central to the tourism experience and can potentially transform intangible into tangible experiences through embedded

semiotic messages (Brennan and Savage, 2012). Similarly, Collins-Kreiner and Zins, (2011), and Swanson (2004) opine that souvenir helps tourist to re-live the experience in routine time and space.

Figure 3 shows that the most important attribute that tourists look for in a souvenir is to evoke a travel experience; this attribute recorded the highest mean value of 4.61. The rating corresponds with the respondents' purpose of purchasing a souvenir. That is, the highest percentage of respondents reported "reminder of travel experience" as the reason for buying a souvenir, and therefore they seek souvenirs with the attributes that can evoke their travel experience (even long after the trip). Desmet (2003) opines that there are always some motives attached to any product we invest resources on, in this case, souvenir could be seen as an instrument that helps tourists accomplish a goal (evoking travel experience). Hence, they anticipated an event of possessing a souvenir that will evoking travel experience (expectation). According to Desmet and Hekkert (2002), Desmet and Hekkert (2007) and Luke (2009), any souvenir that meets that expectation is appraised as motive compliant, which results to a consequent decision to purchase the souvenir.

Usability and branding with destination feature are the 2nd and 3rd highest rated attributes, respectively. The functional attribute can also be linked to the purpose of purchasing the souvenir. Since many respondents prefer a product that reminds them of their travel experiences, an interactive or engaging souvenir can also be a means of evoking or re-living travel experiences. Furthermore, since the "evidence of visiting a place" is the second-rated reason for purchasing a souvenir, souvenirs branded with destination features would serve as evidence that the tourist has visited a particular place. Interestingly and possibly counterintuitively, the price is the lowest attribute that influences tourists' souvenir purchase decisions. Even though much research shows that price has a significant impact on purchase intention or decisions (Thu Ha and Gizaw, 2014; Álvarez and Casielles, 1993; Seng and Husin, 2015; Faith and Edwin, 2014), this study shows that price has a lesser influence on souvenir purchase decision than possibly predicted. Based on the ten (10) items in the evaluation, reliability analysis (Cronbach's Alpha) was calculated to test the reliability and internal consistency of data. The result shows that the alpha coefficient is 0.789. According to Hair et al. (1998), a Cronbach's Alpha of more than 0.7 indicates that the items are homogenous and are measuring the same constant. Thus, the Cronbach's Alpha of 0.789 recorded, which is higher than the recommended value as suggested by Hair et al. (1998) indicates that the measures in this study are reliable.

Experimental Case Study: Souvenir Design

This experimental case study was guided by the findings from the survey and the cultural design model by Lin (2007). Each of the three groups (four students in each group) selected a tourism destination in South Africa and then designed a souvenir that promotes the destination to tourists. The main criteria set for the souvenir design is that it must possess the top three product attributes indicated in the previous survey findings, which was presented to them in the first briefing session. That is: firstly, it must evoke travel experience of the selected tourism destination. Secondly, it must be functional (usable), and lastly, it must reflect the local identity of the place (branded with destination features). The students worked on this project for four weeks, with three hours of contact time per week. Each group was allowed to continue the project outside the formal three hours class per week. The three groups were asked to employ the four steps of the cultural design process. 1. Setting a scenario; 2. Storytelling; 3. Development; 4. Design a product. At the first step, the findings from the survey guided in setting the scenario as it reveals the features (attribute) that tourists seek in a souvenir. At the second step, the tourists' expectations were further described using storytelling and developed into relevant design ideas at the third step, as shown in Figure 4-6. Lastly, the design knowledge gained was employed at the fourth step in creating the souvenir products (Figure 4-6).

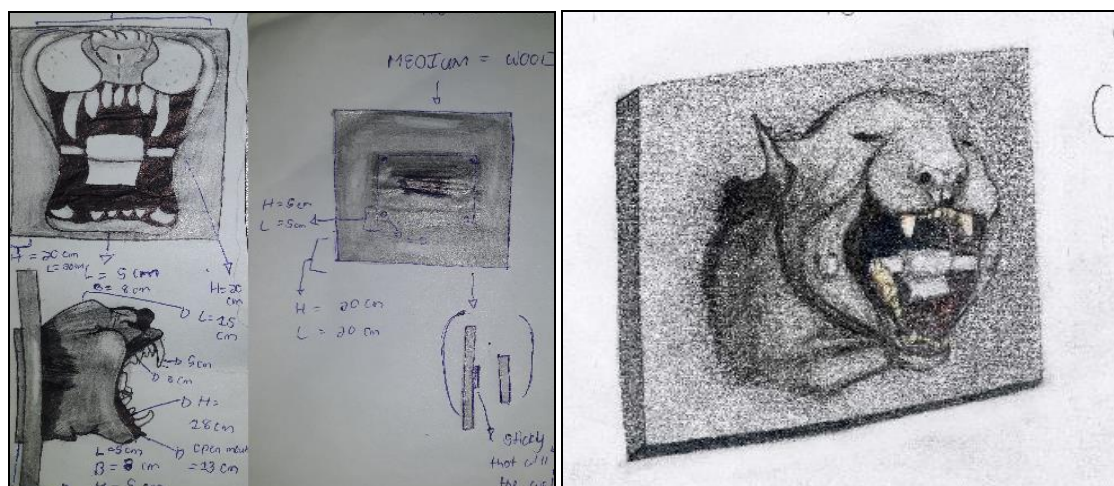


Figure 4. Wall tissue paper holder using black leopard as the design influence

i. Group A: Kruger National Park

The first group (Group A) selected Kruger National Park for their experimental case study. The team designed a wall tissue paper holder using black leopard as the design influence (Figure 4). Black leopard often said to be a myth, is elusive as it only makes up a mere 1% of the entire leopard population. Record shows that there are several reported sightings of black leopard around the Kruger National Park than anywhere else in the world. Even though most of the reported sightings can only be confirmed orally, the group intends to create awareness about this uniqueness as a means of promoting the national park.

ii. Group B: Addo Elephant National Park

The second group (Group B) selected Addo Elephant National Park and developed a portable camp chair with an elephant as the design influence. Addo Elephant Park, one of the top three National Parks in South Africa, was established in 1931 to specifically protect Addo elephants that were on the brink of extinction due to decimation. Therefore, the group used an elephant as a design influence in creating a portable camp chair. Elephant was used as the design influence as it not only reflects the name and the major attraction at the park, it also tells a story and represent a narrative of how and why the park was established or proclaimed. Figure 5 shows the concept development stages that the group went through before arriving at the final product, which is a portable camp chair.



Figure 5. A camp chair inspired by the head of an elephant

iii. Group C: Castle of Good Hope

The third group (Group C) selected the Castle of Good Hope, which was declared a historical monument in 1936 (Castle of Good Hope, n.d.). The castle is the oldest existing colonial building in South Africa. It has a bell tower situated over the main entrance, which was used to announce time and also warn citizens of any danger (Figure 6). The group developed a table lamp stand using the bell tower as the design influence (Figure 7).



Figure 6. Castle of Good Hope main entrance (Castle of Good Hope, n.d.)

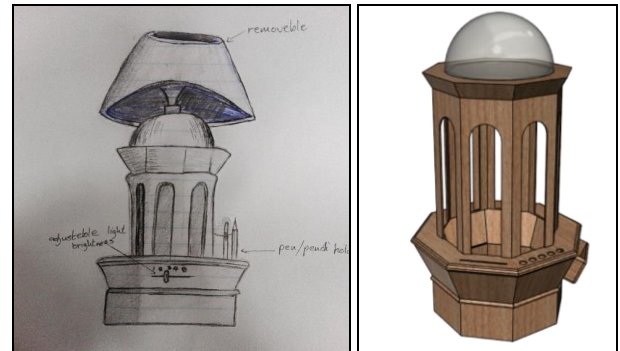


Figure 7. A table lamp design in form of the Castle of Good Hope

In summary, the groups (A-C) were able to embed the attributes (evoking trace experience, usable and destination features) in the souvenir designs at the three levels of cultural design. The attribute, aimed to evoke travel experience, was introduced at the reflective level through product-user interaction. Group-A designed a souvenir that engaged users at a subjective level through interaction with leopard's bodily structure. For example; the tissue is positioned in the mouth cavity in a way that when pulled, it seems like pulling the tongue of the leopard. The leopard teeth are also introduced for cutting the tissue paper. Hence, this interaction triggers experiences and memories at subjective (reflective) level. The usability attribute is at the behavioural level where the souvenir is designed to function as tissue paper holder, and the structure of the black leopard's head used as design influence ignites experiences at the visceral level.

Group B and C also employed the three levels of cultural design in developing their souvenirs. Both the camp chair and the table lamp are functional at the behavioural level, and the product-user interaction will also ignite memories and experience at the reflective level. Lastly, the designs are influenced by destination features (elephant and Castle of Good hope entrance gate), which have the potential to trigger experience at the visceral level. Overall, the analysis above shows that the three cultural design levels are interconnected and can influence each other. A good example is the behavioural and reflective level, where the functionality has a great impact on the result experience. Hence, it is important to consider the design levels holistically when applying them in product development.

CONCLUSION

One of the key national policies developed to ignite the tourism engine of growth in South Africa is marketing and promotion (South African Tourism Task Team, 1996). Interestingly, studies have shown that the use of cultural product design approach in developing modern products (in this case souvenirs) can help to improve the sustainable flow of cultural capital (Moalosi et al., 2010; Qin et al., 2019; Zhan et al., 2017). That is, through the incorporation of product attributes that satisfy the intangible images of tourists' encounter or experience during a trip or vacation, souvenir can play a significant role in promoting cultural aspects, conveying the essence of tourism to potential visitors, and enabling tourists to re-live the experience in routine time and space. Furthermore, the previously neglected communities can benefit from these entrepreneurial opportunities and bringing development to their rural areas by promoting potential destinations or attractions (such as ecotourism) within their areas through souvenir design.

Therefore, the study has been able to demonstrate how souvenir can be designed to enhance tourism experiences. This was achieved by identifying the product attributes that influence tourists' perception towards souvenir and then exploring how the attributes can be embedded in a souvenir to enhance the tourism experience. The outcome of the survey revealed not only the ten important attributes but also highlights the attribute according to their level of importance. The study also contributed to the body of knowledge by advancing the application of the cultural design model in souvenir design. The study further validated the role of the cultural design levels and their interconnection in product development. It is important to note that this study focuses on only international tourists. The survey conducted used international tourists as respondents, hence, the findings may not be applicable to domestic tourists. The term souvenir in this study is also limited to tangible products or crafts. Some future research directions will be to conduct a comparative study that examines the similarities and differences in souvenir purchase behaviour between international and domestic tourists. This paper also recommends a further study on souvenir design, with specific focus on getting tourists' feedback or perception on souvenirs designed using the cultural design model.

REFERENCE

- Álvarez, B.Á., & Caselles, R.V. (1993). Effects of price decisions on product categories and brands. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 20(1), 23–43. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13555850810844850>
- Amaro, S., Ferreira, B.M., & Henriques, C. (2019). Towards a deeper understanding of the purchase of souvenirs. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 20(2), 223–236. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1467358419848139>
- Anderson, L.F., & Littrell, M.A. (1996). Group profiles of women as tourists and purchasers of souvenirs. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 25(1), 28–57. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077727X960251002>
- Bellenger, D., & Korgaonkar, P. (1980). Profiling the recreational shopper. *Journal of Retailing*, 56(3), 77–92.
- Brennan, L., & Savage, T. (2012). Cultural consumption and souvenirs: an ethical framework. *Arts Marketing: An International Journal*, 2(2), 144–160. <https://doi.org/10.1108/20442081211274020>
- Bynum-Boley, B., Magnini, V.P., & Tuten, T.L. (2013). Social media picture posting and souvenir purchasing behavior: Some initial findings. In *Tourism Management*, 37, 27–30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.11.020>
- Collins-Kreiner, N., & Zins, Y. (2011). Tourists and souvenirs: changes through time, space and meaning. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 6(1), 17–27. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2010.515312>
- Desmet, P. (2003). A Multilayered Model of Product Emotions. *The Design Journal*, 6(2), 4–13. <https://doi.org/10.2752/146069203789355480>
- Desmet, P.M.A., & Hekkert, P. (2002). *The Basis of Product Emotions*. In W. G. and P. Jordan (Ed.), *Pleasure with Products, beyond usability*, (pp. 60–68). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Desmet, P.M.A., & Hekkert, P. (2007). Framework of product experience. *International Journal of Design*, 1(1), 57–66.
- Faith, D.O., & Edwin, A.M. (2014). A Review of The Effect of Pricing Strategies on The Purchase of Consumer Goods. *International Journal of Research in Management, Science & Technology*, 2(2).
- Fuller, E. (2013). *Impact of the world's travel/tourism industry adds up to more than a walk on the beach*. Retrieved from <http://www.forbes.com/sites/edfuller/2013/12/03/impact-of-the-worlds-travel-tourism-industry-adds-up-to-more-than-a-walk-on-the-beach/>
- Gordon, B. (1986). The souvenir: Messenger of the extraordinary. *Journal of Popular Culture*, 20(3), 135–146. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-3840.1986.2003_135.x
- Hair, J.F., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L., & Black, W.C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis* (5th ed.). (pp 1-768). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International.
- Haldrup, M. (2017). Souvenirs: Magical objects in everyday life. *Emotion, Space and Society*, 22, 52–60. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emospa.2016.12.004>
- Hsu, C.H., Chang, S.H., & Lin, J.Y. (2013). Consumers' Evaluation and Perception within the Trend of Cultural Creative Design. In P. . L. P. Rau (Ed.), *Cross-Cultural Design. Cultural Differences in Everyday Life*, Part 2, 17–26. Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg.
- Kim, S., & Littrell, M.A. (2001). Souvenir buying intentions for self versus others. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(3), 638–657. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(00\)00064-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(00)00064-5)
- Lacher, R.G., & Nepal, S.K. (2011). The Economic Impact of Souvenir Sales in Peripheral Areas: A Case Study from Northern Thailand. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 36(1), 27–37. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2011.11081657>
- Lee, I.J., Chen, C.H., & Su, C.Y. (2017). App based souvenirs and entry tickets: A new means of enhancing post visit memories: A case study from Taiwan. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 24, 177–185. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2017.09.001>
- Lin, R.T. (2007). Transforming Taiwan aboriginal cultural features into modern product design: A case study of a cross- cultural product design model. *International Journal of Design*, 1(2), 45–53.
- Luke, W. (2009). *The structure, influence and application of emotion in product design*. (pp 1-64). Leicester, UK: De Montfort University.
- Lunyai, J., Run, E.C., & Atang, A. (2008). Why Tourists Purchase Souvenirs? *Proceedings of Applied International Business Conference 2008*.
- Meitiana, M., Setiawan, M., Rohman, F., & Irawanto, D.W. (2019). Factors affecting souvenir purchase behavior: valuable insight for tourism marketers and industry. *Journal of Business and Retail Management Research*, 13(3). <https://doi.org/10.24052/JBRMR/V13IS03/ART-22>
- Moalosi, R., Popovic, V., & Hickling-Hudson, A. (2010). Culture-orientated product design. *International Journal of Technology Design Education*, 20, 175–190. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10798-008-9069-1>
- Norman, D. (2004). *Emotional design: Why we love (or hate) everyday things*. (pp 1-272). New York, NY: Basic Book.
- Oh, J.Y.J., Cheng, C.K., Lehto, X.Y., & O'Leary, J.T. (2004). Predictors of tourists' shopping behaviour: Examination of sociodemographic characteristics and trip typologies. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 10(4), 308–319. <https://doi.org/10.1177/135676670401000403>
- Olalere, F.E. (2017). Importance of Product Attributes for Souvenir Purchase Preferences: A Viewpoint of Foreign Tourists in South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(3), 1–10.
- Olalere, F.E. (2019). Intangible Cultural Heritage as Tourism Product: The Malaysia Experience. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 8(3), 1–10.
- Puhringer, S., & Taylor, A. (2008). A practitioner's report on blogs as potential sources for destination marketing intelligence. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 14(2), 177–187. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766707087524>
- Qin, Z., Song, Y., & Tian, Y. (2019). The Impact of Product Design with Traditional Cultural Properties (TCPs) on Consumer Behavior Through Cultural Perceptions: Evidence from the Young Chinese Generation. *Sustainability*, 20(426), 1–17. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/su11020426>
- Seng, L.C., & Husin, Z. (2015). Product and Price Influence on Cars Purchase Intention in Malaysia. *International Research Journal of Interdisciplinary & Multidisciplinary Studies*, 1(7), 108–119. <http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBS/v8-i8/4437>
- Swanson, K.K. (2004). Tourists' and retailers' perceptions of souvenirs. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 10(4), 363–377. <https://doi.org/10.1177/135676670401000407>
- Swanson, K.K., & Horridge, P.E. (2004). A Structural Model for Souvenir Consumption, Travel Activities, and Tourist Demographics. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42, 372–380. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287504263031>
- Swanson, K.K., & Horridge, P.E. (2006). Travel motivations as souvenir purchase indicators. *Tourism Management*, 27, 671–683. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.03.001>
- Swanson, K.K., & Timothy, D.J. (2012). Souvenirs: Icons of meaning, commercialization and commoditization. *Tourism Management*, 33, 489–499. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.10.007>
- Thu Ha, N., & Gizaw, A. (2014). *Factors that influence consumer purchasing decisions of Private Label Food Products*. Mälardalens Högskola Eskilstuna Vasteras.
- Wilkins, H. (2010). Souvenirs: what and why we buy. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(3), 239–247. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287510362782>
- Zhan, X., Walker, S., Hernandez-Pardo, R., & Evans, M. (2017). Craft and Sustainability: Potential for Design Intervention in Crafts in the Yangtze River Delta, China. *Design Journal*, 20, S2919–S2934. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14606925.2017.1352802>
- *** Castle Of Good Hope. (n.d.). History Of The Castle Of Good Hope. Retrieved May 20, 2020, from <https://www.castleofgoodhope.co.za/>
- *** South African Tourism (2016). *South African Tourism Index 2016*. Retrieved from <http://www.southafrica.net/research/en/page/research-reports-search>
- *** South African Tourism (2019a). *Tourism Performance Report: January-December 2018*. (pp 1-92), Johannesburg. Retrieved from https://live.southafrica.net/media/250619/tourism-performance-report-2018_v6_23052019-1.pdf?downloadId=281068.
- *** South African Tourism (2019b). *Tourism Performance Report: January-March 2019*. (pp 1-66). Johannesburg. Retrieved from <https://www.tourism.gov.za/AboutNDT/Publications/Q1%20Tourism%20Performance%20report%20-%20Jan-March%202019.pdf>
- *** South African Tourism Task Team (1996). *White Paper: The Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa*. (pp 1-57). Retrieved from <https://www.tourism.gov.za/AboutNDT/Publications/Tourism%20White%20Paper.pdf>
- *** World Tourism Organization (2020a). *International Tourism 2019 and Outlook for 2020*. Retrieved from <https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-01/Barometro-Jan-2020-EN-pre.pdf>
- *** World Tourism Organization (2020b, January). World Tourism Barometer. *Excerpt: World Tourism Organization*, 18(1). Retrieved from https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-01/UNWTO_Barom20_01_January_excerpt.pdf
- *** World Tourism Organization (2013). *UNWTO Annual Report 2012*. (pp 1-82). Madrid. <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284415373>
- *** World Tourism Organization (2015). *Tourism Statistics and Tourism Satellite Account*. Retrieved from http://cf.cdn.unwto.org/sites/all/files/factsheet_june2015.pdf
- *** World Tourism Organization (2019). *Yearbook of Tourism Statistics, Data 2013 – 2017* (2019 Edition). 1- 1010. <https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284420414>
- *** World Travel & Tourism Council (n.d.). *Tourism for Tomorrow*. Retrieved from <http://www.wttc.org/mission/tourism-for-tomorrow/>

REINVIGORATING CULTURAL LANDSCAPES FOR PLANNING CULTURAL TOURISM IN BALI

I Made ADHIKA

Udayana University, Engineering Faculty, Department of Architecture, Bukit Jimbaran Campus, Bali, Indonesia, 80361, email: adhika@unud.ac.id

I Dewa Gede Agung Diasana PUTRA*

Udayana University, Engineering Faculty, Department of Architecture, Bukit Jimbaran Campus, Bali, Indonesia, 80361, email: diasanaputra@unud.ac.id

Citation: Adhika, I.M., & Putra, I.D.G.A.D. (2020). REINVIGORATING CULTURAL LANDSCAPES FOR PLANNING CULTURAL TOURISM IN BALI. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1462–1469. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl03-594>

Abstract: A cultural landscape, a configuration produced by human actions and cultural structures in a physical setting, has a significant role to play as a vital feature of cultural tourism in Bali. However, this configuration has become the most heavily commoditized elements of the development of tourism. Construction of tourist amenities has exploited the notion of a cultural landscape that has been integrated into cultural practices, the environment and agriculture. This development and planning are a paradoxical phenomenon and a challenge for people to retain the identity of their cultural landscape while also seeking economic benefits from tourism. The struggle between the protection of the identity of the cultural landscape translated and manifested in the context of agriculture and its transformation in the context of designing tourist facilities has shaped the fundamental argument for preservation. Since there are different cultural traditions and practices in many Balinese cultural landscapes, the relationship between tourism and the diversity of cultural areas has become a key objective in the development of tourism and planning tourist facilities. This paper explores the current struggles between the concepts of tourism development and planning, and the conservation of Bali's cultural landscape. The paper argues that the focus of Bali's tourism development is to maintain and reinvigorate the integration of natural landscapes and cultural practices that present a persistent link between the agricultural system and religious practices.

Key words: reinvigorating, cultural landscape, human practices, tourism development, agriculture, religious traditions.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

The setting of the cultural landscape is shaped by human society and nature, representing an essential storehouse of natural and human cultural resources. This setting is a place for people to perform their activities in the environment to produce socio-cultural, economic and ecological configurations (Farina, 2000). In relation to this setting, Balinese belief that the earth belongs to God relates directly to the socio-religious activities and influences the ecological system has been discussed in many studies of Bali, such as those of Covarrubias (1974) and Goris (1984). Central to the faith is that there is the affiliation between the agricultural and spiritual system demonstrated in the daily life of the Balinese and their agricultural practices. This relationship is the Balinese's icon attraction, the vital resources of its tourist products. Throughout the latest three decades, the tourism economy has created new economic powers and has transformed landscapes of the world, including Bali. The planning and development of tourist destinations in Bali, the most famous tourist destination in Indonesia, in general, does not yet have a comprehensive concept.

The development, which relies on culture and natural environment, tends to use original arrangements of the traditional forms that were traditionally just designed for local people activities and have not been designed for tourism. The sporadic development of tourist facilities has overburdened the existing physical landscape. This overburden development causes negative impacts not only for the environment, socio-culture and traditions but also for the traditional pattern of the settlement and urban areas (Burns, 2004; Putra, 2016; Putra, 2018; Putra, 2019). This current model of development also does not address the needs of unique tourist areas (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996) and ignores community participation (Kala and Bagri, 2018; Adiyoso, 2009). The construction is possibly transforming the traditional scenery and landscape being elements of a traditional identity as recourses of tourism development.

This transformation is a paradox phenomenon and the challenge for local people to maintain their identity while they also try to gain economic benefits from tourism. On the other hand, the commoditization of traditions for tourists was just as much a part of tourist attractions as separate landscape performances and people's cultural practices. Therefore, the attractions have been not able to demonstrate integrated relationship between agriculture and culture in a cultural landscape system.

Therefore, this paper is to investigate the interrelation between cultural landscape and tourism planning and development to provide effective strategies to support the variation resources and reinvigorate cultural landscape for tourist destinations in Bali. This paper argues that negative influences of tourism on the culture and environment are resulted by the neglecting of the notion of a cultural landscape that integrated between nature and human practices. This paper then scrutinizes and explores how the tourist destinations in Bali have been developed to gain economic benefits for the communities. This paper also examines how far tourism development can meet and address the unique requisites of a variety of tourist destinations in different regions of Bali. To do this, the article explores some tourist areas in Bali. It utilizes architectural investigation and spatial stories of communities' practices as a technique of examination.

In this paper, interviews and conversations with local people, plans, maps and photographs are used to establish a framework for the social, culture and tourism use of spaces to explore the role of cultural landscape concept for tourism development. Initially, however, the method used and some theoretical considerations of how the cultural landscape used in tourism planning and development are discussed. This section is followed by a comprehensive explanation of some tourist destinations in Bali to obtain a spatial-oriented tourism development pattern and review the general issues of the planning and development of tourism. In subsequent section, this paper discusses the diversity of cultural identity, environmental conditions and the effects of these variations on the approach of cultural landscapes in many tourist destinations. Conclusions are explained in the last section.

* Corresponding author

MATERIALS AND METHODS

As a famous tourist destination in Indonesia, most tourism developments in Bali are in coastal areas and a few of them in the interior of the island. There are still many areas in Bali, especially the areas in the middle of the island called Bali *Tengah* that is located between mountains and lowlands (Pujaastawa et al., 2005). The cultural landscape in the area is the integration of the agricultural system and religious traditions in the highlands of the island. The people in this area use agricultural harvests to prepare food for their family, to sell the products in the market, and to perform rituals. On the other hand, people perform rituals by making offerings using agricultural products to use in praying for good harvests, giving thanks to God, who gives people fertile lands. Factors that influence the sustainability of this Balinese agricultural system are the integration between agricultural and cultural activities of the people in a cultural landscape. Tourism in these regions, however, tends to rely solely on nature. In some cases, as people do their cultural tourism, the attractions are not combined between cultural and agricultural practices so that the attractions can not display the integrated relationship of culture and agriculture as part of the cultural environment. Therefore, in an attempt to investigate the cultural landscape in the Bali highlands, the villages in the middle of Bali called Bali *Tengah*, which differ cultures and spatial circumstances, were chosen as the locations for this study; and the facets of cultural landscape become components of method used in this paper.

The method used in this paper is in three stages. The first stage is literature reviews about cultural landscape and tourism in which this stage is to produce the theoretical framework (Farina, 2000; Domosh, 2004) by investigating the meanings and characteristics of cultural landscape to design operational principles for tourism development (Utami, 2020; Utami, 2018). Descriptions and classification of the cultural landscape and cultural tourism, and their appropriate conceptions were also explored from explorations of related literature.

The second phase is to investigate the practical framework by creating appropriate features of the Balinese cultural landscape and its tourism development. The implementation and characteristics of tourism development in many tourism destinations in Bali were gained from published literature, visual examinations and spatial stories of communities' practices. Interviews and conversations with local people and photographs are utilized to investigate the socio-culture and tourism use of spaces (Putra et al., 2019) and to discover the role of cultural landscape concept for tourism development (Gordon, 2018). Critical analyses are then carried out to discover the impacts of tourist activities on the Balinese cultural landscape. The impacts are investigated from the implementation of cultural practices, the transformation of the traditional houses and village patterns (Samsudin and Maliki, 2015), and the components that have been commoditized, and explanations from tourists and local people. The final stage scrutinizes why cultural landscape is significant for cultural tourism in Bali.

In this term, the sustainability of tourism uses natural landscape resources and cultural characteristics to meet the visitors' requirements (Bentivenga et al., 2017; Cebrián and Sánchez, 2016). This step is also to investigate and create a prospective and possible strategy to reinvigorate cultural landscape for developing tourism products that are able to be applied in the highlands of the island.

BALINESE CULTURAL LANDSCAPE AND CULTURAL TOURISM

Cultural landscapes are well-defined as an arrangement that culture represents on the land (Salter, 1971; Birks et al., 1989; Domosh, 2004). The intricacy of the cultural landscape is represented in nature, culture, and economy, referring to food production, components in which there are harmonious relationships among the components (Farina, 2000). These components have interacted and integrated to produce the arrangement that can be seen as the evolutionary subsequence affected by human interaction in cultural activities (Myga-Piątek, 2011). In a cultural landscape, the cultural practices experience the continual alteration over time (Conzen, 2004) generally in the context of agro-pastoral activities (UNESCO, 2003; 2005). The dispersal ecumene occasionally stabilized and communities who occupied it controlled the new explored space, which was escorted by transformation as a part of sustainable development (Pawłowski, 2009). Therefore, a cultural landscape can be explained as the evolutionary image of developing people's talents and capabilities to utilize and alter the environment (Andreychouk, 2008) in a fusion of bio-physical and socio-cultural ways in an ecological cycle (González, 2020). The transformation has produced various montages of natural settings and has gotten many scientific categorizations (Pietrzak, 2005; Degórski, 2005; Gordon, 2018).

The integrated affiliation between the culture of communities and natural settings in the landforms has generated a unique cultural landscape. In this unique relationship, people and the landscape interdependently live in which they exist because of the others (Buckley et al., 2008) in which landscapes reflect the cultures that generated them (Zhang and Taylor, 2019). This notion not only produces unique places but also presents the daily spaces as places for people to live work (Meinig, 1979; Jackson, 1984) and spiritual creation (Hussain et al., 2020). Cultural landscapes represent daily life of communities that demonstrate the people's stories, occasions and locations across the times (Taylor, 2015). The people's sense in a cultural landscape represents genuine passions that assist and appropriate definite memories (Smith and Campbell, 2015). This cultural landscape is implemented in the Balinese religious philosophy in which the built environment is one of the manifestations of human traditions and cultures in a natural environment (Covarrubias, 1974).

For Balinese, the ground belongs to God and ancestors so that they generate a good connection with God, human beings and the environment. This relationship is the personification of the Hindu religion philosophy called *tri hita karana* (Kagami, 1988; Eiseman, 1989; Huang and Rockwell, 2019). The *tri hita karana* philosophy then encourages other ideas related to the Balinese landscape from the world physical division, including houses, villages, and regional patterns, to the human physical division, including humans, detail of building and building compositions (Putra et al., 2020). The philosophy presents the significant relationship between the agricultural system and religious traditions. In this system, agricultural products are used for food and for performing rituals, while rituals performed use agricultural products for good harvests and giving thanks to God. In this system, as stated by O'Hare (1997), the environment has been composed of a cultural overlay and modified, classified, and interpreted by the people to be their identity (González, 2020). The identity of a place originates from the collaborations between the natural and cultural components.

This system is expressed in the way of life of the Balinese and their agricultural systems. For this reason, their domestic and religious practices and their aim to maintain a harmonious relationship with God, other humans and the environment relate to agricultural sustenance and prosperity. The variety of agricultural products reflects the complexity of the microclimatic and edaphic characters of Balinese and this produces a variety of cultural practices. This system presents that the intricacy of the Balinese cultural landscape is represented in three central elements: culture, nature, and economy (Wardana, 2020) that are presenting in the natural environment and agricultural fields, temple, settlement patterns, market, the traditional houses and cultural activities (Figure 1). In a cultural landscape, cultural aspects maintain economy and nature (Farina, 2000; Wardana, 2020). These practices are parts of agricultural processes from cultivating agricultural land, planting various agricultural products, harvesting time that have been performed in natural environment and agricultural fields (Figure 1 (A)), as well as selling the products to markets (Figure 1 (B)) and using the products as offerings (Figure 1 (C)). Many traditional practices are performed during the process of agricultural activities, including ceremony activities (in the agricultural land, temple (Figure 1 (D)), granary in the house (Figure 1 (E)), and market temple and traditional practices as the way to leisure time after harvesting time in the agricultural fields and in the village (Figure 1 (F)).



Figure 1. The Cultural Landscape of Bali consisting of natural environment (A), market (B), ceremonial activities (C), temple (D), a granary in a traditional house (E), and traditional village (F)

However, these iconic settings then become resources to gain economic benefits from tourism. As a tourist attraction, the setting of a cultural landscape will have uniqueness because of culture, and the differences of culture are because of the landscape (Buckley et al., 2008). A motivation of tourists is not only to look for the natural environment, but also to search for exotic cultural practices consisting of artefacts, arts and other products or services of traditional communities (Yang et al., 2006). This phenomenon, known as cultural tourism, is defined as the mobility of people for principally cultural motivations including cultural and study tours, travel to witness art performance and other related events (World Tourism Organization, 2012). This phenomenon has then encouraged many countries to promote and try to maintain and invigorate their culture as assets to produce a center of tourist attention (Yang and Wall, 2009). Government and local engagement can improve the reinvigoration of cultural landscape (Chang et al., 2015). More critical is the development of a bottom-up model in the mobilization and consolidation of local actors (Liu, 2008).

Local actors have been cultural invigorators (Burton, 2012) and they have a role to play in maintaining the local culture and empowering people within their communities to work together to protect and sustain their local cultural environment. However, the cultural landscape, in which domestic and ceremonial practices are performed, has been transformed. The new additional function of the setting to serve tourists demonstrates a struggle between the preservation of cultural landscape and economic aspect. This is a paradoxical phenomenon in many cultural landscapes including Bali. As a product of alteration and non-static phenomenon, the Balinese landscape experiences a process of transformation, even though the people attempt to preserve and re-invigorate their traditions as an asset for tourism development. The interactions with foreign cultures and the unfolding transformation of social and cultural relations among the local people deeply influence the process of accepting a new tradition (Gusfield, 1967). The change of cultural landscape is a complex issue in which changes to the physical setting influence socio-religious practices and the environmental components of the natural setting. The change is an architectural challenge in which the challenge represents potential problems and gives rise to the question of the continuity of ceremonial practices and the interrelationship between the people and their cultural landscape. The close link between religious traditions and environmental elements is a demonstration of the traditional roles of spaces in the cultural landscape to accommodate the occupants' activities independently and to maintain cosmic harmony in the tourism economy. The potential problems in relation to the traditional roles of the cultural landscape in the tourism economy will be examined in the following section.

TOURISM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT IN BALI: IGNORING THE NOTION OF BALINESE CULTURAL LANDSCAPE

Up until the 1900s, many villages, such as Singaraja, Gelgel, Klungkung, Kamasan, Kintamani, Badung, Gianyar, Sanur and Kuta, were identified as interesting places for visitors and researchers (Agung, 1991; Sprague, 1970; Vickers, 1989). In the following years, other villages, such as Ubud, Tihingan, Kedaton, Sangeh and Candi Dasa, Tanah Lot, and Bedugul, were introduced as tourist destinations. In the new millennium, Nusa Dua, Sanur, Kuta and Ubud (Figure 2) have become the main tourist destinations and then have gotten more attention (Picard, 1996). Sanur was a traditional harbor and the access point of the Dutch attack to the kingdom of Badung. In the 1960s, it arose as the main tourist destination with big investments from foreigners and entirely closed to the indigenous societies (Picard, 1996). Kuta, on the other hand, was also a traditional harbor from 1597. In the 20th century, it emerged as a new tourist destination. In Kuta, tourist facilities were constructed and managed by local people so that it was quite united with the local communities, where the people opened their houses to serve tourists (Wood, 1980). As coastal tourism destinations, Sanur and Kuta have similar conditions. The use of public space, such as beaches, has changed the traditional value and meaning of their cultural landscape.



Figure 2. The most tourist facilities in the main road of Kuta-Bali

In the traditional pattern of coastal Balinese landscape, beaches were categorized as *karang bengang* that was the open spaces for ceremonial, agricultural or fishing activities. The economic activities were performed in markets located in the centers of the cultural landscape. These economic activities were around the places of human inhabitation where people performed socio-cultural, domestic and economic activities. In the past, each component (culture, economy and nature) interacted and had a harmonious relationship with the others. However, in the present-day, cultural aspects are weakly connected to other aspects (Farina, 2000). The economic elements have mostly contaminated cultural and natural elements. The beach that traditionally and culturally was a place for the purification ceremony now it also becomes the place for tourists to swimming and sunbathing. The cultural practices must share the space with touristic activities, in which, in some cases, there are conflicts between them. This conflict involves three values of interest orientation, including public interest, socially rooted and profit-making values (Chapin, 1957). Local people use the beach as their cultural and social values while the tourist activities on the beach can be seen as profit-making values. Some spaces, especially in front of some hotels, were restrictions for local people. However, after the long discussions and debates facilitated by local government, the Balinese communities can use the space for any activities by sharing to use the beach. Some restaurants or hotels have used the beaches next to their facilities by putting some chairs or swimming beds while people can use other parts of the beaches (Nurwasih and Wijaya, 2019; Adhika, 2012).

The phenomenon of economic elements pollution to other cultural landscape elements has also been experienced in the interior tourism destinations, including Ubud and Kintamani. Ubud was a traditional settlement where the villagers were actively involved in the tourism sector and utilized their social and religious practices as resources to attract tourists (Figure 3) (Picard, 1996). Kintamani is a high area that has the tourism potential of the caldera Mount Batur. This caldera has been reputable as a part of the Global Geopark Network and has become a tourist attraction that relies on the natural environment (Newsome et al., 2012; Jaafar et al., 2014).



Figure 3. The traditional gate of the house in between tourist facilities (left) and the most tourist facilities in the road of Ubud Bali (right)

However, since the increase in the number of tourists, the beauty of Ubud and Kintamani that was able to be witnessed on-site by tourists now just can be seen in photographs, paintings or books. The use of land that is based on local rules has changed due to space demands to obtain the economic benefit of tourism by constructing many tourist facilities, such as kiosks, souvenir shops, bars, restaurants, hotels, and villas. On one side, there are limitations of spaces; on the other side, there are increases in land demand to accommodate tourist activities. The construction of tourist facilities has caused the transformation and elimination of the nuanced local spaces (Putra et al., 2019). These spaces are the identity of the local settlement such as the disappearance of the *angkul-angkul* (the traditional gate), *telajakan* (the garden between the road and the front wall of the traditional house), *teba* (the backyard) and *karang tuang* (the traditional green open space in the Balinese cultural landscape). The use of land has a limited capacity based on its carrying capacity. Land limitations cause the use of ravines, cliffs, and paddy fields that exist on the outskirts of the areas for the construction of hotels, villas, art shops and galleries. The new constructions have used the *karang bengang* (the undeveloped land) that traditionally was the place to sustain a harmonious relationship with the environment (Kagami, 1988; Eiseman, 1989; Dalem, 2007).

These constructions have produced less harmony with the nature of Bali, and at the same time, the tourism economy has polluted the cultural values and meanings of the traditional spatial impression. In this term, the role of the cultural aspects is ignored to screen the

domination of economic aspects to natural aspects (Farina, 2000). Tourist facilities and infrastructure have been sporadically developed in which the area is mostly linearly developed along with the existing infrastructure and extended to other areas. It represents *kotadesasi* (the town-village mixed area) in which there is the growth of non-agricultural sectors in the area (McGee, 1989). Economic capital dominates the development and natural capital is just considered as merely tourist attractions (Farina, 2000). Different from tourist destinations mentioned above that were developed in the traditional settlement and actively involved local communities, Nusa Dua has been built in the empty land. Before the 1970s, just a few people occupied it for cultivating unirrigated lands, in which only temporary structures called *kubu* existed in the area. In this period, the number of tourists coming to Bali increased so that the government wants to anticipate these significant numbers by establishing an enclave of the tourism area in Bali (Picard, 1993; SCETO, 1971; IBRD/IDA, 1974; Wall, 1996). The development of an isolated tourism area was designed to reduce the negative impacts on the cultural landscape of Bali (Rodenburg, 1980). The tourism enclave is designed to obtain better spatial planning control and be able to empower the Balinese communities. In this way, the identity and development of the area are expected to address the spatial capacity and demands of the communities.

However, many studies of tourism have noted that the idea of the enclave is fundamentally unsustainable, marginalizing native businesspersons and spreading the economic, cultural and social gaps between hosts and visitors (Shaw and Shaw, 1999). The enclave tourism area, which is generally isolated from local people and daily life in the area, is inclusive (Freitag, 1994). Far from producing the area and the surrounding areas become a neat and a pleasant place for tourists and local people that accommodate the local socio-cultural practices. Rather the enclave becomes an exclusive place contrasting to its surrounding areas that sporadically develops, causing distress and irregularity. The tourism enclave becomes alien to the surrounding living space of the community. It shows and produces the economic gap between guests and dwellers as well as creates resentment and hostility in this paradox condition (Britton, 1982; Shaw and Shaw, 1999; Mbaiwa, 2005).

The previous tourism planning and developments in Bali have polluted the cultural landscape of Bali. Although the spaces in the landscape still accommodate most of the people's practices in relation to religious activities to maintain a harmonious relationship with God, the ancestors and other humans, the planning and development of tourism is not able to maintain the relationship of cultural practices and agricultural system in Bali. The cultural tourism in Bali has just been seen as cultural activities that are not interdependent with the agricultural system. The people still perform cultural activities using many kinds of agricultural products, but the agricultural products are from markets, and they have not produced and harvested agricultural products. The relationship between cultural and agricultural practices becomes an actual labor market. The relation between the agricultural system and the cultural system has altered to become profit-oriented and a calculated spirit related to the circulation of commodities (Appadurai, 1986; 2006). The new arrangement of the cultural landscape is unable to provide spaces associated with traditional ecological knowledge. The tourism development in Bali was unable to express the original Balinese cultural landscape characteristics, including symbolic meaning and hierarchy values associated with the movement of rituals.

The transformation of cultural landscapes in current tourism planning and development can be understood as a realistic reaction to accommodate new challenges in a community by reconfiguring the cultural landscape in Bali. This reaction is the challenge of tourism development of Bali to preserve traditional practices, at the same time, obtain economic benefits from tourism.

As a concept, cultural landscapes have become a way to encourage sustainability in tourism development. The values of cultural spaces are significant to sustain and protect the natural environment, cultural practices, and economic resources (Samsudin and Maliki, 2015). Every tourism stakeholder should preserve the nation of cultural landscapes through designing tourism development based on the cultural landscape approach in Bali, including the middle areas of the island.

THE CULTURAL LANDSCAPE IN THE BALI TENGAH

The cultural landscape in the area of Bali Tengah is the incorporation of the agricultural and religious system. Because of the location in the highlands of Bali, the same parts of the area are sanctuaries and some of them are holy areas such as forests around mount Batukaru in Wongaya Gede. The function of these sanctuaries is water sources so that the existence and sustainability of the forests greatly influence the water supply in Bali. The geographic condition on the areas influences their landscape in which the areas have tropical forests, waterfalls, rafting, hot and acid water, such as in the traditional villages of Penatahan, Tengkidak, Wongaya Gede, Jatiluwih, Angsri, Baturiti, Petang, Plaga, and Melinggih. These geographic conditions are the potential to become tourist attractions.

As a part of cultural landscapes, the areas also have coffee, orange, clove, and irrigated rice fields. These plantations are found in almost all regions, where the dominant plantation areas are located in Petang and Plaga. The beautiful and well-known rice fields are found in some other villages such as Jatiluwih, Penatahan, Tengkidak, Wongaya Gede, Angsri and Baturiti (Agung et al., 2015; Yudhiantari, 2002; Herawati, 2015). The agricultural system of Bali uses *subak* as a traditional agriculture structural system. *Subak* manages many activities related to agricultural practices, including irrigation, plantation procession, and cultural activities (Pitana and Putra, 2013). The protected natural forests with a variety of biodiversity are found in villages such as Penatahan, Wongaya Gede, and Plaga, while the unique local forest is in Angsri. In this village, the bamboo forest has many species and has been managed using a traditional rule and has still been applied by the communities around the forests (Yeny et al., 2016; Arinasa, 2010). Hot spring is found in Penatahan and Angsri Villages, while acid spring water is found in Baturiti. Rivers that can be possible to be used as rafting place are found in Petang and Melinggih Villages.

The above-mentioned natural landscapes of the areas have also produced socio-cultural aspects. The areas have various socio-cultural artifacts and practices, including temples, holly springs and harvesting traditional performances. Many important temples for Balinese people are located in this area, including *sad kahyangan* and *dang kahyangan* temples. In these kinds of temples, Balinese people or other Hindu communities pray and pilgrim regularly (Sanjiwani and Pujani, 2019). The traditional procession of agricultural activities from planting the vegetation to harvesting the products has produced many cultural activities as a part of a dedication to God (Goris, 1984; Covarrubias, 1974; Reuter, 2002). Similar to other places in Bali, these cultural and ceremonial activities are related to the process of agricultural practices including *ngendagin* (the ceremony when the people are watering the land for the first time), *ngurit* (the ceremony before planting the rice), *nyangket* (ritual before harvesting the rice) (Putri, 2014). However, there are some unique traditions in this area, including *megacikan*, *sanghyang dance* (the dance while trance), and old jogged (traditional dancers of old people). *Megacikan* is the tradition to show the happiness of the people because they have already harvested agricultural products. This tradition uses *okokan* (traditional orchestra using buffalo necklace from wood) as the music instrument (Pujaastawa et al., 2005; Hall, 2001).

As a part of cultural landscapes of the areas, these rituals are seen as ritual communication that is the way for the people to present their commitment to their tradition in their communities (Putri, 2014). Other cultural traditions, which are also coloring this cultural landscape and interesting for tourists, are the traditional settlements. The traditional settlement is a reflection of the pattern of life represented in the building, village and regional layouts. The traditional houses, especially in Penatahan, Tengkidak, Wongaya Gede, Jatiluwih, and Angsri, have many rice barns in various types, shapes, sizes, and layout. These models can not be seen in other villages. The shape and size of the barns can be used as a barometer to what extent the owner of the house has paddy fields and the amount of rice stored.

REINVIGORATING CULTURAL LANDSCAPE FOR PLANNING CULTURAL TOURISM IN BALI

The cultural landscape aspects bringing tourists to Bali are the agricultural system and practices. Even though some other areas in Indonesia have a similar geographic and natural environment, but more tourists still prefer to visit Bali than elsewhere in Indonesia. For the tropical forest ecosystems, agricultural activities, or highland panorama of other places in Indonesia, for example, the primary attraction is the natural environment with the wild animals or agricultural activities (Riadi et al., 2018). These arrangements are only a minor proportion of the landscape. The agricultural and cultural activities of the people are not notable attractions; despite the fact, some visitors come to see them just for inquisitiveness or humanitarian motivations. In Bali, especially in the cultural landscape called Bali Tengah, the culture and landscape are interdependent. Tourism development, which relies on the natural environment and culture, has relatively fragile risks that can easily be negatively impacted by tourism (Yamashkin et al., 2020; Petrosillo et al., 2006). Therefore, the planning and development of tourism should be able to guarantee the sustainability of the natural environment as well as socio-cultural aspects (Astawa et al., 2019). Sustainability of the natural environment can be achieved by maintaining and improving the quality of the natural environment, regulating the use of spaces, preserving and conserving the sanctuary areas, improving the quality of natural resources that attract tourists and provide economic benefits for the community, and maintaining traditions of agricultural practices and reinvigorating the extinct traditions. However, the traditions performed for tourism should be not just as attractions that are unconnected performance with its cultural landscape. The cultural heritage should be performed as a part of the cultural landscape that is not just mere tourist performances (Buckley et al., 2008).

Therefore, in planning the land-use of tourism development as a part cultural landscape, the economic benefits ought to be obtained as part of the ecological system benefit that considerate human demand with ways to guarantee sustainable development (Wilson and Carpenter, 1999). In the reinvigoration process, the sustainability in plantation activities is the way to ensure the plantations' traditional system can be performed based on traditional rules and traditions following religious activities to produce good harvests. The improvement of the quality of plantations and invigoration of the cultural landscape can be an effort to attract tourists by presenting the plantation and post-harvest process. Tourists can involve in the plantation practices and post-harvest process both in traditional and current methods. The engagement of tourism in cultural activities can involve tourist's emotions that play a significant aspect to invigorate visitors' memorable experiences (Wright and Matthews, 2015, Hosany et al., 2015) rather than merely observing or witnessing the activities (Urry and Larsen, 2015). The passionate experience is a significant aspect to produce personal exclusive and astonishing experiences (Park and Santos, 2017). These activities are potent to attract tourists and a way to increase community aspects in a community (Munroe et al., 2014). This reinforcement is the way to ensure that the income of local communities, in which the reform of the market economy is a movement to reinvigorate culture, can obtain sustainable benefits for their agricultural products, their quality of life, and their ecological system (Rapport et al., 1998; Costanza et al., 1997).

The socio-cultural aspects of the community are greatly influenced by place, space, and time. Therefore, space plays an essential role in maintaining social and cultural sustainability and reinvigoration. Agricultural land as a place and spatial components are very instrumental significant to form the socio-cultural community (Buckley et al., 2008). The need to store agricultural products and the way to protect the product for a long time in the house have produced the setting of the traditional house and the structure of granary for storing agricultural products called *jineng* or *gelebeg*. This building can be an attractive artifact in the traditional house. This artifact can be a resource to attract tourists to stay in a traditional house by transforming the house to become homestay. In a homestay, tourists can witness the daily lifestyle of local people and enjoy the traditional house and its traditional agricultural system. In this system, the processes of planting rice including their ceremonial activities have also become attractive activities for tourists. Tourists can be actively involved in the activities while local people can perform their traditions not only as their dedication to the God and ancestor but also as a way to manage their economic activities. The additional actors namely tourists as an economic aspect in the Balinese agricultural practices, could be used to achieve sustainability of culture and nature in cultural landscape. In this term, integration between economic development and sustainable agriculture promotes the conservation engagement of local community to reinvigorate their cultural agricultural system (Borkhataria et al., 2012). However, in this system, cultural aspects have a role as filters to sustain environmental, economic, and cultural aspects (Farina, 2000).

In this system, the processes of planting rice, including their ceremonial activities, have also become attractive activities for tourists. Tourists can be actively involved in the activities while local people can perform their traditions not only as their dedication to God and ancestor but also as a way to manage their economic activities. The additional actors, namely tourists as an economic aspect in the Balinese agricultural practices, could be used to achieve the sustainability and reinvigoration of culture and nature in cultural landscapes. However, in this system, cultural aspects have a role as filters to sustain environmental, economic, and cultural aspects (Farina, 2000).

Cultural landscapes must be used as a strategy to analyze the scale of tourism destinations that are developed on the basis of the ability to adapt and reinvigorate the environment and culture. The development of tourist destinations would be planned on the basis of an integrated method between the three interdependent aspects of nature, culture and economy, in which culture is a vital component in ensuring not only the functionality of natural environmental systems and the sustainability of cultural practices, but also the maintenance of economic growth.

CONCLUSION

As the most famous tourist destination in Indonesia, the development of tourist destinations in Bali, in general, does not yet have a reliable concept to ensure the sustainability of cultural tourism. The development tends to influence the environment and cultural practices. Constructions of tourist facilities have possibly transformed the traditional scenery being the traditional Balinese identity. This identity is the main recourses of tourism development. This transformation becomes a paradox phenomenon and the challenge for tourism development in Bali, in which local people actively involved in tourism activities to obtain economic benefits from tourism by transforming some of their cultural resources. On the other side, they try to maintain their identity to attract tourists. The tourism planning and development in Bali has focused on the economic aspect that compromise to the transformation of culture and natural aspects.

This focusing tends to be unsustainable for the Balinese landscape and the Balinese society so that it is significant to investigate the new strategy for developing the sustainability of cultural tourism of Bali. Tourism plan and development processes, which transformed the natural landscape, are directly demonstrated by the local landscape narrative, and transform local landscape characteristics through the notion of cultural tourism focusing on economic aspects. Therefore, the transformation can be best explained as an ongoing adjustment where the cultural landscape of Bali is altered to address current economic demands. The recent tourism development is read as a practical reaction to accommodate new challenges in the community by reconfiguring the traditional Balinese landscape. The tourism economy giving economic benefit for local people could be utilized to reach the reinvigoration of the cultural practices and natural environment in which the cultural aspects have a role to filter for the sustainability of the other aspects. Since the increase of pride of the local people with their traditional cultures and heritage artifacts and the awareness of them in relation to the economic benefit of their culture, they now try to reinvigorate their culture and become gradually enthusiastic about showing their cultural landscapes as tourist attractions. Using cultural landscape as the vital element to construct tourism facilities becomes a strategy for Balinese to authorize their cultural uniqueness and identities. Cultural landscapes become a model and idea that can be applied in developing tourism. The integration and interdependent relationship among culture, natural environment and economic aspects have been the key components to ensure the sustainability of tourism development.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank the community leaders of villages in Bali Tengah areas who were willing to take part in this study. We also send our deepest thanks to the colleagues who offered a lively discussion and critical feedback.

REFERENCES

- Adhika, I.M. (2012). *Komodifikasi kawasan suci Pura Uluwatu [Commodification of the sacred area of Uluwatu Temple]*, Udayana University Press, Denpasar, Indonesia.
- Adiyoso, W. (2009). *Menggugat perencanaan partisipatif dalam pemberdayaan masyarakat [Sues participatory planning in community empowerment]*, ITS Press, Jakarta, Indonesia.
- Agung, A.A.P., Aryani, N.K., & Jie, F. (2015). The influence of ecotourism development of Jatiluwih Village in Tabanan Regency of Bali Province to the development of economy, social culture and environment. *International Journal of Information, Business and Management*, 7(1), 324-348.
- Agung, I.A.A.G. (1991). *Bali in the 19th century*, Yayasan Obor Indonesia, Jakarta, Indonesia.
- Andreychouk, V. (2008). Evolution of the geographical environment and contemporary geography. *Dissertations Commission of Cultural Landscape of PGS*, 8, 5- 29.
- Appadurai, A. (1986). *The social life of things: commodities in cultural perspective*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Appadurai, A. (2006). The thing itself. *Public Culture*, 18(1), 15-21.
- Arinasa, I.B.K. (2010). Bamboo diversity and utilization in Balinese rituals at Angsri Village-Bali, Indonesia. *Bamboo Science and Culture: The Journal of the American Bamboo Society*, 23(1), 29-37.
- Astawa, I.P., Sukawati, T.G.R., & Sugiarta, I.N.G. (2019). Developing a harmonious culture-based sustainable event model in Bali Tourism Village. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 25(2), 446-462. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.25214-372>
- Bentivenga, M., Palladino, G., Prosser, G., Guglielmi, P., Geremia, F., & Laviano, A. (2017). A geological itinerary through the Southern Apennine Thrust Belt (Basilicata-southern Italy). *Geoh Heritage*, 9, 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12371-015-0168-6>
- Birks, H.H., Birks, H.J.B., Kaland, P. & Moe, D. (1989). *The cultural landscape: Past, present and future*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Borkhataria, R., Collazo, J.A., Groom, M.J. & Garcia, A.J. (2012). Shade-grown coffee in Puerto Rico: Opportunities to preserve biodiversity while reinvigorating a struggling agricultural commodity. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 149, 164-170. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2010.12.023>
- Britton, S.G. (1982). The political economy of tourism in the third world. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9, 331-358. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(82\)90018-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(82)90018-4)
- Buckley, R., Ollenburger, C. & Zhong, L. (2008). Cultural landscape in Mongolian tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(1), 47-61. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2007.06.007>
- Burns, P.M. (2004). Tourism planning: a third way? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(1), 24-43. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2003.08.001>
- Burton, L.J. (2012). Building on living traditions: early childhood education and culture in Solomon Islands. *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, 15(1), 157-175.
- Cebrián, F. & Sánchez, I. (2016). The landscape as a tourist resource and its impact in mountain areas in the south of Castilla-La Mancha (Spain). *International Journal of Sustainable*, 11(3), 345-354. <https://doi.org/10.2495/SDP-V11-N3-345-354>
- Chang, M.C.Y., Lee, P.Y. & Yang, A.H. (2015). Cultural mobilization in reinvigorating the rural society in Taiwan: the case of the Wanbao community. *Anthropologist*, 22(1), 89-100. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09720073.2015.11891860>
- Chapin, F.S. (1957). *Urban land use united governments of America*, Harper & Brothers Publisher, New York.
- Conzen, M. (2004). Cultural landscape in geography. In N. Smelser & P. Bates (eds), *International encyclopaedia of the social and behavioural sciences*, 3086-3092, Elsevier, New York.
- Costanza, R., d'Arge, R., de Groot, R., Farber, S., Grasso, M., Hannon, B., Limburg, K., Naeem, S., O'Neill, R. V., Paruelo, J., Raskin, R.G., Suttonk, P. & van den Belt, M. (1997). The value of the world's ecosystem services and natural capital. *Nature*, 387, 253-260.
- Covarrubias, M. (1974). *Island of Bali*, Oxford University Press, Kuala Lumpur.
- Dalem, A.A.G.R. (2007). *Filosofi tri hita karana dan implementasinya dalam industri pariwisata [Tri Hita Karana's philosophy and its implementation in the tourism industry]*. In A.A.G.R. Dalem, I.W. Wardi, I.W. Suarna & I.W.S. Adnyana (eds), *Kearifan lokal dalam pengelolaan lingkungan hidup [Local wisdom in the environmental management]*. UPT Penerbit dan Pusat Penelitian Lingkungan Hidup Universitas Udayana, 81-94, Denpasar, Indonesia.
- Degórski, M. (2005). Landscape as an objective visualization of some phenomena and processes carried out in geographical environmental megasystem. *Dissertations Commission of Cultural Landscape of PGS*, 4, 13-25 (in polish).
- Domosh, M. (2004). Cultural landscape in environmental studies. In N. Smelser & P. Bates, (eds), *International Encyclopaedia of the Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 3081-3086, Elsevier, New York.
- Eiseman Jr.F.B. (1989). *Sekala and niskala: essays on religious, ritual and art*, I, Periplus Editions, Singapore.
- Farina, A. (2000). The cultural landscape as a model for the integration of ecology and economics. *BioScience*, 50(4), 313-320. [https://doi.org/10.1641/0006-3568\(2000\)050\[0313:TCLAM\]2.3.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1641/0006-3568(2000)050[0313:TCLAM]2.3.CO;2)
- Freitag, T.G. (1994). Enclave tourism development: For whom the benefits roll? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21, 538-554. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(94\)90119-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(94)90119-8)
- González, R.C. (2020). Some insights into the theory and practice of heritage ecology: grasping the bio-physical and socio-historical dynamism of the cultural landscape of Hangzhou. *Documents d'Anàlisi Geogràfica*, 66(1), 133-158. <https://doi.org/10.5565/rev/dag.533>
- Gordon, J.E. (2018). Geoh Heritage, geotourism and the cultural landscape: enhancing the visitor experience and promoting geoconservation. *Geosciences*, 8(136), 1-25. <https://doi.org/10.3390/geosciences8040136>
- Goris, R. (1984). The religious character of the village community. In J.L. Swellengrebel (ed), *Bali: studies in life, thought and ritual*, 77-100, Foris Publications, Dordrecht-Holland.
- Gusfield, J.R. (1967). Tradition and modernity: misplaced polarities in the study of social change. *American Journal of Sociology*, 72(4), 351-362.
- Hall, P.D. (2001) Culture, tourism and cultural tourism: Boundaries and frontiers in performances of Balinese music and dance. *Journal of Intercultural Studies*, 22(2), 173-187. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07256860120069594>
- Herawati, N. (2015). Pengembangan pariwisata berkelanjutan berbasis subak sebagai bagian warisan budaya dunia Unesco Di Desa Mengesta Kabupaten Tabanan [Subak-based sustainable tourism development as part of Unesco's world cultural heritage in Mengesta Village, Tabanan Regency]. *Jumpa*, 2(1), 79-103 (in Indonesia).
- Hosany, S., Prayag, G., Deesilatham, S., Caušević, S. & Odeh, K. (2015). Measuring tourists' emotional experiences: Further validation of the Destination Emotion Scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, 54, 482-495. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287514522878>
- Huang, H. & Rockwell, J. (2019). Nature and the spirit: *tri hita karana*, sacred artistic practices, and musical ecology in Bali. *EnviroLab Asia*, 3 (2- article 20), 1-27. <https://doi.org/10.5642/envirolabasia.20190302.02>
- Hussain, M.A., Yunus, M.Y.M., Ismail, N.A., Ariffin, N.F.M., & Ismail, S. (2020). Review of the elements of nature and the Malay cultural landscape through Malay literature. *Sustainability*, 12, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12062154>
- IBRD/IDA (1974). *Bali tourism project, appraisal report*, Tourism Projects Department, Washington.
- Jaafar, M., Nordin, A.O. S., Abdullah, S., & Marzuki, A. (2014). Geopark ecotourism product development: A study on tourist differences. *Asian Social Science*, 10(11), 42-55. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v10n11p42>
- Jackson, J.B. (1984). *Discovering the vernacular landscape*, Yale University Press, New Haven, CT.
- Kagami, H. (1988). *Balinese traditional architecture in process*, the Little World Museum of Man, Inuyama.
- Kala, D. & Bagri, S.C. (2018). Barriers to local community participation in tourism development: Evidence from mountainous state Uttarakhand, India. *Tourism*, 66(3), 318-333.
- Liu, L.W. (2008). Reflections on community empowerment: Consideration of urban-rural differences, perspectives of urban development, and exploration of the bottom-up concept. *City and Planning*, 35(4), 313-338.
- Mbaiwa, J.E. (2005). Enclave tourism and its socio-economic impacts in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *Tourism Management*, 26, 157-172. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2003.11.005>
- McGee, T.G. (1989). Urbanisasi or kotadesasi? Evolving urban patterns of urbanization in Asia. In F. J. Costa et al. (Eds), *Urbanization in Asia*, 93-108, University of Hawaii Press, Honolulu.
- Meinig, D.W. (1979). *The interpretation of ordinary landscapes*, Oxford University Press, New York.
- Munroe, D.K., McSweeney, K., Olson, J.L., & Mansfield, B. (2014). Using economic geography to reinvigorate land-change science. *Geoforum*, 52, 12-21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2013.12.005>
- Myga-Piątek, U. (2011). Cultural landscape of the 21st Century: Geographical Consideration between Theory and Practice. *Hrvatski Geografski Glasnik*, 73(2), 129 - 140.

- Newsome, D., Dowling, R., & Leung, Y.F. (2012). The nature and management of geotourism: A case study of two established iconic geotourism destinations. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 2, 19-27. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2011.12.009>
- Nurwasih, N.W. & Wijaya, I.K.M. (2019). Setting ruang komunal di sepanjang Pantai Sanur, Bali [Communal space settings along Sanur Beach, Bali]. *Arcade*, 3(2), 108-116 (in Indonesian). <https://doi.org/10.31848/arcade.v3i2.230>
- O'Hare, D. (1997). Interpreting the cultural landscape for tourism development. *Urban Design International*, 2(1), 33-54. <https://doi.org/10.1057/udi.1997.5>
- Park, S. & Santos, C.A. (2017). Exploring the tourist experience. A sequential approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 56, 16-27. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287515624017>
- Pawłowski, A. (2009). The sustainable development revolution. *Problems of sustainable development*, 4(1), 65-79 (in polish).
- Petrosillo, I., Zurlini, G., Grato, E., & Zaccarelli, N. (2006). Indicating fragility of socio-ecological tourism-based systems. *Ecological Indicators*, 6(1), 104-113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2005.08.008>
- Picard, M. (1993). Cultural tourism in Bali: national integration and regional differentiation, in K Hitchcock & Parnwell (eds), *Tourism in South-East Asia*, 71-98, Routledge, London.
- Picard, M. (1996). *Bali: cultural tourism and touristic culture*, Archipelago Press, Singapore.
- Pietrzak, M. (2005). Evolution of geographical views of the landscape, in W. Maik, K. Rembowska, & Suliborski (eds). *Geography as science about space, environment, and landscape*, 151 - 162, University of Toruń, University of Łódź, Lodzians Society of Sciences, Łódź, Poland.
- Pitana, I.G. & Putra, I.G.S.A. (2013). Pariwisata sebagai wahana pelestarian subak, dan budaya subak sebagai modal dasar dalam pariwisata [Tourism as a vehicle for preservation of subak, and culture of subak as a basic capital in tourism]. *Jurnal Kajian Bali*, 3 (2), 159-180 (in Indonesian).
- Pujaastawa, I.B.G., Wirawan, I.G.P. & Adhika, I.M. (2005). *Pariwisata terpadu alternatif model pengembangan pariwisata Bali Tengah [Integrated alternative tourism development model for Bali Tengah tourism]*, Universitas Udayana, Denpasar, Indonesia
- Putra, I.D.G.A.D., Lozanovska, M. & Fuller, R.J. (2019). From spiritualistic toward more pragmatic pattern: re-ordering Balinese houses and viability of the household traditions in tourism economy. *Journal of Architecture and Urbanism*, 43(1), 47-61. <https://doi.org/10.3846/jau.2019.3692>
- Putra, I.D.G.A.D., Wirawibawa, I.B.G & Satria, M.W. (2020). Spatial orientation and the patterns of the traditional settlement in the Eastern Bali: Investigating new tourism attractions. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 29(2), 663-667. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.29218-493>
- Putra, I.D.G.A.D. (2016). The tourism economy and viability of traditional settlements in the Balinese urban settings, *The 3rd International Conference on Regional Development Enhancing Resilience: Bridging Knowledge and Policy for Cities and Regions*, 61-67.
- Putra, I.D.G.A.D. (2018). Evoking traditions and creating uniqueness: traditional settlements and tourism in disruptive era, *Proceedings of the 4th Biennale ICIAP (International Conference on Indonesia Architecture and Planning)*, Yogyakarta, p. 308-315.
- Putra, I.D.G.A.D. (2019). The Impact of dynamic land-use and spatial planning policies on the traditional village and architecture in tourism villages in Gianyar Bali, *Bhumi*, 5(3), 34-41. <https://doi.org/10.31292/jb.v5i3.388>
- Putri, I.D.A.H. (2014). Komunikasi ritual dalam kearifan lokal pelestarian "subak" di Bali [Ritual communication in the local wisdom of "subak" preservation in Bali]. In Nurudin, *Komunikasi Budaya, Pariwisata dan Religi [Cultural, Tourism and Religious Communication]*. p. 15-33, Astikom Press, Yogyakarta, Indonesia
- Rapport, D.J., Costanza, R., & McMichael, A. (1998). Assessing ecosystem health. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 13, 397-402. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-5347\(98\)01449-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-5347(98)01449-9)
- Reuter, T. (2002). *The house of our ancestors- precedence and dualism in highland of Balinese society*, KITLV Press, Leiden.
- Riadi, P.I., Wijayanti, F.L.R., Chafid, F., & Hadi, P.R. (2018). Tourist decision in Mount Merbabu National Park, Indonesia. *RJOAS*, 3(75), 24-35. <https://doi.org/10.18551/rjoas.2018-03.03>
- Rodenburg, E. (1980). The effects of scale in economic development: tourism in Bali. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 7(2), 177-196. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(80\)90003-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(80)90003-1)
- Salter, C. (1971). The cultural landscape. Duxbury, Belmont.
- Samsudin, P.Y. & Maliki, N.Z. (2015). Preserving cultural landscape in homestay program towards sustainable tourism: brief critical review concept, *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 170, 433 - 441. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.004>
- Sanjiwani, PK., & Pujani, L.P.K. (2019). Moratorium of sacred temple area as a tourist attraction, *3rd International Conference on Management & Entrepreneurship (3rd i-CoME)* Phuket, 25th - 27th July 2019.
- Shaw, B. & Shaw, G. (1999). Sun, sand and sales: enclave tourism and local entrepreneurship in Indonesia. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 2(1), 68-81. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683509908667844>
- Smith, L., & Campbell, G. (2015). The elephant in the room: Heritage, affect and emotion. In W. Logan, M. N. Craith, & U. Kockel (eds.), *A companion to heritage studies*, 443-460, Wiley Blackwell, Oxford UK.
- Sprague, S. (1970). *Bali: island of light*, Kodansha International Ltd, Tokyo.
- Taylor, K. (2015). Cities as cultural landscapes. In F. Bandarin & R. van Oers (eds.), *Reconnecting the City: The Historic Urban Landscape Approach and the Future of Urban Heritage*, 179-202, Wiley-Blackwell, UK Oxford.
- Tosun, C. & Jenkins C.L. (1996). Regional planning approaches to tourism development: the case of Turkey. *Tourism Management*, 17(7), 519-531. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(96\)00069-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(96)00069-6)
- Urry, J. & Larsen, J. (2012). *The tourist gaze 3.0, 3rd ed*, SAGE Publications, London, UK.
- Utami, W. (2020). Resilience of cultural landscape heritage study in spatial tourism context, *IOP Conf. Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 402, 1-8. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/402/1/012007>
- Vickers, A. (1989). *Bali: a paradise created*, Penguin Books Australia Ltd, Ringwood Victoria.
- Wall, G. (1996). One name: two destinations: planned and unplanned coastal resorts in Indonesia. In L. Harrison and W. Husbands (eds), *Practicing Responsible Tourism*, 41-57, Wiley, Chichester.
- Wardana, A. (2020). Neoliberalizing heritage: international agencies and the local dynamics of heritage conservation in Bali, Indonesia. In P. Peycam, S. L. Wang, H. Yew-Foong and H.H.M Hsiao, *Heritage as Aid and Diplomacy in Asia*, pp. 278-303, ISEAS-Yusof Ishak Institute, Singapore.
- Wilson, M.A. & Carpenter S.R. (1999). Economic valuation of freshwater ecosystem services in the United States: 1971-1997. *Ecological Applications*, 9, 751-783. [https://doi.org/10.1890/1051-0761\(1999\)009\[0772:EVOFES\]2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1890/1051-0761(1999)009[0772:EVOFES]2.0.CO;2)
- Wood, R.E. (1980). International tourism and cultural change in Southeast Asia. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 28(3), 561-81. <https://doi.org/10.1086/451197>
- Wright, P.A. & Matthews, C. (2015). Building a culture of conservation: Research findings and research priorities on connecting people to nature in parks. *Parks*, 21, 11-24.
- Yamashkin, A.A., Yamashkin, S.A., Aksyonova, M.Y., Cimbaljevic, M., Demirovic, D., Vuksanovic, N., & Milentijevic, N. (2020). Cultural landscapes spaces-temporal systematization of information in geoportals for the purposes of region tourist and recreational development. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 29(2), 440-449. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.29205-480>
- Yang, L. & Wall, G. (2009). Ethnic tourism: a framework and an application. *Tourism Management*, 30, 559-570. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.09.008>
- Yang, L., Wall, G. & Smith, S.L.J. (2006). Ethnic tourism development: Chinese Government perspectives. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(3), 751-771. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2008.06.005>
- Yeny, I., Yuniati, D. & Khotimah, H., (2016). Kearifan lokal dan praktik pengelolaan hutan bambu pada masyarakat Bali [Local wisdom and practice of bamboo forest management in the Balinese community]. *Jurnal Penelitian Sosial dan Ekonomi Kehutanan*, 13(1), 63-72 (in Indonesian).
- Yudhiantari, L.P.E. (2002). *Ekowisata sebagai alternatif dalam pengembangan pariwisata yang berkelanjutan di Desa Wongaya Gede, Kecamatan Penebel-Bali [Ecotourism as an alternative in the development of sustainable tourism in Wongaya Gede Village, Penebel-Bali District]*, Magister thesis, Diponegoro University, Semarang, Indonesia.
- Zhang, R. & Taylor, K. (2019). Cultural landscape meanings. The case of West Lake, Hangzhou, China, *Landscape Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01426397.2019.1589438>
- *** SCETO (1971). *Bali tourism study. Report to the Government of Indonesia*, UNDP/IBRD, 6 Volumes, Paris.
- *** UNESCO (2003). Preservation of cultural landscapes and the intangible cultural heritage in the Pacific Region, (23 May 2006). <http://www.unesco.org>
- *** UNESCO (2005). Cultural landscapes in the 21st century: tourism and economics. Forum UNESCO 10th International Seminar, 11-16 April, University of Newcastle, United Kingdom.
- *** World Tourism Organization (2012). *UNWTO World Tourism Barometer*, 10, UNWTO Publisher, Madrid.

LOCAL PERSPECTIVES OVER CULTURAL TOURISM TO HERITAGE SITES. THE CASE STUDY OF ORADEA FORTRESS (ROMANIA)

Cezar MORAR*

University of Oradea, Department of Geography, Tourism and Territorial Planning, 1 University Street, Oradea 410087, Romania, e-mail: cezar.morar@gmail.com

Vasile GRAMA

University of Oradea, Department of Geography, Tourism and Territorial Planning, 1 University Street, Oradea 410087, Romania, e-mail: vasile.grama2014@gmail.com

Marius I. STUPARIU

University of Oradea, Department of Geography, Tourism and Territorial Planning, 1 University Street, Oradea 410087, Romania, e-mail: marius_stupariu@yahoo.co.uk

Gyula NAGY

University of Szeged, Department of Economic and Social Geography, 2 Egyetem Street, Szeged 6722, Hungary, e-mail: geo.nagy.gyula@gmail.com

Lajos BOROS

University of Szeged, Department of Economic and Social Geography, 2 Egyetem Street, Szeged 6722, Hungary, e-mail: borosl@geo.u-szeged.hu

Alexandru TIBA

University of Oradea, Department of Psychology, 1 University Street, Oradea 410087, Romania, e-mail: alexandrutiba@gmail.com

Maria GOZNER

University of Oradea, Department of Geography, Tourism and Territorial Planning, 1 University Street, Oradea 410087, Romania, e-mail: mariagozner@yahoo.com

Mariana SZABO-ALEXI

University of Oradea, Department of Physical Education, Sports and Physical Therapy, 1 University Street, Oradea 410087, Romania, e-mail: mariszabo@yahoo.com

Citation: Morar, C., Grama, V., Stupariu, I.M., Nagy, G., Boros, L., Tiba, A., Gozner, M., & Szabo-Alexi, S. (2020). LOCAL PERSPECTIVES OVER CULTURAL TOURISM TO HERITAGE SITES. THE CASE STUDY OF ORADEA FORTRESS (ROMANIA). *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1470–1479. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl04-595>

Abstract: The Fortress of Oradea is one the most representative in Transylvania, which strongly influenced the socio-economic development of the city, in the same time turning the settlement into a cultural and multiethnic center, with impacts on the architecture of the city. The main aim of the paper is to explain the importance of the cultural, historical, architectural values of the fortress from a local perspective. The questionnaire sampling method was used in the present study, further interpreting the questionnaire, the results underlining the historical significance and authenticity were generated. These issues generate functions, justifies the dominating role in the urban texture of Oradea, requiring in the same time integrative planning and special policy measures for the heritage protection, in an overall sustainable development context.

Key words: cultural heritage, medieval fortress, tourism, sustainability, Oradea, Romania

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

The space is interrelated with the existence of the population that inhabits it, conditioning not only the physical limits of the expansion of a community but also its mental attitude towards the surrounding world (Soja, 1989; Lefebvre, 1991). The concepts of mental, cognitive and living space (l'espace vecu) were later developed, which designate spaces which are well individualized over time based on traditions, economic-social complementarities and common cultural and social heritage through the process of epistemology, cognition and experiencing of spaces (Downs and Stea, 1973; Ennen, 2000; Ashworth et al., 2007; Bohland and Hauge, 2009; Niemets et al., 2018). The functionality of space is influenced by the behavior, the mentality of the inhabitants, and reflects the identity of the inhabitants, the communion and interactions between people and environment (Downs and Stea, 1973; Dezi et al., 2014; Azhayev et al., 2020; Suleimenov et al., 2020). Mental and cognitive spaces are functional spaces but also spaces of ethnic, cultural homogeneity or diversity, structured from the bottom up, based on the relations between the local communities (Mugnano and Palvarini, 2013; Valentine, 2013; Ilies et al., 2015, 2018; Gozner et al., 2017; Deac et al., 2019; Herman et al., 2019). Interactions between different groups and communities can result in clash of cultures and behaviors creating conflicts (LeBaron, 1993). Cultures and communities are always changing, and they relate to the symbolic dimension of life (LeBaron, 2003), but the interaction between them not necessarily have negative effects on the localities.

Culture can contribute to a healthier society, facilitates civic involvement and gives tourists a reason to visit. It continues to shape the heritage and identity of cities, creates jobs and introduces pro-social behavior for young people in the community thus helps to strengthen tolerance and acceptance (Forrest and Kearns, 2001; Lugosi et al., 2010). Culture helps to address all the major challenges of cities we face today - it has definitely moved from the niche to the mainstream. Based on cultural identity and historical heritage, slowly, cities are being reshaped through their specific culture (Pap, 2014; Ropa and Ropa, 2015; Ilies et al., 2020). This strategic repositioning of culture in the city landscape did not happen by chance. It happened because of the dedication, faith and leadership of artists, organizations and, of course, city leaders (World Cities Culture Report, 2018). This also may result the capitalization of the cultural-historical heritage for tourism purposes, and may end up in the commodification of culture (Harvey, 2002; Sheperd, 2002; Herman, 2020a). An unprecedented

* Corresponding author

development started throughout the European continent in the last decades based on culture, offering local communities unique opportunities for social and economic development based on their cultural heritages (Enyedi and Kovács, 2006; Bowitz and Ibenholt, 2007; Smith et al., 2018; Morar et al., 2019). Culture-motivated tourism became the link between urban cultural capital and socio-economic development in urban area and the elements of culture became inseparable from urban regeneration and tourism development as well. The importance of culture as part of the European tourism experience is recognized as an element that can enhance the profile of Europe as a global destination thanks to an incomparable cultural heritage, that includes several elements of tangible and intangible heritage; e.g. museums, theatres, archaeological, historical and industrial sites as well as music, gastronomy, rituals and traditions (Niemets et al., 2019). Due to their complexity, cities are among the most important places of cultural tourism in Europe. Visitor influx tends to be concentrated in urban centers, which overlap unevenly with historic centers. They are places that attract many visitors due to their relevance in terms of heritage (Ennen, 2000; García-Hernández et al., 2017). Heritage is a broad concept that has different meanings for different people. Inheritance is the reproduction of the past in the present, it is about what we value now, as a person, as a group, as a society (Ashworth, 1991; Lowenthal, 1998). Cultural and historical heritage are used to build national identity, it is used for economic benefits and to identify places, it is used to promote diversity and to promote sustainable development (Shomanova et al., 2017; Monyók et al., 2020; Lečić et al., 2017). UNESCO's policies and programs have promoted the protection of tangible and intangible heritage for decades through creative cultural industries and appealing to cultural pluralism that empowers society's tolerance of others.

New approaches focused on culture and people in the discourse of heritage see culture and cultural heritage as an asset and driving force for sustainable urban development. Discussions on this issue began to develop after 1960 and here we mention the UNESCO Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage (2003) and the UNESCO Convention on the Diversity of Cultural Expressions (2005), introducing in the literature concepts such as heritage community and common heritage. In the new vision, the cultural heritage has a positive impact on the cities, through its contribution to the improvement of the quality of life, the social development and the strengthening of the feeling of local belonging (The Implementation of the UNESCO Historic Urban Landscape Recommendation, 2018).

Local communities aiming progress and development of city centers to live in modern, vibrant, functional cities where they can culturally develop (Rátz et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2018). While heritage culture-based tourism practice may help conserve a destination's cultural heritage, its development accelerates the change of the local society (Li, 2003). Through education and culture-led development the city's image is improved and it can boost place identity and can sell the city as commodity (Gospodini, 2006; Ropa and Ropa, 2015). Harvey thinks that cities increasingly use their cultural and built heritage to fix and to defend the meaning and value of places (Harvey 1989) but in the same commodifying them (Harvey, 2002). Kisic believes that present day conflict between capital making priorities and cultural growth can be overcome by proper governance of cultural heritage (Kisic, 2016). But for this, the cultural resources are to be assumed a function that is economically viable, so that the local communities could appreciate their values in their lives (Corten et al., 2014).



Figure 1. Localization of the study area: within Europe (top left), Romania (down left) and Bihor County (right) (data source: Orthophoto, National Romanian Agency for Cadastral Surveys and Real Estate Publicity)

Attempts to understand the processes and outcomes associated with urban heritage tourism development usually fall into one of two groupings: a “top-down” perspective stressing the role of global factors and external actors in driving urban redevelopment; and a “bottom-up” perspective focusing on local influences (Chang et al., 1996; Hampton and Wellman, 2003).

Unique cultural heritage elements may be tangible or intangible have significant effect on the urban environments and the local identity as well. The use of cultural heritage is a tool to distinct urban landscapes (Gospodini, 2006) in the urban texture. With an imposing presence in any urban landscape, urban heritage appear to work as place identity generators (Gospodini, 2004). Historical monuments play a profound role in the lives of local communities, providing an important sense of attachment and identity, connection to specific spaces through an invitation to travel to the mysterious world of the Middle Ages. As an example, a fortress represents true testaments of history, which complete through bold architecture entire pages of local history, arousing real passions for tourists and becoming a must-see destination for any traveler. This paper analyses a special form of urban heritage and its touristic significance through its specific characteristic which have effect on the image of the city and on the mental cognitive image of tourists visiting it. Located in the west of the country, on the border with Hungary, Oradea (Romania) (fig. 1) is distinguished by a rich archaeological, historical, art and architectural heritage (Lakos, 1904; Scholtz, 1907; Firu, 1924; Dejeu, 1926, 1937, 1938; Biró, 1932; Borcea, 1976; Kovács and Țoca, 1973, 1977, 1979; Balogh, 1982; Gazdag, 1982; Dudaș, 1996; Rusu, 2002; Kovács, 2003; Borcea and Gorun, 2007; Pașca, 2010 a, b; Ilieș et al., 2010; Badiali and Ilieș, 2011; Chifor, 2011; Ilieș et al., 2011; Morar, 2013; Ilieș et al., 2014; Badiali et al., 2018; Morar et al., 2019; Herman et al., 2020b) that attests to the evolution and permanence of these lands. All this cultural-historical background forms a significant part of the tourist offer and a component of the tourist image of the city on the regional and international market. The main aim of the paper is to underline the importance of the cultural, historical, architectural values of the fortress, from a local perspective.

DATA AND METHODS

All true historical events or with the status of legend related to these monuments represent an important source of identity, memory and sense of place, causing a feeling of spiritual attachment among the local community. They are, therefore, real landmarks from a social point of view. Often neglected, or even abandoned, these historical monuments seem to lose precisely these defining attributes, but a community that loves its history will succeed in bringing to light these values - economic, social, sentimental - through an attempt to gather - a sustainable symbiosis of people, places and history. Our research questions focus both on the material and mental aspects of heritage space. Thus we formulated two main questions. What are the characteristics of the fortress of Oradea? How the values of the fortress are perceived and interpreted? Further, this paper argues for an integrative approach trying to underline the perception of the local community towards Oradea Fortress - one of the most representative heritage elements existing in the city of Oradea. The paper explains the importance and value of the cultural heritage elements, in connection to the medieval fortress in the city of Oradea, Romania.

The questionnaire sampling method was used in the present study, with a face-to-face implementation technique. The applied sampling method was non probability sampling reliance on the available subject method with a quota on gender. Among others, the questionnaire targeted the degree of knowledge of Oradea Fortress, historical moments and people associated with the Fortress, frequency of visits, main reasons to visit, the Fortress as a venue of festivals and fairs, main values added to the Fortress by local community and different opinions related to local initiative. The necessary data to carry out the present study was obtained in the June-September 2020 time frame, in various locations from Oradea city using the method of sociological survey based on questionnaire (Chelcea, 2007; Bryman, 2012; Bar et al., 2016; Wendt et al., 2019). Structurally, the questionnaire was composed of 6 units with 14 items referring to: knowledge of Oradea Fortress, historical moments and people, frequency of visits, reasons to visit, venue of festivals and fairs, main values and local initiative. Furthermore, in the questionnaire was captured socio-demographic information relevant for tourism: gender, age, level of education, income etc. The information regarding the perception Oradea Fortress was obtained by consulting 80 people.

DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

THE FORTRESS OF ORADEA, A HERITAGE SITE

The city of Oradea (northwestern Romania) is one of the oldest fortified settlements in Transylvania, part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire (until 1918). The settlement it is first mentioned under the name *Varadinum* in 1113 in a diploma of the Benedictine abbey in Zobor¹. The Fortress of Oradea (Figure 2) is composed of five bastions each with a different name (Bethlen Bastion, Crăișorul Bastion, Red Bastion, Gold Bastion, Ciunt Bastion), 13 buildings, two gates (Western Gate and Eastern Gate) and the Roman-Catholic Church, all presented below (Kovács, 1973; Kovács and Țoca, 1977; Balogh, 1982; Emödi, 1998; Emödi, 1998; Emödi, 2007; Emödi, 2009).

In the first phase of construction of the fortification, the West Gate was the only access way in the fortress. It was designed and built during the rule of Prince Istvan Báthory (1573). The gate was composed of an access tunnel above which it was located the guard room and the bridge lifting system. A watch tower was built near the gate. On the aisle connecting the West Gate with Bethlen Bastion, there is located the Curtain between Ciunt Bastion and Bethlen Bastion. The curtain is a wall that connects the flanks between the two bastions. It is made of bricks and limestone from Betfia. The Bethlen Bastion was completed in 1618, according to inscriptions still visible on it.

It was designed and built under the direct supervision of the Italian architect Giacomo Resti from Verna. From the commemorative plaque with the inscription in Latin, we can learn the name and the coat of arms of the prince who ordered it, Gabriel Bethlen (Kovács, 1973; Kovács and Țoca, 1977). All this unit, including the inscription have been restored to the smallest detail. The curtain between Bethlen Bastion and Crăișorul Bastion was built between the years 1599-1604. The materials used for the construction of this wall were Betfia limestone, profiled stone originated from the old medieval constructions, brick, sandstone and schist. The Crăișorul Bastion was designed by the Italian architect Giulio Cesare Baldigara and built between 1569 and 1570, during the rule of the Prince Ioan Sigismund (Kovács, 1973; Kovács and Țoca, 1977). The materials used to raise the bastion are about the same as in the other cases, river stones, tiles, bricks, schist and profiled stone from the old medieval buildings. In the same time the Red Bastion was built, somewhere between 1584 and 1598, when the consolidation of the connecting passage between the two bastions, respectively at the curtain between the Crăișorul Bastion and the Red Bastion, also took place. Built at the order of the Prince István Báthory, the Red Bastion was constructed in different phases between 1580 and 1598. In the beginning, the Italian architect Domenico Ridolfini da Camerino, designed the bastion in a grand appearance, but eventually the work will be finished according to the more realistic plans of another Italian architect, Ottavio Baldigara (Kovács, 1973; Kovács and Țoca, 1977). In 1660, during the Turkish siege, the eastern area the bastion was severely damaged by bombings over a length of more than 25 meters (Borcea, 1976). This section was rebuilt (the old angular architecture was improved) and reinforced (almost an extra meter was added to the wall thickness) in order to reduce the vulnerability during attacks.

The Curtain between the Golden Bastion and the Red Bastion was built approximately between 1582 and 1583, by the plans of the Italian architect Domenico Ridolfini da Camerino (Kovács, 1973; Kovács and Țoca, 1977). In the initial phase the passage area, gates or other access routes. The East Gate of the fortress was built during the Habsburg domination (Emödi, 1998). The Golden Bastion, was built at the order of

¹ <http://www.oradea.ro/pagina/istoria-orasului-oradea>

Prince István Báthory in 1572, according to the inscription on one of the stone slab from the entrance. The name comes from the golden coat of arms of the Báthory family. Due to its strategic importance and the vulnerable orientation towards the Ciuperca Hill, the Golden Bastion was severely damaged during the sieges of the Turkish armies (in 1598, 1658 and 1660). The Ciuperca Hill was the place where the Turkish armies lined up their artillery and bombed the fortress (Borcea, 1976). After the Turkish siege of 1660, both the Red and the Golden Bastion were almost completely destroyed, and the connecting curtain seriously damaged, therefore great renovations and consolidations were imposed. Massive reconstruction works took place on the northern side of the bastion, and also after the siege of the Austrian Army in 1692 (Emödi, 1998).

The Curtain between the Golden Bastion and the Ciunt Bastion was built between 1580 and 1581, at the order of Prince Christopher Bathory, in his final period of his reign. The basic structure and the curtain belt are made of massive blocks of stone. The brick from the construction was also visibly affected by the numerous armed confrontations. The most affected part was especially the upper section, being restored with limestone from Betfia. The Ciunt Bastion was built during the period of Prince István Báthory (1571 - 1575). A report of the Italian artillery commander from the Turkish siege of 1598 reveals that this construction was unfinished for a long time and for this reason it received the name Ciunt (single-horned). It is estimated that its completion took place between 1574 and 1580, further in 1581 the Transylvanian Prince István Báthory makes direct reference to the three bastions built in the city of Oradea. Just a year after the siege of the fortress of 1598, in 1599, the upper part of the Bastion is restored, under the careful supervision of the Italian architect Cesare Porta, followed shortly by the architect Giovan-Marco Isolano (Kovács, 1973; Kovács and Țoca, 1977). The year of restoration (1599) of the bastion is inscribed on the last stone block placed under the belt. In 1692 the fortress is subject to a new siege, where this time the northern side is badly damaged and destroyed. In the same time, the western flank remains almost untouched. During the Habsburg domination the northern flank will be fully restored and reinforced. Currently, the Ciunt Bastion hosts an outdoor Summer Theater. The Prince Palace from the A Building was constructed according to the plans of the Italian architect Giacomo Resti, between 1620 and 1629, in the time of Gábor Bethlen (Țoca, 1973). This construction ends a historical and architectural period, being the termination of the medieval period and the beginning of the Renaissance period of the fortress. The Princely Palace became the first building erected in this fortified complex.



Figure 2. The buildings units composing the Fortress of Oradea (Romania)
(Data source: Ortophoto, National Romanian Agency for Cadastral Surveys and Real Estate Publicity)

This edifice retained its fortification role, even though it was used as a noble residency (the second residence after the one from Alba Iulia). Over time, the construction has been rehabilitated and resized with major architectural and strategic interventions. The evidence of the grandeur of this edifice is showed in the "*Hall with Griffons*" (Emödi, 1998; Emödi, 2007). The Prince Palace in B Building has about the same period of construction as the A Building of the Prince Palace. It was built in three stages, between 1620 and 1629, between 1638 - 1648, and between 1881 and 1882. Thus, the whole assembly takes on a barrack appearance, and establish the connection between, the Building A and the old Gothic Cathedral (Kovács and Țoca, 1979; Emödi, 1998; Emödi, 2009). Following the current reconstruction works, a *Lapidarium* (a collection of large, carved or engraved stones, such as bas-reliefs, statues, funeral stones, etc.) was created in the basement of A building. The A & B buildings host the Museum of the City of Oradea, containing a series of permanent exhibitions: "*The history of Oradea photography*", "*Churches in the palace - archaeological research in the Prince Palace*", "*Exhibition of the Greek Catholic Episcopate of Oradea - History files*", "*Oradea Reformed Church Exhibition*" and the "*Exhibition of the Roman Catholic Episcopate of Oradea*" (<https://www.oradeaheritage.ro/cetatea-oradea/>; <https://muzeulmoo.ro/venue/expozitii-permanente/>). The C Building is located on the south-east side of the Prince Palace, it was built between

1638 and 1648 during the Prince György Rákóczi I, following the plans of the Transylvanian architect, Emeric Sardi from Cluj (Țoca, 1973). It keeps the character of a prince residence, like the other two buildings, A and B. Between the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries this building will undergo several modifications and rehabilitation works (Emödi, 1998; Emödi, 2009). Currently, the unit is an exhibition area, part of art galleries (<https://www.oradeaheritage.ro/cetatea-oradea/>). The Roman-Catholic Church from the Fortress was built between 1775 and 1777 during the restoration of the fortress. It is constructed in Baroque style following the plans of the architect Lodovico Marini, associated with the period of Austrian domination (Kovács, 1973; Kovács and Țoca, 1977). *The tower of the church was destroyed by the fire of 1836, that devastated the city and it was rebuilt in a much simpler pyramidal form.* Over time it served as a military garrison as a church for the French prisoners during the Napoleonic wars from 1793 to 1813. During the Communist period the church was used as a warehouse, and currently, after the renovation and rehabilitation of the fortress, the edifice serves as the Roman Catholic church for the ethnic Slovaks in Oradea.

The D Building was built in same construction period (between 1775 and 1777) by the same architect Lodovico Marini and used by the General Staff of the Austrian garrison in the fortress. This building was erected on the old site, in the immediate vicinity of the Eastern Gate, serving this access way in the fortress (Emödi, 1997; Emödi, 2009). The E Building comprises the northern side of the Prince Palace, having multiple functions in time. During the centuries it has been built, modified, extended and reconsolidated in several phases: the first phase between 1620 and 1629 (during the Prince Gábor Bethlen), the second phase was completed following the plans of the architect Giacomo Resti, the third phase between 1638 - 1648 (during the Prince György Rákóczi I), the final phase between 1775 - 1777 (accomplished following the complex restauration plans of the military architect Lodovico Marini). During the 18th century, this building hosted a barracks, but the darkest time of its use is were during the Communist period between 1945 and 1952, when it became a transit camp for the political prisoners of the time ((Emödi, 1997; Emödi, 2009). The G Building was built between 1775 and 1776, during the Habsburg domination (following the plans of the Italian architect Lodovico Marini). Having the shape of the letter U, the construction served as an annex of the palace, later as a food warehouse and in recent years it was used as an artistic creation workshop. In 1692, after the Austrian conquest of the fortress, at the order of the General Corbelli the Bakery of the H Building was built (composed of six bakeries and annexes) (Emödi, 1998; Emödi, 2007).

The architectural plan belonged to the military engineer, the Baron Ernst von Borgsdorf, the architect who also designed and supervised the rehabilitation and reconstruction works of the Oradea Fortress. This building has maintained its functional use for more than 300 years. Following the recent renovation works, this is the place where the visitors can experience and learn about traditional preparation of bread, as the unit hosts a Bread Museum (<https://www.oradeaheritage.ro/cetatea-oradea/>). The I building was built between 1692 and 1714 at the order of the captain of the fortress, and housed the military-administrative headquarters of the Austrian Army and the city's customs (Emödi, 1998; Emödi, 2007). It was realized between 1775-1777 during the period of Austrian domination, following the plans of the architect Lodovico Marini (Kovács, 1973; Kovács and Țoca, 1977). The J Building was in the beginning (1573) the gate of the fortress, hosting also the gate tower and the clock tower, guarding the shed for carriages and stables on the right. Between 1775 and 1777, under the guidance of the architect Lodovico Marini, it was completely rebuilt, reaching the present form, where the two towers disappeared and the guard room was added (Kovács, 1973; Emödi, 1997; Emödi, 2007). The K Building was built between 1775 and 1777 over older constructions inhabited by the Pauline monks. Following the plans of the architect Lodovico Marini (Kovács, 1973; Kovács and Țoca, 1977).

During the same period, there were built two bodies of building with the roles of official barrack and warehouse (in the initial phase a connecting passage made the connection to the building L). This unit had the role of offering accommodation to the officers (Emödi, 1998; Emödi, 2007). The unit hosts the Memorial "*Resistance and Repression in Bihor*", one of the few museum in Romania dedicated to the memory of former political prisoners who endured the horrors of the Communist Gulag (<https://muzeulmoo.ro/memorialul-rezistentasi-represiune-in-bihor/>). The northern Curtain is located in the L Building and it was built between 1775 and 1777, under the coordination and supervision of the military architect Lodovico Marini (Kovács, 1973). This building body had the role of casemate, being very spacious and very well consolidated (it was very exposed to attacks and sieges), having in certain periods a prison role as well. The M building is a group of buildings formed by the Eastern Gate and the two buildings attached to it, mainly the guard unit and stables.

The old curtain was built between 1582 and 1583, as an access passage between the Red and the Golden Bastion. Based on the vulnerability and its orientation toward the Ciuperca Hill, the eastern flank did not have access area or gate until 1777. The gate was executed in 1777 (at the order of the fortress' command at that time) (Emödi, 2007; Emödi, 2009). On the left side of the gate a guard room was added and as a symmetry with the western gate, there were built buried stables and protected like a cazemate. The Summer Palace dates from about 1572, period when the Golden Bastion was built. From strategical reasons, two cazemates were built, connected by a passage route. Between 1638 and 1641 a recreation place (Summer House) was added (Emödi, 1998; Emödi, 2007).

LOCAL PERSPECTIVES OVER THE FORTRESS

1. ANALYSIS OF THE GROUP OF RESPONDENTS

Through a questionnaire survey the local perspectives of the fortress were highlighted. Analyzing the descriptive attributes of the survey sample it can be stated, that the gender ratio is balanced, 50% of respondents are men and 50% are women. In terms of age distribution groups, 60% of respondents are between 19 and 30 years old, 20% are between 30 and 45 years old, and 20% are over 45 years old. From the point of view of education level, 10% of the respondents graduated High School, 70% graduated BSc, and 20% graduated MSc / PhD. Respectively, 50% of the respondents are employed, and 50% are Student / Pupils according to the professional status. In terms of monthly income, 40% of respondents had an income of less than EUR 400 per month, 30% had an income of between EUR 450 and EUR 900 per month and 20% had an income of more than EUR 900 per month (10% of respondents did not answer this question). From the point of view of the areas of origin (within the Municipality of Oradea), 30% of the respondents came from Paleu, 20% came from the Nufărul neighborhood, and 10% each came from the neighborhoods: Cantemir, Ioșia, Prima Universitatii, Rogerius and Velența (Figure 3).

2. ANALYSIS OF ANSWERS

For the analysis of the questionnaire answers, the weighted multiplication method was applied. Thus for each answer in the Strongly Disagree category the multiplication rate was 1, for each answer in the Disagree category the multiplication rate was 2, for each answer in the Undecided category the multiplication rate was 3 for each answer in Agree category, the multiplication rate was 4, and for each answer in the Strongly Agree category, the multiplication rate was 5 (for NA category, the multiplication rate was 0).

The maximum and minimum values were extracted from the obtained values. The difference obtained between the maximum and minimum values was divided by 3 resulting in the intervals: appreciated, average and unappreciated. To the question "The perception over the fortress. When you think at the fortress, do you think at which of the bellow elements?" (Figure 4), The answers of the respondents were in proportion of 4.5% from the Strongly Disagree category, 17.7% from the Disagree category, 13.8% from the Undecided category, 26.9% in the Agree category and 35.4% in the Strongly Agree category (1.5% of the questions were not answered). Following the application of the weighted multiplication method, from the answers to the question "The perception over the fortress. When

you think at the fortress, do you think at which of the bellow elements?” the most popular were: Main gates of the fortress (4.5), Military history (4.3), Princely Palace (4.1) Roman Catholic Church (4.0) and Festivals, Ladislau days (4.0), and at the opposite pole were: Former Securitate memorial (2.8), Urban transformation during the socialism (3.1), The Curtains (3.1) and Gardens of the fortress (3.3).

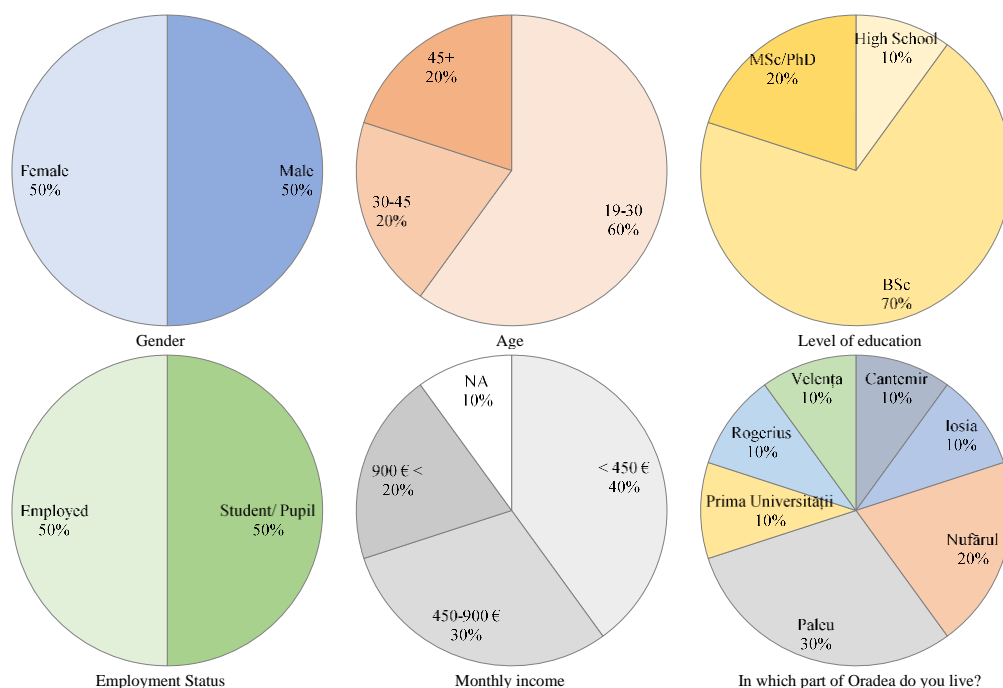


Figure 3. Characteristics of the group of respondents

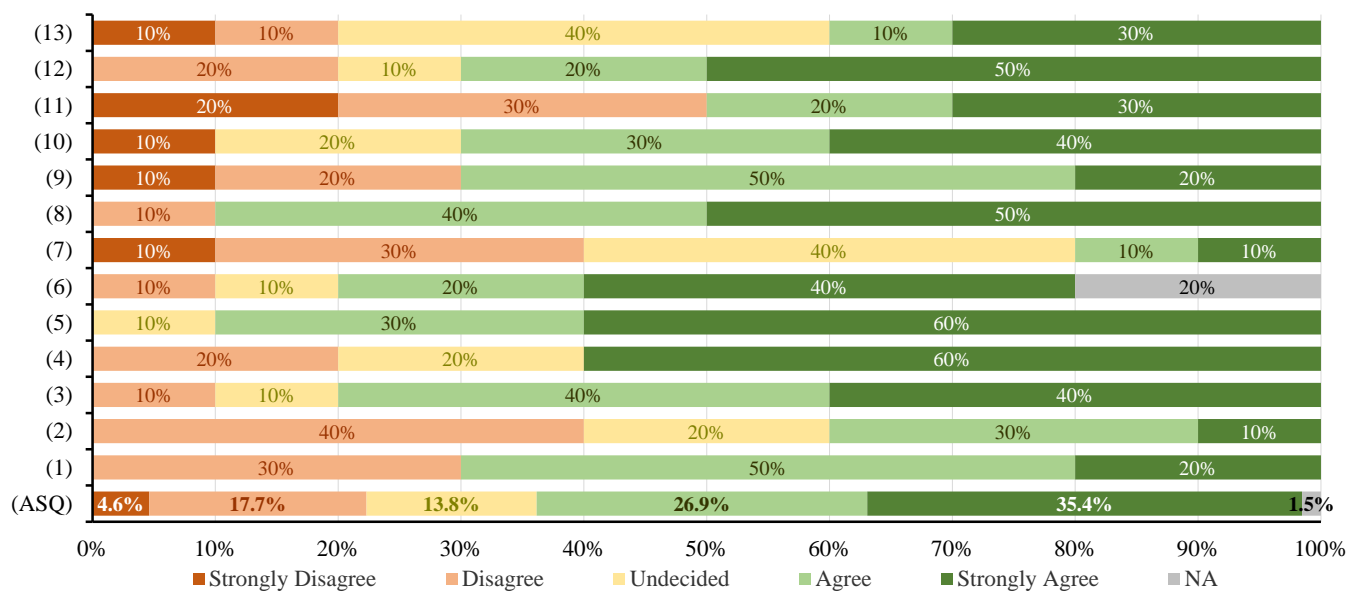


Figure 4. The perception over the fortress. When you think at the fortress, you think at which of the bellow elements?

Note (Figure 4): (1) - Renaissance bastions, (2) - The Curtains, (3) - Princely Palace, (4) - Roman Catholic Church, (5) - Main gates of the fortress, (6) - Gardens of the fortress, (7) - Former Securitate memorial, (8) - Military history, (9) - Transylvanian Princes, (10) - Multi ethnical connections, (11) - Urban transformation during the socialism, (12) - Festivals, Ladislau days, (13) - Religious meaning, (ASQ) - Average answers to questions.

To the questions related to the “The ambience of the Oradea Fortress, as an urban attraction venue” (Figure 5), the answers of the respondents were in proportion of 8.0% from the Strongly Disagree category, 16.7% from the Disagree category, 18.0% from the Undecided category, 36.7% in the Agree category and 20.0% in the Strongly Agree category (0.7% of the questions were not answered). Following the application of the weighted multiplication method, from the answers to the question “The ambience of the Oradea Fortress, as an urban attraction venue” the most appreciated were: You can get to Oradea fortress in less than 30 minutes, by using public transport (4.2), You can get to Oradea fortress in less than 1 hour, using any mean of transportation (4.1), The events held in the fortress attract tourists (4.1), The fortress is a safe place (4.0) and The fortress is an attractive tourist site in general (4.0), and at the opposite pole were located: When you visit the Oradea Fortress, you usually get to it by bicycle (2.3), When you visit the Oradea Fortress, you usually get to it by public transport (2.8), The fortress is well equipped with facilities for kids, benches, rest places, trash bins, etc. (2.8) and The fortress is well equipped for people with disabilities (2.8).

To the question “What are the reasons to visit the fortress?”, The answers of the respondents were in proportion of 3.3% from the Strongly Disagree category, 8.5% from the Disagree category, 27.0% from the Undecided category, 47.4% in the Agree category and 13.7% in the Strongly Agree category (no unanswered questions were recorded).

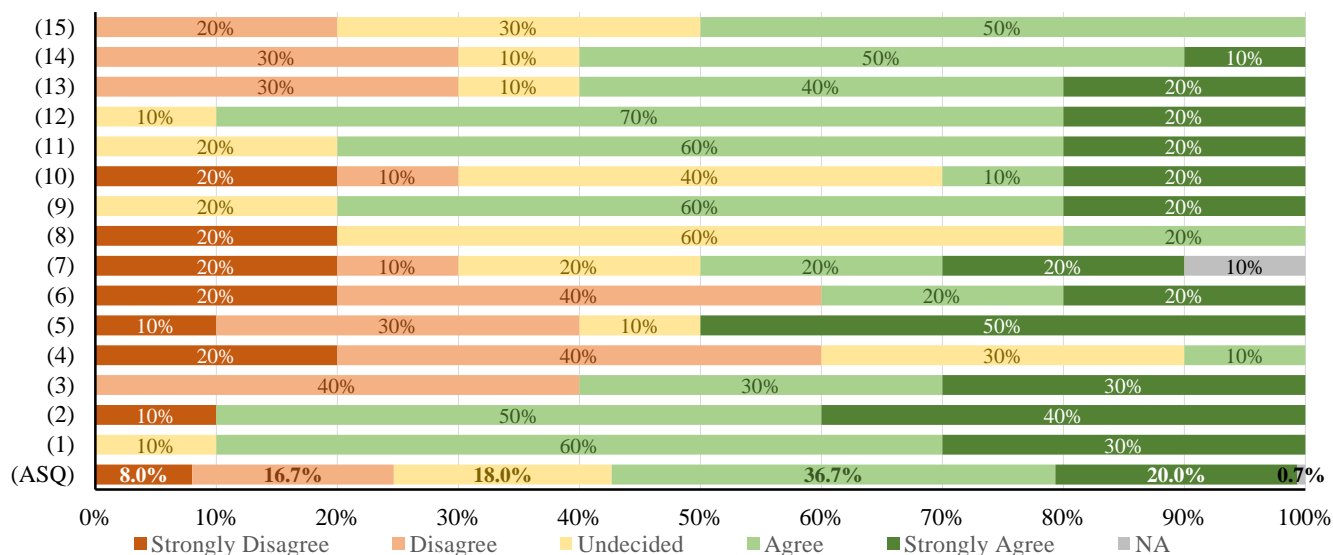


Figure 5. The ambience of the Oradea Fortress, as an urban attraction venue

Note (Figure 5): (1) - You can get to Oradea fortress in less than 30 minutes, by using the public transport, (2) - You can get to Oradea fortress in less than 1 hour, using any mean of transportation, (3) - When you visit the Oradea Fortress, you usually get to it by walking, (4) - When you visit the Oradea Fortress, you usually get to it by bicycle, (5) - When you visit the Oradea Fortress, you usually get to it by car, (6) - When you visit the Oradea Fortress, you usually get to it by public transport, (7) - The fortress is well equipped with facilities for kids, benches, rest places, trash bins, etc., (8) - The fortress is well equipped for people with disabilities, (9) - The fortress is a safe place, (10) - The museums in the fortress are very interactive, (11) - The fortress is an attractive tourist site in general, (12) - The events held in the fortress attract tourists, (13) - The primary reason for visiting the fortress is the history, (14) - The primary reason for visiting the fortress is the architecture, (15) - The fortress has everything you need in order to have a better appreciation of its components, (ASQ) - Average answers to questions.

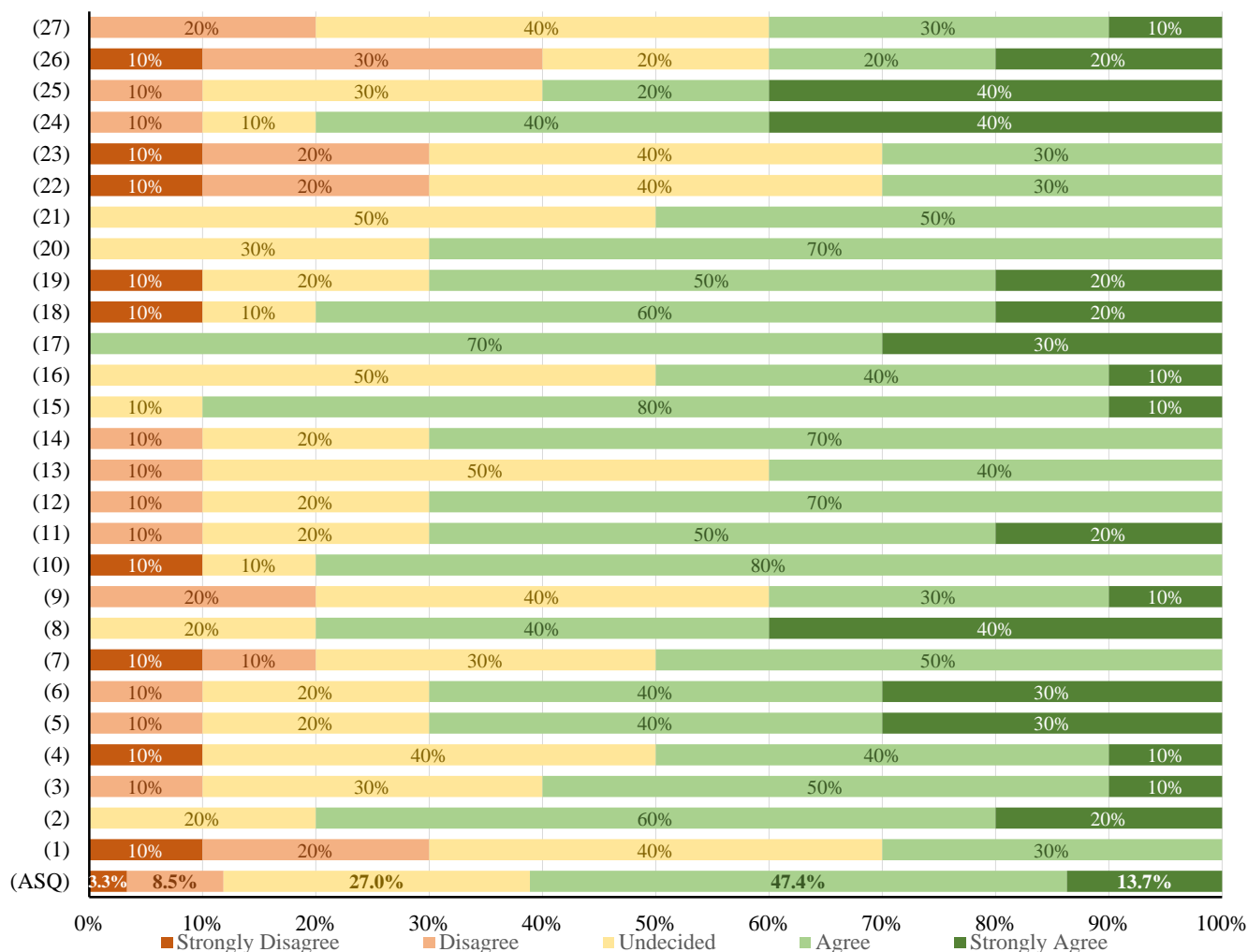


Figure 6. Evaluation of the answers from the questionnaires to the question "What are the reasons to visit the fortress?"

Note (Figure 6): (1) - Prestige. I like to talk to everybody about my experiences at the fortress, (2) - Prestige. I like to take pictures of the fortress and events inside the fortress to show friends, (3) - Prestige. Experiences while visiting the fortress enriches me intellectually, (4) - Prestige. I want to give advice about the fortress and events in the fortress to people who want to travel, (5) - Prestige. I strongly promote Oradea fortress as one of the most interesting places Oradea has to offer, (6) - Prestige. I recommended Oradea fortress to a friend or colleague, (7) - Togetherness. Visiting the fortress enables me to meet new people with similar interests, (8) - Togetherness. Visiting the fortress enables me to have an enjoyable time with friends and/or family, (9) - Togetherness. Visiting the fortress increases friendship or kinship, (10) - Cultural experience. Visiting the fortress gives me an opportunity to increase my knowledge about different cultures, (11) - Cultural experience. Visiting the fortress helps me see how local people lived, (12) - Cultural experience. Visiting the fortress makes me see the things that I don't normally see, (13) - Cultural experience. Visiting the fortress allows me discover something new, (14) - Cultural experience. Visiting the fortress is an authentic experience, (15) - Cultural experience. Visiting the fortress offers a unique opportunity to understand the local culture, (16) - Cultural experience. Visiting the fortress is a special experience, (17) - Escape from routine. Visiting the fortress helps me to relax, (18) - Escape from routine. Visiting the fortress takes me away from the crowds and noise, (19) - Escape from routine. Visiting the fortress makes me not worry about routine, (20) - Exciting experience. When visiting the fortress I have an expectation that it is exciting, (21) - Exciting experience. Visiting the fortress makes me excited, (22) - Exciting Experience. Visiting the fortress is thrilling to me, (23) - Exciting experience. Visiting the fortress makes me feel exhilarated, (24) - Entertainment. I visit the fortress especially for cultural festivals, (25) - Entertainment. I visit the fortress especially for concerts and music, (26) - Entertainment. I visit the fortress especially for children activities, (27) - Entertainment. I visit the fortress especially for art exhibitions, (ASQ) - Average answers to questions.

Following the application of the weighted multiplication method, from the answers to the question "What are the reasons to visit the fortress?" (Figure 6) the most appreciated were: The events held in the fortress attract tourists (4.5), The fortress is an attractive tourist site in general (4.3), Escape from routine. Visiting the fortress helps me to relax (4.3), Togetherness. Visiting the fortress enables me to have an enjoyable time with friends and / or family (4.2), The primary reason for visiting the fortress is the history (4.1), Entertainment. I visit the fortress especially for cultural festivals (4.1), Prestige. I like to take pictures of the fortress and events inside the fortress to show friends (4.0) and Cultural experience. Visiting the fortress offers a unique opportunity to understand the local culture (4.0), and at the opposite pole were located: Prestige. I like to talk to everybody about my experiences at the fortress (2.9), Exciting experience. Visiting the fortress is thrilling to me (2.9), Exciting experience. Visiting the fortress makes me feel exhilarated (2.9), Entertainment. I visit the fortress especially for children activities (3.1), Togetherness. Visiting the fortress enables me to meet new people with similar interests (3.2), Togetherness. Visiting the fortress increases friendship or kinship (3.3), Cultural experience. Visiting the fortress allows me to discover something new (3.3), Entertainment. I visit the fortress especially for art exhibitions (3.3) and Prestige. I want to give advice about the fortress and events in the fortress to people who want to travel (3.4). To the question "What do you value the most at the fortress?" (Figure 7), The answers of the respondents were in proportion of 5.5% from the Strongly Disagree category, 3.6% from the Disagree category, 13.6% from the Undecided category, 50.9% of the Agree category and 25.5% of the Strongly Agree category (0.9% of the questions were not answered). Following the application of the weighted multiplication method, from the answers to the question "What do you value the most at the fortress?" the most appreciated were: The historical value (4.4) and The tourist value (4.3), and at the opposite pole were: The value of social-economic utility (3.2).

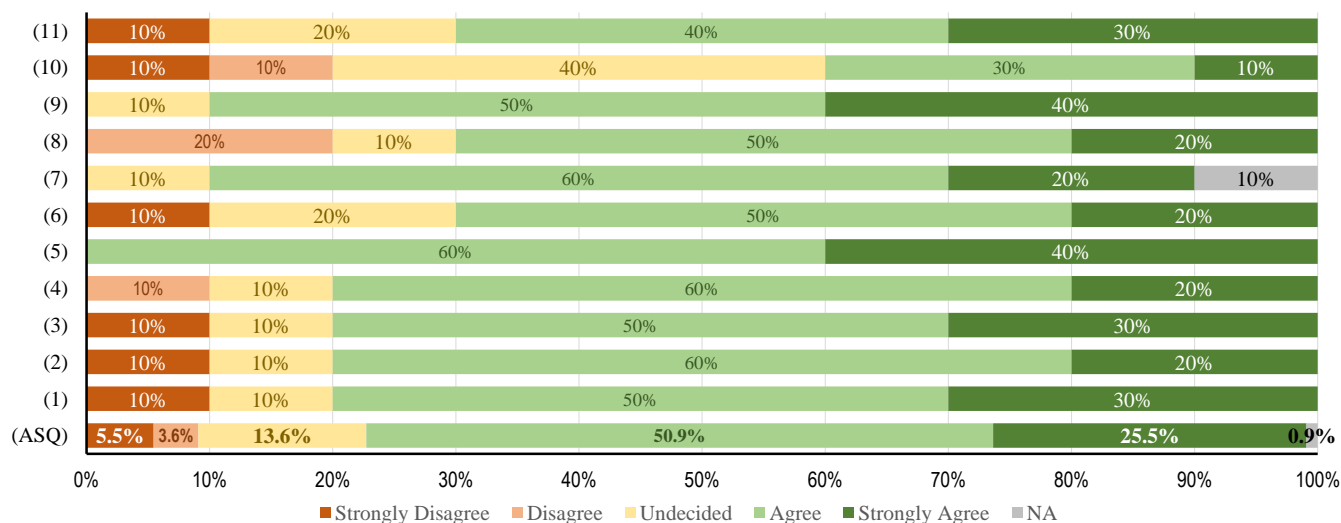


Figure 7. Evaluation of the answers from the questionnaires to the question "What do you value the most at the fortress?"

Note (Figure 7): (1) - The value of authenticity, (2) - The attractiveness values, (3) - The value of uniqueness, (4) - The artistic value, (5) - The historic value, (6) - The diversity value, (7) - The educational value, (8) - The military value, (9) - The tourist value, (10) - The value of social-economic utility, (11) - The aesthetic value. (ASQ) - Average answers to questions.

CONCLUSIONS

The heritage sites provide important knowledge about the past, offering in the same time learning experiences, therefore connection particularly to formal education (based on the role of heritage, part of the curricula, school field trips, site visits, university study programs) and informal education (unofficial learning during visits to historical sites, or ways sites are managed, informing public about negative historical events) (Timothy, 2011). The elements of the historical and cultural heritage represent an important asset of the cities, significantly influencing their economic and social development. Oradea Fortress is one of the most important late medieval architectural monuments in Transylvania and throughout the country. The fortress gradually lost its former function that of the outpost of Transylvania in the defensive system conceived and built by the Habsburg Empire and the Principality of Transylvania against the Ottoman Empire. During the 16th and 17th centuries, the Oradea Fortress was seen as a formidable bastion of Christian Europe in the face of Muslim expansion.

After a difficult period in the Communist era, when it functioned even as a transit camp for the opponents of the communist regime and then as a warehouse, today there is an extensive process of rehabilitation and restoration, within a European funding carried out by Oradea

municipality who sees the fortress as a noteworthy potential for the sustainable development of tourism in the city. The survey shows that the values of the fortress are acknowledged, thus there is no significant gap between the physical-historical characteristics and their interpretation. The results of the questionnaire show that the historical significance and the authenticity are undoubtable of the Oradea Fortress according to the respondents. This confirms the identity generating function and justifies the dominating role in the urban texture.

The examined heritage is not only forming the aesthetics of the urban landscape of Oradea, but also gives clear possibility to its inhabitants and visitors, tourists to relax, to escape from the routine and to learn from the history in a multicultural setting. The venue also offers several touristic sights, cultural programs which partly commodifies the area, this may result some culture-related conflicts. Due to the multicultural character of the city and the architectural characteristics of the fortress, the site can be developed a significant destination. Beyond the obvious economic benefits, this development could contribute to the identity building of locals thus serving wider societal goals - in accordance to the interrelation of space and society described in the Introduction part. As the results of our research show, the fortress is considered tangible and intangible heritage at the same time. The complex nature of this heritage requires comprehensive planning and implementation with horizontal and vertical partnerships, including several actors within the processes.

REFERENCES

- Ashworth, G.J. (1991). Heritage planning: conservation as the management of urban change. *Groningen*. Geo Press. 150 p.
- Ashworth, G.J., Graham, B., & Tunbridge, J.E. (2007). *Pluralising Pasts. Heritage, Identity and Place in Multicultural Societies*. pp. 236, London, Pluto Press.
- Azhayev G., Esimova D., Sonko S.M., Safarov R., Shomanova Zh. & Sambou A. (2020). Geoeological environmental evaluation of Pavlodar region of the Republic of Kazakhstan as a factor of perspectives for touristic activity. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 28(1), 104–113. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.28108-455>
- Badiali, F., & Ilieș, D.C. (2011). La Fortezza Di Oradea (Romania) Nel 1598 Tra Cartografia e Cronaca. Fiamminghi e Italiani Descrivono la Città [The Fortress of Oradea (Romania) in 1598, Between Cartography and Chronicle. Flamings and Italians Describe the City. *Bollettino dell'Associazione Italiana di Cartografia* - supplemento, 143 (2011), Trieste, EUT Edizioni Università di Trieste, 151-165.
- Badiali, F., Ilieș, D.C., & Castaldini, D. (2018). Tale of a City, Through its Urban Landscape and Cultural Heritage in the Heart of Europe: The Case Study of Oradea City (Romania). *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 21(1), 88-102.
- Balogh, J. (1982). *Varadinum. Várad vár.a [Cetatea Oradea – monografie]. [Oradea Fortress - monograph]*, Budapest, 1982. I-II.
- Bar, R., Tătar, C.F., & Herman, G.V. (2016). Satisfaction degree rating of tourist services in Buziaș spa, Timiș County, Romania. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 18(2), 212-223.
- Bohland, J.D. & Hague, E. (2009). Heritage and Identity. in Kitchin, R., Thrift, N. (eds.), *International Encyclopedia of Human Geography*. Oxford, Elsevier, 109-114.
- Biró, J. (1932). *Nagyvárad barokk és neoklasszikus művészeti emlékei, Budapesta [Baroque and neoclassical art monuments of Oradea, Budapest]*.
- Borcea, L. (1976). *Un document inedit despre căderea Oradei în mâna turcilor [scrisoarea din 31 august 1660] [An original document about the fall of Oradea into the hands of the Turks (letter of August 31, 1660)]*. Crisia, VI, 1976.
- Borcea, L., & Gorun, G. (coord.) (2007). *Istoria orașului Oradea [History of the city of Oradea]*. Ediția a doua revăzută și adăugită, [Second edition revised and added], Oradea, 2007.
- Bowitz, E., & Ibenholt, K. (2009). Economic impacts of cultural heritage –Research and Perspectives. *Journal of Cultural Heritage*, 20(1), 1-8.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social Research Methods*. 4th edition, Oxford University Press, USA.
- Chifor, A. (2011). *Alegorii, Simboluri și Decorații în Arta Barocă Orădeană [Allegories, Symbols and Decorations in Oradean Baroque Art]*. Oradea, Editura Muzeului Țării Crișurilor.
- Chang, T.C., Milne, S., Fallon D., & Pohlmann C. (1996). Urban heritage tourism: The global-local nexus, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(2), 284-305.
- Chelcea, S. (2007). *Metodologia cercetării sociologice. Metode cantitative și calitative [Sociological research methodology. Quantitative and qualitative methods]*. Editura Economică, București.
- Corten, J.P., Geurts, E., Meurs, P., & Vermeulen, R. (2014). *Heritage as an Asset for Inner-city Development*. Rotterdam, NAI10 Publishers.
- Deac, L.A., Gozner, M., & Sambou, A. (2019). Ethnographic museums in the rural areas of Crișana Region, Romania – Keepers of local heritage, tradition and lifestyle. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 27(4), 1251–1260. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.27411-430>
- Dejeu, P. (1926). *Așezămintele Culturale din Municipiul Oradea și Județul Bihor [Cultural Settlements from Oradea Municipality and Bihor County]*. Oradea, Editura Autorului, Tipografia Transilvania.
- Dejeu, P. (1937). *Instituțiunile culturale din Municipiul Oradea și Județul Bihor [Cultural institutions from Oradea Municipality and Bihor County]*. Oradea, Editura Autorului, Tipografia Franklin.
- Dejeu, P. (1938). *Vizita regală și programul editat [The royal visit and the municipal program]*. Editura Autorului, Oradea, Tipografia Franklin.
- Dezsi, S., Rusu, R., Ilies, M., Ilies, G., Badarau, A.S., & Rosian, G. (2014). *The role of rural tourism in the social and economic revitalisation of Lapus land (Maramures County, ROMANIA)*, in Geoconference on Ecology, Economics, Education and Legislation, Book Series: International Multidisciplinary Scientific GeoConference-SGEM- Proceedings Paper, II, 783-790. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/293110624>
- Dudaș, F. (1996). *Românii din Oradea în Epoca Luminilor [Romanians from Oradea in the Age of Enlightenment]*. I, Oradea.
- Downs, R.M., & Stea, D. (1973). *Image and Environment*. Chicago, IL: Aldine Publishing.
- Emödi, I. (1998). *Contribuții la cunoașterea istoriei construcției cetății renaștentiste din Oradea [Contributions to the knowledge of the history of the construction of the Renaissance fortress from Oradea]*. Date istorice din trecutul orașului Oradea. [Historical data from the past of Oradea].
- Emödi, T. (2007). *Studiu de istoria artei privind corpurile A, G, H, I, K, L, M, P din incinta Cetății Oradea [Art history study regarding the bodies A, G, H, I, K, L, M, P inside the Oradea Citadel]*. Oradea.
- Emödi, T. (2009). *Studiu de istoria artei privind corpurile B, C, D, E din incinta Cetății Oradea [Study of the history of art regarding the bodies B, C, D, E inside the Oradea Citadel]*. Oradea.
- Ennen, E. (2000). The Meaning of Heritage According to Connoisseurs, Rejecters and Take-it-or-leavers in Historic City Centres: two Dutch cities experienced. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*. 6(4), 331-349.
- Enyedi, G.Y., & Kovács, Z. (2006). *Social Sustainability of Historical City Centres in Central Europe – an Introduction*. in Enyedi, G.Y., Kovács, Z. (eds.), *Social Changes and Social Sustainability in Historical Urban Centres*, Pécs, CRS HAS, 11-19.
- Firu, N. (1924). *Oradea-Mare*. Cultura Națională, București.
- Forrest, R., & Kearns, A. (2001). Social cohesion, social capital and the neighbourhood. *Urban Studies*, 38(12), 2125-2143.
- García-Hernández, M., De la Calle-Vaquero, M., & Yubero, C. (2017). Cultural Heritage and Urban Tourism: Historic City Centres under Pressure. *Sustainability* 9(8):1346 doi:10.3390/su9081346
- Gazdag, J., (1982). *Fejezetek Bihar vármegye levéltárának feudális kori történetéhez, Debrecen [Chapters on the feudal history of the archives of Bihor County, Debrecen]*.
- Gospodini, A. (2006). Portraying, classifying and understanding the emerging landscapes in the post-industrial city. *Cities*, 23(5), 311-330.
- Gospodini, A. (2004). Urban space morphology and place identity in european cities; built heritage and innovative design. *Journal of Urban Design*, 9 (2), 225-248.
- Gozner, M., Tătar, C.F., Stupariu, M. & Măduta, F.M. (2017). Nature, Photography and Tourism in Bihor-Vlădeasa Mountains (Romania). *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 20(2), 210-219.
- Hampton, K.N., Wellman, B. (2003). Neighboring in Netville: How the Internet Supports Community and Social Capital in a Wired Suburb. *City and Community*, 2(4). <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1535-6841.2003.00057.x>
- Harvey, D. (1989). *The Condition of Postmodernity*, Blackwell, Oxford.
- Harvey, D. (2002). The art of rent: globalisation, monopoly and the commodification of culture, *Socialist Register*, 38.
- Herman, G.V., Grama, V., Sonko, S.M., Boc E., Băican, D., Garai, L.D., Blaga, L., Josan, I., Caciara, T., Gruia K.A., Grecu, A., & Peptenatu, D. (2020a). Online Information Premise in the Development of Bihor Tourist Destination, Romania. *Folia Geographica*, 62(1), 21-34.
- Herman G. V., Banto N., Caciara T., Ungureanu M., Furdui S., Grama V., Buhaș R., Buhaș S. (2020b). Tourism in Bihor County, Romania. Trends and Prospects. *Folia Geographica*, 62(2), 87-105.

- Herman, G.V., Wendt, A.J., Dumbravă, R., & Gozner, M. (2019). The role and importance of promotion centers in creating the image of tourist destination: Romania. *Geographia Polonica*, 92(4), 443-454. <https://doi.org/10.7163/GPol.0158>
- Ilieș, D.C., Buhas, R., Ilies, M., Ilies, A., Gaceu, O., Pop, A.C., Marcu, F., Buhas, S.D., Gozner, M., & Baias, S. (2018). Sport Activities and Leisure in Nature 2000 Protected Area – Red Valley, Romania. *Journal of Environmental Protection and Ecology*, 19(1), 367–372.
- Ilieș, A. (coord.), Baias, S., Baias, I., Blaga, L., Buhaș, S., Chiriac, A., Ciocan, J., Dăncuș, M., Deac A., Dragoș, P., Dumitrescu, G., Gaceu, O., Godea, I., Gozner, M., Grama, V., Herman, G., Hodor, N., Hurley, P., Ilieș, D.C., Ilieș, G., Ilieș, M., Josan, I., Leșe, G., Măduța, F., Mojolic, Diana, Morar, C., Oлару, M., Stașac, M., Stupariu, I.M., Sturza, A., Ștefănescu, B., Tătar, C., Vărnăv, R., Vlaicu, M., & Wendt, J. (2014). *Crisana-Maramures. Atlas geografic al patrimoniului turistic*. [Geographical atlas of tourism heritage], 302 p., (română/engleză), Editura Universității din Oradea, ISBN 978-606-10-1298-5.
- Ilieș, D. C., & Josan, I. (2009). The tourist complex spa Băile Felix-Băile 1 mai-personality, distinctiveness by protection versus depersonalization and nonspecific by globalization. conceptual and practical aspects regarding the role of the natural and anthropic setting in tourist fitting. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 4(2), 179-185.
- Ilieș, D.C., Ilieș, A.I., Herman, G., Baias S., & Morar, C. (2011). Geotourist map of the Băile Felix –Băile 1 Mai-Betfia Area (Bihar County, Romania). *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 8(2), 219-226.
- Ilieș D.C., Blaga L., Baias S., Morar C., & Herman, G. (2010). Cross Border Natural Parks, Support for Regional Development. Case study of the Northern and Western Romanian Border. *Revista română de geografie politică*, 12(1), 126-139.
- Ilieș, A., Ilieș, D. C., & Deac, A. L. (2015). Selective, subjective or exclusive tourist map. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 16(2), 217-226.
- Ilieș, D.C., Caciora, T., Herman, G.V., Ilieș, A., Ropa, M., & Baias, Ș. (2020). Geohazards affecting cultural heritage monuments. A complex case study from Romania. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 31(3), 1103–1112. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.31323-546>
- Kisic, V. (2016). *Governing Heritage Dissonance*. Belgrade, European Cultural Foundation.
- Kovács, A. (2003). *Kési reneszánsz építészet Erdélyben [Arhitectura renescentistă târzie în Transilvania]. [Late Renaissance architecture in Transylvania]*. Budapest-Kolozsvár, 2003.
- Kovács A., & Ţoca M. (1973). Arhitecți italieni în Transilvania în cursul secolelor al XVI-lea și al XVII-lea. [Italian architects in Transilvania during the 16th and 17th centuries]. Studia Universitatis Babeş-Bolyai SH. Cluj-Napoca, 18/1973.
- Kovács, A., & Ţoca, M. (1977). Contribuții la cunoașterea palatului în stil renescentist de la Oradea: Reliefulurile în stuc din secolul al XVII-lea [Contributions to the knowledge of the Renaissance-style palace from Oradea: The stucco reliefs from the 17th century]. Biharea 4/1976. Oradea, 1977.
- Kovács, A., & Ţoca, M. (1979). *Adalékok a váradí fejedelmi palota építéstörténetéhez [Contribuții la cunoașterea palatului princiar de la Oradea]. [Contributions to the knowledge of the princely palace from Oradea]*. Móvelidéstörténeti Tanulmányok. București, 1979.
- Lakos, L. (1904). *Nagy-Várad múltja és jelenéből: A varosi levéltár adatai alapján írta: Lakos Lajos [From the past and present of Nagy-Várad: Based on the data of the city archives by Lajos Lakos]*.
- Lakos, M., & Grundison, B.J. (1993). *Conflict and Culture*. pp.214. Research in Five Communities in Vancouver, British Columbia, UVic Institute for Dispute Resolution.
- LeBaron, M. (2003). *Culture and Conflict*. Beyond Intractability. Guy Burgess and Heidi Burgess. Conflict Information Consortium, University of Colorado, Boulder.
- Lečić, N., Mitković, P., & Manić, B. (2017). Tourist valorisation of medieval fortresses along the Danube river: From the Serbian perspective. *Facta universitatis – series, Architecture and Civil Engineering*, 15(3), 465-475. <https://doi.org/10.2298/FUACE170205036L>
- Lefebvre, H. (1991). *The production of space*. 454 p. Oxford, Basil Blackwell.
- Li, Y. (2003). Heritage Tourism: The Contradictions between Conservation and Change. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 4(3), 247-261. <https://doi.org/10.1177/146735840300400305>
- Lowenthal, D. (1998). The Purpose of Heritage. *Lowenthal, The Heritage Crusade and the Spoils of History*, Cambridge University Press, 127-147.
- Lugosi, P.D. Bell, D., & Lugosi, K. (2010). Hospitality, culture and regeneration: Urban decay, entrepreneurship and the ‘ruin’ bars of Budapest. *Urban Studies*, 47 (14), 3079-3101.
- Morar, C. (2012). *Turism și dezvoltare regională durabilă în zonele miniere defavorizate ale județului Bihor [Tourism and Sustainable Regional Development in Bihar County's (Romania) Disadvantaged Mining Regions]*. Universitatea din Oradea.
- Morar, C., Nagy, Gy., Dulca, M., Boros, L., & Sehida, K. (2019). Aspects Regarding the Military Cultural-Historical Heritage in the City of Oradea, Romania. *Annals for Istrian and Mediterranean Studies*, Series Historia et Sociologia 2. <https://doi.org/10.19233/ASHS.2019.ŠT>
- Monyók, B., Kecskés, T. & Kozma, G. (2020). The Relationship Between Heritage Products and Tourism in the Development Documents of Towns in Hajdú-Bihar County. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 28(1), 257–267. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.28120-467>.
- Mugnano, S. & P. Palvarini (2013). Sharing space without hanging together: a case study of social mix policy in Milan. *Cities*, 35 (1), 417-422.
- Niemets, L., Sehida, K., Kravchenko, K., Telebenieva, I., & Peresadko, V. (2018). Trends Forming Policentric Model of Spatial Development and Implementation of the European Experience for Ukraine. Proceedings of the 32nd International Business Information Management Association Conference (IBIMA) (Seville, Spain, 15-16 November 2018). Editor Khalid S. Soliman. Seville, *International Business Information Management Association (IBIMA)*, 362-374.
- Niemets, L., Suptelo, O., Lohvynova, M., Sehida, K., & Telebenieva, I. (2019). Industrial Heritage as a Composition of Post-Industrial City (Basic Case Kharkov, Ukraine). Proceedings of the 33rd International Business Information Management Association Conference (IBIMA) (Granada, Spain, 10-11 April 2019). Editor Khalid S. Soliman. Granada, *International Business Information Management Association (IBIMA)*.
- Pap, Á. (2014). The Role of Built Cultural Heritage in Urban Development Strategies: Case Studies from Budapest. *Journal of Settlements and Spatial Planning*, 5(1), 11-21.
- Pașca, M. (2010a). *Arhitecții József și László Vágó la Oradea. [Architects József and László Vágó in Oradea]*. Oradea, Arca Publishing House.
- Pașca, M. (2010b). *Oradea around 1900. An Architectural Guide*. Oradea, Arca Publishing House.
- Rátz, T., Kundi, V., & Michalkó, G. (2015). The Hidden Dimensions of Cultural Consumption within the Framework of Tourism Mobility. In: Sonnenburg, S; Wee, D (szerk.), *Touring Consumption Wiesbaden*, Németország, Springer VS, 285-302.
- Ropa, L., & Ropa, M. (2015). Aspecte Privind Schimbarea Toponimelor De Către Regimul Comunist Din România. [Aspects Regarding the Change of Toponyms by the Communist Regime in Romania]. *Annals of Oradea University. Fasciola History-Archaeology*, 26.
- Ropa, M., & Ropa, L. (2015). The Unemployment Evolution and Structure Depending on the Level of Education of the Graduated Educational Institution in the Period 2002-2011. Case Study: Depression of Beiuș. *Revista Română de Geografie Politică*, 19(2), 92-102.
- Rusu, A.A. (2002). *Cetatea Oradea. Monografie arheologică. Zona palatului episcopal [Oradea Fortress. Archaeological monograph. The area of the episcopal palace]*. Oradea.
- Scholtz, B. (1907). *Nagy-Várad várának története [The history of the city of Oradea]*. Oradea, 1907.
- Sheperd, R. (2002). Commodification, culture and tourism. *Tourist Studies*, 2(2), 183-201.
- Shomanova, Z.K., Safarov, R.Z., Tleulesov, A.K., Nosenko, Yu. G., Zhumakanova, A.S., Vladimir Viktorovich Larichkin, V.V. (2017). Study of composition of waste from metallurgy production aimed in use them as active phases of catalysts for hydrocarbon raw materials refining, News of the National Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Kazakhstan, Series of Geology and Technical Sciences, 2017, 6(426), 195-200
- Scholtz, A., (1907). *Geschichte der Festung Nagyvárad, Nagyvárad*.
- Soja, E.W. (1989). *Postmodern Geographies: The Reassertion of Space in Critical Social Theory*. London, 266 p., Verso Press.
- Smith, M.K., Egedy, T., Csizmady, A., Jancsik, A., Olt, G., Michalkó, G. (2018). Non-planning and tourism consumption in Budapest's inner city. *Tourism Geographies. International Journal of Tourism Space Place and Environment*, 20(3), 524-548.
- Suleimenov, I., Egemberdieva, Z., Bakirov, A., Baipakbayeva, S., Kopishev, E., Mun, G. (2020). Efficiency Problem of renewable energetics systems in the context of a «smart house» concept. *E3S Web of Conferences*, 164.
- Valentine, G. (2013). Living with difference: proximity and encounter in urban life. *Geography*, 98(1), 4-9.
- *** The World Cities Culture Report 2018, supported by Bloomberg Philanthropies.
- *** The Implementation of the UNESCO (2018). Historic Urban Landscape Recommendation.
- *** UNESCO (2003). Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage.
- *** UNESCO (2005). Convention on the Diversity of Cultural Expressions.

POTENTIAL MAPPING AGRICULTURAL COMMODITIES TO MITIGATION OF FOOD PROBLEM IN THE FUTURE

Rosalina KUMALAWATI*

Lambung Mangkurat University, Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, Jl. H. Hassan Basry, Banjarmasin, Indonesia, e-mail: rosalina.kumalawati@ulm.ac.id

SALAMIAH

Lambung Mangkurat University, Faculty of Agriculture, Jl. A. Yani PO Box 1028, Banjarbaru 70714, Indonesia, e-mail: salamiah@ulm.ac.id

Astinana YULIARTI

Lambung Mangkurat University, Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, Jl. H. Hassan Basry, Banjarmasin, Indonesia, e-mail: astinana.yulianti@ulm.ac.id

Karnanto Hendra MURLIAWAN

Ministry of Agrarian & Spatial Plan/National Land Agency, Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan, Indonesia, e-mail: karnanto@yahoo.com

Citation: Kumalawati, R., Salamiah, Yulianti, A., & Murliwani, K.H. (2020). POTENTIAL MAPPING AGRICULTURAL COMMODITIES TO MITIGATION OF FOOD PROBLEM IN THE FUTURE. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1480–1485. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl05-596>

Abstract: Catastrophic climate changes that have a negative impact in various fields including agriculture. The research objective is "Potential Mapping Agricultural Commodities to Mitigation of Food Problem in the Future". The research method is quantitative and qualitative. Methods of data collection using field research and literature. The population and the sample is a land unit and village units. Land units determine the suitability of land. The village unit collects socio economic data. The analysis technique used Location Question, Shift Share, Focus Group Discussion and spatial analysis. Spatial analysis using Arc GIS. The findings can be used to mitigate future food problems and analyze policies. The results showed rice plants has S1 class (Very Suitable). Corn, chili, orange and banana land suitability S2 (Suitable), onion is S3 (Marginal Suitable). Priority 1 rice commodity in Ayuung Village. Priority 2 Corn in Banua Binjai. Priority 3 that Chili in the village of Awang Besar. Results LQ corn and chili have bases sector, other sectors have the non-base. Shift-share value is negative (-) except Chili. FGD results show developed commodity rice, corn, and chili. The development of leading sectors followed by marketing and processing can increase revenue. Limitations of the research do not examine pests that have the potential to cause crop failure.

Key words: mapping, agricultural, mitigation.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Climate change is a strategic issue and a serious problem in the world, including in Indonesia. Climate change can cause disasters that have a negative impact on food production (Tao and Zhang, 2010; Apriyana, 2011; Las et al., 2011; Mustangin, 2017). The negative impact of long-term climate change to humans and the environment can cause disasters such as extreme droughts, declining yields and food crisis (D'Arrigo et al., 2006; Behera et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 2011; Cullis et al., 2019; Naim and Hindmarsh, 2019).

Fluctuations in the availability of food is influenced climate variations and weather (Apriyana, 2011). Extreme weather represents one evidence of dangerous climate change and is a signal of future climate change (Haden et al., 2012; Renn, 2011; Spence et al., 2011; Linden, 2014a; McDonald et al., 2015; Demski et al., 2017). Extreme weather can affect the production and productivity of agriculture. The decline in production and productivity can be minimized by planting a variety of plant species. Knowing the potential of a region can cope with crop failures in the region with good harvests in other regions with different commodities.

Mapping the potential in agriculture, especially food crops and the determination of the growing season is an important strategy to do (Naylor et al., 2007; Yayan et al., 2017). The impact of changes in rainfall patterns and seasonal changes cause changes in planting dates (Apriyana and Siburian, 2014). The changes have affected the productivity and food security in each region. Seeing this, it is necessary to map the potential and mitigation of climate change, especially in agriculture. Mapping potential to knowing areas of potential and prospective development, so the government more easily take a strategic development policy. Potential identification can be used to anticipate the product over a particular commodity. Identification of Potential in this case is the identification Potential Land Suitability. Identification of Potential Land Suitability to determine the most suitable land for to be developed in agriculture (Kumalawati et al., 2017). Land Suitability Assessment can be carried out with the parameter of multiplication, addition, or using minimum laws. The minimum law is the match between land quality and land characteristics as parameters with land suitability class criteria based on the growing requirements of the evaluated crop or commodity, such as in agriculture (Zulkarnain and Hartanto, 2020).

Many regions have the potential in agriculture but the land suitability of spatial data is not yet available. Land suitability spatial data is necessary because it can be used to select alternative land management so as to create a stable food security and sustainable. Problems with data availability are also experienced in Hulu Sungai Tengah Regency, resulting in inaccurate planning, utilization and development. Overcoming the problem of the availability of spatial data in agriculture can use Geographic Information Systems. Geographic Information System is a combination of database management in collecting and storing geospatial data function describes the relationship of data in the form of maps (Nyerges, 2009). Geographic Information System provides identification information Potential Land Suitability agriculture. Results Identification used as database in the Agricultural Sector Policy Analysis leading commodities include rice, corn, chili, red onions, bananas and oranges. Local development of superior commodities one attempt to compete in trade and improving the local economy (Rosalina et al., 2017; Wahyuningsih et al., 2014). Agriculture development of is needed to improve the quality of agricultural production, income and standard of living people in an area (Luvianita et al., 2017; Mensah and Ekwamu, 2020).

* Corresponding author

The agriculture sector has a significant role in the survival of humanity. The problem of food due to climate change is a global problem, including in the area of research. Predictions of future climate change will occur as a result of the food crisis. The food crisis is an important issue so it is necessary to mitigate and map the suitability of land potential in agriculture. The aim of this research "Potential Mapping Agricultural Commodities to Mitigation of Food Problem in the Future"

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area

Climate change is a strategic issue in developed countries and developing countries. Climate change has adverse effects on long-term agricultural field (Tao and Zhang, 2010; Las et al., 2011; Mustangin, 2017). Agriculture is an activity of processing plants and the environment in order to provide food and non-food products (Soetriono 2006; Sriyanto, 2010). The basic information needed for the development of agriculture is land resource potential of spatial data (BPPP, 2010). Information on the distribution, size, degree of land suitability, the limiting factor, and alternative technologies that can be applied. Land Suitability Assessment can be done by multiplication parameters, summation, or use the minimum law. The minimum law is matching between Land Quality and Land Characteristics as parameters of Land suitability based on plant growth requirements (Djaenudin et al., 2003; Zulkarnain and Hartanto, 2020).

In fact, the information is not yet available land resources as a whole on a sufficient scale. In addition, cooperation between the public, private sector and the government has not been established. Society, and the private sector are government actors at national, regional or local level (Meijerink and Dicke, 2008; Mees et al., 2013). Good cooperation for the collection of spatial data is needed to mitigate climate change especially in agriculture (Termeer et al., 2015). Area of land in agriculture in Barabai, Hulu Sungai Tengah varied. Land area is one of the potential areas that is very important in realizing sustainable land use planning (Budiarta, 2014). The potential of the region needs to be identified that can be planned appropriately to developments in the future. In addition to identification of potential areas, it is also necessary to identify land suitability. Regional potential and suitability of land in agriculture in the long term need to be developed to mitigate the problem of food in the future. The active involvement of the community and the government can reduce the impact of climate change (Tompkins and Eakin, 2012; McNeeley, 2012; Permana and Rahaju, 2020).

Procedures

The success of the mapping and identification of potential mitigation of climate change are expected to be able to anticipate the future of food-related issues (Figure 1).

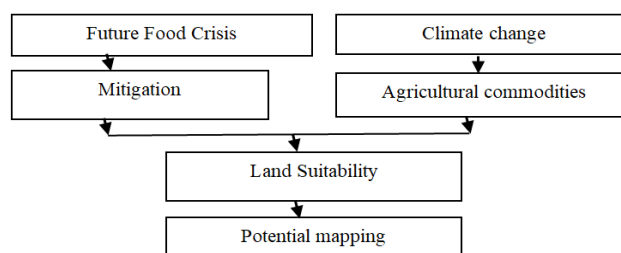


Figure 1. Potential Regional Mapping and Mitigation (Source: Analysis of secondary data and primary data, 2020)

Data analysis

The basis of the research method uses the basic provisions of geography science on the interaction of society and nature, as well as mapping of complex social and natural formations with the help of cartographic models (Nesterchuk et al., 2020). Research used navigational and cartographic hardware and software. The Garmin ETrex Vista was used to obtain coordinate data (Akhmedenov, 2020). The elevation figures were compared and corrected using SRTM.

Methods of data collection using field research and literature. The population and the sample are a land unit and village units. Land units to determine the suitability of land each commodity. Unit villages to collect socio-economic data. Samples were selected and retrieved based on the level of suitability as the sampling frame. The sampling frame is divided into four levels namely S1 (very suitable), S2 (suitable), S3 (marginal suitable), and N (not suitable). Location classification is also included because differences in location result in different sample sizes (Tarin, 2005; Ozdemir, 2000). The research variables are aspects that will be examined in the research (Table 1). The data used are primary data and secondary data. The data collection is done by involving students as enumerators.

Table 1. Variable Research (Source: Analysis of secondary data and primary data, 2020)

No.	Variables	Indicator		Data collection
1.	Mapping the potential of the region	a.	b. Potential Areas, c. Land suitability	The questionnaire, laboratory and FGD
2.	Mitigation	Mitigation of Food Problems		FGD
3.	Recommendations commodities priority	a.	b. Results Identification of Potential Areas, c. Results of Land Suitability, d. Results Mitigation of Food Problems	FGD

Data analysis using quantitative and qualitative approaches (mix method). The analysis technique used was questionnaire scoring, laboratory analysis and spatial analysis to determine land suitability. Location Question analysis techniques, Shift Share, analysis of the results of the Focus Group Discussion (FGD), and spatial analysis to identify potential areas and mitigate food problems (Figure 2). LQ and shift share analysis to determine the economic growth of the region's comparative (Hood, 1998). LQ is a method based on basic economic theories (Rusastra, 2000). Focus Group Discussion is a systematic process of collecting data and information on a specific problem that is very specific through group discussions, for example to find out problems in agriculture (Roberts et al., 2020). Spatial analysis using Arc GIS software. MS Excel is used in computer systematization, the raster graphics editor Adobe Photoshop, the vector graphics editor Adobe Illustrator is used when creating maps and developing mapping techniques (Nesterchuk et al., 2020). Mapping Potential Region and Land Suitability obtained from the overlay multiple base maps and map the results of field measurements. Map used is a vector-based maps to display information about the area of agricultural land. The data obtained is displayed in the form of maps, tables and graphs.

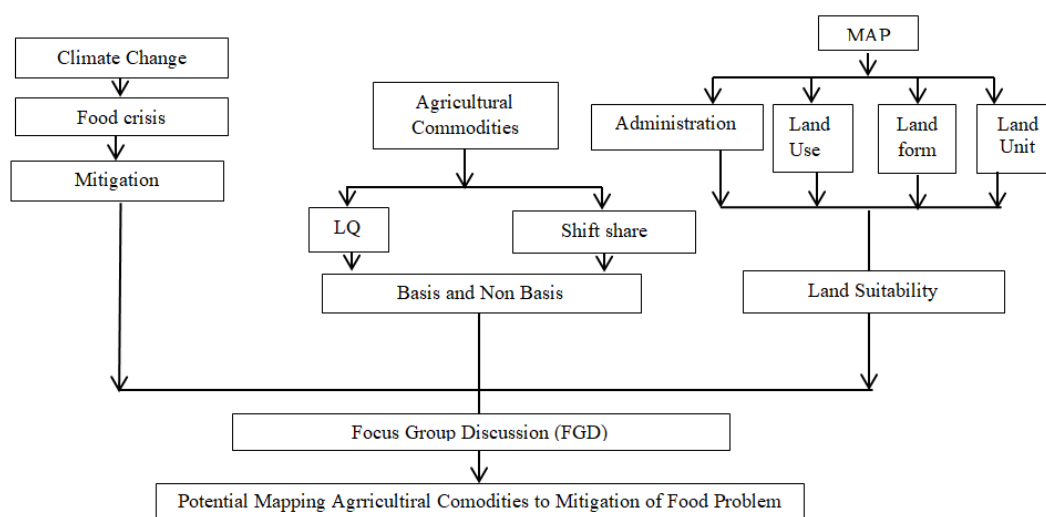


Figure 2. Potential Mapping Agricultural Commodities to Mitigation of Food Problem (Source: Analysis of Secondary Data and Primary Data, 2020)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Result

Agricultural Commodities Research areas include rice, corn, Large Chili, Onions, Oranges and Bananas. Priority commodities are obtained from the land suitability and analysis of the results Soil Laboratory (Table 2 and Figure 3). Laboratory results showed the District has land suitability Barabai S1, S2 and S3. Suitability to the rice crop is S1 (Very Suitable). Corn, chili, orange and banana land suitability S2 (Suitable), as well as the onion is S3 (Marginal Suitable). The results of the land suitability analysis support the results of LQ (Table 3). Corn, bananas, oranges, and great chili as having a sector basis suitability S2 class that can be developed in the study area. Main Commodity based results Identifying Potential and Land Suitability in the village Ayuung, Banua Binjai and Awang Besar (Table 4 and Figure 4).

Table 2. Priority of Land Suitability Results in Research Areas (Source: Primary Data Processing, 2020)

No.	Commodity	Village			
		S1	S2	S3	N
1	Rice	Banua Binjai, Ayuung, Pajukungan, Awang Besar, Kayu Bawang, Babai, Bakapas, Banua Jingah, Mandingin, Gambah, Benawa Tengah, Banua Budi, Bukat, Barabai Darat		Barabai Barat, Barabai Selatan, Barabai Timur, Barabai Utara	
2	Corn		Babai, Banua Binjai, Ayuung, Pajukungan, Awang Besar, Gambah, Kayu Bawang, Banua Budi, Banua Jingah, Mandingin	Bakapas, Barabai Barat, Barabai Darat, Barabai Selatan, Barabai Timur, Barabai Utara, Benawa Tengah, Bukat	
3	Large Chili		Awang Besar, Kayu Bawang	Banua Binjai, Ayuung, Bakapas, Babai, Banua Budi, Barabai Barat, Barabai Darat, Barabai Selatan, Barabai Timur, Barabai Utara, Benawa Tengah, Bukat, Gambah, Mandingin, Pajukungan, Banua Jingah.	
4	Red onion			Banua Binjai, Ayuung, Bakapas, Awang Besar, Babai, Banua Budi, Barabai Barat, Barabai Darat, Barabai Selatan, Barabai Timur, Barabai Utara, Benawa Tengah, Bukat, Gambah, Kayu Bawang, Mandingin, Pajukungan, Banua Jingah.	
5	Orange		Kayu Bawang	Banua Binjai, Ayuung, Bakapas, Awang Besar, Babai, Banua Budi, Barabai Barat, Barabai Darat, Barabai Selatan, Barabai Timur, Barabai Utara, Benawa Tengah, Bukat, Gambah, Mandingin, Pajukungan, Banua Jingah.	
6	Banana		Babai, Ayuung, Banua Jingah, Kayu Bawang, Awang Besar	Banua Binjai, Bakapas, Banua Budi, Barabai Barat, Barabai Darat, Barabai Selatan, Barabai Timur, Barabai Utara, Benawa Tengah, Bukat, Gambah, Mandingin, Pajukungan	

Information:

S1 = Very Suitable S3 = Marginal Suitable
S2 = Suitable N = Not Suitable

Table 3. Main Commodity based results Identifying Potential and Land Suitability in the Research Area (Source: Primary Data Processing, 2020)

No.	Commodities	Priority 1	Priority 2	Priority 3
1	Rice	Babai, Banua Binjai, Ayuung, Pajukungan, Awang Besar, Kayu Bawang	Banua Binjai, Ayuung	Banua Binjai, Ayuung
2	Corn		Banua Binjai, Pajukungan, Awang Besar, Kayu Bawang	Pajukungan, Babai
3	Red onion			Banua Binjai
4	Chili		Babai	Awang Besar, Pajukungan
5	Banana			Banua Binjai, Kayu Bawang
6	Orange	Babai		Babai, Awang Besar, Kayu Bawang

Table 4. Pilot Village Main Commodity in the Research Area (Source: Primary Data Processing, 2020)

Priority	P1	P2	P3
Main Commodity	Rice	Corn	Chili
Village	Ayung	Banua Binjai	Awang Besar
LQ	Non-Base	Base	Base
Shift Share	-	-	+
Land Suitability	S1	S2	S2

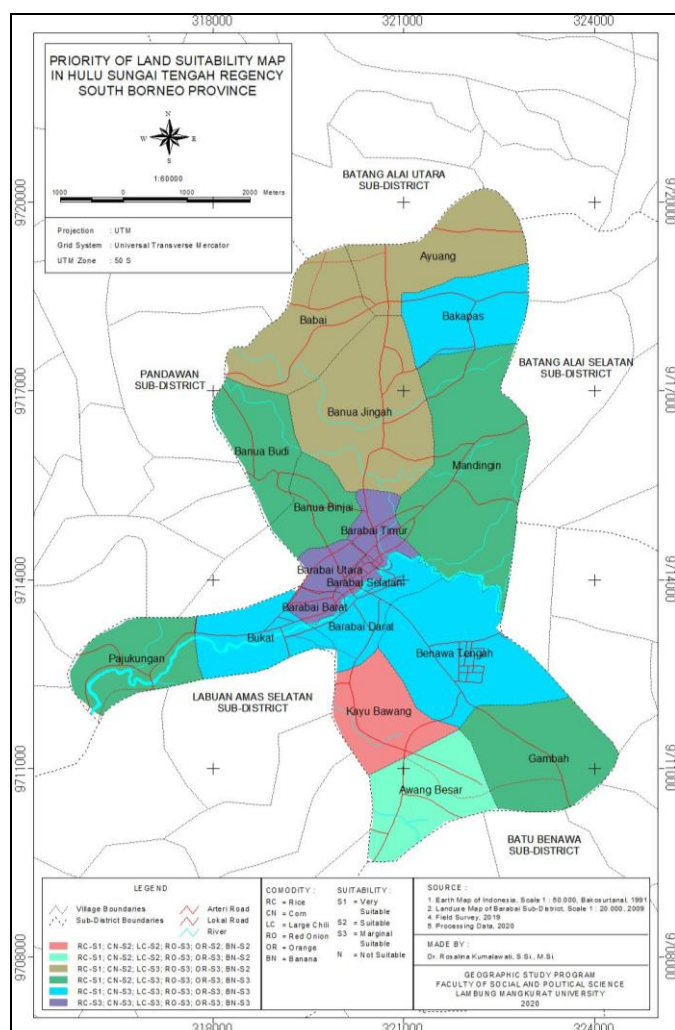


Figure 3. Priority of Land Suitability Map in Hulu Sungai Tengah Regency South Borneo Province (Source: Primary Data Processing, 2020)

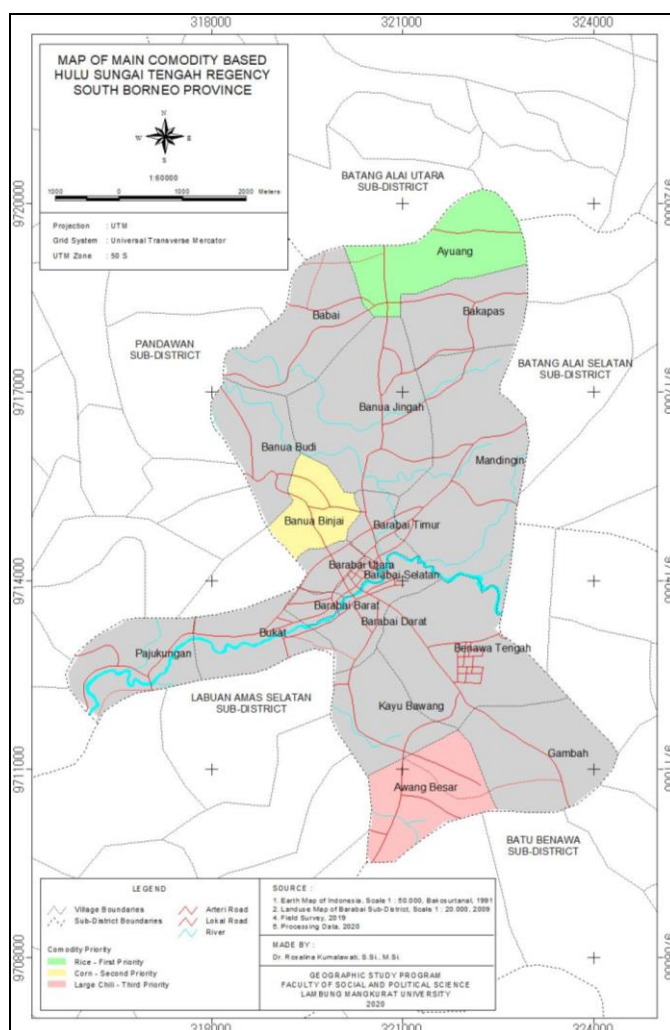


Figure 4. Map on Main Commodity Based Hulu Sungai Tengah Regency Sout Borneo Province (Source: Primary Data Processing, 2020)

DISCUSSION

Priority of Land Suitability Results in Research Areas

Land suitability laboratory results and questionnaire validated with a Focus Group Discussion (FGD). Results obtained validation featured priority for each commodity agriculture in each village. Commodity Priority 1 namely rice, and oranges in the village of Babai, Banua Binjai, Ayung, Pajukungan, Awang Besar, Kayu Bawang. Priority 2, namely rice, corn, and chili in the village of Banua Binjai, Ayung, Pajukungan, Awang Besar, Kayu Bawang and Babai. Priority 3 is the lead all commodities in the village of Banua Binjai, Ayung, Pajukungan, Babai, Kayu Bawang, Babai, and Awang Besar (Table 3).

Main Commodity based results Identifying Potential and Land Suitability in the Research Area

Commodity Priority 1 is Rice Village Ayung become pilot areas. Commodity Priority 2 namely corn in Banua Binjai, commodity Priority 3 that Chili in the village of Awang Besar (Table 4 and Figure 4). Development of agricultural commodities just do not think the type of commodity to be developed but also about marketing and transportation. Marketing requires market economic conditions for all business entities that can be viewed as a socio-economic system (SES) to be competitive (Ginevicius, 2019; Dzurov et al., 2020). Competitiveness can be seen from an economic and psychological point of view (Piotrowska, 2019). Transportation is needed for marketing so that efficiency, level of safety, quantity and quality of services for transportation and cargo, environmental protection need to be considered (Pidgima et al., 2020). Transportation logistics is a factor in realizing the geostrategic potential of an area and determining marketing success (Pohuda et al., 2018). In addition, the processing of commodities should also be developed in order to have more value and increase farmers' income (Kristiawan et al., 2016). Limitations of the study did not examine whether there is a threat in the area of research that could potentially lead to crop failure. The most common pest that appears and is still ignored by farmers is the Parasite Nematoda (PPN) as in the province of East Kalimantan (Suyadi and Rosfiansyah, 2017). Farmers, especially in developing countries are not aware of the existence of PPN (Jones et al, 2013). PPN attack rice plants can cause loss of up to 87%. PPN and Antraknosa can attack the banana plant (Rumahlewang, 2012). Banana losses due to PPN of more than 50% (Bartholomew et al. 2014) or ranging from 30 to 60%

(Brooks, 2008). PPN can also cause yield losses of up to 75% on bananas (Holscher et al., 2014). It is most prevalent in developing countries such as Indonesia due to parasite control efforts are still limited (Chitamba et al., 2013; Kamira et al., 2013; Srinivasan et al., 2011).

Red Onion (*Allium Ascalonicum*) is one of vegetables that have high economic value (Safitri et al., 2019). Spacing should be considered in planting Red Onion (Nugrahini, 2013). Obstacles to plant onions especially outside the growing season of the rainy season the risk of disease and affects production (Kusmiadi et al, 2015). Losses due to disease reaches 24-100% (Udiarto et al, 2005). Disease that often attacks the onions are anthracnose Isnawan, and Mubarak, (2014). 2015 Onion began to be developed in South Kalimantan (Safitri et al., 2019). Seeing this much needed further research on types of pests that can affect the productivity of agriculture commodities in the research area. At this time, research in agriculture has attracted much attention (Fritz and Miller, 2003; Stair et al., 2012; Roberts, 2020). However, with a participatory approach namely through FGD, this research provides a unique insight into how the community can overcome agricultural problems due to climate change. Furthermore, symbolic interactionism (Crotty, 1998) serves to recount the findings that have emerged. Nonetheless, we recommend that future investigations design research studies using a variety of conceptual and theoretical perspectives about agriculture. Perhaps by examining this phenomenon with a bottom up approach and a different set of assumptions, more precise solutions can be found on future agricultural problems. We also point out opportunities for future research and practice related to agriculture, for example regarding the types of pests that affect agricultural productivity.

CONCLUSION

Results showed that corn and chili LQ has a base sector, while other sectors have the non-base. Shift-share value is negative (-) except chili. FGD results indicate the commodities to be developed by the community are rice, corn, and chili. Rice, corn and chili as having a sector basis suitability classes S1 and S2 that can be developed in the research area.

The development of the agricultural sector must be followed by the development of the marketing and processing of commodities so as to increase incomes. Limitations of the study did not see if there was a threat in the area of research that could potentially lead to crop failure. However, further research needs to be done is about the types of pests that can affect productivity.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to express their sincere gratitude to the Lambung Mangkurat University for supporting this research.

REFERENCES

- Akhmedenov, K.M. (2020). Tourist And Recreational Potential Of The Salt Lakes Of Western Kazakhstan. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30, 782-787. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl01-505>
- Apriyana, Y. (2011). *Determination of Rice Cropping Calendar based on the ENSO (El Niño Southern Oscillation) and IOD (Indian Ocean Dipole) Phenomena in monsoonal and Equatorial Regions*. [Dissertation]. IPB University, Bogor, Indonesia.
- Apriyana, Y., & Siburian, I.M. (2014). Farmers Strategy, Responding to Climate Variability in Rice Production Centers region of West Java. Proceedings of the National Seminar on Food Sovereignty and Agriculture. *Results of Socio-Economic Research*, Faculty of Agriculture, Gadjah Mada University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.
- Bartholomew, E. S., Brathwaite, R. A., & Isaac, W. A. P. (2014). Control of root-burrowing nematode (*Radopholus similis*) in banana using extracts of *Azadirachta indica* and *Allium sativum*. *Journal of Organic Systems*, 9(2), 49-55. <http://www.organic-systems.org/>
- Behera S.K, Luo J.J, Yamagata T. (2008): *The IOD Unusual Event of 2007*, Geophysical research letters, 35(14). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2008GL034122>
- Brooks F.E. (2008). Burrowing nematodes. *The Plant Health Instructor* <https://doi.org/10.1094/PHI-I-2008-1020-01>
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Sage.
- Chitamba J, Manjeru P, Chinheya C.C, Mudada N, & Handiseni M. (2013). Plant-parasitic nematodes associated with banana (*Musa* spp.) In Rusitu Valley, Zimbabwe. [Plant-parasitic nematodes associated with banana (*Musa* spp.) In Rusitu Valley, Zimbabwe]. *Nematropica* 43, 113-118. <https://journals.flvc.org/>
- Cullis, J. D., Horn, A., Rossouw, N., Fisher-Jeffes, L., Kunneke, M. M., & Hoffman, W. (2019). Urbanisation, climate change and its impact on water quality and economic risks in a water scarce and rapidly urbanising catchment: case study of the Berg River catchment. *H2Open Journal*, 2(1), 146-167. <https://doi.org/10.2166/h2oj.2019.027>
- Djaenudin, D., Marwan H., Subagyo H., & A. Hidayat. (2003). *Technical Guidelines for Agricultural Commodities. First Edition 2003*. Soil Research Institute. Research and Development Center for Soil and Agro-climate. Bogor, Indonesia, ISBN 979-9474-25-6.
- Dzurav Vargová, T., Gallo, P., Švedová, M., Litavcová, E., & Košíková, M. (2020). Non-Traditional Forms of Tourism in Slovakia as a Concept of Competitiveness. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30(2spl), 801-807. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl04-508>
- D'Arrigo, R., Wilson, R., Palmer, J., Krusic, P., Curtis, A., Sakulich, J., Bliksana, S., & Ngkoimani, L.O. (2006). Monsoon drought over Java, Indonesia, during the past two centuries. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 33(4). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005GL025465>
- Demski, C., Capstick, S.B, Pidgeon, N.F, Sposato, R.G, & Spence, A., (2017). Experience of extreme weather a ff ECTS climate change mitigation and adaptation responses. *Climate Change* 140, 149-164. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-016-1837-4>
- Fritz, C.A., & Miller, G.S. (2003). Concerns expressed by student teachers in agriculture. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 44(3), 47-53. <https://doi.org/10.5032/jae.2003.03047>
- Ginevicius, R. (2019). Quantitative assessment of the compatibility of the development of socioeconomic systems. *Journal of Competitiveness*, 11(2), 36. <https://doi.org/10.7441/joc.2019.02.03>
- Haden, V.R, Niles, M.T, Lubell, M., Perlman, J., & Jackson, L.E. (2012). Global and local concerns: what attitudes and beliefs motivate farmers to mitigate and adapt to cli- mate change? *PLoS One* 7. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0052882>. e52882
- Hansen, J.W., Mason, S.J., Sun, L., & Tall, A. (2011). Review of seasonal climate forecasting for agriculture in sub-Saharan Africa. <https://doi.org/10.7916/d8-hhxx-1m98>
- Hood, R. (1998). *Economic Analysis: A Primer Location Quotient, Principal*, Sun Region Associates, Inc.
- Hölscher, D., Dhakshinamoorthy, S., Alexandrov, T., Becker, M., Bretschneider, T., Buerkert, A., Crecelius, A., Waele, D., Elsen, A., Heckel, D G., Heklau, H., Hertweck, C., Kai, M., Knop, K., Krafft, C., Maddula, R.K., Matthaus, C., Popp, J., Schneider, B., Schubert, U.S., Sikora, R.A., Svatos, A., & Swennen, R.L. (2014). Phenalenone-type phytoalexins mediate resistance of banana plants (*Musa* spp.) to the burrowing nematode *Radopholus similis*. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(1), 105-110. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1314168110>
- Jones, J.T., Haegeman, A., Danchin, E.G.J, Gaur, H.S, Helder, J., Jones, M.G.K., Kikuchi, T., Manzanilla-Lopez, R., Palomares-Rius, J.E, Wesemael, W.M.L., & Perry, R.N. (2013) Top 10 plant-parasitic nematodes in molecular plant pathology. *Mol Plant Pathol*, 14, 946-961. <https://doi.org/10.1111/mpp.12057>
- Khamid, M.B.R., Kurniawati, A., & Kasutjaniangati, K. (2016). Pengaruh Pemberongsongan terhadap Kualitas serta Tingkat Serangan Hama Penyakit Buah Pisang Tanduk (*Musa paradisiaca* var [The Influence of Gathering on the Quality and Level of Attack of Horn Banana Fruit]. *Typica, AAB Group. Jurnal Agrotek Indonesia*, 1(2). <https://docplayer.info/48685911-Jurnal-agrotek-indonesia-1-2-2016-issn.html>
- Kristiawan, N., Hanani A.R., Soemarno, & Tyasmoro, S.Y. (2016). Leading Product Development of Fruits Using Location Quotient in Tuban Regency. *IOSR Journal of Agriculture and Veterinary Science (IOSR-JAVS)*. 9(8), 81-84. <https://doi.org/10.9790/2380-0908018184>
- Kumalawati, R., Arisanty, D., Krisdiyanto, M., & Salamiah, M. (2017). Potency of Agriculture Commodity in Haruyan, Hulu Sungai Tengah Regency. In *1st International Conference on Social Sciences Education-Multicultural Transformation in Education, Social Sciences and Wetland Environment (ICSSE 2017)*, Atlantis Press. <https://dx.doi.org/10.2991/icsse-17.2018.63>
- Las, I., Pramudia, A., Runtuwuwu, E., & Setyanto, P. (2011). Anticipation of climate change in security national rice production. *J Agric Innov Dev*, 4(1), 76-86.
- Luvianita. A.A. (2017). *Analysis of Agriculture Commodities by Method Location Quotient in Karanganyar Year 2014-2016*. Geography Faculty. Surakarta: Muhammadiyah Universities Surakarta.
- McDonald, R. I., Chai, H. Y., & Newell, B. R. (2015). Personal experience and the 'psychological distance' of climate change: An integrative review. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 44, 109-118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2015.10.003>.

- McNeeley, S.M. (2012). Examining barriers and opportunities for sustainable adaptation to climate change in Interior Alaska. *Climatic Change*, 111(3-4), 835-857. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-011-0158-x>
- Mensah, S., & Ekwamu, A. (2020). Agricultural production, food nutrition and capacity building in higher education in Africa. *African Journal of Rural Development*, 4(4). <http://www.afjrd.org/ios/index.php/afjrd/article/view/2133>
- Mees, H.L., Driessen, P.P., Runhaar, H.A., & Stamatielos, J. (2013). Who governs climate adaptation? Getting green roofs for stormwater retention off the ground. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 56(6), 802-825. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09640568.2012.706600>
- Meijerink, S., & Dicke, W. (2008). Shifts in the public-private divide in flood management. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, 24(4), 499-512. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07900620801921363>
- Naim, M., & Hindmarsh, R. (2019). Traditional-Contemporary community Engagement Approaches for Effective Local Climate Change Adaptation in Indonesia. *Ecolab*, 13(1), 39-59. <https://doi.org/10.20886/ijklh.2019.13.1.39-59>
- Naylor, R.L., Battisti, D.S., Vimont, D.J., Falcon, W.P., & Burke, M.B. (2007). Assessing risks of climate variability and climate change for Indonesian rice agriculture. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 104(19), 7752-7757. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0701825104>
- Nesterchuk, I., Osipchuk, A., Chernyshova, T., Shevchuk, B., & Bondarenko, E. (2020). Ethnic loading of food as a sustainable culture component in the form of physical-geographical, soil and ethnographic zoning of the Right-Bank Polissia. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30(2spl), 788-793. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl02-506>
- Nugrahini, T. (2013). Respon tanaman bawang merah (*Allium ascalonicum* L.) varietas Tuk Tuk terhadap pengaturan jarak tanam dan konsentrasi pupuk organik cair nasa [The response of the shallot (*Allium ascalonicum* L.) Tuk Tuk variety to the spacing and concentration of nasa liquid organic fertilizer]. *Ziraa'ah Majalah Ilmiah Pertanian*, 36(1), 60-65. <http://dx.doi.org/10.31602/zmip.v36i1.27>
- Nyerges, T. (2009). *GIS and Society*. University of Washington. Seattle. WA. USA.
- Ozdemir, O. (2000). *Risk Management Decisions in Low Loss and High Probability Risk Situations: Experimental Evidence*. Ankara: Department of Business Administration, Turkey.
- Pidgirma, V., & Filipchuk, N. (2020). Development Of The Tourist Services Market In Ukraine Under Conditions Of Transformation Changes. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30 (2spl), 794-800. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl03-507>
- Piotrowska, M. (2019). Facets of competitiveness in improving the professional skills. *Journal of Competitiveness*, 11(2), 95. <https://doi.org/10.7441/joc.2019.02.07>
- Pohuda, N., & Rozmetova, O. (2018). Current status of the tourist market of Ukraine: evaluation and prospects of development. *Effective Economy, Electronic Professional Edition*, 10, 10-24.
- Renn, O. (2011). The social amps fi cation / attenuation of risk framework: application to climate change. *Wiley Interdiscip. Rev. Climate Change*, 2, 154-169. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.99>
- Roberts, R., Stair, K.S., & Granberry, T. (2020). Images from the Trenches: A Visual Narrative of the Concerns of Agricultural Education Majors. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 61(2), 324-338. <https://doi.org/10.5032/jae.2020.02324>
- Rumahlewang, W., & Amanupunyo, H.R. (2018). Patogenisitas Colletotrichum musae Penyebab Penyakit Antraknosa Pada Beberapa Varietas Buah Pisang. *Agrologia*, 1(1). <http://dx.doi.org/10.30598/a.v1i1.30>
- Rusastra, I.W.P., Simatupang, & Rachman, B. (2000). *Rural Economic Development based on agribusiness*, Center for Research and Socio-Economic Development of Agriculture.
- Safitri, Y.A., Hasanah, U., Salamiah, S., Samharinto, S., & Pramudi, M.I. (2019). Distribution of major diseases of shallot in South Kalimantan, Indonesia. *Asian Journal of Agriculture*, 3(02). <https://doi.org/10.13057/asianjagric/g030201>
- Soetriono. (2006). *Introduction of Agricultural Sciences Agriculture, Agribusiness, and Industry*. Malang, Bayumedia Publishing.
- Spence, A., Poortinga, W., Butler, C., & Pidgeon, N.F. (2011). Perceptions of climate change and willingness to save energy related to flood experience. *Nat. Climate Change*, 1, 46-49. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1059>
- Srinivasan, R., Kulothungan, S., Sundararaju, P., & Govindasamy, C. (2011). Biodiversity of plant parasitic nematodes associated with banana in Thanjavur district of Tamil Nadu. *International Journal of Plant, Animal and Environmental Sciences*. <http://www.ijpaes.com/>
- Sriyanto, S. (2010). *Harvest Money on Organic Rice Business*. Agro Media, South Jakarta.
- Stair, K.S., Warner, W.J., & Moore, G.E. (2012). Identifying concerns of preservice and in-service teachers in agricultural education. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 53(2), 153-164. <https://doi.org/10.5032/jae.2012.02153>
- Suyadi, R. (2017). The role of plant parasitic nematodes on productivity reduction of banana and tomato in East Kalimantan, Indonesia. *Asian Journal of Agriculture*. <https://doi.org/10.13057/asianjagric/g010108>
- Tao, F., & Zhang, Z. (2010). Adaptation of maize production to climate change in North China Plain: quantify the relative contributions of adaptation options. *European Journal of Agronomy*, 33(2), 103-116. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eja.2010.04.002>
- Tarin, R. (2005). *Regional Planning*. Jakarta, Earth Literacy.
- Termeer, C., van Buuren, A., Knieling, J., & Gottschick, M. (2015). Reconciling collaborative action research with existing institutions: insights from Dutch and German climate knowledge programmes. *Journal of water and climate change*, 6(1), 89-103. <https://doi.org/10.2166/wcc.2014.084>
- Tompkins, E.L., & Eakin, H. (2012). Managing private and public adaptation to climate change. *Global Environtal Change*, 22, 3-11. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2011.09.010>
- Udiarto, B.K., Wiwin, S., & Euis, S. (2005). *Introduction of shallots and Diseases and their control*. PTT Shallots no. 2. Vegetable Crops Research Institute, Bandung, Indonesian.
- Wahyuningsih, T., & Kadir, H.H.A. (2014). Determination of Agricultural Sector and Subsector Potentially Leading and with Superior in District Hie Location Quotientmethod Static, Dynamic Input and Output Location Quotient. <https://doi=10.1.1.663.7357>
- Zulkarnain, Z., & Hartanto, R.N. (2020). Analisis Kesesuaian Lahan Untuk Pertanian Pangan Berkelanjutan Di Kabupaten Mahakam Hulu. *Agrifor*, 19(2), 347-354. <https://doi.org/10.31293/af.v19i2.4809>
- Budiarta, I.G. (2017). Analisis Kemampuan Lahan Untuk Arahan Penggunaan Lahan Pada Lereng Timur Laut Gunung Agung Kabupaten Karangasem-Bali.[Land Ability Analysis for Land Use Direction on the Northeast Slope of Mount Agung, Karangasem Regency, Bali]. *Media Komunikasi Geografi*, 15(1). <http://dx.doi.org/10.23887/mkg.v15i1.11420>
- Isnawan, B.H., & Mubarak, K. (2014). Efektifitas Penginduksi Resistensi dan Biopestisida terhadap Penyakit Bercak Daun Cercospora dan Antraknosa pada Cabai (*Capsicum annuum* L.) [Effectiveness of Biopesticide and Resistance Induction against Cercospora Leaf Spot and Anthracnose in Chili (*Capsicum annuum* L.)]. *Planta Tropika, Jurnal Agrosains (Journal of Agro Science)*, 2(2), 106-114. <https://doi.org/10.18196/pt.2014.030.106-114>
- Zulkarnain, Z., & Hartanto, R.N. (2020). Analisis Kesesuaian Lahan Untuk Pertanian Pangan Berkelanjutan Di Kabupaten Mahakam Hulu.[Analysis of Land Suitability for Sustainable Food Agriculture in Mahakam Hulu Regency]. *Agrifor*, 19(2), 347-354. <https://doi.org/10.31293/af.v19i2.4809>
- Kamira, M., Hauser, S., Van Asten, P., Coyne, D., & Talwana, H.L. (2013). Plant Parasitic Nematodes Associated with Banana and Plantain in Eastern and Western Democratic Republic of Congo [Nematodos Fitoparásitos Asociados A Los Cultivos De Banano Y Plátano En El Este Y Oeste De La República Democrática Del Congo]. *Nematropica*, 43(2), 216-225.
- Kusmiadi, R., Ona, C., & Saputra, E. (2015). Pengaruh jarak tanam dan waktu penyiangan terhadap pertumbuhan dan produksi bawang merah (*Allium salonicum* L.) pada lahan ultisol di Kabupaten Bangka.[Effect of spacing and time of weeding on growth and production of shallots (*Allium salonicum* L.) on ultisol land in Bangka Regency]. *Enviagro, Jurnal Pertanian dan Lingkungan*, 8(2), 63-71. <https://www.journal.ubb.ac.id/index.php/enviagro/article/view/320/294>
- Mustangin, M. (2017). Perubahan iklim dan aksi menghadapi dampaknya: Ditinjau dari peran serta perempuan Desa Pagerwangi. JPPM (Jurnal Pendidikan dan Pemberdayaan Masyarakat)[Climate change and action to face its impact: Viewed from the participation of women in Pagerwangi Village. *Journal of Community Education and Empowerment*, 4(1), 80-89. <https://doi.org/10.21831/jppm.v4i1.13051>
- Permana Santoso, A.L.D.I., & Rahaju, T. (2020). Dampak Program Kampung Iklim (Proklim) di Rukun Warga (RW) 03 Kelurahan Jambangan Kota Surabaya. Impact of Kampung Iklim (Proklim) Program on Rukun Warga (RW) 03 Surabaya City Jambangan, *Publika*, 8(1).
- *** BPPP (Agency for Agricultural Research and Development). (2010). *Analysis of Land Resources Sustainable Food Security menuju*. Agency for Agricultural Research and Development, Jakarta.

IMPACT OF COVID-19 PANDEMIC ON TOURISM: RECOVERY PROPOSAL FOR FUTURE TOURISM

Santus Kumar DEB

University of Dhaka, Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Bangladesh, e-mail: santus@du.ac.bd

Shohel Md. NAFI*

Noahkhali Science and Technology University, Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Bangladesh, e-mail: smnafi13@gmail.com

Citation: Deb, S.K., & Nafi, S.M. (2020). IMPACT OF COVID-19 PANDEMIC ON TOURISM: RECOVERY PROPOSAL FOR FUTURE TOURISM. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1486–1492. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl06-597>

Abstract: The aim of the study was to examine the consequence of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism. Qualitative analysis was adopted, whereas data were collected from secondary sources like journals, newspapers, statistical data obtained from international tourism organizations, and websites on COVID-19 incidences in tourism. Due to the outbreak, it had a severe adverse impact on tourism and employment. Airlines have canceled flights, and hotels are almost vacant; thus, supporting tourism agencies face substantial economic losses and employment cuts. This study develops a framework with a recovery plan for future tourism across a slogan: putting people first and travel tomorrow.

Key words: COVID-19, tourism, travel restriction, pandemic, future tourism.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

The World Health Organization (WHO) proclaimed on January 31, 2020, that the COVID-19 outbreak in China constituted a ‘*Public Health Emergency*’ of Global Concern (ABC News, 2020; Ying et al., 2020). COVID-19 is a novel coronavirus respiratory sickness that was first identified in Wuhan, China, in December 2019 (Brüssow, 2020; Fauci et al., 2020; Gentile and Abenavoli, 2020; Shang et al., 2020). The outbreak has spread to 210 countries and regions around the world (Worldometers, 2020). However, 210 countries and two international conveyances have been affected by the COVID-19 outbreak, wherein 32,769,408 confirmed cases and 993,542 deaths have occurred as a result (last update: September 26, 2020). The global tourism market has been growing significantly in the last few decades. In 1950, the total number of tourist arrival was only 25 million that is reached 1.5 billion in 2019. However, the growth in the overall world tourism market has been influenced by the spread of infection diseases (Baker, 2015). Travelers can easily transmit person-to-person infections from one part of the country to another country as has been seen recently with the coronavirus. The COVID-19 global crisis has already created an economic, social, and labor market shockwave, affecting all product supply and demand. Interruption in production has now extended to global supply chain systems (ILO, 2020). All varieties of businesses, irrespective of size, are currently facing tremendous challenges. However, aviation, tourism, and hospitality industries have faced continuous challenges since the beginning of the pandemic, with significant drops in revenue and growth, as well as job losses in particular sectors following travel bans and border closure measures. It is most challenging for small and medium sized businesses to sustain themselves at present without assistance. For the uncertainty and wide range of spread of COVID-19, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has suggestively reviewed their prediction for the year 2020.

The tourism and travel industry is one of the world’s biggest industries, offering rich experiences to travelers and contributing to community development. Moreover, Jamal and Budke (2020) stated that “in the present globalized world, threats and challenges have amplified alongside the easiness of travel and swift movement of goods, knowledge, finance, and diseases”. However, health emergencies and climate change are the two most challenging factors for the tourism industry. COVID-19 is one of the most significant new challenges to the tourism industry. A pandemic that began in the Hubei province of China has disseminated quickly, and considerable outbreaks are currently occurring in the USA, the UK, France, Spain, Italy, the Middle East, and Asia. The economic consequences could include recessions in the USA, Europe, Africa and Asia. China has already experienced the slowest growth on record with a total of USD 2.7 trillion in lost output, which is equal to the whole GDP of the U.K. (Orlik et al., 2020). Moreover, tourism destination development, planning and implementation of the systems can be performed by proper monitoring arrangements that involve the active and balanced involvement of all the related stakeholders. A stakeholder is described as “any group of people or individuals who can affect or are affected by” tourism activity in a particular area (Freeman, 1984). Tourism stakeholders may be classified as the tourists, business owners, government, employees, local community and suppliers. The active participation and cooperation of tourism stakeholders make this industry one of the biggest industries in the world. Tourism stakeholders’ involvement and participation can strengthen the recovery process from any kind of disaster. However, the stakeholder role is essential in the overall recovery process from the COVID-19 pandemic.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The tourism industry is perceived to be entering and going through an unprecedented crisis period that is already projected by recent trends. The operation of hotels, resorts, tour operators, airlines, and other tourism-related services is currently blocked. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the tourism sector is facing exceptional challenges. The COVID-19 outbreak has triggered both health insecurity and the economic downturn. This study develops a framework that shows the interrelationship among the different stakeholders and their role in the COVID-19 situation. This study also constructs a guideline for industry stakeholders to make decisions during the pandemic.

RESEARCH METHOD AND MATERIAL

Researchers have collected vast volumes of data all over the world; the feasibility of utilizing current data for the study is becoming more widespread (Andrews et al., 2012; Smith, 2008). When data were collected from some other sources that are published by someone

* Corresponding author

else is called secondary data. The study adopted a secondary research approach based on secondary data. First, the study examined the effects of COVID-19 on the world tourism sectors. Furthermore, secondary data related to the impact of this epidemic on the tourism industry were identified and analyzed. The researchers performed the analysis by reviewing encyclopedias, journals, documents, historical records, newspaper articles, studies, UNWTO statistics, governmental data, and websites. Authentic, topical research was conducted with critical secondary materials from selected literature (Grewal et al., 2016). Only a few studies have been published that examined the consequences of COVID-19 on travel and tourism. Researchers also developed a theoretical model of the tourism recovery plan for the COVID-19 outbreak based on expert opinion, theoretical aspects and the report of UNWTO.

COVID-19 AND TOURISM SCENARIOS

International Tourism 2020 Scenarios

Last few years, the tourism industry has experienced sharp growth in the number of tourist arrival and in tourist receipts. In 2019, international tourist arrivals raised by 4 percent to reach 1.5 billion globally. For that reason, experts around the world were expected that 2020 would be another successful year for tourism. However, the COVID-19 outbreak changes the overall scenario for the industry. Bakar and Rosbi (2020) analyze the economic outcome of COVID-19 to the tourism industry and show it creates one kind of panic among consumers that lower the tourism demand. An early overview of COVID-19 has been presented by Fernandes (2020) and illustrates the countries that are greatly dependent on foreign trade are more negatively affected by the present crisis. Karim et al. (2020) describe the movement control order and its impact on Malaysia tourism and find that employees from the hospitality sector were asked to take unpaid leave, and the aviation sector minimizes the flight operations for the reason of COVID-19. However, these types of scenarios are almost the same globally at present. Korinth and Ranasinghe (2020) find that in Poland, the hotel occupancy level decreased by about 40 percent and air traffic on Poland airport fell by about 80-90 percent by early March compared to the last year. This result indicates the early impact of COVID-19, which is more severe in later. Besides the business and service industry, community people have also suffered a lot from any disaster-affected tourism industry. Wahyuningtyas et al. (2020) provided an overview of disaster and community preparedness and showed that the community has lacked in this regard. For that reason, proper training, policy and management implication is necessary for this aspect to mitigate the impact. The following Table 1 shows the outlook for international tourist arrival in the last two years, early projection of tourist arrival in 2020 and the present condition.

Table 1. Outlook for International Tourist Arrival (Source: UNWTO, 2020a; 2020c)

Region	Change (%)		Average a year (%)	2020 Projection (issued in January) (%)	2020 (January to April) (change %)	2020 (January to June) (change %)
	2018	2019	2009-2019	from		
World	5.6	3.8	5.1	3 to 4	-44	-65
Europe	5.8	3.7	4.6	3 to 4	-44	-66
Asia and Pacific	7.3	4.6	7.1	5 to 6	-51	-72
American	2.4	2.0	4.6	2 to 3	-36	-55
Africa	8.5	4.2	4.4	3 to 5	-35	-57
Middle East	3.0	7.6	2.7	4 to 6	-40	-57

In the first six months of 2020, international tourist arrivals declined by 65 percent, where Asia and the Pacific region is the worst hit by 72 percent decline (UNWTO, 2020a; 2020c). However, outlooks for the year have repeatedly been decreased because of an outbreak and uncertainty. After the complete shutdown of most international borders in late March, tourist arrivals submerged 97 percent in April and 96 percent in May and 85 percent in August (UNWTO, 2020a). This depends on containment speed and movement restrictions and border shutdowns. The following Figure 1 shows, 2020 scenarios are based upon three potential opening dates for international boundaries.

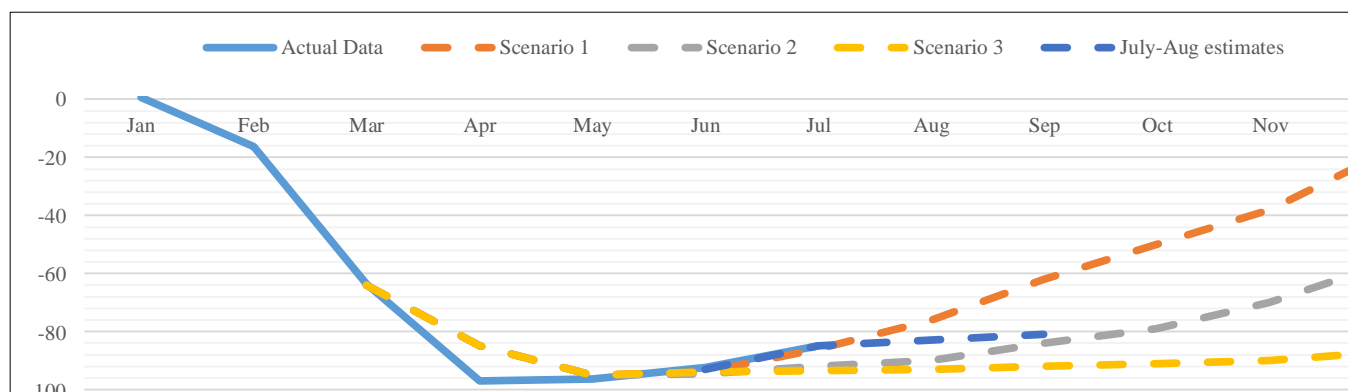


Figure 1. International tourist arrivals in 2020: YTD results and scenarios (y-o-y monthly change, %) (Source: UNWTO, 2020a)

It will be by far the most significant decline of the historic sequence arrivals, eclipsing the 4% decrease following the global economic crisis in 2009 or the moderate 0.4% fall following the SARS outbreak in 2003. However, some studies suggested that the domestic travel market would recover faster than the international market. According to a survey conducted by about 280 participants on the impacts of the 19 outbreaks on tourism destinations, the UNWTO Panel of Experts anticipates a quicker recovery of domestic demand than foreign demand. Figure 2 shows that almost half of respondents (45%) report a rise of domestic tourism demand in July-September 2020, with 25% anticipating this to be achieved in October-December. More than 70 % of respondents expect international demand to recover in the fourth quarter of 2020 (34%), and mostly in 2021 (39%).

COVID-19 Pandemic and International Tourism

Personal health and safety concerns are vital factors that tourists take into account when selecting a travel destination. Fotiadis and Huan

(2014) stated that tourist travel choices greatly depend on the presence of any disaster that could affect their welfare and safety. Plog (2001) described how allocentric tourists search for destinations for adventure and cultural and environmental experiences.

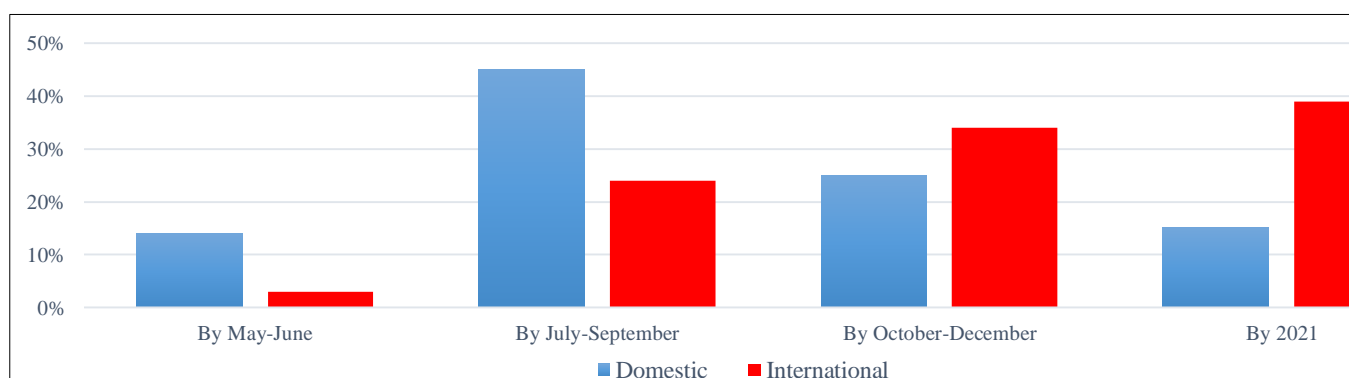


Figure 2. Domestic Demand and International Demand Recovery Projection for Tourism (Source: UNWTO, 2020f)

However, the travel and tourism industry sometimes faces natural or man-made disasters that affect the entire industry (Huan et al., 2004). The impact of these disasters may be isolated to a specific area or have a global impact, which can determine how long the effects of the disaster are felt. As the tourism industry is one of the sectors most affected by these disasters, special attention to recovery plans is needed during these events. The most recent crisis to affect the travel and tourism industry is the COVID-19 outbreak, which was first acknowledged in early January in China. It is now being treated as a pandemic, and by mid-June has affected more than eight million people globally. This situation is quite unusual that radically changes the world scenario. Within a few months, the farming of the world tourism structure changed from over-tourism (e.g., Dodds and Butler, 2019; Seraphin et al., 2018) to zero-tourism for a particular time. Only a few tourism activities are taken place all over the world in this pandemic situation, which can be denoted as zero tourism.

This time the world witnesses a situation where all the businesses are closed, airlines canceled flights, and hotels and restaurants are empty and destinations are without tourists. The global tourism industry has experienced a widespread crisis in the past time. Gössling et al., (2020) illustrate the significant crisis events in tourism between 2000 to 2015 that is shown in Figure 3. Between these periods, the global tourism industry has witnessed four short-term crisis events that are confined within a specific region. However, the Arab Spring in Egypt and Tunisia in this decade also demonstrates a major challenge for the tourism industry. In 2014 to the first half of 2016, terrorist attacks on tourists happened in Egypt and Tunisia which results in negative political consequences and remarkably decreased tourist flow (Wendt, 2019). After these events, the tourism industry has recovered quickly. Nevertheless, there are many indications and reports which suggested that the impact and repossession from the pandemic of COVID-19 would be exceptional (Gössling et al., 2020).

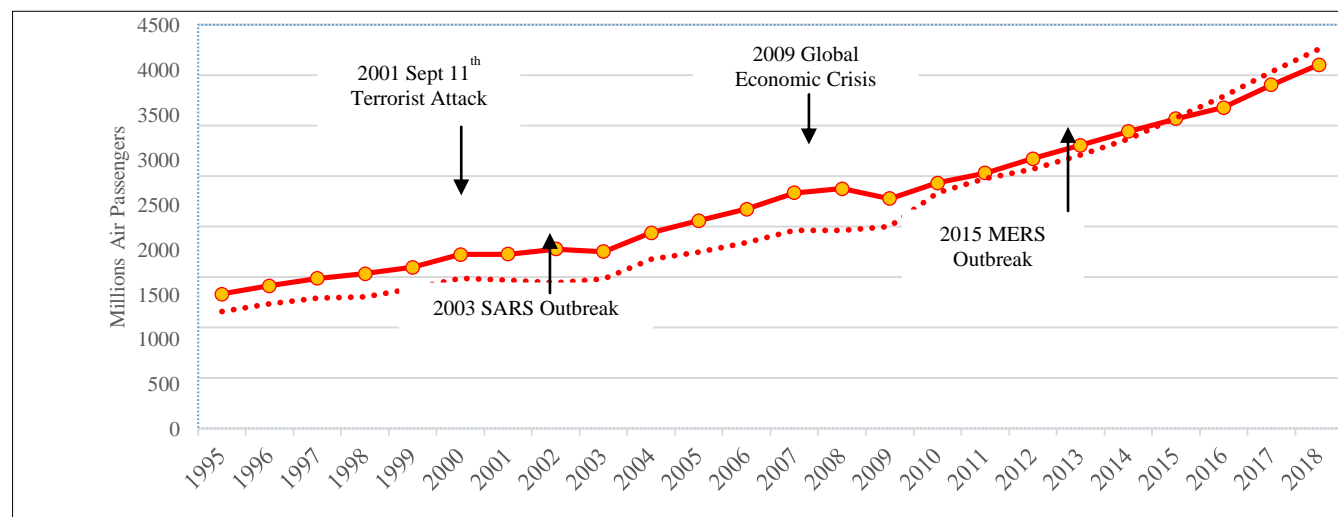


Figure 3. Effect of Crisis Events on Global Tourism (Source: World Bank, 2020a, 2020b)

Moreover, countries with the highest COVID-19 confirmed cases are also known as a popular tourist destination in the world. Table 2 shows the countries with the highest COVID-19 confirmed cases (data reported by the World Health Organization on May 11, 2020) and their share in the tourism industry. The top twelve affected countries account for 39% of world tourist arrival, 42% of world tourism receipts and 54% of world tourist expenditure (UNWTO, 2020b). In terms of tourist arrival in 2018, France, Spain, the United States of America, China, Italy, Turkey, Germany and the United Kingdom are placed in the top 10 destinations and receive 498 million tourists out of 1401 million tourists that are 35.54 percent of total tourist arrival. Moreover, except Turkey, these countries were also placed in top position as the leading tourism earners list and earned US 539 billion in 2018, which is 37.15 percent of total receipts.

DISCUSSION AND FINDINGS

The global tourism industry has faced a considerable crisis due to the global COVID-19 outbreak. The actual impacts of the COVID-19 outbreak on tourism will not be apparent until after the pandemic has ended. Over the last few decades, the global travel and tourism industry has experienced continuous growth and has contributed to approximately 10% of the global GDP, creating almost 1 in 10 jobs worldwide.

Table 2. Countries with Maximum COVID-19 Confirmed Cases and Share in Tourism; Source: UNWTO (2020b)

Countries with Highest COVID-19 Confirmed Cases	Share of World Tourist Arrival (%)	Tourism Share of Exports in the Country (%)	Share of World Tourism Receipts (%)	Share of World Tourism Expenditure (%)
United States	5	10	15	10
Spain	6	16	5	2
Russian Federation	2	8	1	2
United Kingdom	3	6	4	5
Italy	4	8	3	2
Germany	3	3	3	7
Brazil	0	2	0	1
Turkey	3	17	2	0
France	6	8	4	3
Iran	1	5	0	1
China	4	1	3	19
Canada	2	5	2	2
Total	39		42	54

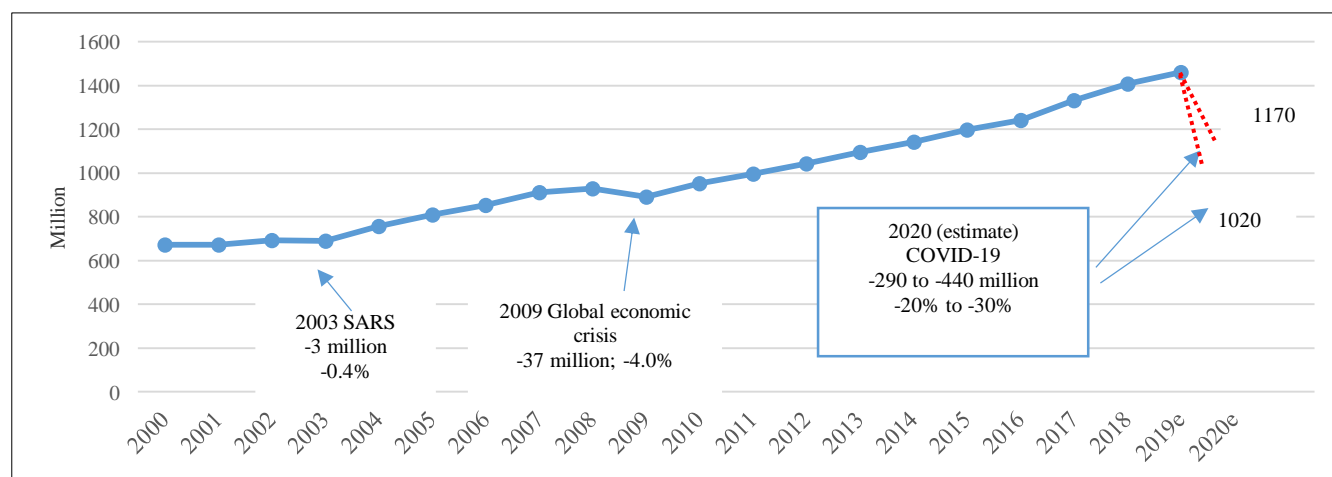


Figure 4. International Tourist Arrivals Forecasting for 2020; (Source: UNWTO, 2020e)

According to UNWTO (2020c), in 2019, the number of global tourists reached 1.5 billion, a growth of 4% over the previous year. Additionally, the WTO forecasted 3% to 4% growth in international tourist arrivals in 2020. The COVID-19 outbreak has caused the tourism industry to experience negative growth. According to the UNWTO (2020d), 96 percent of global travel destinations have imposed travel restrictions and close their borders completely or partially for the tourists. In Figure 4, UNWTO has earlier projected that international tourist arrivals will fall by 20-30% in 2020 (UNWTO, 2020e). Figure 5 shows the projected impact of COVID-19 on tourism industry revenue in the current year. The decline in the world travel situation as a result of the pandemic might reduce international export revenues by a best case scenario of US\$ 910 billion and up to US\$ 1.2 trillion in the three 2020 scenarios outlined in this report (Databd.co, 2020). Visitors to destinations may decrease, depending on the speed of normalization and the reopening of national frontiers, from US\$ 1.480 billion for 2019 to a range of US\$ 310-570 billion by 2020. This represents a drop in nominal terms of 62 to 79 percent, much deeper than the nominal decline in 2009 (-5 percent real) during the global economic crisis.

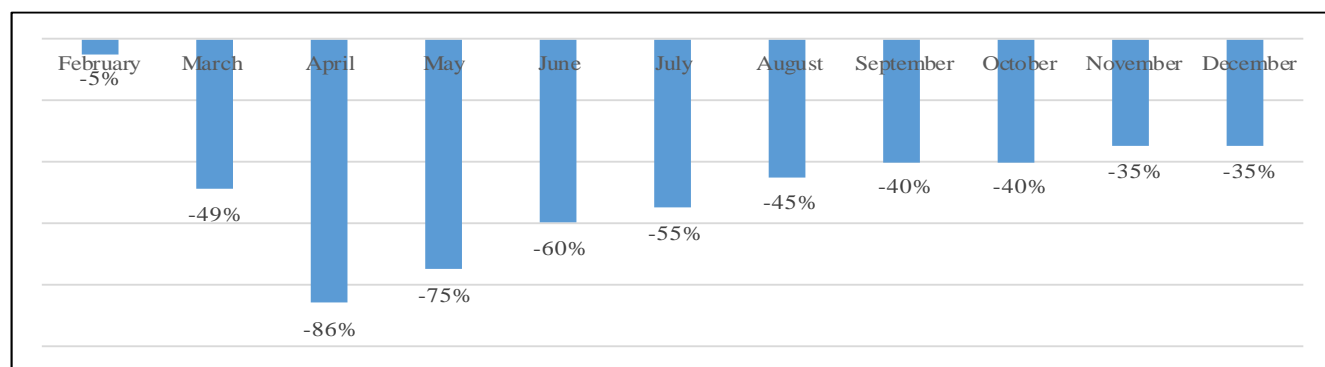


Figure 5. Projected Effect of COVID-19 on Tourism Industry Revenue in 2020 (Source: Databd.co, 2020)

The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) has reported that the pandemic of COVID-19 places approximately 50 million jobs worldwide in the travel and tourism sector at threat (World Economic Forum, 2020). Moreover, the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC), 100.8 million is presently at risk in the tourism sector with 1 million jobs being lost every day (WTTC, 2020). Figure 6 shows the estimated job losses in the tourism sector by world regions. However, Asia is projected to be the worst affected area in the world. Approximately 30 million people in Asia are projected to lose their jobs, followed by seven million in Europe, five million in the USA, and the rest of the world (World Economic Forum, 2020).

COVID-19 change the overall business situation in all over the world. Tourists number are falling dramatically, revenue is shrinking and people lose their job- it is the real depiction of the tourism industry. The uncertain length of the pandemic makes the situation more complicated. At present, it is essential to address the pandemic situation and to sustain in the market. However, the tourism industry and related stakeholders must focus on the after pandemic situation to revive the business which will call the “new normal” condition.

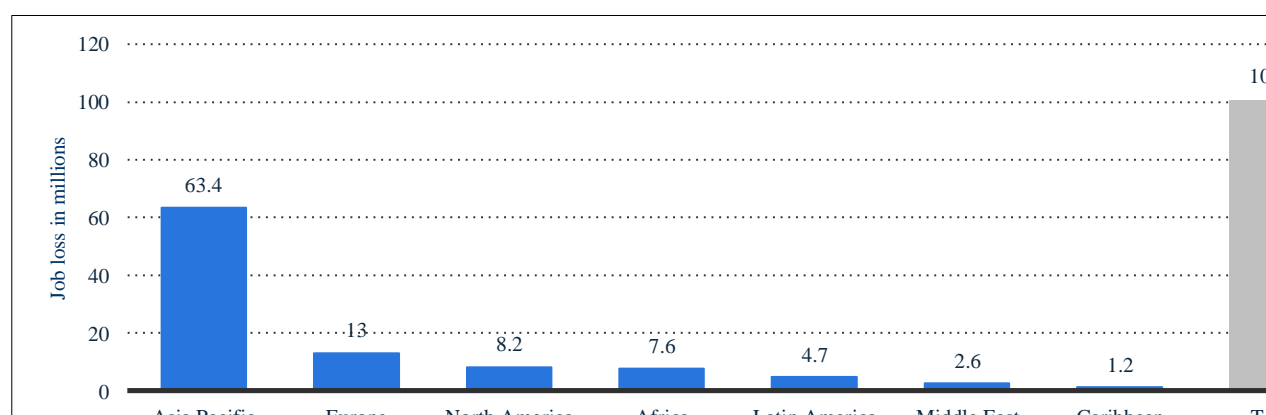


Figure 6. Estimated Job Losses in the Tourism Sector by Region (million) (Source: WTTC, 2020)

Tourism Industry after the Pandemic

The tourism industry is now undergoing remarkable pressure in all over the world. For that reason, it is inevitable to figure out the possible scenario after the Covid-19 crisis.

I. Low incidence of Current Pandemic: If the current pandemic is over within six months, the impact could be low in the tourism industry. In this situation, countries all over the world would lift travel restrictions for international tourists. The world economy will stop failing and retrieve from the recession, but small tourism enterprises will need help from the government. Tourist's possible fear and cautions caused by the pandemic will be relaxed. People will be back in regular life easily; only a few people will be affected by their jobs and livelihood, but they will recover it within a short time. However, all the travel and tourism-related business and activities are being closed from the last few months. In this low incidence situation, both the private and public sector businesses will recover their losses within a few months. For that reason, tourism enterprises will offer attractive packages to potential tourists.

II. Medium Incidence of Current Pandemic: If the pandemic will continue more than six months and end within one year, the overall situation will be severe for some of the cases. Some small and medium tourism enterprises will face some sort of problem to run their business because of lockdown. However, short of working capital long time lockdown will force some businesses to wind up from the market. This type of situation will force the business to reduce the labor forces. Simultaneously, the living standard and earning level of people will decrease, which will poorly impact future tourism growth. As a result, people will reduce their budget for travel and recreation. Moreover, in this situation, governments of different countries would restrict their border for foreign tourists.

III. High Incidence of Current Pandemic: This is the most challenging situation of the current pandemic. If the pandemic continues more than one year that will severely affect the overall psychological, economic and sociological structure of the society. Despite the size, survival will be the prime objective for businesses. Severe types of unemployment problem will arise in all over the world. The tourism industry will face negative growth for the next few years. However, many tourism and travel business have not weathered the economic pressure and have disappeared. At this stage, long-term government support is necessary to revive the tourism activities.

The following table shows the projected period of the current pandemic along with the tourism stakeholders' role in this situation.

Table 3. Projected Period of Current Pandemic and Tourism Stakeholders' Role

Projected Incidence	Projected Time period	Government	Tourism Enterprises	Tourists
Low incidence	6 months	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lifted travel restrictions for international tourists. - Incentives for small tourism enterprises. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Trying to get early recovery. - Attractive travel offers for potential tourists. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Relax from fear and tension. - Travel more for physical and psychological relaxation.
Medium Incidence	6 to 12 months	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Travel restrictions for international tourists for particular countries. - Incentives for small and medium tourism enterprises. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Difficult situation for small and medium tourism enterprises. - Reducing labor forces and adopting cost control approaches. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reducing living standard. - Shortage of money will lead to less travel
High Incidence	More than 12 months	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Long term government support is needed for all types of tourism enterprises. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Survival will be the prime objective. - Severe unemployment problem. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Spending on the necessary product. - Less travel in the next few years.

PROPOSALS TO MITIGATE THE IMPACT OF THE CRISIS

Countries, most popular tourist destinations, will need to evaluate and calculate the effects of the COVID-19 outbreak on tourism in terms of economic and non-economic value. The tourism industry is in danger of experiencing strong economic downturns (Pastor, 2020). According to Novelli et al. (2018), perception should also be compared with other structurally organized institutional situations and global influences, i.e., climate change, which increases the vulnerability of less affluent areas that are already stressed, in order to improve community resilience following future epidemics (e.g., Ebola, and Zika virus).

The authors have developed a theoretical model of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism industry to understand its adverse impact on tourism better. Figure 7 shows that COVID-19 has had an adverse impact on the tourism industry. This figure shows the interrelationship among the different stakeholders and how they are affected by the COVID-19. In this situation, tourism destination organizations (DMO) and government agencies must support the related stakeholders. However, all the players in this interrelated process are important for this industry. This figure shows that both national and international tourists traveling for leisure, business, and other

purposes canceled hotel reservations and flight tickets. The worldwide COVID-19 outbreak triggered fear among potential tourists, encouraging them to stay home and avoid traveling for leisure. From the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, most tour-related support agencies faced substantial economic losses and workers lost their jobs. This is easily assumed that standards of living in tourism-focused communities will be decreased as the unemployment rate continues to rise. However, it is essential to calculate the impact of COVID-19 in the tourism industry which is mainly undertaken by the market researchers and experts of tourism. Statistical data analysis, secondary data analysis and different types of published reports will help regarding this issue. This theoretical model presented in this study will help future researchers to conduct their research in this field.

This review identifies that the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic has severely affected the tourism industry all over the world. Inbound, outbound and domestic tourist activities have been suspended since mid-June. Tourism industry stakeholders are suffering significant losses as the amount of all types of tourism activities are decreasing. In this situation, pandemics must be carefully managed in a way that will revitalize the tourism industry; mentioned policies are needed to implication:

- Responsible Tourism to revive live and livelihood by maintaining health guidelines, wearing the mask during, upholding social distance, tourists must protect themselves. The tourism business must consider all sorts of guidelines when reopening the business. That will protect tourists, businesses, society, and the world for a better future with a slogan *Putting People First*.
- Throughout the COVID-19 pandemic, focus on urban tourism development for the continuous development of tourism.
- During and after the pandemic, government incentive programs must be available or loan repayment relaxation for small and medium businesses, including cash support to the tourism industry employees. This type of support must have a social objective by endorsing support for the constant activity of businesses and, therefore, for workers' jobs. As tourism is a labor intensive industry, both formal and informal employees, must be addressed.
- Electronic and print media should take a positive approach to support the tourism industry during and after the COVID-19 pandemic.
- Public, Private and Community Partnership (PPCP) is necessary for the tourism sector to overcome the losses. The policymaker overlooks community people most of the time but their inclusion is essential in any type of incentive package. In many destinations, the livelihoods of community people depend on tourism activities.
- Studies are needed that focus on potential direct and indirect impacts on local communities or cities that depend on tourism.
- After the pandemic, the next few years business should take a cost-cutting approach like video conferencing, virtual tourism conferences, virtual meetings, and virtual tourism fairs. Business and researchers need to monitor tourist behavior, which may be changed due to social and economic changes of COVID-19.
- World tourism organization (UNWTO) may call international organizations, donor agencies, and political support for quick recovery from the pandemic and also make broader actions and recovery plans to revive the tourism industry and economy.
- In the post-viral world, people might be allowed to travel with antibodies against COVID-19 freely with some sort of health assurance and offer discounts and packages on airlines and hotels.
- WTTC will be beneficial for the tourism industry, providing effective guidance with action plans for the response to the global pandemic for tourism organizations (McKercher and Chon, 2004; Sönmez et al., 2019).

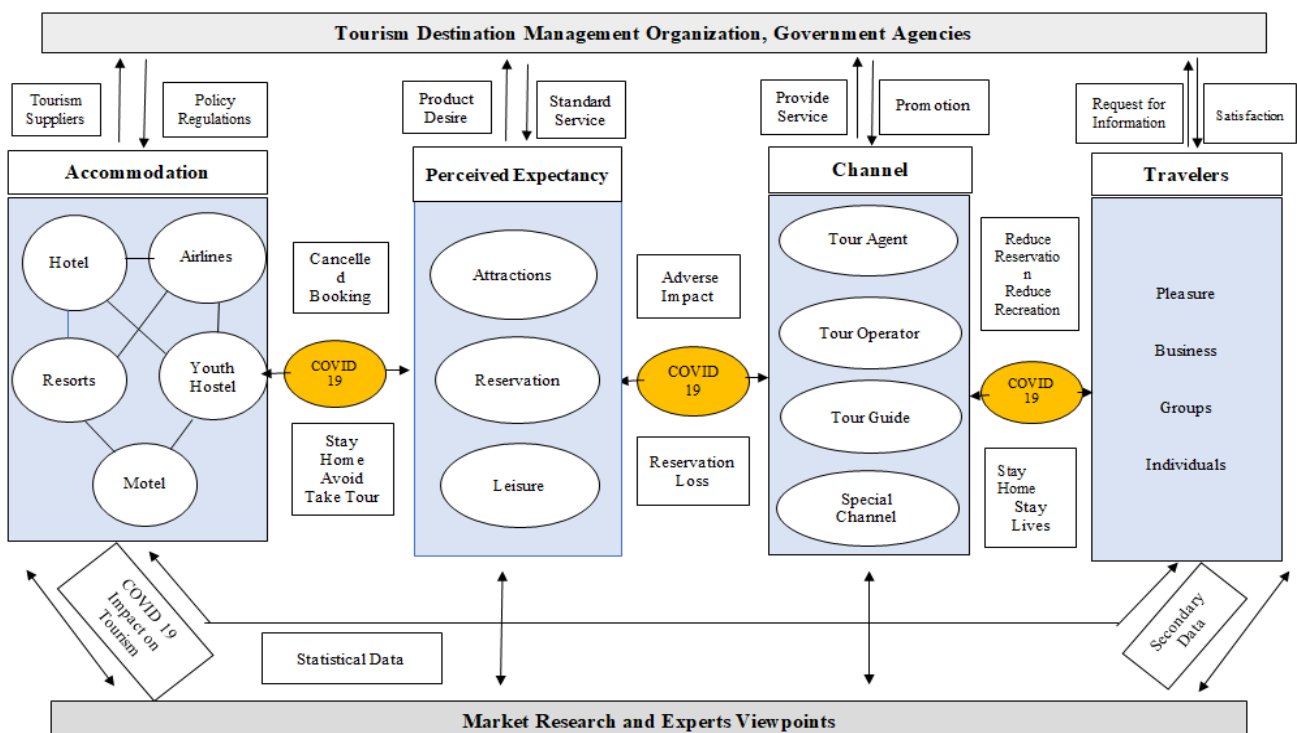


Figure 7. Covid-19 Impact on Tourism: Theoretical Recovery Model (TRM) (Source: Developed by Authors)

CONCLUSION

The global COVID-19 pandemic has already become an economic, social, and labor crisis, affecting the supply and demand of all products. The effect of COVID-19 on the global tourism industry is likely to be more damaging than any other previous event. This study presents the early impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism industry. The impacts will likely be long-lasting and be felt for the next two to three years. With the enormity of the COVID-19 outbreak, it is not essential to come back business as a traditional way when

the pandemic ended, rather than it can be a scope to reevaluate a transformation of the overall tourism system for the sustainability (Gössling et al., 2020). Moreover, after the pandemic, it is crucial to return the business in a normal condition.

This situation would give an opportunity to think about the current business structure of the tourism industry which may need to reform to address crisis moment, to protect business and to protect jobs. That means that a comprehensive plan is required to revive the tourism industry. Future studies should investigate the consequences of the COVID-19 outbreak on inbound and outbound tourism, tourist behavior, employment, and the overall growth rate in the tourism industry.

REFERENCES

- Andrews, L., Higgins, A., Andrews, M.W., & Lalor, J.G. (2012). Classic grounded theory to analyse secondary data: Reality and reflections. *The Grounded Theory Review*, 11(1), 12-26.
- Bakar, N.A., & Rosbi, S. (2020). Effect of Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) to tourism industry. *International Journal of Advanced Engineering Research and Science*, 7(4), 189-193. <https://doi.org/10.22161/ijaers.74.23>
- Baker, D.M.A. (2015). Tourism and the health effects of infectious diseases: Are there potential risks for tourists? *International Journal of Safety and Security in Tourism and Hospitality*, 1(2), 1-17.
- Brüssow, H. (2020). The Novel Coronavirus—A snapshot of current knowledge. *Microbial Biotechnology*, 13, 607–612. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1751-7915.13557>.
- Dodds, R., & Butler, R. (2019). *Overtourism: Issues, realities and solutions*. De Gruyter Oldenbourg.
- Fauci, A.S., Lane, H.C., & Redfield, R.R. (2020). Covid-19 - Navigating the uncharted. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 382(13), 1268-1269. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMe2002387>
- Fernandes, N. (2020). *Economic effects of coronavirus outbreak (COVID-19) on the world economy*, Available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3557504>.
- Freeman, R.E. (1984). *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Boston: Pitman.
- Fotiadis, A.K., & Huan, T.C. (2014). Disaster, tourism. In J. Jafari & H. Xiao (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Tourism*. Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- Gentile, I., & Abenavoli, L. (2020). COVID-19: Perspectives on the potential novel global threat. *Reviews on Recent Clinical Trials*, 15(2), 1-3. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1574887115999200228100745>
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C.M. (2020). Pandemics, tourism and global change: A rapid assessment of COVID-19. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1758708>.
- Grewal, A., Kataria, H., & Dhawan, I. (2016). Literature search for research planning and identification of research problem. *Indian Journal of Anaesthesia*, 60(9), 635–639. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0019-5049.190618>
- Huan, T.C., Beaman, J., & Shelby, L. (2004). No-escape natural disaster: Mitigating impacts on tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(2), 255-273. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2003.10.003>
- Jamal, T., & Budke, C. (2020). Tourism in a world with pandemics: Local-global responsibility and action. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 6(2), 181-188. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-02-2020-0014>
- Karim, W., Haque, A., Anis, Z., & Ulfy, M.A. (2020). The movement control order (MCO) for COVID-19 crisis and its impact on tourism and hospitality sector in Malaysia. *International Tourism and Hospitality Journal*, 3(2), 1-07. <https://doi.org/10.37227/ithj-2020-02-09>
- Korinith, B., & Ranasinghe, R. (2020). COVID-19 pandemic's impact on tourism in Poland in March 2020. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 31(3), 987–990. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.31308-531>
- McKercher, B., & Chon, K. (2004). The over-reaction to SARS and the collapse of Asian tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 716-719. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2003.11.002>
- Novelli, M., Gussing Burgess, L., Jones, A., & Ritchie, B.W. (2018). No Ebola. Still doomed – The ebola- induced tourism crisis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 70, 76-87. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2018.03.006>
- Orlik, T., Rush, J., Cousin, M., & Hong, J. (2020). *Coronavirus could cost the global economy \$2.7 trillion. Here's how*, Bloomberg economics, NiGEM, OECD. <https://www.bloomberg.com/graphics/2020-coronavirus-pandemic-global-economic-risk/>.
- Pastor, C.K.L. (2020). Sentiment analysis on synchronous online delivery of instruction due to extreme community quarantine in the Philippines caused by COVID-19 pandemic. *Asian Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies*, 3(1), 1-6.
- Plog, S.C. (2001). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity: An update of a Cornell quarterly classic. *Cornell, Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 42(3), 13-24. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0010-8804\(01\)81020-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0010-8804(01)81020-X)
- Seraphin, H., Sheeran, P., & Pilato, M. (2018). Over-tourism and the fall of Venice as a destination. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 9, 374–376. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2018.01.011>
- Shang, W., Yang, Y., Rao, Y., & Rao, X. (2020). The outbreak of SARS-CoV-2 pneumonia calls for viral vaccines. *npj Vaccines*, 5(1), 1-3. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41541-020-0170-0>
- Smith, E. (2008). *Using secondary data in educational and social research*. New York, NY.
- Sönmez, S., Wiitala, J., & Apostolopoulos, Y. (2019). How complex travel, tourism, and transportation networks influence infectious disease movement in a borderless world. In D. J. Timothy (Ed.), *Handbook of Globalisation and Tourism*, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, UK. <https://doi.org/10.4337/9781786431295.00015>
- Wahyuningtyas, N., Tanjung, A., Idris, I., & Islam, M.N. (2020). Accelerating tourism development by community preparedness on disaster risk in Lombok, Indonesia. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 29(2), 545–553. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.29213-488>
- Wendt, J.A. (2019). Comparison of the impact of the Arab spring and terrorist attacks on the decline in tourism in Egypt and Tunisia (2010-2015). *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 27(4), 1367–1376. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.27421-440>
- *** ABC News. (2020). *Coronavirus is a public health emergency*. World Health Organization declares. <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2020-01-31/who-coronavirus-global-emergency/11916276>
- *** Databd.co (2020). *COVID-19 & tourism: A tragic end to the thriving industry?*. https://databd.co/stories/covid-19-tourism-a-tragic-end-to-the-thriving-industry-11643?fbclid=IwAR1RqruiR_GUCIzbn_NjwTloML6KxQbOd85aQ1ELZetMoUkKabHmV2t7HE
- *** ILO (2020). *COVID-19 and the world of work: Impact and policy responses*. <https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/documents/briefingnote/wcms738753.pdf>
- *** UNWTO (2020a). *World tourism barometer*. 18(5), 1-36, Published by: UNWTO.
- *** UNWTO (2020b). *World tourism barometer*. 18(2), Published by: UNWTO.
- *** UNWTO (2020c). *World tourism barometer*. 18(1), Published by: UNWTO.
- *** UNWTO (2020d). *Impact assessment of the Covid-19 outbreak on international tourism*. <https://www.unwto.org/impact-assessment-of-the-covid-19-outbreak-on-international-tourism>.
- *** UNWTO (2020e). *International tourist arrivals could fall by 20-30% in 2020*. <https://www.unwto.org/news/international-tourism-arrivals-could-fall-in-2020>.
- *** UNWTO (2020f). When do you expect tourism demand in your destination will start to recover? *World Tourism Barometer*. 18(2), 1-21.
- Ying, T., Wang, K., Liu, X., Wen, J., & Goh, E. (2020). Rethinking game consumption in tourism: a case of the 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia outbreak in China. *Tourism Recreation Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2020.1743048>
- *** Worldometers (2020). *Covid-19- Coronavirus pandemic*. <https://www.worldometers.info/coronavirus/>.
- *** World Bank. (2020a). *Air transport, passengers carried*. <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/IS.AIR.PSGR>.
- *** World Bank. (2020b). *International tourism, number of arrivals*. <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/ST.INT.ARVL>.
- *** World Economic Forum. (2020). *This is how coronavirus could affect the travel and tourism industry*. <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2020/03/world-travel-coronavirus-covid19-jobs-pandemic-tourism-aviation/>.
- *** WTTC (2020). *WTTC now estimates over 100 million jobs losses in the travel & tourism sector and alerts G20 countries to the Scale of the Crisis*. <https://wtcc.org/News-Article/WTTC-now-estimates-over-100-million-jobs-losses-in-the-Travel-&-Tourism-sector-and-alerts-G20-countries-to-the-scale-of-the-crisis>.

COMPARATIVE AND COMPETITIVES ADVANTAGES: PERSPECTIVE OF RURAL TOURISM (STUDY ON TOURISM IN THE PROVINCE OF BALI INDONESIA)

I Made WARDANA*

Udayana University, Department of Management, Faculty of Economics and Business, Bali, Indonesia, e-mail: wardana @unud.ac.id

I Putu Gde SUKAATMADJA

Udayana University, Department of Management, Faculty of Economics and Business, Bali, Indonesia, e-mail: sukaatmadja@yahoo.co.id

Ni Nyoman Kerti YASA

Udayana University, Department of Management, Faculty of Economics and Business, Bali, Indonesia, e-mail: manraikerti@yahoo.co.id

Made SETINI

Udayana University, Department of Management, Faculty of Economics and Business, Bali, Indonesia, e-mail: Gitan4nd4@gmail.com

Citation: Wardana, I.M., Sukaatmadja, I.P.G., Yasa, N.N.K., & Setini, M. (2020). COMPARATIVE AND COMPETITIVES ADVANTAGES: PERSPECTIVE OF RURAL TOURISM (STUDY ON TOURISM IN THE PROVINCE OF BALI INDONESIA). *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1493–1500. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl07-598>

Abstract: Rural tourism is an interpretation of the development of culture-based and environmentally sustainable tourism and involves various stakeholders including local communities. Data were analyzed using the SEM-PLS, sample Research respondents numbered 192 including farmers, tourism industry players, village leaders, NGOs, academics and the government. The findings of this study are that community involvement in sustainable rural tourism has a positive and significant impact on efforts to build a comparative advantage of village tourism. Meanwhile, community involvement does not have a significant effect on efforts to build competitive advantage. Government involvement in sustainable rural tourism has no significant effect on efforts to build a comparative advantage of village tourism. Meanwhile, government involvement has a positive and significant effect on efforts to build a competitive advantage in rural tourism. The involvement of the private sector and non-governmental organizations has a positive and significant effect on sustainable rural tourism and the competitive advantage of rural tourism. Meanwhile, the involvement of the private sector and non-governmental organizations has no significant effect on the comparative advantage of rural tourism. The role of the Government involvement, the private sector must be linked with the non-governmental organizations self-help so that it has a positive impact towards the development of sustainable rural tourism.

Key words: sustainable rural tourism, comparative advantage, competitive advantage.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

The growth of tourism in recent years confirms that this sector is one of the most powerful drivers of economic growth and development at present. The pattern of mass tourism has been largely abandoned for the pattern of intention tourism or quality tourism.

Rural tourism is an interpretation of the development of tourism that is based on culture and environment sustainable and involves various stakeholders including the local community, and the development of rural tourism has indeed taken place since World War II. Factors that affect the development of rural tourism can be bilateral, namely in terms of tourism (demand) and the organizer (supply) (Afonso, 2020; Lee and Jan, 2019). The development of rural tourism is in line with the Indonesian government's development policies that prioritize rural development by rolling out significant village funds. Rural development aims to improving the welfare of the community and overcoming the problem of unemployment through employment opening by encouraging the growth of economic activity in the countryside (Xiong et al., 2020). The development of rural tourism will not be separated from the support of other stakeholders such as the role of government, the tourism industry and the role of non-governmental organizations moving rural tourism into economic and social activities to improve the welfare of the wider community (Sook et al., 2014).

Jaafar et al. (2020) suggested that the development of rural tourism must be community based and involve various community resources. Communities must play an integral role in tourism development and propose an approach that emphasizes the need for community control and management over the development of local tourism. Previous researchers suggested that local people are people who are familiar with tourists through their local cultural activities. Therefore, their involvement and support is very important for the success and development of rural tourism (Shibin et al., 2020). However, many tourism authorities and stakeholders ignore this important fact and oppose the idea of local community involvement in the development of rural tourism (Ma et al., 2020; Fang, 2020). In addition, there is a lack of participation among local people in rural tourism due to paternalism, racism, clientelism, lack of expertise, and lack of financial resources that hinder the process of community participation (Dogra and Gupta, 2012; Ma et al., 2020). Therefore, it is very important to involve local communities and their support is related to the development of sustainable rural tourism.

Furthermore according to Kubickova, M. (2016), in developing countries, the private sector cannot get compensated to produce additional benefits for tourism. However, the extra benefits will have an impact on competitiveness. This is where the externality argument is used to justify government involvement. Croes (2014); Carvache-Franco et al. (2019) has pointed out that the provision of public goods is crucial for tourism competitiveness, making it a convincing argument for government intervention. In some countries the role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs), in improving the welfare of the community, especially rural communities is very high. There are several roles that can be played by NGOs in tourism development, such as: as a facilitator, as an initiator of community-based tourism development, as a trainer and provider of information sources, as a collaborative partner of the area manager, as a supervisor of government performance.

* Corresponding author

In the development of rural tourism comparative advantage becomes very important because excellence in the context of village potential is something unique (not man-made) owned by the countryside such as natural beauty, culture and customs. Regarding comparative advantage in service products is a relatively new concept. In Bali each village has the potential for excellence, it's just that it needs to be explored and empowered such as the natural beauty of culture, customs and local wisdom to be organized and offered in rural tourism activities. In addition to comparative advantage that relies on unique resources, competitive advantage is the concern of every company in order to compete and dominate the market. Competitiveness reflects the strength of the company in the market, by controlling more of the market share than other companies. In the tourism sector competitiveness is a very important strategy. The concept of competitiveness has been adapted from economic theory and applied to companies and the model proposed by Porter (1980; 1990) has been widely discussed in various industries. The main theme of this model is that companies must find better ways to compete by continuously improving products and processes to create competitive advantage. Moreover, competitiveness has been seen as an effort to produce more quality goods and services that are marketed to consumers.

The aim of the research is to investigate the role of primary or key stakeholders namely local communities, government, private sector and NGOs in the development of sustainable rural tourism, increasing comparative advantage and competitive advantage.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Rural Tourism

According to Fang (2020), rural tourism is defined as the type of tourism located in rural areas, rural tourism has a different scale and character functions. If someone wants a vacation in rural tourism, the following characteristics must be contained in the holiday (1) located in a rural area, (2) based on rural tourism features, (3) owning buildings and settlements on a small scale, (4) relating to local residents, (5) based on location in villages and small towns, (6) illustrates an economic, environmental and historical pattern.

Recent studies have found that rural tourism can improve the identity of an entire country because it is closely related to ways of life, local production, cultural celebrations and heritage (Ursache, 2015). During their visit to the destination, tourists have the opportunity to enjoy the facilities and appeal of rural areas and of course get a positive experience that will affect the likelihood of their return visit (Komppula, 2014). The concept of rural tourism with its unique, distinctive and environmentally friendly products can be a new solution for the development of tourism in the world (Giampiccoli et al., 2020). In response to the shift in tourist interest, Indonesia's tourism options are growing in the form of village's tourism in various provinces in Indonesia. The development of a village tourism is not only beneficial for the emergence of alternative tourism to meet shifting tourist interests, but can also be used as a solution to the problem of poverty, cultural preservation and environmental preservation. The development of sustainable rural tourism has been defined as tourism that focuses on appropriate policies and strategies that can guarantee the benefits received and limit the negative impacts of rural tourism on rural communities (Ertuna and Kirbas, 2012). There are four dimensions in the development of sustainable rural tourism, namely social, cultural, economic, and environmental sustainability (Prevolšek et al., 2020).

Stakeholders in Rural Tourism

A review of relevant tourism literature reveals the importance of understanding perceptions of stakeholders in the development of sustainable tourism in each tourism destination or community. Stakeholders are defined as individuals or groups who can influence or be influenced by the achievement of organizational goals. There is no doubt that rural tourism stakeholders have an important role to play in this success. Cooperation and support between stakeholders is crucial for the sustainability of rural tourism. This will be an effective strategy for the landscape and rural sector. According to Ezeuduji (2015), stakeholders in a destination can manage rural tourism development. Stakeholders in detail are local communities, national and regional governments, national environmental agencies, tourism authorities, non-profit organizations, and tourism industry players.

Local Community Involvement

Local communities must play an integral role in tourism development where local communities can exercise control over tourism activities and management of local tourism development (Wardana, 2018). Local communities must be included in rural tourism strategies, because rural tourism cannot be successful without community support (Falak et al., 2014). Some researchers have stated that many studies are more concerned with tourist satisfaction and less attention is paid to the role of local communities in rural tourism (Fang, 2020; Falak et al., 2014). However, some researchers have pointed out the need for local education and to give more attention to local resources in rural areas (Fang, 2020). Communication between the host and guest is a component of the rural experience. Local residents help tourists to discover rural areas and enjoy the experience. They also shared knowledge about the history, culture and nature of the area. Local people act as cultural intermediaries, reducing the distance between tourists and their destinations. In other words, local residents allow tourists to further explore their experiences (Kastenholz et al., 2012).

Success in building tourist destinations is very much influenced by the support and active role of the community, so that tourism development needs to involve the community. On the other hand, because tourism is a business activity, considerations for developing highly competitive destinations must be taken so that the destination has a comparative and competitive advantage, while a strategic planning approach is adopted to ensure the above factors can be achieved. From the references above there is no doubt that community involvement will correlate with efforts to develop sustainable Rural Tourism because this type of tourism offers old beauty, environmental sustainability, culture, customs and historical relics. Community-based Rural Tourism Development will automatically strengthen rural resources as a component of the comparative and competitive advantage of rural tourism destinations.

Government Involvement

The government has a vital role to play in supporting business and rural tourism destinations. The government must determine the needs of stakeholders for rural tourism. According to Lee and Jan (2019), the government facilitates the development of rural tourism businesses. The Taiwanese government manages agricultural projects to encourage farmers to enter Taiwan's rural tourism. Kubickova (2016) found local governments and institutions to have political authority and power for effective management of sustainable tourism development. The term management is related to two basic concepts: the concept of governance and the concept of administrations.

The concept of governance shows the behavior of authorities and the process of political decision making in formal institutions and government. The term governance refers to the methods and procedures used by government and non-government organizations together, working to realize planned objectives (Sandri et al., 2020). Local governments are generally considered the most suitable for coordinating tourism development at the local level and for encouraging sustainable tourism development programs (Kubickova, 2016). For this reason, local governments must develop management and communication processes that are appropriate to interest groups (Birkic et al., 2014).

Private and NGOs. Involvement

A key determinant in the contribution of NGOs towards development is the relationship between them and the state. NGOs may run parallel activities, play oppositional roles, or they may represent weaker members of society, organizing them to become more influential in decision making and resource allocation (Clark, 1999). NGOs have distinctive roles and responsibilities in the development process, sometimes challenging and sometimes complementing the role of the state (Attack, 1999). The role of NGOs, in improving the welfare of the community, especially rural communities is very high. According to Giampiccoli et al. (2020); Wardana et al. (2020) there are several roles that NGOs can play in tourism development, such as (1) As a facilitator or liaison between tourism stakeholders, for example: between the tourism industry and local communities, between managers of protected areas and local communities, and between government and local communities. (2) As the initiator of community-based ecotourism development in order to be able to expand objectives and obtain greater conservation impacts by optimizing the role and cooperation with other stakeholders. (3) As a trainer and provider of relevant information sources related to tourism issues. (4) As partners in the management of protected areas to implement the objectives of tourism development such as; environmental education programs and natural resource utilization programs. (5) As a supervisor of government performance, especially departments that handle protected areas to ensure the programs are running properly.

Comparative Advantage

There is little research on comparative advantage in developing countries, especially in service sector. Findings and recommendations policy can be used by developing countries to increase the competitiveness of their service sector (Liu and Xie, 2020). Comparative advantage is a concept developed by David Ricardo to explain the efficiency of resource allocation in a country in an open economic system (Falciola et al., 2020). The steps to realize comparative advantage towards competitive advantage are (1) increasing the application of technology so as to increase efficiency and productivity. (2) guarantee marketing and price certainty. (3) forming bonds that need each other (Othman et al., 2020).

Competitive advantage

Measuring the relative success of tourism destinations is competitiveness (Fernández et al., 2020; Croes, 2014). Defining the competitiveness of tourism destinations according to experts is difficult because the competitiveness of destinations is very complex, influenced by various factors, namely social, economic, cultural and political factors (Yasa et al., 2020). The competitiveness of a tourism destination is if the destination is able to increase the volume of visitor arrivals (Dogru et al., 2020).

A more detailed description of the competitiveness of tourism destinations is (1) increased tourist expenditure, (2) has an attraction, (3) can provide a good experience to tourists, (4) environmental preservation, (5) improve the welfare of local communities. However, the most accepted definition of tourism competitiveness comes from general economic theory which refers to market mechanisms and components of the tourism industry that can successfully maintain the attractiveness of tourism destinations (Ferreira et al., 2020). Thus rural tourism is at least able to offer experiences to tourists relating to local resources owned by the village such as traditional buildings with local cultural architecture, untouched nature including flora and fauna, efficient transportation of tourists and recreational facilities.

RESEARCH CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Sook et al. (2014); Xiong et al. (2020) in their research in Kuching proved that there are three dimensions of community involvement: community participation in decision making, empowerment, and knowledge about tourism have a significant effect on the development of sustainable rural tourism. However the dimension of knowledge sharing has no significant effect on the development of sustainable Rural Tourism. In the Resource-Based View Theory (RBV Theory), it is stated that resources are a very important factor for organizations to achieve sustainable competitive advantage or superior performance (Shibin et al., 2020). The resource-based view holds that sustainable competitive advantage comes from developing superior capabilities and resources.

RBV Theory focuses on internal organizational resources as a tool to manage processes and gain competitive advantage. Some conclusions state that in order for a potential resource as a source of sustainable competitive advantage, the resource must be valuable, scarce, cannot be replicated perfectly, and cannot be substituted. A resource-based view shows that organizations must develop unique and specific core competencies that enable them to outperform competitors by doing things differently.

In this research the involvement of stakeholders (local communities, government and private sector and NGOs can be categorized as organizational resources that can provide a positive stimulus to the development of sustainable rural tourism and comparative advantage as a category of competitive advantage or superior performance. The research conceptual framework can be described as follows:

STAKEHOLDERS

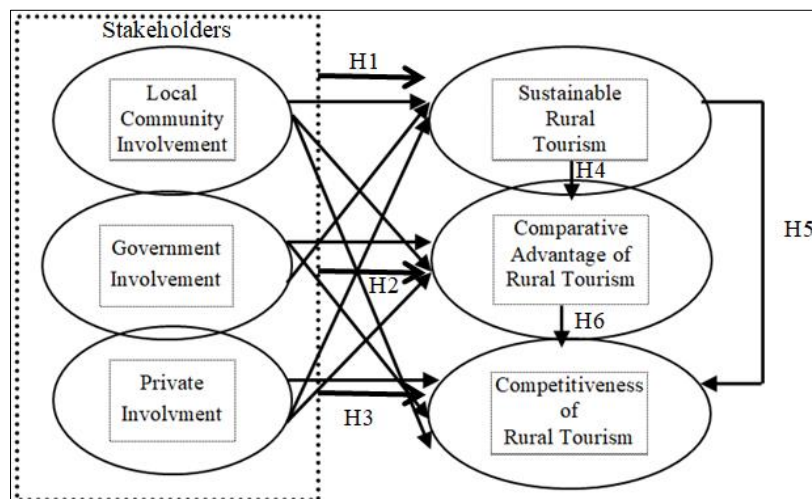


Figure1. Research Conceptual (Source: Adoption of the model: Sook et al., 2014; Xiong et al., 2020)

Research Hypothesis

- H1: Stakeholders have a positive and significant effect on sustainable rural tourism.
 H2: Stakeholders have a positive and significant effect on the comparative advantage of rural tourism.
 H3: Stakeholders have a positive and significant effect on the competitive advantage of rural tourism.
 H4: Rural tourism has a positive and significant effect on the comparative advantage of rural tourism.
 H5: Rural tourism has a positive and significant effect on the competitive advantage of rural tourism.
 H6: Comparative advantage has a positive and significant effect on the competitive advantage of rural tourism.

Research Methods

This research was conducted on tourism in Bali Indonesia and is a research with a quantitative approach based on the positivism principle, that is data and theory testing through hypothesis testing. The villages selected as samples are Jatiluwih Village Tabanan Regency, Penglipuran Village Bangli Regency, and Mas Ubud Village Gianyar Regency. These three villages have become an econ of rural tourism development in Bali. Research respondents numbered 192 including farmers, tourism industry players, village leaders, NGOs, academics and the government. Data were analyzed using the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) approach using the Smart PLS version 3 software application program (Yudatama et al., 2019)

Measurement Model Test (Outer Model Evaluation) Through Convergent Validity Test

The measurement model test is based on the factor loading or outer loading coefficient of each indicator on each latent variable. According to Ghozali and Lathan (2012) an indicator is said to be valid if the loading coefficient is above 0.60 and significant at the Alpha level of 0.05 or has a t-statistics value greater than 1.96. Tables 1 and 2 show that the factor loading of all indicators above 0.60 and all shows a significant level of significance, (PV = 0,000).

Table 1. Factor Loading Indicators X1, X2, X3 (Data source: Results of Data Processing)

Local Community Involvement (X1)			Government Involvement (X2)			Private and NGO's involvement (X3)		
Indicators	Loading Factor	PV	Indicators	Loading Factor	PV	Indicators	Loading Factor	PV
x.1.1	0.726	0.000	x.2.1	0.844	0.000	x.3.1	0.854	0.000
x.1.2	0.665	0.000	x.2.2	0.876	0.000	x.3.2	0.850	0.000
x.1.3	0.619	0.000	x.2.3	0.897	0.000	x.3.3	0.621	0.000
x.1.4	0.789	0.000	x.2.4	0.813	0.000			
x.1.5	0.699	0.000						

Table 2. Factor Loading Indicators X4, X5, X6 (Data source: Results of Data Processing)

Local Community Involvement (X4)			Government Involvement (X5)			Private and NGO's involvement (X6)		
Indicators	Loading Factor	PV	Indicators	Loading Factor	PV	Indicators	Loading Factor	PV
x.4.1	0.753	0.000	x.5.1	0.813	0.000	x.6.1	0.684	0.000
x.4.2	0.788	0.000	x.5.2	0.850	0.000	x.6.2	0.822	0.000
x.4.3	0.629	0.000	x.5.3	0.726	0.000	x.6.3	0.754	0.000
x.4.4	0.789	0.000	x.5.4	0.636	0.000	x.6.4	0.711	0.000
x.4.1	0.753	0.000	x.5.1	0.813	0.000	x.6.1	0.684	0.000

Convergent validity can also be seen from the Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value. Based on the Composite Reliability value presented in Table 3, it shows that the six constructs have Composite Reliability above 0.6. This means that the predetermined indicators are able to measure each construct well or it can be said that the six measurement models are reliable. The better Convergent Validity value is indicated by the higher correlation between the indicators that make up a construct. In this study, the AVE value of each construct was above 0.5 (Chin, 1998). Therefore there is no convergent validity problem in the model being tested.

Table 3. Construct Reliability and Validity

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
X2	0.882	0.899	0.918	0.736
X3	0.688	0.748	0.823	0.612
X4	0.782	0.790	0.852	0.537
X5	0.753	0.760	0.845	0.579
X6	0.730	0.732	0.832	0.554
x1	0.811	0.830	0.863	0.514

Information

- X1 = Community Involvement.
 X2 = Government involvement.
 X3 = Private / NGO involvement
 X4 = Sustainable Rural Tourism.
 X5 = Rural Tourism Comparative Advantage.
 X6 = Rural Tourism Competitive Advantage.

Structural Model Test (Inner Model Evaluation)

The inner model evaluation aims to determine the Goodness of Fit of model with the following methods:

R-Square (R^2)

R-Square (R^2) shows the strengths and weaknesses caused by variations in exogenous variables to endogenous variables. R-Square value (R^2) is the coefficient of determination in endogenous constructs. According to Sarstedt and Cheah (2019), the value of R-Square (R^2) is 0.67 (strong), 0.33 (moderate) and 0.19 (weak). Table 4 shows that the endogenous variable, namely sustainable rural tourism (X4) has R-Square R^2 at a moderate level (0.463), while the comparative advantage variable of rural tourism (X5) and the competitive advantage of rural

tourism (X6) has R-Square (R^2) at a strong level, 0.511 and 0.590, respectively. Thus it can be said that the model formed by the six variables is quite strong. R-Square values (R^2) of each endogenous variable are presented in Table 3 below:

Tabel 4. R-Square (Data source: Results of Data Processing)

Variabele	R Square	R Square Adjusted
sustainable rural tourism (X4)	0.463	0.452
comparative advantage variable of rural X5	0.511	0.498
competitive advantage of rural tourism (X6)	0.590	0.576

Information:

X4 = Sustainable Rural Tourism.

X5 = Rural Tourism Comparative Advantage.

X6 = Rural Tourism Competitive Advantage.

Q-Square (Predictive Relevance)

Q-Square (Predictive Relevance) measures how well the observed value generated by the estimation model and its parameters. Q-Square value > 0 indicates the model has good predictive relevance. Conversely, if Q-Square < 0 indicates the model has poor predictive relevance.

The Q-Square (Predictive Relevance) value can be calculated as follows:

$$Q^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2_1)(1 - R^2_2)$$

$$Q^2 = 1 - (1 - 0.452)(1 - 0.498)(1 - 0.576)$$

$$Q^2 = 1 - (0.548)(0.502)(0.424)$$

$$Q^2 = 0.883$$

Q-Square calculation produces a value of 0.883 or 88.3%, which means that the model has a very good observation value. That is 88.3%, the relationship between variables can be explained by the model.

GoF (Goodness of Fit) Test

Goodness of Fit (GoF) Index, used in evaluating structural models and overall measurements that can be calculated with the roots of the AVE average multiplied by the R^2 average.

$$\text{Average } R^2 = (0.452 + 0.498 + 0.576) / 3 = 0.509$$

$$\text{Average AVE} = (0.736 + 0.612 + 0.537 + 0.579 + 0.554 + 0.514) / 6 = 0.589$$

$$\text{Average AVE} \times \text{Average } R^2 = 0.30$$

$$\text{So GoF} = \text{root of } 0.30 = 0.54772$$

GoF test criteria are 0.1 (GoF small), 0.25 (moderate GoF), and 0.36 (GoF large), Tenenhaus (2004). So thus the overall evaluation of the research model can be stated well, then it can be continued with the analysis of hypothesis testing

Statistical tests relationships between variables (estimate for path coefficients)

The results of statistical tests on the relationship of variables (Estimate for Path Coefficients) are path coefficient values that show the influence of exogenous constructs on endogenous constructs carried out with the Bootstrapping procedure on the Smart-PLS 3 application program as Figure 2.

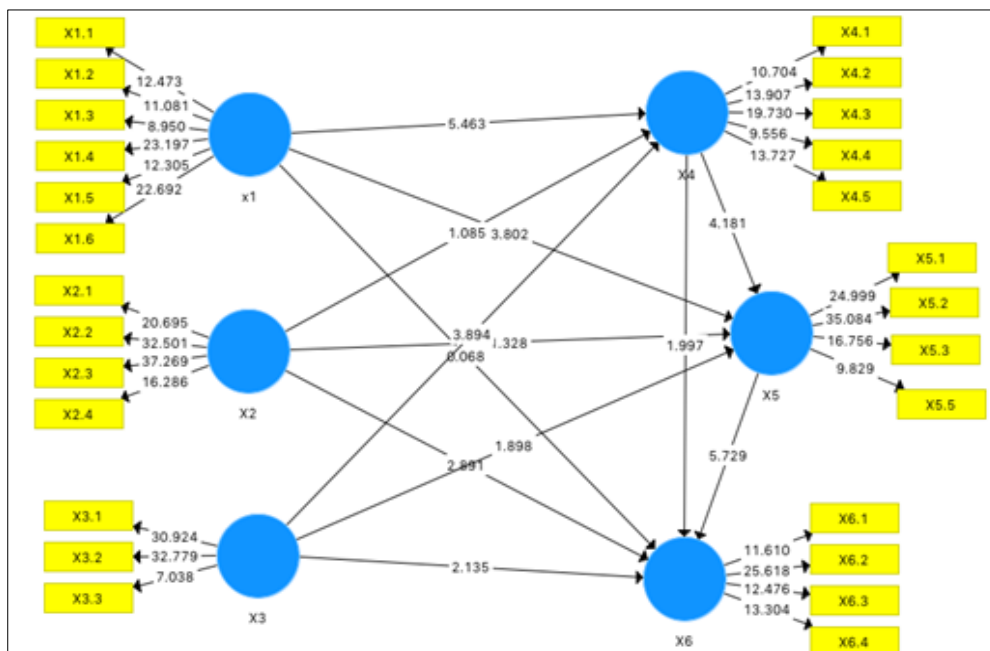


Figure 2. Relationships between variables (Source: Results of Data Processing)

Table 5 shows that out of 12 causality relationships, there were four non-significant causality relationships (hypothesis rejected) at $\alpha 0.05$ with a statistical value < 1.96 . On the other hand there are eight significant causality relationships (hypothesis are accepted) at $\alpha 0.05$ with a statistical value > 1.96 . The relationship that is not significant is between the variables of government involvement with sustainable rural tourism variables; government involvement with the comparative advantage of rural tourism; the involvement of the private sector and NGOs with the comparative advantage of rural tourism and the involvement of the community with the competitive advantage of rural tourism.

Table 5. Path Coefficients Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values (Data source: Results of Data Processing)

Variable	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values
X2 -> X4	-0.084	-0.075	0.078	1.085	0.279
X2 -> X5	0.087	0.089	0.066	1.328	0.185
X2 -> X6	0.168	0.173	0.058	2.891	0.004
X3 -> X4	0.391	0.379	0.100	3.894	0.000
X3 -> X5	0.160	0.158	0.084	1.898	0.058
X3 -> X6	0.187	0.186	0.088	2.135	0.033
X4 -> X5	0.369	0.371	0.088	4.181	0.000
X4 -> X6	0.167	0.167	0.083	1.997	0.046
X5 -> X6	0.451	0.447	0.079	5.729	0.000
x1 -> X4	0.429	0.443	0.079	5.463	0.000
x1 -> X5	0.286	0.283	0.075	3.802	0.000
x1 -> X6	0.005	0.010	0.073	0.068	0.946

Information:

X1 = Community Involvement.

X2 = Government involvement.

X3 = Private Involvement / L.S.M.

X4 = Sustainable Rural Tourism.

X5 = Comparative Advantages of Rural Tourism.

X6 = Competitive Advantages of Rural Tourism.

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

Local Community Involvement

The results of research on the relationship of local community involvement variables with the rural sustainable tourism variable, proved to have a strong correlation. This finding is evidenced by the existence of privates and NGOs that support rural tourism especially in carrying out the supervisory function. Likewise, the results of research on the relationship of local community involvement variables with the comparative advantage variable of rural tourism proved to have a strong correlation. This finding is evidenced by the role of the community in participating in supervision to support the preservation of culture and the environment.

But the results of research on the relationship of local community involvement variables with the competitive advantage of rural tourism variable proved to have a weak correlation. This finding is proven because there is no specific activity of the local community related to efforts to develop untouched nature including flora and fauna, and efforts to develop recreational facilities.

Government Involvement

The results of research on the relationship of government involvement variables with sustainable rural tourism proved to have a weak correlation. This finding is evidenced by the low involvement of the government in managing and conserving the physical environment of the area which is the hallmark of a tourist village and making infrastructure improvements. Likewise the results of research on the relationship of government involvement variables with the comparative advantage variable of rural tourism are shown to have a weak correlation. This finding is evidenced by the low efforts of the government in managing and conserving the physical environment of the area and improving infrastructure. But instead the results of research on the relationship of government involvement variables with the competitive advantage of rural tourism variable proved to have a strong correlation. This finding is evidenced by the government's efforts to support the empowerment of untouched nature including flora and fauna, support for efficient tourist transportation services, and improvement of recreational facilities.

Private and NGOs Involvement

The results of research on the relationship between the variables of private and NGO involvement with sustainable rural tourism development variables are proven to have a strong correlation. This finding is evidenced by the efforts of private and NGO involvement in conducting entrepreneurship training, skills training in tourism and, developing joint business groups in the community. But the results of research on the relationship between the variables of private and NGO involvement with the comparative advantage variable of rural tourism are shown to have a low correlation. This finding is proven because the involvement of the private sector and NGOs in the development of rural tourism is not integrated with efforts to manage the culture and the unique environment as a village capital appeal.

On the other hand the results of research on the relationship between the variables of private and NGO involvement with the variable of competitive advantage of rural tourism are proven to have a strong correlation. This finding is evidenced by the existence of entrepreneurship training, individual skills training related to integrated tourism businesses with unspoiled nature management efforts including flora and fauna, efficient tourist transportation and recreational facilities.

Relationship of Sustainable Rural Tourism Development with Comparative Advantage

The results prove that the variable of sustainable rural tourism has a strong correlation with the variable comparative advantage of rural tourism. This finding is evidenced by the efforts to apply the principles of rural tourism development through increasing awareness and love of the community for local culture and through increasing cultural facilities and activities, integrated with efforts to improve the comparative advantage of villages. Efforts to improve comparative advantage relate to efforts to increase employment, improve people's living standards, manage unique cultures and manage the environment as a village capital appeal.

Relationship of Comparative Advantages with Competitive Advantages of Rural Tourism

The results of the study prove that the comparative advantage of rural tourism has a strong correlation with the competitive advantage of rural tourism. This finding is evidenced by the efforts to manage a unique and diverse culture and to manage the environment as a village capital attraction integrated with efforts to manage untouched nature including flora and fauna, efficient tourist transportation and efforts to improve the quality of recreational facilities

Relationship of Sustainable Rural Tourism Development with Competitive Advantage

The results of the study prove that efforts to develop sustainable rural tourism have a strong correlation with efforts to increase the

competitive advantage of rural tourism. This finding is evidenced by an increase in awareness and love of local culture and integrated with efforts to manage untouched nature including flora and fauna, availability of efficient tourist transportation and improving the quality of recreational facilities.

Research Implications

The development of sustainable rural tourism in order to have strong competitiveness must be carried out in an integrated manner by involving the community, government, private sector and non-governmental organizations. Besides that, in implementing rural tourism development, it must focus on implementing the principles of sustainable tourism, comparative advantage and competitive advantage. The results of this study can be used as a basis for developing policies for those who have authority in developing rural tourism.

CONCLUSION

The involvement of local communities in the development of sustainable rural tourism by managing resources as an element of competitive advantage has an important role. However, community involvement has a low role in fostering the competitive advantage of rural tourism. Government involvement in the development of sustainable rural tourism and encouraging comparative advantage has an insignificant role. While the government's involvement in encouraging the competitive advantage of rural tourism has a significant role.

The involvement of private sector and NGOs in the development of sustainable rural tourism and encouraging competitive advantage has an insignificant role. While the involvement of the private sector and NGOs in encouraging comparative advantage has a significant role.

Recommendation

The results of this study provide the view that the role of community involvement in increasing the competitive advantage of Rural Tourism must start from efforts to encourage people to understand and implement the principles of sustainable rural tourism development, understanding and implementing natural and cultural resource management as an element of competitive advantage. Government involvement is very important in structuring and conserving the physical environment of the area which is the hallmark of a tourist village and for improving infrastructure including waste and sanitation.

The role of government involvement in the development of rural tourism structurally to improve competitive advantage can be done through increasing understanding and implementation of the principles of sustainable rural tourism and encouraging efforts to empower the unique resources of the village so that it becomes an advantage in competing. Private Involvement and Non-Governmental Organizations have a weak correlation with efforts to manage the comparative advantage of Rural Tourism. Private and Non-Governmental Organizations in enhancing their role through cooperation with the government or related organizations to conduct entrepreneurship training, individual skills training related to businesses in tourism and the development of joint business groups with the community.

Appendix 1

	Research Variables and Indicators research Va Research Variables and Indicators riables
	Community Involvement (X1)
1	The community is involved in identifying problems (x1.1)
2	The community is involved in the formulation of objectives (x1.2)
3	Community involved in managing the tourism business (x1.3)
4	There are non-governmental organizations involved in supporting rural tourism (x1.4)
5	Communities involved in managing local resources or providing facilities needed in Rural Tourism (x1.5)
6	Have principles so that development strategies do not deviate (x1.6)
	Government Involvement (X2)
1	The government provides guidance and funding for local community business activities related to village tourism (x2.1)
2	Arranging and conserving the physical environment of the area that characterizes the tourist village (x2.2)
3	Carry out repairs and procurement of waste and sanitation infrastructure (x2.3)
4	Repair and increase the quality of public spaces (x2.4)
	Private Involvement / NGOs (X3)
1	Conducting entrepreneurship training, individual skills training related to business in tourism (x3.1)
2	Development of joint community business groups (x3.2)
3	Providing facilities to get financial assistance (x3.3)
	Sustainable Rural Tourism (X4)
1	Village tourism can improve the quality of life of communities, improve community identity and have a positive impact (x4.1)
2	Village tourism can increase awareness and love of local culture and improve cultural facilities and activities (x4.2)
3	Village tourism can increase employment and can improve people's living standards, (x4.3)
4	Village tourism does not cause conflict with the interests of the local community, and can protect the environment. (x4.4)
5	Village tourism can preserve the environment (x4.5)
	Comparative Advantage (X5)
1	Having a culture that is relatively unique and more diverse than other village cultures so that it becomes the capital of village attraction (x5.1)
2	Having a different environment compared to other villages so that the village becomes an attraction; (x5.2)
3	Having different types of economic and business and management activities with other tourist villages so that they can provide added value to the village. (X5.3)
4	Culture of population that quickly adjusts to the changes that occur (x5.4)
	Competitive Advantage (X6)
1	There are traditional buildings with local cultural architecture (x6.1)
2	There is untouched nature including flora and fauna (x6.2)
3	There is cheap transportation for tourists (x6.3)
4	There are recreational facilities; (x6.4)

REFERENCES

- Afonso, A. (2019). Migrant workers or working women? Comparing labour supply policies in post-war Europe. *Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis: Research and Practice*, 21(3), 251-269. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13876988.2018.1527584>
- Attack, I. (1999). Four criteria of Development NGO Legitimacy. *World Development*, 27(5), 855-864. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0305-750X\(99\)00033-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0305-750X(99)00033-9)

- Birkić, D., Čubelić Pilija, I., & Kljajić Šebrek, J. (2014). *The role of local government in planning of sustainable tourism of coastal destination*. 22nd Biennial International Congress, Tourism & Hospitality Industry, Trends in Tourism and Hospitality Management, 16-30.
- Clark, J. (1999). *Democratizing Development: The Role of Voluntary Organizations*. West Hartford, Kumarian Press.
- Komppula, R. (2014). The role of individual entrepreneurs in the development of competitiveness for a rural tourism destination – A case study. *Tourism Management*, 40, 361-371. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.07.007>
- Carvache-Franco, M., Segarra-Oña, M., & Carrascosa-López, C. (2019). Motivations Analysis In Ecotourism Through An Empirical Application: Segmentation, Characteristics And Motivations Of The Consumer. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 24(1), 60–73. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.24106-343>
- Croes, R. (2014). Evaluation of tourism competitiveness and its effects on destination management: making a difference in Costa Rica? *Dialogos*, Octubre, 221-232. <https://stars.library.ucf.edu/rosenscholar/457>
- Dogra, R.A., & Gupta (2012). Barriers to community participation in tourism development: Empirical evidence from a rural destination. *South Asian Journal of Tourism and Heritage* 5(1), 219-142.
- Dogru, T., Suess, C., & Sirakaya-Turk, E. (2020). Why Do Some Countries Prosper More in Tourism than Others? Global Competitiveness of Tourism Development. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348020911706>
- Ertuna, B., & Kirbas, G. (2012). Local community involvement in rural tourism development: The case of Kastamonu, Turkey. *Revistade Turismoy Patrimonio Culture*, 10(2), 17-24. <https://doi.org/10.25145/j.pasos.2012.10.023>
- Ezeuduji, I.O. (2015). Brand Positioning for Sub-Saharan Africa's Rural Tourism Development. *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies*, 7(6), 34-41. [https://doi.org/10.22610/jebs.v7i6\(J\).616](https://doi.org/10.22610/jebs.v7i6(J).616)
- Fang, W.T. (2020). Rural Tourism. In *Tourism in Emerging Economies* (pp. 103-129). Springer, Singapore.
- Falak, S., Chiun, L.M. & Wee, A.Y. (2014). A repositioning strategy for rural tourism in malaysia-community's perspective, 5th Asia Euro Conference 2014, *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 144, 412-415.
- Falciola, J., Jansen, M., & Rollo, V. (2020). Defining firm competitiveness: A multidimensional framework. *World Development*, 129. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2019.104857>
- Ferreira, F., & Castro, C. (2020). Competitiveness of european tourism: a cluster analysis. In *International Conference on Tourism Research* (pp. 52-59). Academic Conferences International Limited.
- Fernández, J.A.S., Azevedo, P.S., Martín, J.M.M., & Martín, J.A.R. (2020). Determinants of tourism destination competitiveness in the countries most visited by international tourists: Proposal of a synthetic index. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 33, 100582. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.100582>
- Fong, S.F., & Lo, M.C. (2015). Community involvement and sustainable rural tourism development: Perspectives from the local communities. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 11, 125-146.
- Giampiccoli, A., Abdul Muhsin, B., & Mtapuri, O. (2020). Community-based tourism in the case of the Maldives. *GeoJournal of Tourism & Geosites*, 29(2), 428-439. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.29204-479>
- Ghozali, I. & Latan, H. (2012). Partial Least Square: Konsep, Teknik dan Aplikasi SmartPLS 2.0 M3. Semarang: Badan Penerbit Universitas Diponegoro.
- Jaafar, M., Md Noor, S., Mohamad, D., Jalali, A., & Hashim, J.B. (2020). Motivational factors impacting rural community participation in community-based tourism enterprise in Lenggong Valley, Malaysia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 25(7), 697-710. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2020.1769696>
- Kastenholz, E., Carneiro, M.J., Marques, C.P., & Lima, J. (2012). *Understandig and managing Management Perspectives*, 4, 207-214. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2012.08.009>
- Komppula, R. (2014). The role of individual entrepreneurs in the development of competitiveness for a rural tourism destination - A case study. *Tourism Management*, 40, 361–371. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.07.007>
- Kubickova, M. (2016). The Role of Government in Tourism: Linking Competitiveness, Freedom, and Developing Economies. *Czech Journal of Tourism*, 5(2), 73–92. <https://doi.org/10.1515/cjot-2016-00005> <https://doi.org/10.1515/cjot-2016-0005>
- Lee, T.H., & Jan, F.H. (2019). Can community-based tourism contribute to sustainable development? Evidence from residents' perceptions of the sustainability. *Tourism Management*, 70, 368-380. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.09.003>
- Lee, T.H. (2013). Influence analysis of community resident support for sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 34, 37-46 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.03.007>
- Liu, J., & Xie, J. (2020). Environmental regulation, technological innovation, and export competitiveness: An empirical study based on China's manufacturing industry. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(4), 1427. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17041427>
- Lo, M.C., Mohamad, A.A., Songan, P., Yeo, A.W. (2012). Positioning rural tourism: perspectives from the local communities. *International Journal of Trade, Economics and Finance*, 3(1), 59-65.
- Ma, X.L., Dai, M.L., & Fan, D.X. (2020). Cooperation or confrontation? Exploring stakeholder relationships in rural tourism land expropriation. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1762622>
- Othman, B., Khatab, J.J., Esmael, E.S., Mustafa, H.A., & Sadq, Z.M. (2020). The Influence of Total Quality Management on Competitive Advantage towards Bank Organizations: Evidence from Erbil/Iraq. *International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation*, 24(5), 3427-3439. <https://doi.org/10.37200/IJPR/V24I5/PR202053>
- Prevolšek, B., Maksimović, A., Puška, A., Pažek, K., Žibert, M., & Rozman, Č. (2020). Sustainable development of ethno-villages in bosnia and herzegovina - a multi criteria assessment. *Sustainability*, 12(4), 1399. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12041399>
- Porter, M. (1980). *The Competitive Strategy*. Techniques for Analysing Strategy Industries and competitors. New York The free Press.
- Porter, M. (1990). *The Competitive Advantage of Nations*. London: The Macmillan Press.
- Sandri, O., Hayes, J., & Holdsworth, S. (2020). Regulating urban development around major accident hazard pipelines: a systems comparison of governance frameworks in Australia and the UK. *Environment systems and decisions*, 40(3), 385-402.
- Sarstedt, M., & Cheah, J.H. (2019). Partial least squares structural equation modeling using SmartPLS: a software review. *Journal of Marketing Analytics*, 7(3), 196-202.
- Shibin, K.T., Dubey, R., Gunasekaran, A., Hazen, B., Roubaud, D., Gupta, S., & Foropon, C. (2020). Examining sustainable supply chain management of SMEs using resource based view and institutional theory. *Annals of Operations Research*, 290(1), 301-326.
- Sook, F., May, L., Songan, P., & Nair, V. (2014). *The impact of local communities involvement and relationship quality on sustainable tourism in rural. Procedia-social and behavioral Sciences*.
- Ursache, M. (2015). Niche Tourism Markets–Means of Enhancing Sustainable Economic Development in Eu's Eastern Periphery. *CES Working Papers*, 7(2A), 648-661.
- Wardana, I.M, Utama, I.W.M., & Astawa, I.P. (2018). Model Of Local Population Perception In Supporting Coastal Tourism Development And Planning In Bali. *GeoJournal Of Tourism And Geosites*, 23(3), 873–880. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.23321-335>
- Wardana, I., Sukaatmadja, I., Ekawati, N., Yasa, N., Astawa, I., & Setini, M. (2020). Policy models for improving ecotourism performance to build quality tourism experience and sustainable tourism. *Management Science Letters*, 11(2), 595-608.
- Xiong, Y., Zhang, Y., & Lee, T.J. (2020). The rural creative class: An analysis of in-migration tourism entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 22(1), 42-53.
- Yasa, N.N.K., Yasa, N.N.K., Giantari, I.G.A.K., & Giantari, I.G.A.K. (2020). The role of competitive advantage in mediating the effect of promotional strategy on marketing performance. *Management Science Letters*, 10(12), 2845-2848.
- Yudatama, U., Hidayanto, A.N., Nazief, B.A., & Phusavat, K. (2019). Data to model the effect of awareness on the success of IT Governance implementation: A partial least squares structural equation modeling approach (PLS-SEM). *Data in brief*, 25, 104333. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dib.2019.104333>

THE POTENTIAL OF AFRICAN RELIGIOUS PILGRIMAGES AS A TOOL FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA

Linda NOMPUMELELO*

University of Zululand, Department of Recreation and Tourism, KwaDlangezwa, South Africa, e-mail : LindaNO@unizulu.ac.za

Citation: Nompumelelo, L. (2020). THE POTENTIAL OF AFRICAN RELIGIOUS PILGRIMAGES AS A TOOL FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1501–1506. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl08-599>

Abstract : Religious pilgrimages are components of religious tourism and a revenue generator for different countries. The study aims to explore the contribution of African religious pilgrimages towards tourism development of the study areas. Sequential exploratory mixed method research design was applied in this paper. The study used a convenience sampling method of the non-probability sampling design in selecting 210 respondents. Additionally, convenience sampling was used in selecting 40 participants that were readily and easily accessible in the study area. Lastly, the elucidates that there is a need for tourism development for African religious pilgrimages.

Key words: tourism development, pilgrimage, pilgrims, tourist, tourism facilities, religious tourism.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

The histories of both phenomena are closely interwoven, and it can be argued that the activities of religious pilgrimages were transformed into religious tourism. As an example, religious pilgrims that travelled for spiritual purposes often engaged in sightseeing which is largely, a tourism activity along the way. Studies have indicated that religious issues are not the only ones considered by visitors to religious sites or events, and their motivation is composed of religious, cultural, traditional, spiritual, and landscape patterns, which often interact in the intention and decision to set out on a trip (Abbate and Nuovo, 2013; Amaro et al., 2018; Drule et al., 2015; Hughes et al., 2013; Kaewumpai, 2018; Kim and Kim, 2018; Olsen 2013; Terzidou et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2016). Religious pilgrimages which are a component of religious tourism are a big revenue generator for different countries. The researchers (e.g. Bremer, 2005; Shinde and Pinkney, 2013; Shinde, 2015) developed a personal interest for religious pilgrimages which is demonstrated in this paper as having a potential for tourism development. African religious pilgrimages with a strong component of religious tourism are a big revenue generator for developing countries such as South Africa (SA), as suggested by (Shinde, 2015). The researcher developed a personal interest for African religious pilgrimages which should be demonstrated here as having a potential for tourism development. It is the view of this study that it is important to create an opportunity for people and the tourism stakeholders to understand that the African religious pilgrimages can contribute to tourism development and subsequently to the general local economic development of KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) as there are various religious pilgrimages.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Religious tourism is a big revenue generator for different countries (Telfer, 2002; Brouder, 2013). Tourism can be a potential and fruitful tool for provincial development, it may not be the most favourable use of resources in specific locations (Saarinen, 2014). The researcher's perspective about the African religious pilgrimages have not been seen as a big revenue generator because in the surroundings of these pilgrimages there are no tourism facilities that are in place for tourism development purposes in KZN. While it is viewed that the tourism sector that employs the largest work force in the world. Religious tourism draws huge crowds in the form of tourists and hence has an edge over other kinds of tourism (Telfer, 2002). The researcher felt that there is no contribution that is brought by the African religious pilgrimage destinations towards the tourism development while it stands to contribute a lot. The stakeholders who are supposed to facilitate this kind of contribution seem not to be aware of the value that can be brought these African religious pilgrimages. The expansion of domestic tourism holds considerable promise for stimulating economic development outside the existing tourism nodes (Rogerson and Lisa, 2005). Those studies that explore the experiences and the benefits related with religious tourism focus mainly on spiritual experiences, neglecting others such as social, educational, or restorative experiences (Bond et al., 2014). Although the studies that address the other three types of experiences are scarcer if this could be address, for example, in relation to educational experiences, as in the studies of (Nyaupane et al., 2015; Ramírez and Fernández, 2018). In spite of recognizing that managers of religious sites should offer visitors a wide range of activities, both spiritual and non-spiritual, that compliments each other with the aim of providing a holistic experience (Tirca and Stanculescu, 2011). There are various levels of religious tourism-international, national, regional and micro-level religious tourism (National Department of Tourism, 2012). The relationship between both terms, religion and tourism, has been studied from different perspectives (Collins-Kreiner, 2010, 2018; Terzidou et al., 2017). In traditional societies like ours, the pilgrimage journeys performed to God's grace and to learn moral values and to get respect in the individual community.

The religious tourist, in addition, is more faithful to pilgrimage destinations than the traditional tourist with motivations different to faith, returning to the site in a shorter period of time (Robles, 2001). With this long and religiously embedded tradition, the flow of people started to places of religions importance. The researcher's perception about the African religious pilgrimages, it is where pilgrims connects with God and where they find the comfort. In addition, the increase in tourists increases the income and benefits obtained by the companies dedicated to hospitality services in the area. The African religious pilgrimages around KwaZulu-Natal are not well built and the worst scenario with the Nazareth Baptist church religious pilgrimages are not well-built. This is what this paper is intending to do in making the locals to see the potential of tourism around these African religious pilgrimages. Sustainable livelihoods work, could be an attempt to draw economist colleagues and institutional dimensions of tourism development and environmental change. The local municipalities in KZN should be able to promote these sites and draws some integrated development plan that could make the tourists and the locals see the African religious pilgrimages potential. Since the rise of tourism in the global economy, the popularity of tourism as a vehicle for promoting provincial

* Corresponding author

regional economic development. If these African religious pilgrimages can be well promoted can portray a great potential and increase in demand by general growth in business activities as well as the demand for travel, in terms of not desire but also the ability to participate in tourism activities and an expanded supply of tourism infrastructure that is purposefully created by provincial tourism entities.

It is cautioned that the desired goals of provincial development are not necessarily the same as the tourism industry's outcomes are specific economic activity, which in many cases on non-locally set priorities, values, needs and goals (Saarinen, 2003). A sustainability perspective, tourism-led growth does not necessarily translate into benefits for local communities and the environment. The interest of the researcher is not to commodify these African religious pilgrimages but to benefit the local communities and the religious pilgrimages. The researcher felt that there is a need of an Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) which pays attention to the contribution of African religious pilgrimages towards tourism development of all the surrounding local municipalities. These African religious pilgrimages have a potential of tourism growth because these pilgrimage destinations are visited annually by different kinds of tourists and the pilgrims which contributes a lot to the gross domestic product of the country. Since the rise of tourism in the global economy, the popularity of tourism as a vehicle for promoting provincial regional economic development. The local municipalities that surrounds these African religious pilgrimages have to come up with a tourism development plan that could develop the area and these pilgrimage destinations. The plan could make the tourist want to explore the contribution of African religious pilgrimages towards tourism development of the study areas. This study is in an endeavour to fill in the gap by exploring and elaborating on the religious tourism as another form of tourism that could contribute to the local economic development in the study area. By linking tourism to other local productive livelihoods, not only can the positive economic and employment impacts of tourism be maximised but also the negative impacts of tourism monoculture can be tempered (Lacher and Nepal, 2010).

According to Nazarites (2016), there are three hold festivals, which are in January, July and October, when bread is not eaten, is unleavened, made without yeast. Members of Shembe do participate in pilgrimage. According to Sithole (2015), thousands of people are baptised every Sunday in July and in January, the two biggest annual meetings of the church.

The pilgrimages in INanda have been a religious tourism benefit to the local economy.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Religious pilgrimages have been playing a significant role towards the development of tourism. The study aims to explore the contribution of African religious pilgrimages towards tourism development of the study areas. It is the view of this study that there is no contribution that is brought by the African religious pilgrimages towards the tourism development in KZN, whereas it has a potential to have an immense contribution. The stakeholders who are supposed to facilitate this kind of contribution seem not to be aware of the value that can be brought by these African religious pilgrimages.

AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This section discusses the aim and specific objectives of the study.

Aim of the study

The study aims to explore the contribution of African religious pilgrimages towards tourism development of the study areas.

Objectives of the study

The objectives of this study are as follows:

- (a) To ascertain the awareness of local people at the pilgrimage destinations of the tourism opportunities of pilgrimages within the study area;
- (b) To find out if there are any tourism facilities and products that are packaged for tourists and pilgrims in the study area;
- (c) To establish a perception of local communities towards the potential of pilgrimage destinations in enhancing economic development of the area;
- (d) To find out if the IDPs of the study area include the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

This paper, helps the researcher and the reader to understand the processes of the research thus giving it scientific merit. Research methodology is a set of procedures and methods that is used to carry out a search for knowledge and to achieve the research objectives (Jennings, 2010). Research design is the overall plan that spells out the strategies that the researcher uses to develop accurate, objective and interpretative information. Therefore, sequential exploratory mixed method research design was applied in the study. The mixed method originated as triangulation, which is the application and combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon (Morgan, 2014). This research used the combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon (Mamabolo et al., 2017). A survey design was adopted for this study. According to (Ntshangase and Ezeuduji, 2020); the survey entails a researcher selecting a sample of respondents and administering a standardised questionnaire to each person in the sample. A questionnaire with both open-ended and close-ended questions was used to collect primary data. Close-ended questions were in form of a matrix in order to save time for respondents, and to increase the comparability of responses (Chawla and Sondhi, 2011). A sequential exploratory research design was applied in order to follow a strategy whereby qualitative interviews were conducted followed by a quantitative survey (Creswell, 2009). In most cases, tourism research needs quantitative data to get the required information to achieve the objectives of the study (Nkwanyana et al., 2016; Ezeuduji and Mbane, 2017).

After collecting data through face-to-face interviews, a quantitative approach allowed the researcher to generate statistical data that was presented in frequencies, percentages and tables. Data analyses was done using Statistical Packaged Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 software for statistical purposes. After data collection, there were (N=250) samples who participated in the study. Qualitative data was subjected to content analysis. This study used a convenience sampling method of the non-probability sampling design in selecting 210 respondents. A convenience sampling was used in selecting 40 respondents that were readily and easily accessible in different areas of the study area (Mertens, 2014; Taherdoost, 2016) advocates that convenience sampling often helps to overcome many of the limitations associated with the research. The respondents were therefore chosen based on convenience and availability. The respondents that participated in the study were pilgrims, municipality officials, Roman Catholic Priests and Nazareth Baptist church Ecclesiastes.

Furthermore, respondents were given assurance of privacy, confidentiality and anonymity with regards to the information provided. The participants chosen were between the age of 18 and 56 + years who were at the destination /shrine between 08h00 and 16h00 during the time when you were collecting data who could speak isiZulu and English, the languages the researcher is well conversant with.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first part of this section focuses on the socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. For the purpose of this paper, specific attention was paid to the distribution of gender, age, and education of the respondents. The findings indicate that females

were the majority (66%) in terms of participation in the study as opposed to males who accounted for 34%. Based on the researcher's observation is the females are most active in religious activities and the finding has been attributed to two reasons, which are: (a) the males slightly participates in religious pilgrimages, and (b) the fact that the total number of females surpasses that of males in the KZN Province and the country at large. The study found that the approximately 36 % of the respondents indicated that they varied between 22-35 of years whereas 29% of the respondents ranged between the age of 36-55, group 22% of the respondents 18-21 group. Lastly, the least response 13% was from the 56 years and above group. It is fascinating to note that the young adult age-group were leading respondents. This is mainly because they were more accessible than the other groups. According to Creswell (2009) and Taherdoost (2016), age is the important factor when one is conducting research. In Figure 1, it depicts the gender percentages. The respondents added up to a total sample of 250 subjects. The study starts by looking at the dynamics that occur within the municipality officials, pilgrims, Roman Catholic Priests and Nazareth Baptist Ecclesiastes. The socio-demographic characteristics of the municipality officials and pilgrims are important in the sense that the researcher can determine the extent to which the socio-demographic characteristics have a bearing on making the subjects respond the way they did. As indicated in Table 1 a number of demographic variables were analysed and the results were described below.

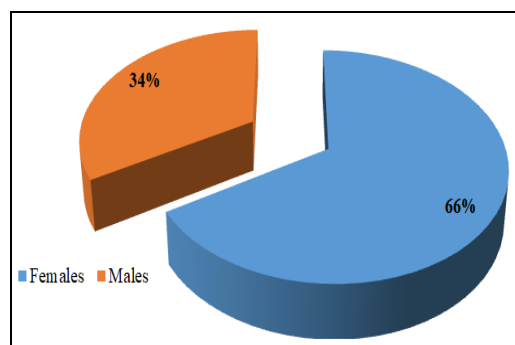


Figure 1. Gender of respondents

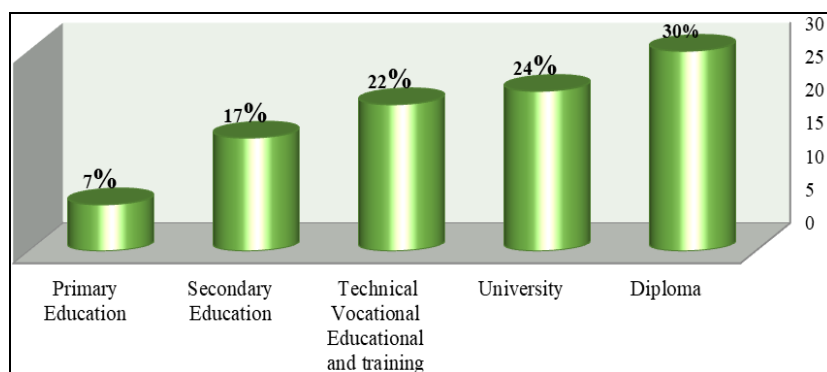


Figure 2. Level of education

Table 1. Profile of the respondents (N=195)

Variable	Sub-variable	Frequency	%
Marital status	Single	97	50
	Married	63	32
	Divorced	12	6
	Separated	11	6
	Widowed	12	6
	Total	195	100.0
Level of education	Primary Education [Gr 08]	14	7
	Secondary Education [Gr12]	33	17
	Diploma/ Certificate	60	30
	Technical Vocational Education and training	42	22
	University/ University of Technology	46	24
	Total	195	100.0
Occupation levels	Unskilled	24	12
	Semi-skilled	35	18
	Skilled	39	20
	Professional	54	28
	Retired	24	12
	Unemployed	19	10
	Total	195	100.0
Monthly income status	Less than R2000	67	35
	R2001- R5000	15	8
	R5001- R8000	16	8
	R8001- R10 000	26	13
	R10 001- R20 000	47	24
	More than R20 000	24	12
	Total	195	100.0

The respondents were asked to reveal their marital status with the view of establishing their participation level in religious tourism activities in the study area. As shown in Table 1, the marital status of the respondents indicated that about 50% of the respondents in the study area were single. The next largest group was 32% were married. About 6% were divorced, widowed 6% and lastly 6% were separated. In the light of the above discussion, it would be interesting to establish whether the responses to religious tourism related matters would be influenced by the respondents' marital status. The importance of education in the development of any community cannot be overemphasised.

The distribution of the education levels of the respondents emerged as shown in Figure 2 and is described below. The majority of the respondents in the education column (30%) indicated that they had only obtained the post matric diploma/ certificate of education. In the same token, about 24% of the respondents had acquired university/ university of technology qualifications and 22% had achieved the Technical Vocational Education and training qualifications (TVET). Furthermore, 17% of the respondents had only achieved the secondary standard of education. Lastly, the respondents which constitute 7% had a primary education. These findings were expected to assist in determining if education played a role in responding to religious tourism matters as well as the potential of African religious pilgrimages as a tool for tourism development in KZN. The data collected was analysed to provide insight into the research objectives as well as to the research questions which were discussed. The first objective was to ascertain about the awareness of local people at the pilgrimage destinations of the tourism opportunities of pilgrimages within the study area. The related hypothesis stated: "That the local people are not aware of the value of

these pilgrimages". The respondents were given a question where they were supposed to designate the key players responsible for creating awareness of tourism opportunities in the study area. Generally, the majority of respondents rated that the local community are the key players for creating awareness of tourism opportunities in the study area. In Table 2 below, it reflects the percentages of the respondents rating. Additionally, it is indicating the respondents who are key players in creating awareness of tourism opportunities within the study area.

Table 2. Creating awareness of tourism opportunities

Key players	Frequency	%
National Government	19	10
Provincial Government	47	24
Local Government	71	36
Private Sector Agencies	14	7
Churches	16	8
Hawkers	12	6
Tourists themselves	3	2
General Public or Citizens	7	4
Unemployed people	6	3
Total	195	100.0

The findings as shown in the above Table 2 indicates that 10% of the respondents revealed that national government should play a key role in creating tourism opportunities within the study area. These were followed by those who stated that it should be the provincial government that plays a key role in creating tourism opportunities within the study at 24%. Those who were of the view that local government that plays a key role regarding the question under discussion accounted for 36%. It was followed by those who stated that the private sector agencies should play a key role in this regard at 7% of the total respondents. Those who said churches should be the key role players regarding the said question were 8%, followed by those who were of the view that hawkers should also play a key role in this regard at 6%. Those who indicated that tourists should play the key role players in terms of creating tourism opportunities within the study area were only 2%, followed by those who held a view that general public plays a key role in this regard at 4%. Those who felt that unemployed people are the key role players regarding creation of tourism opportunities within the study area constituted 3% of the total respondents.

In line with the above findings, the study deduces that local government is expected to play a significant role in creating tourism opportunities within the study area. Perhaps, this finding is resulting from the fact that local governments are entrusted with the task of ensuring that local economic development initiatives are executed to benefit the nearer communities (Nel and Binns, 2001).

Objective two: To find out if there are any tourism facilities and products that are packaged for tourists and pilgrims in the study area. The related hypothesis stated: That the tourism facilities can be made available along the route of the pilgrimages. It was therefore important for the researcher to find out if there are any tourism facilities and products that are packaged for tourists and the pilgrims in the study area. Figure 3 displays the analysis of data that was collected from the pilgrims and they responded by using "Yes, No or Not Sure). The respondents had to respond on the visibility of tourism facilities and tourism products that are in the study area. In Figure 3, the respondents had to indicate by saying "Yes, No and Not sure" and the findings are reflected in the graph below.

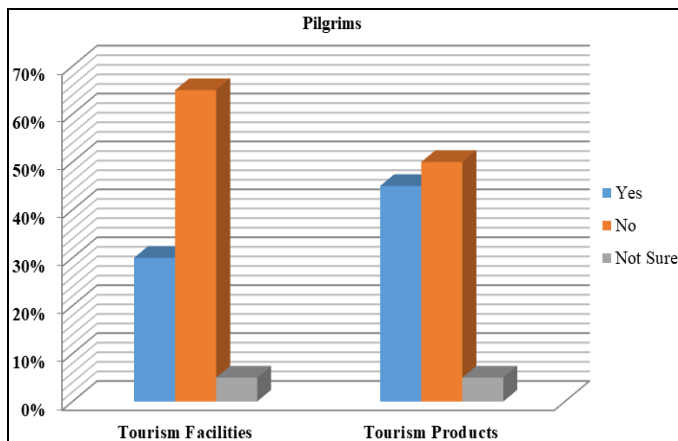


Figure 3. Visibility of tourism facilities and products

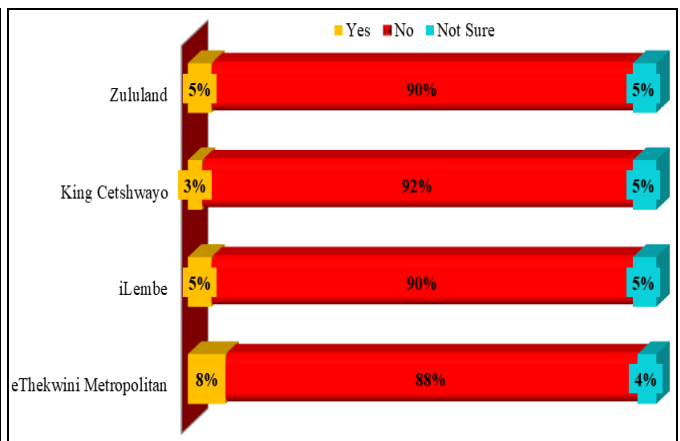


Figure 4. Inclusion of the potential of pilgrimage destinations in the IDPs

The response was 30% of the respondents acknowledged that there are tourism facilities 45% agreed that there are tourism products that area visible in the study area. The majority of the respondents indicate that there are no visible tourism facilities 65% and tourism products 50%. Only about 5% of the respondents are not sure whether the tourism facilities and tourism products exist in the study area. These findings reveal that the study area does not have the tourism facilities and tourism products or it is either that are not visible to the respondents. The data collected was analysed to provide insight into the research objectives as well as to the research questions which were discussed. Objective three: To establish a perception of local communities towards the potential of pilgrimages in enhancement of economic development within the study area. The correlated hypothesis indicated: That there is a perception of local communities towards the potential of pilgrimages in enhancement of economic development the study area. The respondents were provided with statements that allowed them to reveal their level/s of agreement and/or disagreement regarding the potential of pilgrimage destinations for enhancing economic development of the study area. Generally, the findings of the study revealed that the respondents agreed that African religious pilgrimages have the potential. The Table 3 has collapsed the 5point scale by adding the percentage the respondents who strongly agreed and those who agree (Agreed) and who are neutral and the respondents who disagreed strongly and disagreed (Disagreed). What is revealed in Table 3 is that the majority of the respondents identified the need to develop the study area. This shows that the majority of the respondents 80% agreed that there is a need to develop the African religious pilgrimages it is revealed in Table 3 below. About 10% disagreed that there is a need of development, 10% of the respondents remained neutral. It has been tabled in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Enhancement of economic development

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Total
There is a need to develop pilgrimage destinations within the study area.	45%	35%	5%	3%	7%	100%
The development of pilgrimages could enhance the economic status of the study area.	52%	37%	8%	1%	2%	100%
The pilgrimages have a potential in enhancing economic status of the study area.	57%	33%	6%	3%	1%	100%
Some people do not perceive the potential of economic enhancement in the religious pilgrimages.	65%	25%	7%	2%	1%	100%

This shows that the majority of the respondents 89% agreed that the development of the African religious pilgrimages could enhance the economic status of the study area. The results shown in Table 3 indicate that 8% of the respondents remained neutral about this matter, and about 3% of the respondents disagreed. The African religious pilgrimages have a potential in enhancing economic status, the majority of respondents 90% agreed, 6% remained neutral, then the least 4% disagreed.

Table 3 shows that with regard to the enhancement of economic development in the study area most of respondents 90% agreed that some people do not perceive the economic enhancement of the religious pilgrimages. Only about 7% of the respondents remained neutral and the minority 3% disagreed as shown in Table 3 above. In view of the response-rate as presented in Table 3, the study concludes that pilgrimage destinations have a potential for enhancing the economic status for the study area. The findings, therefore, corroborate the assertion made by Niezgoda (2011) that tourism activities including religious pilgrimages have been widely perceived as a strategy by which socio-economies of various regions could be enhanced. Objective four of the study sought to find out if the IDPs of the study area include the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development within the study area. In order to obtain relevant and credible data required to achieve this objective, Officials of the four district municipalities i.e. eThekweni Metropolitan, iLembe, King Cetshwayo, and Zululand were surveyed. The respondents were provided with options to express their views on the said question by stating their level of agreement, disagreement, or uncertainty using “yes”, “no” or “not sure” as shown in Figure 4.

The findings indicate that 5% of the total respondents within the Zululand District Municipality agreed that the IDPs include the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development. However, the majority (90%) of the respondents surveyed within the said municipality were of the view that the IDPs do not include the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development. Those who were not sure whether the IDPs include the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development or not were 5%. Those who agreed that the IDPs include the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development from King Cetshwayo District Municipality were 3%, whereas 92% of the total respondents held a contrary view. Those who were not sure in this regard accounted for 5%. At iLembe District Municipality, 5% of the total respondents affirmed that IDPs include the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development. Those who held an opposite view in this regard were 90%, while 5% of the total respondents were not sure whether the IDPs include the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development or not. At eThekweni Metropolitan, 8% of the total respondents agreed that whether the IDPs include the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development. A significant percentage (88%) of the total respondents disagreed with the said question, while 4% of the total respondents were not sure whether the IDPs include the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development or not. In line with the above findings, the study concludes that the potential of pilgrimage destinations for tourism development is not included in the IDPs of the study. The respondents were also provided with open ended questions which required them to express themselves regarding the issues that relate to the tourism development of the study area. Notes were taken during the interviews and transcripts written immediately thereafter to ensure the accuracy of data and facilitate the analysis process. All interviews were guided by interview guide/checklist of topics. The summary of responses to open ended question is presented in Table 5 below.

Table 5 Summary of responses to qualitative questions

Checklist of topics	Responses	Supporting sources
The tourism opportunities of African religious pilgrimages	African religious pilgrimages have excessive tourism opportunities for South Africa if they can be developed. These sites are visited by international tourists and are known worldwide. Tourism opportunities can be the developed for pilgrimage destinations, it could create job opportunities, tourism facilities, welfare and signage's etc. The sustainability of African religious pilgrimages can be the results of tourism development.	Bryce et al., (2013)
Need for tourism facilities and products on the routes of pilgrimages	There is a need for tourism facilities and tourism products because these pilgrimage destinations are visited by tourists and pilgrims who are coming from far. Other pilgrims visit these pilgrimage destinations with different health hitches, so they would need the place to stay during the visits.	Melian et al., (2016)
The IDPs for local municipalities with pilgrimage destinations	The IDPs would make these pilgrimage destination to be known and would benefit the tourism sector and the province at large.	ParthaSarathy (2006)
The tourists visit these pilgrimage destinations	The tourists are motivated by faith to participate in the resident trade by buying some souvenir or leaving some votive offering, which helps the reactivation of certain local craft activities	Fernández (2010)

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of the study was to explore the contribution of African religious pilgrimages towards tourism development of the study area. Moreover, conclusions were guided by the aims, objectives and findings of the study. Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that there is a need for tourism development for African religious pilgrimages and it has a potential to benefit the pilgrimage destinations and KZN province at large. Through a better understanding that there is a need for the development of the pilgrimage destinations and it could benefit the study area and the visitors. The findings of the study elucidate that there is also a need to create an awareness for the tourism development and this could be the contribution for the pilgrimage destination.

As such, the study recommends that there is a need for the municipality officials, pilgrims, the Roman Catholic Priests and Nazareth Baptist church Ecclesiastes to work together in devising the strategies that can create an awareness of the tourism development for these pilgrimage destinations. By creating these information sharing platforms, community members, priests and Ecclesiastes with limited understanding should see a need of these tourism development for the pilgrimage destinations. The tourism development would enhance the employment opportunities, the welfare, the increase number of tourists and the local revenue for these pilgrimage destinations. It also became clear from the findings of the study is the significance for the inclusion of the African religious pilgrimages could be the prerequisite to visit these sites and to be recognised. The development of tourism facilities and tourism products could create the employment opportunities and increase number of visitor to these pilgrimage destinations.

REFERENCES

- Abbate, C. & Nuovo S. (2013). Motivation and Personality Traits for Choosing Religious Tourism. A Research on the Case of Medjugorje. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 16, 501–506. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2012.749844>
- Amaro, S. Antunes, A. & Henriques, C. (2018). A Closer Look at Santiago de Compostela's Pilgrims through the Lens of Motivations. *Tourism Management*, 64, 271–280. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.09.007>
- Bond, N. Packer, J. & Ballantyne, R. (2014). Exploring Visitor Experiences, Activities and Benefits at Three Religious Tourism Sites. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 17, 471–81. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2014>
- Bremer, T. (2005). *Tourism and Religion*. In *Encyclopedia of Religion*. Edited by Lindsay Jones. Detroit: Macmillan, ISBN 9260–9264.
- Brouder, P. (2013). *Tourism development in peripheral areas: Processes of local innovation and change in Northern Sweden*. PhD thesis, Department of Tourism Studies and Geography, Mid-Sweden University, Östersund.
- Bryce, D., O'Gorman, K.D. & Baxter, I.W.F. (2013). Commerce, empire and faith in safaavid Iran: The Caravanserai of Isfahan. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(2), 204–226. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596111311301603>
- Collins-Kreiner, N. (2010). Researching pilgrimage: Continuity and transformations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(4), 440–456. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2009.10.016>
- Collins-Kreiner, N. (2018). Pilgrimage-Tourism: Common Themes in Different Religions. *International Journal of Religious Tourism and Pilgrimage*, 6(1), 8–17. <https://doi.org/10.21427/D73428>
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Los Angeles, SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing among Five Approaches*, 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, Sage.
- Drule, A. Băcilă, M. Ciornea, R. & Chis, A. (2015). Segmenting Visitors Encountered at Sacred Sites Based on Travelling Motivations and Constraints. *Current Science*, 109(2), 265–270.
- Fernández, A. (2010). El Santo Niño de Atocha: Patrimonio y Turismo Religioso. *Pasos*, [The Santo Niño de Atocha: Heritage and Religious Tourism. Steps, Magazine of Tourism and Cultural Heritage]. *Revistade Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, 8, 372–387.
- Hughes, K., Bond, N. & Ballantyne, B. (2013). Designing and Managing Interpretive Experiences at Religious Sites: Visitors' Perceptions of Canterbury Cathedral. *Tourism Management*, 36, 210–220. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.11.022>
- Jennings, G. (2010). *Tourism Research*. John Wiley & Sons Australia, LTD.
- Kaewumpai, I. (2018). The Influence of Personality on Tourist Behaviors: The Study of Motivations, Satisfaction, and Loyalty. *AU-GSB e-JOURNAL*, 10 (2), 54.
- Kim, B. & Kim, A. (2018). Hierarchical Value Map of Religious Tourists Visiting the Vatican City/Rome. *International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment*, 21(3), 529–550.
- Lacher, R.G. & Nepal, S.K., (2010). From leakages to linkages: Local-level strategies for capturing tourism revenue in Northern Thailand. *Tourism Geographies*, 12, 77–99. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616680903493654>
- Mamabolo, M.A., Kerrin, M. & Kele, T. (2017). Entrepreneurship management skills requirements in an emerging economy: A South African outlook', Southern African. *Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management*, 9(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajesbm.v9i1.111>
- Melian, A.G., Prats, L. & Coromina, L. (2016). The perceived value of accessibility in religious sites-do disabled travellers behave differently? *Tourism Review*, 71(2) 105–117.
- Mertens, D.M. (2014). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods*. 4th ed. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.
- Morgan, D. L. (2014a). *Integrating Qualitative and Quantitative Methods: A Pragmatic Approach*. Thousand Oaks, Sage.
- Nel, E. & Binns, T. (2001). Initiating 'Developmental Local Government' in South Africa: Evolving Local Economic Development Policy, *Regional Studies*, 35(4), 355–362. <https://doi.org/10.1080/713693816>
- Nkwanyana, M.S., Ezeuduji, I.O., & Nzama, A.T. (2016). Cultural heritage tourism in South Africa: Perceived a panacea for rural development? *Acta Universitatis Danubius Oeconomica*, 12(6), 160–167.
- Ntshangase, S.D. & Ezeuduji, I.O. (2019). The attributes of successful tourism-related entrepreneurs: a case from South Africa. *EuroEconomica*, 38(2), 273–282.
- Ntshangase, S.D. & Ezeuduji, I.O. (2020). Profiling entrepreneurial attributes based on the level of formal education: The case of Mtubatuba Local Municipality in South Africa. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 31(3), 944–950. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.31302-525>
- Nazarites. (2016). *The festival of God-Home for all AmaNazeretha*. Available at: http://www.nazarites.org.za/20160709_the-festivals-of-god.html
- Niezgodą, A. (2011). Badanie opinii mieszkańców Poznania dotyczących rozwoju funkcji turystycznej (Survey on Poznań residents' attitudes on tourism development – in Polish). In: Gołembski, G. editor, *Sposoby mierzenia i uwarunkowania rozwoju funkcji turystycznej miasta*, Poznań: Wydawnictwo UE w Poznaniu, 37 (37), 7–23. [Ways of measuring and conditioning the development of the tourist function cities, Poznań: UE Publishing House in Poznań], 37(37), 7–23. <http://doi.org/10.1515/bog-2017-0021>
- Nyaupane, G. Timothy, D. & Poudel, S., (2015). Understanding Tourists in Religious Destinations: A Social Distance Perspective. *Tourism Management*, 48, 343–353. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.12.009>
- Olsen, D. (2013). A Scalar Comparison of Motivations and Expectations of Experience within the Religious Tourism Market. *International Journal of Religious Tourism and Pilgrimage* 1 (1), 5.
- ParthaSarathy, V.A. (2006). *Religious Tourism and Pilgrimage Festivals Management: an international perspective*. Nosworthy Way Wallingford Oxfordshire, UK.
- Ramírez, R. & Fernández, M. (2018). Religious Experiences of Travellers Visiting the Royal Monastery of Santa María de Guadalupe (Spain). *Sustainability*, 10(6), 1–19.
- Robles, J. (2001). Turismo Religioso. Alternativa de Apoyo a la Preservación del Patrimonio y Desarrollo. *Revista Bibliográfica de Geografía y Ciencias Sociales*. [Religious Tourism. Alternative to Support Heritage Preservation and development]. *Bibliographic Journal of Geography and Social Sciences*, 6(636), 1–6.
- Rogerson, C.M., & Lisa, Z. (2005). Shot left: Promoting domestic tourism in South Africa. *Urban Forum*, 16(2), 88–111. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12132-005-1001-0>
- Saarienen, J. (2003). The regional economics of tourism in Northern Finland: *The socioeconomic implications of recent tourism development and future possibilities for regional development*. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 3(2), 91–113. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250310001927>
- Saarienen, J. (2014). Critical sustainability: *Setting the limits to growth and responsibility in tourism*. *Sustainability*, 6 (1), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su6010001>
- Shinde, K.A. & Pinkney, A.M. (2013): Shirdi in Transition: Guru Devotion, Urbanisation and Regional Pluralism in India South Asia, *Journal of South Asian Studies*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00856401.2012.726605>
- Sithole, N. (2015). Decolonising the world: Themba Masinga and his religious poetry in Ibandla LamaNazareth. *Religion*, 45(2), 191–208.
- Taherdoost, H. (2016). Sampling Methods in Research Methodology; How to Choose a Sampling Technique for Research. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management (IJARM)*, 5(2), 18–27. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3205035>
- Telfer, D.J. (2002). Tourism and regional development issues. In Sharpley, R. and Telfer, D. (Eds.), *Tourism and development: Concepts and issues*. Channel View, Clevedon. 112–48. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-06660-47>
- Terzidou, M. Scarles, C. & Saunders, M. (2018). The Complexities of Religious Tourism Motivations: Sacred Places, Vows and Visions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 70, 54–65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2018.02.011>
- Tirca, A. & Stanculescu, G. (2011). Managing the Religious Tourism Experience in Romanian Christian Orthodoxy. *International Journal of Business and Globalisation*, 7(1), 40–63. <https://ideas.repec.org/a/ids/ijbglo/v7y2011i1p40-63.html>
- Wang, W., Chen, J. & Huang, K. (2016). Religious Tourist Motivation in Buddhist Mountain: The Case from China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(1), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2015.1016443>
- *** National Department of Tourism (2012). *National Heritage and Cultural Tourism Strategy*. March 2012. Internet: <http://www.tourism.gov.za/currentProjects/HeritageandCulture/Heritage>. Accessed on 25 January 2020.

DETERMINANTS OF OUTBOUND MEDICAL TOURISM: IMPLICATIONS FOR SERVICE MARKETING AND DEVELOPMENT

Felix John EZE

University of Calabar, Department of Marketing, Nigeria, e-mail: ezeefelixjohn@unical.edu.ng

Juliet John INYANG*

University of Calabar, Department of Marketing, Nigeria, e-mail: julijohn@unical.edu.ng

Nina Valentine ORJI

University of Calabar, Department of Marketing, Nigeria, e-mail: ninaorji26@gmail.com

Citation: Eze, F.J., Inyang, J.J., & ORJI, N.V. (2020). DETERMINANTS OF OUTBOUND MEDICAL TOURISM: IMPLICATIONS FOR SERVICE MARKETING AND DEVELOPMENT. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1507–1512. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl09-600>

Abstract: This study examined the demand factors responsible for outbound medical tourism to India, South-Africa and Germany. The demand factors included medical tourist attitude, medical destination competitiveness, medical service cost and medical service quality. Using snowball sampling, 138 medical tourists were surveyed with the aid of a self-administered 24-item 5-point scale questionnaire. The data obtained were analyzed using multiple regression analysis. The findings of the study were that tourist attitude has no significant influence on outbound medical tourism; Medical destination competitiveness significantly influences outbound medical tourism negatively; whereas, medical service cost and medical service quality significantly influence outbound medical tourism positively.

Key words: medical tourism, tourist attitude, destination competitiveness, service cost, service quality.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Medical tourism is considered as a trip outside an individual's place of residence for the purpose of receiving medical treatment, diagnosis, or therapy; the tourists making use of the destination's infrastructure, attractions and facilities (Smith and Pucsko, 2014). Over the years, people of developed and developing countries like Nigeria visit medical destination countries around the world for medical treatments dominant in cosmetic surgery treatment, weight loss treatment, dental treatment, fertility treatment, cardiovascular treatment, cancer treatment, orthopedic treatment and others. However, the most commonly and sought after treatments for patients in Nigeria, that make most outbound medical tours include treatment for cosmetic surgery, orthopedic treatment, cancer treatment as well as fertility treatment, which can't be satisfactorily rendered and received in their home country as a result of lengthy waiting time to get medical services in their home country, reduced service quality, high expenses and lack of medical insurance, or underinsurance (Ile and Tigu, 2017).

In addition to the quality health services which Nigeria medical tourists seek, health tourism or medical tourism may include other facilities like better accommodation, shopping and sometimes recreational arrangements. The quest for better medical care has dramatically increased in recent times. This has consequently heightened the demand for medical tourism among most Nigerians. Abubakar et al. (2018) stated that 47% of Nigerians visiting India in the year 2012 did so to get medical attention, while the remaining 53% did so for other reasons. The 47% of Nigerians who visited India for medical purposes amounted to 18,000 persons and they expended \$260 million in scarce foreign exchange in the process. This trend signifies that there are potent reasons for embarking on medical tourism. According to Makinde (2016) thousands of Nigerians travel abroad each year to seek medical treatment mainly because the nation's health care system remains poorly funded. He also attributed the cause of medical tourism to poverty and lack of universal health coverage.

The practice of moving to other countries to receive high tech medical services are hinged on diverse range of motivators of which developing countries like Nigeria can take advantage of if it wants to achieve its goal of becoming a major medical tourism destination in Africa and the world at large. Thus it is essential to learn the factors that play the major role in consumer demand for medical tourism in order to succeed in this industry from the point of view of medical or health tourists.

Nigeria is undoubtedly one of the biggest sufferers from medical tourism in the world. Factors like inadequate medical equipment, inadequate service personnel, and also inadequate infrastructures (to mention a few) have greatly contributed to the abysmal state of Nigeria's healthcare sector, and this has in turn made people lose confidence in the sector. This lack of confidence in the healthcare sector has further led to the increase of Nigerians with life threatening ailments travelling abroad in search of better medical treatment and care. The demand factors are those factors in the health and economic environment that propel people with medical condition to seek remedies outside their countries. Factors such as: tourist attitude, destination competitiveness, service cost and service quality have been associated with the reasons why people with medical needs travel for remedies. In the case of Nigeria outbound tourism, the level of information on this subject is scanty. There is yet no agreement among practitioners and researchers on the demand factors that drive medical choice of destination.

It is in view of the aforementioned that the researcher is motivated to study the correlates between demand factors of Nigeria outbound medical tourists and their destination selection preferences. The specific objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To examine the effect of attitudes on Nigerian's propensity to participate in outbound medical tourism;
2. To explore the influence of medical destination competitiveness on the propensity of Nigerians to participate in outbound medical tourism;
3. To determine the effect of destination health service cost on the propensity to participate in outbound medical tourism; and
4. To investigate the effect of destination service quality on the propensity to participate in outbound medical tourism.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The study is based on the Means-End Chain theory and Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. These theories form strong

* Corresponding author

foundations to understanding tourist motives (Jiang et al., 2018). The Means-End Chain (MEC) theory posits that motivation can be studied to reveal the underlying reasons why certain attributes or expected consequences are desired. Means-End theory has been widely used in the marketing literature to identify values-based motivations behind consumption (Arsil et al., 2016). Means-End Chain theory is based on a model of consumers' cognitive structures, depicting the way in which concrete product characteristics are linked to valued end states desired by consumers. The theory focuses on the linkages among the attributes that exist in products (the means), the consequences for the consumer provided by the attributes, and the personal values (the ends) the consequences reinforce (Lin et al., 2018). The theory assumes that behavior is value-driven, whereby a consumer's personal values ultimately influence their product choices (Jeng and Yeh, 2016).

Means-End Chain theory is particularly useful for understanding personal values, and has relevant and potential application in tourism research to study tourist behavior (Jeng and Yeh, 2016). Application of the Means-End Chain theory in a tourism and leisure context has predominantly focused on understanding tourist behavior in terms of destination choice for medical tourism. The Means-End Chain is a useful method and theory that can be applied to understand the subtleties of tourists' behavior and salient dimensions in their thinking. This is important for recognizing the unique values and agendas that tourists bring with them into a tourism encounter and how these agendas may affect the nature of their resultant behavior or the experiences and satisfaction they gain (Jiang et al., 2018). The MEC theory is applicable to this study because medical tourists' behavior is value-driven, such that their personal values underpin by the following destination attributes (the need for a healthy living, self-esteem and individual prestige) ultimately influence their medical tourism destination choices.

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a motivational theory in psychology comprising a five-tier model of human needs, often depicted as hierarchical levels within a pyramid. Needs lower down in the hierarchy must be satisfied before individuals can attend to needs higher up. From the bottom of the hierarchy upwards, the needs are: physiological, safety, love and belonging, esteem and self-actualization. Kapoor (2017) stated that people are motivated to achieve certain needs and that some needs take precedence over others. Our most basic need is for physical survival, and this will be the first thing that motivates our behavior.

Once that level is fulfilled the next level up is what motivates us, and so on. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is one of the fundamental theories that explain travel motives of tourists. For instance, the need for good health plays a major role in the travel decisions of individuals. This is tandem to the safety needs of Maslow's needs hierarchy (Setiawan, 2018). The social needs of Maslow's theory motivate the tourists to have holidays while away on medical tourism. Maslow's higher order needs such as social esteem and self-actualization fulfill the psychological aspects of the travelers. Tourists who engage in medical tourism have the tendency or urge to fulfill their social esteem needs by traveling abroad for medical purposes even when these treatments are available in their home country (Carvache-Franco et al., 2019). Hence, Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory helps to explain the intrinsic motivations of tourists; it also helps us understand medical tourists' attitude; and to unravel the actual motive for engaging in medical tourism.

The medical tourism concept

The World Tourism Organization in accordance with tourism segment classification identifies "medical treatment/health" as a major reason for travel and tourism. Medical tourism is an aspect of health tourism. It is often called medical travel because it includes the act of travelling to different countries for medical reasons (Ile and Tigu, 2017).

In general, medical tourism is considered as a trip outside a person's place of residence for the purpose of receiving a medical treatment, investigation or therapy, the tourists making use of destination's infrastructure, attractions and facilities (Smith and Puczko, 2014). There are various definitions of medical tourism, but the most recent definition by Fetscherin and Stephano (2016) implies that medical tourism is a form of health tourism, together with wellness tourism. The difference between the two forms of health tourism is in the fact that medical tourism implies existence of a medical distress, that needs to be investigated, diagnosed and treated by medical procedures, being considered a reactive form of a health tourism, while wellness tourism is a proactive one, implying preventing or maintaining health using alternative procedures, without implying specialized clinics, specialized medical personnel or invasive procedures (Fetscherin and Stephano 2016).

Tourist attitude towards medical tourism

In the tourism industry, customer or tourist attitude towards any destination is very important for its success. It may vary from person to person. This can be different on certain aspects like, customer group, age, gender, income, family structure, race, culture, social class and ethnicity. Food, clothes, politics and religion are crucial factors for human attitudes. Attitude can be defined as individuals' evaluation of feelings and tendencies toward an object or an idea. It is attitude which affects people to like or dislike something or to move towards or away from that (Jing, 2017). In medical tourism, Kuranchie-Mensah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2016) stated that the intrinsic motivation approach recognized that individuals have unique personal needs that stimulate or arouse them to pursue tourism (the desires to satisfy individual or internal needs – self-improvement, self-realization, or achieve state of happiness, and ego-enhancement). In contrast, the extrinsic motivation approach examines the broader conditioning factors that shape individuals' attitudes, preferences and perceptions, but are more externally determined (the society and the culture one lives in). Murayama (2018) suggested that the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation must be considered because travelers are variously motivated by intrinsic, self-satisfying goals and at other times are motivated by extrinsic socially controlled rewards (e.g. other's opinions). Hence, a change in tourist attitude can affect the medical destination choice.

Destination competitiveness for medical tourism

A desired destination of medical tourism should be a kind of product containing central rewards like commercial infrastructure and environmental factors. Comparative advantage of the destination may involve climate, surroundings, flora and fauna, while destination competing advantage may relate to attributes such as health and medical care areas, heritage/ historic attractions, events, transport sites, government policy, the actual quality of management and skills of workers (Al-Amin et al., 2011). The World Economic Forum defined the most aggressive location, as one that is liable to bring finest success; that arranges a surrounding which is the most suitable place for the residents for a certain schedule (Calderwood and Soshkin, 2019). Hence, competitiveness of a destination for medical tourism has to last besides, being simply affordable. In addition it should be socially, culturally, politically and environmentally sound and friendly. For that reason, it is always suggested that the most acceptable desired destination could be the one where medical tourists get a friendly environment. For example, India has achieved a desirable position in medical tourism because of its adaptability with the changing world demand for healthcare and its greater competitiveness (Datta, 2020). Singapore, Malaysia, Bulgaria and Cuba are also moving in this globalized industry very aggressively. However, it is not possible to highlight only one country as the greatest competitor in the field of medical tourism (Kiper, 2013).

Service cost of medical tourism

Consumers are very sensitive regarding the cost of any product or service. This is true for all types of customers especially price sensitive customers. Price of any product or service is a key element to determine the level of satisfaction of any customer (Hosseini, 2010). It should

not exceed the expectation of customers. The competitiveness of any product or service largely depends on the total cost to obtain it. It may include, actual price of the product, transportation or installation cost, physical cost or hard work expended and social cost involved like getting appreciation or criticisms from others as well as opportunity costs to ignore other products (Crooks et al., 2011).

In the sector of tourism, a destination can be attractive to its tourists only when the costs of getting services are reasonable. There can be some exceptional cases but cost affect tourist choice and satisfaction. It involves certain types of expenditures like, accommodation cost, transportation cost, food cost, and other entertainment cost (Roy et al., 2017). Therefore, in medical tourism cost of medical service or fees, cost of accommodation, cost of food and transportation cost are vital issues for measuring the attractiveness of a destination.

Service quality of medical tourism

Medical tourists focus greatly on the service quality provided by the destination country. Thus the destination country must fulfill the expectations of the medical tourists through quality service and performance (Jiang, 2018). Quality improvement and its potentiality in travel and tourism services are very difficult to implement as it involves people from different countries with different cultural background and demands (Sultana et al., 2014). However, companies can improve service quality by lowering distribution costs and enhancing the service provided. In medical tourism if any country can provide quality healthcare services at low cost then it will definitely attract the world. In this sector meaning of quality service is a vast issue. It involves the quality of healthcare center as well as the doctors and other staffs (Sultana et al., 2014). However, healthcare is actually a very individual and critical service and it is not an easy task to define its quality.

Generally, service quality attributes outlined by (Pakurár et al., 2019) include tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, empathy and assurance. Service quality in medical tourism can be measured by the following five dimensions:

- i. Tangibles-Appearance of physical medical, equipment, personnel, and communication materials;
- ii. Reliability-Ability of medical personnel to perform the promised service dependably and accurately;
- iii. Responsiveness-Willingness of medical personnel or facilitator to help medical tourists and provide prompt service;
- iv. Assurance-Knowledge and courtesy of medical employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence;
- v. Empathy-Caring, individualized attention the medical destination provides its tourists.

Empirical Review

Kim et al. (2019) conducted a research to analyze the factors that determine the motivation and behaviour of potential medical tourists on destination choice, with particular emphasis on the role played by destination image in the case of South Korea and Thailand. The study primarily collected data from an online survey of potential medical tourists, complemented with data from a hardcopy written survey. From the data analysis, the study found that individuals who are more inclined to undertake medical tourism are those who: (i) have an internal health locus of control; (ii) consider the cost of health-care services in their home countries to be financially unaffordable; and (iii) consider that the waiting time to receive desired treatment in their home countries is too long. The study also finds that there is a negative relationship between the information-search behavior of potential medical tourists and their familiarity with medical procedures and/or alternative destinations. In contrast, perceptions of risk, which might have been expected to have a positive effect on external information search, is not found to exert an influence in the study. Notably, the study also finds that prospective medical tourists are particularly motivated to consider four destination attributes in choosing a medical tourism destination: saving potential; quality of care; hygiene issues; and safety/security.

A research by Sultana et al. (2014) on the factors influencing the attractiveness of India as a health tourism destination found the major contributing factors and their relative importance in the attractiveness of the health tourism destination from consumers' perspectives by conducting survey with an application of structural equation modeling approach. The result revealed that in Indian context, medical tourists consider service quality and cost mostly in selecting any medical destination. In addition they also give value to the destination competitiveness but tourist attitude is less important in comparison with other factors affecting their destination choice. Their research concluded that in order to transform a country such as India into an attractive and competitive medical tourist destination in this time of globalization, a step should be taken to control cost ensuring the quality of services.

Lajevardi (2016) developed a theoretical structural model to examine the influence of motivational factor and perceived destination image on the perceived service quality and overall satisfaction of medical tourists. Factors studied included, destination image, quality, value, and satisfaction which occurred after the medical tourists have travelled to a foreign country to obtain a medical treatment. The study used 260 medical tourists who were surveyed via Qualtrics, an online survey research platform. After data collection was completed, Confirmatory Factor Analysis and SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) were used to analyze and interpret the result. The results show that destination image, motivational factor, perceived value and perceived quality positively influenced tourist overall satisfaction. Again, destination image had the strongest impact on perceived quality. Haarhoff and Mokoena (2017) carried out an exploratory study to investigate possible penetration into the South African medical travel market in order to advance expansion of the market by medical tourism facilitators (MTF). The study surveyed individuals who have made an appointment with a registered plastic surgeon. However, it was impossible to pre-determine the precise number of the population. A qualitative methodology was used to collect data anonymously from 236 voluntary respondents in the surgeon's waiting rooms after their consent was obtained. The results indicate that cosmetic tourists come from all over South Africa due to the attractive tourist packages offered by MTFs. The majority were females and they organized the leisure component themselves. Ile and Tigu (2017) studied scientific literature to find new medical tourism trends in connection with globalization and liberalization. They found that countries that decide to promote this niche tourism are aware of the huge economic benefits brought by this. Analyzing published secondary data by tourism medical organizations associated to indicators of economic development, they also found two interesting phenomenon; the success of a medical tourism destination is influenced by the economic growth level of the receiving countries, but, at the same time, it is also a growth factor for developing economies if it is included in their national strategy.

From far-reaching review of related literature, a conceptual framework of the study is presented in Figure 1. The conceptual model expresses the following four null hypotheses:

1. Tourists' attitudes have no significant effect on their propensity to participate in outbound medical tourism.
2. Medical destination competitiveness has no significant influence on the propensity to participate in outbound medical tourism.
3. Destination health service cost does not significantly affect the propensity to participate in outbound medical tourism.
4. Destination service quality does not significantly affect the propensity to participate in outbound medical tourism

METHODOLOGY

The study employed cross-sectional survey design. The population of the study comprised individuals who have expressed interest in medical tourism. This population is unknown, hence, the Topman Formula was used to arrive at a sample of 138 respondents using an error

margin of 5% (0.05). In selecting this sample snowballing sampling technique was employed as the sample elements were accessed through referrals from travel agents and medical practitioners/health care providers. The data for the execution of this study were mainly obtained from primary source through the use of a self-administered 24-item 5-point Likert scale questionnaire. Content-validation was used for the instrument validity, while Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was used to confirm the reliability after carrying out a pilot survey on 30 medical tourists in Calabar, in Southern Nigeria. This location was selected for the pilot study because Calabar is popularly known as the tourism hub of Nigeria. The Cronbach's alpha score for the five constructs are: Medical tourist attitude = 0.705, Medical destination competitiveness = 0.792, Treatment service cost = 0.714, Medical service quality = 0.853 and Medical tourism participation = 0.744. Data analysis technique employed was the multiple linear regression because it ascertains the causal relationship between the dependent (propensity to participate in medical tourism) and independent variables (medical tourist attitude, medical destination competitiveness, treatment service cost and medical service quality). This analysis was computed electronically with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Science version 23.

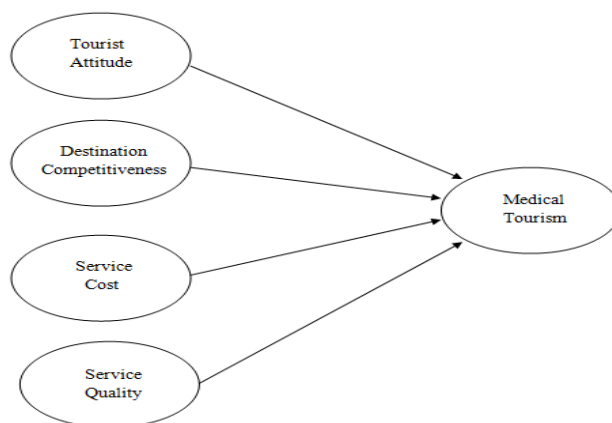


Figure 1. Conceptual model of factors influencing outbound medical tourism in Nigeria (Source: Adapted from Sultana et al., 2014)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 138 copies of questionnaire were distributed, 129 were completed and returned, while 9 copies of the questionnaire were not returned. The regression tables (Table 1, 2 and 3) show the demand factors (tourists' attitude, medical destination competitiveness, medical service cost, and medical service quality) being evaluated for its ability to influence outbound medical tourism by Nigerians. Table 1 which is the model summary reveals that the relationship between both variables is 44.4% (as seen in the R column). The R^2 value (0.197) signifies that up to 19.7% of outbound medical tourism is caused by the demand factors when other variables are held constant. This relationship is quite low, but significant. This indicates that the model has a low fit in estimating the population mean, that is, there are factors that are not added in this model. The F-test (7.610, $p < 0.05$) of the relationship in Table 2 indicates that the overall prediction of the independent variable to the dependent variable is statistically significant, therefore, the regression model provides sufficient evidence to conclude that the demand factors significantly influence participation in outbound medical tourism. Table 3 is the coefficients table, which provides the necessary information on the capability of each demand factor to predict participation in outbound medical tourism. From the table it can be seen that not all the four variables (tourists' attitude, medical destination competitiveness, medical service cost, and medical service quality) significantly influence participation in outbound medical tourism. From the table it can be seen that medical tourist attitude has no significant influence on participation in outbound medical tourism ($p > 0.05$); medical destination competitiveness negatively affects participation in outbound medical tourism ($p < 0.05$; $t = -2.007$); medical service cost positively influence participation in outbound medical tourism ($p < 0.05$; $t = 2.606$); and medical service quality positively influence participation in outbound medical tourism ($p < 0.05$; $t = 4.672$). Additionally, the standardized beta coefficient column in Table 3 shows the individual contributions of each of the variables to the model. It can be seen that with a beta coefficient of 0.592 (59.2 percent) medical service quality makes the highest and most positive contribution to the model. This is followed by medical destination competitiveness (with beta coefficient of 0.226). Next is medical service cost which contributes 22.3% to the model. The least contributing factor is the medical tourist attitude with a beta coefficient of 0.088 (that is 8.8 percent).

Table 1. Model summary of the effect of demand factors on Nigerians' participation in outbound medical tourism

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.444 ^a	.197	.171	1.786

a. Predictors: (Constant), SERVICE QUALITY, SERVICE COST, MEDICAL TOURIST ATTITUDE, DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

Table 2. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the effect of demand factors on Nigerians' participation in outbound medical tourism

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	97.138	4	24.285	7.610	.000 ^b
	Residual	395.699	124	3.191		
	Total	492.837	128			

a. Dependent Variable: MEDICAL TOURIST PARTICIPATION

b. Predictors: (Constant), SERVICE QUALITY, SERVICE COST, MEDICAL TOURIST ATTITUDE, DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

Table 3. Coefficients for the effect of demand factors on Nigerians' participation in outbound medical tourism

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.994	2.211		3.163	.002
	MEDICAL TOURIST ATTITUDE	-.088	.096	-.088	-.922	.358
	DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS	-.242	.121	-.226	-2.007	.047
	SERVICE COST	.156	.060	.223	2.606	.010
	SERVICE QUALITY	.747	.160	.592	4.672	.000

a. Dependent Variable: MEDICAL TOURIST PARTICIPATION

The bivariate relationships between the variable combinations can be visualized from the scatterplot matrix displayed in Figure 2. Each scatter plot in the matrix visualizes the relationship between a pair of variables, allowing many relationships to be explored in one chart. As seen from the matrix, the data points in the scatterplot for service quality against tourist attitude, destination competitiveness and medical tourist participation are tightly clustered along the imaginary line. The correlation statistics revealed that service quality correlated significantly with tourist attitude (42.8%), destination competitiveness (62.6%) and tourist participation (37.6%). These show that as service quality increases, the tourist attitude towards outbound medical tourism becomes more positive, the tourist perception of destination competitiveness increases and ultimately, they are more likely to participate in outbound medical tourism.

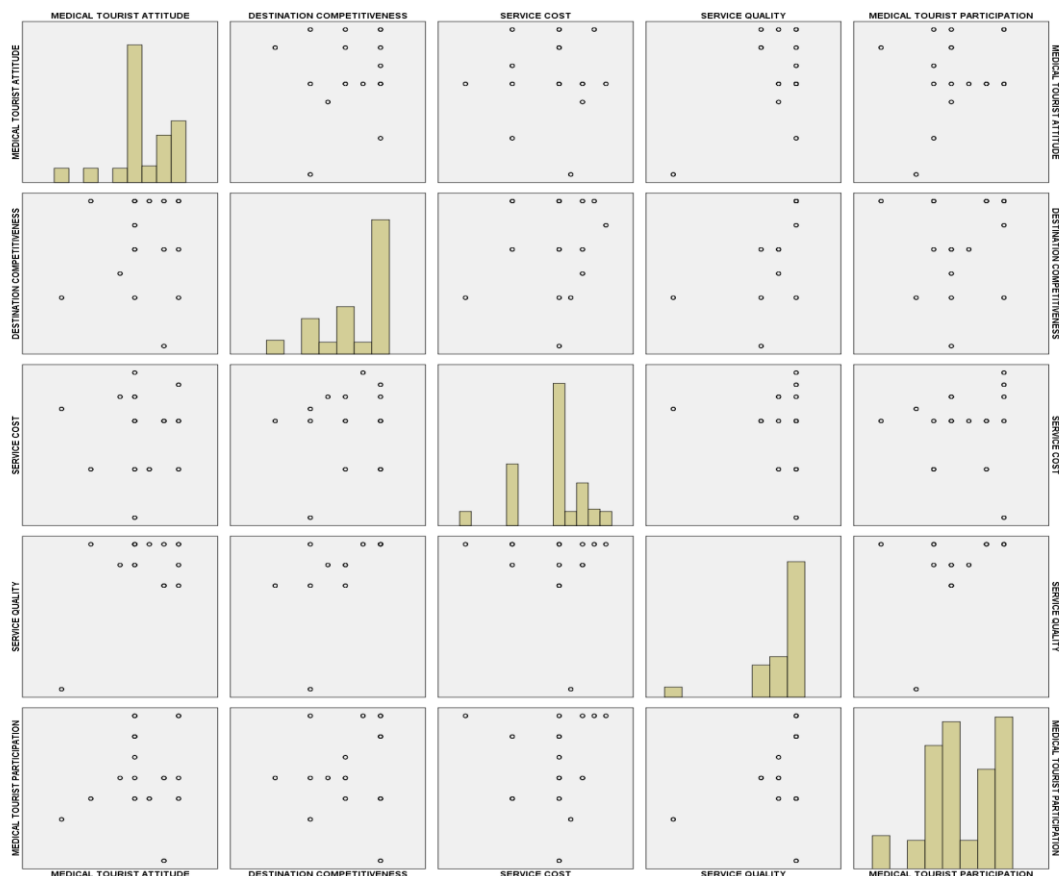


Figure 2. Scatterplot Matrix (SPLOM) Chart showing correlations among variables

From the result of the analysis, we accept the first null hypothesis and reject the second, third and fourth null hypotheses. The results are summarized as follows:

1. Tourist attitude has no significant influence on outbound medical tourism participation.
2. Medical destination competitiveness significantly influences outbound medical tourism negatively.
3. Medical service cost significantly influence outbound medical tourism positively.
4. Medical service quality significantly influences outbound medical tourism positively.

The result of the first hypothesis reveals that medical tourist attitude has no significant influence on outbound medical tourism. The finding is in harmony with that of Sultana et al. (2014) whose study though carried out in India revealed that tourist attitude is less important in comparison with other factors (service quality, cost and destination competitiveness) affecting their destination choice. This proves that universally, tourist attitude plays little or no role in an individual's participation in outbound medical tourism. This is likely due to the fact that medical tourism is very different from the general tourism as it is backed by a strong reason- health concern of the tourist. Hence, an attitude such as willingness to show off social status is inconsequential in medical tourism. This finding is true because medical tourists actually engage in medical tourism as a result of recommendation from health service providers. Their main reason for visiting medical destination is to obtain treatment which is a necessity; hence their attitude has an insignificant effect on their propensity to participate in medical tourism. From the test of hypothesis two it is seen that medical destination competitiveness significantly influences outbound medical tourism negatively. This result is backed by the research finding of Lajevardi (2016) whose study showed that medical tourists' perceptions are based on motivational factors, destination image, quality, value, and satisfaction which occurred after the medical trips. His work further revealed that destination image had the strongest impact on perceived quality. When a medical tourist perceives that the destination is very competitive in terms of its tourist appeal and attractiveness, he or she will be more willing to participate in medical tourism. Hence, destination competitiveness affects participation in outbound medical tourism.

Hypothesis three reveals that medical service cost significantly influences outbound medical tourism positively. This finding is at par with that of Kim et al. (2019) who analyzed the factors that determine the motivation and behavior of potential medical tourists on destination choice, with particular emphasis on the role played by destination image in the case of Thailand. Individuals who are more inclined to undertake medical tourism are those who consider the cost of health-care services in their home countries to be financially unaffordable (Ushakov et al., 2019). It thus can be gleaned that medical cost encourages participation in outbound medical tourism. However, in the Nigerian situation, medical tourists do not consider the cost of treatment to be unaffordable. They rather consider the cost of treatment abroad to be commensurate with the quality of treatment received. Finally, the result of the hypothesis test showed that medical service quality significantly influences outbound medical tourism positively. Again, this finding is in agreement with that of Jotikasthira

(2010) who noted that prospective medical tourists are particularly motivated to consider four destination attributes in choosing a medical-tourism destination- saving potential; quality of care; hygiene issues. To further buttress this finding, the study by Sultana et al. (2014) revealed that in Indian context, medical tourists consider service quality and cost mostly in selecting any medical destination.

CONCLUSION

This study concludes that medical tourists are propelled to engage in medical tourism by certain demand factors which include medical cost, medical service quality and destination competitiveness. These factors will continue to appeal to tourist who can obtain them abroad. In other words, any country or destination offering medical tourism appealing features such as low cost, high service quality and attractive sites will keep reaping the dividends of medical tourism. The reverse is the case for countries that do not take these factors to be of utmost importance in their medical system.

In line with the research findings of this paper, the following recommendations are proffered:

1. The competitiveness of Nigeria as a medical destination could be enhanced by the acquisition of state-of-the art medical facilities which would appeal to patients and aid the recuperation process.
2. The cost of treatment in Nigerian hospitals should be commensurate with the quality of treatment received. Patient should feel that they get value for their money. This can be achieved by adding ancillary services such as an exercise routine for patients.
3. The quality of medical services in Nigeria should be beefed up. Care givers should provide personalized attention to individual patient. When sincere personal interest in patients is displayed, there would be less reason to travel out for minor treatments.
4. Since medical tourism industry has been acknowledged to be a lucrative sector resulting in huge amount being spent for treatment outside the shores of the nation, it is necessary to reduce this trend. This paper has x-rayed some of the determinants responsible for this trend.

REFERENCES

- Abubakar, M., Basiru, S., Oluyemi, J., Abdulateef, R., Atolagbe, E., Adejoke, J. & Kadiri, K. (2018). Medical Tourism in Nigeria: Challenges and Remedies to Health Care System Development. *International Journal of Development and Management Review*, 13(1), 223-238.
- Al-Amin, M., Makarem, S.C., & Pradhan, R. (2011). Hospital ability to attract international patients: a conceptual framework. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Health Market*, 5(3), 205–221. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17506121111172211>
- Arsil, P., Li, E. & Bruwer, J. (2016). Using means-end chain analysis to reveal consumers' motivation for buying local foods: An exploratory study. *Gadjah Mada International Journal of Business*, 18(3), 285-300. <https://doi.org/10.22146/gamaijb.16900>
- Calderwood, L.U., & Soshkin, M. (2019). *The travel & tourism competitiveness report 2019: Travel and tourism at a tipping point*. World Economic Forum, Geneva, Switzerland, pp. 1-63.
- Carvache-Franco, M., Segarra-Oña, M., & Carrascosa-López, C. (2019). Motivations analysis in ecotourism through an empirical application: Segmentation, characteristics and motivations of the consumer. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 24(1), 60–73. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.24106-343>
- Crooks, V.A., Turner, L., Snyder, J., Johnston, R. & Kingsbury, P. (2011). Promoting medical tourism to India: Messages, images, and the marketing of international patient travel. *Social Science Medicine*, 72(5), 726-732. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2010.12.022>
- Datta, B. (2020). Factors affecting the satisfaction level of medical tourists: a case study of Delhi national capital region. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 29(2), 628–635. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.29219-494>
- Fetscherin, M., & Stephano, R.M. (2016). The medical tourism index: Scale development and validation. *Tourism Management*, 52, 539-556. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.08.010>
- Haarhoff, R. & Mokoena, L.G. (2017). The market place of medical tourism facilitators in South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(3), 1-17.
- Hosseini, H. (2010). Strategies to contain the high and rising costs of health: Will they increase existing health care disparities and are they ethical? *Humanomics*, 26(2), 112-123. <https://doi.org/10.1108/08288661011074918>
- Ile, F.L. & Țigu, G. (2017). *Medical tourism market trends - an exploratory research*. Proceedings of the 11th International Conference on Business Excellence held at Bucharest, Romania, 1111-1121. <https://doi.org/10.1515/picbe-2017-0114>
- Jeng, M. & Yeh, T. (2016). The effect of consumer values on the brand position of green restaurants by means-end chain and laddering interviews. *Service Business*, 10, 223–238. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11628-015-0266-1>
- Jiang, S., Scott, N. & Ding, P. (2018). Motivations of experienced leisure travellers: A means-end chain study on the Chinese outbound market. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 25(2), 225-238. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766718763694>
- Jing, W., Xiang, Y. & Lei, M. (2017). The deeper the love, the deeper the hate. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, 19-40. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01940>
- Jotikasthira, N. (2010). Salient factors influencing medical tourism destination choice. DBA thesis, Southern Cross University, Lismore, NSW.
- Kapoor, R. (2017). Viewing life of senior citizen convicts in Tihar from the lens of gerontological theories. *Sociology and Criminology*, 5(2), 1-5. <https://doi.org/10.4172/2375-4435.1000170>
- Kim, S., Arcodia, C., & Kim, I. (2019). Critical success factors of medical tourism: The case of South Korea. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(24), 2-15. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16244964>
- Kiper, T. (2013). *Advances in Landscape Architecture* (ebook). Intechopen. <https://doi.org/10.5772/55749>
- Kuranchie-Mensah, E. B. & Amponsah-Tawiah, K. (2016). Employee motivation and work performance: A comparative study of mining companies in Ghana. *Journal of Industrial Engineering and Management (JIEM)*, 9(2), 255-309. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3926/jiem.1530>
- Lajevardi, M. (2016). A comprehensive perspective on medical tourism context and create a conceptual framework. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Sports*, 20, 7-25. <https://doi.org/10.4172/2167-0269.1000236>
- Lin, C., Jeng, M. & Yeh, T. (2018). The elderly perceived meanings and values of virtual reality leisure activities: A means-end chain approach. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 15(4), 663. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph15040663>
- Makinde, O.A. (2016). Physicians as medical tourism facilitators in Nigeria: Ethical issues of the practice. *Croatian Medical Journal*, 57(6), 601-604. <https://doi.org/10.3325/cmj.2016.57.601>
- Murayama, K. (2018). The science of motivation: Multidisciplinary approaches advance research on the nature and effects of motivation. *Psychological Science Agenda*, 32(6), 1-10.
- Pakurár, M., Haddad, H., Nagy, J., Popp, J. & Oláh, J. (2019). The service quality dimensions that affect customer satisfaction in the Jordanian banking sector. *Sustainability*, 11(1113), 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11041113>
- Roy, D., Dhir, G.M., & Ahsan, M.K. (2017). Factors affecting tourist satisfaction: A study in Sylhet region. *ABC Research Alert*, 4(3), 9-20. <https://doi.org/10.18034/abcra.v4i3.307>
- Setiawan, A. (2018). Needs hierarchy in T. B. Silalahi's Novel Toba dreams. *Knowledge E Social Sciences*, 106–115. <https://doi.org/10.18502/kss.v3i4.1923>
- Smith, M. & Puczko, L. (2014). *Health, Tourism and Hospitality. Spas, Wellness and Medical Travel*. Routledge, London and New York, pp. 1-224.
- Sultana, S., Haque, A., Momen, A. & Yasmin, F. (2014). Factors affecting the attractiveness of medical tourism destination: an empirical study on India- Review article. *Iranian Journal of Public Health*, 43(7), 867-876.
- Ushakov, D.S., Yushkevych, O.O., Ovander, N.L., Tkachuk, H.Y., & Vyhovskiy, V.H. (2019). The strategy of Thai medical services promotion at foreign markets and development of medical tourism. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 27(4), 1429–1438. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.27426-445>

THE EFFECT OF ATTITUDES TOWARD GREEN BEHAVIORS ON GREEN IMAGE, GREEN CUSTOMER SATISFACTION AND GREEN CUSTOMER LOYALTY

Sinan ÇAVUSOĞLU

Bingöl University, Management and Organization Department, Bingöl, Turkey, e-mail: sinankys42@gmail.com

Bülent DEMİRAG

Gaziantep University, Department of Property Protection and Security, Gaziantep, Turkey, e-mail: bulentdemirag@windowslive.com

Eddy JUSUF

Universitas Pasundan, Faculty of Engineering, Indonesia, e-mail: eddyjusuf@unpas.ac.id

Ardi GUNARDI*

Universitas Pasundan, Faculty of Economics and Business, Indonesia, e-mail: ardigunardi@unpas.ac.id

Citation: Çavuşoğlu, S., Demirağ, B., Jusuf, E., & Gunardi, A. (2020). THE EFFECT OF ATTITUDES TOWARD GREEN BEHAVIORS ON GREEN IMAGE, GREEN CUSTOMER SATISFACTION AND GREEN CUSTOMER LOYALTY. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1513–1519. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl10-601>

Abstract: The research was carried out to determine the effect of attitude towards green behavior on green image, green customer satisfaction and green customer loyalty. The universe of the study consists of customers who have visited green hotels in Turkey. In order to test the hypotheses, Smart PLS 3 (Partial Least Squares) statistics program was used in the research. Bootstrapping technique was used to test the hypotheses that were aimed to be measured in the research. According to the results of the analysis, the attitude towards green behavior is on the green image; the green image has also been found to have a positive effect on green customer satisfaction and green customer loyalty. In addition, as a result of the analysis, it was determined that green customer satisfaction positively affected green customer loyalty.

Key words: Attitude toward green behaviors, Green customer loyalty, Green customer satisfaction, Green image, Green hotel.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, people have realized that environmental issues are increasing steadily due to the enormous amount of environmental pollution that is directly linked to industrial production. This social attitude has made more and more businesses willing to take environmental responsibilities. This growing environmental concern has rapidly emerged as a common problem for consumers (Jones et al., 2017), and many businesses are trying to take advantage of this opportunity. Creating a strong image in the market is one of the main goals of businesses because a strong image created in the minds of consumers can provide benefits such as customer satisfaction and loyalty. Satisfaction and loyalty have important effects on the profitability of almost every business. They create a competitive advantage for businesses and reduce the costs of acquiring new customers. Satisfaction and loyalty also play an important role in creating the behavioral intentions of customers. They increase long-term and productive customer relations and purchasing intention (Ballester and Aleman, 2005).

Although previous studies have given great importance to research subjects such as attitude, image, satisfaction, and loyalty, studies that associate them with green or environmental issues are limited in the national literature. Therefore, this study aims to fill the gap in the literature. The study proposes four new structures (attitude towards green behavior, green image, green customer satisfaction and green customer loyalty) and discusses their effects on each. The study focuses on finding the right perspective and possible evaluations for new green marketing concepts in accordance with environmental trends by detecting the effects of attitude towards green behavior on green image, green customer satisfaction and green customer loyalty through green hotels.

Attitude towards Green Behavior

The attitude phenomenon has always been emphasized as one of the mandatory precursors of behavioral intention and real behavior in green consumer psychology studies. Attitude is an important concept because it has theoretic connections for it is associated with different models like, consumer expectancy-value model of Fishbein (1963), reasoned action model of Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), planned behavior model of Ajzen (1985), value-attitude-behavior model of Homer and Kahle (1988) and widened planned behavior theory of Han and Kim (2010). In addition, these models are important indicators of satisfaction of consumers with a product (and therefore the purchase of this product), functions of the product and what needs it can meet. These theorems show that values affect behaviors both directly and indirectly through attitudes (Çavuşoğlu and Durmaz, 2020). In this regard, attitude is a concept related to values and behavior. Attitude is determined by the behaviors and beliefs of the individuals. Therefore, a person who has positive and strong beliefs with positive outcomes will have a positive attitude towards situations that will result from the behavior. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975: 211) defined this phenomenon as a positive / negative assessment of a particular behavior. Sethi (2018: 12) considered attitude to be the positive or negative evaluation of an object, action, issue, or person. Attitudes are sets of beliefs about a particular object or action that can turn into an intention to perform the action. Attitudes affect intentions and the more positive the attitude, the stronger the intention to perform the behavior. In this regard, attitudes are indicators of purchasing intentions and therefore purchasing behavior (Han et al., 2020).

Attitude towards green behavior mainly involves the perceived importance or distress of environmental awareness, the severity of environmental problems and the responsibilities of businesses (Laroche et al., 2001: 505). The basis of environmental research arises from the individual's concerns about the environment. Eco-anxiety is defined as a global attitude that has indirect effects on behavior through

* Corresponding author

behavioral intent (Wang et al., 2020). Researchers have stated that eco- anxiety is a strong attitude towards environmental protection (Han et al., 2020; Hwang and Lyu, 2020; Kumar and Saranya, 2020). Environmental concern is often cited as a powerful motivation tool for purchasing. Increased environmental concern has led to increased intention to purchase green products. Specifically, it has been suggested that consumers with high environmental anxiety levels are more likely to engage in green consumer behavior (Jaiswal and Kant, 2018; Yarimoglu and Gunay, 2020). Basically, eco- friendly attitudes are handled in two different ways: general and specific attitudes (Verma et al., 2019). General environmental attitude is defined as the degree of positive / negative evaluation of individuals when performing a certain behavior. The specific environmental attitude represents the evaluation of some eco-friendly products or behaviors, such as green product selection, green hotel visits or organic food selection (Jaiswal and Kant, 2018: 62). After purchasing a product, environmentally conscious people realize the effects they have on the environment and take the information learned from these aspects into consideration before making their next purchase choice. In addition, sometimes they have to balance certain features and prices of goods or services according to their environmental impact (Han et al., 2020). For example, in Turkey, by circulating the information about how plastic bags have impacted some countries, the plastic usage was reduced and after some time plastic bags were priced. Ottman (2011: 41) attributed consumers' willingness to behave green to three basic elements: i) believing that they will save money financially on the product they purchased ii) believing that the products will provide more benefits for their health. iii) believing that the brands they bought try to turn the world into a more sustainable place. This last factor is especially important for businesses that aim to create a green image.

Green Image

Image plays an important role in markets where it is difficult to separate goods or services by quality (Mudambi et al., 1997). The perceptions that consumers have about businesses are defined as “image” (Çavuşoğlu and Durmaz, 2020: 95). Image is associated with the quality of communication between the staff and customers of a business, as well as the physical and behavioral characteristics of a company, such as its identity, products and ideology (Hwang and Lyu, 2020). The image, which has a critical importance for businesses, is the most important aspect that differs businesses from each other. In this respect, businesses that have a positive image will establish a strong relationship with consumers and ensure that they are loyal to their businesses (Jeong et al., 2014: 13). The rapid development of technology and the accompanying flow of information have caused consumer demands to constantly change and display different purchasing behaviors. Environmental problems and environmental disasters have increased the tendency of people to be more dependent on environment-friendly behaviors in their daily lives. As consumers began to be more concerned about being environment-friendly, their demands gradually change. This potentially turns them into desired marketing goals (Hwang and Lyu, 2020). Increasing green behavior of consumers leads them to businesses that work more comprehensively in this regard. For this reason, businesses develop strategies regarding their green image in addition to their general image and therefore try to change the behaviors of environmentally conscious consumers in a positive way (Kement, 2019).

Green image is “the series of perceptions that consumers create in their memories about business related environmental responsibilities and concern” (Martínez, 2015). Wang et al. (2018) described green image as a brand perception associated with environmental responsibility and environmental concerns in the minds of consumers. Green image stimulates the wish for environmentally conscious and responsible brands. Since environmental awareness and existing government laws impose a responsibility on brands, businesses try to create a “green brand” image (Çavuşoğlu and Durmaz, 2020). Businesses are designing some activities related to corporate social responsibility in order to strengthen this image. Similarly, green marketing activities show environmental concerns of green products, green behaviors and brands. According to planned behavior theory, the beliefs of individuals lead to actual behaviors. In this respect, if a consumer trusts a green brand, s/he will continue to buy from it (Bukhari et al., 2017: 1624). The green image helps an organization grow significantly. For example, Corrigan (1996) determined that the improvement in the green image of an organization had a positive effect on the overall image of the institution. In conclusion, improving the green image of firms helps to improve the overall corporate image (Hwang and Lyu, 2020).

Green Customer Satisfaction

No matter how technologically advanced they are, businesses know that they cannot be successful in the design and delivery of goods and services unless they take customer needs into account. The majority of successful businesses have achieved their goals by focusing on customer needs and expectations (Esmali et al., 2019). For this reason, it is important for every business to identify customer needs and meet their expectations. Satisfaction is the reactive response to fulfillment of expectations regarding interactions (Demirağ and Durmaz, 2020: 99). Satisfaction has been recognized as one of the most important theoretical and practical issues for most marketers and customer researchers (Jamal, 2004). Satisfaction is a feeling evoked by the ability of a good or service to meet the needs and desires of consumers (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Customer satisfaction is the experiences of consumers and fulfillment of consumption goals (Oliver, 2006). Previous studies have shown that customer satisfaction is conceptualized in two different ways: transaction-specific and cumulative (Anderson et al., 1994). Transaction-specific customer satisfaction is expressed as the evaluative decision after making a choice about a particular purchasing event (Anderson, 1973). On the other hand, cumulative customer satisfaction is a holistic assessment based on the general experience of a particular firm over time in terms of goods and services (Oliver, 1980). All proposed definitions acknowledge that the concept of satisfaction implies the necessary existence of a goal that the consumer wants to achieve.

Consumers are the decision-making units that purchase goods and services to meet their needs. Product and brand satisfaction perceived by consumers is an important factor. In addition, in today's market-oriented business environment, the question of how companies will satisfy customers has become the ultimate concern of decision-making units in different types of companies (Demirağ and Durmaz, 2020: 100). Businesses are facing increasing pressure to be more responsible and greener. Some stakeholders force businesses to reduce their negative impact on society and the nature (Bansal, 2005). With the rise of environmentalism, consumers are not only willing to buy products that have minimal impact on nature, but also become more interested in the environment as a society. In addition, international environmental regulations have increased significantly and have become stricter in recent years. In this context, some authors have suggested green customer satisfaction and the term has been defined as a sign of a level of pleasure resulting from the ability to meet the needs, wishes and desires of a good or service in an environmentally durable, sustainable and environment-friendly way (Martínez, 2015).

Green Customer Loyalty

Customer loyalty is the act of sustaining a relationship with a business through purchasing goods and services as a customer (Behara et al., 2002). Loyalty is a deep connection to repurchase a good or a service (Oliver, 1997). In other words, loyalty can be seen as a connection to a business whenever possible, a commitment to future behavior or other alternatives to purchase a good or service. For this reason, customer loyalty is an important indicator of positive attitude towards the product and brand of the business, and positive behavior towards buying and making recommendations to others (Backman and Compton, 1991). Customer loyalty is a stable source of income for companies. It also acts as an information channel with the recommendations of the product and the brand made to others (Reid and Reid, 1993).

Customer loyalty is defined from a behavioral and attitudinal perspective (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Behavioral loyalty is described as the repeated act of buying and using. Attitudinal loyalty is the act of recommending the business or the people to others in a positive way. Kim et al. (2004: 147) have discussed loyalty with 3 basic approaches and stated that the third approach is a combined model of behavioral and attitudinal loyalty. Although all three types of loyalty have their own roles in marketing, most firms prefer attitudinal customer loyalty. The biggest contribution of Oliver (1999: 35) to customer loyalty was suggesting a hierarchic order regarding the attitudinal dimension. According to this, attitude dimensions of customer loyalty are categorized as cognitive, affective, conative and behavioral. Cognitive loyalty is the first stage of customer loyalty and is based on product knowledge.

At this stage, customer value is at the forefront, and alternatives that offer a stronger value can affect the direction of customer loyalty (Evanschitzky and Wunderlich, 2006: 331-332). The affective loyalty stage is the transformation of the positive opinion left by the cognitive dimension in the customer mind into an affective dimension (Han et al., 2008: 24). The conative stage, on the other hand, expresses behavioral intentions that often result in action (Radder and Han, 2013: 1262). At this stage, the customer has information about the product / brand and has been willing to make an effort and wait for the product based on their positive emotions. This effort can be made when the product is not easily found or when the customer has to wait the product to be put on market. Therefore, the behavioral stage of customer loyalty is directly related to the power of attitudinal components. Green customer loyalty, which is a new structure in today's marketing where environmental commitments and concerns are present, has been brought up to the literature by Chang and Fong (2010). Green customer loyalty is defined as the customer's commitment to consistently repurchase or re-protect a preferred product in the future, where he or she wants to maintain a relationship with an environmentally concerned or a green business. In this respect, loyal customers tend to make reliable suggestions to the people around them. The satisfaction of the customers with the related product and the positive attitude towards the product / business are the main premises of customer loyalty (Jones et al., 2000: 270).

THEOROTICAL FRAMEWORK

Attitude towards Green Behaviors and Green Image

Research on consumer behavior emphasize the importance of the image of businesses and products (Çavuşoğlu and Durmaz, 2020; Jeong et al., 2014; Mudambi et al., 1997; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001). Positive attitudes will strengthen the images of the businesses (Han et al., 2009; Jeong et al., 2014; Oliver, 1999). In this respect, the interaction between the attitude and the image is an important one. Most of the studies in literature are carried out on attitude and image while the number of studies on green attitude and green image is limited. In their study conducted in cafes to estimate the effects of environment-friendly practices on green image and customer attitudes, Jeong et al. (2014) determined that green image helps consumers create a positive attitude towards the cafe and consequently affect the consumption decisions of consumers. Han et al. (2009) tested the relationship between the overall image and green behavioral intent by word of mouth and suggested that increasing the green image of hotels is important for hotel keepers in green hotel industry.

In their study carried out to determine the role of customers, who visit green hotels in Turkey, as mediators between green attitude and behavioral intention types, Kement (2019) found that green image is a positive mediator between the attitude towards green hotels behaviors and the intention to visit again. Similarly in their study carried out on the visitors of green Çavuşoğlu and Durmaz (2020) determined that attitudes towards green behavior positively and statistically affect the intention to visit again, and that green image has a mediator and regulatory role between the two variables.

The following hypothesis was created in the light of the works in the literature.

H₁: Attitude towards green behaviors positively affect green image.

Green Image, Green Customer Satisfaction and Green Customer Loyalty

The positive image of a business is a powerful tool to increase the level of customer satisfaction (Assaker and Hallak, 2013; Prayag et al., 2017). In line with this idea, some authors think that the image plays an important role in meeting the needs and desires of consumers (Martínez, 2015; Kandampully and Hu, 2007). Based on these studies, the more favorable the green image is, the more satisfied the consumers will be. Corrigan (1996) stated that Ireland showed a significant growth in green marketing after the green image promotion in Ireland. In addition, Hu and Wall (2005) have suggested that increasing the environmental image can increase the competitiveness of tourism. Similarly, green image is more important for businesses, especially under the rise of consumers' widespread environmental awareness and strict international regulations on environmental protection.

Enterprises embody the concept of green marketing to achieve the advantages of differentiation of their products. This situation is seen as an important factor in creating customer satisfaction and loyalty (Chen et al., 2006; Peattie, 1992). In addition, businesses that have made many efforts to improve their image will not only avoid environmental protest or punishment issues but will also increase customer satisfaction and loyalty regarding environmental desires, sustainable expectations and green needs. Since image is an important determinant for customer satisfaction, previous studies have suggested a positive relationship between image and customer satisfaction (Chang and Tu, 2005; Martenson, 2007). According to this, the higher the green image, the satisfactory pleasure level regarding the consumption will meet the environmental wishes, sustainable expectations and green needs.

Satisfaction is often used as a predictor of future consumer purchases (Kasper, 1988; Oliver, 1999). Satisfied customers show an increasing amount repurchase intention (Zeithaml et al., 1996), tendency to make recommendations (Reynolds and Arnold, 2000) and pay more (Fitzell, 1998) over time. Previous studies have determined that the image has a significant effect on customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Abdullah et al., 2000; Chang and Tu, 2005; Martenson, 2007). In addition, the relationship between customer satisfaction and customer loyalty has been supported in many studies (Hellier et al., 2003; Fornell et al., 2006; Oliver, 1999).

While studies have attached great importance to researching issues related to image, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty, none have studied them within the context of green or environmental issues. In general, a limited number of studies have been found in the literature to address these variables. In their study conducted on consumers with electronic product purchasing experience in Taiwan, Chen (2010) determined that green brand image positively affect green customer satisfaction. In their studies conducted with customers visiting green hotels in China, Wang et al. (2018) found that green image positively affects green satisfaction. Chang and Fong (2010), on the other hand, in their study carried out on customers who have experience in purchasing green or environmental products, have determined that they have a positive effect on green customer satisfaction and green customer loyalty. In the study, it was also determined that green customer satisfaction positively affects green customer loyalty.

The following hypotheses were created in the light of the works in the literature:

H₂: Green image positively affects green customer satisfaction.

H₃: Green image positively affects green customer loyalty.

H₄: Green customer satisfaction positively affects green customer loyalty.

METHODOLOGY

The study aims to determine the effect of the experience of consumers who visit green hotels on attitude towards green behavior, green image, green customer satisfaction and green customer loyalty. The population of the research consists of customers who visit green hotels in Turkey between 1st of September and 30th of September 2019. Because of the fact that the population of the research is too wide, convenience sampling method was used out of non-probability sampling methods. Sample number was determined as 400. However, because 8 of the questionnaire forms were incomplete the study was conducted on the data obtained from 392 questionnaire forms.

The questionnaire form consists of demographic and scale questions to determine the model. The first part consists of questions like accommodation, gender, age, education, marital status and income level. The second part, there are 4 questions to evaluate attitude towards green behaviors (Han et al., 2009), 4 questions to evaluate green image (Wang et al., 2018), 4 questions to evaluate green customer satisfaction (Chang and Fong, 2010) and 3 questions to evaluate green customer loyalty (Chang and Fong, 2010). The questions in the second part were adapted to 5-point Likert scale within the range of “strongly disagree- strongly agree” (1-5).

59.4% of the visitors are foreigners (n: 233). 181 of the visitors are male (46.2%) and 211 of them are female (53.8%). 34.2% (n: 134) of the participants are aged between 45-54, 51.3% (n: 201) of them are married. 40.6% (n:159) of the participants are studying at the level of bachelor's degree and 82.1% (n: 322) of the participants are in the middle class regarding their income.

Smart PLS (Partial Least Squares) statistics program was used to test the hypotheses. Bootstrapping technique was used to test the hypotheses. The research model that is aimed to be evaluated is as follows.

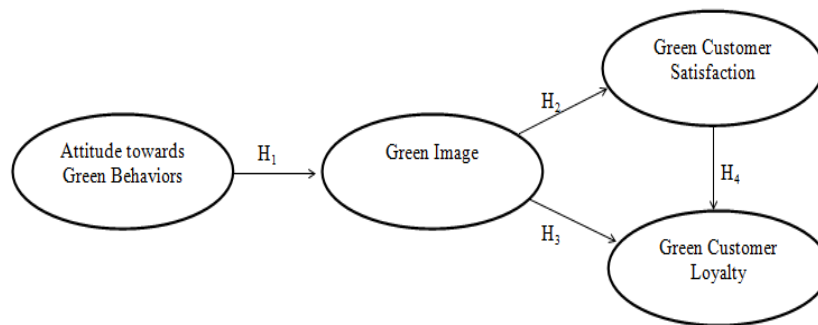


Figure 1. Theoretical Framework

Result

The results of the discrimination validity of attitude towards green behavior, green image, green customer satisfaction and green customer loyalty are shown in detail in Table 1 and Table 2. To determine the validity of the research model, structure, discrimination and compliance validities were examined. To determine the discrimination validity, the square root of the AVE values and the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) were calculated (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). Average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) values were examined to determine the compliance validity. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was made to determine construct validity. Validity and reliability results are shown in Table 2 in detail.

Table 1. Square of the Correlation Coefficient

	Variables	X	SD	1	2	3	4
1	Att. Towards Green Beh.	3.99	1.08	0.877			
2	Green Image	3.98	.809	.286	0.890		
3	Green Consumer Satisfaction	4.01	.773	.364	.286	0.928	
4	Green Consumer Loyalty	4.04	.750	.352	.311	.858	0.885

Table 2. Validity and Reliability Results

Variables		α	CR	AVE	λ
Attitude towards Green Behavior	We do not need to worry about environmental protection activities as there are enough electricity and water resources and green areas in our country.	.91	.93	.78	.892
	Recycling is a very challenging task.				.875
	Recycling is important in terms of conservation of natural resources.				.829
	Enterprises providing hospitality services (hotels, restaurants etc.) are environment friendly.				.939
Green Image	I think green hotels support sustainable development.	.90	.93	.76	.846
	I think the image of green hotels is high.				.846
	I think green hotels are excellent.				.898
	I will give positive feedback to people about green hotels.				.914
Green Customer Satisfaction	I am happy with my decision to stay in the green hotel.	.94	.96	.86	.934
	I am pleased to have stayed at the green hotel.				.940
	I think I did the right thing staying at a green hotel.				.952
	I feel that I contribute to environmental protection and sustainable development.				.887
Green Customer Loyalty	I will continue my stay in this hotel.	.86	.91	.79	.898
	I am ready to recommend this hotel to my family and friends.				.893
	Although the price of other hotels is cheaper than green hotels, this high price in green hotels can be accepted.				.878

* Measured using a 5-point scale format (1=strongly disagree, 3=neutral, 5=strongly agree)

* λ =Factor loadings, CR=Composite reliability, AVE=Average variance extracted, α =Cronbach Alpha

Table 3. Goodness-of-fit indices for Model

Criteria	χ^2	NFI	SRMR
	542.214	$\geq .80$	$\leq .08$
		0.89	0.047

It was determined that the factor loads of each expression belonging to the scales were above 0.50 (Kaiser, 1974) and therefore had construct validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). It is seen that CR values are above 0.70 (Hair et al., 2012) and AVE values are above 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), therefore the research model has compliance validity (Table 2). Goodness of fit values were similarly analyzed with the Smart PLS 3 (Partial Least Squares) statistical program and the obtained criteria are shown in Table 3.

As a result of the analysis, the χ^2 value of the variables was determined as 542.214. It is determined that the normed fit index (NFI) values are above 0.80 (Yaşlıoğlu, 2017). The value of SRMR (standardized Root Mean Square Residual) which represents residual covariances between the covariance matrix of the universe and the covariance matrix of the sample, indicates that the model is acceptable (Hu and Bentler, 1999). According to the results obtained, it was determined that the research model has a good goodness of fit.

To determine the discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE values and the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) were calculated (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). According to the Fornell-Larcker criterion, the square root of the implicit variable's AVE value should be greater than its correlation with all other implicit variables in the structure (Hair et al., 2019). Square root of AVE value is the dark colored data in Table 1. Since these values are larger than the other values in the rows and columns they are in, it can be stated that discriminant validity is provided. Discriminant validity was separately calculated with Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) to determine that each of the variables in the research model analyzed a different concept. Results of the calculation show that if the HTMT value is below 0.9, discriminant validity is provided (Henseler et al., 2009). Table 3 shows the HTMT rates for the model. According to these results, the HTMT ratio between the variables is below 0.90 and discriminant validity is confirmed. It is concluded that the variables are different from each other.

Table 4. Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Values

Variables	1	2	3	4
1 Attitude towards Green Behavior				
2 Green Image	0.283			
3 Green Customer Satisfaction	0.389	0.307		
4 Green Customer Loyalty	0.394	0.348	0.845	

Table 5. Path Analysis Results

Variables			Beta (β)	S.E.	t	p	Result
H ₁ Attit. towards Gr. Beh.	→	Green Image	.286	.045	6.373	0.000***	Accepted
H ₂ Green Image	→	Green C. Satis.	.286	.064	4.453	0.000***	Accepted
H ₃ Green Image	→	Green C. Satis.	.071	.031	2.252	0.025*	Accepted
H ₄ Green Customer Satisfaction	→	Green C. Loyal.	.838	.026	31.939	0.000***	Accepted

p<0.001***, p<0.01**, p<0.05*, S.E: Standard Error

Path analysis was conducted to test the research model. The results of the hypotheses formed in line with the purpose of the research are shown in Table 5 in detail. "Blindfolding" method was used in SmartPLS 3.0 program to determine the level of interest (Q^2) between independent variables and dependent variables. According to Hair et al. (2019), if the Q^2 values of the dependent variables are greater than 0, the predictive accuracy of the model for the dependent variables is correct. The analysis showed that the Q^2 values of the dependent variables were greater than zero (green image: 0.059; green satisfaction: 0.066; green fidelity: 0.579). Accordingly, it can be mentioned that the prediction accuracy of the structural model for dependent variables is correct. Path analysis results show that attitude towards green behavior, which is an independent variable, positively affects green image ($\beta = .286$, $p < 0.001$). Another variable determined that green image positively affected green customer satisfaction ($\beta = .286$, $p < 0.001$) and green customer loyalty ($\beta = .071$, $p < 0.05$). Finally, it was determined that green customer satisfaction positively affect green customer loyalty ($\beta = .838$, $p < 0.001$). In line with these H₁, H₂, H₃ and H₄ hypotheses were accepted.

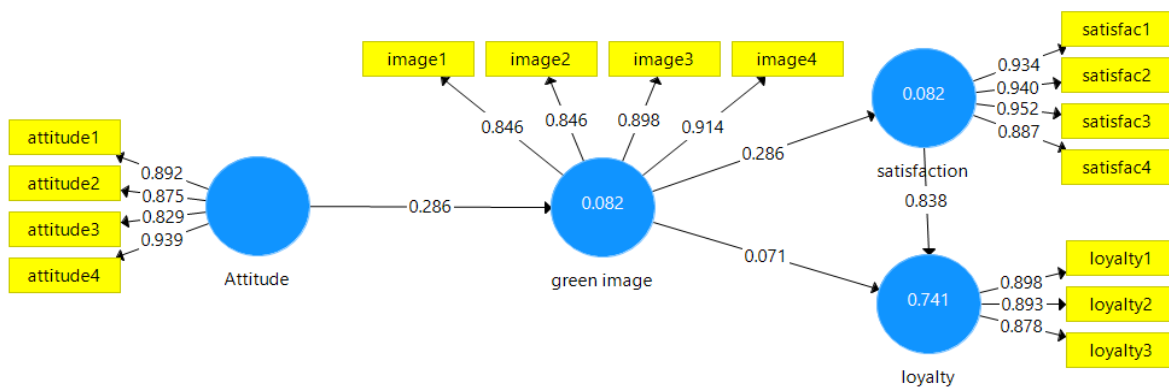


Figure 2. Diagram of the Structural Model

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The research was carried out to determine the effect of attitude towards green behavior on green image, green customer satisfaction and green customer loyalty. The population of the study consisted of customers visiting green hotels in Turkey. The tourism industry is a service sector that consumes natural resources and produces substantially solid waste. The "greening" process has emerged with a focus on the "tourism-environment" relationship. Due to the widespread increasing energy prices and waste disposal, it is known that hotels use and consume a lot of natural resources and also pay expensive bills for what they produce. For this reason, it is important for hotel businesses to develop and implement green activities to reduce financial costs and increase their efficiency. In this regard, green hotels have become one of the most important innovations in the tourism industry recently.

Green Hotel is defined as an environment-friendly accommodation facility that provides various strategies and practices to reduce harmful effects on the environment (GHA, 2020). Therefore, green hotels refer to environmental management which comprises procedures, practices and attempts to reduce, eliminate and inhibit harmful environmental impacts resulting from the activities of a business. Mintel (2010) stated in their study that consumers are willing to demand greener goods and services, in this context, tourists are more willing to choose tourism services that are advancing towards being environment friendly. Given the growing green demands, being

able to persuade consumers that it is valuable to be environment-friendly and also to make green activities more recognizable can be beneficial for hotels. In this regard, the goal of the greening programs of hotels have gone beyond cost savings and operational efficiency. Assessing potential demands for green activities can be more useful and valuable for hotel businesses. The structural model made for the customers visiting green hotels in Turkey are proposed to determine the effect of attitude towards green behavior on green image, green customer satisfaction and green customer loyalty. It is thought that combining these variables representing green behaviors around the model and determining their interaction will fill an important gap in the literature. Results show that attitude towards green behavior positively affects green image and green image affects green customer satisfaction and loyalty in a similar way. Similarly, it was determined that green customer satisfaction positively affects green customer loyalty. Compared with the literature, it is determined that the results found in general are similar to previous studies (Chang and Fong, 2010; Chen, 2010; Çavuşoğlu and Durmaz, 2020; Wang et al., 2018).

Consumers engage in green marketing activities in order to investigate environmental awareness and environmental protection, strict international regulations, and to investigate the green attitudes and behaviors of consumers, to determine the market of green products and to classify the green market according to different sectors (Jain and Kaur, 2004). In addition, various studies have demonstrated that the environmental image not only meets the environmental needs and green needs of the customer, but also increases their sales and increases their competitive advantages (Corrigan, 1996; Chen et al., 2006; Chen, 2008, 2010; Hu and Wall, 2005). Not all companies may have sufficient capacity to market their green products to their consumers. Success of green marketing by businesses depends on integrating environmental concepts and ideas with all aspects of marketing (Ottman, 2011). For the development of the environmental age, businesses should have the opportunity to increase the environmental performance of their products in order to strengthen their brand values. A more popular understanding of environmentalism in the world has increased the sales of green products significantly today, and therefore more consumers are beginning to show higher behavioral intentions for green products. Consumers with a positive behavioral intent can visit the businesses again, pay more prices and give positive recommendations to others. In the literature, five main reasons are emphasized for enterprises to improve their green marketing activities; adapting to environmental pressures, gaining competitive advantage, developing corporate images, looking for new markets or opportunities, and increasing product value (Chen, 2008). By serving the purpose of sustainability by not ignoring the environmental responsibilities of its businesses, it will create positive attitudes and images, and create a satisfied and loyal customer profile. By not ignoring their environmental responsibilities, serving the purpose of sustainability, turning this and many related reasons in their favor, businesses will ensure that positive attitudes and images and a satisfied, loyal customer profile is created.

This study was conducted based on data obtained from the 392 customers who visited green hotels in Turkey. It is believed that conducting future studies in different cultures and communities will make the results achieved in this study more valuable. This study was also carried out based on the evaluations of green hotel customers and it is recommended to conduct this research in other sectors as well. In this way, it will create different perspectives both for the literature and practitioners.

REFERENCES

- Abdullah, M., Al-Nasser, A., & Husain, N. (2000). Evaluating functional relationship between image, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty using general maximum entropy. *Total Qual. Manage.*, 11(6), 826-829. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09544120050008273>
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitude and predicting social behavior*, Prentice-hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). *From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior*. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckman (Eds.), *Action Control, From Cognition to Behaviour*, Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg, ss. 11-39.
- Anderson, E., Fornell, C., & Lehmann D.R. (1994). Customer satisfaction, market share, and profitability: Findings from Sweden. *J. Mark.*, 58(3), 44-53. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1252310>
- Anderson, R. (1973). Consumer dissatisfaction: The effect of disconfirmed expectancy on perceived product performance. *J. Mark. Res.*, 10(1), 38-44. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3149407>
- Assaker, G., & Hallak, R. (2013). Moderating effects of tourists' novelty-seeking tendencies on destination image, visitor satisfaction, and short- and long-term revisit intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(5), 600-613. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287513478497>
- Backman, S.J., & Compton, J.L. (1991). The usefulness of selected for predicting activity loyalty. *Leisure sciences*, 13(3), 205-220. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01490409109513138>
- Ballester, E.D., & Aleman, J.M. (2005). Does brand trust matter to brand equity? *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 14(2/3), 187-196. <https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420510601058>
- Bansal, P. (2005). Evolving sustainably: A longitudinal study of corporate sustainable development. *Strateg. Manage. J.*, 26(3), 197-218. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.441>
- Behara, R., Fontenot, G., & Gresham, A. (2002). Customer process approach to building loyalty. *Total Qual. Manage.*, 13(5), 603-611.
- Bukhari, A., Rana, R.A., & Bhatti, U.T. (2017). Factors influencing consumer's green product purchase decision by mediation of green brand image. *International Journal of Research*, 4(7), 1620-1632.
- Çavuşoğlu, S., & Durmaz, Y. (2020). *Deneyimsel pazarlama ve yeşil davranış (1.Basım)*. [Experiential marketing and green behavior (1th Ed.)]. İstanbul: Hiper Yayın, Turkey.
- Chang, C., & Tu, C. (2005). Exploring store image, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty relationship: Evidence from Taiwanese hypermarket industry. *J. Am. Acad. Bus.*, 7(2), 197-202.
- Chang, N.J., & Fong, C.M. (2010). Green product quality, green corporate image, green customer satisfaction, and green customer loyalty. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(13), 2836. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJBM.9000310>
- Chaudhuri, A., & Holbrook, M. (2001). The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to brand performance: The role of brand loyalty. *J. Mark.*, 65(2), 81-94.
- Chen, Y.S. (2010). The drivers of green brand equity: Green brand image, green satisfaction, and green trust. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 93(2), 307-319. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-009-0223-9>
- Chen, Y.S. (2008). The driver of green innovation and green image-green core competence. *J. Business Ethics*, 81(3), 531-543. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-007-9522-1>
- Chen, Y.S., Lai, S., & Wen, C. (2006). The influence of green innovation performance on corporate advantage in Taiwan. *J. Bus. Ethics*, 67(4), 331-339. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-006-9025-5>
- Corrigan, J. (1996). How a green image can drive Irish export growth. *Greener Management International*, 16, 87-96.
- Demirag, B., & Durmaz, Y. (2020). *Marka yönetimi. (1 Basım)* [Brand management (1th Ed.)], İstanbul: Hiper Yayın, Turkey.
- Esmaili, Z.A., Kheiri, B., & Farahbod, F. (2019). Authentic and Pragmatic Marketing Effects by Paradigm Shifts on Brand Authenticity to Produce Sustainable Value. *Indonesian Journal of Sustainability Accounting and Management*, 3(2), 227-238. <https://doi.org/10.28992/ijSAM.v3i2.112>
- Evanschitzky, H., & Wunderlich, M. (2006). An examination of moderator effects in the four-stage loyalty model. *Journal of Service Research*, 8(4), 330-345. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094670506286325>
- Fishbein, M. (1963). An Investigation of the relationships between beliefs about an object and the attitude toward that object. *Human Relations*, 16(3), 233-239. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872676301600302>
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*, Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.
- Fitzell, P. (1998). *The explosive growth of private labels in North America*, New York: Global Books.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D.F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics, *Journal of Marketing Research*, May, 382-388. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3150980>
- Fornell, C., Mithas, S., Morgenson, F.V., & Krishnan, M.S. (2006). Customer satisfaction and stock prices: High return, low risk. *J. Mark.*, 70(1), 3-14.
- Hair, J.F., Risher, J.J., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C.M. (2019). When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM. *European Business Review*, 31(1), 2-24. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EBR-11-2018-0203>
- Hair, J.F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C.M., & Mena, J.A. (2012). An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40(3), 414-433. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-011-0261-6>

- Hair, J.F., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R.E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis (7th ed.)*, Upper Saddle River, NJ, USA: Prentice-Hall.
- Han, H., & Kim, Y. (2010). An investigation of green hotel customers' decision formation: Developing an extended model of the theory of planned behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(4), 659-668. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.01.001>
- Han, H., Chua, B.L., Ariza-Montes, A., & Untaru, E.N. (2020). Effect of environmental corporate social responsibility on green attitude and norm activation process for sustainable consumption: Airline versus restaurant. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 27, 1851-1864. <https://doi.org/10.1002/csr.1931>
- Han, H., Hsu, L.T.J., & Lee, J.S. (2009). Empirical investigation of the roles of attitudes toward green behaviors, overall image, gender, and age in hotel customers' eco-friendly decision-making process. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 519-528. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2009.02.004>
- Han, X., Kworntnik, R.J., & Wang, C. (2008). Service loyalty: An integrative model and examination across service contexts. *Journal of Service Research*, 11, 22-42. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094670508319094>
- Hellier, P.H., Geursen, G.M., Carr, R.A., & Rickard, J.A. (2003). Customer repurchase intention-a general structural equation model. *European journal of marketing*, 37(11-12), 1762-1800. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090560310495456>
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C.M., & Sinkovics, R.R. (2009). *The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing*, In New challenges to international marketing. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Homer, P.M., & Kahle, L.R. (1988). A structural equation test of the value-attitude behavior hierarchy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 638-646.
- Hu, L.T., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural equation modeling: A multidisciplinary journal*, 6(1), 1-55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118>
- Hu, W., & Wall, G. (2005). Environmental management, environmental image and the competitive tourist attraction. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 13(6), 617-635. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580508668584>
- Hwang, J., & Lyu, S.O. (2020). Relationships among green image, consumer attitudes, desire, and customer citizenship behavior in the airline industry. *International Journal of Sustainable Transportation*, 14(6), 437-447. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15568318.2019.1573280>
- Jain, S.K., & Kaur, G. (2004). Green Marketing: An Indian Perspective. *Decision (0304-0941)*, 31(2), 168-209.
- Jaiswal, D., & Kant, R. (2018). Green purchasing behaviour: A conceptual framework and empirical investigation of Indian consumers. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 41, 60-69. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2017.11.008>
- Jamal, A. (2004). Retail banking and customer behavior: A study of self concept, satisfaction and technology usage. *International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 14(3), 357-379. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09593960410001678381>
- Jeong, E., Jang, S.S., Day, J., & Ha, S. (2014). The impact of eco-friendly practices on green image and customer attitudes: An investigation in a Café setting. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 41, 10-20. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.03.002>
- Jones, M.A., Mothersbaugh, D.L., & Beatty, S.E. (2000). Switching barriers and repurchase intentions in services. *Journal of Retail*, 76(2), 259-274. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359\(00\)00024-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359(00)00024-5)
- Jones, P., Wynn, M., Hillier, D., & Comfort, D. (2017). The sustainable development goals and information and communication technologies. *Indonesian Journal of Sustainability Accounting and Management*, 1(1), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.28992/ijssam.v1i1.22>
- Kaiser, H.F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39(1), 31-36.
- Kandampully, J., & Hu, H. (2007). Do hoteliers need to manage image to retain loyal customers? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 19(6), 435-443. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110710775101>
- Kasper, H. (1988). On problem perception, dissatisfaction and brand loyalty. *J. Econ. Psychol.*, 9(3), 387-397. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-4870\(88\)90042-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-4870(88)90042-6)
- Kement, Ü. (2019). Yeşil tutumunun davranışsal niyet türlerine etkisi: Yeşil imajın aracılık rolü [The effect of green attitude on behavioral intention: The mediation role of green image]. *OPUS Uluslararası Toplum Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 10(17), 370-394 (in Turkey). <https://doi.org/10.26466/opus.502908>
- Kim, M.K., Park, M.C., & Jeong, D.H. (2004). The effects of customer satisfaction and switching barrier on customer loyalty in Korean mobile telecommunication services. *Telecommunication Policy*, 28(2), 145-159. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.telpol.2003.12.003>
- Kumar, R.A., & Saranya, S. (2020). A Conceptual Framework on Consumers' Buying Behaviors Towards Selected Green Products in Coimbatore. *Tathapi with ISSN 2320-0693 is an UGC CARE Journal*, 19(4), 307-315.
- Laroche, M., Bergeron, J., & Barbaro-Forleo, G. (2001). Targeting Consumers who are Willing to Pay More for Environmentally Friendly Products. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 18(6), 503-520. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM000000000006155>
- Martenson, R. (2007). Corporate brand image, satisfaction and store loyalty: a study of the store as a brand, store brands and manufacturer brands. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 35(7), 544-555. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09590550710755921>
- Martínez, P. (2015). Customer loyalty: Exploring its antecedents from a green marketing perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(5), 896-917. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-03-2014-0115>
- Mudambi, S.M., Doyle, P., & Wong, V. (1997). An exploration of branding in industrial markets. *Industrial marketing management*, 26(5), 433-446. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0019-8501\(96\)00151-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0019-8501(96)00151-4)
- Nguyen, N., & Leblanc, G. (2001). Corporate image and corporate reputation in customers' retention decisions in services. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 8(4), 227-236. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0969-6989\(00\)00029-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0969-6989(00)00029-1)
- Oliver, R.L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *J. Mark. Res.*, 17(4), 460-469. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3150499>
- Oliver, R.L. (1999). Whence consumer loyalty?. *Journal of Marketing, Fundamental Issues and Directions for Marketing*, 63(4), 33-44. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1252099>
- Oliver, R.L. (1997). *Satisfaction: a behavioral perspective on the consumer*, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Oliver, R.L. (2006). *Customer satisfaction research, The handbook of marketing research*, California: Sage.
- Ottman, J.A. (2011). *The new rules of green marketing*, Sheffield: Greenleaf Publishing.
- Peattie, K. (1992). *Green marketing*, London: Pitman Publishing Corp.
- Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Muskat, B., & Del Chiappa, G. (2017). Understanding the relationships between tourists' emotional experiences, perceived overall image, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research*, 56(1), 41-54. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287515620567>
- Radder, L., & Han, X. (2013). Perceived quality, visitor satisfaction and conative loyalty in South African heritage museums. *International Business & Economics Research Journal*, 12(10), 1261-1271.
- Reid, L.J., & Reid, S.D. (1993). Communicating tourism suppliers: services building repeat visitors relationships. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 2(2/3), 3-20. <https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v02n0202>
- Reynolds, K., & Arnold, M. (2000). Customer loyalty to the salesperson and the store: examining relationship customers in an upscale retail context. *Journal of personal selling & sales management*, 20(2), 89-97. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08853134.2000.10754228>
- Sethi, V. (2018). Determining factors of attitude towards green purchase behavior of FMCG products. *IITM Journal of Management and IT*, 9(2), 10-25.
- Verma, V.K., Chandra, B., & Kumar, S. (2019). Values and ascribed responsibility to predict consumers' attitude and concern towards green hotel visit intention. *Journal of Business Research*, 96, 206-216. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.11.021>
- Wang, J., Wang, S., Xue, H., Wang, Y., & Li, J. (2018). Green image and consumers' word of mouth intention in the green hotel industry: The Moderating Effect of Millennials. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 181, 426-436. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.01.250>
- Wang, L., Wong, P.P., & Narayanan, E.A. (2020). The demographic impact of consumer green purchase intention toward green hotel selection in China. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 20(2), 210-222. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1467358419848129>
- Yarimoglu, E., & Gunay, T. (2020). The extended theory of planned behavior in Turkish customers' intentions to visit green hotels. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 29(3), 1097-1108. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.2419>
- Yaşloğlu, M.M. (2017). Sosyal bilimlerde faktör analizi ve geçerlilik: Keşfedici ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizlerinin kullanılması [Factor analysis and validity in social sciences: Application of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses]. *İstanbul Üniversitesi İşletme Fakültesi Dergisi*, 46, 74-85 (in Turkey).
- Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 45-56. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2003.08.016>
- Zeithaml, V., Berry, L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *J. Mark.*, 60(2), 31-46. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1251929>
- *** Green Hotels Association (GHA) (2020). *What are green hotels?*. <http://www.greenhotels.com/> (accessed: 26.01.2020).
- *** Mintel (2010). *Mintel Reports, Mintel Group Ltd, UK*. http://oxygen.mintel.com/sinatra/oxygen/search_results/show/&display/id=479948. (accessed: 15.01.2020).

DEVELOPMENT OF ANTARCTIC TOURISM

Tadeusz PALMOWSKI*

University of Gdańsk, Department Regional Development,
Instytut Geografii, ul. Bażyńskiego 4, 80-309 Gdańsk, Poland, e-mail: tadeusz.palmowski@ug.edu.pl

Citation: Palmowski, T. (2020). DEVELOPMENT OF ANTARCTIC TOURISM. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1520–1526.
<https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl11-602>

Abstract: According to some specialists, Antarctic tourism is one of the best-managed tourism sectors in the world. It has dynamically developed in recent decades. Starting the second half of the eighties of the twentieth century, tourist figures in Antarctica grew exponentially from several hundred to 74 thousand annually. The seasonal and spatial restrictions mark its specific nature. The author believes in the need for comprehensive control of tourist activity and behaviour on the continent. The International Association of Antarctica Tour Operators (IAATO) promotes safe and environmentally responsible voyages to Antarctica. Education is vital during these visits, providing an opportunity to become acquainted with this exceptional continent and its merit for world science. Tourists, representing over 100 nationalities, become the ambassadors of Antarctica on returning home. Study results indicate that immoderate development of Antarctic tourism may generate threats and the introduction of related restrictions.

Key words: Antarctic tourism, polar tourism, tourism development, Antarctic Treaty System, IAATO.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Antarctica embraces the continent itself and surrounding waters. The name itself conjures up visions of mountains with flowing glaciers, menacing seas sprinkled with icebergs and animals not to be met elsewhere. This most elevated continent covers approximately one tenth of the planet's land surface, nearly 90% of ice on Earth and about 70% of its fresh water resources.

Historically, humankind presence in and near Antarctica started rather late and was strictly related to the development of knowledge and technology required to gain access to this far distanced continent on the globe. In the past, human presence was predominantly associated with the exploitation of natural resources such as seals and whales. It also involved scientific research at an early stage of exploration. Oncoming phases focused on fishing fin and krill in the Southern Ocean waters, and the development of tourism.

Thirty countries, which signed the Antarctic Treaty, established here over seventy permanent and seasonal research stations by 2017 (Antarctic Station Catalogue, 2017). Annually, they host around four thousand researchers in the summer season and eleven hundred in wintertime. Scientists conduct research on the continent and in adjacent sea basins.

As the Antarctica continent has become the subject of interest for humankind in general, it attracts a growing number of people who wish to see it. At present, the main field of economic activity in Antarctica is the dynamically developing tourism (Stewart et al., 2010).

The shortage of comprehensive studies at the end of the second decade of the twenty first century stimulated the author to fill in this gap and focus on assessing tourism operations on the continent. Thus, the author put forward the following question: how does the growing Antarctic tourism influence this unique continent? Environmental monitoring shows the need for comprehensive control of tourist activity and behaviour on the continent. The question fits well into the study discourse on Antarctic marine tourism (Engelbertz et al., 2015; Johnston, 1997). The growing number of ships, and consequently tourists, may prompt the adoption of a stricter regime for particular locations, towards apposite guided and flexible marine tourism regulations (Liggett and Storey, 2007; Haase et al., 2007).

From the start, at the end of the fifties of the twentieth century, both the scope and variety of visits continue to expand. The International Association of Antarctica Tour Operators (IAATO), established here in 1991, assists the tourist sector (Enzenbacher, 1993). The objective of the Association is to support and promote safe, environmentally friendly and responsible trips to Antarctica. Thousands of tourists have experienced this natural miracle continent leaving minor or no footprint of their presence since that time. The overall number of tourists visiting Antarctica increased from 2.5 thousand in the years 1990–1991 to over 46 thousand in the 2007–2008 season and 74 thousand in 2019–2020 (IAATO, 2019c). The demand for other kinds of adventure voyages such as hiking, mountaineering, bird watching, photography tours, which are serviced by the aviation industry, continue to grow besides the demand for traditional cruises and excursions by ship. The physical isolation of Antarctica, the extreme climate and the exceptional assets of the natural environment are a significant part of its tourist appeal. The major attraction of these far distanced areas is their primeval character, untouched natural environment, exceptional and unique landscape. All the above works like a magnet attracting more tourists. Those wish to find the last desert on the Earth's surface, the last frontier on the planet, to feel like former discoverers, such as Shackleton, Mawson, Amundsen and Scott. They wish to experience the iciness, isolation and mysticism of this remote place, reckless seas, mountain scenery and tall ice peaks. They wish to come across wild nature; penguins, seabirds, seals and whales. The characteristic feature of Antarctica tourism is its spatial restrictions. Navigation closer to shore and landings are limited to several ice-free areas, which cover less than 0.5% of the continent's total surface. Most of them cluster on the coast of the Antarctic Peninsula. Antarctic tourism is seasonal and limited to four Antarctic summer months: from November to February.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The article draws on recent Antarctic tourism studies, IAATO documents, predominantly from the years 2018 and 2019, containing statistical data and own observations. The collected scientific data about Antarctica resort to several disciplines; including environmental science, geography, law and economics. Data also come from studies of expert organisations. The analysis of professional literature and source materials, a structured and systematic approach to the data as well as the analysis of the structure and dynamics of tourist traffic as per country, visited locations, kinds and forms of practiced tourism, by applying simple statistic methodology, verified the thesis set in the article and answered the research question. The conducted study fits into the ongoing discussion on the present and future of Antarctic tourism. A

* Corresponding author

series of lectures and discussions conducted by experts specialising in various fields in many scientific centres, during a cruise on board the modern hybrid vessel *Roald Amundsen* of the Norwegian shipowner Hurtigruten at the end of 2019, inspired me to undertake this theme.

HISTORY OF ANTARCTIC TOURISM

In the twenties of the twentieth century, a postal vessel SS „Fleurus” sailed annually from the Falkland Islands to South Shetland Islands and South Orkney Islands to provide services to whaling stations and seal hunters. The ship also carried a small number of commercial passengers, who acquired ‘tourist tickets’ both ways. These were probably the first commercial tourists who sailed to Antarctica. The next stage of Antarctic tourism dates back to the fifties of the twentieth century, when Chilean and Argentinean transport vessels began to take on board passengers to the South Shetland Islands. Jointly, they took on board over 500 passengers.

The concept of ‘exploration voyages’ linked with an educational profile started in 1966 when Lars-Eric Lindblad (from Lindblad Travel, New York) chartered an Argentinean vessel ‘Lapataia’ and accompanied by a group of tourists from South America sailed a thousand kilometres to South Shetland Islands through the stormy waters of Drake’s Passage (Liggett, 2015). The following stage of expedition type cruises started in 1969 when Lindblad built ‘Lindblad Explorer’, the first exploration ship designed to carry passengers to Antarctica (Headland, 2009). A further step in developing marine tourism took place following the disintegration of the Soviet Union, when ice-strengthened ships and icebreakers of the former Soviet navy became available for charter to companies organising Antarctic cruises (Molenaar, 2005; Landau and Spletstoesser, 2007; Snyder and Stonehouse, 2007).

The Antarctica aviation tourist sector, offering a bird’s view, initiated flights in 1959, when the operator of Linea Aerea Nacional took 66 passengers flying from Chilli over the South Shetland Islands (Tourism and Non-Governmental Activities, 2012.) In 1957, Pan Am airlines performed the first commercial tourist flight to the continental part of Antarctica flying from Christchurch to McMurdo Sound (Headland, 2009). Former activity of man in Antarctica was limited to the first discoverers, those who sought luck in exploiting seals and whales, and recently to those pursuing scientific research and exploration. The majority of tourist expeditions to Antarctica is by sea and remain in line with an environmentally friendly model of behaviour set down initially by Lars Erica and Lindblad. By the end of the eighties of the twentieth century, four companies dealt with ship cruises to Antarctica and one land operator who was a pioneer in commercial tourist flights to the continent. These flights transported guests inland for seasonal field camps, hikes with a guide, ski expeditions and other type of adventure expeditions (Antarctic Flights, 2020). Sailing and motor yachts started reaching Antarctica in the sixties of the twentieth century.

Directions and forms of Antarctic tourism

Antarctica is an exceptional place with no hotels on land, no local markets. Shopping is limited to several souvenir shops at research stations of some countries. The summer season, when sightseeing is possible, falls between November and March. For the rest of the year dense sea ice surrounds the continent barring ships and tourist landings. Vessels sailing in the region of the Antarctic Peninsula usually set off from Ushuaia (Argentina), Port Stanley (Falkland Islands) or less often from Punta Arenas (Chilli), Buenos Aires (Argentina) and Puerto Madryn (Argentina). Additionally, several expeditions provide cruises in the Ross Sea region and east Antarctica setting out from Bluff and Lyttelton-Christchurch (New Zealand) or Hobart (Australia) and less often from Cape Town and Port Elizabeth (Republic of South Africa) and Fremantle (Australia). Marine tourism in Antarctica is presently spreading in many directions and extends, apart from the traditional west and part of the southern and eastern part, to the Queen Maud Land situated in the continent’s northern part.

The specifics of Antarctica tourism also involve its spatial restrictions. Due to the distance and navigation options, landing is restricted to several ice-free areas (less than 0.5% of the total area of the continent), most centred on the coast of the Antarctica Peninsula (Figure 1). Apart from better access, the region enjoys a milder climate compared to other part of Antarctica. Concurrently, this area converges land ecosystems, seals and seabirds. The region is particularly interesting for tourists because it offers a unique opportunity to admire and document the wild nature of Antarctica. It also gives the option of visiting research stations concerted in this region (Neumann, 2020).

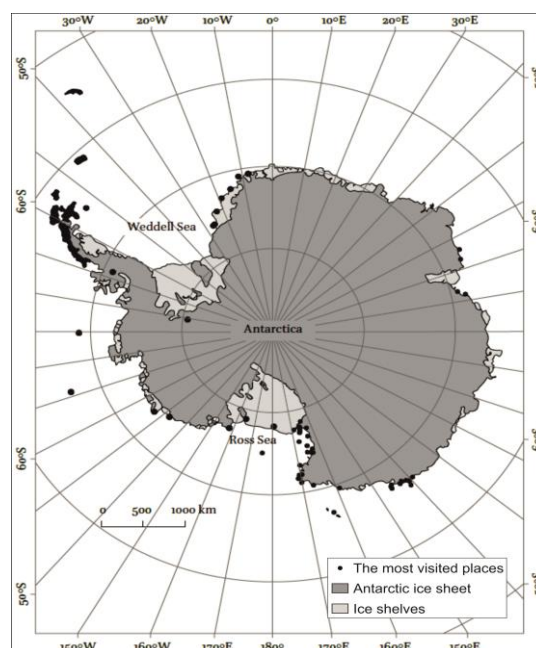


Figure 1. Antarctica locations most often visited by tourists (Source: Neuman, 2020.p 234; supplemented)

Flying in the Ross Sea region is an alternative to sea voyages organised by Croydon Travel from Melbourne assisted by Qantas. Some adventuresome tourists fly inland to seasonal field camps for ski expeditions with a guide (Table 1). They also participate in polar expeditions and climb the highest peak of the continent Vinson Massif, 4897 m, or ski to the South Pole provided by Adventure Network International (ANI).

Most landings on shore are serviced by pontoon boats (Zodiac, Polar Cirkel Boat, RIB, Naiad, etc.), and over 90% of tourist activity focuses in the Antarctica Peninsula region and coastal islands west of the peninsula. The geographical spread of tourist activity in the Antarctica Peninsula region, according to IAATO (2018), can be broken down to several sub regions (Table 2).

- South Orkneys Including Laurie, Coronation Islands;
- Elephant Island including nearby islands;
- The South Shetland Islands Including Deception, Livingston, King George, Low and Smith Islands;
- Northeast Antarctic Peninsula from Cape Dubouzet (63 16'S, 57 03'W) to James Ross Island;
- Northwest Antarctic Peninsula from Cape Dubouzet (63 16'S, 57 03'W) to the north end of Lemaire Channel;
- Southwest Antarctic Peninsula from the north end of Lemaire Channel to the area of Marguerite Bay (67 34'S) (Cavallo, 2019).

Table 1. Programs and Participant Numbers (clients) for the 2018-19 season (note some participants may take part in several programs) (Source: IAATO 2019c, p.4)

Programme	No. Participating
Emperor Penguin Colony Visits	142
Deep Field Experiences (Camping, skiing, mountaineering, skydiving, cycling, etc.)	44
Deep Field Flights (e.g. to Pole of Inaccessibility)	17
South Pole Fly-in	172
South Pole Ski Expedition	14
South Pole Motorised Expedition	22
Last 1-2 Degree Expedition	43
Antarctic Crossing	3
Vinson Massif	148
Marathon	110

Table 2. Antarctica Tourist Activities 2018-2019 (Source: Antarctica Tourism, 2020; supplemented)

Activity	Numbers	Percentage
Small Boat Landing	243592	41.6
Small Boat Cruising	146720	25.0
Ship Cruise	106235	18.1
Kayaking	19923	3.4
Station Visit	16881	2.9
Polar Plunge	10130	1.7
Extended	7203	1.2
Ice Landing	4565	0.8
Snowshoeing	3950	0.7
Camping	3444	0.6
Scuba Diving	3328	0.6
Aircraft Landing	2453	0.4
Ice Walk	2392	0.4
Anchoring	2268	0.4
Others	12890	2.1
Total	585974	100

Legal and organisational regulations governing tourism in Antarctica

In 1959, the governments of Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Chilli, France, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, Republic of South Africa, Russia, Great Britain and the United States signed the Antarctic Treaty System (ATS). Thanks to the Treaty, Antarctica became a scientific preserve, for scientific investigation and research. The Antarctic Treaty (1959) states that the continent "...shall be used for peaceful purposes only." and promotes peaceful scientific investigation and international exchange of research results obtained on the continent. The Treaty embraces the area south of 60°S latitude in the southern hemisphere.

When in 1961 the Treaty entered into force, it did not refer to tourism. At the time, it was not obvious that a considerable number of tourists would wish to visit the location visited by scientists under expeditions sponsored by governments. In view of the developing tourism, the Treaty Parties adopted a number of recommendations, which influenced the tourism sector. In 1991, Parties to the Antarctic Treaty adopted the Protocol on Environmental Protection to the Antarctic Treaty (Madrid Protocol). The Protocol assures comprehensive protection of Antarctic environment and dependent and associated ecosystems, as a natural reserve dedicated to peace and science.

Nevertheless, the Madrid Protocol came into force as late as 1998, but introduced a comprehensive and systematic management system, which referred predominantly to tourism. Under the protocol, all forms of human activity are subject to environmental assessment, and all actions likely to have more than a minor or transitory impact require an environmental assessment. The Protocol applies under varied legal means in particular signatory countries. By 2018, 53 countries joined ATS. Tourists visiting Antarctica fall under the law of their country during their stay in the region (provided the country is a party to ATS). To prevent the detrimental impact of tourism on the Antarctic environment, trip organisers established the International Association of Antarctica Tour Operators (IATTO) in 1991. The objective of the Association is to promote safe and environmentally responsible ventures to Antarctica (Spletstoesser, 2000; Haase et al., 2009).

IAATO is an international body comprising over one hundred companies from Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Chilli, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, People's Republic of China, Russia, South Africa, Sweden, Switzerland, Great Britain, the United States, and overseas territories such as Falkland Islands (Malvinas). Members include ship operators, ship agents, tourist bureaus, governmental bodies, travel bureaus chartering ships and planes from operators, environmental protection organisations and expedition management companies. In order to promote safe and environmentally friendly measures, IAATO members developed and set detailed operational procedures and guidelines including regulations and restrictions as to the number of persons on land at a time. They also worked out guidelines on selecting exact locations, activities and nature observing as well as reporting requirements of these activities prior and following the visit, briefings for passengers, crew and personnel, proportion of passengers to personnel. Further guidelines refer to cleaning shoes and preventing the introduction of non-native species, signs on ice deserts, schedules and communication procedures with ships, medical evacuation procedures in emergencies, contingency plans, guidelines for watching marine fauna, principles governing station visits and many others. Apart from preparing guidelines for safe and responsible tourism, IATTO set up a code of proceeding for tourists, which was modified by Parties to the Treaty, that gave grounds for Recommendations XVIII-I, which include the Guidance for Visitors to the Antarctic and Guidance for those Organising and Conducting Tourism and Non-Governmental Activities in the Antarctic.

Tourists on board vessels of all IAATO Member States participate in mandatory lectures to become familiar with the code of proceedings during visits on land. They learn about the minimum distance to be kept between people and the wild fauna and flora, that there are no toilets in landing locations and that no food or beverages can be taken on land, and that smoking is strictly forbidden.

In order to raise public awareness and care to preserve the Antarctic environment IATTO cooperates with ATS Parties, the mass media and environmental organisations. Member companies provide logistic and scientific support for national programs and Antarctic organisations. Antarctic cruisers carry over a hundred scientists every polar season. They also transport equipment and supplies to research stations and camps. In the summer season 2018 - 2019, IAATO operators provided assistance 133 times. Ships are also chartered under national Antarctic programmes before and after the cruising season. Trip organisers and passengers contribute financially to scientific organisations operating in Antarctica and their efforts to protect its environment. The key organisations are: Save the Albatross, UK Antarctic Heritage Trust, NZ Antarctic Heritage Trust, South Georgia Heritage Trust, Last Ocean, Mawson's Huts Foundation, World

Wildlife Fund i College of the Atlantic's Humpback Whale Identification Project. The IAATO global network associates over 100 members, including 47 tourism operators in 2019. IAATO associated 87 ships broken down to four different categories:

- C1: category 1 (vessels carrying 13 to 200 passengers);
- C1: category 2 (vessels carrying 201 to 500 passengers);
- CR: only cruises (vessels carrying over 500 passengers);
- YA: Yachts (up to 12 passengers).

Cruises on small and medium sized vessels (C1, C2), (Figure 2, Figure 3), apart from landings on small boats also provide attractions like: kayaking, mountaineering, running events, SCUBA diving, snorkelling, swimming, skiing, snowboarding, snowshoeing, stand-up paddle boarding, camping (including short overnight stays) and helicopter operations (IAATO 2019a).

Traditional expedition cruises are complement now by large cruiser trips (CR) carrying over 500 passengers reaching even 3 thousand guests. Their passengers may admire Antarctic landscapes from ship decks but may not go on land. Voyages on board sailing and motor yachts (YA) are another developing form of travelling to Antarctica.



Figure 2. The vessel National Geographic Explorer by the Antarctic coast



Figure 3. Roald Amundsen by South Shetland Islands

In order to improve navigation in the Antarctic region, where taking measurements is difficult and expensive, IAATO participates in crowd sourcing and transfers bathymetric data to hydrograph centres, including the International Hydrographic Organisation (IHO).

Thanks to IAATO, many Antarctic visitors can participate in citizenship learning and practical involvement in scientific projects. It is a powerful instrument developing scientific knowledge, social involvement and education (IAATO, 2019b).

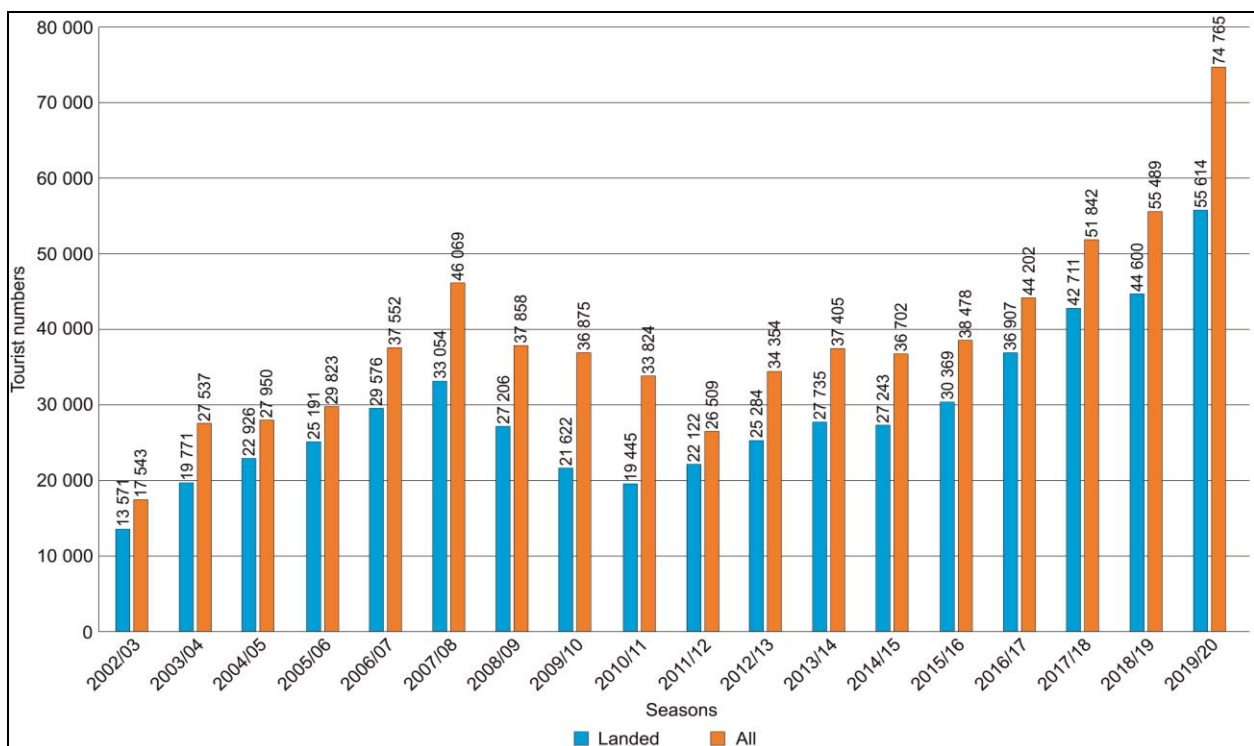


Figure 4. Development of Antarctic tourist numbers from 2002/2003 until 2019/2020 (Source: IAATO, 2019c, p.3; IAATO, 2020; supplemented)

Antarctic tourism in figures

Starting the end of the fifties in the twentieth century, the first flight and cruise, organised from Argentina and Chilli, launched commercial Antarctic tourism. Since then, the number of tourists gradually grows especially in terms of tourist excursions. In the seventies,

there was only one operator, who developed a model for travelling to Antarctica – ship cruises also called the ‘Lindblad model’ (Enzenbacher, 1993). The growing ship capacity contributed to the increasing number of Antarctic tourists. The summer seasons 1974/75, and later 1985/86 and 1990/91 evidenced the above. By the 1991/92 season, when IAATO was established, circa 6.4 thousand tourists visited Antarctica travelling on board ten excursion vessels of six operators, serviced on land by one land operator. The increased number of cruisers and chartered vessels was connected with former USSR ships entering this market. The number of tourists continued to grow and at the turn of the millennium it reached 10 thousand. The next record, of over 46 thousand, was linked with the IV International Polar Year in the 2007/2008 season, next followed by a drop resulting from the global economic downturn. The sector revived after 2011 and reached nearly 56 thousand visitors in the years 2018-2019, exceeding 74 thousand in 2019/2020 (Figure 4), (IAATO, 2019c; IAATO, 2020).

Among the 100 visiting nationalities, the majority of tourists come from The United States. At the turn of the millennium, US citizens constituted more than half of Antarctic visitors. This correlates with the fact that a number of large IAATO member ships belong to tour operators from the USA. China ranks second before Australia and traditional tourist leaders like Germany and Great Britain (Table 3). The share of Central and Eastern Europe is sporadic. Social and economic factors affect the origin of Antarctic visitors.

Table 3. Visitors by nationality 2018-2019 Seaborne, Airborne, Landed and Cruise (Sources: IAATO, 2019c, p.5.)

Country of Origin	Numbers	Percentage
United States	18942	34.1
China	8149	14.7
Australia	5077	11.5
Germany	3491	6.3
United Kingdom	4221	7.6
France	2121	3.8
Canada	2627	4.7
Switzerland	1051	1.8
Others	8518	15.4
Totals	36907	100

Nearly all visitors travelling to Antarctica with IAATO operators came by sea from Chilli or Argentina (Figure 5). A limited number set out from New Zealand or Australia. Some flew in from South America to Antarctic Peninsula and embarked on board ships to continue their journey. Approximately 1% of all visitors flew in from South America and South Africa to reach field camps and see inland Antarctica.

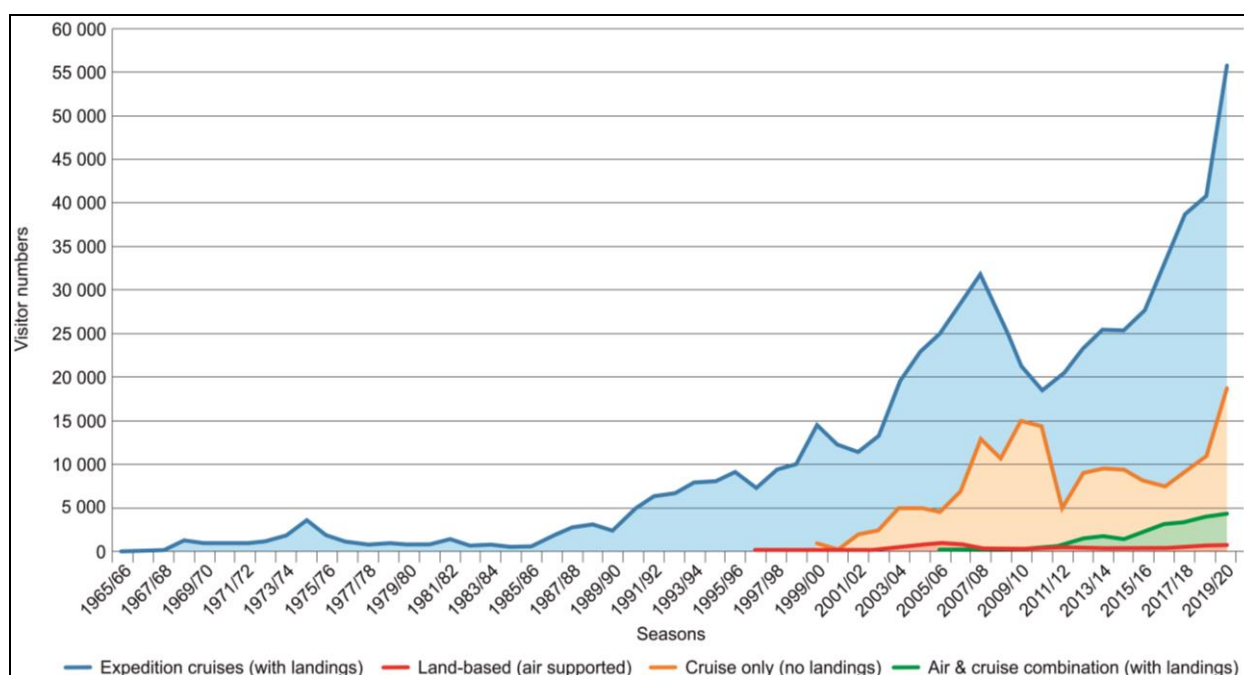


Figure 5. Tourists visiting Antarctica broken down to transport means 1965–2020 (Source: IAATO, 2019e; IAATO, 2020; supplemented)

Combined transport like ‘fly-sail’ and ‘fly-cruise’ contribute to the growing diversity of tourist operations. Typical operations involve flying tourists from South America to the Antarctic Peninsula and taking them back by ship, thus avoiding a double crossing of the stormy Drake’s Passage and reducing travel time by 2-3 days. Other excursions offer, for example, sightseeing flights with no landing. They usually start and end in Australia (Hobart, Melbourne or Perth). Antarctica is no longer a privileged destination for tourists, as was the case at the beginning of the nineties of the twentieth century (Schmidt, 2007). The number and variety of offers provides a wide range of travelling options to a growing number of clients.

Places most often visited

Most visits involve travel by ship for an expedition with or without a landing. Landings require agreeable navigation and ice conditions. Other decisive factors in visiting a location is the presence of wild animals like penguins or seals, unrivalled landscapes, remains of cultural heritage such as whaling stations, discoverers’ huts or old science stations. Modern research stations also belong to great attractions. (Lamers, 2009). Tourists reach land on board Zodiac type pneumatic boats, each taking up to 12 passengers on board. Once on land, tourists visit specific sites in small groups. Visits last merely one to two hours, however, the entire visit may last several hours depending on the

number of passengers transported to land and back to ship. While at the early stage of Antarctic tourism, visits were limited to several locations on South Shetland Islands and the west coast of Antarctic Peninsula, today the total number of locations in the region reads 360 (IAATO, 2019d). Those most popular were visited from 100 to over 170 times per season. They were visited by between 18 thousand to 24 thousand tourists (Table 4). These locations include Goudier Island, Cuverville Island, Neko Harbor, Whalers Bay, Half Moon Island, Brown Station and Danco Island. One of the iconic landing locations is the old British 'Base A' in Port Lockroy on the Goudier Island, which in summer months is a 'live museum' with a souvenir shop and post office. However, not all locations are visited every season (Hughes and Davis, 1995).

Table 4. Top Twenty Most Visited Sites During the 2018-2019 Season (including yacht visits) (Source: IAATO, 2019d, p. 6.)

Rank	Landing Site	Number of Landed Visits	Number of Landed Tourists
1	Goudier Island	172	18048
2	Cuverville Island	160	22180
3	Neko Harbor	157	23789
4	Whalers Bay	149	18167
5	Half Moon Island	131	18298
6	Brown Station	121	17960
7	Danco Island	107	19123
8	Jougla Point	95	7041
9	Mikkelsen Harbor (D'Hainaut)	89	9229
10	Damoy Point/Dorian Bay	84	12698
11	Telefon Bay	71	11259
12	Portal Point	63	8249
13	Orne Harbor	58	7910
14	Brown Bluff	56	8375
15	Petermann Island	55	5811
16	Yankee Harbor	53	6658
17	Port Charcot	48	4824
18	Waterboat Point/Gonzalez Videla Station	44	7826
19	Aitcho Islands-Barrientos Island	42	5895
20	Vernadsky Station	42	3358

The growing number of visitors to the peninsula results from introducing bigger cruisers carrying more than 150 passengers, and improved ship technology. New landing spots appear along Antarctic coasts particularly in the south around the Ross Sea, and in the northwest along Weddell Sea. In the Antarctic aviation tourist sector, sightseeing flights and flights over the area enjoy the longest tradition. By the end of the seventies of the twentieth century, Air New Zealand flew over 10 thousand passengers over Antarctica.

After the interval caused by the tragic aviation catastrophe on the slopes of Mount Erebus in 1979, interest in aviation tourism gained on popularity in mid nineties. Today, two tour operators provide commercial flights to Antarctica. One is seated in Australia (Croydon Travel jointly with Qantas), and the other, Aerovias DAP Airlines, provide flights to Antarctica departing from Punta Arenas in Chile. The season 2017-2018 showed 3.4 thousand tourists enjoying this form of tourism (IAATO members only), (Tourism and Non-Governmental Activities, 2012; Antarctic Flights, 2020).

Table 5. Programs and Participant Numbers for 2018-19 season (Source: IAATO, 2019c, p.6.)

Program	No. Participating
Emperor Penguin Colony Visits	142
Deep Field Experiences (Camping, skiing, mountaineering, skydiving, cycling, etc.)	44
Deep Field Flights (e.g. to Pole of Inaccessibility)	17
South Pole Fly-in	172
South Pole Ski Expedition	14
South Pole Motorised Expedition	22
Last 1-2 Degree Expedition	43
Antarctic Crossing	3
Vinson Massif	148
Marathon	110

Another type of aviation services concern deep-field tourism. Tourists fly to the Antarctic Plateau in the inner part of the Antarctic continent. They next exercise extreme sports, hiking and skiing, mountaineering, marathon races, etc. (Table 5).

The number of deep-field tourists increased from nearly 600 in 2017/18 to 731 in the 2019/20 season.

Future development of Antarctic tourism

A visit to Antarctica is often a key event in life that changes people who associate with its least degraded natural environment. This effect exerts pressure on excursion organisers and tourists to keep Antarctica clean. Cruisers offer a package deal of transport, bread and aboard. No construction of permanent tourist facilities is required. Projections indicate that the present ship model tourism will persist. Best evidence of the above is the launching of nine new ice-strengthened passenger vessels (*Greg Mortimer*, *Hanseatic Inspiration*, *Hanseatic Nature*, *Hondius*, *Magellan Explorer*, *Roald Amundsen*, *Scenic Eclipse*, *Silver Whisperer* and *World Explorer*) in 2019-20, all of which will operate in the Peninsula area. The new vessels reflect an investment in new tonnage, predominantly by companies that have been operating in Antarctica for decades, following the finalisation of the IMO's International Code for Ships Operating in Polar Waters (IAATO, 2019c).

The development of tourism inland is strictly linked with access to runways. It is probable that aviation tourism related infrastructure in Antarctica will develop. Many locations already upgrade their runways today. Perhaps large passenger planes will fly over Drake's Passage to an upgraded landing strip on King George Island, where tourists can board awaiting excursion vessels. This may open the option to develop tourism southwards along the western coast of the Antarctic Peninsula to reach earlier inaccessible places. Such a development will increase the potential detrimental impact on the environment and may give rise to restrictions in the number of accepted guests.

CONCLUSIONS

Antarctic tourist figures in the last decade showed a growing trend. In the 2018-19 season, the figures reached over 55 thousand, and over 70 thousand visitors in 2019-2020. Antarctic tourism is extremely seasonal and is concentrated in several accessible regions featuring unique environmental and historic assets. In general, they involve less than 0.5% of ice-free land of the continent, especially around the Antarctic Peninsula. One of the most important contemporary challenges facing Antarctica, in view of the study results presented in the article, is effective planning of tourism development and comprehensive tourist traffic control. The excessive, massive and uncontrolled development of tourism may in the future cause irreversible harm to the environment. Due to the above, the monitoring of the tourist phenomenon is vital for studies of the continent. The developments in Antarctic tourism and the related uncertainties regarding potential cumulative impacts may require, now or in the near future, the adoption of restrictions to Antarctic tourism activities to prevent irreversible damage in the future (Bastmeijer and Roura, 2004).

Antarctic tourism is today's best managed tourism sector in the world and encourages other sites to adopt the solutions applied in Antarctica. The bounding Antarctic Treaty is devoted to protection of the environment and science. Time will show whether the Antarctic Treaty system and IAATO activity manage to deal with future changes in this dynamically developing sector (Stonehouse and Crosbie, 1995).

Education is a vital issue of the visits to Antarctica thanks to IAATO activity. It provides an opportunity to become acquainted with this exceptional continent and its merit for world science. The experienced voyage helps to understand better the objective, need and responsibility of tourism, and the protection of the continent. Guests travelling with IAATO representing over 100 varied nationalities become the ambassadors of Antarctica on returning home. They are usually well educated and influential. Probably, they will remain open to the issue of protecting the continent, having experienced the educational atmosphere on board ships, which are fundamental for Antarctic tourism. The planned development assumed growth at the present level to figures over 100 thousand in the 2024/25 season. However, due to the pandemics, which slowed down tourism worldwide, including Antarctic tourism, this date will shift considerably forward in time.

REFERENCES

- Bastmeijer, K., & Roura, R. (2004). Regulating Antarctic Tourism and the Precautionary Principle. *The American Journal of International Law*, 98(4), 763-781. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3216699>
- Cavallo, E.M. (2019). *An Assessment of the Environmental Regulatory Framework Regarding Increasing Tourism Activity in Antarctica*. World Maritime University. Malmö, Sweden.
- Engelbertz, S., Liggett, D., & Steel, G. (2015). Values underlying the management of ship-borne tourism in the Antarctic Treaty area. *The Polar Journal*, 5(2), 334-360. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2154896X.2015.1080492>
- Enzenbacher, D.J. (1993). Tourists in Antarctica: numbers, and trends. *Tourism Management*, 14(2), 142-146. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177\(93\)90048-P](https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(93)90048-P)
- Haase, D., Storey, B., McIntosh, A., Carr, A., & Gilbert, N. (2007). Stakeholder perspectives on regulatory aspects of Antarctic tourism. *Tourism in Marine Environments*, 4(2, 3), 167-183. <https://doi.org/10.3727/154427307784771959>
- Haase, D., Lamers M., Storey, B., & Amelung B. (2009). Heading into uncharted territory? Exploring the institutional robustness of self-regulation in the Antarctic tourism sector. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(4), 411-430. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580802495717>
- Headland, R.K. (2009). A chronology of Antarctic exploration: a synopsis of events and activities from the earliest times until the International Polar Years, 2007-09. *Bernard Quaritch Ltd*, London. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0032247409008535>
- Hughes, J., & Davis, B. (1995). The management of tourism at historic sites and monuments. in Hal, C.M. & Johnston, M., E. (eds.), *Polar tourism: Tourism in the Arctic and Antarctic regions*. Chichester, *John Wiley and Sons*, 235-255.
- Johnston, M.E. (1997). Polar tourism regulation strategies: Controlling visitors through codes of conduct and legislation. *Polar Record*, 33(184), 13-20. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0032247400014121>
- Lamers, M. (2009). *The Future of Tourism in Antarctica - Challenges for Sustainability*. Retrieved from Universitaire Pers Maastricht: <https://cris.maastrichtuniversity.nl>, accessed 21 May 2020.
- Landau, D., & Spletstoesser, J. (2007). Management of Tourism in the Marine Environment of Antarctica: The IAATO Perspective. *Tourism in Marine Environments* 4(2-3), 185-193.
- Liggett, D., & Storey B. (2007). Stakeholder perspectives on Regulatory Aspects of Antarctic Tourism. *Tourism in Marine Environments* 4(2-3), 167-183. <https://doi.org/10.3727/154427307784771959>
- Liggett, D. (2015). *Destination Icy Wilderness*. in Liggett, D., Storey B., Cook, Y., Meduna V. eds. *Exploring the last Continent, An Introduction to Antarctica*, Springer International Publishing Switzerland, 379-388. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-18947-5>
- Molenaar, E.J. (2005). Sea-Borne Tourism in Antarctica: Avenues for Further Intergovernmental Regulation. *International Journal for Marine and Coastal Law*, 20(2), 247-295.
- Neumann, A. (2020). *Wilderness Protection in Polar Regions - Arctic Lessons learnt for the Regulation and Management of Tourism in the Antarctic*. The University of the Arctic (UArctic), Published by Brill, 71-183.
- Schmidt, O. (2007). Nachhaltigkeit des Antarktistourismus. *Sustainability of Antarctic Tourism*. Seereisen Magazin, 4(17), accessed 20.06.2019. <https://www.seereisenmagazin.de/jahrgang2007/Ausgabe-4-2007/017-antarktis-special-2.htm>
- Snyder, J.M., & Stonehouse, B. (2007). *Prospects for polar tourism*. CABI, Eds. Cromwell Press, United Kingdom.
- Spletstoesser, J. (2000). IAATO's Stewardship of the Antarctic environment: A history of tour operator's concern for a vulnerable part of the world. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 2, 47-55. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)101522-1970\(200001/02\)13:0.CO;2-7](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)101522-1970(200001/02)13:0.CO;2-7)
- Spletstoesser, J., Landau, D., & Headland, R.K. (2004). *Tourism in the forbidden lands: The Antarctica experience*. in T.V. Singh (Ed.), *New horizons in tourism*. Strange experiences and stranger practices, Cambridge, MA: CABI Publishing, 27-36.
- Stewart, E.J., Draper, D., & Johnston, M.E. (2010). A Review of Tourism Research in the Polar Regions. *Arctic*, 58(4), 383-394. <https://doi.org/10.14430/arctic452>
- Stonehouse, B., & Crosbie, K. (1995). *Tourist impacts and management in the Antarctic Peninsula area*. in Hall, C. M., Johnston, M. E. (Eds.), *Polar tourism: tourism in the Arctic and Antarctic regions*, John Wiley and Sons, 217-233.
- *** Antarctic Flights (2020). accessed 20 May 2020. <http://www.antarcticaflights.com.au>
- *** Antarctic Tourism - Human Impacts, Threats and to Environment, (2020). accessed 10 May 2020. <http://www.coolantarctica.com>
- *** Antarctic Station Catalogue (2017). The Council of Managers of National Antarctic Programs. Christchurch, New Zealand.
- *** IAATO (2018). Report on IAATO Operator Use of Antarctic Peninsula Landing Sites and ATCM Visitor Site Guidelines, 2017-2018 Season, IP 72, XLI Antarctic Treaty Consultative Meeting, Buenos Aires, Argentina, 13-18 May.
- *** IAATO (2019a). Catalogue of IATTO Operator Activities. IP 145, 2-5.
- *** IAATO (2019b). Education & Outreach by IAATO – an update for 2019. IP 98, XLII Antarctic Treaty Consultative Meeting, Prague, Czech Republic, 1-5.
- *** IAATO (2019c). Overview of Antarctic Tourism: 2018-19 Season and Preliminary Estimates for 2019-20, Season, IP 140, 1, 1-30.
- *** IAATO (2019d). Report on IAATO Operator Use of Antarctic Peninsula Landing Sites and ATCM Visitor Site Guidelines, 2018-2019 Season, IP 142, 6.
- *** IAATO (2019e). Tourism in Antarctica, 2019. accessed 27.09. 2020. www.iaato.org
- *** IAATO (2020). IAATO Antarctic visitor figures 2019-2020, accessed 22.09. 2020. www.iaato.org
- *** Tourism and Non-Governmental Activities in the Antarctic: Environmental Aspects and Impacts. (2012). CEP Tourism Study, May, 6-78.

RESIDENT'S PERCEPTION OF THE ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT OF TOURISM: A CASE STUDY OF THE BAWA COMMUNITY IN BUTTERWORTH, SOUTH AFRICA

Kimrochey Goliath-LUDIC*

Walter Sisulu University, Department of Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Management,
88 Buffalo Street, East London, 5200, South Africa, email: Kgoliath@wsu.ac.za

Siyasanga YEKELA

Walter Sisulu University, Department of Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Management,
88 Buffalo Street, East London, 5200, South Africa, email: siyayekela@gmail.com

Citation: Goliath-Ludic, K. & Yekela, S. (2020). RESIDENT'S PERCEPTION OF THE ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT OF TOURISM: A CASE STUDY OF THE BAWA COMMUNITY IN BUTTERWORTH, SOUTH AFRICA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1527–1531. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl12-603>

Abstract: Tourism is the fastest growing industry in the world. Understanding residents' perceptions of the industry assists tourism planners deliberately utilise resources to improve resident awareness and, therefore, increase the sustainability of future tourism development. The aim of the research paper was to determine resident's perception on the environmental impacts of tourism in Bawa community in Butterworth, South Africa. Quantitative and qualitative research approaches were both employed. A questionnaire was administered to collect data from the local community of Bawa. The main findings of the research reveals that the respondents perceive littering and overcrowding as the foremost issue to environmental impacts. This study contributes to the largely under researched area of tourism environmental impacts in Butterworth.

Key words: tourism, environment, environmental impacts, perception, residents, Bawa community, Butterworth, South Africa.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Internationally, the tourism industry has emerged as a key force in boosting a nation's economy (Manzoor et al., 2019). The great growth of tourism activities over the years is associated with outstanding economic and social benefits. However, the amount and prospect of tourism growth raises concerns about its negative environmental impacts (Cucculelli and Goffi, 2015). Conserving the environment is of great importance as the same environments that attract and draw tourists to the destinations and promote tourism investment, can potentially be ruined by tourism. According to Stainton (2020) damage to environmental quality may eventually destroy the tourism industry. Robinot and Giannelloni (2010) state that with concerns about environmental degradation, many governments and green action groups within the tourism sector have gradually become aware of the need for more effective measures to safeguard the environment. For this reason, the green trend is becoming more accepted in the tourism sector and the growth of tourism activities is what makes the need to regulate the green message more pressing. This is often achieved by recognising those tourism businesses that actively encourage activities that do not harm the environment (Nash, 2020). The environment has been vital in tourism research since the 80s and it continues to be an interesting topic in a time when global policies are aimed at conservation problems such as pollution, depletion of natural resources and deforestation.

In particular, the prospect of tourism activities as a means of environmental preservation and conservation have been widely investigated (Tony, 2019). According to a study by Dahal and Sapkota (2020) it was revealed that proper awareness towards waste management reduces the threat to environmental purity. Further, the role of proper waste management, energy use, and water use becomes a great asset to develop a sound tourism industry. Tourism has the potential to increase public appreciation of the environment and to spread awareness of environmental problems when it brings people into closer contact with nature and the environment (Stainton, 2020).

The quality of the environment, both natural and man-made, is essential to tourism. According to Arintoko et al. (2020) some research results show that environmental impact is considered a factor to measure sustainable tourism (Lee et al., 2013; Lundberg, 2015; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2009; Diedrich and García-Buades, 2009). Mangwane et al. (2019) suggest that to maintain sustainable tourism, local communities must engage in responsible tourism initiatives and must practise responsible tourism ethics during the management and operation of their tourism businesses. However, tourism's relationship with the environment is complex (Setokoe, 2013). It involves many activities that may have adverse environmental effects. Many of these impacts are linked to the construction of general infrastructures such as roads, airports, and of tourism facilities, including resorts, hotels, restaurants, shops, golf courses and harbours. Some studies suggest that on a negative note, tourism causes traffic and pedestrian congestion, parking problems, disturbance and destruction of flora and fauna, air and water pollution, and littering (Dwyer et al., 2020). In a study done by Costa et al. (2020) on the impacts of tourism and residents' perception, the results of this research revealed that residents have a positive attitude concerning economic, as well as cultural, social and environmental impacts. The study also reveals differences in attitude depending on age, gender and professional activity. The large increase of tourism activities that affects the environment in the Eastern Cape, particularly in Butterworth, raises concern about its negative environmental impacts (The Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council, 2020). The negative impacts of tourism development may gradually destroy the environmental resources on which it depends. Butterworth (Xhosa: Gcuwa) is the case study area and it is a town in Mnquma Local Municipality in the Eastern Cape province of South Africa. Butterworth, is one of the oldest towns in the Eastern Cape's Wild Coast (the former Transkei - a black homeland during the apartheid years).

It was established originally as a Wesleyan mission station in 1827 (Mnquma Local Municipality, 2020). Tourism may cause friction and have a negative environmental impact, with seasonality being one of the most relevant negative consequences. During the high tourism season, public and leisure infrastructures become saturated and traffic congestion and parking problems occur (Oladeji et al., 2016). Therefore, the importance of researching the environmental impacts of tourism cannot be overestimated. Tichaawa and Mhlanga (2015) assert that, once a community becomes a tourist destination, the lives of the residents in that community are affected by the tourism activities.

* Corresponding author

The effects involved may include overcrowding, increased crime, an increased cost of living, friction between tourists and residents, and changes in the host way of life (Caldicott et al., 2020). According to Arintoko et al. (2020) the lack of consideration of the environmental impacts could pose as a threat to the sustainability of the tourism in the Bawa community. Chang et al., (2018) note that rural communities, such as the Bawa of Butterworth, are a cause for great concern because of the increase in the negative environmental impacts of tourism. If these challenges are not well managed, they may cause a problem which becomes a major issue in the protection of the environment. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine the residents' perceptions of the environmental impacts of tourism in the Bawa community of Butterworth, South Africa and fill the gap in literature with regard to the environmental impact of tourism.

Research objectives

The main objectives to writing this paper are:

- To determine the perception of local residents of the negative environmental impact of tourism in the Bawa community of Butterworth, South Africa.
- To examine the factors that contributes to the environmental impact of tourism in the Bawa community of Butterworth, South Africa.
- To add to the body of knowledge pertaining tourism and the environment.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Butterworth, is one of the oldest towns in the Amatole region of the Eastern Cape Province in South Africa. Butterworth provides visitors with an opportunity to enjoy a real taste of South African mingled with traditional Xhosa hospitality. Butterworth is surrounded by beautiful country side with wide landscapes and vistas. With nearby villages one may take a day's walk to experience a welcoming customary Xhosa living (Mnquma Local Municipality, 2020). According to the Stainton (2020), the tourism industry depends on the natural environment for its existence, such as the Bawa community in the Eastern Cape Province. The town is rich in natural tourism resources, such as the Bawa Falls: The Bawa Falls is situated in the Bawa community and of all the natural waterfalls in the area, the 103 m Bawa Falls is one of the most impressive and receives a high volume of tourists in the area (Mnquma Local Municipality, 2020). Tourism and the environment depend on each other in order maintain natural resources (Setokoe, 2013). Many countries recognise this active industry as a key source of income, employment and private sector growth. Tourism is one of the industries that help countries to achieve their economic, environmental and social aims (Faladeobalade and Dubey, 2014). Many forms of tourism, especially those dependent on visiting particular places, heavily rely on natural resources and the culture of the region. As a result, an explanation of the environment and cultural heritage is one of the main topics of tourism development in the present age. According to Stainton (2020) in tourism, there is a mutual relationship between the physical environment and socio-cultural environment (the physical environment includes earth, air, water, vegetation, wildlife and man-made structures).

TOURISM AND THE ENVIRONMENT

Tang (2015) claims that understanding the relationship between tourism and the environment is important because of the complex interaction of the environmental impact arising from tourism. According to Rizal et al. (2020) environmental impacts are necessary to watch over and considered as the foundation of decision-making for the readiness of any tourism development. Rasekhi et al. (2016) argues that a related reliance exists between the development of tourism and the quality of the environment. In other words, the tourism industry and all other economic endeavours impact the environment directly, leading to the investment of those attracted to tourism in the value of the environment and the sustainable use of local resources. On the other hand, tourism is so dependent on the natural environment that the quality of the environment in the target area is one the major considerations when looking at the demands of tourism (Campbell, 2013). In addition, tourism depends on natural resources such as water, coastlines, landscapes and biodiversity, all of which affect the potential attractions of tourist destinations. According to Yazdanpanah (2016) environmental degradation created by tourism development, along with a lack of dedicated and organised management of the preservation of natural resources, brings about economic decline in many tourist destinations. The achievement of a good and desirable relationship between tourism and the environment, or between the potentially conflicting expectations and targets of visitors and local communities, could create many openings and opportunities (Kim et al., 2013). According to Sompholkrang (2014), tourism affects, and is affected by, the environment both directly and indirectly. However, the environment is considered for as an attraction for and a product of tourism. If the destination is crowded because of increased numbers of domestic and international tourists, the environment may be at risk and tourists might choose other travel destinations. Therefore, tourism might play a vital role in the safeguarding of natural habitats and nature against numerous critical forms of development (e.g., mining) or prevent other damaging forms of human activities (e.g., illegal hunting) through the earnings made by tourists' visits (Sompholkrang, 2014).

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

Negative impacts from tourism occur when the level of visitor use is greater than the environment's ability to cope with this use. Uncontrolled conventional tourism poses potential threats to many natural areas around the world (Stainton, 2020). It is clear that the growth in tourism contributes to major environmental damage and enforces critical social and cultural impacts on many destinations.

Air and water pollution

According to Bradford (2018) pollution is the contamination of a substrate when harmful and foreign substances are added to it. The additive substances can be of any form: solid, liquid or gas. This leads to the poisoning of the medium, making it unfit to be used. Water is an important environmental element for tourist host destinations and is considered an important and scarce resource. Arulappan (2016) maintains that the tourism sector is acknowledged for its mistreatment and overconsumption of water resources. In shop owners, restaurants, hotels and the resident population polluting the water. The tourism industry is one of the vital contributors to greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and is identified as contributing about 5% of carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions globally (Bradford, 2018), of which 40% is a result of air travel. Therefore, the transportation sector of tourism is measured to be a main contributor of energy consumption (resulting in carbon emissions) and uses 243 million tons of fuel (6.3% of the global production of fuel) annually (Arulappan, 2016). Sordello et al. (2019), believe that air pollution is created by both land and air transportation as a result of the rapid volume of tourists and their movements.

Noise pollution

Even though humans cannot see or smell noise pollution, it still affects the environment. Noise pollution happens when the sound coming from planes, industry or other sources reaches harmful levels. Underwater noise pollution coming from ships has been shown to upset whales' navigation systems and kill other species that depend on the natural underwater world (Bradford, 2018). Noise pollution could perhaps become a worldwide matter of concern, affecting the conservation of natural environments due to environmental disruption, ecosystems' destruction and loss of biodiversity (Sordello et al., 2019). Additionally, it is suggested that human-induced noise pollution is increasing into a worldwide destroyer of natural surroundings.

Solid waste and littering

Bawa receives a number of tourists due to its attractive scenery with its almost ever-green thorn trees and tropical flowers. Bawa Falls has a popular picnic spot and more adventurous hikers can camp overnight (Mnquma Local Municipality, 2020). In areas with concentrations of tourist activities and natural attractions, such as the Bawa area, waste disposal is a serious problem and improper disposal can be a major despoiler of the natural environment. Tourism generates a great deal of waste at river sites, scenic areas and roadsides and in mountain and hiking areas (Stainton, 2020). Moreover, tourists on tour leave behind their waste, oxygen cylinders and even camping equipment. Such practices degrade the environment, particularly in remote areas because they have few litter collection or disposal facilities (Bradford, 2018). Improper management of solid waste is one of the main causes of environmental pollution and land pollution which is one of the 17 major forms of environmental disaster our world is facing today (Abdel-Shafy and Mansour, 2018). Many tourists are found littering the natural environment while engaging in tourist activities such as hiking or other nature-based activities. This is not only degrading to the environment but also results in visual pollution (Yang et al., 2015).

Overcrowding and congestion

Butterworth is home to the first and only shopping centre in the area, which could lead to the overcrowding. The overcrowding of tourists in specific areas causes much harm to the local community in terms of traffic congestion and issues of parking space which result in conflict between locals and tourists (Szromek et al., 2018). However, the growth of tourism has also brought with it much employment and economic opportunities but tourist destinations become overpopulated with people and this has a negative effect on the environment. The attractiveness of natural resources may therefore, result in the misuse of resources by the population. Zhong et al., (2011) maintains that these environmental issues related to tourism not only impact on the image of the tourist destinations but also on the sustainable development of the local tourism industry.

METHODOLOGY

The research study made use of both quantitative and qualitative methods. Primary data for the current study was gathered using a questionnaire survey. A total number of 158 questionnaires were successfully collected among the residents of Bawa community in Butterworth, South Africa. The questionnaire consisted of 12 closed-ended questions and 3 open-ended questions. The closed-ended questions were designed to find out whether the respondents have an understanding of tourism and the environment and to further determine their perception of the impacts of tourism within Bawa community. A qualitative method was selected in a form of open-ended questions. In this case, the aim of the researcher was for the respondents to further express their opinions and views in relation to the environmental impacts of tourism in Bawa community. The study adopted a simple random method to identify a suitable sample from Bawa local community in Butterworth because it is very easy to assess the sampling errors in the method. Etikan and Bala (2017) describe simple random sampling as a sampling which permits every single item from the universe to have an equal chance of presence in the sample. For the study, the statistical package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to capture the results of the data that was collected.

RESULTS

Tourism being a travel industry, it is important to understand the environmental impacts that are caused by tourism in a community. Therefore, this study pursued to determine the demographic profile of the community of Bawa in Butterworth. Table 1 shows that the highest percentage who participated in the present study are female (59%) compared with 41% of male respondents. The ethnic group of the respondents found to be black people (100%). With regards to educational levels the majority of the respondents successfully completed secondary school at 34%. These were followed by undergraduate students, at 17%. A total of 16% of the respondents had postgraduate qualifications and 15% of the respondents had obtained a certificate. An overwhelming 32% of the respondents did not reveal their income.

Table 1. Demographic profile of the respondents

Variables	Category	Percentage (%)
Age	18-20	22%
	21-30	22%
	31-40	17%
	41-50	15%
	51-60	13%
	70>	11%
Gender	Male	41%
	Female	59%
Education	No formal education	3%
	Primary school completed	15%
	Certificate	15%
	Undergraduate	17%
	Secondary school completed	34%
	Postgraduate	16%

Table 2. Resident's perception of environmental impacts created by tourism

Statements	Percentage obtained				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
Tourists are likely to drop litter	56	26	6	10	2
Tourism can contribute to congestion in terms of overcrowding of people as well as traffic congestion	44	45	8	3	-
Tourism may lead to damage and/ or disturbance of wildlife habitats	16	51	20	12	1
Tourism can contribute to the pollution (air, water and noise)	46	36	8	7	3

1= Strongly Agree (SA): 2= Agree (A): 3= Neutral (N): 4= Disagree (D): 5= Strongly Disagree (SD)

The respondents were asked to indicate their understanding of tourism and the environment. Most (28%) of the respondents indicated that tourism and the environment depend on each other in order to maintain the natural resources. A total of 27% stated that the tourism industry depends on the natural environment for its existence, while 26% of the respondents indicated that tourism activities take place within the environment. Some respondents (16%) thought that the quality of the environment is essential to tourism. The participants were provided with statements linked to some tourism environmental impacts and were asked to rate their perception on each. The findings of the study in table 2 reveal that the majority of respondents (56%) strongly agreeing and 26% agreeing, that respondent thinks that tourists are likely to drop litter. While (45%) of the respondents agree and 44% strongly agree that tourism contributes to overcrowding and traffic congestion. Furthermore, the majority of the respondents (46% strongly agree & 36% agree) perceive that tourism contributes to pollution. Most of the respondents (39%) indicated that they agreed that there is no environmental monitoring whereas 9% strongly agreed. A total of 31% were neutral, while 16% of the

respondents disagreed with the statement. The findings show that the majority of the respondents agree with the statement that the government does not promote environmental awareness effectively, with 39% and 13% who noted that they strongly agree. The findings therefore indicate that the respondents feel that the government needs to promote environmental awareness programmes in the Bawa communities, in Butterworth.

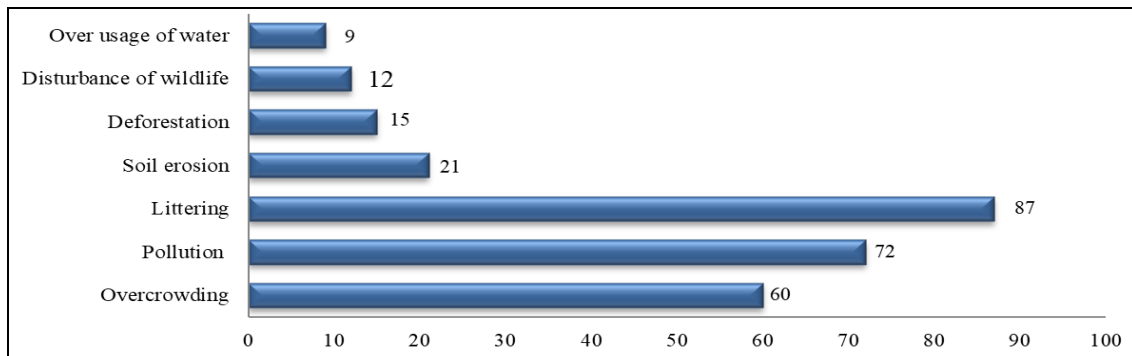


Figure 1. The environmental impacts of tourism on the Bawa community

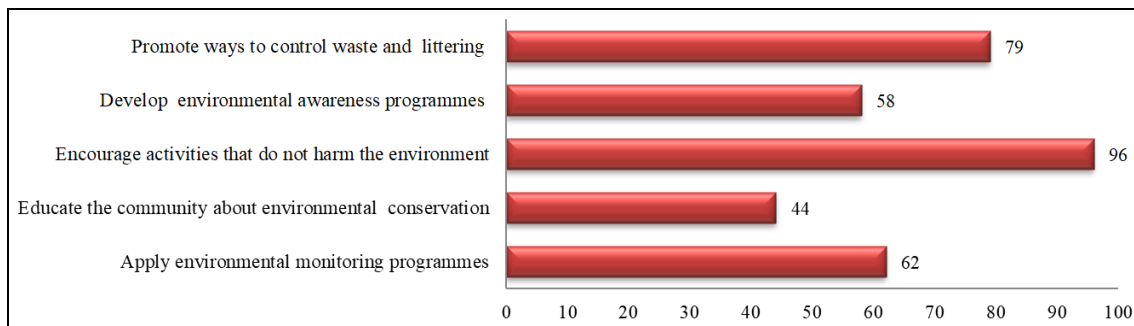


Figure 2. Effective measures to maintain the environment

The respondents were asked to indicate any tourism related challenges that affect the community environmentally. Figure 2 presents the negative impacts that were indicated by the respondents. The highest percentage of the respondents (87%) stated littering as a major environmental impact, and in agreement a study by Solberg (2017) has concluded that litter is an environmental impact which has been proven to be the most easily seen and perceived by the local community. Further 72% of the respondents stated pollution. Inversely, the study initiate that local community were of the view that they should apply effective measures to safeguard the environment.

The study wanted to find out from the residents of Bawa what they think could be done to overcome the challenges highlighted in Figure 1. The findings in Figure 2 above show that the majority of the respondents (96%) indicated that effective measures to safeguard the environment should be introduced, whereas 58% mentioned that environmental awareness programmes were required. A total of 62% of the respondents suggested that environmental monitoring during high tourism season should take place. Furthermore, 79% of the respondents stated that control of waste and littering was needed, while 44% indicated that education about how to conserve the environment was essential. Through education one can increase the community awareness and knowledge about present environmental issues or problems. This will equip the public with the necessary skills to make informed decisions and take responsible action (Retief, 2018). Dolnicar et al. (2019) recognise that responsible tourism behaviour can minimise environmental challenges and can be considered a solution to the negative environmental impacts.

RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

Tourism has the potential to create beneficial effects on the environment by contributing to environmental protection and conservation. It is a way to raise awareness of environmental values and it can serve as a tool to finance protection of natural areas and increase their economic importance (Stainton, 2020). The key aim of the research was to determine residents' 'perceptions of the environmental impacts of tourism on the Bawa community in Butterworth. The paper provides a sound basis for tourism businesses and the government to actively engage in activities to protect and preserve the environment. The local community perceived the greatest environment impact to be increased waste disposal, littering and overcrowding. It is therefore recommended that waste disposal should be appropriately addressed by constant monitoring and assessments that adhere to accepted environmental standards. A lack of government support was also noted by the local community. Therefore, it is recommended that tourism stakeholders should acknowledge the importance of the local community.

It is suggested that tourism planners in Butterworth apply effective measures to safeguard the environment and to increase environmental awareness campaigns to educate the local community about the importance of protecting the natural resources for the current and future generations. Bob (2016) asserts that information distribution through practices such as awareness campaigns may encourage tourists and the local community to be more environmentally responsible when travelling. Government also needs to play a role in creating added public environmental awareness campaigns regarding sustainable issues to reduce their negative impacts. Employment opportunities should be offered to the community to distribute the benefits and to reduce the challenges imposed on the local people. To avoid these negative issues, it is recommended that tourism planners should encourage the local community to be more involved in decision-making and in tourism planning and that they should include sustainable measures and practices to help protect the environment.

CONCLUSION

The study contributed to an improved understanding of the environmental impacts created by an increase of tourism. Determining how to minimise the negative tourism impacts is important since such impacts may have implications for the future growth and development of the tourism sector. The current study could play essential role in assisting stakeholders and tourism authorities in the Eastern Cape, particularly in Butterworth, in tourism development planning.

The study aimed to determine how the local community perceives the environmental impacts of tourism. It provides insight into the perceptions of the local community regarding the negative environmental impacts of tourism on Butterworth. The study further aims to encourage the local communities of Butterworth to be more involved in tourism development. Furthermore, the study makes a contribution to a largely under-researched area concerning environmental impacts of tourism, specifically in the Eastern Cape Province.

REFERENCES

- Abdel-Shafy, H., & Mansour, H. (2018). Solid waste issue: Sources, composition, disposal, recycling, and valorization. *Egyptian Journal of Petroleum*, 27(4), 1275-1290. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpe.2018.07.003>
- Arintoko, A., Ahmad, A.A., Gunawan, D.S., & Supadi, S. (2020). Community based tourism village development strategies: a case of Borobudur tourism village area, Indonesia. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 29(2), 398–413. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.29202-477>
- Arulappan, L. (2016). *Environmental impacts of ecolabels on the tourism sector of South Africa. Masters Dissertation*, Durban University of Technology, Durban, Kwazulu Natal.
- Bob, U. (2016). An assessment of responsible tourism behaviour among beach tourists in Durban, South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 5(3), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720-5>
- Bradford, A. (2018). Pollution Facts & Types of Pollution. Future US Inc, New York, United States.
- Caldicott, R.W., von der Heide, T., Scherrer, P., Muschter, S., & Canosa, A. (2020). Airbnb – exploring triple bottom line impacts on community. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 14(2), 205-223. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-07-2019-0134>
- Campbell, S.J. (2013). Co-management approaches and incentives improve management effectiveness in the Karimunjawa National Park, Indonesia. *Marine Policy*, 41(22), 72-79. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2012.12.022>
- Chang, K., Hungju Chien, H., Cheng, H., & Chen, H. (2018). The Impacts of Tourism Development in Rural Indigenous Destinations: An Investigation of the Local Residents' Perception Using Choice Modeling. *Sustainability*, 10(4766), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su10124766>
- Costa, A., Umbelino, J., Calisto, M., Nunes, S., & Afonso, V. (2020). Impacts of Tourism and Residents' Perceptions: A Study in the Regional Tourism Area of Lisbon. *European Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Recreation*, 10(1), 28-40. <https://doi.org/10.2478/ejthr-2020-0003>
- Cucculelli, M., & Goffi, G. (2015). Does sustainability enhance tourism destination competitiveness?. Evidence from Italian Destinations of Excellence. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 1(13), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CR-12-2017-0086>
- Dahal, B., K.C.A., & Sapkota, R. (2020). Environmental Impacts of Community-Based Home stay Ecotourism in Nepal. The Gaze: *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality*, 11(1), 60-80. <https://doi.org/10.3126/gaze.v11i1.26618>
- Diedrich, A., & García-Buades, E. (2009). Local perceptions of tourism as indicators of destination decline. *Tourism Management*, 30(4), 512-521. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.10.009>
- Dolnicar, S., Knezevic Cvelbar, L., & Grün, B. (2019). A sharing-based approach to enticing tourists to behave more environmentally friendly. *Journal of Travel Research*, 58(2), 241-252. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287517746013>
- Dwyer, L., Forsyth, P., & Dwyer, W. (2020). *Tourism Economics and Policy*. Channel View Publications, Bristol, United Kingdom.
- Etikan I, Bala K. Sampling and sampling methods. (2017). *Biom Biostat International Journal*, 5(6), 215-217. <https://doi.org/10.15406/bbij.2017.05.00149>
- Faladeobalade, T., & Dubey, S. (2014). Managing Tourism as a source of Revenue and Foreign direct investment inflow in a developing Country: The Jordanian Experience. *International Journal of Academic Research in Economics and Management Sciences*, 3(3), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.6007/IJAREMS/v3-i3-901>
- Kim, K., Uysal, M., & Sirgy, M.J. (2013). How does tourism in a community impact the quality of life of community residents? *Tourism Management*, 36(9), 527-540. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.09.005>
- Lee, T., Jan, F., & Yang, C. (2013). Conceptualizing and measuring environmentally responsible behaviors from the perspective of community-based tourists. *Tourism Management*, 36(3), 454-468. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.09.012>
- Lundberg, Erik. (2015). The Level of Tourism Development and Resident Attitudes: A Comparative Case Study of Coastal Destinations. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 15(2), 1-29. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2015.1005335>
- Mangwane, J., Tshipala N.N., Ntanjana, A., & Makopo, B.M. (2019). Segmenting township residents by their attitudes, behaviours, and opinions towards responsible tourism practices. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 27(4), 1357–1366. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.27420-439>
- Manzoor, F., Wei, L., Asif, M., Haq, M., & Rehman, H. (2019). The Contribution of Sustainable Tourism to Economic Growth and Employment in Pakistan. *International Journal of Environmental Res Public Health*, 16(19), 25-37. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16193785>
- Nash, J. (2020). *Eco-Tourism: Encouraging Conservation or Adding to Exploitation?*. Population Reference Bureau, Washington, United States.
- Oladeji, K.I., Mbaiwa, J.E., & Mmopelwa, G. (2016). The environmental impacts of tourism on community people's quality of life in Maun, Botswana. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 5(4), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.2478/2f99b83501a315b894a34513>
- Rasekhi, S., Karimi, S., & Mohammadi, S. (2016). Environmental impacts of tourism. A case study of selected developing and developed countries. *The Journal of Tourism Planning and Development*, 5(16), 71-94. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-019-07372-4>
- Retief, L. (2018). *The Importance of Environmental Education. Natures Valley Trust, The Crags, Plettenberg Bay*.
- Rizal, A., Apriliani, I.M., & Permana, R. (2020). Sustainability assessment of coastal development in Southern region of West Java province, Indonesia. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30(2), 808-817. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl05-509>
- Robinet, E., & Giannelloni, J.L. (2010). Do hotels' green attributes contribute to customer satisfaction? *Journal of Services Marketing*, 24(2), 157-169. <https://doi.org/10.1108/08876041011031127>
- Setokoe, T.J. (2013). *Tourism Development 1*. Walter Sisulu University, East London, Eastern Cape.
- Solberg, A. (2017). *Tourist perceptions of their environmental impacts in Tanzania*. Masters Dissertation, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.
- Sompholkrang, M. (2014). Tourism expenditures and environment in Thailand. *Eurasian Journal of Economics and Finance*, 2(2), 63-69. <https://doi.org/10.15604/ejef.2014.02.02.005>
- Sordello, R., Flamerie De Lachapelle, F., & Livoreil, B. (2019). Evidence of the environmental impact of noise pollution on biodiversity: a systematic map protocol. *Environmental Evi*, 8(8), 332-345. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13750-019-0146-6>
- Stainton, H. (2020). *TEFL Tourism: Principles, Commodification and Sustainability*. CABI Publishing, Wallingford, United Kingdom.
- Szromek, A., Hysa, B., & Karasek, A. (2018). The Perception of Overtourism from the Perspective of Different Generations. *Sustainability*, 11(15), 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11247151>
- Tang, Z. (2015). An integrated approach to evaluating the coupling coordination between tourism and the environment. *Tourism Management*, 46(3), 11-19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.06.001>
- Tichaawa, T., & Mhlanga. (2015). Community perceptions of a community-based tourism project: A case study of the CAMPFIRE programme in Zimbabwe. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance*, 21(1), 55-67. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/19595>
- Tony, B. (2019). *The Greening of Machiavelli: The Evolution of International Environmental*. Routledge, Abingdon, Kwazulu Natal.
- Vargas-Sánchez, A., Plaza-Mejia, M., & Porras-Bueno, N. (2009). Understanding residents' attitudes toward the development of industrial tourism in a former mining community. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(3), 373-387. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287508322783>
- Yang, J., Han, Q., Zhou, J., & Yuan, C. (2015). *The Influence of Environmental Management Practices and Supply Chain Integration on Technological Innovation Performance—Evidence from China's manufacturing Industry*. ESP Ind, Beijing, China.
- Yazdanpanah, H. (2016). Effect of climate change impact on tourism: A study on climate comfort of Zayandehroud River route from 2014 to 2039. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 17(3), 82-89. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2015.12.002>
- Zhong, L., Deng, J., Song, Z., & Ding, P. (2011). Research on environmental impacts of tourism in China: Progress and prospect. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 92(11), 2972-2983. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2011.07.01>
- *** Mquma Local Municipality. (2020). *Welcome message*. Mquma Local Municipality, Butterworth, Eastern Cape.
- *** The Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council, (2020). *A Socio Economic Profile of Butterworth*. Ecsecc, Butterworth, Eastern Cape.

SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE BACKWATERS OF SOUTH KERALA, INDIA: THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT PERSPECTIVE

Emilda K. JOSEPH*

Christ College, Mahatma Gandhi University, Idukki, Kerala, India, e-mail: emildahelloise@gmail.com

Tomy K. KALLARAKAL

School of Commerce, Finance and Accountancy, CHRIST (Deemed to be University), Bengaluru, Karnataka, India, e-mail: tomy.kk@christuniversity.in

Bindi VARGHESE

School of Business and Management, CHRIST (Deemed to be University), Bengaluru, Karnataka, India, e-mail: bindi.varghese@christuniversity.in

Jose K. ANTONY

Rajagiri College of Social Sciences (Autonomous), Kochi, Kerala, India, e-mail: josekantony@rajagiri.edu

Citation: Joseph, E.K., Kallarakal, T.K., Varghese, B., & Antony J.K.. (2020). SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE BACKWATERS OF SOUTH KERALA, INDIA: THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT PERSPECTIVE. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1532–1537. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl13-604>

Abstract: Improper waste management continues to be a major challenge in the backwater destinations of South Kerala, India and the local government has been identified as a key player having a strong influence on sustainable tourism development initiatives in the destination. The study examines the major obstacles encountered while implementing sustainable tourism development practices in the backwater destinations of South Kerala, India. Qualitative data collected with the support of semi-structured interviews with top government officials of the Tourism Industry is used for the study. The findings from the study show that improper waste management affects sustainable tourism development in the backwater destinations, and that community involvement and community support are pre-requisites for implementing solid waste management practices in the backwater destinations of the state. The study also enlightens the roles of various stakeholders in waste management so as to develop a strong perspective of sustainable tourism development in the region.

Key words: sustainable tourism, sustainable tourism development, backwater tourism, waste management, community support, community involvement, perception.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Backwaters of Kerala have garnered international interest through Houseboat Tourism that has emerged as the flagbearer of the Kerala Wetland Tourism Industry (Kokkranikal and Morrison, 2020). The geographical expanse of the backwaters has also resulted in a renewed interest in Backwater Tourism. It has met with great success in the state of Kerala in India, which in turn has led to the tremendous growth of tourism facilities in the region like houseboats, homestays, and resorts along the shores of the backwaters. Aggressive national and international marketing campaigns in Backwater Tourism create positive impacts on the monetary expansion and in the creation of jobs for local people. But the adverse impacts of Backwater Tourism are inevitable (Dileep, 2014). One way to address the problems is to develop a systematic plan to ensure sustainable and eco-friendly development in the backwater areas. This will resolve the multiple issues arising from the tourism activities in the wetlands (World Tourism Organization, 2012). Many researchers have also expressed the need for sustainable development in the backwater destinations of South Kerala. However, they always seem to ignore the top government officials' perspectives on the major obstacles of sustainable tourism development, especially those suitable for the three major backwater tourism regions of Alappuzha, Kollam, and Kottayam in South Kerala. According to Nikčević (2019) addressing sustainable tourism development programs in a destination requires the participation of various stakeholders. Among all these stakeholders, the local government is identified as a key player who has a strong influence on the sustainable tourism development initiatives in a destination. Understanding and identifying the problems and initiating the right actions will help them to propose appropriate solutions to tackle the difficulties and transform the concept of sustainable tourism development into a daily practice for the Tourism Industry in the backwaters of South Kerala.

The study aims to examine the major obstacles in implementing sustainable tourism practices from the perspective of top government officials by employing qualitative research techniques. Hence, the research question formulated for the study is, *what are the major obstacles in implementing sustainable tourism development practices in the backwater destinations of South Kerala from the perspective of government officials?* The paper offers an overview of the review of related literature based on a few criteria in the areas of sustainability, tourism, and destination management, connected with the research study. The methodology section of the paper focuses on the study area, and the techniques of data collection and analysis, which are followed by the findings, discussions and conclusion.

LITERATURE REVIEWS

Sustainable Tourism Development

Tourism destinations are always trying to practice and strive for sustainability. This process influences all aspects of tourism on a day-to-day basis. Mearns (2012) quoted, "nowadays people perceive themselves as an integral part of the environment because they are increasingly aware of the various activities that have a direct impact on the environment". At the same time, sustainable development has been recognized as a powerful tool for development of the human society and it plays a significant role in the conservation of resources in many parts of the world (Cristian et al., 2015). According to Hunter (1997) Sustainable Tourism is not a highly rigid framework but an

* Corresponding author

adaptive paradigm that explains the varied approaches to suit different circumstances, and it also encompasses principles, policies, methods, and prescriptions that help to protect tourism development for the future. Sustainable Tourism refers to the ability of the society, the ecosystem and other existing similar systems to operate continuously towards an unanticipated future, while also ensuring that the key resources are not depleted (Janusz and Bajdor, 2013). Therefore a sustainable framework can balance environmental conservation with community development (Kimbu and Tichaawa, 2018). While emphasizing on the local environment, the host community, and the visitors, it also ensures to cater to the needs of all the three (Savage et al., 2004). Sustainable development is also one of the promising factors for resolving the negative impacts on the socio-cultural, economic, and environmental resources (Kimbu and Tichaawa, 2018).

Butler (1999) in his article, 'Sustainable Tourism: A State of the Art Review' clearly defines the origin and development of the concepts of Sustainable Tourism and Sustainable Tourism Development. The study points to the original definition of Sustainable Tourism Development which was proposed by the Brundland Commission in 1987, in 'Our Common Future' as 'the developments that meet the needs of the present without compromising on the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs.'

Angelevska and Rakicevik (2012) elaborated on the three aspects that were part of the concept of sustainable development, namely economic, environmental, and social or cultural aspects. Economic sustainable development provides frameworks for the cost-effective utilization of local resources while environmental sustainable development is more compatible with the needs of biological diversity. Social or cultural sustainable development considers traditional cultural values to strengthen community development.

Sustainable Tourism should therefore be carefully designed to benefit the local community, respect the local culture, and protect the natural resources. The main considerations for Sustainable Tourism include stakeholder partnerships, community development, and sustainable benefits to conserve the resources. All these offer an important and promising mechanism for local communities to optimally utilize and take full advantage of the tourism resources (Angelevska and Rakicevik, 2012). Butowski (2014) in his study considers both Sustainable Tourism and Sustainable Development as a similar phenomenon and the study has been able to successfully renew research interest in Sustainable Tourism across the globe. The study also added that Sustainable Tourism was crucial for communities to develop and safeguard the cultural and authentic values of the tourism destinations, as tourism played a significant role in economic development by contributing to the employment opportunities and in the development of micro and medium enterprises. Prabhakaran et al., (2013) also explained that the major roadblocks and hindrances while implementing Sustainable Tourism Practices should be regularly and continuously analyzed to develop the form of tourism in any destination. Therefore, the future of the Sustainable Tourism Industry is a matter of great interest and concern for Backwater Tourism. The concept of Sustainable Tourism is the need of the hour and it has become a recognized goal for many forms of tourism conservation (Sakolnakorn et al., 2013).

Backwaters of South Kerala

Backwaters are wetlands where the rivers meet the sea or where freshwater mixes with seawater, and where tides occur (Cui et al., 2012). According to the Ramsar Convention in 1971, 'wetlands are areas of marsh, fen, peatland or water, whether natural or artificial, permanent or temporary, with water that is static or flowing, fresh, brackish or salty, including areas of marine water, the depth of which at low tide does not exceed more than six meters.' The backwaters of Kerala stretch over a total expanse of 1500 km across the districts of Alappuzha, Kottayam, Trivandrum, Kollam, Kozhikode, Kasaragod and Ernakulam. The backwaters have a network of more than 44 rivers, lagoons and lakes from the north to the south, and of the 29 major lakes on the backwaters, seven drains into the sea. The backwaters of South Kerala have gained international acclaim as Houseboat Tourism has emerged as the backbone of the Kerala Backwater Tourism Industry (Kokkranikal and Morrison, 2020). The backwaters of Alappuzha, Kumarakom and Kollam are the most popular on the tourist trail for backwater boat trips as they attract both international and national tourists in large numbers all around the year.

The largest backwater body in the state, the Vembanad Lake flows through Alappuzha and Kottayam districts, and this region is popularly known as Kumarakom while the second largest backwater lake is Ashtamudi and it flows through Kollam district. The longest and the most enchanting backwater experience is from Kollam to Alappuzha. The houseboats traditionally known as the *kettuvalloms* are traditional water boats that have been transformed into super-luxury houseboats offering a unique travel experience in Kerala for every visitor. Tourism activities in Kerala, especially in southern Kumarakom, are at their peak on the Vembanad Lake (Vincy et al., 2012). However, the region has been subjected to acute pressure due to numerous developmental activities and overutilization of resources. Population growth and industries are directly contributing to the loss of the natural ecosystem.

Numerous tourism facilities such as hotels and resorts are being built without considering the healthy preservation of the natural environment in the backwater destinations. Vincy et al. (2012) understood that in addition to the many resorts constructed on the shores of the lakes, the houseboats also contributed to the problems in the backwaters. Though the houseboats offered a wonderful means to experience the beauty of the backwaters, the current expansion of Backwater Tourism was highly unregulated. Asha et al. (2016) studied that Backwater Tourism was causing a lot of harm to the society and the environment. Most of the wetlands were facing a serious threat to their existence and these threats to their sustainability were mainly caused due to human actions.

Although houseboats play an integral role in Backwater Tourism, they are not completely suited for supporting tourism activities because of their physical and morphological attributes. It has been found that successful and scientific strategies have not yet been developed to overcome many of the problems caused by houseboats. The involvement of stakeholders in decision making is an important element in successful Backwater Tourism Management. Therefore, it has become imperative for the Backwater Tourism Industry to sustain its basic elements for the development of the destination across the three dimensions, namely social, economic, and environmental factors. The recent developments in Backwater Tourism have highlighted the importance of Sustainable Tourism Development as one of the most desirable forms of tourism development especially to preserve the natural, cultural and social values (Dileep, 2014). According to UNWTO, the tourism sector is now gearing up to resume its activities with the lessons learned in the aftermath of the COVID – 19 pandemic. And they have mentioned 'sustainability' to no longer be a niche element in the tourism sector but as the new norm for every nook and corner of the sector. It is in the hands of every stakeholder to transform tourism while it re-emerges in the year, revolving around sustainability. The time is now appropriate to advance towards a more economically, socially, and environmentally sustainable world. Hence the study highlights the ongoing challenges inherent in tackling the issues in Sustainable Tourism Development in the backwater regions of South Kerala.

Perceptions of Government Officials on Sustainable Tourism Development

The attitude of the stakeholders is of paramount importance in preserving and sustaining tourism products (Moral-cuadra et al., 2019). Perception can be understood as the stakeholders' attitudes towards opinions and reactions, and this perception on the environment can be understood to create a strong and long-standing relationship between themselves and their surrounding environment (Lee, 2013). Individual perceptions are governed by past experiences, present social circumstances, values, and beliefs (Kaoje et al.,

2017). However, this relationship is not as simple as the different factors that support the relationship (Buenrostro et al., 2015). Factors that influence the perceptions on benefits and costs of tourism include the level of participation, use of local resources and involvement in various activities (Núñez-tabales et al., 2016). The perception of government officials towards the environment, and their involvement and participation in tourism activities were the most important factors that influenced the behavior of the local community towards environmental improvement (Eshliki and Kaboudi, 2012). If the government officials were willing to involve and participate in various development strategies, then the tourism destinations exhibited the potential to improve their sustainability (Basiru et al., 2017).

The perception of the government officials influenced the destinations' values, beliefs, and successes (Kumar and Nandini, 2013), and their perception towards the impacts of tourism were also considered as significant aspects during the planning and policy-making stages (Aref et al., 2009). Strydom and Mangope (2019) also believed that for those destinations which completely depended on the Tourism Industry to sustain themselves, government officials played a key role in conserving sustainability and in influencing the attitude, perception, support and involvement of the local community. Therefore, understanding the perception of the government officials about the benefits and the costs of the tourism destinations can be considered as a strong indicator to measure the communities' perceptions on Sustainable Tourism. This also acts as an important factor in the development of tourism destinations.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

Study Area

The backwaters of South Kerala were selected as the research area for the study. Backwater Tourism has garnered a lot of success in the tourism sector of Kerala which has led to the tremendous growth of tourism facilities like houseboats, homestays, and resorts around the areas of the backwaters. With a network of more than 44 rivers, lagoons and lakes, the backwaters of Alappuzha, Kumarakom and Kollam are prominent on the tourist maps for backwater boat trips. The longest, the best and the most enchanting backwater experience is enjoyed on boat rides from Kollam to Alappuzha. The wide geographical expanse of the backwaters in the state has led to renewed interest in Backwater Tourism. However, the negative impacts of Backwater Tourism are inevitable. One way to overcome the problems is to develop a systematic plan so as to ensure sustainable and eco-friendly developments in the backwater destinations.

Data Collection

To obtain more authentic and useful information from the study, an Interview Guide was used as a research instrument and face-to-face interviews were conducted with the top government officials in the Department of Tourism in the backwater regions of South Kerala, India. The Interview Guide was first written in English and it was later translated into Malayalam, the local language of the state. A professional translator and a language editor took part in the data collection process in order to assure the reliability of the translated information. Further, it was assessed for content validity by academic and industry experts prior to the commencement of the actual data collection.

The Interview Guide had three parts; the first set of questions were related to the socio-demographic profile of the respondents, the second set of questions helped to explore the tourism development practices and the changes in the backwater region, and the third set of questions helped to explore the impacts of tourism. The respondents for the study were selected from the Department of Tourism in the backwater regions of Kerala. Top government officials were considered as the participants, and as they were less in number, every other member (5) was selected for the interview. A Census Survey Method was employed. The interviews were carried out between August and December 2018. Table 1 presents the Profiles of the Respondents.

Table 1. Profiles of the Respondents

Name	Profile	Area
Respondent 1	Information Officer, Tourism Department	Alappuzha
Respondent 2	Secretary, District Tourism Promotion Council	Alappuzha
Respondent 3	Director, Responsible Tourism Initiatives	Kumarakom, Kottayam
Respondent 4	Secretary, District Tourism Promotion Council	Kollam
Respondent 5	Secretary, Department of Tourism	Kumarakom, Kottayam

Analysis

A professional translator and a language editor transcribed the interviews. By focusing on previous studies, the interview questions were independently examined so as to develop categories and clusters. This study employed a cross-case analysis approach by using NVIVO Version 12 in order to understand the major obstacles in Sustainable Tourism Development in the backwater regions of Kerala. Cross Case Analysis is a research technique in which the variations and similarities of events, activities, cases, and processes are compared so as to understand the meaning of single or multiple case studies so as to produce desired outcomes. It organizes the cases in to tables and graphs (Cruzes et al., 2015). The analysis consisted of five phases. In the first phase, each interview was considered as an individual case study, and a new Nvivo Project was created with each case study from the transcripts by including all the data from the transcripts. Text sources were coded with nodes (themes) and this was then organized into hierarchies in order to understand the broader and narrower concepts. This helped to cluster the concepts and to exhibit the relationships between the themes. In the second phase, the data that was not of primary interest to the study was eliminated and each case study was then compared and discussed. The focused codes that directly addressed the study were developed in the third phase. In the fourth phase, the individual findings were compared and discussed, and in the last phase, the theoretical concepts that emerged from the raw data were categorized under different themes. Exemplary quotations were also included for all the themes. Based on the context of the study, the coding process is illustrated as shown in Table 2.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The main changes in the Backwater Tourism Destinations

Sustainable ways of developing tourism offer the chance to support an ecosystem to operate continuously in an undefined future without any resource depletion (Sumarmi et al., 2020). According to the participants' answers to the question, "what are the main changes you have seen in the backwaters due to the tourism activities over the last decade?" majority of the respondents said that waste management was one of the main problems faced in the backwater destinations due to the increased movements of unauthorized houseboats. As a result of sewage and other forms of pollution, the backwaters have become highly contaminated and the quantity of fish in the waters has reduced considerably. This has resulted in severe damage to the backwater ecosystems and it has also drastically affected the lives of the local people who depend on fishing in these areas. "There are innumerable houseboats that commute through the

backwaters which are more than what the backwaters can accommodate. If the situation is allowed to continue for the next two decades, the condition of Vembanad Lake will worsen. In recent time there was an incident wherein, dead fish was found floating on the water and the main reason for this was pollution. I would mainly point towards houseboats' wastes." (Respondent 3)

Table 2. The Coding Process

Exemplary Quotations	Code	Theme
"The primary reason for Vembanad Lake to be polluted from tourism is due to waste from houseboats." (Respondent 3)	Increase in waste management problems Increase in pollution	Major changes in the backwater tourism destinations
"Backwater tourism destinations are environmentally degraded and physically polluted." (Respondent 4)	Environmental degradation	
"Due to sewage and other forms of pollution, backwaters have become highly polluted and the amount of fish in them has been reduced substantially." (Respondent 3)	Increase in pollution Reduction in fish wealth	
"The major hindrance in implementing tourism development projects in Alappuzha is the intervention of the local community; more specifically, trade unions and party-based interventions. Only if there is unity among the tourism stakeholders will development initiatives be practical." (Respondent 1)	No initiatives from tourism stakeholders	
"There are innumerable houseboats that commute through the backwaters which are more than what the backwaters can accommodate. Most of them are unregistered houseboats." (Respondent 4)	Increase in the number of houseboats Unregistered houseboats	Major issues in the backwater tourism destinations
"There are no particular and strict rules and regulations for houseboat operators. They conduct their services the way they please." (Respondent 3)	No strict rules for houseboat operations	
"The backwater tourism destinations of Alappuzha still follow the age-old practices of the cleaning process. Presently there are no waste management initiatives and the Department of Tourism is yet to introduce a master plan to address the problems of waste management." (Respondent 1)	Old traditions of waste management No new waste management initiatives	
"The common rule is that all the houseboats should have STP plants, but most of the washroom wastes from the houseboats are discharged directly into the backwaters, and there are no skilled workers to handle the waste materials from the houseboats." (Respondent 2)	Improper waste management No adequate manpower Dumping of waste from houseboats	
"The attitudes of the local communities are a huge roadblock whenever the Department of Tourism tries to implement any tourism development projects." (Respondent 1)	The attitude of the local community No support and involvement from the local community	Mitigating measures to reduce the negative impacts
"The Department of Tourism can play the role of a moderator in supporting tourism development in the area by offering financial support." (Respondent 4)	Financial support Facilitator	
"Gradually houseboats can shift to solar engines which would help to a great extent in overcoming the problems of pollution. If they can run on solar engines, pollution from petrochemicals can be reduced, overdependence on fuel can be avoided, more number of sewage treatment plants can be set up, plastic bottles can be banned, cloth bags can be provided and awareness programs can be organized for the local community." (Respondent 5)	Solar energy Solar-powered engines Sewage treatment plants Cloth bags Ban on plastic below the stipulated micron	
"The solutions to the problems in the backwater destinations could be solar energy, implementing sewage treatment plants, strict regulations to treat waste in houseboats, and strict regulations on licenses for houseboats and homestays." (Respondent 3)	Strict rules Not to issue new licenses to houseboats and homestays	
"The Department of Tourism has implemented Global Positioning Systems (GPS) for all registered houseboats." (Respondent 1)	GPS Monitoring System	
"More opportunities can be provided to the local people by implementing controlled waste management programs like bio-toilets in the houseboats, and plastic waste dumping and collection units in various areas." (Respondent 4)	All houseboats to implement Sewage Treatment Plants More opportunities for the local community	
"Training programs to collect wastes from the canals will be offered. This will prevent the waste from entering into the backwaters directly and hence it can be controlled." (Respondent 4)	Training	
"As a part of promoting Sustainable Tourism, the Department of Tourism is in the process of implementing new rules in order to classify houseboats based on Green Environment Certifications. The guidelines for this are yet to be drafted. But once implemented, the strict rules and regulations will put an end to the operations of those houseboat operators without licenses." (Respondent 5)	Green Environment Certification	
"At present, there is a 'mobile barge' in Kumarakom, Kottayam for handling the wastes in the backwaters. Unfortunately, it is about 2 to 2.5 km from the main cruise routes of the houseboats. The houseboat operators are unwilling to travel this far to dump their wastes while giving up on the cruises. Therefore the only remedial measure to overcome this problem is to introduce a mobile barge, like the one in Kumarakom." (Respondent 5)	Mobile barge	

The major issues facing Backwater Tourism today

According to the participants' responses to the question, "what are the major issues that Backwater Tourism is facing today?" majority of the respondents said that there were innumerable houseboats that commuted through the backwaters, which was more than what the waters could accommodate. As Respondent 3 stated earlier, if this situation is allowed to continue in the future, the condition of Vembanad Lake would worsen. Majority of the houseboats are also unregistered. The Department of Tourism can impose very heavy fines on the registered houseboats for irregularities in waste management, but no action can be taken against the unregistered houseboats. Two kinds of wastes are produced from all the houseboats, namely, solid and plastic wastes. The common rule is that all the houseboats must have a Sewage Treatment Plant but most of the washroom wastes from the houseboats are dumped directly into the backwaters and are not brought back to the shore to be treated in the sewage plants. Similarly, respondents also pointed out that there were no proper rules and regulations in place for houseboat operations. Houseboat operators conduct their services the way they please. Though there are many houseboats registered under the local administrative bodies known as the *village panchayaths*, many of the other houseboats operate without possessing valid and

proper licenses. To add on to the challenge, the authorities have no count of the boats that move on the backwaters, and how many of them are actually complying with the government regulations. The pollution affecting the backwater regions can be controlled only through hand-in-hand coordination between the houseboat operators, the *panchayaths* and the local communities. This is therefore the need of the hour because without clean backwaters there would be no safe and peaceful lives for the local communities.

“The major issue in Backwater Tourism is the presence of a large number of houseboats without proper licenses. Many people start the houseboat business by borrowing huge amounts of money from the banks. To make an easy and quick profit, the houseboat operators are forced to provide services without valid and complete licenses. There is also no proper mechanism in place to manage the wastes from the houseboats, with many operators directly discarding the waste into the backwaters. This is the biggest difficulty being faced as it directly harms the backwaters, and without clean backwaters, there would be no life for the local community” (Respondent 3)

Mitigating measures to reduce the negative impacts

The Department of Tourism has to play the role of a strong moderator in order to support the development of tourism in the backwater regions of Kerala. The concept of Sustainable Tourism can never be possible without the active support of the local community, especially in a place of backwaters (Dileep, 2014). The government has its own limitations as local community members can raise major issues and objections against the plans proposed by the government institutions.

“Whenever developmental plans are proposed, major issues are raised by the local community members. Their attitude is to cause hindrance whenever the Department of Tourism tries to implement any development project. Therefore without the active support of the local community members, the department will not be able to bring about a positive change in the region” (Respondent 1).

Though the local community members were not very supportive in the past, in recent times with the introduction of Responsible Tourism initiatives, they have become more open and receptive to the proposed development programs. In addition to the community support, few other measures by which the region can overcome many of the existing problems could be through the use of solar energy, by implementing sewage treatment plants, by enforcing green environment certifications, and mandatory and clear regulations so as to treat the wastes from the houseboats, and by introducing statutory and strict licenses for houseboats. “The more important options are solar energy and sewage treatment plants. There should be strict regulations enforced to treat the wastes, in such a manner that only when the plan is submitted will the licenses be issued for the houseboats to operate” (Respondent 3).

Figure 1 represents a comprehensive diagram which illustrates the major obstacles in the development of Sustainable Tourism in the backwater destinations of South Kerala.

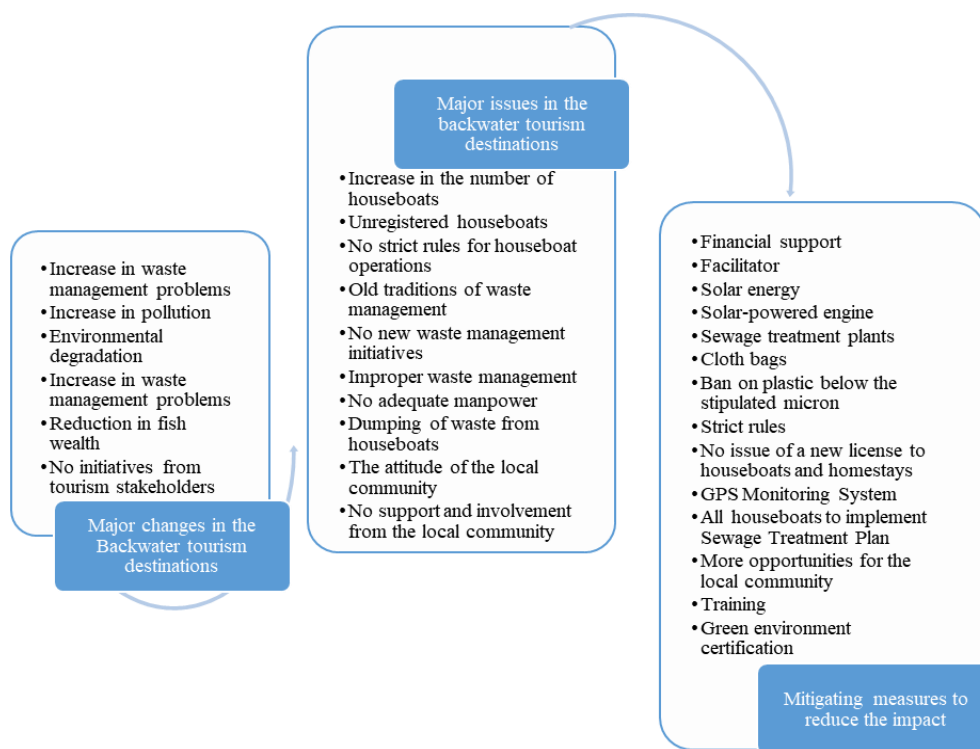


Figure 1. Major obstacles in the development of Sustainable Tourism in the backwater destinations of South Kerala

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND SCOPE FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In conclusion, improper waste management is the biggest challenge in the backwater tourism destinations of Kerala. The study was able to suggest that improper waste management affected Sustainable Tourism Development in the backwater destinations and it also emphasized the role of various stakeholders in waste management that reflected a strong perspective of Sustainable Tourism Development. Reddy (2020) has further explained the importance of complete participation of different stakeholders in solid waste management because this process is a continuous maintenance activity and it can turn out to be a learning experience for everyone involved in the solid waste management program. Therefore, involvement and support of stakeholders are pre-requisites for implementing efficient solid waste management practices in the backwater destinations of Kerala. It will also offer many benefits to the stakeholders by providing a steady source of income and in uplifting the standards of living in the backwater destinations. The factors that can influence the perception of costs and benefits include the level of stakeholder participation, the use of local resources, and the involvement in various tourism development activities. The intensity of these factors can vary depending on the stakeholders' perceptions on the impact, which could either be positive or negative (Núñez-tabales et al., 2016).

The study addressed two important gaps in the literatures on Backwater Tourism. Firstly, it enlightened the stakeholders about the existing challenges in Sustainable Tourism Development in the backwater destinations of Kerala. Secondly, the results confirmed that stakeholder support is imperative for Sustainable Tourism Development in the backwater regions. If the stakeholders are willing to involve and participate in waste management strategies and programs, then the tourism destinations will be able to develop the potential to improve sustainability (Basiru et al., 2017). Stakeholders in the backwater regions can develop programs, activities, and strategies that can help to enhance benefits and simultaneously reduce costs of Sustainable Tourism. Despite the suggestions and recommendations, this study had several limitations that can be addressed through further research. The study focused only on responses from the top officials in the Department of Tourism at the backwater destinations of South Kerala. Other stakeholders in these destinations might have different opinions and disagreements about Sustainable Tourism practices and development initiatives. The study also focused on only a few of the major obstacles in Sustainable Tourism Development in the backwater destinations of South Kerala, while there are actually several other issues and challenges related to the backwater tourism destinations. Future research can consider the potential effect of a similar study across a wider spectrum. More research can also be carried out in order to understand the perception of local communities who might be directly or indirectly involved in the development of tourism in such destinations.

REFERENCES

- Angelevska-Najdeska, K., & Rakicevik, G. (2012). Planning of Sustainable Tourism Development. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 44, 210–220. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.022>
- Aref, F., & Gill, S.S. (2009). Community Perceptions toward Economic and Environmental Impacts of Tourism on Local Communities. *Asian Social Science*, 5(7), 130–137. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v5n7p130>
- Asha, C.V., Retina, I.C., Suson, P.S., & Bijoy, N.S. (2016). Ecosystem analysis of the degrading Vembanad wetland ecosystem, the largest Ramsar site on the South West Coast of India — Measures for its sustainable management. *Regional Studies in Marine Science*, 8(3), 408–421. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rsma.2016.06.003>
- Basiru, H.A., Yacob, M.R., Radam, A., & Manaf, L.A. (2017). Households' Levels of Awareness, Perception, and Attitude towards Improved Solid Waste Collection Services in Kano. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 22(9), 24–36. <https://doi.org/10.9790/0837-2209122436>
- Buenrostro, O., Márquez, L., & Ojeda, S. (2014). Environmental perception of solid waste management in the municipalities of Patzcuaro Region, Mexico. *Environmental Engineering and Management Journal*, 13(12), 3097–3103. <https://doi.org/10.30638/eemj.2014.348>
- Butler, R.W. (1999). Sustainable tourism: A state-of-the-art review. *Tourism Geographies*, 1(1), 7–25. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616689908721291>
- Butowski, L. (2014). *Sustainable Tourism – A Model Approach*. In *Visions for Global Tourism Industry - Creating and Sustaining Competitive Strategies* (pp. 1–20). University of Lodz, Poland. <https://doi.org/10.5772/37718>
- Cristian, D., Maria, L., Artene, A., & Duran, V. (2015). The components of sustainable development - a possible approach. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 26(15), 806–811. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671\(15\)00849-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671(15)00849-7)
- Cruzes, D.S., Dybå, T., Runeson, P., & Höst, M. (2015). Case studies synthesis: a thematic, cross-case, and narrative synthesis worked example. *Empirical Software Engineering*, 20(6), 1634–1665. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10664-014-9326-8>
- Cui, M., Zhou, J.X., & Huang, B. (2012). Procedia Environmental Benefit evaluation of wetlands resource with different modes of protection and utilization in the Dongting Lake region. *Procedia Environmental Sciences*, 13, 2–17. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proenv.2012.01.001>
- Eshliki, S.A., & Kaboudi, M. (2012). Community Perception of Tourism Impacts and Their Participation in Tourism Planning : A Case Study of Ramsar, Iran. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 36, 333–341. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.03.037>
- Hunter, C. (1997). Sustainable tourism as an adaptive paradigm. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(4), 850–867. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(97\)00036-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(97)00036-4)
- Janusz, G.K., & Bajdor, P. (2013). Towards to Sustainable Tourism Framework, Activities and Dimensions. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 6(13), 523–529. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671\(13\)00170-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671(13)00170-6)
- Kaoje, A.U., Sabir, A.A., Yusuf, S., Jimoh, A.O., & Raji, M.O. (2017). Residents' perception of solid waste disposal practices in Sokoto, Northwest Nigeria. *African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology*, 11(February), 94–102. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJEST2014.1791>
- Kimbu, A.N., & Tichaawa, T.M. (2018). Sustainable development goals and socio-economic development through tourism in central Africa: Myth or reality. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 23(3), 780–796. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.23314-328>
- Kokkranikal, J., & Morrison, A. (2020). Entrepreneurship and sustainable tourism: the houseboats of Kerala. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 4(1), 7–20. <https://doi.org/10.1177/146735840200400102>
- Kumar, M., & Nandini, N. (2013). Community attitude, perception and willingness towards solid waste management in Bangalore city, Karnataka, India. *Internal Journal of Environmental Sciences*, 4(1), 87–95. <https://doi.org/10.6088/ijes.2013040100009>
- Lee, T.H. (2013). Influence analysis of community resident support for sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 34, 37–46. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.03.007>
- Mearns, K.F. (2012). Lessons from the application of sustainability indicators to community-based ecotourism ventures in Southern Africa. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(26), 7851–7860. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJBM11.2581>
- Moral-Cuadra, S., Orgaz-Agüera, F., & Cañero-Morales, P.M. (2019). Attitude towards border tourism and its relationship with visitor satisfaction and loyalty. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 25(2), 609–622. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.23314-328>
- Dileep, M.R. (2014). Fluid Destination: Innovative, but who will protect it. *Spotlight on Sustainable Tourism*, (13), 23–26.
- Nikčević, J. (2019). Strengthening the role of local government to ensure sustainable development of the cruise sector : The case of Kotor. *Marine Policy*, 109, 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2019.103693>
- Núñez-tabales, J.M., Canalejo, C., María, A., Tabales, N., Julia, M., Cañizares, S., & María, S. (2016). Local Community Perceptions on Tourist Impacts and Associated Development : A Case Study on Sal and Boa Vista Islands A Case Study on Sal and Boa Vista Islands. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Science*, 383–394. <https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2016.v7n1s1p383>
- Prabhakaran, S., Nair, V., & Ramachandran, S. (2013). Marine waste management indicators in a tourism environment: Exploring possibilities for Semporna District, Sabah. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 5(4), 365–376. <https://doi.org/10.1108/WHATT-03-2013-0013>
- Reddy, H. (2020). Stakeholder's involvement towards sustaining ecotourism destinations : the case of social entrepreneurship at Stakeholder's involvement towards sustaining ecotourism destinations: The case of social entrepreneurship at Mangalajodi. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 29, 636–648. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.29220-495>
- Sakolnakorn, T.P.N., Naipinit, A., & Kroeksakul, P. (2013). Sustainable tourism development and management in the Phuket province, Thailand. *Asian Social Science*, 9(7), 75–84. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v9n7p75>
- Savage, V.R., Huang, S., & Chang, T.C. (2004). The Singapore River thematic zone: Sustainable tourism in an urban context. *Geographical Journal*, 170(3), 212–225. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0016-7398.2004.00121.x>
- Strydom, A.J., & Mangope, D. (2019). Making community-based tourism sustainable: Evidence from the free state province, south Africa. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 24(1), 7–18. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.24101-338>
- Sumarmi, Kurniawati, E., & Aliman, M. (2020). Community based tourism (CBT) to establish blue economy and improve public welfare for fishing tourism development in Klatak beach, Tulungagung, Indonesia. *Geo Journal of Tourism and Geosites*, 31(3), 979–986. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.3>
- Vincy, M.V., Rajan, B., & Kumar, P. (2012). Water Quality Assessment of a Tropical Wetland Ecosystem with Special Reference to Backwater Tourism, Kerala, South India. *International Research Journal of Environmental Sciences*, 1(5), 62–68.
- *** World Tourism Organisation. (2020, May 28). UNWTO launches global guidelines to reopen tourism [Press release] <https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-06/20060-One-Planet-EN.pdf>
- *** World Tourism Organization. (2012). *Destination Wetlands – Supporting sustainable tourism*, UNWTO, Madrid, <https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284414697>

THE DEVELOPMENT OF YOUTH AND WOMAN ENTREPRENEURSHIP PROGRAM IN VILLAGE TOURISM THROUGH PARTNERSHIP

Sri UNTARI*

Universitas Negeri Malang, Faculty of Social Science, Civic Education Department, Indonesia, e-mail: sri.untari.fis@um.ac.id

Yusuf SUHARTO

Universitas Negeri Malang, Faculty of Social Science, Geography Department, Indonesia, e-mail: yusuf.suharto.fis@um.ac.id

Citation: Untari, S., & Suharto, Y. (2020). THE DEVELOPMENT OF YOUTH AND WOMAN ENTREPRENEURSHIP PROGRAM IN VILLAGE TOURISM THROUGH PARTNERSHIP. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1538–1544. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl14-605>

Abstract: The development in tourism is nowadays a leading development in Indonesia; consequently, the tourism sectors is being developed up to the country sides. Tourism in rural areas is being estimated as an operational tool for integrating programs and supporting activities among sectors which would bring significant impacts in social, economic, and cultural aspects while handled collaboratively. The research aimed to analyze: (a) the tourism potential in Wonorejo as the village tourism; (b) partnerships between the university, government, private sectors to develop the village tourism; (c) entrepreneurship opportunities for youth group (Karang Taruna), and women group (PKK) to develop the village tourism. The research was case study with qualitative approach. The informants included the village heads and officials, youth leaders, women leaders, and entrepreneurs. The data collection technique was used observation, interview, FGD, and documentation. The data were analyzed using domain analysis model with pattern matching. The results were (a) some potentials have been developed in the village, which is natural, historical and religious, and cultural tourism, (b) partnerships between universities and village governments made through a Memorandum of Understanding and the private sector was carried out without written documents. The partnership made the village government as regulators, facilitators, and investors, universities as initiators, facilitators, investors, and mediators, and the private sector as facilitators and marketers, (c) entrepreneurship opportunities have been developed by youth and women such as souvenir production, culinary experiences, outbound activities, and educational tours. The village government must design the village tourism to include in the village development plan program. The partnership between the university, government, and private sectors can be adapted and applied for rural communities' entrepreneurship in developing countries.

Key words: partnership, entrepreneurship, village tourism, multi-religion.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Partnerships between the government and the private sector have become popular in program development. Partnerships are formed because of mutual need between various parties (Vinogradov and Shadrina, 2018). The partnership that is built should provide benefits to all parties (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2016). A good partnership is a partnership built based on a written agreement (Frank et al., 2000). A written agreement provides convenience for all parties to implement programs together (Frank et al., 2000; Vinogradov and Shadrina, 2018).

Partnerships between the government and the private sector often involve the community because they can provide direct benefits (Aryaningsih et al., 2018). Partnerships can also be built by involving universities. One of the assignments in university is community services. Community service must have a positive impact on community welfare (Untari, 2019). One of the community groups that need support is the community around coastal areas. The community lives very prone to poverty because it is very dependent on natural conditions (Ciolac et al., 2013; Garcia and Wanner, 2017). Therefore, it requires the cooperation of various parties in ensuring the life of coastal communities. Indonesia is a region with a large coastal area and a diversity of ethnic groups and religions. The diversity is a great potential for Indonesia to bring in tourists from abroad and increase the state revenue (Fieldston, 2019). To achieve these goals requires good management and planning in developing various potentials (Liu et al., 2019). In Indonesia, one of the great potentials to use is natural tourism and religious diversity. The attraction is supported by Indonesian characteristics that live in harmony, even in different ethnicities and religions. Rural communities in Indonesia still maintain this kind of life. One of the unique villages in Indonesia that has high level of diversity and lot of tourism potential is Wonorejo village in Situbondo district, East Java Province (Untari, 2019). Wonorejo village is well known as the reference for the harmonious village life model, so that this village is also known as the village tourism.

Wonorejo Village was chosen as the village tourism because of the harmony between religious communities such as Islam, Christian, Buddhism, Hinduism, and other local religions. Community life is very harmonious so that the village community has a distinctive characteristic, which is *Gotong Royong* (cooperation) (Untari, 2014; Wantoro, 2018). The cooperation is shown by the public cemeteries for all people, even though they are of different religions. Harmony also is shown by a mosque and a church place aside. It is a manifestation of Indonesia's motto *Bhineka Tunggal Ika* means different but still one. Wonorejo village has long been projected as a village tourism. Various tourist objects began to develop independently. However, there has been no intervention from the Situbondo district government through the Tourism Office to develop this tourist village (Untari, 2019; Wantoro, 2018). Therefore, a collaboration with the State University of Malang (UM) has been carried out through *Kuliah Kerja Nyata* (Community Service Program), *Program Kreatifitas Mahasiswa* (Student Community Service and Creativity Program), and the village development program so that the village tourism could provide benefits for the community welfare. Good partnership is partnership that involves the community, such as youth and women. This community group has the potential to develop for entrepreneurship. Accordingly, partnerships must provide big opportunities for youth and women to develop their entrepreneurship skills (Untari, 2019). Therefore, a specific study is needed related to the partnerships formed by universities, governments, and the private sectors that involve youth and women to develop village tourism.

* Corresponding author

METHODS

The research used qualitative approach. The objective was to find the partnership between the university, private, and community to develop entrepreneurship programs for youth and women in Wonorejo village, Situbondo Regency. Data collection techniques included 1) in-depth interviews; 2) focus group discussion; 3) observation; 4) documentation (Yin, 2014).

Primary data were obtained by in-depth interviews using purposive sampling technique with key informants, such as the village heads “Mr. Sumanto”, the Dean of Faculty of Social at the State University of Malang “Ms. Sumarmi”, youth leaders, women leaders, and entrepreneurs. The group discussion forum was then held to obtain information about the government's performance in the village tourism development program and youth and women's entrepreneurship programs.



Figure 1. (a) The praying activity between religions during the Tumpeng Sewu event; (b) The Tumpeng Sewu convoy.

Table. 1 Interview Questions for key informants

Research Focus	Questions
Tourism Development	What is the potential for natural tourism in Wonorejo village?
	What is the potential for historical and religious tourism in Wonorejo village?
	What is the potential for cultural tourism in Wonorejo village?
Partnership in tourism development	What are the basic for the partnership in developing Wonorejo tourism village?
	What is the role of local actors in tourism development of Wonorejo village?
Entrepreneurship opportunities in the development of tourism villages	How are the entrepreneurship programs developed in Wonorejo villages?
	What kind of entrepreneurship are being developed by youth (Karang Taruna) and women (PKK) groups?

The data were analyzed using domain analysis techniques with pattern matching (explanatory/descriptive). The research used 3 stages of analysis shown below.

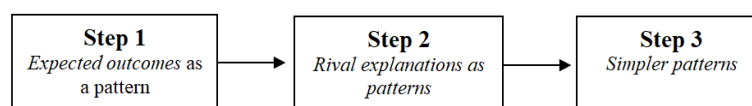


Figure 2. The Data Analysis Stages using Pattern Matching (Source: Yin, 2014)

Based on Figure 1, the stages of data analysis are explained as follows:

1. Expected outcomes as a pattern

In the early stages of data analysis, the researcher determined the answers to the predetermined problem formulations. The stage guided the researcher to develop the right instrument to be valid and can support the answers to the research problems that have been formulated.

2. Rival explanations as pattern

The stage was carried out by classifying the data according to the existing problem groups. Researchers compared the data sources and data collection techniques in order to focus on the problem. Researchers selected data and reduced irrelevant data in order to obtain clarity of answers to research problems accurately.

3. Simpler patterns

It is the final stage of data analysis activities. The researcher concluded by simplifying the problems following the problems that have been formulated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Wonorejo Village is located in Banyuputih District, Situbondo Regency, East Java Province. There is a gate written with Wonorejo Village as the Village tourism at the entrance. Wonorejo Village was introduced as a village tourism by the Regent of Situbondo, East Java, on 2 May 2015. Wonorejo Village consists of four small villages: Kendal village, Jelun village, Randuagung village, and Pandean village. Wonorejo village has 414,019 hectares, with landscape from the coast to mount of Baluran (Wantoro, 2018). In general, Wonorejo villagers work as farmers, fishers, ranchers, and minor traders. Based on the in-depth interviews, forum group discussions, and observations, the research results are explained as follows.

1. Tourism Development Priority

Based on the in-depth interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs) held with the village officials, it showed that natural tourism is a priority to be developed as a leading tourist destination for the village tourism. The tourism potential includes:

a. Natural tourism

The potential is prioritized to be developed in Perengan Beach. The beach has completed several public facilities such as a prayer room, toilets, and shops. Perengan Beach is the pillar for Wonorejo village because it has many attractions. Perengan Beach is also used by Wonorejo Village to hold fishing competitions every year, Baluran Fishing Competition. The activity is an annual program held in collaboration with Wonorejo Village and Baluran National Park office. Besides, Wonorejo Village also has natural attractions such as the *Bajulmati* dam, *Batu Bolong* object, which has not been explored for national tourism products because residents still enjoy it.

b. Historical and religious tourism

The potentials that were chosen to be developed are historical and religious tourism. It is in the historical sites of Mbah Pande and Mbah Jenun's grave, which are considered the founders of the Pandean village or the forerunner of Wonorejo village. Currently, it is still being worked on simply. The peak session is during *Suro* month because the traditional ceremonies were centered on these two graves.

Another unique religious tourism in Wonorejo Village is the multi-religion. There is a mosque next to the church, 20 m away from the Randu Agung village. Muslims have dominated the community in Wonorejo village, but Christians can build churches after obtaining permission from the surrounding community and the village leaders. In another village, there is a mosque that stands next to the Christian community house. It proved that there is religious harmony in Wonorejo village. Other religious tourism in Wonorejo Village is the site of *Candi Bang* or the temple of money. The temple is known as a place to pray to God for getting aid.

c. Cultural tourism

Cultural tourism is carried out in events such as the *Tumpeng Sewu* event held on 10 *Suro* (*Muharam*). *Tumpeng Sewu* is an attraction in the village tourism that contains the uniqueness of the multicultural Wonorejo community. All people across religions, tribes, and groups are involved in offering prayers at the event. The prayer procedure is carried out in alternating Islam, Christian, Catholic, Hindu, and Buddhist ways.

One of the arts found in Wonorejo village is *Kuda Lumping*. It is often held during the village cultural events. *Kuda Lumping* is a dance that describes Wonorejo's forest cleavers, which are great at riding horses. Other dances characteristic of Wonorejo village is the *Jaring Kambang* dance, which describes fishers while at sea. Apart from that, there is also traditional music art, namely *Karawitan* and *Hadrah Kuntulan*, a combination of tambourines and other musical instruments often used during weddings. Wonorejo village originally had a national museum, but the museum was converted into a health center. Based on research findings, the priority of developing village tourism through partnerships included nature, religious, and cultural tourism. One of the activities that attract tourists is the *Suro* Tradition. The activity is an ancient tradition, so it needed to be preserved. The *Suro* tradition has become part of the life of the Javanese people so that it is still developing (Kurniawan, 2019; Riki, 2010). The development of selected tourism potential in Wonorejo village is expected to become a special interest in tourism. Tourists tend to appreciate the natural environment, culture, and special attractions more (Priyanto, 2016). One of the tourists demand is the general atmosphere and environment of the tourist object (scenery, weather, attitudes, behavior) (Pascariu and Gabriela, 2006). It is following the village government's choices and the community to develop natural tourism potential. A new trend emerged, namely, a shift in tourists' interest to visit rural areas that present their natural beauty with cool air and various customs (Capocchi et al., 2019). Rural tourism has various traditional cultural values, folk art, folklore, and ethnography. These are based on traditions, and local wisdom is beautiful to tourists (Ciolac et al., 2013; Keyim, 2018; Marlina et al., 2020).

2. Partnership between village government with the university and the private sector

Partnership development between the State University of Malang (UM) and the Wonorejo village government has been established since 2018. The partnership was made through a Memorandum of Understanding, but the partnership between the village government and the private sector, such as the Baluran Tourism Park business unit and the village entrepreneurs, has not been made in the written document. The agreement between the university and the village government can be seen in Figure 3.



(a)



(b)

Figure 3. (a) Agreement between university and village government; (b) Discussion between university, village government, and local entrepreneur

Partnership development can be described as follows:

a. The Principles of Partnership Management

The principles of partnership management were stated in the Memorandum of Understanding between the university and the Wonorejo village government contained the following:

- 1) Cooperate in organizing Student Service and Creativity programs for society, research, and entrepreneurship.
- 2) Support in village development in governance, village tourism development, education and training for village officials, community empowerment (youth and women groups)
- 3) Cooperate in thematic Community Service Program (KKN) for students as needed and within areas of expertise in the Faculty of Social.
- 4) Cooperate in agreement as a follow-up to the Memorandum of Understanding. The responsibilities and rights are arranged and agreed upon by both parties.

Based on the agreement stipulated in this Memorandum of Understanding, it is valid for 3 (three) years from the time it was signed, and amendments can be made if desired by both parties. This Memorandum of Understanding can be extended for an additional period of up to 3 (three) years. There is an exception if one of the parties makes a written statement to terminate the Memorandum of Understanding at the latest 6 months beforehand. Both parties signed this Memorandum of Understanding on 2 July 2018 in Situbondo.

b. Roles Distribution of Partnership Actors

1) The village government

The role of the Wonorejo village government is to plan a village tourism development program. In this collaboration, the village government gives permission to carry out research and community service, provides space, prepares empowered human resources, facilitates the implementation of mentoring activities. Also, the Village Government provides a budget to develop entrepreneurship for Family Welfare Empowerment (PKK), attended by women and youth groups (karang taruna), as a villager 'SA' stated that the community will support activities to develop village tourism, especially to empower women and youth in Wonorejo village, and provide the necessary fund to develop village-owned enterprise (BUMdes) (interview. 7 August 2019). Another statement from the youth leader, Mr. SL, o stated that the Wonoroje village government were ready to collaborate with university, prepare infrastrucutur, and contribute in developing the national tourism village (Interview 7 August 2019). Based on the statement, it can be concluded that the role of the village government in this partnership is as (1) the regulator, determining rules and permits for the partnership to work; (2) facilitator, providing facilities and infrastructure in the entrepreneurial empowerment activities of the Youth and PKK; (3) investors, the village government shall provide budget funds by sharing with the university to implement partnerships.

2) The University

State University of Malang (UM) roles in research and community service activities. In 2019, various activities such as socialization, facilitation, discussions with elites, and mentoring were carried out. Also, t-shirt printing equipment was provided for the youth groups to produce printing as souvenirs. The important thing about this partnership is finding a partner for the marketing of community products.

The role of the university in the partnership as (1) facilitators, community service teams, and research teams to provide entrepreneurship training based on the needs of youth group (Karang Taruna) and woman group (PKK), (2) investors, the team from university helps procure printing equipment and manufacture souvenirs, t-shirts, and key chain; (3) mediators, the university has a role in finding partners for marketing youth group (Karang Taruna) and woman group (PKK) products.

3) The Private Sectors

The role is being pioneered by local entrepreneurs, the association of homestay owners, food sellers, and business units from Baluran National Park. The private sector assists in designing Baluran souvenirs that can be marketed in the Baluran National Park. The homestay owners also expressed the willingness to accept hand-made souvenirs from women and youth groups to be marketed to tourists. The head of the Baluran National Park business unit, Mr. "TR", stated that the business unit and showroom were ready to market handicrafts or souvenirs from youth and woman groups and assisted to develop more tourism products of Wonorejo village (Interview, 31 August 2019). The homestay owner, Mrs. "SM", also stated the homestay owners' group were ready to market the souvenir such as keychain or Wonorejo t-shirt to visitors or tourists (Interview, 31 August 2019).

Based on the research findings, the private sector roles as (1) facilitator, activities to assist in designing unique and distinctive souvenir products that can be marketed, and (2) product marketing. Based on the previous explanation, the roles of each party can be described as follows:

Table 2. The Actor Roles in Partnership

Actor	Position	Roles
University	Colleges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide training and mentoring in entrepreneurship skills • Provide equipment assistance • Mediating Karang Taruna and PKK partners with the private sector
Village Government	State Institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Permit to carry out research and community service by universities and local entrepreneurs • Provide business capital assistance for the youth and woman groups • Provide facilities and infrastructure for youth groups
Local entrepreneurs - Homestay owner - Village entrepreneur - Tourist - Management of Baluran National Park business units	Privates	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide assistance • Support in marketing Karang Taruna and PKK products • Promotion of goods

The universities, private sectors, and government partnership is a triple helix relationship. The relationship has been established in the village tourism development even though it has not been formally described. It contrasts with the partnership principle, which requires a written agreement (Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff, 1995; Frank et al., 2000). The State University of Malang has taken the initiative in this partnership to facilitate activities. It is shown by shifting the government's role, which is assumed to lead the commanding officer (Untari, 2019). The government is used to regulating the implementation of program activities. However, in this partnership, the parties must interact outside the government to develop the village tourism (Utomo and Satriawan, 2017). The partnership built is an effective tool in the region's economic development (Frolova and Medvedeva, 2018). The development of youth groups (Karang Taruna) and women groups (PKK) entrepreneurship to develop the village tourism has proven that there is a link between synergy, partnership, and human development (Farazmand, 2009). The relationship between the parties in this partnership can be seen in the following figure.

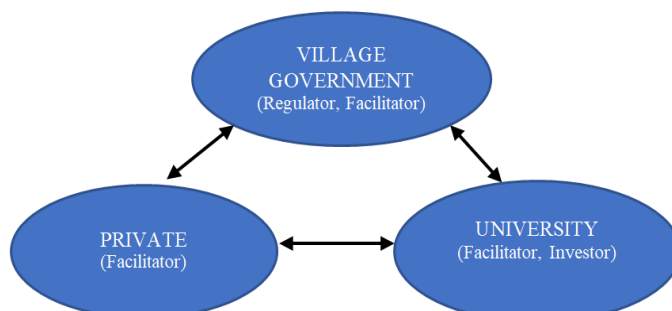


Figure 4. Partnership in Developing Village tourism

The cooperation between the village government and universities is based on the agreement signed by the village head of Wonorejo and the Dean of State University of Malang. The agreement guaranteed by this binding agreement strengthens the partnership (Åberg, 2013; Ciolac et al., 2013; Sotiriadis and Shen, 2017). Meanwhile, the partnership with private sectors in a written agreement has not been implemented. Partnerships built without a written agreement are a necessity for the formation of normative institutions (Frolova and Medvedeva, 2018). Based on the discussion, the private party represented by the "TR" said that if an agreement is needed in the future, a memorandum of understanding will be made to clear this partnership program between each party's rights and obligations. The triple helix (figure 5) is essential to implement the partnerships (Bwana et al., 2015; Pradikta, 2017). One of the tourism resources is the partnerships between public and private parties involved or may be involved in tourism development (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2016; Pascariu and Gabriela, 2006).

3. Entrepreneurship Opportunities for Youth and Woman Groups

The results showed that entrepreneurship opportunities for women through PKK and youth through Karang Taruna were extensive, described as follows:

a. Entrepreneurship opportunities in the woman group (PKK)

Business opportunities for PKK staff are producing simple souvenirs, eco-green batik headscarves, and typical culinary delights of Wonorejo village. One of the PKK leaders, Mrs. "TY", stated that the staff were given training, such as making flowers from kresek (plastic bags) and making eco-green batik, and also mentoring about tourism, souvenir, manufacturing practices and entrepreneurship opportunities in Baluran (interview 30 August 2019). Another opinion was also stated by Mrs. "SS" as one of the PKK administrators stated that there are many entrepreneurship opportunities such as culinary, snacks, clothes and headscarves from eco-green batik, baskets from used newspapers that can be marketed in the village tourism market (Interview, 30 August 2010). The results of in-depth interviews can identify opportunities for women in entrepreneurship in the village tourism as follows:

Table 3. Entrepreneurship Opportunities for woman group (PKK)

No	Business Type	Marketing
1	"WOKE" souvenir, headscarf, key chain	village, homestay, and Baluran showroom
2	Culinary, processed from fishermen's catch	along the Parengan coast
3	Snacks, pastries	village market & Baluran Showroom
4	Clothes, pajamas, eco-green batik t-shirts	village market & Baluran Showroom

Based on the data analysis, it can be concluded that there are quite a lot of product and marketing opportunities by the PKK. It showed that the PKK group plays an important role in supporting a village tourism.

b. Entrepreneurship opportunities at Karang Taruna

The results showed entrepreneurship opportunities in the youth group, among others, making souvenirs in printing shirts containing the icon "WOKE" which stands for "Wonorejo Kebangsaan". The result of community service has developed a youth entrepreneurial spirit (Karang Taruna). Youth can develop superior products that support the development of the national tourism village. It is supported by the youth leader (Karang Taruna), Mr. "SP", stated that the digital printing machine received from the UM service team has pumped the enthusiasm to develop more local product of Wonorejo village, such as t-shirt (Interview, 30 August 2019).

Karang Taruna entrepreneurship opportunities are quite a lot if the village has developed to be the tourist destination, such as outbound themed nationalism. Youths can become facilitators, motivators, and tourist guides who come to the village tourism in Wonorejo village. Youth mentoring activities (Karang Taruna) can be seen in the following figure.



Figure 5. (a) Youth mentoring activities (Karang Taruna); (b) Mentoring and training activities for women group (PKK)

Table 4. Entrepreneurship Opportunities for youth group (Karang Taruna)

No	Business Type	Marketing
1	"WOKE" souvenir	village, homestay, and Baluran showroom
2	Outbound " <i>Kebangsaan</i> (nationalism)" for students	village forest collaborates with Baluran National Park
3	Educational Tour, making nata de coco	Home industry of Nata de coco in Pandean village
4	Other handicrafts, key chains, "WOKE" signature bags	village market & Baluran Showroom

Based on the explanation, youth entrepreneurship opportunities (Karang Taruna) can be developed more widely. These opportunities are not only selling souvenirs but also offering educational activities according to the characteristics of the national tourism village.

The results were aimed at youth groups (Karang Taruna) and women groups (PKK) to provide knowledge and provide basic entrepreneurship skills. The following are opportunities created by entrepreneurship.

a. Entrepreneurship opportunities for women groups (PKK)

Support for PKK staff is carried out by providing information about tourism and training to produce simple souvenirs made from newspapers. Based on the information obtained during the observation, the staff has to attend training to make flowers from plastic bags. The results can be seen in front of the houses of residents of Wonorejo Village. Another training was Batik making known as eco-green batik. Meanwhile, training on making souvenirs has never been provided. The supports provided included knowledge about tourism, knowledge of the importance of souvenirs for tourist villages, and souvenirs' materials and practices. The results of the in-depth interviews showed that the knowledge needed by the PKK staff to support the village tourism is counseling about souvenirs making, newspapers recycling for souvenirs, and training in making handicrafts from used newspapers. The PKK group is highly desired by this activity. The entrepreneur's ability can increase family income so that people's lives can be more well-off (Kimmitt et al., 2020; Untari, 2019). Based on the interview, the t-shirt printing training was expected for counseling and support and, most importantly, product marketing. Based on the discussion, the PKK activities in Wonorejo village, Situbondo district, needed to be empowered. Entrepreneurship development for women can help improve society's creative economy (Juli, 2017; Riandika and Mulyani, 2020; Untari, 2019). The main components in women's empowerment are supports from all stakeholders (government, private sector, NGOs, and universities) (Metcalf, 2011; Untari, 2019). The implementation of poverty reduction programs must be gender-responsive (Garcia and Wanner, 2017). The training must motivate participants to excel. Training is also expected to develop women's awareness of the importance of entrepreneurship in increasing family income (Kimmitt et al., 2020; Untari, 2019).

b. Entrepreneurship opportunities for youth groups (Karang Taruna)

The results showed that entrepreneurship opportunities in youth (Karang Taruna) were making souvenirs in the printing shirts. The community service activity has an impact on the development of the entrepreneurship for youth groups (Karang Taruna) (Aryaningsih et al., 2018). Entrepreneurship can develop superior products to support the village tourism (Untari, 2019). Entrepreneurship opportunities began to develop since the printing equipment, and digital printing machines arrived. The equipment was donations from the State University of Malang and some equipment owned by the Wonorejo Village government. The youth groups (Karang Taruna) also designed an outbound destination with the theme *Bhinneka Tunggal Ika*, which will become an educational tour in the village tourism. Includes opportunities to sell "WOKE" T-shirt products, key chains, and other handicrafts. Support for women groups (PKK) and youth groups (Karang Taruna) is essentially intended to empower community resources (Untari, 2019). It is aligned with the opinion that community-based tourism (CBT) development is a development model that provides the most significant opportunity for rural communities to participate in tourism development (Dewi, 2013; Donny and Mohd Nor, 2012; Sumarmi et al., 2020; Widowati et al., 2019). CBT is a tourism development activity carried out entirely by the community (Dewi, 2013; Donny and Mohd Nor, 2012; Widowati et al., 2019). Youth groups are required to develop entrepreneurship creativity (Kurniasari et al., 2016). In the end, creativity positively impacts the village tourism development (Egbali et al., 2011; Han et al., 2019).

CONCLUSION

Tourism potential that is a priority for developing Wonorejo village is natural tourism. Another unique potential to Wonorejo village than other villages in Indonesia is the outbound educational tour *Bhinneka Tunggal Ika*. The partnership between the village government and universities is arranged in a written agreement, while the cooperation between the village government and entrepreneurs has not been formally carried out. Each party has its respective functions, such as the village government as regulators, facilitators, and investors, the universities as facilitators, assistants, and investors, and the local entrepreneurs as companions and marketing for Karang Taruna and woman (PKK) products. Entrepreneurship developed by youth groups (Karang Taruna) and women groups (PKK) has an excellent opportunity to be sold in a more extensive market.

The opportunities were provided for youth and women to develop village tourism. The results confirmed that the agreement was made officially to give the power to use their rights and obligations in managing the organization. A partnership built on a formal agreement protected all parties, including guarantees for the entrepreneurs to invest. The research was limited in wonorejo village as one of national village in Indonesia, and studied about the partnership in developing the village. Further research was needed to discuss other factors such as demographic, education and natural factor in developing national village. Entrepreneurship training is needed for youth and women because they can contribute to improving the welfare of rural communities in developing countries.

Acknowledgement

Thank you to Malang State University. Leader and community of Wonorejo Village, Situbondo District. This research does not have a conflict of interest with any party.

REFERENCES

- Åberg, K.G. (2013). *Governance and Partnership in Tourism Development: On the Elusiveness of Participation in Tourism*. GERUM Department of geography and economic history. Umeå University. https://www.academia.edu/30647145/Governance_and_partnership_in_tourism_development_on_the_elusiveness_of_participation_in_tourism
- Aryaningsih, N.N., Arsana, M.M., Irianto, I.K., & Meirejeki, N. (2018). *Constructing of Business Competency Models and Entrepreneurial Spirit based on Tourism Support Services Community Participation in Creative Industries*, 469–473. <https://doi.org/10.2991/icss-18.2018.98>
- Bwana, M.A., Olima, W.H.A., Andika, D.O., & Agong', S.G. (2015). *Seizing an opportunity of a public-private partnership initiative for Agritourism development as a strategy for poverty reduction in Kisumu, Kenya*. <http://ir.jooust.ac.ke:8080/xmlui/handle/123456789/1534>
- Capocchi, A., Vallone, C., Pierotti, M., & Amaduzzi, A. (2019). Overtourism: A Literature Review to Assess Implications and Future Perspectives. *Sustainability*, 11(12), 3303. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11123303>
- Ciolac, R., Csosz, I., Petroman, C., Petroman, I., Marin, D., Dincu, A.M., Rujescu, C., & Stanciu, S. (2013). Public-private partnerships on rural tourism field in Europe an innovation for rural development-achievements and proposals. *Scientific Papers Animal Science and Biotechnologies*, 46(2), 387-392.
- Dewi, M.H.U. (2013). Pengembangan Desa Wisata Berbasis Partisipasi Masyarakat Lokal di Desa Wisata Jatiluwih Tabanan Bali (Village Tourism Development Based on Local Community Participation in Jatiluwih Tourism Village, Tabanan Bali). *Jurnal Kawistara*, 3(2). <https://doi.org/10.22146/kawistara.3976>
- Donny, S., & Mohd Nor, N. (2012). Community-based Tourism (CBT): *Local Community Perceptions toward Social and Cultural Impacts*. Issues and Challenges in Tourism and Hospitality Resources. 1st Tourism and Hospitality International Conference, e Palma Ampang, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

- Egbali, N., Bakhsh, A., Nosrat, E., & Alipour, S. Khalil S. (2011). Effects of positive and negative rural tourism (case study: Rural Semnan Province). *Journal of Geography and Regional Planning*, 4(2), 63–76. <https://doi.org/10.5897/JGRP.9000046>
- Etzkowitz, H., & Leydesdorff, L. (1995). The Triple Helix—University-industry-government relations: A laboratory for knowledge based economic development. *EASST Review*, 14(1), 14–19.
- Farazmand, A. (2009). Building Administrative Capacity for the Age of Rapid Globalization: A Modest Prescription for the Twenty-First Century. *Public Administration Review*, 69(6), 1007–1020. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2009.02054.x>
- Fieldston, S. (2019). ‘Our dollars are celebrities abroad’: American tourists, consumption, and power after World War II. *Journal of Tourism History*, 11(2), 187–207. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1755182X.2019.1622792>
- Frank, F., Smith, A., & King, K. (2000). *The partnership handbook*. Human Resources Development Canada Ottawa.
- Frolova, E., & Medvedeva, N. (2018). Sotrudnichestvo biznesa i mestnoy vlasti: Problemy i novye vozmozhnosti [Cooperation between Business and Local Authorities: Problems and New Opportunities]. *Public Administration Issues*, 1, 181–196.
- Garcia, A.S., & Wanner, T. (2017). Gender inequality and food security: Lessons from the gender-responsive work of the International Food Policy Research Institute and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. *Food Security*, 9(5), 1091–1103. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12571-017-0718-7>
- Han, H., Eom, T., Al-Ansi, A., Ryu, H.B., & Kim, W. (2019). Community-Based Tourism as a Sustainable Direction in Destination Development: An Empirical Examination of Visitor Behaviors. *Sustainability*, 11(10), 2864. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11102864>
- Juli, S.B. (2017). Strengthening the Rural Women’s Entrepreneurship Spirit in Facing the Asean Economic Community (Da’wah in the Economic Context of Society). *Ijtima'iyya, Jurnal Pengembangan Masyarakat Islam*, 10(1), 175–195. <https://doi.org/10.24042/ijpmi.v10i1.2360>
- Keyim, P. (2018). Tourism Collaborative Governance and Rural Community Development in Finland: The Case of Vuonislahti. *Journal of Travel Research*, 57(4), 483–494. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287517701858>
- Kimmitt, J., Muñoz, P., & Newbery, R. (2020). Poverty and the varieties of entrepreneurship in the pursuit of prosperity. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 35(4), 105939. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2019.05.003>
- Kurniasari, D., Suyahmo, S., & Lestari, P. (2016). Peran Organisasi Karang Taruna dalam Mengembangkan Kreativitas Generasi Muda di Desa Ngembalrejo (The Role of the Youth Groups in Developing Youth Creativity in Ngunggungrejo Village). *Unnes Civic Education Journal*, 2(2). <https://journal.unnes.ac.id/sju/index.php/ucej/article/view/2186>
- Kurniawan, S. (2019). Komunikasi Ritual Suroan pada Masyarakat Suku Jawa di Kota Bengkulu (Suroan Ritual Communication to Javanese Tribe Communities in Bengkulu City). *Jurnal Ilmiah Syi'ar*, 19(2), 138–150. <https://doi.org/10.29300/syr.v19i2.2467>
- Liu, J., Jin, X., Xu, W., Fan, Y., Ren, J., Zhang, X., & Zhou, Y. (2019). Spatial coupling differentiation and development zoning trade-off of land space utilization efficiency in eastern China. *Land Use Policy*, 85, 310–327. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2019.03.034>
- Marlina, Sumarmi, Astina, I.K. (2020). Sustainable Marine Ecotourism Management: A Case of Marine Resource Conservation based on Local Wisdom of Bajo Mola Community in Wakatobi National Park. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 32(4), 1317–1323. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.32419-575>
- Metcalfe, B.D. (2011). Women, empowerment and development in Arab Gulf States: A critical appraisal of governance, culture and national human resource development (HRD) frameworks. *Human Resource Development International*, 14(2), 131–148. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2011.558310>
- Mtapuri, O., & Giampiccoli, A. (2016). Towards a comprehensive model of community-based tourism development. *South African Geographical Journal*, 98(1), 154–168. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03736245.2014.977813>
- Pascariu, G., & Gabriela, D. (2006). *The role of public-private partnership in the sustainable development of the rural tourist destinations. 46th Congress of the European Regional Science Association: "Enlargement, Southern Europe and the Mediterranean"*. Volos, Greece. https://www.econstor.eu/bitstream/10419/118425/1/ERSA2006_510.pdf
- Pradikta, A.C. (2017). Building Partnership Across Rural Tourism Destination for Sustainability: A Case Study in Special Region of Yogyakarta, Some Challenges and Opportunities. *Journal of Business on Hospitality and Tourism*, 2(1), 87–96. <https://doi.org/10.22334/jbhost.v2i1.44>
- Priyanto, P. (2016). Pengembangan Potensi Desa Wisata Berbasis Budaya Tinjauan Terhadap Desa Wisata di Jawa Tengah (Potential Development of Culture-Based Tourism Villages an Overview of Tourism Villages in Central Java). *Jurnal Vokasi Indonesia*, 4(1). <https://doi.org/10.7454/jvi.v4i1.53>
- Riandika, D., & Mulyani, E. (2020). The Role of Entrepreneurship Development for Women Welfare in Rural Area. *Jurnal Ekonomi Pembanguna, Kajian Masalah Ekonomi Dan Pembangunan*, 21(1), 23–31–31. <https://doi.org/10.23917/jep.v21i1.7921>
- Riki. (2010). *Perayaan Satu Suro, Tradisi Malam Sakral Masyarakat Jawa: Tradisi - Situs Budaya Indonesia (Satu Suro Celebration, Javanese Sacred Night Traditions. Traditions - Indonesian Cultural Sites)*. Indonesia Kaya. <https://www.indonesiakaya.com/jelajah-indonesia/detail/perayaan-satu-suro-tradisi-malam-sakral-masyarakat-jawa>
- Sotiriadis, M., & Shen, S. (2017). *The contribution of partnership and branding to destination management in a globalized context: The case of the UNWTO Silk Road Programme*. (No. 88145; MPRA Paper), University Library of Munich, Germany. <https://ideas.repec.org/p/pra/MPRA/88145.html>
- Sumarmi, S., Kurniawati, E., & Aliman, M. (2020). Community Based Tourism (CBT) to Establish Blue Economy and Improve Public Welfare for Fishing Tourism Development in Klatak Beach, Tulungagung, Indonesia. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 31(3), 979–986. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.31307-530>
- Untari, S. (2014). *Kemitraan Pemerintah-Swasta di Bidang Pendidikan dalam Upaya Peningkatan Kualitas Pendidikan di Kota Malang (Kajian pada SMAN 10 Malang-Sampoerna Foundation)*. [Dissertations] (Public-Private Partnerships in Education in Efforts to Improve the Quality of Education in Malang City (Study at SMAN 10 Malang-Sampoerna Foundation), Brawijaya University.
- Untari, S. (2019). Kolaborasi Perguruan Tinggi—Pemerintah Desa—Swasta dalam Mengembangkan Jiwa Kewirausahaan Pemuda dan Wanita Dalam Membangun Desa Wisata Kebangsaan [The collaboration of Higher Education-Village Government-Private in Developing Youth and Women Entrepreneurial Spirit in Building National Tourism Village]. *Jurnal Praksis dan Dedikasi Sosial (JPDS)*, 2(2), 75–81. <https://doi.org/10.17977/um032v2i2p75-81>
- Utomo, S.J., & Satriawan, B. (2017). Strategi Pengembangan Desa Wisata di Kecamatan Karangploso Kabupaten Malang (Tourism Village Development Strategy in Karangploso District, Malang Regency). *Neo-Bis*, 11(2), 142–153. <https://doi.org/10.21107/nbs.v11i2.3381>
- Vinogradov, D., & Shadrina, E. (2018). Public-Private Partnerships as Collaborative Projects: Testing the Theory on Cases from EU and Russia. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 41(5–6), 446–459. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2018.1426012>
- Wantoro, M. (2018). *Woke! "Wonorejo Berkebangsaan" Rintisan Desa Bhineka Tunggal Ika sebagai Wahana Edukasi Nilai—Nilai Pancasila Melalui Pendekatan PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal) dalam Rangka Pencapaian Program Nawacita [Woke! " Wonorejo Berkebangsaan " Pioneered the Village of Bhineka Tunggal Ika as a Forum for Education of Pancasila Values through the PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal)]*. Approach to Achieve the Nawacita Program, Laporan PKM-M.
- Widowati, S., Ginaya, G., & Triyuni, N.N. (2019). Penta helix model to develop ecotourism. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 3(2), 31–46. <https://doi.org/10.29332/ijssh.v3n2.288>
- Yin, R.K. (2014). *Case Study Research*. SAGE Publications. <https://books.google.co.id/books?id=Cdk5DQAAQBAJ>

IS JORDAN SAFE TO VISIT? THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED RISK PERCEPTIONS ON THE TOURIST BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

Ashraf Mohammad ALFANDI*

Irbid National University, Department of Tourism Management, Near Nuaima Bridge, 21110 Irbid, Jordan, e-mail address: aalzu3by@yahoo.com

Citation: Alfandi A.M. (2020). IS JORDAN SAFE TO VISIT? THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED RISK PERCEPTIONS ON THE TOURIST BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1545–1550. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl15-606>

Abstract: The aim of this study was to investigate the influence of perceived risk dimensions on the tourists behavioural intention (BI). A questionnaire was prepared drawing from the scales in literature, and it was applied in a form of a self-administered questionnaire on European tourists who visited Jordan in 2018. To check the hypotheses on a data set of 339 completed questionnaires, multiple regression tests were applied. The findings identified that perceived financial risk (FR) and perceived performance risk (PR) had significant impact on tourists BI, however, perceived physical risk (PHR), perceived time risk (TR), and perceived socio-psychological risk (SPR) risk were not significant. The findings reflect only the perceived risks and BI of European tourists visiting Jordan. The focus should be placed on reducing implemented taxes on the touristic services and products in order to make Jordan more price competitive. This study establishes an empirical relationship between the risk dimensions and the BI of tourists; consequently, the findings have implications for the tourism industry, especially for key players in the Jordanian Tourism Board. It also serves as a reference to destinations with similar risk background.

Key words: perceived risk dimensions, behavioural intentions (BI), European tourists, Jordan.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

It is generally agreed that Tourism destination (TD) must be seen and perceived as a risk-free and safe place to visit. This will have a positive impact on the purchase, re-purchase, and on the tourists' intention to distinguish positive word-of-mouth (WOM) (El-Said and Aziz, 2019). This is definitely what managers for tourist destinations call as marketing tools. They are trying so hard to prove that their destination is safe. They are aware of the fact that tourism industry is a service-oriented industry and experience in its nature and susceptible to threats such as crime, socio-political instability, terrorist attack (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998b), disasters (Tasci and Gartner, 2007) and diseases (Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009). In the case of Jordan as TD, Jordan is a country surrounded by an abundance of conflicts and disputes, and after any disturbances perceived by the potential tourist as a risk factor, the tour operators and hotel business remain on edge and jittery as the tourists' inflow in the country will be declined. The works of literature support the fact that perception of risks is playing a critical role in the tourists' behaviour and decision making (Kozak et al., 2007; Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a). However, every destination has its unique attributes as well as perceived risk perceptions which impact the BI, and therefore, this relation between the perception of risks and tourist BI in the context of Jordan as tourism destination needs to be further investigated (Chew and Jahari, 2014). This was supported by Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) who pioneered the research on tourists' risk perceptions. They found that perceptions of risks and travel behaviour are specific to the situation, proposing that travelers perceive risks differently toward different destinations and thus, the need to study destination-specific risk perceptions (Chew and Jahari, 2014). With little empirical literature on how potential tourists perceived Jordan as TD exists, and how such perceptions would affect their BI, the present study aims to explore the types and levels of risks of Jordan as TD and tourist's BI (i.e., repurchase intention and word-of-mouth intention).

1. The Jordanian Tourism Industry and the European market

In 2017, The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) ranked Jordan as number 69 out of 185 countries worldwide in terms of the tourism industry contribute to the national GDP (7,632.8 million USD). As a TD, Jordan offers a wide range of cultural and natural tourist attractions, ranging from the virtually untouched scenery of the protected area of Wadi Rum to the ancient rose-red city Petra, and the Dead Sea's mineral shores (Al-Oun and Al-Homoud, 2008; Liu et al., 2016). Nevertheless, Jordan has been recently struggling with neighboring conflicts and is no stranger to disturbances. Specifically, this region has undergone many widespread conflicts over time such as the Arab Spring that started in 2010, the current civil war in Syria, the continuing conflict in Iraq, the emergence of the so-called Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS) and the Palestinian-Israeli conflict. Naturally, the Western media would not leave all of these events without transmitting, and thus the region where Jordan is located has been harmfully affected and the tourist perception will be so negative, even though Jordan is still considered a safe country. A study by Ahmed and Kadir (2013), for example, indicated that information sources, particularly the mass media, harm the destination image especially after events such as political instability.

Jordan is seen as one of the countries indirectly affected by terrorist threats and has witnessed several decreases in the number of visitors and tourists (Farajat et al., 2017). Jordan's tourism industry considers the European tourism outbound market as one of the most important markets. Based on the statistics, in 2018, Jordan received about 3.5 million international tourists, about 700,000 of them were European tourists, and this number is growing rapidly (Jordanian Ministry of Tourism and Antiques, 2018). Besides, the Jordanian ministry of tourism and antiques (2018), highlighted the increase in the number of tourists coming from the Asia-Pacific region, followed by tourists from Europe, however, this particular segment market prefers to travel to safe and secure destinations and avoid exposure to natural disasters, political instability and/or terrorist attacks. Increasingly, they rely on social media and review sites as the main sources of information when deciding to travel to a specific destination (Country Brand Index, 2018). As such, a good marketing campaign is the one that meets their needs and desires since this market offers a good opportunity to develop the tourism industry in many countries. To do that, we still need to know how risky they perceived Jordan as a tourism destination.

* Corresponding author

2. Risk Dimensions of TD

An earlier work of Moutinho, (1987) classified the risk associated with the TD into four categories; health concern, crimes concern, terrorists attack concern, and the war and political instability concern. Later, Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) categorized it into seven forms of risks like equipment, satisfaction, social, physical, financial, time, and psychological risks. Sönmez and Graefe (1998a) added three other factors to the work of Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) that are health, political instability, and terrorism. On the other hand, Tsaur et al. (1997) grouped the risk perceptions related to the TD into two types of risk (physical and equipment risks). While the PHR is the possibility that an individual's health is at risk, injury and sickness, the equipment risk is the dangers arising from the malfunctioning of equipment, such as unsafe transportation (Tsaur et al., 1997). Other risk factors that were not considered by previous studies were added by Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2009) like lack of novelty, travel inconvenience, and deterioration of tourist attractions. A more recent study by Artuğer (2015) focused more on the risks of terrorism and political instability and how these two factors affect the traveler BI. It has been graded as PHR and psychological risks by Sohn et al. (2016). They argued that individual events (illness or injury), environmental conditions (warfare or weather) and social contact such as cross-cultural differences could be experienced by the person who conducts tourist activities. An important contribution to understanding the perception of risks associated with TD is the study of Perpiña et al. (2017), which examined the perceived risks in international tourism. They argued that the experience of tourism could be affected by multiple risk factors whether natural and/or man-made events such as natural disasters, contagious diseases, wars, and terrorist attacks. Liu et al. (2016) conducted an extensive study to try to answer the question of how risky it to travel to Jordan. Their research applied the framework for risk assessment (RPA) in connection with tourist destinations. The RPA theoretical framework originally provides a comprehensive interpretation of individual risk perception attitudes, indicating that the perception of individual risk attitude is characterized by perceived perceptions of danger and efficacy beliefs (Rimal and Real, 2003). Nevertheless, their analysis was limited to the level of terrorism risk, so they did not cover all forms of risks perceived by potential tourists that would deter them from visiting Jordan apart from the type of risk of terrorism.

After reviewing 62 destination image and risk perception papers from 1997 to 2014, Perpiña et al. (2017) included all possible risk factors that could be used in an instrument to test this concept and finally identified 50 risk attributes that could match any TD. From the 50 attributes, 5 risk perception factors associated with international travel were established by Perpiña et al. (2017): (1) PHR, (2) destination risks, (3) value-time risks, (4) personal concerns and (5) inconveniences. Another contribution was added by Hasan et al. (2017) who conducted a comprehensive literature review of the potential risks associated with tourism activities and categorized it into six dimensions; these are PHR, FR, PR, social risk, psychological risk, and security risk. Different studies have approached risk perceptions differently over the past two decades, resulting in a large number of different scales, typologies, and attributes. This leads to confusion about how to conceptualize and operationalize the perception of risk in tourism research, due to the lack of agreement on what factors to consider when assessing the perception of risk. Fuchs and Reichel (2006) identified the same six types of risk associated with TD that was recognized later by Hasan et al. (2017), however, due to the difficulties of the interviewed tourists to distinguish between the psychological and social risks, Fuchs and Reichel combined the psychological and social risks into a one risk factor (SPR). As a result, the current study used Fuchs and Reichel (2006) five dimensions of perceived risks which are; PHR, FR, TR, SPR, and PR. Mitchell, Davies, Moutinho and Vassos (1999) argued that risk dimensions vary depending on the type of tourism activities. For instance, backpackers may not encounter the same kind of risk factors as religious or health tourists experienced. Others claimed that potential tourists perceived risks could be changed from time to time and from destination to destination (Artuğer, 2015; Hasan et al., 2017). When tourists perceive the destination as an uncertain place to visit, this affects their minds and discourages them from traveling to the destination or sometimes to the region as a whole (Fuchs, 2013). It is therefore critical for TD managers to recognize what risks potential tourists perceive when they planning an international trip (Lehto et al., 2008).

3. Tourist's BI

The intention is usually a subjective judgment about how we will act in the future (Blackwell et al., 2001). It is the future action of referrals, price sensitivity, repurchase, and complaining behaviour (Zeithaml et al., 1996). On the other hand, an earlier study by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) identified BI as the role of evaluative beliefs, normative beliefs, and situational factors that can be expected at the time of the holiday plan or commitment. Thiumsak and Ruangkanjanases (2016) argued in favour of measuring the tourist's BI by looking at their desirable to return as the most significant consequences suggesting that it is the main part of BI. Nevertheless, since tourism is a service-oriented business that is intangible in nature and tourists can't determine the service until buying it, the BI of the tourist will vary accordingly (Lončarić et al., 2016; Litvin et al., 2008). We can't say that repurchase intention is the only predictor for BI.

This is because many potential tourists seeking novelty and therefore their intention to suggest the destination to others and to distinguish WOM represent good indicators for their BI (Phillips et al., 2013). Therefore, in the context of tourism industry, Barlas et al., (2010) clear the tourist BI as the planned future activity of the tourist reflected by the intention of returning and/or the desire to suggest the destination to others (Lončarić et al., 2016; Castro et al., 2007).

Previous studies find WOM to be an important source of information when making a purchase decision (Confente and Russo, 2015), an important marketing tool (Bao and Chang, 2014), vital when the service is complex (Zeithaml, 1988), and a critical source of information, especially when the service is at high perceived risk (Litvin et al., 2005). As such, the present study argued in favour of measure tourist BI by considering both factors which are; revisit intention and the willingness to recommend the destination.

4. Perceived risk and the tourist BI

The perception of risk was generally used to describe a concept of people's attitude and intuitive risk judgments (Cui et al., 2016). It was described by Stone and Gronhaug (1993) as a certain level of probability that can be attached to risk to determine the probable loss. The perceived risk could also be characterized as the probability that action might expose tourists to the danger that can influence travel decisions if the perceived danger is deemed to be beyond an acceptable level according (Reichel et al., 2007). Sönmez and Graefe (1998b) examined the perceived risk issue and found it to be a key factor in preventing travel to a risky destination. Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) who pioneered the tourists' risk perception studies find that risk perceptions and travel behaviours tend to be specific to the situation, indicating that tourists interpret risks differently to different destinations and therefore there is a need to examine every destination-specific perceptions of risks.

Generally, the engagement of tourist activities usually occurs for several motivations such as health purposes, excitement, leisure, cultural, sports events and sometimes seeking novelty (Madden et al., 2016). The last thing the tourists want is to waste his precious holidays and to be in a dangerous destination; hence the perceived risk has become a pressing concern for tourists around the world. In addition to that, as mentioned earlier, the product of tourism is perceived riskier since it is susceptible to threats such as crime and socio-political instability, terrorists attack, diseases, and disasters (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998b; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009; Tasci and Gartner, 2007). As such, potential tourists make their decision to travel to the destination based on their perceptions and not reality (Moisesescu and

Bertrea, 2013) even though some times the perception differs from reality (Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992). This is particularly true since a safe destination or perceived safety is considered a pull factor as well as a very important destination attribute that initiates the desire for travel. Based on that, managers of TD are trying so hard to prove that their destination is a risk-free place to visit since perceived risk has been found to have a significant impact on the pre-visit decision by alerting rational decision-making about destination choices (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a). Destinations marketers are aware that perceived risks of vacationing or travel to a specific destination have become specifically influential on tourists' decision-making behaviours given awareness of tragic events in foreign places. To this end, a destination must be viewed by prospective visitors as safe and protected from the danger posed by any unexpected incidents and that what referred to as perceived safety.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Based on the theoretically accepted knowledge mentioned above, the current study estimates that perceived dimensions of risk associated with Jordan as a tourism destination influence the BI of tourists. The current study has therefore proposed the following hypotheses:

H.1: PHR affects the BI of the tourist.

H.2: FR affects the BI of the tourist.

H.3: TR affects the BI of the tourist.

H.4: SPR affects the BI of the tourist.

H.5: PR affects the BI of the tourist.

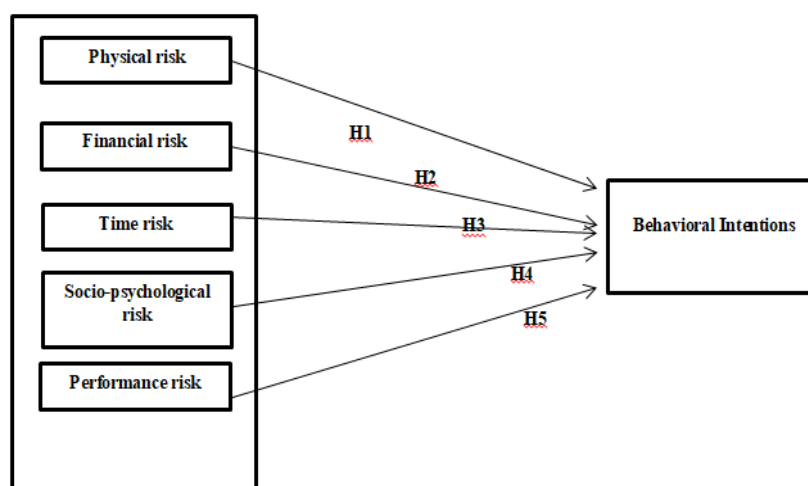


Figure 1. Conceptual model of the relationship between study variables

METHODOLOGY

1 Data collection

The current research aimed to investigate the effect of perceived risks on European tourist BI directly after their visit to Jordan in 2018 (June 2018-August 2018). The study used a purposive sampling method since it is not possible to determine the exact population size. Trained assistances have approached the European tourists while they are waiting to leave Jordan via its major Queen Alia International Airport (QAIA) based on face-to-face. As suggested by Mill and Morisson, (2002), the trained assistances targeting the respondents who meet the following inclusion criteria: (1) European tourists, (2) visiting Jordan for tourism activities, (3) over 18 years. A self-administered survey was conducted as a technique for data collection. A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed among European tourists. Out of which, 339 were usable for analysis taking into consideration the incomplete, erroneous and not returned survey, resulting in an 85% response rate.

2 Study Instrument

Originally, the study scale contained 35 items. Though, the questionnaire statements were updated to suit the context of this study based on advice and input from tourism experts and four academics at Irbid National University. Furthermore, before the study was conducted, a pilot test was carried out on 20 postgraduate students in tourism management to determine how well each scale captured the construct it was supposed to measure. As indicated by Hair et al. (2006), items that loaded less than 0.40 should be removed. As revealed in the Table (1) below, the results of the reliability tests for each variable showed that the alpha of Cronbach was above .70, which is considered adequate for exploratory studies.

Table 1. Result of reliability analysis (Data Source: Data Processing Results, 2019)

Study factors	Cronbach, α
The Scale of Perceived Risks	.90
PHR	.82
FR	.85
PR	.84
TR	.78
SPR	.79
BI	.86

The questionnaire was ready in four languages as the research sample was the European tourists; these are the original English copy, German, French, and Russian translated by professional translators and retranslated back to English to ensure accuracy of meaning. The final version of the questionnaire consisted of 25 items in three sections. The first part shows the socio-demographic variables of the respondents, such as nationality, age, gender, income and education through a categorical scale. Following the previous literature review, the second part of the questionnaire consisted of 20 items related to perceived risks derived from five risk dimensions adopted from the research Fuchs and Reichel (2006) which adopted and evaluated it from the previous work of Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992). These five

dimensions are PHR, FR, TR, SPR, and PR. The third part of the questionnaire included 5 items on the BI of the tourists adopted from Pike et al. (2010) and Huang and Hsu (2003). The scales for the perceived risk dimensions and tourist BI were measured by means of a five point-Likert scale with anchors ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

FINDINGS

1. Demographic profile of the respondents

The demographic profile of the respondents shows that 19% of those surveyed were from Russia and Ukraine, 18.5% were UK and Netherlands residents, 10% from Germany, 7.4% from Switzerland, 7.4% resided in France, 5.9% resided in Sweden, 5% from Portugal, and the remaining 28.5% from other European countries. Of those surveyed, 57.2% were women and 48.2 men. The majority of the visitors were between 26 to 40 years of age (approximately 45%). About 44% of the surveyed have a bachelor's degree and 34% had a master degree. In terms of monthly family income, 46.1% of the respondents failed in the category of 1500 - 3000 Euros per month. Finally, about 70% of the respondents using the group packed tour as their travel arrangement method.

2. Descriptive statistics

Regarding the sample's average value for the PHR perceived in Jordan, European visitors have a low average value for the PHR perceived during their visit to Jordan (the general arithmetic average was 2.4). They are agreed that there are not infectious diseases (H1N1 Influenza, HIV, etc.) in Jordan. Nevertheless, they believed that Jordanians do not receive their behaviour very well including the way they customarily dress and some of their behaviours are not accepted by the local people. In terms of the attitudes of the sample towards the FR they perceived in Jordan; the general arithmetic mean was very high and reached (4.4). European visitors strongly believe that Jordan's holiday is more costly than any other vacation, and they don't think they've got enough service for the amount they paid (money value). Regarding the PR in Jordan, the general arithmetic mean was low reaching (2.4). European visitors strongly believe that Jordanians are very friendly, and the food is very good. Though, accommodations in Jordan are still considered unsatisfactory in terms of quality of service.

The general arithmetic mean of the SPR perceived by European tourists was low reaching (2.1). European tourists see Jordan as a good destination tailored to their lifestyle and their family. However, they were agreed that their family and friends were shocked by their decision to travel to Jordan. Lastly, the general arithmetic mean of TR in Jordan was relatively low (2.7). They agreed that their holiday in Jordan is not a waste of time. It could be inferred that European visitors do not accept that their vacation in Jordan was a waste of their precious holiday. With regard to the intention of the European tourists to visit Jordan in the future and their willingness to separate WOM (Tourist BI), the general arithmetic means were high (4.0). This high mean value indicates that respondents plan to return to Jordan in the future and/or promote and recommend Jordan to others as a TD. They are strongly agreed that they will encourage friends and relatives to visit Jordan.

3. Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis was conducted on the data of the survey in order to obtain an understanding of the association between the study variables based on the independent variable of the five perceived risk dimensions (PHR, FR, TR, SPR, and PR) against the tourist's BI as the dependent variable.

Table 2. Correlations of the study variables (Data Source: Data Processing Results, 2019)

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	BI	1					
2	PHR	-.601**	1				
3	FR	-.671**	.234**	1			
4	TR	-.592**	.333**	.454**	1		
5	SPR	-.115**	.627**	.513**	.545**	1	
6	PR	-.132**	.445**	.644**	.344**	.578**	1

**p<0.01

The above table shows that all perceived risk dimensions in the research model are negatively and substantially associated with BI, which means that as risk dimensions decrease, the BI of the visitor to revisit and recommend Jordan to others as a TD should increase. In addition, all five perceived risk dimensions are positively correlated. All the correlation values were below 0.68 and in the expected direction. More specifically, there was a strong correlation between FR and the BI of tourists ($r = .671$), followed by clear associations between PHR and TR with tourist BI ($r = .601$) and ($r = .592$) correlations respectively. However, there was a low correlation between PR and SPR with the BI of the tourist with the correlation between ($r = .132$) and ($r = .115$) respectively.

4. Hypotheses testing

The study used multiple regressions to test the study's hypotheses as more than one independent variable influences the dependent variable. Because regression analysis is very sensitive to outliers, standardized residual values above 3.0 or below -3.0 have been removed in the regression analysis in the SPSS package by case diagnosis. To check the hypotheses H.1, H.2, H.3, H.4, and H.5, multiple regression analysis was carried out between the perceived risk dimensions of the destination as independent variables and the BI of the tourists as the dependent variable. From the first run of the test, the casewise analysis reveals that observation numbers 70, 55, and 219 were considered to be outliers and therefore removed in the next run of regression. The calculated F value at the confidence level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) is higher than the tabulated F value, and the statistical significance level value is lower than the confidence level value ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). The F-statistic ($F = 16,556$ $p < 0.001$) shows a significant relationship between independent and dependent variables.

The R square obtained for the five perceived risk dimensions rating means that the perceived risk dimensions of the tourists can explain about the 24 percent in the BI of the tourists ($R^2 = 0.237$). In other words, 24% of the shift in the degree of tourist BI can be explained by the five perceived risk dimensions included in the regression equation. The result from the multiple regression analysis exposed two of the dimensions included in the equation of regression that emerged as important predictors. In particular, FR ($r = 0.194$) and PR ($r = 0.217$, $p < 0.001$) found to have significant relationships with tourist BI. It is fair to conclude in this case that H2 and H5 hypotheses have been supported. Contrary to the hypotheses, the result showed that PHR ($\beta = 0.071$), TR ($\beta = 0.088$) and SPR ($\beta = 0.069$) were not important in tourist BI ($p > 0.001$). Therefore, H1, H3, and H4 hypotheses have not been accepted. Based on the size of beta values, the most influential variables of the predictor on tourist BI were PR ($\beta = 0.023$), followed by FR ($\beta = 0.019$). It is important to note that the tolerance and VIF values shown in the output suggest that among the independent variables there is no multicollinearity effect on dependent variables.

DISCUSSIONS OF RESULTS

Since Jordan is situated between Palestine, Israel, Egypt, Iraq, and Syria, in the last two decades Jordan's reputation as a tourist destination has been negatively affected (Liu et al., 2016). This study provided empirical evidence of the effects of perceived risks of Jordan as TD on the BI of European tourists. The findings showed that both FR and PR had a significant impact on the BI of the visitors. The current findings of the study were in line with Al Mual's findings (2010); and Schneider and Sonmez (1999), who previously studied Jordan's destination image as a destination for tourism. It was not surprising that PHR associated with Jordan as TD had no effect on the BI of the tourists. The tourists experienced a safe and secure TD after their visit to Jordan, so PHR did not seem to be important to the tourists who were there as a study by Fuchs and Reichel (2011); and a study by Harahsheh (2010) found it. With a mean reached (4.4), this study showed that European tourists considered Jordan as an expensive destination for tourism where they did not get value for their money. In addition, they strongly believe that a holiday in Jordan is more costly than any other vacation (mean 4.5). That is because Jordan is a poor country where the government's main income comes from taxes on services and products, particularly tourism. The Economist Intelligence Unit, for example, ranked Amman as the Arab world's most expensive city in 2015 (Jordan Times, 2015). One of the current study concerns was the PHR of European visitors in Jordan. Generally speaking, European visitors have a medium to a low value in terms of PHR during their visit to Jordan (the general arithmetic mean was 2.4). They also accepted, however, that the local people do not support some of their behaviours. This may be because Jordan is a Muslim country whereas most European tourists are Christians with different religions and cultures. Most respondents agreed that Jordan should be visited and recommended as a safe and secure destination for tourism, so there is no concern about snatching, terrorism, and infectious diseases. The result of the study confirmed that FR associated with Jordan as a destination for tourism had a negative and significant impact on the BI of European tourists. That is, the less FR they perceive, the more likely they are to revisit the destination and recommend it. Regarding the PR, the European tourists found local people in Jordan offering a friendly environment. Though, they still believe that accommodation in Jordan is not adequate in terms of quality of service. Furthermore, they have debated several problems such as public transport and cleanliness that the industry needs to improve quickly. This could be linked to the value of money mentioned earlier, where visitors pay a good amount of money in five-star hotels or resort hotels and expected very high service quality. Giving the fact that European tourists are known as a highly sensitive segment market to the service quality and the variety of options available, so lack of food and accommodation options at multiple prices will discourage them from visiting Jordan. Finally, the results suggested that the three dimensions of risk (PHR, TR, and SPR) did not have any significant effect on the BI of European visitors.

CONCLUSION

As indicated in the literature, tourists are concerned about the quality of the services they will receive during their visit (PR), hence, tourism service providers in Jordan should double their efforts to provide tourist experiences of high quality to ensure that visitors gain valuable experiences during their stay. In addition, there should be a range of hotels and places to eat at the destination, not just a five-star service viewed by European visitors as costly and not a value for money. It is very difficult to sell Jordan if many European visitors and tour operators see it as a pricy destination. It is therefore recommended that the Jordanian government reduces taxes that impose on tourism facilities such as hotels, transportation, food and beverages, and entrance fees at TD attractions in order to make Jordan more competitive in price than those that have the opposite effect. Few studies -to the best of the researcher's knowledge- have examined the relationship between perceived risk dimensions and BI, especially in the case of European travellers to Jordan. A number of contributions were made from this study. First, the outcomes of evaluating the relationship between these variables will help a destination with potential marketing campaigns aimed at increasing market share by changing negative perceptions and reinforcing positive perceptions. Secondly, some researchers have criticized the exciting theories because they do not take into account variables such as perceived risks in the selection process for TD. Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992), who pioneered tourist perception of risk, found that perceptions of risk and travel behaviour seem specific to the situation, suggesting that travelers perceive risks differently to different destinations and therefore need to study destination-specific perceptions of risk. For instance, a study by Chew and Jahari (2014) addressed the risk of radiation and its effect on Japan as an image of a TD, which cannot be extended to Jordan as a TD. Consequently, a study that sheds light on risk-related perceptions among potential European tourists was significant.

Thirdly, it is very important to study the BI of visitors, whether by their desire to return or their willingness to recommend the destination and distinguish positive feedback, as it can help to predict whether the target customers will become long-term customers and bring more income to businesses by creating an appealing picture of the destination and increasing their marketing efforts to optimize them. Lastly, the population of this study was the European tourists who visited Jordan and are ready to return to their countries, so this study inspects tourists' perceptions of specific and actual risks rather than general evaluations that find it an important strategy for developing and recovering the image of the TD. As a final point, this study had some limitations could be considered for further research. The results of this study were based on a sample of European tourists. Future research may concentrate on different segment markets, such as tourists from Asia and the Middle East. In addition, future research could be carried out not only on the leaving visitor, but also in two lags of time (by their arrivals and their departure). Second, data from the study were collected in the summer while different studies collected data in different seasons (e.g. winter) which could lead to better result. Finally, future study may divide repeated visitors from first-time visitors as the visitors' perceptions of the destination may vary within the two groups.

REFERENCES

- Ahmed, T., & Abdul-Kadir, A. (2013). Impact of information sources on the decision makes process of travel to the Egyptian tourist destination after January 25, 2011. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, 61(4), 395-423. <https://hrcak.srce.hr/113261>
- Al Mual, A. (2010). *Antecedent and Mediator of Actual visit behavior amongst international tourists in Jordan*. Doctor of philosophy University Utara Malaysia November. <http://etd.uum.edu.my/2725/>
- Al-Oun, S., & Al-Homoud, M. (2008). The potential for developing community-based tourism among the Bedouins in the Badia of Jordan. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 3(1), 36-54. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873x.2008.9701249>
- Artuğer, S. (2015). The effect of risk perceptions on tourists' revisit intentions. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 7(2), 36-43.
- Bao, T., & Chang, T.L.S. (2014). Finding disseminators via electronic word of mouth message for effective marketing communications. *Decision Support Systems*, 67(1), 21-29. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2014.07.006>
- Barlas, A., Mantis, K., & Koustelios, A. (2010). Achieving positive word-of-mouth communication: the role of perceived service quality in the context of Greek ski centres. *World Leisure Journal*, 52(4), 90-297. <https://doi.org/10.1080/04419057.2010.9674654>
- Blackwell, R.D., Miniard, P.W., & Engel, J.F. (2001). *Consumer Behavior*. Fort Worth, Harcourt College.
- Castro, C.B., Armario, E.M., & Ruiz, D.M. (2007). The influence of market heterogeneity on the relationship between a destination's image and tourists' future behavior. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 175-187. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.11.013>
- Chew, T.Y.E., & Jahari, A.S. (2014). Destination image as a mediator between perceived risks and revisit intention: A case of post-disaster Japan. *Tourism Management*, 40(1), 382-393. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.07.008>

- Confente, I., & Russo, I. (2015). Why do People Talk? A Comparison Between Offline WOM and Online WOM. In *ECSM2015-Proceedings of the 2nd European Conference on Social Media 2015: ECSM 2015*, Academic Conferences Limited.
- Cui, F., Liu, Y., Chang, Y., Duan, J., & Li, J. (2016). An overview of tourism risk perception. *Natural Hazards*, 82(1), 643-658. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-016-2208-1>
- El-Said, O., & Aziz, H. (2019). Egypt's Competitiveness: Empirical Examination of the Relationship Between Destination Attributes, Tourist Satisfaction, and Behavioral Intentions Among the Hotel Guests. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 25(1), 53-73.
- Farajat, S.A., Liu, B., & Pennington-Gray, L. (2017). Addressing travel writers' role as risk brokers: the case of Jordan. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 9(1), 23-39. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19407963.2016.1231194>
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Beliefs, Attitude, and intention behavior : An introduction to theory and research*. London: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company. <https://scinapse.io/papers/2036389121>
- Fuchs, G. (2013). Low versus High Sensation-Seeking Tourists: A Study of Backpackers' Experience Risk Perception. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 15(1), 81-92. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.878>
- Fuchs, G., & Reichel, A. (2006). Tourist Destination Risk Perception: The Case of Israel. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 14(2), 83-108. https://doi.org/10.1300/j150v14n02_06
- Fuchs, G., & A. Reichel. (2011). An Exploratory Inquiry into Destination Risk Perceptions and Risk Reduction Strategies of First Time vs. Repeat Visitors to a Highly Volatile Destination. *Tourism Management*, 32(2), 266-76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.01.012>
- Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., Anderson, R.E., & Tatham, R.L. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (6 ed.): Prentice Hall.
- Harahsheh, S.S. (2010). *An evaluation of the image of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan in the British and Swedish markets and the implications for marketing the country as a tourism destination*. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Bournemouth University.
- Hasan, M.K., Ismail, A.R., & Islam, F. (2017). Tourist risk perceptions and revisit intention: A critical review of literature. *Cogent Business and Management*, 4(1), 1412874. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/23311975.2017.1412874>
- Huang, S.S., & Hus, W.K. (2003). Determinants of User Intention toward IT Instruction: an Examination of Internal and External Factors. *Knowledge Management and E-Learning: An International Journal*, 1(3). <https://doi.org/10.34105/j.kmel.2009.01.015>
- Kozak, M., Crotts, J., & Law, R. (2007). The impact of the perception of risk on international travellers. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 9(1), 233-242. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.607>
- Lehto, X., Douglas, A., & Park, J. (2008). Mediating the effects of natural disasters on travel intention. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 23(4), 29-43. https://doi.org/10.1300/j073v23n02_03
- Litvin, S.W., Blose, J.E., & Laird, S.T. (2005). Tourists' use of restaurant webpages: Is the internet a critical marketing tool?. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 11(2), 155-161. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766705052572>
- Litvin, S.W., Goldsmith, R.E., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic word-of mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 458-468. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.05.011>
- Liu, B., Schroeder, A., Pennington-Gray, L., & Farajat, S.A. (2016). Source market perceptions: How risky is Jordan to travel to?. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 5(4), 294-304. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2016.08.005>
- Lončarić, D., Prodan, M., & Ribarić, I. (2016). The influence of a visitor's perceptions of a museum's website design on behavioural intentions. *Ekonomski Vjesnik/ Econoview*, 14(1), 65-79. <https://hrcak.srce.hr/ojs/index.php/ekonomski-vjesnik/article/view/3969>
- Madden, K., Rashid, B., & Zainol, N.A. (2016). Beyond the motivation theory of destination. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 22(2), 247-264. <https://doi.org/10.20867/thm.22.2.1>
- Mill, R.C., & Morrison, A.M. (2002). *The tourism system: An introductory text* (4th ed.). Dubuque, IA: Kemdall/Hunt.
- Mitchell, V., Davies, D., Moutinho, L., & Vassos, V. (1999). Using Neural Networks to Understand Service Risk in the Holiday Product, *Journal of Business Research*. 46(2), 167-180. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0148-2963\(98\)00020-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0148-2963(98)00020-4)
- Moisescu, O.I., & Bertrea, P. (2013). The Impact of Brand Awareness, Brand Knowledge and Price Positioning on Perceived Risks Associated to Buying Online from Travel Agencies. *Romanian Journal of Marketing*, 8(3), 13-22.
- Moutinho, L. (1987). Consumer Behavior in Tourism. *European Journal of Marketing*. 21(10), 3-44.
- Perpiña, L., Prats, L., & Camprubi, R. (2017). Investigating Perceived Risks In International Travel. *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Refereed Journal of Tourism*, 12(2).
- Phillips, W.J., Wolfe, K., Hodur, N., & Leistritz, F.L. (2013). Tourist word of mouth and revisit intentions to rural tourism destinations: A case of North Dakota, USA. *International journal of tourism research*, 15(1), 93-104. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.879>
- Pike, S., Bianchi, C., Keer, G., & Patti, C. (2010). Consumer-based brand equity for Australia as a long-haul tourism destination in an emerging market. *International Marketing Review*, 27(4), 434-449. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02651331011058590>
- Rimal, R.N., & Real, K. (2003). Understanding the influence of perceived norms on behaviors. *Communication Theory*, 13(2), 184-203. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2885.2003.tb00288.x>
- Rittichainuwat, B.N., & Chakraborty, G. (2009). Perceived travel risks regarding terrorism and disease: The case of Thailand. *Tourism Management*, 30(3), 410-418. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.08.001>
- Roehl, W.S., & Fesenmaier, D.R. (1992). Risk perceptions and pleasure travel: an exploratory analysis. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(4), 17-26. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759203000403>
- Schneider, I., & Sonmez, S. (1999). Exploring the tourist image of Jordan. *Tourism Management*, 20(1), 539-542. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0261-5177\(99\)00023-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0261-5177(99)00023-0)
- Sohn, H.K., Lee, T.J., & Yoon, Y. (2016). Relationship between perceived risk, evaluation, satisfaction, and behavioral intention: A case of local-festival visitors. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 33(1), 28-45.
- Sönmez, S., & Graefe, A.F. (1998a). Influence of Terrorism Risk on Foreign Tourism Decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(10), 112-144. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0160-7383\(97\)00072-](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0160-7383(97)00072-)
- Sönmez, S., & Graefe, A.F. (1998b). Detraining future behavior from past travel experience and perception of risk and safety. *Journal of travel research*, 37(1), 171-177. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759803700209>
- Stone, R.N., & Grønhaug, K. (1993). Perceived risk: further considerations for the marketing discipline. *European Journal of Marketing*, 27(3), 39-50. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090569310026637>
- Tasci, A.D., Gartner, W.C., & Cavusgil, S.T. (2007). Conceptualization and Operationalization of destination image. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 31(2), 194-223. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348006297290>
- Thiumsak, T., & Ruangkanjanases, A. (2016). Factors influencing international visitors to revisit Bangkok, Thailand. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management*. 4(3), 220-230. <https://doi.org/10.7763/joebm.2016.v4.94>
- Tsang, S., Tzeng, G., & Wang, K. (1997). Evaluating tourist risks from fussy perspectives. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(4), 796-812.
- Zeithaml, V.A., & Bitner, M.J. (1996). *Services marketing*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Zeithaml, V.A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing*, 52(7), 2-22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224298805200302>
- *** Country Brand Index. (2018). New York: Future Brand. <https://www.futurebrand.com/futurebrand-country-index>.
- *** Jordan Times. (2015). Jordan's tourism industry feels impact of regional volatility. Retrieved from <http://www.jordantimes.com/news/business/jordan%E2%80%99s-tourism-industry-feels-impact-regional-volatility>.
- *** Jordanian ministry of tourism and antiques. (2018). Tourists arrivals reports. https://www.mota.gov.jo/Contents/statistics_2018Ar.aspx

THE MEANING OF CREATIVE ECONOMY IN THE MINANGKABU COMMUNITY IN THE WEST SUMATRA TOURISM DESTINATION AREA, INDONESIA

ZUSMELIA*

Sociology Education Study Program, STKIP PGRI West Sumatra,
Jl. Gn. Pangilun, Gn. Pangilun, Kec. Padang Utara, Kota Padang, Sumatera Barat, Indonesia, e-mail: zusmelia_2002@yahoo.com

IRWAN

Sociology Education Study Program, STKIP PGRI West Sumatra,
Jl. Gn. Pangilun, Gn. Pangilun, Kec. Padang Utara, Kota Padang, Sumatera Barat, Indonesia, e-mail: irwan7001@gmail.com

Yossi E. PUTRI

Economics Education Study Program, STKIP PGRI West Sumatra,
Jl. Gn. Pangilun, Gn. Pangilun, Kec. Padang Utara, Kota Padang, Sumatera Barat, Indonesia, e-mail: yosiekaputri4051@gmail.com

Nilmadesri ROSYA

Economics Education Study Program, STKIP PGRI West Sumatra,
Jl. Gn. Pangilun, Gn. Pangilun, Kec. Padang Utara, Kota Padang, Sumatera Barat, Indonesia, e-mail: nilmadesrirosya@gamil.com

Felia SISKKA

History Education Study Program, STKIP PGRI West Sumatra,
Jl. Gn. Pangilun, Gn. Pangilun, Kec. Padang Utara, Kota Padang, Sumatera Barat, Indonesia, e-mail: faliasiska17@gmail.com

Citation: Zuzmelia, Irwan, Putri, Y.E., Rosya, N., & Siska, F. (2020) THE MEANING OF CREATIVE ECONOMY IN THE MINANGKABU COMMUNITY IN THE WEST SUMATRA TOURISM DESTINATION AREA, INDONESIA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1551–1556. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl16-607>

Abstract: The aim of this project was to analyze the meaning of the creative economy in the Minangkabau community in the tourist destination area of West Sumatra. This research uses a descriptive qualitative approach. This research was from the province of West Sumatra. Data collection by observation, Focus Group Discussion (FGD), and in-depth interviews. The results showed that the creative economy had created economic added value, increased tourism, and strengthened local culture. Economic actors' actions in tourist destination areas prioritize rational economic actions and do not consider economic motives. The creative economy is not influenced by local habits or culture in taking action so that economic actors prioritize earning profits. The meaning of the Minangkabau community's creative economy in the tourist destination area is action prioritizing profit, action-oriented towards prospects, the action being accessible to all levels, action prioritizing opportunities, and actions have attractiveness and habits. It is shown that these creative economic actions tend to ignore the socio-cultural elements of local products. Cultural values drive the development of the creative industry in West Sumatra. The attractiveness and habits of local tourists and tourists from mancanagara (foreign tourists) become capital and action in the creative economy.

Key words: meaning of creative economy, Minangkabau community, tourist destinations.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is to enjoy the demographic bonus era in 2020-2035 (BPS, 2018). The population of productive age is estimated to reach 64 percent of Indonesia's total population of 297 million. It can positively impact Indonesia's regions if the demographic bonus to an acceleration of development in Indonesia. On the other hand, it will negatively impact if Indonesian people's quality is not adequate. Through its sixteen creative industry sub-sectors, the creative industry has an essential role in Indonesia's future economy. Based on the results of research between the Creative Economy Agency (Bekraf) and the Central Statistics Agency (BPS) in 2016, it is noted that the creative economy contributed to the national economic growth of 922.59 billion rupiahs or 7.44 percent of the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Much empirical evidence supports that the creative industry impacts GDP through the creative industry sub-sector and creates a new form of cultural industry governance (Fahmi et al., 2016; Daubaraite and Startiene 2015; United Nations Development Program 2013).

The craft, culinary, fashion, and handicraft sectors are the subsectors that provide the highest added value contribution (Gary 2016: 1). In the 2010-2015 period, the amount of creative economy GDP increased from 525.96 trillion rupiahs to 852.24 trillion rupiahs, increasing about 10.14% per year in the creative economy GDP. The average export growth of the creative economy was 7.1%, and the average contribution of the added value of the creative economy to total GDP was 7.13% (Gary 2016). The results of the analysis by BPS and Bekraf reveal that the creative economy has not grown evenly. BPS noted that in 2016, of the 8.2 million creative economy businesses were still concentrated in Java and could only absorb 16.91 million workers that year. Fahmi et al. (2016) in their research concluded that the creative industry has succeeded in triggering economic growth but has not been centralized in all regions, so it is necessary to group creative industries supported by skilled labor. Daubaraite and Startiene (2015), in their research, found that the creative industry has an impact on creating new jobs by using skills, talents, and creativity so that it has a significant impact on economic growth.

The trend of economic growth in West Sumatra has tended to slow down and even decline over the last ten years, and the GDP per capita is relatively low compared to the surrounding provinces. This condition requires West Sumatra to seek new sources of economic growth under the local economy's character that is approaching an inclusive development posture where the growth achieved can be accompanied by

* Corresponding author

economic equality captured from the HDI and the West Sumatra Gini ratio. BPS data shows that the industrial sector's contribution only reached 11.36 % in 2014 and decreased to 10.97% in 2015. This condition leaves some suspicion that the development of the creative industry in West Sumatra still has several problems that hinder this sector's growth. The majority of developing creative industries are micro and small in scale, which is generally limited access. It is assumed that the creative economy's development had not integrated with other economic sectors due to weak support from the supporting system and lack of coordination among related stakeholders. The development of the creative economy and its supporting industries cannot be done partially but must use a holistic and systemic approach.

West Sumatra Province has diverse tourism potential and constitutes the national tourism system. According to Sawirman (2008), tourism objects in West Sumatra have advantages, beauty, uniqueness of customs, art, history, and other natural resources. Tourism developed in West Sumatra is on Islamic rule, which is on the Minangkabau philosophy, namely "Adat with Syara Code, Syara Encoded in the Book of God" (ABS-SBK). Indirectly, it raises a halal tourism paradigm and gets the best tourism award at the national level, based on the Ministry of Tourism assessment. The potential for tourism in West Sumatra is an attraction that is not only at the national and international levels. The development and socio-economic processes in West Sumatra Province also affect the development and development of the creative economy at the micro-level. In line with Clare's (2013) thinking, the creative economy is an element of regional development and socio-economic improvement. Tourism is one of the most effective solutions to overcome poverty in rural communities (Purnomo, 2020). The creative economy creates economic value-added and local cultural heritage.

It appears based on knowledge or creative ideas from society. Based on the Institute for Economic and Social Research (2005), the creative economy has added value and intellectual property in the form of expertise, talents, interests, and creativity to become use-value and selling value. Besides, the creative economy is local wisdom that develops in society and becomes a local culture (Azizah, 2017). Moore (2014) states that the creative economy is built on values embedded in place in an area. It means the creative economy is following the unique characteristics of a region. However, the West Sumatra economic actors have not yet made innovations in products, marketing, and technology. Even though the people in West Sumatra are known for their genuine entrepreneurial spirit and social capital, they respected value. West Sumatra tourist destinations are still selling foreign products and non-local content.

It raises that the creative economy in West Sumatra in tourist destinations is still at the theoretical stage and not yet at the experimental stage or traditional value. Based on the problems expressed in the background, the research aims to analyze the meaning of the creative economy in the Minangkabau community in the tourist destination area of West Sumatra.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Creative Economy: Weber's Social Action

The relationship between the creative economy as an economic-socio-cultural action has received attention from Weber's thinking as an economic sociologist. The actions taken have a subjective meaning for economic actors in obtaining utility. Social actions carried out by economic actors often prioritize these acts' aims and objectives (Turner and Bryan, 2012; Turner et al., 1998). Weber explained that social action pays attention to other individuals' behavior and is, therefore, directed at a specific goal (Damsar, 2011). Actions are taken by someone related to limited resources by considering the ability, effort, and desire they will achieve to meet the needs of life for goods and services. Actors take these actions to choose actions that aim to maximize the necessities of life. According to Swedberg (1994, 2002), actors' actions are not mere economic actions or phenomena, but economic phenomena that are economically relevant and conditioned. Furthermore, Weber states that social action is real action and has a specific purpose. The social actions taken are always at a rational level. Of course, economic actors have an interest in gaining advantage and competition. Besides, profit and competition are always at the desired exchange rate. This understanding refers to the creative economy as a concept to develop local values in an area.

Economic actors in carrying out social actions are obedient and ready to take all risks that must be faced. Creative economy stakeholders emphasize socio-cultural actions in carrying out economic actions, but these actions are interest-driven and rational. It illustrates that the course and the action prioritize expectations of utility value. Weber explained that the economy of action must be in social action. Such action is in economic interest and based on economic considerations when carrying out the social action. Of course, this element exists in economic motives and influenced the habits. Habits form in the form of habits, emotions, and traditions.

Weber shares social action on four actions: instrumental rationality, value-oriented rationality, traditional or non-rational, and useful. Actions that Weber described as driving aspects of the economy in economic action. Of course, the creative economy built-in prioritizing the interests of economic operators and economic actors. Weber (2006) states that social action is carried out as a direction of ideal and material interests and showed in actor behavior. These two concepts are what distinguish between economic sociology and the new school of economic sociology. According to Weber, ideal interests belong to sociology, and material interests belong to the economy.

It suggests that Weber's social action, as an analysis of the concept of rationality (Kalberg, 1980; Johnson 1990). Creative economic development in developing countries is linked to other development priorities such as poverty alleviation, strengthening local economies (Bocella and Salerno, 2016), and protecting cultural heritage and tourism development (Hesmondhalgh 2012; Towse and Handka 2013; Flew 2013). The creative industry also has an essential role in promoting gender balance. The creative industry, especially in developing countries, can facilitate more excellent absorption of the female workforce (Carter et al., 2013). According to Hawkes (2001), creative industries also tend to be environmentally friendly because they have relatively little dependence on natural resources.

Creative Economy Action

Creative economy action supports Indonesia's vision of becoming a developed country. The creative economy is to build as a form of sustainable economic development. According to Purnomo (2016), the creative economy tends to create innovation and technological development in the digital era. It encourages and creates new ideas or ideas to continue culture and technology (Azizah et al., 2017). Fahmi et al. (2016) explain that the creative economy mixes contradictory values between new knowledge and cultural values, which are conservative in interpreting the creative economy. There are three main points in the creative economy, namely creativity, to produce something unique and accepted by all levels. Second, innovation, an idea, or ideas by taking advantage of discoveries and producing good products. Third, findings that emphasize the creation of new works that have use and sale value. The creative industry is currently the hope amid the current global economy to boost its share of national GDP.

Since the change from an institution that previously joined the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy (2009) to become an independent body, namely Bekraf (2015), there are 16 sub-sectors of the creative industry. The sixteen subsectors are architecture; design interior; visual communication design; product design; films, animations, and videos; photography; craft; culinary; music; fashion; application and game developers; publishing; advertising; television and radio; performing arts; and fine arts. In addition to making a significant contribution to the national economy, the creative industry can also absorb 10.65 percent of the labor force and contribute 5.51

% of export value to national exports in 2012. The creative industry believed to be able to answer the challenges of fundamental short and medium-term problems, namely: (1) relatively low post-crisis economic growth (on average only 4.5 percent per year); (2) high unemployment rate (9-10 percent); (3) the poverty rate is still high (16-17 percent); and (4) low industrial competitiveness in Indonesia (Kuncoro 2010). The creative economy is part of the integration of knowledge possessed by society with built innovations. This innovation emphasizes the use of technology and culture in action. The creative economy that is built can take advantage of the community's creativity, skills, and talents. President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono (2007) explains that the creative economy tends to be more towards creativity, culture, or cultural and environmental heritage. Regarding the diversity of creativity, it is technological creativity (invention), the economy of creativity or (entrepreneurship), artistic creativity, and culture (Zusmelia et al., 2020). It needs rephrasing: "It is in line with the thoughts of Zusmelia et al. (2019) 's thoughts that technology is an indicator of economic and socio-cultural improvement in tourist areas in developing the creative economy. It encourages that the creative economy creates added value for economic actors and is based on ideas.

Therefore, the creative economy is primarily based on local knowledge, art, culture, innovation, and technology. Howkins (2001), states that the creative industry is intangible. The creative economy is an economic activity that comes from creativity, talents, and individual skills and can create wealth and create jobs through acquiring and utilizing the intellectual property. Scientists such as John Howkins (Howkins, 2001) and Richard Florida (Florida, 2012) say that now we are in an era of the creative economy where capitalism's transformation takes place from an industrial system based on capital intensive to an industrial system based on ideas and innovations. The Creative Economy Agency (2016) defines the creative economy as a new economic concept that rests on unique ideas, creativity, skills, and talents to create wealth and employment by generating and exploiting individual creative and creative power. The creative economy provides added value because it offers sustainable development through creativity and can contribute significantly to the economy, create a favorable business climate, build national image and identity, increase competitive advantage and provide positive social impacts. The creative economy was born as a holistic concept that deals with the complex interactions between culture, art, economy, and technology. Several kinds of literature provide two opposing views of the value orientation inherent in interpreting the creative economy. The first group is more oriented to the culture-centric side, which emphasizes the community's cultural values, arts, and socio-cultural life.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The research was carried out in the province of West Sumatra in the tourist destination of West Sumatra. Areas that include West Sumatra tourist destinations are Padang City, Mentawai Islands Regency, Bukittinggi City, Tanah Datar Regency, and Sawahlunto Regency. The reason for choosing the area was that the area of Padang City, the Mentawai Islands Regency, had represented the typology of coastal communities, and Bukittinggi City, Tanah Datar Regency, Sawahlunto Regency represented the typology of the mainland community. Also, the region has the most fantastic tourist attractions in West Sumatra. This study uses a qualitative approach as the primary approach in analyzing the research objectives. The collecting data technique was carried out by participant observation, in-depth interviews, and Focus Group Discussion (FGD). The technique of determining informants was carried out by purposive sampling, with the number of informants being 53 people. The data analysis stage started from the collection of data that was relevant to the research theme which the selection and simplification of the data were carried out to focus on the research problem (data reduction), then the data was presented in the form of narrative text (data display), then withdrawal conclusion (Miles and Huberman, 2014).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Creative Economy in the West Sumatra Tourism Destination Area

The creative economy certainly creates and preserves local culture that can be used as an economic source. The creative economy is carried out with economic activities in skills, knowledge, talents, and potential for economic actors. The creative economy in the West Sumatra tourist destination has not implemented a financial system based on ideas and innovations. This illustrates that tourist destinations are still selling high modern products when compared to local products. The percentage of economic actors who sell local and contemporary products is shown in the following Figure 1.

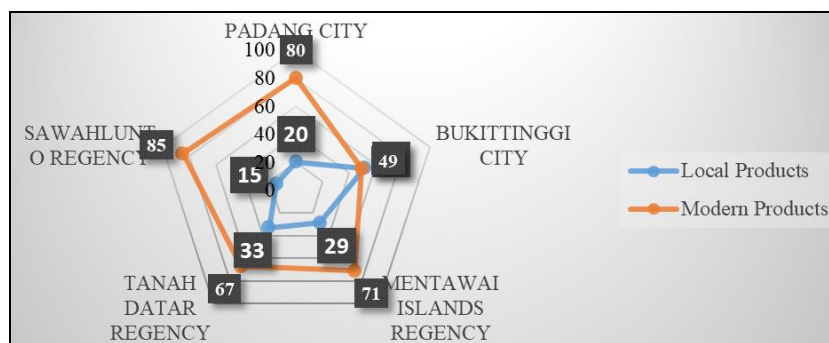


Figure 1. Percentage of Economic Players Selling Products in West Sumatra Tourist Destination Areas

Based on the Figure above, tourist destination areas are still superior in selling foreign products compared to local products. To trained creative economy, West Sumatra's tourist destinations are still taking economic actions based on achieving optimal profits and not based on culture. Howknis (2001) and Florida (2012) explain that the creative economy has led to an economic system based on innovation and ideas. In line with that, the Creative Economy Agency (2016) implements a creative economy that prioritizes ideas, skills, creativity, and talents, thereby creating jobs and increasing people's welfare. However, economic actors in tourist destinations in West Sumatra take rational or profit-based economic actions. Geographically, the creative industries in West Sumatra are spread across almost all districts and cities, but their distribution is not evenly distributed. Creative industries located in rural areas tend to have lower financial inclusion than creative industries in urban areas. The creative economy of tourist destinations can be grouped into four types of business: culinary, fashion, craft (handmade), and performing arts. The percentage of economic actors in tourist destination areas is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2 shows that the number of traders or sellers is higher in the culinary business than other types of companies. The percentage of creative economy players in the culinary business sector is 68.55 % of the total economic actors in West Sumatra's tourist destination area. The types of fashion and handmade businesses amounted to 13.71 percent and the art of performing at 4.03%. The culinary

economy actors' activity is driven by consumer demand, expertise in managing culinary, good business prospects, and sufficient capital. West Sumatra has a unique socio-cultural wealth, making it in a strong position to create a local brand. The development of the creative industry in West Sumatra is driven by cultural values that highlight the culinary, crafts and fashion sub-sectors as the mainstay sectors. The results of this study prove that the creative industry in West Sumatra can facilitate greater absorption of female workers.

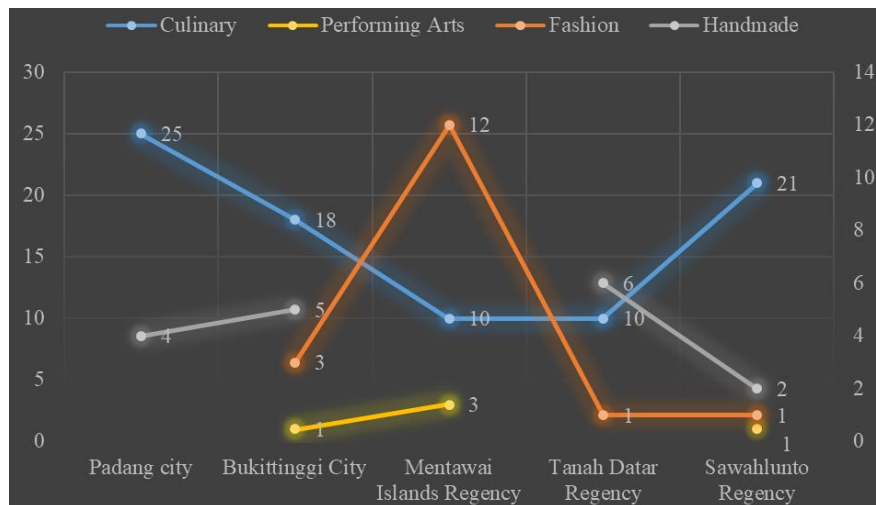


Figure 2. Number of Creative Economy Players by Type of Business in the West Sumatra Tourism Destination Area

These findings reinforce the research of Carter et al. (2013) stated that the creative industry has an important role in promoting gender balance. The change in taste and consumption patterns of modern society is a challenge for the creative industry in producing products that match consumers' needs and preferences. Export destinations for creative industries are very selective in paying attention to product quality, both in terms of design, material, unique characteristics, etc. The emotional side contained in innovative products is the main attraction for consumers, especially in developed countries. The future challenge is to prepare creative human resources who understand the context of creativity in the creative industry era as a whole. According to Hall (2000), urban growth with high intensity of technological and information advancement can create a conducive environment, especially in terms of the availability of information on banking services that can be utilized. According to Mago and Chitokwindo (2014), better infrastructure in cities can improve banking access for the public and business actors. Florida (2002) researched the factors that shape economic geography through talent and education and their influence on high-tech locations in creative industries and regional development.

The Meaning of Creative Economy for the Minangkabau Community.

The creative economy action developed by the Minangkabau community is in the form of rational economic action. Rational economic action prioritizes interests and benefits or use value for goods and services. Actions taken by economic actors tend to optimize rational action. The creative economy's application in the tourist destination of West Sumatra considers individual interests above everything else. It does not see the influence of cultural values and social structures that should be promoted or uniquely in the West Sumatra tourist destination. The creative economy actions taken are certainly not submissive and obedient to everything internalized in everyday life in the Minangkabau Society. According to the thoughts of Polanyi et al. (1957); Granovetter (2010); Smelser (2010) explain that the economic activity that has been built is in the undersocialized camp. This thinking is in line with Weber's view that creative economic action in the West Sumatra tourist destination is driven by economic interests and does not consider economic motives. It shows that creative economic action is not influenced by habits, namely habits, feelings, and traditions that are built up in the tourist destination area of West Sumatra. Tracing several tourist objects in Indonesia, such as Pengkalongan, Bandung, and other areas that the creative economy action is built has two considerations: economic action prioritizing cultural considerations and economic activity to achieve optimal profit. It illustrates that these actions cannot be separated from the socio-cultural elements of the local community. The creative economy in the West Sumatra tourist destination area is an achievement to earn a living and does not become a model for showing a region's uniqueness. It is built by a formalist economy that is at a profit value.

West Sumatra tourist destinations have several types of businesses: culinary, fashion, handmade, and performing arts. The creative economy in the tourist destination area of West Sumatra is an economic activity inherent in the type of rationality due to rational action. Culinary that is sold by economic actors are more likely to be ready-to-eat culinary or modern food. Economic actors do not prioritize local products as a creative economy. On average, those who sell local products or traditional food in the West Sumatra tourist destination are around 30 %. If trace that the creative economy prioritizes local products that develop in an area. This type of creative economy in the form of fashion in the West Sumatra tourist destination sells more modern clothing than local products. It illustrates that the creative economy in this fashion business is still minimally sold by economic actors. The percentage who sells fashion in the West Sumatra tourist destination area is around 25% percent of local products. Suppose we trace that the creative economy prioritizes local values that are innovative. It can develop and become a selling point for the Minangkabau community.

However, the type of fashion business needs to be of economic and cultural value for the development of the creative economy. Besides the types of fashion businesses, there are also types of handicraft businesses developing in West Sumatra Province. Handmade in the West Sumatra tourist destination area is not the main product to be sold as a creative economy. Economic actors are more likely to sell goods from outside rather than local products. If it is traced back to West Sumatra, there are types of local products that can be sold, but very minimal. The percentage who sells local products of the Minangkabau community is around 20 percent. Economic action is only in the realm of individual thought that prioritizes profit. Besides, performing is minimal to become a creative economy in the tourist destination of West Sumatra. West Sumatra tourist destinations play more modern music or bands and play minimal traditional music such as randai, silat, saluting, rabab. The percentage that plays local art performances is around 10 percent, and economic actors prefer modern shows. For to be clearer, the creative economy action analysis model is shown in the following Figure 3.

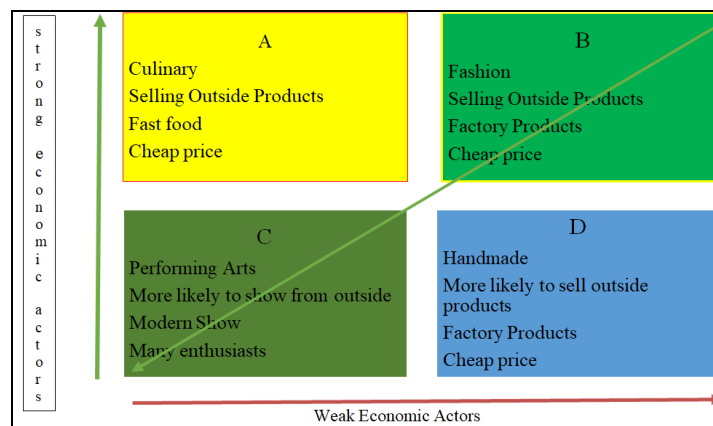


Figure 3. Analysis Model of Creative Economy Actors in West Sumatra Tourist Destination Areas

Based on the Figure Indicate the no. 3, economic actors tend to take financial action above individual interests. They sell products for profit and interest. The ease also drives this in taking action. External products become a mainstay for sale in the tourist destination area of West Sumatra. The stories of economic actors in tourist destination areas have economic rather than non-economic desires. The actions taken are attached to the structure of social networks and social relations for profit. Economic actors decide to sell foreign products because the mindset of economic actors is in rational actors. It is driven by a reflection of the relational and networked actions inherent in economic actors' actions. The desire of economic actors to sell financial products is due to high opportunities. Besides that, to improve the economy in the household because their work tends to be and is focused on selling or trading. There are several meanings of the creative economy for the Minangkabau community, namely:

Profit First Action

The Minangkabau community's creative economy in tourist destination areas is associated with benefits in meeting household needs. Those economic actors who sell are more likely to quickly sell branded goods to all social levels, including minimal local goods sold to visitors to tourist attractions. It is encouraged that the Minangkabau people in the tourist destination area prioritize rational thinking and ignore irrational actions. For economic actors, why do they sell if they do not make a profit? The advantage of taking economic action in tourist destination areas is the meaning of the creative economy. Creative industries that grow in regions with high per capita income tend to have a lower proportion of bank credit usage. It can happen if the region has more diverse sources of traditional financing so that the creative industry has many alternative financing options that can be used. Apart from banks, entrepreneurs can also take advantage of other financing alternatives, such as venture capital.

Prospect-Oriented Actions

Creative economy actors take action, not only do actions but think for prospects that benefit them. This action puts itself into the behavior of others and the environment for thinking of others. Creative economic actors consider use value and can compete during this economic life. It encourages that these actions are not rooted from generation to generation but only for economic gain. The creative economy in the tourist destination area should pay great attention to maintaining traditions and preserving it from generation to generation. However, their actions are only for good prospects for household economic life.

Actions Reach All Layers

Of course, the products produced are accessible to all levels of society, especially at a price. Tourist destination areas sell local products more expensive than foreign products. It is what encourages the creative economy to be carried out at affordable prices to all levels. The incapacity between capital and income certainly does not get good benefits and prospects for the household economy in the tourist destination of West Sumatra. Price and affordability to all, especially sellers and buyers, are the main factors in developing a tourist attraction.

Opportunity First Action

The creative economy for the Minangkabau people in the tourist destination area prioritizes opportunities. For them, An opportunity an essential thing in doing business. Which goods are selling well in the market and profit, which becomes their central portion for sale? Opportunities here tend to tourists' tastes and needs, be they local tourists or tourist Pancanagara (foreign tourists). Therefore, the meaning of the Minangkabau people's creative economy in the tourist destination area is to prioritize opportunities for action.

Actions Have Attractiveness and Habit

West Sumatra has a unique socio-cultural wealth, making it in a strong position to create a local brand. Cultural values drive the development of the creative industry in West Sumatra. The attractiveness and habits of local tourists and tourists from Pancanagara (foreign tourists) become capital and action in the creative economy. For economic actors, goods will not be sold and will profit if they do not sell goods that are the favorite or attraction and habit of the people who visit. The appeal tends to the advertisements on social media, prioritizing modern food. It is the basis that the creative economy has not been sold in destination areas because the attractiveness of the visitors is still modern food or action. The development of the creative economy is practically felt to be following the concept of an inclusive development approach in West Sumatra because it prioritizes the development of innovative human resources compared to the supremacy of capital intensive industries. West Sumatra also has a rich and unique local cultural content that can be explored and used as a starting point for developing the creative economy. The realization of the added value created by innovative economy businesses/companies is expected to accelerate the economic growth of West Sumatra in the future. External financing is an essential factor in developing creative industries (Pasaribu et al., 2007). External funding is needed for companies to expand their business, stimulate investment growth, and build innovation. Inadequate financial conditions can be an obstacle to company growth, especially readiness to face the creative industry market competition, which is dynamic and competitive (Mullineux, 2011; Diallo and Al-titi, 2017). The members of the local community should be engaged in entrepreneurial capacity-building programmes to introduce them to tourism and alternative livelihood options towards enhancing their well-being (Eshun, 2019).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The creative economy has created economic added value, increased tourism, strengthened local culture. Economic actors' actions in tourist destination areas prioritize Irrational financial efforts and do not consider economic motives. The creative economy is not influenced by local habits or culture in taking action so that economic actors prioritize earning profits. West Sumatra tourist destinations have not implemented an innovative economy, which is the basis for sustainable economic development following government regulations. Creative economy actors carry out financial actions to earn a living in the household and not preserve local culture. The meaning of creative economy in the Minangkabau community in the tourist destination of West Sumatra, is represented by action prioritizing profit, action-oriented to prospects, the action being accessible to all levels, action prioritizing opportunities, and activities have attractiveness and habits. The stories of creative economy actors are economic actions that are only attached to rationality due to the creative economy actors in rational action. The suggestions in this study are (1) the government needs to socialize more intensive economic actors (2) the government needs to facilitate the manufacture of local products so that prices are not too high in the West Sumatra Tourism Destination area and can be reached by the community or tourist visitors (3) economic actors (community) must preserve local culture and not prioritize profit alone.

REFERENCES

- Azizah, S.N., & Muhfatiun, M. (2018). Pengembangan Ekonomi Kreatif Berbasis Kearifan Lokal Pandanus Handicraft dalam Menghadapi Pasar Modern Perspektif Ekonomi Syariah (Study Case di Pandanus Nusa Sambisari Yogyakarta). *Aplikasia: Jurnal Aplikasi Ilmu-ilmu Agama*, 17(2), 63-78.
- Bocella, S. (2016). Creative economy. Cultural industry and local development. *Social and behavioral science*. 223, 291-296. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.05.370>
- Carter, C., Steiner, L., & McLaughlin, L. (2013). *The Routledge Companion to Media and Gender*. Routledge, pp. 21-34.
- Clare, K. (2013). The Essential Role of Place Within the Creative Industries: Boundaries, Networks And Play. *Citie*, 34, 52-57.
- Damsar (2011). *Introduction to Economic Sociology, Second Edition*. Jakarta, Kencana Prenada Media Group.
- Daubaraitė, U., & Startienė G. (2015). Creative Industries Impact on National Economy in Regard to Subsectors. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 213, 129-314. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.11.415>
- Diallo, B., & Al-Titi, O. (2017). Local Growth and Access to Credit: Theory and Evidence. *Journal of Macroeconomics*, 1-14.
- Eshun, G., & Tichaawa, T.M. (2019). Reconsidering Participation For Local Community Well-Being In Ecotourism In Ghana. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 27(4), 1184–1200. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.27406-425>
- Fahmi, F.Z., Hudalah, D., Rahayu, P., & Woltjer, J. (2014). Extended Urbanization in Small and Medium-sized Cities: The Case of Cirebon, Indonesia. *Journal Habitat International*, 42, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.habitatint.2013.10.003>
- Fahmi, F.Z., Koster, S., & Dirk J.V. (2016). The Location of Creative Industries in a Developing Country: The Case of Indonesia. *Journalcities*, 59, 66-79. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2016.06.005>
- Flew, T. (2013). *Global creative industries*. Wiley, United States.
- Florida, R. (2012). *The Rise of the Creative Class*, Revisited. New York, Basic Books.
- Gary. (2016). *The Role of Creative Economy in National Economic Growth*. Retrieved from: <https://beritagar.id/artikel/infografik/peran-ekonomi-kreatif-terhadap-pertumbuhan-ekonomi-nasional>
- Granovetter, M. (2010). 19 Business Groups and Social Organization. *The handbook of economic sociology*, 429.
- Hall. (2000). Creative cities and economic development. *Urban studies*, 7, 639-649.
- Hesmondhalgh. (2012). Cultural industries and cultural policies. *International Journal of Cultural Policy*, II, 1-13.
- Howkins, J. (2001). *The Creative Economy: How People Make Money From Ideas*. London, Penguin.
- Jon Hawkes. (2001). *The fourth pillar of sustainability: Culture's essential role in public planning*. Common Ground.
- Johnson, D.P. (1988). Teori Sosiologi Klasik dan Modern (Diindonesiakan oleh Robert MZ Lawang). *Penerbit PT. Gramedia*. Jakarta.
- Kalberg, S. (1980). Max Weber's Types of Rationality: Cornerstones for the Analysis of Rationalization Process in History. *American Journal of Sociology*, 85(5), 1145-1179.
- Kuncoro, M. (2010). *Visi Indonesia 2030: Quo Vadis?* Universitas Gajah Mada. Yogyakarta.
- Lenggogeni, S. (2019). Integrated Carrying Capacity of the Marine Tourism Area and Small Island of Mandeh Region and Their Impact on Economic Growth. *Economics*, 8(1), 35.
- Mago, S., & Chitokwindo, S. (2014). The impact of mobile banking on financial inclusion in Zimbabwe: A case of Masvingo Province. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5 (9).
- Miles, M.B., & Huberman A.M. (2014). *Analisis data kualitatif. Penerjemah: Tjetjep Rohendi Rohidi*. Jakarta [ID], UI Press.
- Moore. (2014). Cultural and Creative Industries Concept- a Historical Perspective. *Social and Behavioral Science*, 738-746.
- Mullineux, A.W. (2011). *Corporate Governance and the "hybridisation" of Financial Sectors*. *Financial Market Integration and Growth*. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 281-292.
- Pasaribu, S., Syaka B, Sejati W.K., Setiyanto A., Hestina J., & Situmorang J. (2007). Agricultural Sector Financing Policy Analysis. *Pusat Analisis Sosial Ekonomi dan Kebijakan Pertanian*, Bogor, 65-69.
- Purnomo, A., Idris, I., & Kurniawan, B. (2020). Understanding Local Community in Managing Sustainable Tourism at Baluran National Park – Indonesia. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 29(2), 508–520. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.29210-485>
- Purnomo, R.A. (2016). *Ekonomi Kreatif Pilar Pembangunan Indonesia*. Ziyad Visi Media.
- Polanyi, K., Arensberg, C. & dan Pearson, H. (1957). *Trade and Market in the Early Empires: Economies in History and Theory*. New York, The Free Press.
- Sawirman. (2008). *Bisnis Pariwisata Sumatera Barat Sebuah Analisis SWOT*. Padang, Universitas Andalas, pp. 23-24.
- Smelser, N.J., & Swedberg, R. (2010). *The handbook of economic sociology*. Princeton university press. pp. 45-76.
- Swedberg, R. (1994). *Markets as Social Structures*. New Jarsey USA, Princeton University Press.
- Swedberg, R. (2002). *Principles of Economic Sociology*. Princeton and Oxford, Princeton University Press.
- Towse, R., & Handka, C. (2013). *Handbook on the digital creative economy*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Turner, S., & dan Bryan. (2012). *Teori Sosiologi: Dari Klasik Sampai Posmodren*. Yogyakarta, Pustaka Pelajar.
- Turner, J.H., Beeghly, L., & Powers, C.H. (1998). *The Emergence of Sociological Theory*. Belmont, Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Weber, M. (2006). *Etika Protestan dan Spirit Kapitalisme*. Yogyakarta, Pustaka Pelajar.
- Zusmelia, Ansofino, Yossi, E., & dan Nilma, D. (2020). Development of Halal Tourism Destinations to Improve Economic Growth. *Proceedings of the 2nd Social and Humaniora Research Symposium*, (SoRes 2019), 2(2), 412-417.
- ***Badan Ekonomi Kreatif. (2016). Laporan penyusunan PDB Ekonomi Kreatif 2010–2015.
- ***BPS (2017). *Laporan Tenaga Kerja Ekonomi Kreatif*, Jakarta.
- ***BPS (2017). *Laporan Ekspor Ekonomi Kreatif*, 2010–2016, Jakarta, BPS.
- ***BPS (2018). *Produk Domestik Regional Bruto Provinsi- Provinsi di Indonesia Menurut Lapangan Usaha 2013-2017*, Jakarta.
- ***BEKRAF (2017). *Rencana Strategis Badan Ekonomi Kreatif 2015-2019*, Jakarta, Bekraf.
- *** Institute for Economic and Social Research. (2005). *Roadmap of Indonesian Infrastructure Development (Final Report)*. Ministry of Education and Culture. Faculty of Economics. Jakarta, University of Indonesia.
- *** Republik Indonesia. (2009). *Undang-Undang tentang Kepariwisata Nomor, 10 Tahun 2009*.
- *** United Nations Development Programme [UNDP]. (2013). *Creative Economy Report 2013 Special Edition*. New York: UNDP. Retrieved from: <http://www.unesco.org/culture/pdf/creative-economy-report-2013.pdf>.

THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS AND SPECIFICATIONS (ISO-SCUBA) ON IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF DIVING TOURISM IN AQABA, JORDAN

Ibrahim Kahlil BAZAZO

The University of Jordan, Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Department of Travel and Tourism, Jordan, e-mail: i.bazazo@ju.edu.jo

Omar Abedalla ALANANZEH*

Yarmouk University, Faculty of Tourism and Hotel Management, Department of Hotel Management, Jordan, e-mail: o.ananzeh@yu.edu.jo

Citation: Bazazo, I.K., & Alananzeh, O.A. (2020). THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS AND SPECIFICATIONS (ISO-SCUBA) ON IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF DIVING TOURISM IN AQABA, JORDAN. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1557–1563. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl17-608>

Abstract: The study aims to identify the impact of applying the international standards and specifications issued by the International Organization for Standardization and Metrology (ISO-Scuba) in enhancing competitive advantages and comparative advantages which improves the quality of diving tourism in the Jordanian Gulf of Aqaba coast. An analysis of all the provisions of international standards and specifications for marine diving tourism is utilized to provide a comprehensive picture of the reality of diving tourism in the study area. The results of the study revealed that the application of ISO standards and specifications in marine protected areas in the Gulf of Aqaba can provide a flexible and adaptable system in managing the quality of tourism services provided to tourists. It contributes to providing a framework for applying international standards and specifications to marine protected areas in the study area. This contribution is critical for decision-maker in adopting the holistic planning process for the diving tourism industry in the city of Aqaba, especially in light of expansion a great diving tourism industry witnessed in Aqaba city since the beginning of this century.

Key words: international standards and specifications, diving tourism, tourism quality, competitive advantages, comparative advantages, sustainability of the tourism product.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry is one of the most important economic sectors that leads the global economy at the present time (Bazazo and Alananzeh, 2016). It has a number of patterns and forms and diving tourism is one of the most important patterns of this industry during recent years (Izwar et al., 2020; Nordin, 2005). Many reports and international studies, including United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2019) indicates that the annual growth rate of diving tourism is estimated at 16%, especially in light of the rapid technological progress in marine science, as well as the development of devices underwater photography, which relies on remote sensing techniques, nanosat moons, and artificial intelligence systems (Zhang et al., 2019). This development has led many tourists at the international level to search for attractions for diving tourism, which have the ingredients that provide coral reefs, beautiful marine wildlife, and healthy tourism. The city of Aqaba, which overlooks the Red Sea coast, is one of the richest environments that attracts those looking for diving, snorkeling, and to enjoy all the natural aspects and biological diversity under the water (Deeb et al., 2020; Jawabreh et al., 2020; Chiu et al., 2019, Masa'deh et al., 2019; Alananzeh et al., 2018).

Diving tourism in the Gulf of Aqaba city is considered a dynamic phenomenon with variable properties. The Aqaba Special Economic Zone has witnessed, since the beginning of this century, rapid developments in the patterns of the tourism industry, foremost of which are marine diving tourism. The significant development in the size of diving tourism, and creating structural changes in the structure of diving tourism, and the increasing global demand for this type of tourism has led to the emergence of a new research trend dealing with diving tourism; its importance, and added value. And given the comparative advantage and competitive advantage of the study area, it has become an important tourist attraction at the regional and international levels. Many companies working in the field of the marine diving tourism industry in Aqaba suffer from a lack of application and knowledge of international standards and specifications in the application of quality standards in marine diving tourism and the achievement of public health and safety standards. Quality has become a prerequisite for competition and attracting tourists at the international level (Mukayev et al., 2020; Mukayev et al., 2019; Masa'deh, 2017; Alshawagfih et al., 2015).

In addition to some aspects of the threat to the marine environment, as well as the presence of some deaths, accidents, and injuries resulting from the failure to apply international standards and specifications in the diving tourism industry. Therefore, it is necessary to establish an integrated system for the quality, marine environment, health, and public safety according to standard specifications in order to improve diving tourism (Coxon et al., 2018, Hughes et al., 2017). This is done by setting the appropriate treatments to bridge the gap between the actual reality and the requirements of the international standards for diving tourism specifications.

This system contributes to motivating companies working in the marine diving industry in the city of Aqaba to apply specifications in terms of quality, environment, health, and public safety. The study is a conceptual framework that addresses the diving tourism industry in the city of Aqaba, in a manner that relies on excellence and uniqueness in providing tourism products according to international standards and specifications, where the tourist has become more aware of the value which creates challenges for tourism products and tourist demands. Thus, the study tries to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent are the tourist companies specialized in diving tourism industry adhering to international standards and specifications related to the quality of marine diving tourism products in Aqaba?
2. What are the most important international standards and specifications used in the marine diving tourism industry?
3. How is the impact of the application of international standards and specifications reflected in enhancing the competitive and comparative advantage of diving tourism in Aqaba?

* Corresponding author

Accordingly, the study aims to identify the speed of changes and shifts in international standards and specifications in the diving tourism industry and its impact on the city of Aqaba, which did not receive sufficient attention from study and research. The main objective of the study is to include the concept of international standards and specifications for the diving tourism industry with all companies operating in the marine diving industry in Aqaba to improve their environmental, social and economic performance, and then applying for an international conformity certificate. The sub-goals are as follows:

1. Analysis of international systems, legislation, standards, and specifications for the marine diving tourism industry.
2. Providing a practical and theoretical framework on international specifications and standards in the diving tourism industry that contributes the companies in Aqaba to obtaining the quality certificate for international standards for marine diving.
3. Analyze the general system of diving tourism in Aqaba, provide management to protect environmental, cultural and social values, and ensure the sustainable use of marine resources in the Gulf of Aqaba coast, by adhering to international standards and specifications

The Importance of Studying

The importance of the study lies in identifying the international standards and specifications that are used in the diving tourism industry at the international level, which leads to the availability of a comprehensive thought for the decision-maker in the future planning in a sustainable manner, and to help in giving a clear holistic view of the reality of the diving tourism industry, with the aim of detecting changes that occurred in diving tourism; to take proper measures in enhancing the quality of the tourism product. As diving tourism has become one of the most important elements of coastal environments and has a high added economic value for tourist destinations. The geographical diving environment in the Gulf of Aqaba coast is classified as one of the most important diving sites at the regional and global level especially in light of the growing development in scuba diving tourism. Diving tourism is one of the new forms of tourism which increases its chances of developing it in Aqaba due to the diversity in the marine environment, and due to the comparative advantage and competitive advantage of the study area; which qualifies it to be an important attraction at the regional and international level in the pattern of diving tourism. In addition, the importance of the study stems from the importance of the commitment of companies operating in the marine diving tourism industry in Aqaba to international standards and specifications. These standards are considered as a reference and guide to serve the marine diving industry sector, raise product quality tourism, and upgrading tourism services by setting standards for quality and professional skill and publishing professional training in the field of marine diving to raise the level of workforce performance in the diving tourism industry, and reduce risks and adhere to the principles of public health and safety.

Study Justifications

The study was based on several justifications, highlighting the need for such research, to fill the void in the literature of tourism management, and to complement what others began to plan and develop the diving tourism industry in the Gulf of Aqaba coast. The process of studying the general system of diving tourism in Aqaba is an important element in developing tourism that has not received enough attention; the majority of studies related to this aspect have been limited to studying limited aspects without reference to international standards and specifications and their impact on the development of the diving tourism industry, and its importance in this field, despite what the study area has in all the various vocabulary of the diving tourism industry development; Which qualifies it to be an important attraction at the international level, with high-quality standards.

Time and spatial framework of the study

The limits of the study are of three types that control the study process, and they are as follows:

1. Spatial boundaries: represented by the coast of the Gulf of Aqaba, on the Red Sea, which is located in the south of Jordan, 330 km south of the Jordanian capital, Amman, as shown in Figure 1.
2. The objective limits: Examining the reality of the diving tourism industry in Aqaba, and getting to know all the international standards and specifications in the diving tourism industry.
3. Temporal limits: is to diagnose the reality of the diving tourism industry at the present time, taking into account future expectations and projections.

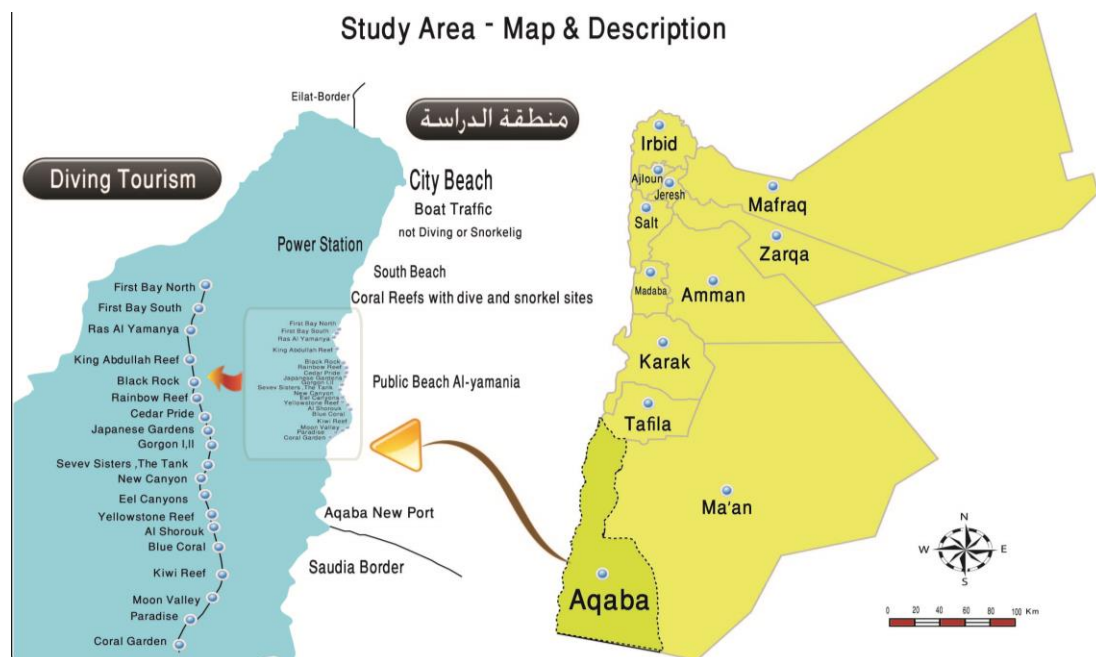


Figure 1. The Coast of Aqaba Gulf, Jordan (Source: Prepared by the researchers using ARCGIS 10.3 software)

STUDY METHODOLOGY

The study combines theory and application, as it includes a theoretical framework that addresses the concepts of growth and development of the pattern of diving tourism in the Gulf of Aqaba coast and practical application that contributes to the identification of all international standards and specifications in the diving tourism industry, as a prelude to drawing developmental policies directed to tourism plans in the study area. This requires combining more than one approach at the same time, such as the analytical approach, the organizational approach, and the perceptual approach; In order to highlight the regional personality of the pattern of diving tourism in the Gulf of Aqaba coast, according to the comprehensiveness of the aforementioned approaches. The study relied on the use of a spatial descriptive approach to describe the criterion and standards issued by the International Standards Organization (ISO) for marine diving, and the extent of their applicability to companies operating in the field Diving tourism in Aqaba.

Previous studies

There are many and varied studies dealing with diving tourism due to the diversity of the nature of these studies and the diversity of interests and specializations that they study (Alanzeh et al., 2018; Mota, 2016; Mustafa, 2012, Cardwell, 2011). Therefore, previous studies that dealt with the topic of the impact of applying the international standards (ISO-Scuba) on improving the quality of the diving tourism industry are characterized by their scarcity at the international level, and not being addressed at the local level. The studies that dealt with the topic focused on natural, economic and social factors without addressing the physiology of international standards, specifications and standards used in the diving tourism industry, and the impact of that on achieving quality standards in tourist services provided to tourists, and the sustainable conservation of marine environments. A group of research has focused on studying the environmental impacts of diving on the quality of marine ecosystems. For example, the study of Thompson et al. (2008) came under the title "ISO 14001: Towards international quality environmental management standards for marine protected areas".

The study relied on an evaluation of environmental management systems in marine protected areas and emphasized the importance of flexible and adaptive administrative systems. It proposed a framework for the application of ISO (14001) in marine protected areas in northern Chile, where ISO was used (14001) as a criterion for evaluating and improving the proposed management plan for the marine reserve in Chile through the application of the best international standards and specifications. While the study of the Royal Life Saving in Australia (Royal Life Saving, 2019), under the title Health and Safety in Scuba Tourism in Australia's shores, confirmed on identifying and analyzing policies, legislations, and standards related to the diving tourism industry by comparing the legislation governing diving tourism in Australia and comparing it with international specifications and standards. The study revealed the importance of organizing marine diving tourism in safe environments and achieving quality in providing tourism services.

The study of Chimienti et al. (2019) indicated that marine diving tourism has many impacts on biodiversity, marine life, marine habitats, and landscapes. Therefore, all international standards and specifications must be taken to achieve optimal management in planning and marketing diving tourism especially in fragile ecosystems. It revealed the importance of harmonizing local and international laws and regulations, which contributes to achieving the highest quality standards in providing diving tourism products.

While Anwer and Hamilton (2005) focused on studying recent trends in the diving tourism industry on an international level by focusing on the latest international specifications and standards used in the marine diving tourism industry. They suggested that there are opportunities to improve relations between the diving sector, maritime tourism operations, and those responsible for local governance and management to achieve more sustainable results in the diving tourism industry. Meanwhile, Neto et al. (2020) found that the marine diving tourism industry relied mainly on achieving the highest standards of added value and achieving benefits competitiveness by adhering to international standards and specifications in the marine diving tourism industry, which contributes to many problems related to misuse of resources. The study focused on the importance of qualifying workers in the tourism industry in marine diving to achieve sustainable development advantages and the highest quality standards. The discussion of the previous study indicates the necessity of developing an integrated methodological framework that regulates the reality of the diving tourism industry in the Gulf of Aqaba coast in line with the introduction of international specifications and standards; to provide an integrated holistic framework in the process of the marine diving industry in the Jordanian Gulf of Aqaba coast. This study is, as a continuation of the previous studies, an attempt to reveal the nature of diving tourism in the Gulf of Aqaba coast through the holistic approach to all the elements of the subject referred to.

STUDY AREA

Aqaba is the only coastal city in Jordan and its lung on the outside world. Aqaba is located in the southernmost part of Jordan on the coast of the Red Sea. The city is 330 km south of the Jordanian capital, Amman. The Gulf of Aqaba is characterized by a diversity of ecosystems. In the waters of the Gulf of Aqaba, there are 120 types of hard coral, and 180 types of soft coral (Al-Tawaha et al., 2019). The Jordanian coast overlooking the Gulf of Aqaba is characterized by the presence of rich environments of seaweed within clusters of depth between one to forty meters. Aqaba has a desert climate with warm winters and hot dry summers, which makes it an ideal diving destination throughout the year. Water temperatures reach 26° C (79° F) during the summer and drop to 21° C (70° F) in winter.

The Gulf of Aqaba waters is characterized by a high degree of clarity, due to the lack of marine currents and valleys that flow into the waters of the Gulf of Aqaba. Because of the amazing mix of marine life and coral reefs, water transparency, and the pleasant weather it provides all year round; the Gulf of Aqaba is one of the most beautiful diving areas in the world. The Aqaba coast is divided in terms of morphological formation into three regions distinguished in terms of its sandy content and the topography of the surrounding areas. The northern section in the city of Aqaba with sandy beaches, and is characterized by the presence of seaweed. The second section extending from the central port region to the southern region of the coast, which is characterized by a dense presence of coral reefs, diving tourism activities, and the Military Museum underwater. And the third region is the coarse sandy southern beach, in the southern port area, where there are artificial reefs that have become a site for habitats and diving tourism within new environmental systems, such as artificial marine reef Near the Royal Yacht Club, or ready-to-sink bodies such as Cedar Pride and others. The marine park area on the south shore of the Gulf of Aqaba, a coastal strip with a length of 7 km and a width of 400 meters, was created in 2017 to preserve the marine environment and biodiversity (The Royal Marine Conservative Society of Jordan, 2016). The morphological uses of the marine park beach are for four main sections: the restricted protected area, Recreation and tourism area, diving and swimming area, and beach area, as shown in figure (2).

The diving tourism industry has become, at the present time, one of the most developed patterns of tourism in the size and trends of tourism movement at the international level due to technological development, methods of underwater photography, the development of early warning systems, public health and safety means, the development of diving equipment. Many international reports indicate, including the World Tourism Organization report for 2019 (UMWTO, 2019), that the growth rates in the diving tourism industry increased by 16% annually, which indicates the importance of this tourism pattern in achieving economic savings and operating manpower.

The diving tourism industry in Aqaba has evolved since the beginning of the current century in a tangible and clear way. Aqaba is famous for all the ingredients of the modern diving tourism industry, which is represented by the presence of a rich marine environment, the availability of 27 marine diving centers until 2019, the availability of speed boats and six marine sports centers, as well as the presence of Aqaba within the Golden Triangle, which includes both Petra and the Rum Reserve; contributed to the increase in attracting tourists. Aqaba became an integrated tourism product that meets the desire of tourists coming to Aqaba.



Figure 2. The marine park area of the Gulf of Aqaba (Source: Prepared by the researchers using ARCGIS 10.3)

The diving tourism system consists of a number of elements, which include the marine environment, divers, tourism services, and the host community as shown in Figure (3). The marine environment is one of the most important components of the diving tourism system, which imposes integrated tourism management that takes into account all the items international standards and specifications in a balanced manner, which contributes to achieving sustainable development with the highest quality standards in coastal zone management.



Figure 3. Standard Elements of Scuba Diving System (Source: Prepared by the researchers)

The concept of diving tourism includes all sightseeing trips whose main purpose is to experience underwater diving and enjoy seeing and photographing all marine creatures such as coral reefs, marine museums underwater, and sunken monuments. The diving tourism industry depends on the tourist coming directly to obtain the service, which is in contrast to other goods that can be delivered directly to the consumer. This rapid growth also presented new perspectives for quality management through the most famous international quality management systems in the diving tourism industry in accordance with international standards, which requires the application of quality management systems that are an important entry point to bring about a fundamental change in the structure of institutions involved in the development and management of diving tourism in the city of Aqaba and on their performance in order to prevail the concept of quality assurance. In light of the increasing competition in the global tourism services market in diving tourism, the importance of the study comes to know the impact of applying international standards and specifications in confirming quality management systems and raising the efficiency of productive performance in diving tourism industry facilities in Aqaba. Emphasizing the importance of companies' commitment in the process of continuous improvement with all inputs of the diving tourism industry in the Aqaba region. Establishing a specialized department whose primary mission is to develop, design, and improve products and services in the diving industry so that they meet the needs of the final consumer, which reflects positively on the development of diving tourism on the international tourism map. And taking the necessity of setting specifications and standards as a priority for all sectors involved in diving tourism in the city of Aqaba; to increase its competitiveness in the regional and global markets and care for the environment in a balanced manner with an interest in quality.

The successive developments in the technical marine diving tourism industry have led to increased competition between the various tourist destinations in the world. Many destinations have adopted the application of international standards for achieving quality as a prerequisite for obtaining a higher market share. Quality was not the only issue of interest, rather, the marine environment and occupational health and safety were an important component for achieving sustainable tourism development in the marine diving tourism industry. Many tourist destinations in many countries of the world have witnessed many threats posed to their marine environments in light of the increasing demand for marine diving tourism, especially the intense competition between tourist destinations that meet the needs of tourists in marine environments characterized by health and public safety, and compatibility with international standards and specifications. Therefore, many of the tourism companies specialized in the field of marine diving tourism have to take into account the environmental aspect in their various activities, functions, operations, and provide tourism products of a high degree of quality. This can only be done through its adoption of international systems, specifications, and standards which reflect a set of procedures and activities to guide companies regarding how to manage the diving tourism process, to achieve various returns, and to improve its performance and quality of its products; thereby ensuring its continuity and survival. The process of continuous improvement of marine diving tourism in Aqaba and maintaining economic competitiveness includes the need to adopt comprehensive quality management strategies based on international specifications and standards in the marine diving industry. Therefore, all public and private sectors working in the marine diving tourism industry in Aqaba must take several ways to improve their job performance based on a comprehensive quality management system, which in recent years has become a necessary condition for the success of the diving tourism industry, and is based on the ISO system for diving tourism in all its types and styles; to achieve leadership and improvement to ensure optimal marketing and planning of the tourism product.

The International Organization for Standardization was founded in 1974 in Geneva, Switzerland. It works to develop international criteria and standards in many different sectors. Recently, the need of many tourist sites interested in developing marine diving tourism to the international standards and specifications has become apparent; for several reasons, the most important of which are: the emergence of many risks in marine diving tourism, chief among them, the emergence of deaths resulting from marine diving errors, lack of familiarity with the marine environment, the emergence of many problems facing the diving tour guide; his lack of knowledge of the changing surface conditions, different water temperatures and visibility, increased depth and lack of direct access to the surface, lack of familiarity with or failure of equipment, inadequate physical and medical fitness, lack of knowledge of dealing with dangerous marine organisms that can cause serious injury or death, as well as risks caused by the nature of boats that are not equipped in a manner consistent with public health and safety regulations. Safe diving requires many international standards and specifications, which have become an indispensable necessity in light of the continuous development in the marine diving tourism industry. Therefore, the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) was keen on setting standards to control all aspects of the diving tourism industry under the requirements of quality, security, and public safety to reduce risks. A series has been developed that includes international standards that define safety and quality requirements for all elements of the diving tourism industry, from training divers and trainers to the equipment and procedures that should be used. The World Tourism Organization (WTO) stressed in its report for 2019 the importance of organizing diving tourism in all countries of the world according to international standards and specifications, which are mainly based on providing public health and safety and maintaining the sustainability of marine tourism environments. Several international reports confirm that within the next few years the ISO series of international standards and specifications in marine diving tourism is expected to be the only way to enter and stay in the tourist markets. When tourists have the opportunity to deal with more than one marine tourism site, it will undoubtedly be preferable to deal with tourist sites that have quality assurance systems in the marine diving tourism industry. The ISO standards and specifications not only describe the details of quality systems but also set basic guidelines for international quality in various parts of the marine diving tourism system. It takes into account and cares about auditing activities to improve the methods of applying the quality standards and its system, which will benefit from improving the quality of tourism goods and services. It also cares and focuses on training workers in marine diving tourism, which is the cornerstone in the application of a system of international quality standards in the diving tourism industry.

Many tourism companies interested in the marine diving industry in the European Union, Australia, and the United States realize that without applying a quality system, they will lose many of their tourism markets. The European Union countries required all companies working in the field of marine diving to obtain ISO certificates for marine diving. Therefore, obtaining ISO certificates is one of the elements of the strength of companies operating in the marine diving tourism industry in Aqaba, which gives tourists and tourist offices exporting tourist groups to Aqaba the confidence, which leads to increased market share, attracting more tourists, improving quality, and reducing costs. Thus, it is the solid foundation for building a comprehensive quality management system and passport for marine diving tourism in Aqaba, through which it can compete and control a large part of the international markets.

The concept of quality in the marine diving tourism industry is defined in accordance with international specifications and standards as the totality of the features of marine environments with its vital diversity, and its ability to meet the needs of tourists with the highest standards of quality and excellence. As for the quality policy, it is defined as the desire and orientation of companies operating in the marine diving industry to quality as formally set by senior management. Quality management is defined as the activities of the overall administrative function that define the quality policy, its objectives, responsibilities, and implementation through means such as quality planning, quality control, quality assurance, and quality improvement within the requirements of marine diving standards and specifications. Quality control is defined as the operational techniques and activities used to meet quality requirements. While quality assurance is defined as all the activities

that are carried out within the quality system and explained according to the need to secure or to find sufficient confidence that a party will fulfill all the quality requirements. The quality circle is defined as the jobs that are part of the general cycle of the tourism product, and it affects the quality of the tourism product such as inspection, marketing, service, market studies, and product development.

The international organization has issued a series of standards for marine diving tourism management systems that include many social, economic, and environmental elements that are integrated with the requirements of sustainability in marine environments. These systems help tourism companies operating in the marine diving tourism industry to achieve economic and environmental goals in a balanced manner while maintaining public health and safety. Conformity with international standards gives a competitive position to companies operating in the marine diving tourism industry in a more effective, efficient, and flexible manner. Tourism companies in Aqaba represent an opportunity to transfer technology and a source of guidance to neighboring countries in the Middle East and North Africa, and to contribute to achieving the better performance of all operations in the marine diving tourism industry.

The application of quality standards to companies operating in attracting tourists to practice marine diving in the city of Aqaba contributes to many advantages that are positively reflected in the level of companies' performance enabling them to provide advanced tourism products. From this standpoint, the tourist companies operating in the diving tourism industry in Aqaba are required to emphasize this principle and consider it a basis and a goal upon which to structure its business and production. Despite the mystery and difficulties surrounding the ISO systems, tourism companies in Aqaba should be restricted to this system for reasons including that the entire world has become an integrated market and depends on health tourism, enhancing competitiveness in international markets, increasing the attraction of tourists, protecting marine environments from wrong use, creating conditions for new investments, and investment expansion in Aqaba.

Quality in the marine diving industry in Aqaba is a certificate of behavior and culture. Thinking about achieving quality is undoubtedly a strategic decision, and this purposeful thinking pattern is considered a benefit for all public and private institutions and the local community.

The series of international standards for organizing and managing marine diving tourism consists of a number of specifications, the purpose of which is to encourage and develop a more efficient and effective marine tourism management in organizing diving tourism in tourist environments, and to provide useful and practical means which lead to providing a correct basis in directing tourism traffic in proportion to energy capacity for marine environments. Therefore, it is considered a good way to limit the damage to diving tourism sites in marine environments in the early stages of the tourism site's life cycle. The result of this series is to develop Environmental Performance in the diving tourism industry. There are two types of international standards and specifications that are used in organizing and managing the marine diving tourism industry: The American Standards and Specifications, Recreational Scuba Training Council (RSTC) Standards 37) that focus on training and enabling human resources that work in diving in marine tourism environments, and the other type of the international standards and specifications is the ISO systems, which are more comprehensive, with a wider global reach, and based on the requirements of achieving sustainability in marine environments.

There are several international ISO standards for organizing diving tourism according to the goals and objectives related to the organization and management processes as shown in Figure 4, with the aim of improving infrastructure and metadata in diving tourism management in marine environments in two directions: the first is to prepare a guide for sustainable tourism environmental management in Marine environments. While the second is related to the capacity building program for manpower in the marine diving tourism industry. Thus, these international standards meet the sustainable balance between the marine tourism environment and the local community. To achieve this balance, there are four key requirements that include:

1. The general policy and strategy of the tourist site.
2. Planning: It includes environmental issues and legal requirements.
3. Implementation and operation: It includes structure and responsibilities, training, awareness, skills, communications, document control, operational control, emergency forecasts, and feedback.
4. Scanning and Correction Procedures: includes disclosure and measurements, mismatches, correction procedures, and records.



Figure 4. ISO standards for Organizing Diving Tourism (Source: Prepared by the researchers)

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of the study indicate a clear gap between the current reality of the marine diving tourism industry in Aqaba and the international requirements and standards, which reflects negatively on the volume of tourism movement and the inability to compete at the international level. Diving insensitive and fragile places require effective management to protect environmental, social, and cultural values, promote sustainable tourism development goals, and preserve and avoid tampering with original environments.

The study reached the importance of international standards and specifications in diagnosing and analyzing all variables in the diving environment concentrated in the city of Aqaba in order to reach the highest levels of quality in providing the tourism product, sustainable conservation of the marine environment, and achieving the highest levels of public health and safety in the Gulf of Aqaba coast.

The acquisition of ISO certificates is one of the elements of the strength of companies operating in the marine diving tourism industry in Aqaba, which gives tourist offices in Aqaba confidence and leads to an increase in the market share, attracting more tourists, improving quality, and reducing costs. This study comes with all its concepts related to the diagnosis and evaluation of the general situation of diving tourism in the Gulf of Aqaba coast to be a scientific tool that helps in analyzing the existing situation, in preparation for setting a clear-cut

strategy to develop diving tourism pattern according to the latest international standards and specifications in the marine diving tourism industry. The study recommends focusing on preserving marine ecosystems in the Gulf of Aqaba coast in line with international data and standards, applying the principles of integrated marine ecosystems management, integrating them into national tourism plans and strategies, working to include areas of coral reef gathering and the Military Museum within the UNESCO natural world heritage system.

The study recommends the need to develop institutional capacity and the national capacity for planners in understanding the nature of the relationship between the private dynamics of diving tourism, and access to international experiences that have been obtained the ISO certificates. Rehabilitation of special authority in the Aqaba Special Economic Zone Authority to communicate with international donors that grant quality certificates within international standards and standards in diving tourism, and enable diving centers in Aqaba to possess all tools for rehabilitation and follow-up operations. In addition, the need to introduce codes of conduct for workers in the diving industry, provide support for the programs of recreational courses for workers in the marine diving industry, activate health and fitness programs and the medical record for workers, and the study recommends the need for future expansion in more detailed studies regarding all components of the diving tourism industry in the study area.

REFERENCES

- Alananzeh, O., Masa'deh, R., Jawabreh, O., Al Mahmoud, A., & Hamada, R. (2018). The Impact of Customer Relationship Management on Tourist Satisfaction: The Case of Radisson Blue Resort in Aqaba City. *Journal of Environmental Management and Tourism*, IX, 2(26), Spring. [https://doi.org/10.14505/jemt.v9.2\(26\).02](https://doi.org/10.14505/jemt.v9.2(26).02)
- Alananzeh, O., Al-Badarnah, M., Al-Mkhadme, A., & Jawabreh, O. (2018). Factors Influencing MICE Tourism Stakeholders' Decision Making: The Case of Aqaba in Jordan. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15470148.2018.1526152>
- Alshawagfeh, K.F., Alananzeh, O., & Jawabreh, O. (2015). The foundation of selecting cultural tourism production in Jordan. *European Scientific Journal*, 11(29), 198–2017. <https://ejournal.org/index.php/esj/article/view/6333>
- Al-Tawaha, M., Benzoni, F., & Eid, E. (2019). *The Hard Corals of Jordan Afield Guide*. The Royal Marine Conservation Society of Jordan. ISBN: 978-9957-8740-4-9
- Anwar, S., & Hamilton, J. (2005). Tourism into the Future—Towards 2020, and Beyond. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 30(3), 77–85. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2005.11081489>
- Bazazo, I.B., & Alananzeh, O. (2016). The Effect of Electronic Tourism in Enabling the Disabled Tourists to Communicate with The Touristic and Archaeological Sites Case Study – Jordan. *European Scientific Journal*, 12(5), 111–128. <https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2016.v12n5p111>
- Cardwell, K. (2011). *Formal, informal, and incidental learning: how recreational-diving instructors achieve competency*. In: Midgley W, Tyler M, Danaher, PA, Mander A, Editors. Beyond binaries in education research. Routledge Research in Education. New York, Taylor & Francis, 221–231, ISBN 978-0-415-88512-6.
- Chimienti, G., Bo, M., Taviani, M., & Mastrototaro, F. (2019). "Occurrence and biogeography of Mediterranean cold-water corals," in *Mediterranean Cold-Water Corals: Past, Present and Future*, ed. C. J. C. Orejas (Springer International Publishing AG), 213–243. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-91608-8_19
- Chiu, L.K., Ting, C., Alananzeh, O.A., & Hua, K. (2019). Perceptions of Risk and Outbound Tourism Travel Intentions among Young Working Malaysians. *Dirasat: Human and Social Sciences* 46(1), 365–379.
- Cinner, J. (2020). *Coral reef livelihoods*. Curr. Opin. Environ. Sustain. 7, 65–71. [CrossRef] Grafeld, S., Oleson, K., Barnes, M., Peng, M., Chan, C., Weijerman, M., Divers' willingness to pay for improved coral reef conditions in Guam.
- Coxon, C., Dimmock, K., & Wilks, J., & (2018). *Managing risk in tourist diving: a safety-management approach*. In: Garrod, B, Gössling S, Editors. New frontiers in marine tourism: diving experiences, sustainability, management. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-045357-6.50014-0>
- Deeb, A., Alananzeh, O.A., Tarhini, A., & Masa'deh, R. (2020). Factors affecting job performance: the case of Jordanian hotels' kitchen staff. *International Journal of Public Sector Performance Management*, 6(3), 340–360. <https://doi.org/10.1504/IJPSM.2020.107766>
- Hughes, T.P., Barnes, M.L., Bellwood, D.R., Cinner, J.E., Cumming, G.S., Jackson, J.B.C., Kleypas, J., Leemput, I.V.D., Lough, J.M., & Morrison, T.H. (2017). Coral reefs in the Anthropocene. *Nature* 546, 82–90. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature22901>
- Jawabreh, O., Masa'deh, R., Mahmoud, R., & Hamasha, S.A. (2020). Factors influencing the employees services in hospitality industry case study Aqaba five star hotels. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 29(2), 649–661. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.29221-496>
- Izwar, I., Badaruddin, B., Mulya, M.B., & Sibarani, R. (2020). Potential of Reusam Island to Become Sharia Ecotourism Area. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30(2spl), 827–834. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl07-511>
- Masa'deh, R., Alananzeh, O., Jawabreh, O., Alhalabi, R., Syam, H., & Keswani, F. (2019). The association among employees' communication skills, image formation and tourist behaviour: perceptions of hospitality management students in Jordan. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 13(3), 257–272. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-02-2018-0028>
- Masa'deh, R., Alananzeh, O., Algiatheh, N., Ryati, R., Albayyari, R., & Tarhini, A. (2017). The impact of employee's perception of implementing green supply chain management on hotel's economic and operational performance. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 8(3), 395–416. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTT-02-2017-0011>
- Mota, L. (2016). Using Of Natural Spaces For Tourism Activity Scuba Diving And Impacts On Aquatic Animals. *The International Journal of Tropical Veterinary and Biomedical Research*, 1.1, <https://doi.org/10.21157/IJTVBR.V1I1.5069>
- Mukayev, T.Zh., Ovgeldinova, O.Zh., Janaleyeva, M.K., Ramazanova, Ye.N., & Zhanguzhina, A.A. (2020). Assessment of the Tourist Recreation Capacity of Lake Alakol Basin. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30(2spl), 875–879. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl13-517>
- Mustafa, M.H. (2012). Improving the Contribution of Domestic Tourism to the Economy of Jordan, *Asian Social Science*, 8(2), 49–61. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v8n2p49>
- Neto, A., Q., Dimmock, K., Lohmann, G., & Scott, N. (2020). Destination competitiveness: how does travel experience influence choice?, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 23(13), 1673–1687, <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2019.1641070>
- Nordin, S. (2005). *Tourism of Tomorrow: Travel Trends and Forces of Change*. <https://doi.org/10.13140/2.1.1422.7849>
- Thompson, M.H., Dumont, C.P., & Gaymer, C.F. (2008). ISO 14001: Towards international quality environmental management standards for marine protected areas. *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 51(11), 727–739. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2008.07.004>
- Zhang, R., Wang, Z., & Zhang, Y. (2019). A person-following nanosatellite for in-cabin astronaut assistance: System design and deep-learning-based astronaut visual tracking implementation. *Acta Astronautica*, 162, 121–134. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actaastro.2019.06.003>
- *** Australian Water Safety Council. National Water Safety Plan 2004–2020. Sydney: Australian Water Safety Council, 2004
- *** Royal Life Saving Society in Australia. Royal Life Saving National Drowning Report. (2019). www.royallifesaving.com.au/_data/assets/pdf_file/0003/25833/rlssa-ndr-2019-digital.pdf
- *** The Royal Marine Conservative Society of Jordan. (2016). National Guides for Integrated Coastal Zone Management. Retrieved from <http://www.jreds.org/portals/0/pdf/Consult.pdf>
- *** United Nation World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). (2019). The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2019 Travel and Tourism at a Tipping Point. http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_TTCR_2019.pdf
- *** Queensland Government. 2019 Queensland Scuba Diving & Snorkelling Report Visitor Activities and Characteristics: Queensland Government.

THE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF TOURISM AND HOTEL ESTABLISHMENTS AND THEIR ROLE IN SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN AL-AHSA, SAUDI ARABIA

Thowayeb H. HASSAN*

King Faisal University, Department of Social Science, College of Arts, P.O. Box 380, Al Ahsa 31982, Saudi Arabia, e-mail: thassan@kfu.edu.sa
Helwan University, Faculty of Tourism and Hotel Management, P.O. Box 12612, Cairo, Egypt, e-mail: thowayeb.hassan@fth.helwan.edu.eg

Hossam S. SHEHATA

King Faisal University, Department of Social Science, College of Arts, P.O. Box 380, Al Ahsa 31982, Saudi Arabia,
Alexandria University, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, P.O. Box 21526, Egypt, e-mail: hramadan@kfu.edu.sa

Mohammed EL-DIEF

Umm AL-Qura University, College of Business, Makkah Al Mukramah, Saudi Arabia,
Helwan University, Faculty of Tourism and Hotel Management, P.O. Box 12612, Cairo, Egypt, e-mail: mmdief@uqu.edu.sa

Amany E. SALEM

King Faisal University, Department of Social Science, College of Arts, P.O. Box 380, Al Ahsa 31982, Saudi Arabia, e-mail: asalem@kfu.edu.sa
Helwan University, Faculty of Tourism and Hotel Management, P.O. Box 12612, Cairo, Egypt, e-mail: amany.ibrahim@fth.helwan.edu.eg

Citation: Hassan, T.H., Shehata, H.S., El-Dief, M., & Salem, A.E. (2020). THE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF TOURISM AND HOTEL ESTABLISHMENTS AND THEIR ROLE IN SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN AL-AHSA, SAUDI ARABIA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1564–1570. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl18-609>

Abstract: This study aims to assess the impact of implementing corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices on sustainable tourism development in Al-Ahsa city, Saudi Arabia. A survey was electronically distributed to the managers of hotels and travel agencies in Al-Ahsa City. A total of eight CSR strategies, including information analysis, compensation, system, delegation, prevention, education, regulation, and marketing, were extracted from the literature, and their effects on overall, economic, ecological, and social sustainability were investigated in hotels and tourism establishments. The results showed that promoting CSR adoption (marketing) and providing sustainability-related educational materials to customers were the most influential CSR practices on sustainability (mean scores \pm SD were 13.75 \pm 1.73 and 12.82 \pm 1.98 out of 15, respectively). Sustainable development of hospitality and tourism corporates could be enhanced by implementing marketing and educational CSR practices, which ultimately support the rising trend of sustainable tourism in the Kingdom.

Key words: Corporate social responsibility, sustainability, travel and tour operators, tourism industry, Saudi Arabia

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Social responsibility has become one of the contemporary core activities of the corporates, and many social responsibility issues have fundamentally become corporate issues that need to be addressed effectively. Traditionally, corporate social responsibility (CSR) was used to assess the impact of business on the environment and society as a matter of business ethics and stewardship principles. Subsequently, in the mid-twentieth century, Levitt (1958) and Friedman (1970) concluded a revolutionary aspect signifying that the responsibility of companies could maximize the profits of their owners and shareholders. With the recognition of the stakeholder theory, multiple economists had emphasized that CSR was a rational justification tool for “doing good” (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001), and it could be an invaluable source of innovation, opportunity, and competitive advantage (Porter and Kramer, 2006). These cumulative concepts have formulated the current comprehensive notion of CSR: the voluntary (beyond compliance) contributions of a corporate to diverse environmental, social, and ethical concerns (Moon et al., 2009). Other commonly used synonyms of CSR entail business ethics, corporate social performance, corporate citizenship, and corporate philanthropy. However, still there is no consensus definition of CSR.

Interestingly, the strategic plans of organizations’ responsibilities entail their commitment to human and ecological behaviors. Corporates should meet such a need in the context of the present generation without compromising the prospected needs of future generations (Baumgartner and Rauter, 2017). In other words, the present generation should be aware that future generations would have better standards of existence as compared to theirs. Therefore, current efforts should aim at creating a suitable environment that leads to sustainable development. The concept of sustainability, which assures an efficient harmony between humans and nature without an ecological disruption, can be achieved via several actions in the strategic development (Harjoto and Salas, 2017). These actions can broadly be compartmentalized into environmental, economic, and social pillars in order to tackle issues pertinent to the planet, money, and people respectively (Rego et al., 2015). Although these pillars are apparently separated, they are holistically associated to attain the goals of many national standards and certification themes. Indeed, the economy is an essential part of the society, and the latter is a constituent part of the larger environment (Montiel, 2008). This way, business corporations could be transformed into sustainable institutions which would benefit from the business itself besides providing significant values to the society as well as the environment.

Based on the aforementioned principles, companies have started targeting the three pillars of sustainability, and hotels and travel agencies are no exception. In the hotel and tourism industry, thanks to globalization, the number of daily travelers worldwide is far different than that in the past. The lack of available energy resources and the growing environmental impact of these industries have prompted urgent actions by business operators to support sustainability management systems (Hughes and Scheyvens, 2018). Notwithstanding the instability of the renewable energy supply and the need to improve its functions, hotel operators have been increasingly acknowledging the use of

* Corresponding author

renewable energy and the implementation of energy conservation systems. Additionally, travel companies, which act as intermediates between tourism businesses and tourists, have adopted active approaches towards sustainability with the purpose of maintaining long-term survival in the destination (Almunawar et al., 2012). While the need for sustainable tourism has become urgent with the explosive growth in the tourism industry in recent years worldwide (Saarinen, 2014), there exists a significant gap in the available research which frames the main drivers of sustainability, including CSR. Paskova and Zelenka (2019) have recently overviewed the conceptual dimensions of CSR that might impact sustainable activities, and they categorized CSR practices into eight main categories, which include information and analysis, system activities, compensation, delegation, prevention, customer education, regulation, and marketing activities. As far as other countries are concerned, evidence regarding the impact of CSR practices on corporate sustainability in Saudi Arabia remains derived from the academic theories, since to the best of our knowledge, there are no published articles which investigated such an important topic. Concomitantly, academic notions should basically be established based on real-life tests of validity and internal consistency in a given country. Of note, the impact of CSR on sustainability can be ideally expressed by the ultimate decision makers, namely the corporates' general managers. Managerial perceptions are important to understand, since they would eventually reflect CSR directives and the ways of implementation. As such, the present study aimed to assess corporate general managers' perceptions regarding the effects of implementing evidence-based CSR approaches on the sustainable development of hotels and travel agencies located in Al-Ahsa city, Saudi Arabia.

LITERATURE REVIEW

During the past decade, various studies have established that there was a significant global change in CSR and strategic corporate management, which commits these corporates to sustainable development, including the ecological, economical, and ethical sectors (Abram and Jarzabek, 2016; Tepelus, 2019). Indeed, consistent with the international standard of social responsibility published by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), CSR is defined as the responsibility of a given corporate for the effects of its activities and decisions on different societal and environmental aspects through an ethical behavior that would mediate sustainable development, including the welfare of the society, considering stakeholders' expectations, the applicability to laws, and its organizational integration (Moratis and Cochius, 2017). In the tourism and hospitality industries, the concept of social responsibility can be implemented via multiple strategic approaches, which were thoroughly reviewed by Paskova and Zelenka (2019). For example, the effects of tourism subjects' performance on society, sustainability, and the environment represent an integral part of the information and analytical approach. Particularly, sustainability monitoring of the environmental footprints, such as the ecological and carbon footprints, is a common approach performed by hotel chains (Cadardo et al., 2016; Abeydeera and Karunasena, 2019; Eskerod et al., 2019). In the instance of negative tourism impacts, the compensation approach is implemented either at the point of origin (i.e. reforestation in the vicinity of a deforested area for tourism infrastructure) or the establishment of a publicly beneficial project in another appropriate region (Landau, 2020; Bello and Kamanga, 2020; Dube and Nhamo, 2020). A detailed description of the different approaches to CSR implementation is listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Approaches to the implementation of the CSR activities by tourism companies (Source: Adapted from Paskova and Zelenka, 2019)

Approach	Description
Information and analytics	Monitoring sustainability indicators (i.e. ecological footprints and non-financial reports) and facilitating the availability of data related to expected and real effects of these indicators on the society.
System	The application of the international standards and total quality management methods in the implementation of changes in the management of the tourism companies and hotels.
Compensation	This approach means compensating for the negative consequences of tourism activities, such as deforestation for construction of tourism activities.
Delegation	Tourism establishments delegate responsibilities to their clients (visitors or guests). For example, financial delegation means a complete inclusion of social and environmental costs of tourism into the price calculation of a given tourism service or product.
Prevention	Tourism companies endeavor to prevent generation of adverse environmental or social impacts throughout the product lifecycle, even at the price of increasing the cost of the product.
Education	Providing educational materials to support the sustainable patterns of customers' behaviors.
Regulation	Setting up regulatory actions in the tourism sector, such as emission limits and carrying capacity.
Marketing	Promoting the favorable outcomes attained by the implementation of CSR activities and commitments to their application (e.g. promoting environmental certification).

CSR and Corporate Sustainability in the Hospitality Industry

In the hospitality industry, CSR relies fundamentally on the availability of natural resources at a tourism destination, where such resources represent a primary asset and a major feature, which is influenced by potential overexploitation (Karim and Islam, 2020; Serra-Cantalops et al., 2018). It is, therefore, imperative to ascertain adequate tightening of the relevant regulations besides incorporating the tourism industry in efforts pertaining to environmental conservation. Indeed, hotel chains have significant roles in the implementation of all arms of social responsibility via their contribution in employment and income (Liu et al., 2017; Jamal Mohammad et al., 2020) in addition to their social and environmental effects (González-Rodríguez et al., 2019). However, it seems that a considerable proportion of CSR activities in hotels is primarily focused on promoting the health and safety of guests and employees, respecting the ethical and social norms in the society, and reducing the negative effects on the environment (Abram and Jarzabek, 2016; Ghaderi et al., 2019).

In general, the impact of CSR policies on hotel performance and sustainable development could be corroborated in the literature. For instance, CSR has influenced loyalty and satisfaction via direct and indirect mechanisms as revealed in a survey of Chinese hotel consumers (Liu et al., 2019). Similarly, CSR activities have markedly influenced the reputation of hotels and travel agencies in several countries, such as the United States (Kim and Kim, 2016), Argentina (Bianchi et al., 2019), and Malaysia (Mohammed and Rashid, 2018). The economic performance, as a major component of sustainability, has also been positively associated with CSR activities (Mariño-Romero et al., 2020; García-Pozo et al., 2019). Recently, Mariño-Romero et al. (2020) have indicated important roles of implementing CSR policies on the revenue per available room in an analytical study involving Spanish hotels. Actually, such evidence underscores CSR adoption as a fundamental strategy in order to build robust sustainable development plans over long-term periods in the hotel sector.

CSR and Corporate Sustainability in the Tourism Industry

The tourism industry has rapidly evolved in recent years, especially thanks to the integration of technology in the buying habits of consumers and tourism distribution channels. Sustainable development in tourism has been largely ignored for several years, and the implications of these developmental aspects for environmental management policies at various destinations have been scarcely investigated

(Cotterell et al., 2019). Like other industries, the perceptions and moral philosophies of professionals in the tourism industry are significantly variable, which could be explained by cultural differences. However, tour operators, internet operators, and travel agencies would expectedly be engaged in activities as implied by the frameworks of the United Nations Sustainability Development Goals (Tepelus, 2019). This way, tour operators can move towards sustainable tourism via internal management, supply chain management, product development, enhancing customer relations, and improving the cooperation with destination (Jermsittiparsert et al., 2019; Richards and Font, 2019).

In a multinational analysis of tour operators in the United States, Canada, Europe, and Australia (Strasdas, 2019), the authors specified that CSR activities were primarily associated to environmental aspects, such as waste management strategies and minimizing resource use, and they prevailed over socio-cultural responsibility topics. These companies tended to transmit their commitment and enthusiastic behaviors to their customers, which increased their satisfaction. Based on these findings, tour operators are required to implement active actions in their economic, environmental, and social performance to guide their consumers who seek to support sustainable strategies. In Romania, it has been found that tour operators and travel agencies were highly committed to CSR practices (Marin-Pantelescu et al., 2019). Nevertheless, the main objective of such commitment was to support corporate image rather than the implementation of fundamental sustainability goals. Likewise, previous investigations have repeatedly opined the view that tour operators are concerned with organizational benefits and consume natural resources without conserving them (Richards and Font, 2019; Hamid et al., 2020). Recently, representative professionals of tour operators in Hong Kong have expressed varied opinions regarding social and environmental responsibilities, emphasizing that the government was the most influential stakeholder to promote responsibility in tour operation business (Otoo et al., 2020).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study Design and Data Collection

A survey-based study was conducted in Al-Ahsa city during the period from June 01 to August 31, 2020. Al-Ahsa city is located in Al-Ahsa Governorate, which is the largest governorate in the Eastern Province in Saudi Arabia. Thanks to its geographical location, Al-Ahsa represents an important link between the Arabian Peninsula and the external world. It contains one of the largest palm oases worldwide (Al-Ahsa Oasis). In 2019, the Arab Ministerial Council on Tourism named Al-Ahsa as the “Capital of Arab Tourism” (Alarabiya.Net, 2018). According to the Saudi Commission for Tourism and National Heritage (SCTH), there are 8 hotels, including 3-, 4-, and 5-star hotels, and a total of 30 travel agencies in the city. Such organizations represent the target sample of the present study. Therefore, an electronic survey was distributed to the e-mail addresses of all organizations (n=38), of which 28 completed surveys (6 hotels and 22 travel agencies) were received and analyzed, accounting for a response rate of 73.7%. The e-mail addresses of all corporates were obtained from the SCTH website.

Study Questionnaire

A structured questionnaire was used to collect data from the respective administration officers in each organization. The questionnaire consisted of three major domains: 1) organization data, including organization type (hotel or travel agency), address, category, ownership, and type of management (local or foreign); 2) patterns of CSR implementation, including the responsible department for CSR administration, the reasons for which CSR had been implemented, the types of CSR practices which had been embraced, the methods of raising the employees' awareness regarding social responsibility issues, and whether the organization has regularly been preparing annual reports regarding CSR practices; and 3) the perceived impact of the eight CSR domains (Table 1) on the aspects of developmental sustainability, including the economic, social, and environmental aspects. The items of the first and second domains were collected by conducting a thorough review of the relevant literature. CSR approaches of the third domain were obtained from a comprehensive overview of CSR activities in the tourism and hospitality industries (Paskova and Zelenka, 2019). The responses of such a domain were indexed in a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (no influence) to 5 (highly influential). The definitions of CSR practices as well as sustainability domains were clearly provided to all participants prior to completing the questionnaire form.

Table 2. Characteristics of the included establishments and their patterns of social responsibility application

Category	Subcategory	Frequency	Percent
Type of establishment	Hotel	6	21.4
	3 stars	1	16.7
	4 stars	2	33.3
	5 stars	3	50
	Travel Agency	22	78.6
	A	13	59.1
Management Type	B	9	40.9
	Local Administration	19	67.9
Ownership	Foreign Administration	9	32.1
	Private	28	100
Department responsible for CSR	Government	0	0
	Public relations	12	42.9
	Marketing	15	53.6
	Separate Department	1	3.6
Does your tourism establishment evaluate CSR activities?	Yes	28	100
Does your tourism establishment prepare annual report for social responsibility practices?	Yes	9	32.1
	No	19	67.9
	No	0	0

Statistical Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 26.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was utilized to conduct the statistical analysis. The reliability of different domains of the questionnaire was assessed using a Cronbach's alpha (α). Quantitative and qualitative variables were presented as frequencies and percentages or means and standard deviation (SD). An overall effect score was computed for each CSR domain by summing up the scores of Likert responses (ranging from 1 to 5) regarding the impact of CSR on ecological, economic, and social sustainability aspects. Therefore, the overall effect score ranged between 1 (no effect) to 15 (complete effect). The normality of the overall effect scores in each domain as well as the Likert scores of each sustainability aspect was assessed numerically using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and the Shapiro-Wilk test, revealing P values of < 0.0001 for both tests. Subsequently, nonparametric tests were employed in

the analysis. Establishment-based differences in the effect scores (between hotels and travel agencies) were investigated using a Mann Whitney test. Statistically significant differences in the effects of CSR practices on sustainable tourism development were tested using the rank-based test, Kruskal-Wallis H test, using CSR groups ($n=8$) as the grouping variable. A post hoc analysis was performed to identify the distinct groups with statistically significant differences, whenever available. All results were categorized according to the type of the establishment (hotel or travel agency). A P value of < 0.05 was considered to reject the null hypothesis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

General characteristics and patterns of CSR implementation in the included corporates

The responses of 28 corporate managers were analyzed (6 hotels and 22 travel agencies). Five-star hotels represented 50% of the included hotels, while class A travel agencies comprised of 59.1% of the total travel corporates. All the establishments were managed by the private sector, and they have been implementing regular CSR activities. However, about one-third of the corporates (32.1%) had previously prepared annual reports for such activities (Table 2).

Regarding questions with multiple responses, growing corporate's income was the most frequently reported reason for CSR implementation (27.6%), followed by attracting customers' attention (Figure 1A). Management briefings were the most commonly used method to raise employees' awareness regarding CSR (47.6%, Figure 1B). Importantly, the majority of participants declared that marketing and information analysis were used frequently as methods for CSR (21.8% and 17.6% respectively, Figure 1C).

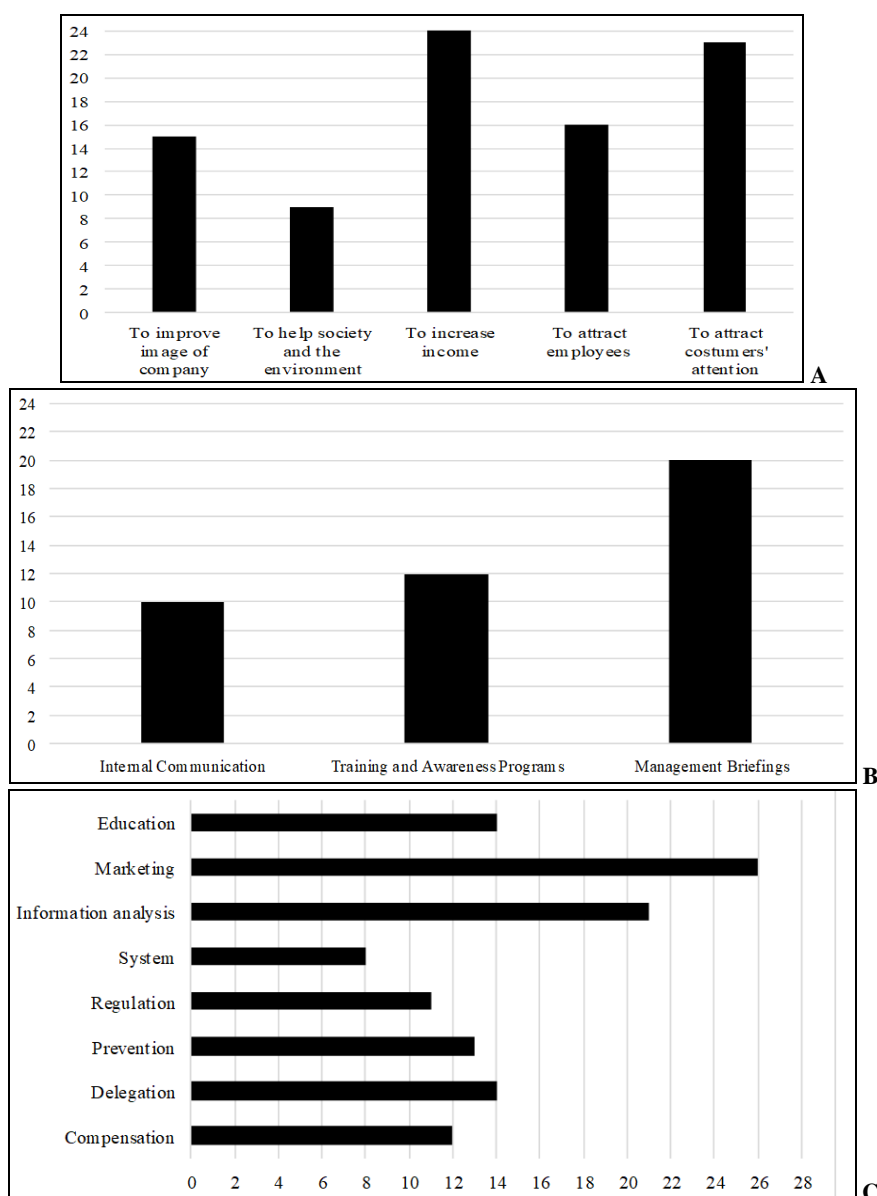


Figure 1. The responses of participants to multi-response questions regarding the reasons for which CSR has been implemented (A), methods of raising awareness regarding CSR (B), and the types of implemented CSR practices (C)

Corporate-based differences in the effects of CSR practices on sustainability domains

Effect scores across all the establishments have been demonstrated in Table 3. As perceived by the participants, marketing was the most impactful CSR activity (mean score \pm SD was 13.75 ± 1.73) followed by education (mean score \pm SD was 12.96 ± 1.79) and delegation (mean score \pm SD was 12.82 ± 1.98). While sustainability was significantly more affected by preventive CSR practices in hotels than travel agencies (13.17 ± 1.83 versus 11.05 ± 2.08 , $P = 0.036$), marketing had greater effects on sustainability among travel agencies as compared to hotels (14.09 ± 1.51 versus 12.5 ± 2.07 , $P = 0.035$).

Table 3. Scores of the effect of implementing CSR activities on sustainable tourism development

CSR activity	Overall	Hotel (n=6)	Travel Agencies (n=22)	P
Information analysis	12.18 ± 2.02	11.67 ± 1.21	12.32 ± 2.19	0.444
Compensation	11.29 ± 2.52	12.67 ± 1.86	10.91 ± 2.58	0.15
System	11.46 ± 2.05	12.33 ± 1.21	11.23 ± 2.18	0.288
Delegation	12.82 ± 1.98	13.5 ± 1.97	12.64 ± 1.99	0.265
Prevention	11.5 ± 2.19	13.17 ± 1.83	11.05 ± 2.08	0.036
Education	12.96 ± 1.79	12 ± 1.67	13.23 ± 1.77	0.088
Regulation	11.04 ± 1.77	12.33 ± 1.37	10.68 ± 1.73	0.067
Marketing	13.75 ± 1.73	12.5 ± 2.07	14.09 ± 1.51	0.035

*p value of the difference in ranks of Mann Whitney test between hotels and travel agencies

As far as the hospitality industry is concerned, implementing preventive responsible practices has proven effective to enhance destination sustainability. For example, in Sri Lanka, responsible tourism and hotel activities have led to significant improvements in the quality of life of individuals in destination communities and have improved the experience of tourists while reducing the negative economic, social, and environmental impacts (Sariskumar and Bhavan, 2018). It has been shown that implementing environmentally-friendly preventive actions by hotels would enhance energy efficiency and waste management at the corporate level (Kularatne et al., 2019). Campbell et al. (2015) established that a price increase justified by preventing the adverse impacts of fair trade was generally accepted by the customers. The authors specified that additional investments in preventive social commitments associated with a price increase would not impact purchase intentions because customers feel that they are contributing to something good (Campbell et al., 2015). Therefore, preventive CSR practices should be adopted by tourism corporates to support destination sustainability and improve the quality of life of local residents. On the other hand, the effect of the educational approach was appreciated by managers in our study. Previous evidence showed also a positive association between providing sustainability education for guests and the number of guest visits, revenues, and guest satisfaction (Walsh et al., 2017). Fostering environmental education has also proven beneficial in a Taiwanese study, yet the lack of commitment, owing to uncertainty regarding its consequences, was a significant barrier to regular green education (Yeh et al., 2016). To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first to demonstrate the impact of customers' education on tourism sustainability in Saudi Arabia, emphasizing the need of focusing on a relatively novel trend for hoteliers regarding green education of customers.

CSR-based differences in the effects of CSR practices on sustainability domains

Taking into consideration the differences across CSR domains and focusing on the responses provided by hotel managers, no significant differences were found in the mean ranks of the perceived effects on overall sustainability as well as the economic, social, and ecological aspects of sustainability (Table 4). However, the mean ranks of the effects on sustainability differed significantly across CSR practices implemented by travel agencies. In addition, statistically significant differences were found in the effects of CSR practices on all subdomains of sustainability, including economic ($P = 0.001$), social ($P < 0.001$), and ecological ($P < 0.001$) aspects.

Table 4. CSR-based differences in the mean ranks of the effects of CSR activities on sustainability domains across the whole sample, hotels, and travel agencies

Parameter	Hotels				Travel Agencies			
	Overall	Economic	Social	Ecological	Overall	Economic	Social	Ecological
Mean Ranks*								
Information analysis	17.25	22.00	21.50	15.33	94.61	91.34	99.23	90.98
Compensation	26.00	23.25	28.50	24.00	66.80	62.20	76.14	77.89
System	22.58	22.00	25.67	23.17	70.95	73.50	69.55	80.68
Delegation	32.75	32.00	32.00	28.00	101.05	107.23	99.18	87.95
Prevention	29.92	26.17	25.00	32.67	65.43	76.27	71.64	70.75
Education	20.08	19.08	23.83	21.67	114.91	101.68	107.95	113.68
Regulation	23.17	19.50	19.17	29.50	56.95	75.61	64.68	61.32
Marketing	24.25	32.00	20.33	21.67	137.30	120.16	119.64	124.75
Degree of Freedom	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
P value	0.585	0.424	0.687	0.403	<0.0001	0.001	<0.0001	<0.0001

*Values obtained by a Kruskal-Wallis H Test

To investigate particular CSR practices which have mediated such differences, pairwise comparisons were carried out, and the significant effects were adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests. Results revealed consistently higher effects of marketing on overall sustainability as compared to CSR practices pertinent to regulation (rank difference = 80.34, $P < 0.0001$), prevention (rank difference = 71.86, $P < 0.0001$), compensation (rank difference = 70.5, $P < 0.0001$), and the corporate system (rank difference = 66.34, $P < 0.0001$). As far as subgroups analysis of sustainability domains is concerned, marketing practices were the most influential CSR parameters, where they were superior to compensation and system practices on economic sustainability (rank differences = 57.96 and 46.66, $P = 0.002$ and $P = 0.043$ respectively), regulation, system, and prevention practices on social sustainability (rank differences = 54.96, 50.09, and 48.00, $P = 0.003$, 0.013, and 0.022 respectively), and compensation and prevention practices on ecological sustainability (rank difference = 46.86 and 54.00, $P = 0.029$ and 0.004 respectively). Similarly, several examples of implementing the marketing approach have been demonstrated in the literature. For instance, promoting environmental certification, defined as providing documented assurance that a service, product, or corporate adheres to a particular standard, has been cited as a strong factor that could alleviate the negative social and environmental impacts and corroborate that the establishment is held accountable to stakeholders (Essawy, 2019). In the literature, it has been shown that greening the marketing strategy of businesses would help implement the managerial activities for identifying and satisfying customer needs in both profitable and sustainable ways (Chung, 2020; Yadav et al., 2016). This way, certified travel agencies are able to gain significant competitive advantages. The most significant success story has been pointed out by the Blue Flag Campaign, the first environment ecolabel which is specifically awarded to beaches and marina in European coastal zones. Since its first introduction in 1987, the Blue Flag Campaign has been adopted in 2,500 European beaches, and many non-European countries have implemented specific programs to raise awareness about the Campaign (Fraguell et al., 2016). Generally, ecolabels help impart a social reputation of travel agencies and tour operators; even unemployed persons have preferred working for eco-labelled establishments (Yilmaz et al., 2019). In Turkey, the environmental views of travel agencies were

evident, where corporate managers emphasized the significance of environmental management criteria and the barriers to environmental protection. Nevertheless, the participants did not translate their perceptions to real-life environmental practices, since such agencies did not employ any environmental programs or allocate specific budgets for environmental protection (Erdoğan, 2012). In our study, we did not confirm whether tourism corporates had CSR practices in place, thus we could not assess their potential effects on investment and sustainability.

Based on the aforementioned findings, the influence of marketing and educational approaches has been appreciated by corporate managers, while the effects of other approaches were less acknowledged. Although the relevant data of the impact of corporate performance on sustainability aspects were readily available (the information and analytical approach) as declared by a considerable proportion of participants (Figure 1C), the implementation of sustainability monitoring was not effective on the sustainable development. Notwithstanding the high impact of the delegation approach on sustainability of hotels as reported by hoteliers, the difference between the effect of such an approach and others did not reach statistical significance. Once again, the small number of hotels was an important limitation that needs to be addressed in future studies by including hotels from different parts across Saudi Arabia.

CONCLUSION

Multiple national and international tourism corporations have paid great attention to CSR practices in order to support the welfare of local communities, protect the environment, and provide fair working conditions for their employees. In Al-Ahsa city, CSR was commonly implemented by travel agencies and hotels. Marketing and preventive CSR practices were the most significant approaches on aspects of sustainable development in the tourism sector as indicated by the managers of tourism and hospitality establishments. Sustainability management, including marketing of green practices and providing sustainability education to customers, should be emphasized in hospitality research not only in Al-Ahsa city, but also in studies conducted in other regions in the Kingdom. This would enhance corporate's image, support customer loyalty, and assure the adoption of environment-friendly practices at the destination. Future studies in Al-Ahsa city are needed, focusing the impact of CSR marketing methods, preventive practices, and educational responsible activities on customers' satisfaction that might lead to effective sustainable actions.

Strengths, limitations, and future implications

In addition to the small sample size of hotels, other limitations were apparent in the current analysis. Firstly, the survey-based design might have impacted statistical differences among different parameters of sustainability and CSR practices. Secondly, the obtained self-reported data are subject to response bias, meaning that the respondents might have tended to provide answers based on socially- and economically-acceptable criteria to meet the ideal requirements of CSR implementation. Thirdly, the study setting was limited to one region that might limit the generalizability of results. Therefore, we suggest conducting multi-regional business analytical studies which depend on evidence-based data of the impact of each CSR strategy on a given pillar of sustainable development, such as corporate profits and customer's behaviors. However, within the paucity of available data on tourism and hospitality locally, we believe that the outcomes of the present study provide a cornerstone for future business plans and a framework for CSR strategies that have to be given due consideration by travel agencies and hotels in Al-Ahsa city. In essence, green marketing should be stressed in the tourism and hospitality sectors, since it has a moderating effect on customer behavior intentions towards the corporate, particularly for those with high environmental consciousness (Martinez Garcia De Leaniz et al., 2018). Besides, green practices would positively influence the corporate image (Yadav et al., 2016). Hotel operators and managers of travel agencies are encouraged to support technical solutions and innovations aiming at promoting the activities of environmental support to gain competitive advantage while preserving their energy resources and building robust trust with consumers. It is also recommended to adopt responsible activities to prevent the adverse environmental and societal impacts of tourism and hospitality, even at the price of cost increase. Conducting similar studies in other regions in the Kingdom would provide valuable insights into sustainable tourism development in a country with rich cultural heritage and a great number of archaeological sites. Eventually, this would support the SCTH's "TAKAMUL" program, which aims to unlock the tourism sector's potential to achieve sustainable developmental targets in line with vision 2030 (Durugbo et al., 2020).

Acknowledgement: The authors extend their appreciation to the Deputyship for Research & Innovation, Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia for funding this research work through the project number IFT20105.

REFERENCES

- Abeeydeera, L.H.U.W., & Karunasena, G. (2019). Carbon Emissions of Hotels: The Case of the Sri Lankan Hotel Industry. *Buildings*, 9(11), 227. <https://doi.org/10.3390/buildings9110227>
- Abram, M., & Jarzabek, J. (2016). Corporate social responsibility in hotel industry: environmental implications. *J Ecocycles*, 2(2), 9-16. <https://doi.org/10.19040/ecocycles.v2i2.51>
- Almunawar, M.N., Anshari, M., & Susanto, H. (2012). Crafting strategies for sustainability: how travel agents should react in facing a disintermediation. *Operational Research*, 13(3), 317-342. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12351-012-0129-7>
- Baumgartner, R.J., & Rauter, R. (2017). Strategic perspectives of corporate sustainability management to develop a sustainable organization. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 140, 81-92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.04.146>
- Bello, F.G., & Kamanga, G. (2020). Drivers and barriers of corporate social responsibility in the tourism industry: The case of Malawi. *Development Southern Africa*, 37(2), 181-196. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0376835X.2018.1555028>
- Bianchi, E., Bruno, J.M., & Sarabia-Sanchez, F.J. (2019). The impact of perceived CSR on corporate reputation and purchase intention. *European Journal of Management and Business Economics*, 28(3), 206-221. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ejmb-12-2017-0068>
- Cadarso, M.Á., Gómez, N., López, L.A., & Tobarra, M.Á. (2016). Calculating tourism's carbon footprint: measuring the impact of investments. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 111, 529-537. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.09.019>
- Campbell, C.L., Heinrich, D., & Schoenmüller, V. (2015). Consumers' reaction to fair trade motivated price increases. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 24, 79-84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2015.02.005>
- Chung, K.C. (2020). Green marketing orientation: achieving sustainable development in green hotel management. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 29(6), 722-738. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2020.1693471>
- Cotterell, D., Hales, R., Arcodia, C., & Ferreira, J.A. (2019). Overcommitted to tourism and under committed to sustainability: the urgency of teaching "strong sustainability" in tourism courses. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(7), 882-902. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2018.1545777>
- Dube, K., & Nhamo, G. (2020). Sustainable Development Goals localisation in the tourism sector: lessons from Grootbos Private Nature Reserve, South Africa. *GeoJournal*, 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10708-020-10182-8>
- Durugbo, C.M., Al-Jayyousi, O.R., & Almahamid, S.M. (2020). Wisdom from Arabian creatives: Systematic Review of Innovation Management Literature for the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) Region. *International Journal of Innovation and Technology Management*. <https://doi.org/10.1142/S0219877020300049>
- Erdoğan, N. (2012). Environmental views and practices in tourism industry: a study on travel agency managers. *J İşletme Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 4(2), 52-65.
- Eslerod, P., Hollensen, S., Morales-Contreras, M.F., & Arteaga-Ortiz, J. (2019). Drivers for Pursuing Sustainability through IoT Technology within High-End Hotels—An Exploratory Study. *Sustainability*, 11(19), 5372. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11195372>

- Essawy, T.M. (2019). Assessing the Application of Corporate Social Responsibility in Egyptian Travel Agencies. *Journal of Association of Arab Universities for Tourism and Hospitality*, 17(2), 90-109. <https://doi.org/10.21608/jaauth.2019.92261>
- Fraguelli, R.M., Martí, C., Pínto, J., & Coenders, G. (2016). After over 25 years of accrediting beaches, has Blue Flag contributed to sustainable management? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 24(6), 882-903. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2015.1091465>
- Friedman, M. (1970). The Social Responsibility of Business Is to Increase Its Profits. The New York Times Magazine Retrieved from <http://umich.edu/~thecore/doc/Friedman.pdf>. Last Access: August 27, 2020
- García-Pozo, A., Mondéjar-Jiménez, J., & Sánchez-Ollero, J. L. (2019). Internet's user perception of corporate social responsibility in hotel services. *Sustainability*, 11(10), 2916. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11102916>
- Ghaderi, Z., Mirzapour, M., Henderson, J. C., & Richardson, S. (2019). Corporate social responsibility and hotel performance: A view from Tehran, Iran. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 29, 41-47. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2018.10.007>
- González-Rodríguez, M.R., Martín-Samper, R.C., Köseoglu, M.A., & Okumus, F. (2019). Hotels' corporate social responsibility practices, organizational culture, firm reputation, and performance. *J Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(3), 398-419. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2019.1585441>
- Hamid, M.A., Isa, S.M., & Kiumarsi, S. (2020). Sustainable tourism practices and business performance from the tour operators' perspectives. *Anatolia*, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2020.1830135>
- Harjoto, M.A., & Salas, J. (2017). Strategic and institutional sustainability: corporate social responsibility, brand value, and Interbrand listing. *Journal of Product Brand Management*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JBPM-07-2016-1277>
- Hughes, E., & Scheyvens, R. (2018). Development alternatives in the Pacific: How tourism corporates can work more effectively with local communities. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 15(5), 516-534. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2018.1478881>
- Jamal Mohammad, S., Al-Haddad, L., Safdar Sial, M., & Wan, P. (2020). corporate social responsibility and tourism industry : stakeholders approach . *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30, 913-916. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl18-522>
- Jermisittiparsert, K., Joemsittiparsert, W., & Phonwattana, S. (2019). Mediating Role of Sustainability Capability in Determining Sustainable Supply Chain Management in Tourism Industry of Thailand. *International Journal of Supply Chain Management*, 8(3), 47-58.
- Karim, R.A., & Islam, M.W. (2020). assessing customer demand and Customer satisfaction through social and environmental practices in the hotel sector of Bangladesh. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30(2spl), 843-851. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.302spl09-513>
- Kim, S.B., & Kim, D.Y. (2016). The influence of corporate social responsibility, ability, reputation, and transparency on hotel customer loyalty in the U.S.: a gender-based approach. *SpringerPlus*, 5(1), 1537. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40064-016-3220-3>
- Kularatne, T., Wilson, C., Månsson, J., Hoang, V., & Lee, B. (2019). Do environmentally sustainable practices make hotels more efficient? A study of major hotels in Sri Lanka. *Tourism Management*, 71, 213-225. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.09.009>
- Landau, T. (2020). Action and progress on sustainability challenges: case examples from Marriott, Booking and Soneva. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/WHATT-06-2020-0042>
- Levitt, T. (1958). The dangers of social-responsibility. *J Harvard business review*, 36(5), 41-50.
- Liu, F., Liu, Y., Mo, Z., Zhao, Z., & Zhu, Z. (2019). How CSR influences customer behavioural loyalty in the Chinese hotel industry. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1108/APJML-04-2018-0160>
- Liu, F., Wang, X., Tian, X., & Tang, Y. (2017). *The effect of corporate social responsibility on hotel employees' work outcomes: The mediating role of organizational identification*. Paper presented at the 2017 International Conference on Service Systems and Service Management.
- Marin-Pantelescu, A., Tăchiciu, L., Căpușneanu, S., & Topor, D.I. (2019). Role of tour operators and travel agencies in promoting sustainable tourism. *J Amfiteatru Economic*, 21(52), 654-669. <https://doi.org/10.24818/EA/2019/52/654>
- Marino-Romero, J.M., Hernández-Mogollón, J.M., Campón-Cerro, A.M., & Folgado-Fernández, J.A. (2020). Corporate Social Responsibility in Hotels: A Proposal of a Measurement of its Performance through Marketing Variables. *J Sustainability*, 12(7), 2961. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12072961>
- Martinez Garcia de Leaniz, P., Herrero Crespo, A., & Gómez López, R. (2018). Customer responses to environmentally certified hotels: The moderating effect of environmental consciousness on the formation of behavioral intentions. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(7), 1160-1177. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2017.1349775>
- McWilliams, A., & Siegel, D. (2001). Corporate social responsibility: A theory of the firm perspective. *J Academy of management review*, 26(1), 117-127. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2001.4011987>
- Mohammed, A., & Rashid, B. (2018). A conceptual model of corporate social responsibility dimensions, brand image, and customer satisfaction in Malaysian hotel industry. *Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences*, 39(2), 358-364. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.kjss.2018.04.001>
- Montiel, I. (2008). Corporate social responsibility and corporate sustainability: Separate pasts, common futures. *J Organization Environment*, 21(3), 245-269. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1086026608321329>
- Moon, J., Anastasiadis, S., & Viganò, F. (2009). The potential of CSR to support the implementation of the EU sustainability strategy: editorial introduction. *J Business Ethics: A European Review*, 18(3), 268-272. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8608.2009.01562.x>
- Moratis, L., & Cochiu, T. (2017). *ISO 26000: The business guide to the new standard on social responsibility*. Routledge.
- Otoo, F.E., Senbeto, D.L., & Demssie, M.A. (2020). Social and Environmental Responsibility among Inbound Tour Operations in Hong Kong. *J Journal of China Tourism Research*, 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19388160.2020.1798319>
- Paskova, M., & Zelenka, J. (2019). How crucial is the social responsibility for tourism sustainability? *J Social Responsibility Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/SRJ-03-2018-0057>
- Porter, M.E., & Kramer, M.R. (2006). The link between competitive advantage and corporate social responsibility. *J Harvard business review*, 84(12), 78-92.
- Rego, A., Cunha, M.P. e., & Polónia, D. (2015). Corporate Sustainability: A View from the Top. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 143(1), 133-157. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2760-8>
- Richards, P., & Font, X. (2019). Sustainability in the tour operator-ground agent supply chain. *J Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(3), 277-291. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2018.1560451>
- Saarinen, J. (2014). Critical sustainability: Setting the limits to growth and responsibility in tourism. *Sustainability*, 6(1), 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su6010001>
- Sariskumar, N., & Bhavan, T. (2018). The impact of responsible tourism on destination sustainability and quality of life in Passikudah tourism destination. *International Journal of Social Science and Economic Research*, 3(11), 5933-5959.
- Serra-Cantalops, A., Peña-Miranda, D.D., Ramón-Cardona, J., & Martorell-Cunill, O. (2018). Progress in research on CSR and the hotel industry (2006-2015). *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 59(1), 15-38. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965517719267>
- Strasdas, W. (2019). Corporate Responsibility Among International Ecotourism and Adventure Travel Operators. In D. Lund-Durlacher, V. Dinica, D. Reiser, & M.S. Fikfa (Eds.), *Corporate Sustainability and Responsibility in Tourism* (pp. 143-161). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- Tepelus, C. (2019). New Frontiers for Sustainability in Travel and Tourism—Corporate Responsibility on Combating Global Human Trafficking. In D. Lund-Durlacher, V. Dinica, D. Reiser, & M.S. Fikfa (Eds.), *Corporate Sustainability and Responsibility in Tourism* (pp. 51-63). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- Walsh, P.R., Dodds, R., & Environment, t. (2017). Measuring the choice of environmental sustainability strategies in creating a competitive advantage. *J Business Strategy*, 26(5), 672-687. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.1949>
- Yadav, R., Dokania, A.K., & Pathak, G.S. (2016). The influence of green marketing functions in building corporate image. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-05-2015-0233>
- Yeh, S.S., Ma, T., & Huan, T.C. (2016). Building social entrepreneurship for the hotel industry by promoting environmental education. *J International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-03-2014-0122>
- Yılmaz, Y., Üngüren, E., & Kaçmaz, Y.Y. (2019). Determination of Managers' Attitudes Towards Eco-Labeling Applied in the Context of Sustainable Tourism and Evaluation of the Effects of Eco-Labeling on Accommodation Enterprises. *J Sustainability*, 11(18), 5069. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11185069>
- *** Alarabiya.net. (2018). Saudi city of Al-Ahsa named 'Capital of Arab Tourism' for 2019. Retrieved from <https://english.alarabiya.net/en/life-style/travel-and-tourism/2018/12/12/Saudi-city-of-Al-Ahsa-named-Capital-of-Arab-Tourism-for-2019>. Last Access: September 01, 2020.

THE PRESERVATION OF WORLD ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES AND PROMOTION OF TOURISM: QALA'AT BANI HAMMAD (M'SILA) ALGERIA

Walid RAHAL*

Houari Boumediene Sciences and Technology University, Department of Geography
And Territorial Planning, Algiers, Algeria, e-mail: dr.rahal.walid@gmail.com

Mohamed A. REZZAZ

Houari Boumediene Sciences and Technology University, Department of Geography
And Territorial Planning, Algiers, Algeria, e-mail: drezzaz@yahoo.fr

Louardi KHERROUR

Houari Boumediene Sciences and Technology University, Department of Geography
And Territorial Planning, Algiers, Algeria, e-mail: louardi.kherrou@yahoofr

Citation: Rahal, W., Rezzaz, M.A., & Kherrou, L. (2020). THE PRESERVATION OF WORLD ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES AND PROMOTION OF TOURISM: QALA'AT BANI HAMMAD (M'SILA) ALGERIA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1571–1578. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl19-610>

Abstract: Archaeological sites are currently considered as one of the most important tourism industry drivers, becoming an autonomous economy. Among the most outstanding archaeological sites in Algeria is the fort of Bani Hammad. This site is the first archaeological site classified by UNESCO in 1980, located in central Algeria in M'sila province. Given its importance, we conducted a scientific study to highlight its beautiful archaeological tourism components and national and international tourist attractions. Then, we revealed the tourism challenges and the physical and moral deterioration affecting this site. Also, we propose a preservation plan to promote this site's touristic assets, enabling its transformation into a tourist destination competing with other archaeological sites in Algeria and the Maghreb; through a sustainable development plan of archaeological tourism, while preserving its historical identity and role. To this aim, we used a descriptive and quantitative analytical approach, starting with a theoretical and analytical analysis of various studies, plans, and documents related to this archaeological site's components. Then, we analyzed the geographical and statistical data of the tourist traffic over five years using the SPSS statistical program. Finally, we presented the results, developed a rehabilitation plan for the site, and suggested an essential set of recommendations.

Key words: archaeological sites, Qal' at Bani Hammad, M' sila, tourism industry, sustainable tourism development, preservation, UNESCO.

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Archaeological sites play a crucial role in promoting tourism because they attract many tourists, especially history lovers who have a culture of learning about ancient civilizations (Falconer et al., 2020) and because awareness of the past in its reality is society's awareness of its continuity. Algeria is one of the countries that have experienced numerous successions of civilisations. Its northern part includes the coastline, the northern plains, and the atlas plateaus, and monuments from the Roman, Arab and Muslim eras. Simultaneously, in the great south lies the Tassili and Hoggar region, home to the largest open-air natural Museum (Amershi, 2006). Therefore, Algeria's great cultural heritage must be exploited and managed by developing the tourism industry while preserving the cultural values and identity of the society and creating new income and employment opportunities (Lazzarotti, 2003).

The Bani Hammad fortress is one of the most beautiful and important archaeological reserves and the first world archaeological site classified by UNESCO in Algeria on 05/09/1980 (OGEBC, 1991). Thus, it must be preserved and exploited to attract and satisfy domestic and international tourists (Aara and Sofi, 2018) since, in the implementation of any tourism development project, both internal and external tourism must be taken into account to achieve a balance of payments on one hand, and access to human development, the central axis, and tool of tourism, on the other hand. Today, tourism is an essential factor and a typical social ecosystem (Reddy et al., 2020). It adapts to the environment and local communities through appropriate planning and management. This is only possible with an environment of natural beauty and attractive terrain, abundant wildlife, fresh air, and clean water suitable for tourism. In such a case, tourism planning and development are as important as protecting the cultural heritage and historical records (Nwankwo et al., 2017) of any archaeological site. The city of Bani Hammad is one of the most important archaeological sites and an exceptional testimony of the second Islamic civilisation in the central Maghreb after Rustumiya (Gilali, 1983). To carry out this study, many questions were asked: How to preserve the first archaeological site classified by UNESCO in Algeria? What are the archaeological and tourist components of the site? What is the extent of tourism activity in this site at the local, national, and international levels? How to promote the tourism industry in this world archaeological site?

STUDY GOAL AND METHODOLOGY

This study highlights the archaeological assets of the historical, cultural, tourist, and economic aspects and attempts to convince the authorities of the importance of resuming the archaeological excavations and transforming this site into an international tourist destination. To conduct this study, we followed these steps: collecting historical and statistical data on tourist traffic over five years, reviewing previous studies, organizing field visits to learn more about the archaeological values of the existing heritage, exploring the site's museum, and using its vast collection of archaeological artefacts to generate results and recommendations, using a descriptive and quantitative analytical approach, and also computer softwares such as Microsoft Office Word, Excel, the statistical program Microsoft Office SPSS, the geographic information system ArcGIS (Figure1) and ARCHICAD an architectural BIM CAD software.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Preservation of archaeological sites: UNESCO distinguishes two types of World Heritage Sites: cultural heritage sites and natural

* Corresponding author

heritage sites (Rössler, 2006). As part of UNESCO's agreements, all countries must protect archaeological sites from degradation, vandalism, and extinction, since preservation is the major key to their sustainability for present and future generations (Newsome et al., 2012). Among preservation indicators, there is a need to complete archaeological excavation at the site. In some institutes, data obtained are digitized and then processed in the field to create a consolidated knowledge approach for archaeological research (Marchetti et al., 2018). The protection of these sites from different pollution types is essential by using modern remote sensing techniques. The latter targets the development and design of appropriate actions for the preservation of antiques, reduce erosion and prevent additional damage (Sakka et al., 2020). It is also important to plan the restoration of archaeological sites, in an exact and modern way, particularly on damaged and difficult to recover organic materials such as (wood chips, hazelnut shells, and seeds). As science advances, three-dimensional X-ray microscopy imaging techniques are now used to identify the quality of damaged materials that need to be restored (Ngan-Tillard et al., 2015). These components ensure the protection, sustainability, and integration of the heritage. Hence, archaeological sites management and exploitation must be based on the idea that it is a physical recording of human history, using various activities since it provides a valuable resource for gaining better knowledge on the past. According to various international regulations, archaeological monuments and sites must be preserved, notably the 1964 Venice Conference in Italy (Heritage and Copithorne, 2018). Concerning preservation and protection of archaeological sites, Algeria was part of the Convention for the protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage concluded in Paris and organised by UNESCO on November 16, 1972. Its most important clause in Article No. 4 is that each State Party recognizes the duty to cede the cultural and natural heritage within its region, its protection, preservation, repair, and transmission to future generations (1972 World Heritage Convention). Locally, Algeria adopted Law 98-04 of June 15, 1998, to protect cultural heritage, most importantly Article 30, which provides a protection and restoration plan in an archaeological site and its protected area. This protection and enhancement plan define the general rules of building and architectural planning when required, along with the consequences of land use, particularly concerning the activities allowed within the vicinity of the classified site or a protected area (law 98-04).

The promotion of tourism in world archaeological sites: archaeological sites are a form of the tourism industry. Their economic return differs from one country to another and one site to another, including their protection, preservation, and classification. For instance, China is one of the largest countries attracting foreign tourists to archaeological sites. Its total classified sites went from 7 in 1990 to 35 in 2007 (Yang et al., 2010). Local community understanding of heritage's importance directly impacts tourism marketing in the site (Teo et al., 2014). Studies indicate that the initiatives taken by the site managers, like financial discounts or free entrance to archaeological sites, will transform them into an open space that can become part of their daily life, and therefore help to bring the local community closer to this architectural and archaeological heritage connected to their identity (Burch et al., 2019). The promotion of tourism is not limited to governmental organizations only; it must involve the private sector, an important factor in developing tourism and economic expansion (Heierland, 2009). These archaeological sites can also be promoted through development programs involving tourist expansion zones near these sites where different accommodation facilities are established, including hotels and eco-villages, cultural and sports facilities, leisure parks, green spaces, and an equestrian zone. All these projects (Kherrou et al., 2020) are designed to meet national and international standards consistent with local characteristics.

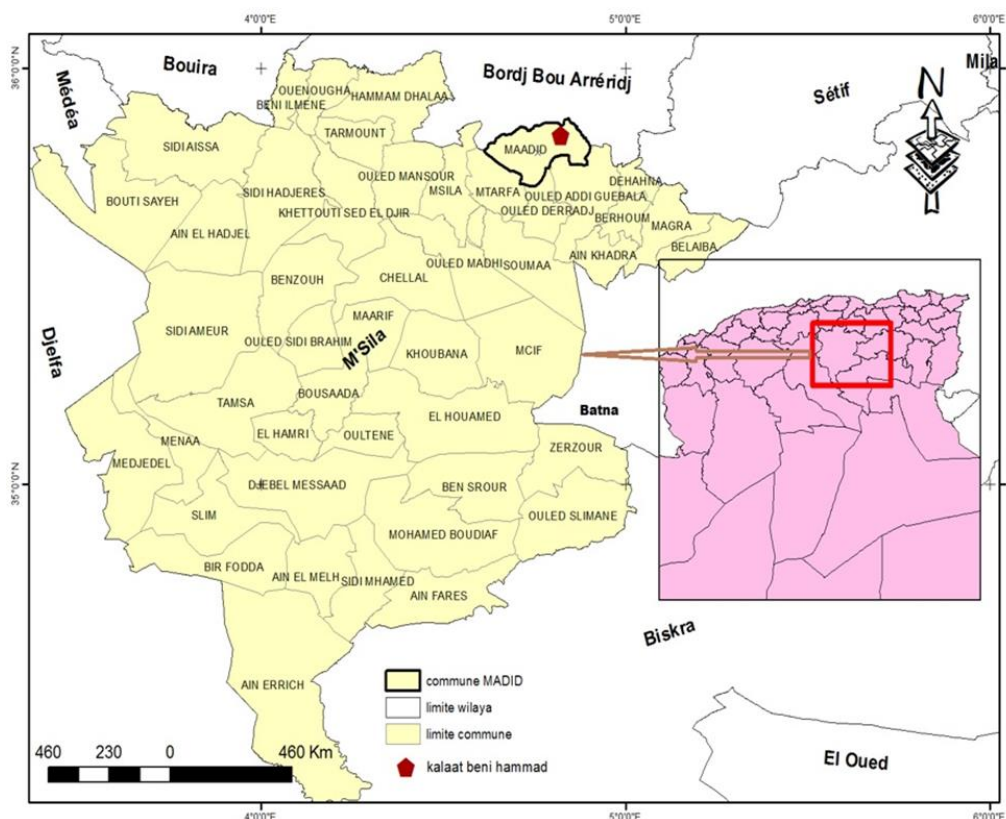


Figure 1. The geographical location of Bani Hammad Fort

Geographic setting of Bani Hammad fort

The archaeological site of Bani Hammad is located in Al-Ma'adhid municipality, in M' sila, 200 km south-east Algiers, on the slope of Mount Tekrbost (1418 m), at the north-eastern limit of al-Hudna plains, 36 km from M' sila town, the capital of M' sila province, as a plateau of about 950 meters above sea level (Glovin, 1962). Surrounded by mountain peaks, the city of M' sila is a naturally fortified site. It is limited to the west by the Jabal Qurain (1190 AD) and the east by the Aduqa mountain range, the peak of Sidi Sahab (1000m / 1400m) (Marc, 1996). Its position allowed it to control al-Hudna's plains from a defensive position against many other tribes (Saleh,

2009). The site is a highly famous tourist attraction given its proximity to tourist movement regions (Europe, the Middle East, Asia, and America). However, its climate is semi-dry with a precipitation rate of 50 mm per year and an average temperature of 15 degrees (PDAU, 2014), which favours recreational tourism beneficial for both blood circulation and pressure and the nervous and respiratory systems. The area also experiences snowfall in January and February, which gives it an elegant white suit.

The attractiveness of Bani Hammad's morphological planning

The Bani Hammad Fortress is one of the 7 sites in Algeria classified by UNESCO (The Beni Hammad Fortress, Tassili, Oued M'zab, Jamila, Tipaza, Timgad, Kasbah of Algeria) (Boutemedjet, 2011). It is also the second capital of a state established in the central Maghreb (Algeria) after the Rustamid dynasty. It was built by Hammad bin Belkin bin Zairi Al-Sunhaji Al-Barbari, following an agreement signed with "Badis bin Al-Mansur bin Belkin bin Manad Al-Sanhaji" in 1004 AD. It was built during the period 1007 - 1008 AD (Ibn Khaldun, 1961) to be the Hammadid state's capital, not by chance, but it was built according to a strategy of great importance in the conception of that period. Its principal strength was the military power. Hammad bin Belkin, the founder of the state, chose to establish his capital, "Qal' at Bani Hammad," in the center of the region, between the sea and the desert, to improve the lives of its inhabitants.

Qal' at Bani Hammad succeeded in ensuring the quality of coexistence between all the different communities and races united by the Islamic religion; a task rarely achieved in the cities of that time. It extended to the city of Kairouan in Tunisia, in the east, and to Fez's city in Morocco, in the west. Among the essential components of its urban planning, we find: - **The mosques:** Hammad bin Belkin built the Great Mosque and the Small Mosque in Qasr Al-Manar palace, where prayers and religious classes were held. The minaret of the Great Mosque is considered one of the oldest minarets in Algeria, composed of one single 24.70 m high tower Made of stones (Figure 2). This minaret is distinguished for its decoration and is considered as an architectural masterpiece. Some researchers suggest that it has influenced the Almohad minarets, especially the Seville Mosque minaret, which features structured decorations, forming three standing panels. Engineers and archaeologists consider the Great Mosque one of the most impressive archaeological remains of the Hammadid dynasty. It is illustrated in the figures and manuscripts found in the museum archives. In addition to the Great Mosque, in 1968, Algerian archaeologists discovered a small mosque at Qasr al-Manar palace, 160 meters long and 120 meters wide (Bourouiba, 1981).



Figure 2. The great mosque minaret and prayer hall (authors)

Walls and towers: The Hammadid princes surrounded the city of Bani Hammad, the base of their reign in the Middle Maghreb countries, by a 7km long wall making it impregnable difficult to reach, and strong easy to defend. The wall starts from the west coast of Wadi Faraj and then heads north until it reaches Mount Takerbost, then descends to Mount Qurain towards the eastern Shatt. Ibn Hammad in 1007 DC declares that the city and its wall was built by a roman called Buniyash (BinKhirbash, 2009). The Princes of Bani Hammad also constructed high and strong observation towers. Researchers highlight the Al Manar watchtower, distinguished by its height, which significantly contributed to its surveillance and defense. It is a square tower with a 20-meter side and surrounded by a guards' corridor.

Palaces and gates: There are three main gates in the Bani Hammad site (Bourouiba, 1977). Guard posts have been built on either side of each of them; these are small square towers designed to watch over the quarters, surrounding areas, entrances and exits. The three gates are Bab-aqwas, Bab al-Jinan, and Bab Jirawa. Archaeologists discovered three palaces within site: Qasr al-Manar palace, Qasr el-Bahr (the Lake palace), and Qasr el-salam (IbnKhaldun, 1961). Qasr Al-Manar palace consists of several buildings and halls of different shapes, including the Hall of Honour and the small mosque mentioned above. This palace was built in an exquisite artistic and architectural style. This is evidenced by the rectangular marble panels on the palace's north wall, crowned by a band decorated with geometric elements carved into the stone. There are also water basins, fruit trees, and fountains, making this palace a distinctive element of the beautiful hammadid architecture.

Qasr el-Bahr (the Lake palace) discovered during excavations carried out by the researcher Doble in 1908 A.D. Among its characteristics: an eastern cross-shaped entrance, two rows of rectangular rooms oriented from south to north, and a corridor paved with bricks (Figure 2). This palace comprises nine distinct and interconnected architectural groups (Balkherat, 1993). The Qasr Al-salam palace consists of four

rooms and a small hall that opens onto a rectangular 17.75-meter long chamber. The palace contains several rooms of different shapes and sizes. Some archaeologists claim the existence of a fourth palace in the fortress, named Qasr Al-kawkeb, yet nothing is known about it.

Accommodation: Discussing housing and habitat in Qal'at Bani Hammad requires historical texts, planning documents, excavations, and field research, which unfortunately are not available. Regarding the city's districts, it is evident that Qal'at Bani Hammad included several districts. Like other towns in Hammadid state, it was inhabited by different social groups. However, it is challenging to describe the districts' structure since most of them are still buried underground, except the Jarawah district, located near Bab Jarawah (Bourouiba, 1977).

The fortress preserves the remains of three basins and two bridges. Two of the basins are located in the Qasr Al-Manar palace and the third in the city's southern section. The upper basin of Qasr Al-Manar Palace is rectangular with a length of 4.90 m and a width of 1.30 m and a depth of 4.90 m, reached by an underground canal through its northern and eastern corners. The lower basin is located southwest of the upper basin, two meters shallower. The third basin is located in the southern part of the city. It is also rectangular with an internal length of 12 m, a width of 6 m, and a depth of 1 m, with well-fortified walls built with cylindrical fittings (Bourouiba, 1977). As for the bridges, Qala'at Bani Hammad included several bridges, and the remains of two of them can be found today, one in the western part of the city, over the valley between Qasr Al-salam palace and Jabal Qurain, and the second, called Sidi Issa Bridge, in the southern part of the city. The development of Qal'at Bani Hammad is mainly due to the arrival of scientists, engineers, and artisans who worked in the palaces and contributed to its prosperity through the diversity of trades such as decoration and forging (Andrey, 1984). According to the paper, modern remote sensing techniques are used to detect the extent of artifact susceptibility and reduce the occurrence of further damage (Sakka et al., 2020).

As we noticed from traces of trades, decoration, and many artefacts during our visit to the fort museum (Figure 3).



Figure 3. Some of the discovered pieces displayed inside the museum of Qala'at Bani Hammad

Through the above description and analysis, Bani Hammad fortress's morphological setting is suitable for tourism due to its natural, urban, historical, and even human resources, thus requiring an assessment of its tourist attractions, which we will examine in the following element. Based on (Figure 4), a three-dimensional representation of this beautiful fortress's components, including the houses, the protective walls, and the gates was obtained.



Figure 4. Three-dimensional representation of components of Bani Hammad fortress (authors)

Tourist traffic at Qal'at Bani Hammad archaeological site:

Tourism demand is defined as the total number of visitors to a specific region and over a given time (Gérard and Michel, 1999). Globally, tourism is influenced by two critical factors, the temporal factor and the spatial factor (Filipe et al., 2018). In the study area, we conducted a statistical analysis of tourist traffic over five years (2015-2019) on a group of tourists from inside and outside M'sila, considering that the municipality of Al-Ma'adhid, the host of the archaeological site, has 29,898 inhabitants, for a total number of M'sila residents estimated at 1.364,858 inhabitants (DPM, 2020), and also according to age groups (children, young adults, adults) using the SPSS statistical program, which is mainly based on a numerical basis (Vallabh et al., 2017). After processing the data, we established the following table:

Table 1. Statistical analysis of tourist traffic over five years using SPSS (DTAM, 2020)

	Fort BH			Museum BH			M'SILA		total	M'SILA	outside M'SILA	nation-al	
Years	Young Adults	Adults	Children	Young Adults	Adults	CHild-ren	S'fort visitors	Museum visitors	total	Rresult SPSS	S'fort visitors	Museum visitors	results SPSS
2015	3031	4339	2565	276	464	504	9935	1244	11179	0.18	5687	646	3
2016	2317	2706	2201	168	190	256	7224	614	15676	0.26	5375	487	28
2017	2760	2108	2997	110	218	592	7865	920	17570	0.3	3287	129	331
2018	4241	3413	3663	100	276	828	1204	11317	12521	0.2	12	0	645
2019	1938	3338	1287	137	285	310	6563	732	7295	0.12	19	6	357

In our analysis, we used spatial variables (fortress (Qala'a) - museum - local (province) - national - international), and age-related variables (children - young adults - adults). We used the SPSS statistical program specified for the parameter, 95% reached, and 5% not reached (Nicolae, 2020). Based on the above table, the fort attracted most foreign tourists during the years (2015 - 2016 - 2017), compared to the museum. No visits were recorded in the fort and the Museum from June 2017 because of the fencing construction around the archaeological site to protect it from vandalism (DTAM, 2020). The number of foreign visitors continued to decrease in 2018 and 2019, as shown in table (1). Visits were limited to foreign delegations from different countries, from 3 tourists in 2015 to 357 tourists in 2019, considering that the relative importance index of foreign tourists during the five years is not reached (<0.05) (Figure 5). Also, the percentage of foreign tourists is very low, compared to some recent international sites such as the Louvre Museum, reaching 9 million visitors per year (UNESCO, 2013).

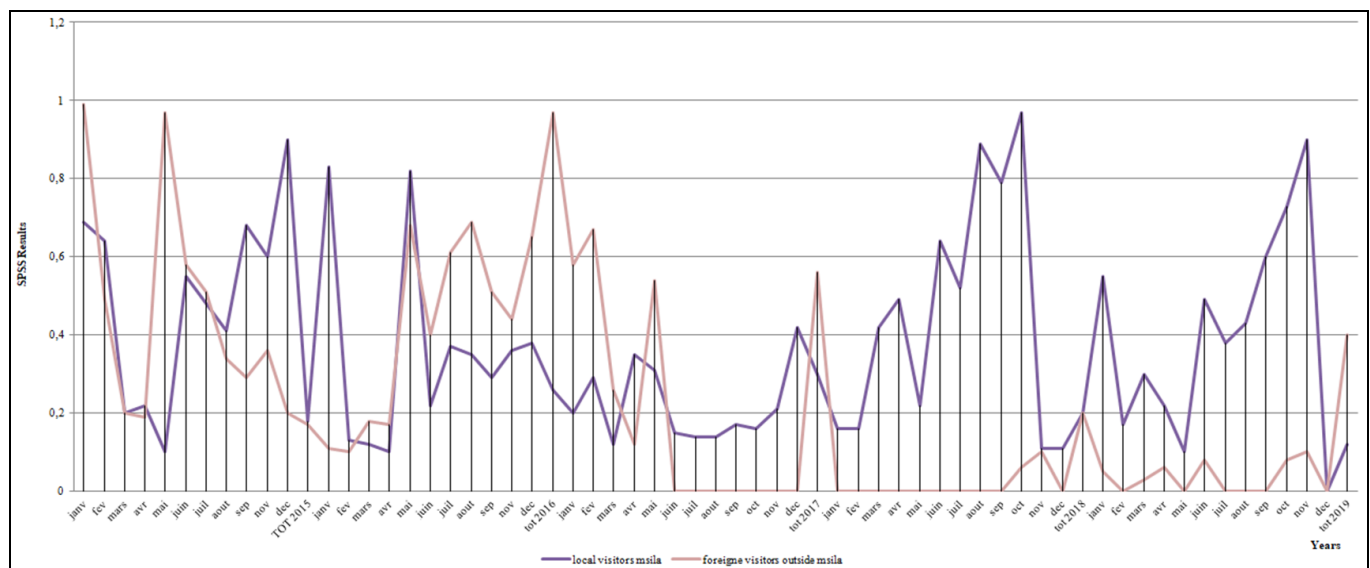


Figure 5. Comparison between local (from M'sila) and national tourists over the five years (Directorate of tourism and handicraft of M'sila Province, 2020)

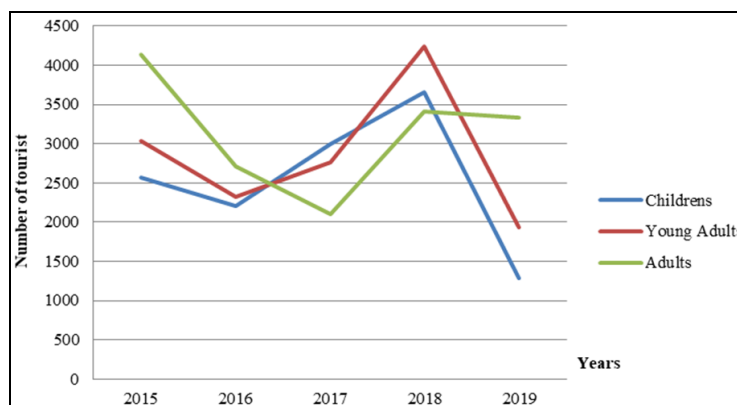


Figure 6. The Variation in tourism traffic by age groups over the five years (directorate of tourism and handicraft of M'sila Province, 2020)

We note that the number of visitors to the fortress exceeded that of the museum over the four years (2015, 2016, 2017, and 2019), while in 2018, the museum recorded a higher number of visitors with 1204 visitors against 828 visitors to the fortress. This was caused both by the lack of media and advertising and the fencing construction interrupted by Algeria's financial crisis in 2017 (Directorate of Culture M'sila, 2019). As for the age-group variables, we note that children are the most numerous to visit this touristic area, notably the museum, during the five years. In the first place, we find children with 504 visits, in second place young adults with 464 visits, and the third-place adults with 276 visits in 2015 (Site's Museum, 2020). The high number of children visiting the museum is due to the school trips for pupils to discover the archaeological tourist components of their region. Also, most families introduce their children to the history of their country by visiting museums and discovering the different periods of the region's history, plus visits organized by university students from different specialties, such as the archaeology department and the urban and tourist development department. Thus, the relative importance index is verified (>0.05) for the museum's visits by age group. We also note variations in visitors' numbers to the fortress: 1938 young adults, 3338 adults, and 1287 children visiting the fort in 2019. This disparity in the attraction of the age

groups is due to the steep field and the limited facilities available there, which makes it difficult for children to visit (Figure 6). These children prefer visiting the museum with its precious archaeological artefact of Qal'at Bani Hamad and its civilization. Based on these results, we considered elaborating a preservation plan for this archaeological site.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on this study, and within the sustainable tourism development approach, that takes into account the extent of the present generation exploitation of tourism resources without compromising the future generations, we designed a preservation plan for the Bani Hammad archaeological site, relying on UNESCO legal guidelines and studies, free from personal jurisprudence, to preserve archaeological sites and monuments (Kherrou et al., 2020), and from the 1904 Madrid conference known as the Sixth Meeting of Architects, where specific points discussed monuments, most importantly dividing antiques into living and dead monuments; and the most important conference about the restoration and rehabilitation of archaeological sites: the Charter of Venice in Italy in 1964, from which sixteen guidelines on the field of restoration of antiques emerged, and from this point of view we have divided the rehabilitation plan of the fortress into the following operations.

Archaeological excavations: Archaeological excavations are defined as investigating historical sites to reveal the architectural or artistic ruins likely to be found there (Asim, 1996). In this process, we target an area classified by UNESCO, estimated to 150 hectares, to continue the excavation work that has revealed only 30% of the Bani Hammad fortress. The first excavation in the area was carried out by the archaeologist (Blanchet, 1897), which lasted eight years, and UNESCO carried out the last excavation in 1982. Through our monitoring of tourist traffic, we had to improve the tourists' condition inside the reserve by advising and protecting them during the process of their visit, using environmentally friendly procedures without damaging the historical identity and function of the site, and using all scientific procedures in the restoration process, taking into account some of the following conditions:

- Archaeological remains: historic buildings that must remain unaltered or unchanged and cannot be removed from their place as they represent and reflect its history unless required by the national interest.

- Antiques from any building, such as statues and oil paintings, can be transferred from the original building to a safe place, like museums or equipped warehouses if keeping them in their place endangers them according to the Charter of Venice, Italy 1964

- The restoration process is very sophisticated and must comply with the requirements to avoid altering the building and to preserve and maintain the original construction materials together with the necessity to preserve any building documents, and avoiding personal bias or intuition during the process, and keeping records of all restoration work on monuments.

In this sense, we propose this project as part of this archaeological area's protection and preservation plan to become a tourist destination in line with the sustainable development of archaeological tourism, as shown in the following images with three-dimensional technology.

This intervention process is conducted at the fort external wall with the installation of orientation panels. The intervention procedure requires careful consideration of the existing wall features (structure, construction materials, size) to ensure that the new fencing wall does not affect the monuments' visual aesthetics. The intervention must also consider the protection of buried archaeological sections by not subjecting them to damage during fence installation. As for advertising signs, they are used to define the archaeological site and guide tourists; it is best to have archaeological symbols in several languages and different places (Figure 7).



Figure 7. Intervention process at the main gate entrance and external walls of the fortress (authors)



Figure 8. Intervention involving the construction of a protective roof on the Al Manar palace (authors)

They should accurately illustrate the castle's history in the advertising panels and entrances to its protected area. The construction of the site's protection wall is built 200 meters away from the site, away from any negative impact on antiquities, according to the recommendations of the 1964 Vienna Conference approved by UNESCO and the Algerian law 98-08 related to it. The second intervention process is where the archaeological excavations are left incomplete, leaving the site carved and exposed to vandalism and degradation. The idea here is to install wooden roofs over these pits, which does not deform the view and allows the tourists to experience this stage of archaeological study, which is the excavation (Figure 8). This proposal protects excavated areas from deterioration, mostly caused by rain, in which case, the excavations are stopped because the buried monuments will be affected. The roof is movable and secured only with sand to avoid altering the existing environment in line with UNESCO recommendations.

The third intervention concerns the al-Manar palace, one of the most important parts of the fortress. Its excavations are almost completed, and it houses massive buildings and columns. Visiting this palace takes a long time, and since the climate of the region is semi-arid, it is necessary to think about placing eco-friendly wooden roofs on the corridors to avoid the sun's harmful rays in summer and the rain in winter. These wooden roofs cover the intervention process in places frequented by tourists to protect. This intervention will not change the function and identity of the archaeological site according to the UNESCO regulations for the protection of the site.

Since the preservation process of archaeological sites involves restoration, reconstruction, and protection, some restoration and protective measures are required in this site, especially on the collapsing roof of the Great Mosque, which is causing structural damage to the building and depletion of its cohesion elements, along with a vegetation growth inside the cracks. Therefore, restoration must be carried out with the same original materials and same colour, giving it a new aesthetic shape, with great caution not to exert pressure on the structure during the restoration process while strengthening some of the curved parts. Its construction is beginning to fade, to preserve it some wooden pillars can be placed ensuring to maintain its identity according to UNESCO rules and regulations (Figure 9).

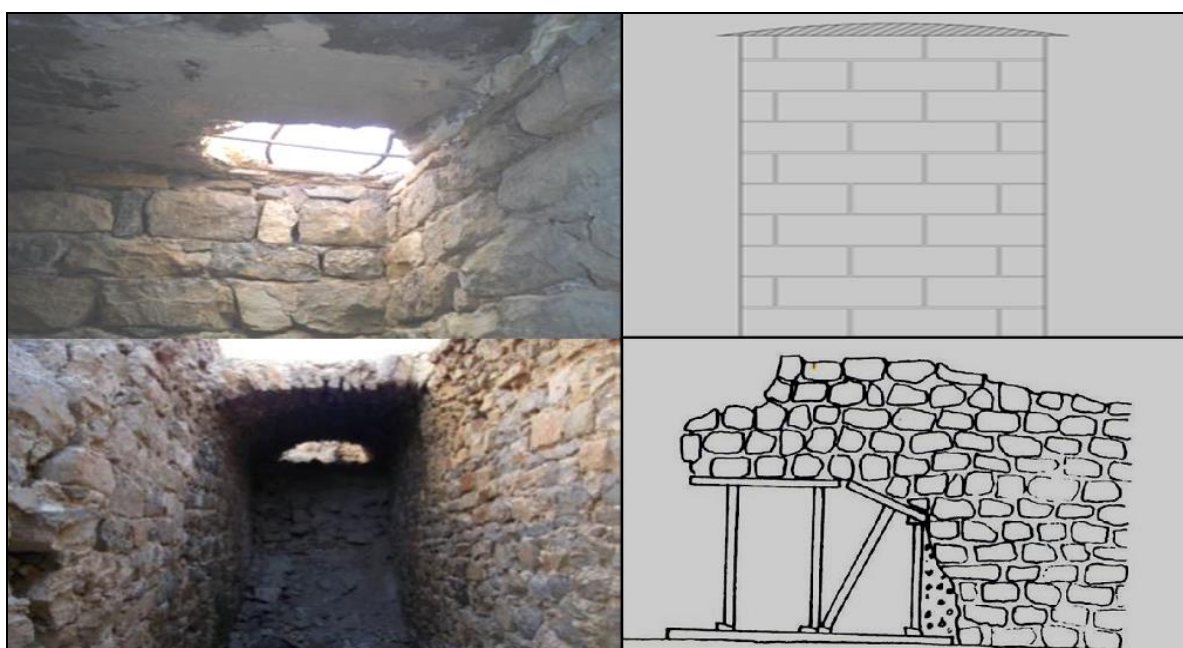


Figure 9. Some operations of restoration and protection of parts of the archaeological site (authors)

Improving tourist advertising and services

Tourism offers are the combination of a tourist site's natural and human resources. International museums and archaeological sites have taken significant steps to develop focused strategic policies, including attending international tourism exhibitions in Europe and Asia, to advertise them. One of the challenges in developing the Qal'at Bani Hammad site as a future tourist destination is the integration of new programs and views, including digital screen displays with 3D views of the site and its palaces and artefacts (Banfi, 2020), which will help to reshape the incomplete parts of the site. The Internet is now widely used worldwide, and promoting the introduction of cultural heritage as a cultural, educational, scientific, and tourist resource, enabling millions of its users to become familiar with the most important collections of both the fort's museum and its archaeological city. International museums and archaeological sites have also taken important steps to develop targeted strategic policies, including participation in international tourism fairs to promote them (Kimbu and Tichaawa, 2018).

Funding of the fort's rehabilitation plan

To implement this rehabilitation plan, it is necessary to find funding sources that contribute to the economic development of these underprivileged or hidden areas, this type of tourism do not require substantial advance investment, where the government is committed to supporting private and joint investment operations and remains the only monitor and legally authorised to control implementation of agreements and regulations for the rehabilitation of archaeological sites. Such investment defines a usable past (Van Der Vleuten, 2020).

CONCLUSION

Based on the cultural elements mentioned above at the archaeological site of the Qal' at of the Bani Hammad, and on what is presented in the archaeological preservation plan, this site and other listed monuments and archaeological sites can, in the short and long term, become a distinguished tourist destination for their natural, archaeological and human resources, as well as for their exceptional beauty and attractiveness. To preserve these sites for future generations, authorities must respect and comply with UNESCO's various regulations and agreements, thereby ensuring a sustainable tourism industry in our study area. The site can also become a permanent source of support for the public treasury and balance of payments and contribute effectively to the diversification of national revenue sources, which is the greatest challenge facing the Algerian economy today.

REFERENCES

- Aara, R.R., & Sofi, A.A. (2018). What Determines the Tourist Satisfaction: Evidence from Jammu and Kashmir-India. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Systems*, 11(2), 63-72.
- Amersh, S. (2005-2006). *Strategic Management for Confronting Crises: A Case Study of the Crisis of the Tourism Sector in Algeria*. Doctoral Dissertation, Faculty of Economic Sciences, Management and Commercial Sciences, University of Mohamed Boudiaf, Msila.
- Andrey, B. (1984). *Algerie: Passé et Présent [Algeria: Past and Present]*, University Press Office, Algeria.
- Asim, M. (1996). *L'archéologie entre théorie et pratique [Archeology between theory and practice]*, Madbouly Library, Egypt.
- Balkherat, A. & Bin Khoukh S.A. (1992-1993). *Les châteaux des Hammadi [Hammadi Palaces]*. Research report, Archeology Institute, University of Algeria, Algeria.
- Banfi, F. (2020). Dibujo 3d y realidad virtual aplicados a sitios arqueológicos y ruinas antiguas [HBIM, 3d drawing and virtual reality for archaeological sites and ancient ruins hbim]. *Virtual Archaeology Review*, 11(23), 23 - 36, (in spanish). <https://doi.org/10.4995/var.2020.12416>
- BinKhirbhash, N. (2009). *Les systemes d'irrigation et installation dans Qala'at Bani Hammad, une etude archeologique [Irrigation system and installations in Qala'at Bani Hammad, an archaeological study]*. Doctoral Dissertation, in Archeology, Department of Archeology, University of Algiers, Algeria.
- Blanchet (1897). *Note sur Qala'at Bani Hammad, [Note on the Qala'at bani hammad]*, Research report, C.R des insc et des belles lettres, Paris, France.
- Boutemedjet, S. (2011). *Strategies de conservation de l'heritage archeologique, cas du site de Madaure, Wilaya de Souk Ahras [Policies for the Conservation of the Archaeological Heritage, the Case of the Archaeological Site of Madaure, Souk Ahras Province]*, Doctoral Dissertation, Faculty of Earth Sciences, University of Annaba, Algeria.
- Bourouiba, R. (1977). *L'etat des Hammadi, histoire et civilisation [The Hammadi State, History and Civilisation]*. University Press Office, Algeria.
- Bourouiba, R. (1981). *L'art musulman en Algerie, [Muslim Religious Art in Algeria]*. (2nd edition), S.N.E.D, Algiers.
- Burch, J., Fluvia, M., Rigall i Torrent, R., Saló, A., & Alcalde, G. (2019). Free or paid: the uses of Roses Citadel (Catalonia). *Journal of Cultural Heritage Management and Sustainable Development*, 9(1), 111-120. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JCHMSD-11-2017-0073>
- Falconer, L., Burden, D., Cleal, R., Hoyte, R., Phelps, P., Slawson, N., Snashall, N., & Welham, K. (2020). Virtual Avebury: exploring sense of place in a virtual archaeology simulation. *Virtual Archaeology Review*, 11(23), 50-62. <https://doi.org/10.4995/var.2020.12924>
- Gérard, T., & Michel, Z. (1999). *Marketing touristique, [Tourism Marketing]*. (2 editions). Gaëtan Morin editor, Paris, France.
- Gilali, A. (1983). *Histoire generale de l'Algerie, partie 1 [General History of Algeria, Part 1]*. (sixth edition), Dar Al Thaqafa, Beirut, Lebanon.
- Glovin, L. (1962). *Le Maghreb central en temp des Zirides [the central Maghreb at the time of the Zirids]*. Adrien Maisonneuve, Paris, France.
- Heierland, I.D. (2009). Archaeological Park or "Disneyland"? Conflicting Interests on Heritage at Naqa in Sudan. *Egypte/Monde Arabe*, 5(6), 355-380. <https://doi.org/10.4000/ema.2908>
- Heritage, A., & Copithorne, J. (2018). *Sharing Conservation Decisions-Current Issues and Future Strategies*. International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property, ICCROM, Rome, Italy.
- IbnKhalidun, A. (1961). *Kitab al-Abr, Diwan al-Muhtada' et al-Khubar in The Days of the Arabs, Persians, and Berbers, and Their Most Influential Contemporaries]*. The School's Library and the Arab Book House, Beirut, Lebanon.
- Kherrou, L., Hattab, S., & Rezzaz, M.A. (2020). Archaeological sites and tourism: protection and valorization, case of Timgad (Batna) Algeria, *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 28(1), 25-36. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.28123-470>
- Kimbu, A.N., & Tichaawa, T.M. (2018). Sustainable development goals and socio-economic development through tourism in Central Africa: myth or reality?. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 23(3), 780-796. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.23314-328>
- Lazzarotti, O. (2003). Tourisme et patrimoine: ad augusta per angustia /Tourism and heritage: ad augusta per angustia. *Annales de Géographie*, 91-110.
- Marc, C. (1996). *Paysages et Heritage, Guide d'Algerie, [Landscapes and Heritage, Algeria Guide]*, Media Plus, Algeria.
- Marchetti, N., Angelini, I., Artioi, G., Benati, G., Bitelli, G., Curci, A., Marfia, G., & Roccetti, M. (2018). NEARCHOS. Networked archaeological open science: advances in archaeology through field analytics and scientific community sharing. *Journal of Archaeological Research*, 26(4), 447-469. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10814-017-9112-4>
- Newsome, D., Moore, S.A., & Dowling, R.K. (2012). *Natural area tourism: Ecology, impacts and management*. Channel view publications, Faculty of Business and Public Management, School of Marketing, Tourism and Leisure.
- Ngan-Tillard, D., Dijkstra, J., Verwaal, W., Mulder, A., Huisman, H., & Müller, A. (2015). *Under Pressure: A Laboratory Investigation into the Effects of Mechanical Loading on Charred Organic Matter in Archaeological Sites*. *Conservation and Management of Archaeological Sites*, 17(2), 122-142. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13505033.2015.1124179>
- Nwankwo, E.A., Anozie, O.O., & Obieluem, U.H. (2017). Sustainable safety and security at museums in Southeast Nigeria: implications for national reformation. *International Journal of Tourism Anthropology*, 6(1), 62-84. <https://doi.org/10.1504/IJTA.2017.088025>
- Reddy, M.V., Boyd, S.W., & Nica, M. (2020). Towards a post-conflict tourism recovery framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2020.102940>
- Rössler, M. (2006). World heritage cultural landscapes: a UNESCO flagship programme 1992-2006. *Landscape Research*, 31(4), 333-353. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01426390601004210>
- Sakka, A., Gerasopoulos, E., Liakakou, E., Keramitsoglou, I., & Zacharias, N. (2020). Spatial variability of aerosols over Greek archaeological sites using Space-Borne Remote Sensing. *Journal of Cultural Heritage*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.culher.2020.07.001>
- Saleh, Y. (2009). *Histoire des villes de Al-Messila and Qal'at Bani Hammad durant la periode islamique, etude historique et archeologique. [History of the Cities of Al-Messila and Qal'at Bani Hammad in the Islamic Period, Historical and Archaeological Study]*. Civilization Publications, Algeria.
- Teo, C.B.C., Khan, N.R.M., & Abd Rahim, F.H. (2014). Understanding cultural heritage visitor behavior: the case of Melaka as world heritage city. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 130(1), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.04.001>
- Vallabh, D., Ndzimeni, A., & Apleni, L. (2017). Assessing Community Engagement and Tourism Development: A case study of Nqileni, Bulungula Lodge in the Eastern Cape Province. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(4), 10.
- Van Der Vleuten, E. (2020). History and Technology in an Age of "Grand Challenges": Raising Questions. *Technology and Culture*, 61(1), 260-271. <https://doi.org/10.1353/tech.2020.0000>
- Yang, C.H., Lin, H.L., & Han, C.C. (2010). Analysis of international tourist arrivals in China: The role of World Heritage Sites. *Tourism Management*, 31(6), 827-837. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.08.008>
- *** DTAM (2020). Directorate of Tourism and Handicrafts of M'sila province. January 2020.
- *** Law, 98-04. (1998). Related to the protection of the cultural heritage, Algeria, Official Journal of the Algerian Republic, 44.
- *** OGEB (1991). National Office for the Management and Exploitation of Protected Cultural Properties .
- *** DPM (2020). Department of Programming and Monitoring Msila, Algeria.
- *** PDAU (2014). Urban planning and development master plan of Ma'adhid municipality, Algeria.
- *** UNESCO (2013). Tourists and inhabitants in the World Heritage Sites, acts of the 4th day: The Chair "Culture, Tourism, Development "The IREST and the EIREST, University of Paris 1 Panthéon-Sorbonne October 22 2013.P7, 8.
- *** Paris Conference (1972) Convention for the protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage was signed by UNESCO on November 16, 1972.

THE EARLY EDUCATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH LITERATION AS THE EFFORT OF DEVELOPING RURAL TOURISM

Ninis Agustini DAMAYANI

University of Padjadjaran (UNPAD), Library Science Study Program, Jl. Bandung-Sumedang KM 21 Jatinangor Indonesia, e-mail: ninis.agustini@unpad.ac.id

Encang SAEPU DIN*

University of Padjadjaran (UNPAD), Library Science Study Program, Jl. Bandung-Sumedang KM 21 Jatinangor Indonesia, e-mail: encang@unpad.ac.id

Neneng Komariah

University of Padjadjaran (UNPAD), Library Science Study Program, Jl. Bandung-Sumedang KM 21 Jatinangor Indonesia, e-mail: neneng.komariah@unpad.ac.id

Citation: Damayani, N.A., Saepudin, E., & Komariah, N. (2020). THE EARLY EDUCATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH LITERATION AS THE EFFORT OF DEVELOPING RURAL TOURISM. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 33(4spl), 1579–1584. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.334spl20-611>

Abstract: Awareness of environmental preservation begins with learning about environmental health for children in the tourist village area. The main objective of this program is to build a strong community foundation regarding the importance of environmental health in maintaining the balance of rural nature. The research objective was to determine the implementation and pattern of environmental health literacy education in the village of Paledah, Padoherang District, Pangandaran Regency. The research method used is qualitative. The consideration of choosing this method is the character of data that is able to maintain the integrity of the object. This means that research data is understood as an integrated unit. The process of collecting data was accomplished through interviews, discussions, observations, and library studies. Validity and reliability tests are carried out through the process of data triangulation and source triangulation—descriptive data analysis through stages of data reduction, data presentation, and conclusion drawing. Sources of data in this study are 5 persons. They are the managers of a tourist village 3 people and two people of parents' students. The results showed that there were five components in the implementation of environmental health literacy education in Paledah, Padoherang District, Pangandaran Regency. The components are (1) learning starts from simple experience, (2) provides positive experiences outside the house, (3) focuses on experience rather than teaching, (4) shows the person who cares about the environment and pleasure being in the real world, (5) the teacher as a model in maintaining the natural environment. The pattern of learning environmental health literacy involves four main elements, namely the teacher, children as students, parents, and learning media. Through this pattern, a synergy of instructors in village tourism managers and parents at home can be built to act in harmony in providing environmental health literacy for children, especially regarding the control of the implementation of environmental health literacy in children's daily lives.

Key words: education, environmental health, health literacy, rural tourism

* * * * *

INTRODUCTION

Development of rural tourism based on the development of natural, agricultural, social, and local cultural potentials can be a potential development for tourism-based communities. Nature-based community development can include the role and participation of rural communities (Rorah, 2012). This is in line with the development of natural resources and human resources they have. It must be a concern in developing tourism villages, namely how the community can be encouraged and developed continuously. So the potential of the village and the community can be optimally developed. Through the continuous exploration of the village and the community's potential, the development of tourism villages can have a maximum impact on farmers' welfare and rural communities.

This was proven in Dewi (2013) research regarding the development of village tourism based on community participation. The results of the study illustrate that the development of tourism villages must run according to the needs of the community. This is based on the context of guaranteeing community involvement in the process of developing rural tourism. In order for the community to have guarantees to be involved in all the development processes, the political will of the government is needed to reduce its role in developing tourism villages. In this case, the government provides a greater role to the community by opening space for the community to participate.

In addition, Zakaria and Suprihardjo (2014), in their research, stated that the development of tourism villages must be based on the development of non-spatial concepts. The things that must be done in the development of tourism villages are based on non-spatial concepts, which is to make customs as a regulation in tourism activities, involving local communities and community leaders in tourism village development, and implementing zoning regulations or government policies that govern the development process. This illustrates the local wisdom in this case, the noble values that develop in the community must be the foundation in the tourism village development. The manifestation of local wisdom lies in the lives of people who know their environment well, and people live side by side with nature in harmony, and understand how to use natural resources wisely. Local wisdom in the form of natural resource and environmental management is a form of community conservation (Komariah et al., 2018). What needs to be underlined in his opinion is that Zakaria and Suprihardjo (2014) involves the local community and community leaders in the tourism village development. Community involvement here means community participation. Community participation in village development is absolutely necessary. Community involvement in the development of tourism villages become the biggest capital, while local communities have understood the condition of the area entirely and deeply. Thus they will make a very large contribution in all stages of the development of tourism villages.

Increasing participation in the development of tourism villages must be carried out by increasing direct the community involvement in various stages of activities ranging from planning, implementation, to the evaluation stage of the program. Three basic elements are needed to build community involvement in a development program, namely the willingness, opportunity, and ability to participate. The willingness to participate is a key factor for the growth and development of community participation in the development of the tourism village. Adequate opportunities and abilities do not guarantee the growth and development of community participation. If the community has the ability and has been given the opportunity to participate but internally does not have the will, the participants will be low (Saepudin et al., 2018).

* Corresponding author

One that requires community involvement in the development of tourism villages is the maintenance of the environment. A clean, comfortable, beautiful, and attractive environment is the main thing in developing tourism villages. Maintenance of environmental health is unlikely to succeed if it does not involve the community. Community awareness and involvement is the key to the success of creating environmental health. Therefore, environmental health education is needed so that society becomes literate towards the environment. Through the process of environmental health education, it is hoped that the community will have a concern for environmental preservation by having knowledge, skills, and actions in maintaining the integrity of the environment. By having this knowledge, people are expected to be agents of reformation as well as guardians of environmental preservation. An environmental expert stated that it was important for the community to have insight into the environment. "Environmental education becomes important for the community because the world is having imbalances (disequilibrium)" (Wuryadi, 2009). Furthermore, he argued that the quality of the environment and natural resources were declining. Based on this, environmental health education is important to build public awareness about the importance of maintaining balance and environmental preservation. Based on the background that has been explained, it can be described that awareness of environmental preservation begins with learning about environmental health for children in the tourism village area. The main objective of this program is to build a strong community foundation regarding the importance of environmental health in maintaining the balance of rural nature. Thus the purpose of the study was to determine the implementation and pattern of environmental health literacy education in the village of Paledah, Padaherang District, Pangandaran Regency.

Disinger and Roth (1992) quoted by Zaini (2002) said that, in the age of digital technology that hit the world of children, they became more closed to the outside world. They enjoy themselves with the digital world without giving attention to the time and environment. As a result of this condition, many small children are at risk of not being able to develop positive attitudes and feelings towards the environment or achieve a healthy level of competence. Wilson (1996) quoted by Zaini (2010) explained that better that they learn to interact positively with the environment early on, so that the development of children's health will grow and through nature, they can find sources of "human sensitivity."

Learning is a process of changing a person both on cognitive, affective, and conative aspects. Craven and Hirnle (1996) in Suliha (2002), through the learning process, humans experience behavioral changes. This is in line with the views of Craven, he stated that "Education is the addition of one's knowledge and abilities through practical learning techniques or instructions, with the aim to remember facts or real conditions, by giving encouragement to self-direction (self-direction), actively providing information -information or new ideas" (Suliha, 2002:54).

Based on the understanding of learning, the process of awareness of the environment should be done early. This means giving an understanding of the environment to children is the right thing because early childhood is often referred to as the golden age. Prastiti (2008) in A'yun and Prihartanti (2015) said these periods are critical times where a child needs the right stimulation to achieve perfect maturity. Through the learning process about the environment, it is expected that children have a strong understanding of the environment so that it becomes the foundation in the future. In addition, this process is expected to be able to create a literate society towards the environment.

The process of learning early childhood starts from the family environment. The family is the closest environment to the child. Thus the family is the first learning environment and the closest to the child. The implication is that Education is given in the home environment also has an effect. If environmental Education is carried out continuously between school and family, it will certainly be more effective than children who only get it at school and without remembering it at home. Thus, between school and family must synergize in the child's learning process regarding the environment. This is based on the Minister of Education and Culture Regulation on 2013 Curriculum for Early Childhood Education, in Article 1 mentioned that "Early Childhood Education, which later abbreviated as PAUD, is an effort aimed at providing guidance to children from birth to the age of 6 (six) years through the provision of educational stimulation to help growth and physical and spiritual development so that children have the readiness to enter further education" (Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia, 2014). Based on the background described, this study aims to determine the implementation and pattern of environmental health literacy education in tourism villages. The learning patterns of environmental health literacy will be the findings in this study. Through this pattern, various patterns can be developed further to be applied to a wider environment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The process of learning about the environment for children will help to build awareness early in children. Through this process it is expected to be able to give birth to a society that is literate about the environment. Early childhood learning process starts from the family environment. The family is the closest environment to the child. Thus the family is the first learning environment and the closest to the child. If environmental education is carried out on an ongoing basis between school and family, of course it will be more effective than the child only getting it at school and without remembering it at all at home. Thus between school and family must work together in the learning process of children about the environment. The phenomenon of environmental literacy can be assessed through a qualitative approach especially case studies. The method used is qualitative. The choice of this approach takes into consideration that the nature of the research data is able to maintain the integrity of the object. This means that data relating to research is understood as an integrated unit. Through this method, the presentation of data from the research results will be carried out descriptively based on qualitative facts. Research data is described in accordance with the facts of the results of field studies (Moleong, 1999:15). This is in line with the opinion of Gunawan (2013) which states that "The qualitative method seeks to understand and interpret the meaning of an event of human behavior interaction in certain situations according to the researchers' own perspectives. Research that uses qualitative research aims to understand the objects under study in depth" (Gunawan, 2013:3). In addition, Raco (2018) emphasizes the characteristics of qualitative research, namely "The first characteristic of a qualitative method is its emphasis on the natural environment. "Natural" means that data is obtained by being in the place where the research will be made. The data is found directly from the first hand" (Raco, 2018:56). Specifically this research uses a case study approach. "Case Study is a series of scientific activities carried out intensively, in detail and in-depth about a program, event, and activity, both at the level of individuals, groups of people, institutions, or organizations to gain in-depth knowledge about the event. Usually, the events chosen hereinafter referred to as cases are actual (real-life events), which are taking place, not something that has passed" (Rahardjo, 2017:3). Sources of data in this study taken from 5 people, they are the managers of a tourist village 3 people and two people of parents' students. They act as informants who understand the subject matter that is the object of research namely environmental health literacy education. The process of collecting research data was accomplished through interviews, discussions, observations, and library studies. The process of testing validity and reliability was accomplished through data triangulation and source triangulation. Descriptive data analysis was accomplished through stages of reduction, presentation, and conclusion & verification (Miles and Huberman, 1992:25).

The steps of the research carried out can be described as follows. The researchers conducted various observations to obtain data directly from primary sources, correctly to see the situation of a location, a life, the atmosphere of life, and to participate in various activities. The observations used in this study are observation of participation and non-participation that is adjusted to the object or target being observed. Participatory observation is an observation made with the observer directly involved actively in the object under study.

So in conducting this research, the researchers will go directly to the location of the study to review and observe the problems that will be actively investigated by the researchers together. After the collection of data, the next step was to analyze the data. Data analysis was the processes of systematically searching and compiling data obtained from the interviews, field notes, and the documentary by organizing categorical data, describing it into units, synthesizing and compiling the in the patterns, choosing what is essential and what will be learned, and made conclusions so that they were easily understood by themselves and others. The purpose of research in data analysis was to narrow down and limit the findings to become one data that was more meaningfully ordered and organized.

The data analysis process begins by examining all available data from various sources, namely from interviews, observations that have been written in field notes, personal documents, and official documents. The data is a lot of about a myriad. After reading, studying, and analyzing, the next step is to conduct data reduction, which is carried out by doing abstractions. Abstraction is an attempt to make a summary of the core, process, and statements that need to be maintained so that it remains in it. The next step is to arrange them in units. The unit is then categorized in the next step. The category was created while coding. The final stage of this data analysis is to conduct a data validity check.

RESULTS DISCUSSIONS

Rural tourism is a series of tourism activities that utilize natural and agricultural potential as its objects. This is in line with Dewi (2013) opinion that a tourist village is one form of implementing community-based and sustainable tourism development. Through the development of tourism villages, it is expected that there will be equality in accordance with the concept of sustainable tourism development. (Dewi, 2013: 131). In addition, Dewi emphasized that a tourism village is a form of integration between attractions, accommodation, and supporting facilities that are presented in a structure of community life that is integrated with the prevailing procedures and traditions (Dewi, 2013: 131). Therefore, public awareness of the environment is very important. Community involvement in maintaining the beauty and sustainability of the environment is the key to the success of developing a tourist village. Without community participation in building environmental preservation, the tourism village development program cannot be realized. Therefore, the initial awareness process of the community towards environmental preservation is considered to be the superior program for tourism village managers.

The environmental preservation awareness program starts with learning about environmental health for children in the tourist village area. The main objective of this program is to build a strong community foundation regarding the importance of environmental health in maintaining the balance of rural nature. In addition, the managers of tourist villages have the belief that children learn about healthy interactions with the environment through the people closest to them, parents and friends in the village tourism manager. Village tourism manager stated that it would be better if they learn early to interact positively with the environment. This statement is in line with the opinion of Wilson (1996) quoted by Zaini (2010) that, "Children should learn to interact positively with their environment in order to grow and develop children's health. In addition, through nature, they can find sources of human sensitivity. Through this learning process regarding environmental health, literary and caring communities will be built".

The more awareness about environmental health is built, the easier the goal of environmental preservation in developing natural balance will be realized. The Minnesota Office of Environmental Assistance in Haske and Wulan (2014) describes environmental literacy as, "Knowledge and understanding of individuals towards aspects that build the environment, principles that occur in the environment, and are able to act to maintain the quality of the environment that is applied in daily life. Therefore, in order to develop environmental literacy, environmental Education must develop an understanding of the ecological system, cause-effect of the relationship between human attitudes and behavior towards the environment, and foster environmentally responsible behavior. "Based on this understanding, it can be concluded that environmental literacy is the ability to understand how important it is to preserve the environment for life today and for the next life in the future" (Haske and Wulan, 2014). Based on this understanding, environmental literacy can be explained as a process of public awareness about the importance of maintaining environmental preservation. Therefore, this process must be carried out by all parties. Yanti (2013) states that increasing environmental literacy to the community can be done through the learning process. Learning about environmental awareness will be more embedded if done early. This means that the process of public awareness of environmental preservation must be carried out starting from children. There are several reasons why children are so important to get environmental literacy education, namely 1) positive interaction with the natural environment is an important part of developing children's health, 2) can improve learning skills and quality of life throughout the life journey of children, 3) children will view nature as a source of admiration, excitement and charm. 4) the soul of the child will be enriched by nature and through nature, they will find sources of human sensitivity. Thus the purpose of environmental literacy education for children is to develop respect and responsiveness to the surrounding environment. The focus of education is the ability of children to explore and enjoy the natural world. This is expected to be carried out under the guidance and cooperation with parents so that children have operational literacy skills.

Based on these reasons, the implementation of environmental health literacy education covers several components, namely (1) starting from simple experiences, (2) often providing positive experiences outside the house, (3) focusing on experience rather than teaching, (4) showing personal interest the environment and pleasure are in the real world, (5) the teacher as a model in maintaining and the natural environment. The first component has the consideration that children will learn more successfully through experiences related to what they already know and know. So a good starting place is a similar environment to what they already know. Activities in supporting this component are (a) Planting hard trees (rambutans, guava) on the house yard, besides being a shade plant that makes fresh air, the fruit can be consumed as well as branches can be used by children to climb or make swings, (b) Making a slide on the river embankment, in addition to a nice view of the grass spread green, (c) Making the unpleasant experience due to interacting with the environment such as being bitten by ants as a natural thing, so that the child should not crying, (d) not afraid of dirty and make them used to play on muddy soil.

The consideration of implementing the second component is that children learn best through direct and concrete experiences. They need to learn directly into the environment to learn it. This experience should be given every day. This is far better if implemented by providing simple but sustainable experiences. Some activities that support this second component are (a) Introducing plants and their benefits, including herbal medicines, like the leaves of guava seeds as diarrhea medicine, (b) introduce animals around children, (c) Introducing plants that can be consumed even though they are not normally sold on the market, such as basil leaves and cashew leaves. Consideration of the third component is that children learn through discovery and activities carried out on their own initiative. Therefore, parents should be able to act as a facilitator as well as a teacher. Learning for children requires active involvement by manipulating directly sensing and exploring on their own initiative. The material that is part of this component is (a) teaching children to ride a bicycle better than riding a motorbike, (b) teaching about the dangers of water and fire, (c) introducing the five senses, (d) introducing the taste of vegetables, such as pariah taste bitter.

Determination of the next component, namely the expression of teacher interest in nature and enjoyment of nature is critical to achieving success for children's environmental education programs. Showing directly growing vegetables, such as water spinach, mustard green, green beans will build emotional attachment between children and their environment. The material that is part of this component is

(a) teaches plants for toys, such as banana midribs, (b) invites children to water the plants, (c) invites to love the environment, for example inviting trees to plant, (d) showing personal pleasure in the natural environment beautiful and directing children also like, (e) making cakes from the plant's production. The fifth component has the consideration that parents and teachers should be a model in maintaining and respecting the environment. Talking with children about maintaining the environment is far less effective than showing simple ways to preserve the environment. Some activities that support the implementation of this component are (a) teach them how to manage careless waste, for example, diapers are buried, (b) maintaining plants, for example: watering, fertilizing, (c) raising pets, for example feeding chickens before bathing cats, before they go to tourism village manager, (d) get to know the outer habitat (snake, rat) (e) recycle plastic waste, make handicrafts from drink bottles, coffee packs. Based on the results of data acquisition and processing, the researchers found this pattern of environmental health literacy involving four main components namely teacher, children as students, parents, and learning media. The implementation of environmental health literacy involves students actively, using the role of teacher who is also active, and cooperative support from parents of students. In providing environmental health literacy, parents and teachers' assistance is needed as the closest and most responsible adult for the child's development process. Assistance from adults do not only have functions to control the content, but also screen time and habitually. The consistency that continues to be built is expected to produce independent awareness in children. Based on the results of interviews conducted, the parents participated in applying the understanding of environmental health to children at home through daily activities, such as procedures for disposing of garbage, sorting waste, procedures for using clean water and others. This activity is under the supervision and assistance of parents. Thus there is a balance of learning at home and at the learning place. This data is obtained from the results of interviews with parents. In general, they have set a time to provide assistance to children in strengthening understanding of environmental health literacy. This can be interpreted that parents have implemented a screen time limit that is appropriate and coordinating with the management of tourist villages. But even so, parents also admit that it is difficult to apply these rules to children due to the tantrums of children who sometimes appear.

If reviewed based on communication patterns according to Tubbs and Moss (2005) communication patterns in literacy education activities environmental health in the tourist village area is communication in many directions, also known as transactional communication. Communication with this type really leads to the activeness of all parties in a learning activity. Not only instructors who convey something, but also students can freely respond to the teacher, even done back and forth. Likewise, students can communicate communication materials, in accordance with the principles of early childhood learning that focus on children, or student learning centers (SCL).

The method used is coordination with parents of children about environmental health literacy. This method is not a method that directly becomes a way of providing educational material to children, but as a supplement or supporting action that is important for the effectiveness of the Education provided. The village tourism management is well aware of the importance of coordination to be carried out. This coordination is done so that there is consistency in learning, namely the learning process in the tourism village management environment and learning in the Ruman / family environment. Based on interviews and observations, it can be seen that consistency is a necessary and very important thing to be implemented in the implementation of environmental health literacy education for children in a tourist village environment. Consistency in question is the synergy of the instructors in tourism village managers and parents at home to act harmoniously in providing environmental health literacy for children, especially regarding the control of the implementation of environmental health literacy in children's daily lives. So that the teacher and parents need to provide environmental health literacy is not only limited to sharpening the child's ability to know cognitively but the child can understand and do it based on the knowledge they get.

The control process that is emphasized in environmental health literacy learning in tourism village managers will not succeed if the parents who live at home with the child do not work together, are inconsistent, or do not have agreed agreement rules. Coordination with parents is not only in environmental health literacy, but for all learning provided. Specifically for learning related to environmental health literacy, the village tourism management's efforts to optimize the education that has been provided are to provide advice on parenting and the concept of literacy of environmental health in passing to the parents. Parents who have environmental health literacy skills will find it easier to synergize with tourism village managers in an effort to distribute children to the environment. Although the ability of parents to be well-legalized is not the responsibility of the manager of the tourism village in full, but parents as adults closest to children need to build an agreement to provide literacy skills to children so that both parties must have a harmonious understanding. That harmony can give rise to greater opportunities for optimizing Education for children related to environmental health literacy skills.

Based on the interviews and observations that the researchers made to the parents of the students, parents have been well-literate through the various information media available today. Media information that helps parents to have a literate attitude includes digital-based information media such as through social media, websites, or television shows. All methods applied in the study of environmental health literacy are done as optimally as possible, however, the success of Education so that children have environmental health literacy skills can still not be separated from the child's own ability to absorb material and values in learning. Stimulation so that children are able to focus on learning including using teaching media. Learning media with teaching aids is highly recommended. Most learning methods also use teaching media in delivering environmental health literacy.

Learning Process Literacy for Environmental Health

The purpose of environmental health literacy learning for early childhood is that they get the knowledge in maintaining environmental preservation so that they have experience in solving problems in the future. Environmental health literacy learning objectives must be prepared using the principles of child development. Every learning that the child receives, is expected to be able to develop in accordance with the realm of child development. This development area is also called the children's learning area.

The division of the domain includes several points as quoted by the Personal, Pribadi et al. (2014) namely (a) cognitive; this domain describes intellectual abilities from low to high levels. The lowest cognitive goal is the ability to recall information (recall). While the higher cognitive goals are intellectual skills, (b) affective; this domain involves feelings and values. In this case, the teacher has the duty to instill positive values in individual students, (c) psychomotor; this domain is the ability to use physical skills. Psychomotor goals consist of simple and mechanical skills to skills that are more complex and use strategies, and (d) interpersonal; this domain describes the ability to connect with other people. Someone who has interpersonal skills is able to interact with others effectively.

The four domains of the learning area are expected to be achieved entirely by children in each learning, including in environmental health literacy learning. Although environmental health literacy education is in fact more inclined to prioritizing the achievement of children's cognitive abilities in understanding the environment, other fields of affective and psychomotor remain a concern in the learning process. The level of achievement in each domain is adjusted according to the portion, depending on which area is the priority focus.

Some of the competencies expected to be achieved by children from the environmental health literacy education process are (a) cognitive domain; curiosity, knowing how to solve everyday problems and behaving creatively, and getting to know objects around them that are related to the natural environment. In the affective domain, the competencies that children are expected to achieve are respecting themselves,

others, and the surrounding environment as gratitude to God, reflecting self-confident behavior, and having independent behavior. Whereas domain of psychomotor development, children are expected to have competencies such as using part of their bodies for the development of rough and fine motor skills. The fourth domain, namely the interpersonal domain has a focal point in the development of children related to the ability to socialize with others around and involves emotional ties. The process of environmental health literacy education for early childhood can be described in three stages of learning, they are initial activities, core activities, and final activities. The initial activity of learning begins with the process of teacher appreciation of the environment that is near and has been recognized by the children. This perception includes the introduction of rules of play and discussion, such as when the teacher explains about the function of clean water and how to use it. By giving the children's initial understanding through apperception, it will help children to build their cognitive readiness in learning in environmental health learning activities. This appreciation activity should be assisted by direct media or indirect media. The use of media will make it easier for children to understand the appreciation material delivered.

The initial activity in the form of appreciation is the teacher's effort to prepare children, both physically and psychologically, to participate in learning activities. This is in line with the mandate of Minister of Education and Culture Regulation No. 137 of 2014 concerning National Standards for Early Childhood Education, especially in Article 15 that the opening of learning activities as referred to in paragraph (2) letter a is an effort to prepare students psychologically and physically to do various learning activity. In addition, this appreciation process is in line with the theory put forward by Wang, Kinzie, McGuire, and Pan (2009) that the appreciation process can help children's cognitive and metacognitive processes to develop properly. In this apperception activity, the child is given an initial understanding so that he can help the child achieve his two metacognitive stages in thinking, which is knowledge to understanding.

The method used in the appreciation stage is the method of conversation. The conversation method is the process of interaction between the teacher and the child, and one child with other children converse with the stimulation provided by the teacher and the response will continue to emerge within the limits of certain learning themes. Through the method of conversation the teacher can find out the child's attitude towards his environment in daily life. Apperception also includes the introduction of playing rules and discussions, such as when the teacher explains the function of clean water and how to use it.

After submitting the apperception, in the initial activity the teacher gives environmental health literacy education in the form of a game. The concept of learning while playing is not a foreign concept for the world of early childhood education. Each educational institution established specifically for early childhood applies the concept by referring to the Minister of Education and Culture Regulation No. 137 of 2014 which explains that the implementation of themes and sub-themes as referred to in paragraph (1) is carried out in development activities through play and habituation. So that it is clear, in the course of learning in the scope of Early Childhood Education using the concept of learning while playing as a foundation in every material that will be delivered. Providing material through games does not make children feel saturated or depressed, often children ask teachers to repeat learning activities because it feels fun for them (Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia, 2014). Environmental health literacy education delivered by the game method can achieve better children's attention so that it is placed in the initial activity. Children become interested in participating in the next learning material in class. Through these games, children can sharpen their environmental health literacy skills. This is in line with Kazakoff (2014) opinion which states that, "Learning and playing are cooperative, of the 6 abilities a child must be able to do is learn and play cooperatively". This means that in addition to playing, children must also be able to learn cooperatively or balanced. Namely learning and playing are done simultaneously, not just learning continuously or playing continuously. Thus the teacher as a curriculum developer, must use the right methods, mix learning so that it can be accepted by the child effectively and remain appropriate.

The second stage in the process of learning environmental health literacy is the core activity. The core activity is a follow-up activity from the initial activity. Unlike the initial activities which were still mixed with activities outside of environmental health literacy education, the core activities contained material that was directly related to the sub-themes of environmental health literacy education. The method used in the learning process is demonstration. Through the demonstration method children can focus on observing and looking at the material presented. The observation aspect is filled in for the teacher to get attention from the child when explaining the material about environmental health characteristics. Through this process of observing, children get new knowledge that goes into their cognition and then stimulates children to ask with the nature of their curiosity.

At this stage the child has entered into the questioning aspect. To foster curiosity in children, teachers will motivate children to ask about environmental health discussed at that time, so that their questions will be directed more. The teacher will discuss the questions that arise with the child, so the answers become easier for the child to understand. At this stage the child enters the aspect of gathering information. Furthermore, the child will be motivated to explore the information he gets with the case in his daily life. The last aspect is communicating. Children can communicate and retell information that they can get through their understanding of its application in daily life. This rapid interaction takes place continuously as long as the child continues to explore the knowledge he wants to have.

Through core activities, children are expected to have competencies that tend to be cognitive in nature such as curiosity and critical thinking about environmental health. In addition, in providing environmental health literacy education for children, developing fine and rough motor skills to be involved in it. Therefore, the use of teaching media in addition to using direct media, the use of conventional media such as magazines, origami paper, paper for drawing and coloring, glue, etc. need to be a balance.

After the core activities are finished, the learning continues with recalling. In recalling activities, children are given reinforcement of knowledge after getting it through initial activities and core activities. This reinforcement is given by the teacher lightly but densely, and aims to ensure that the child truly understands and instills the value and knowledge he has gained.

The third stage in the process of environmental health literacy education is the final activity. The final activity is a learning activity that lasts for approximately 30 minutes. In the final activity, children are no longer given material as dense as the core activities. The final activity has similarities with the initial activities that embed other activities besides understanding environmental health material. The activities carried out were reinforcement, discussions that discussed the day's activities, messages from the teacher, singing, and praying before going home. The strengthening segment and discussion about learning that day were the time for environmental health literacy education activities. The method of training, demonstration, discovery or experimentation, conversations, telling the story, or storytelling is the method of delivering environmental health literacy education in the final activity.

During the final activity film screenings are often conducted on environmental health. The purpose of this media is to give children enthusiasm to participate in the whole series of learning at the beginning of the day. Tips on learning strategies in early childhood education, one of which is to use media and visual aids. "Learning by using digital devices will stimulate children's understanding more deeply after receiving the learning given at the initial activity and previous core activities" (Hoy, 2004:68). According to Pribadi et al., (2014) the brain can receive information in the form of images more quickly. In the learning process in the classroom, teachers generally only rely on the delivery of material with verbal language. Though teachers need to use a variety of learning media in facilitating children's learning processes. Audio, video, and animation media and multimedia programs can be used to further improve children's learning outcomes.

CONCLUSION

There are five components in the implementation of environmental health literacy education carried out by tourism village managers. The components are (1) starting from a simple experience, (2) providing a positive experience outside the house, (3) focusing on experience rather than teaching, (4) showing the person who cares about the environment and pleasure in the real world, (5) the teacher as model in maintaining the natural environment. The pattern of scanning environmental health literacy involves four main elements, namely the teacher, children as students, parents, and learning media.

Thus the synergy of the instructors in the management of tourism villages and parents at home was built to act harmoniously in providing environmental health literacy for children, especially regarding the control of the implementation of environmental health literacy in children's daily lives. So that teachers and parents need to provide environmental health literacy is not only limited to sharpening children's ability to know cognitively but children can understand and do it based on the knowledge they have got.

The stages of environmental health learning consist of the initial, core, and final stages. The initial activity of learning begins with the process of teacher appreciation of the environment that is near and has been recognized by the child. This perception includes the introduction of rules of play and discussion, such as when the teacher explains about the function of clean water and how to use it. The core activity is a follow-up activity from the initial activity. Unlike the initial activities which were still mixed with activities outside of environmental health literacy education, the core activities contained material that was directly related to the sub-themes of environmental health literacy education. The final activity is a learning activity that lasts for approximately 30 minutes. In the final activity, children are no longer given material as dense as the core activities. The final activity has similarities with the initial activities that embed other activities besides understanding environmental health material.

REFERENCES

- A'yun, Q., & Prihartanti, N.C. (2015). Peran orang tua dalam pendidikan anak usia dini: Studi kasus pada keluarga muslim pelaksana homeschooling. Indigenous. [The role of parents in early childhood education: A case study of a homeschooling Muslim family]. *Jurnal Ilmiah Psikologi*, 13(2), 33–40. <https://doi.org/10.23917/indigenous.v13i2.2601>
- Dewi, M.H.U. (2013). Pengembangan desa wisata berbasis partisipasi masyarakat lokal di Desa Wisata Jatiluwih Tabanan, Bali. Kawistara. [Development of a tourism village based on local community participation in Jatiluwih Tabanan Tourism Village, Bali. Kawistara]. *Jurnal Ilmiah Sosial Dan Humaniora*, 3(2), 117–226. <https://doi.org/10.22146/kawistara.3976>
- Disinger, J.F., & Roth, C.E. (1992). *Environmental Literacy. ERIC/CSMEE Digest*. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED351201>
- Gunawan, I. (2013). *Metode penelitian kualitatif [Qualitative research methods]*. Jakarta: Bumi Aksara, 143. <https://scholar.google.com/citations?user=M4wvSlcAAAAJ&hl=th>
- Haske, A., & Wulan, A. (2014). *Pengembangan e-learning berbasis moodle dalam pembelajaran ekosistem untuk meningkatkan literasi lingkungan siswa kelas X pada program pengayaan (Thesis) [Moodle-based e-learning development in ecosystem learning to improve environmental literacy of class X students in the enrichment program]*. Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung. <https://repository.upi.edu/21646>
- Hoy, A.W. (2004). *Educational psychology*. Boston: Pearson Educational. <https://www.worldcat.org/title/educational-psychology/oclc/58396781>
- Kazakoff, E.R. (2014). Toward a theory-predicated definition of digital literacy for early childhood. *Journal of Youth Development*, 9(1), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.5195/jyd.2014.71>
- Komariah, N., Saepudin, E., & Rodiah, S. (2018). Development of tourist village based on local wisdom. *Journal of Advanced Research in Management*, 9(6), 1172–1177. <https://ideas.repec.org/a/srs/jemt00/v9y2018i6p1172-1177.html>
- Miles, M.B., & Huberman, A.M. (1992). *Analisis data kualitatif: Buku sumber tentang metode-metode baru [Qualitative data analysis: A resource book on new methods]*. Jakarta, UI Press. <http://lib.ui.ac.id/detail.jsp?id=76>
- Moleong, L.J. (1999). *Metodologi penelitian [Research methodology]*. Bandung: Remaja Rosda Karya. <https://rosda.co.id/pendidikan-keguruan/486-metodologi-penelitian-kualitatif-edisi-revisi.html>
- Pribadi, B.A., Setiawan, D., Sutarto, A., & Novita, D. (2014). *Komputer dalam kegiatan pengembangan anak usia dini [Computers in early childhood development activities]*. Tangerang Selatan: Universitas Terbuka. <https://repository.ut.ac.id/4722>
- Rahardjo, M. (2017). *Studi kasus dalam penelitian kualitatif: konsep dan prosedurnya [Case studies in qualitative research: concepts and procedures]*. <http://repository.uin-malang.ac.id/1104>
- Raco, J. (2018). *Metode penelitian kualitatif: jenis, karakteristik dan keunggulannya (Qualitative research methods: types, characteristics and advantages)*. <https://osf.io/preprints/mfzuj>
- Rorah, D.N.P. (2012). *Pengelolaan Pariwisata Berbasis Masyarakat Di Desa Wisata Kebon Agung, Kecamatan Imogiri [Community Based Tourism Management in the Tourism Village of Kebon Agung, Imogiri District]*. Skripsi. Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta. <http://eprints.uny.ac.id/13495/>
- Saepudin, E., Budiono, A., & Halimah, M. (2018). Development strategy of education tourism in Cibodas Village In West Bandung regency. *Journal of Environmental Management and Tourism*, 9(8), 1684–1695. [https://doi.org/10.14505/jemt.v9.8\(32\).07](https://doi.org/10.14505/jemt.v9.8(32).07)
- Sulih, U. (2002). *Pendidikan kesehatan dalam keperawatan [Health education in nursing]*. Jakarta: EGC. <https://onsearch.id/Record/IOS13497.INLIS0000000000000366>
- Tubbs, S.L., & Moss, S. (2005). *Human communication (Prinsip-prinsip dasar buku pertama/ The basic principles of the first book)*. Bandung, Remaja Rosdakarya. <https://rosda.co.id/komunikasi/244-human-communication-1.html>
- Wang, F., Kinzie, M.B., McGuire, P., & Pan, E. (2009). Applying technology to inquiry-based learning in early childhood education. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 37(5), 381–389. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-009-0364-6>
- Wilson, B.G. (1996). *Constructivist learning environments: Case studies in instructional design*. Educational Technology. [https://books.google.co.id/books?hl=en&lr=&id=mpsHa5f712wC&oi=fnd&pg=PR5&dq=Wilson+\(1996\)+&ots=9iBdfVLn&sig=rnjxVDGtiT3qRYjCJ4PYLbZ7FI&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=Wilson%20\(1996\)&f=false](https://books.google.co.id/books?hl=en&lr=&id=mpsHa5f712wC&oi=fnd&pg=PR5&dq=Wilson+(1996)+&ots=9iBdfVLn&sig=rnjxVDGtiT3qRYjCJ4PYLbZ7FI&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=Wilson%20(1996)&f=false)
- Wuryadi. (2009). *Lingkungan hidup, etika, dan pembelajarannya (The environment, ethics and learning)*. In A. Mariyam, S., Sukiya, Sukirman, Nurcahyo, H., Suyitno, Setianingsih, W., & Wibowo (Ed.), *Seminar Nasional Biologi, Lingkungan dan Pembelajarannya*. Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta. https://repository.ugm.ac.id/32678/2/13_Prosiding_Seminar_Uny_Bio_2009_Makalah_Utama_Tjut.Pdf
- Yanti, F. (2013). *Analisis literasi lingkungan hidup mahasiswa pada mata kuliah ilmu pengetahuan lingkungan Program Studi Pendidikan Biologi FKIP Universitas Riau tahun akademis [Analysis of students' environmental literacy in environmental science courses in the Biology Education Study Program, FKIP, Riau University, academic year 2011/2012]*. <https://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:7z16KqkI1tkJ:https://repository.unri.ac.id/handle/123456789/1574+&cd=1&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=id>
- Zaini, M. (2002). Pendidikan lingkungan bagi anak untuk mewujudkan masyarakat yang memiliki literasi lingkungan (Environmental education for children to create a society that has environmental literacy). *Fikrah*, 1(1), 1–15.
- Zaini, M. (2010). Peluang dan tantangan menggunakan lahan basah dalam membelajarkan konsep ekologi dan kesadaran lingkungan [Opportunities and challenges of using wetlands in teaching ecological concepts and environmental awareness]. *Gebyar Sains Pendidikan Biologi HIMBIO* "Pentingnya Bersahabat Dengan Alam Untuk Mengembalikan Keanekaragaman Hayati Lingkungan Lahan Basah Di Kalimantan", 20–29.
- Zakaria, F., & Suprihardjo, R. (2014). Konsep pengembangan kawasan desa wisata di Desa Bandungan Kecamatan Pakong Kabupaten Pamekasan [The concept of developing a tourist village area in Bandungan Village, Pakong District, Pamekasan Regency]. *Jurnal Teknik ITS*, 3(2), 245–249. <https://doi.org/10.12962/j23373539.v3i2.7292>
- *** Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia. (2014). Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia Nomor 137 tahun 2014 tentang standar nasional pendidikan anak usia dini, Pub. L. No. 137 [Regulation of the Minister of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia Number 137 of 2014 concerning national standards for early childhood education, Pub. L. No. 137]. <https://luk.staff.ugm.ac.id/atur/bsnp/Permendikbud137-2014Standar NasionalPAUD.pdf>

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites

Year XIII, no. 4 supplement, vol. 33, 2020

ISSN 2065-1198
E-ISSN 2065-0817

