TOURISM DEVELOPMENT THROUGH COMMUNITIES’ SUPPORT: RURAL COMMUNITIES’ PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract: Rural tourist destinations are a growing segment of global tourism. The rural communities in these destinations play a major role in delivering tourist services, attractions, and accommodation. Any tourism development, therefore, requires host community support if it is to attain long term success. The proposed study aims to investigate tourism development through communities’ support in the context of rural communities’ perspectives. The Social Exchange Theory was employed to develop the conceptual framework for this study. A total of 266 residents from sampled households at rural communities in a developing country were surveyed. The study employed the Partial Least-Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) analysis. The findings of this study revealed that the community’s participation in the decision-making of tourism matters has a significant influence on residents’ support for tourism development. Tourism stakeholders as well as rural host communities will benefit from these findings which will outline how community’s participation in tourism decision-making influence them to be supportive for tourism development. This study analyses the direct effect of host communities’ perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism, participation in tourism decision making towards support for tourism development, and perceived positive impacts towards community participation. A quantitative survey method was carried out to collect data for testing the significance of the proposed relationships in the conceptual framework of the study. The study recruited rural host communities at the Dhongmari village located in the district of Khulna in Bangladesh. Host communities’ perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism can influence them to support for tourism development in rural communities. Notably, community participation in tourism decision-making process has a greater role to enhance host communities’ support towards tourism development in rural communities as it assists to alleviate their confusion and conflict on such a development, particularly, in developing countries. This study further explored an indirect effect of community participation in tourism decision making between host communities’ positive impacts of tourism and support for tourism development. Thus, local authorities should provide more opportunities for host communities to be involved both in tourism operations and decision-making process.

Key words: rural tourists’ destination, rural community participation; tourism impacts, community participation, tourism development, developing country

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INTRODUCTION

Host communities’ support is crucial in developing and sustaining tourism at rural communities (Hasani et al., 2016; Eslami et al., 2018). They played an important role by providing tourist services, attractions, and accommodations. This contributes to improving standard of living of rural people at host communities through economic development and social regeneration (Haven-Tang and Jones, 2012; Ruiz-Molina et al., 2010; Campon-Cerro et al., 2017). Community support refers as the cheerful intention and willingness of individuals towards tourism development who reside within the vicinity of the tourism destination (Spencer and Nsiah, 2013; Wondirad and Ewnetu, 2019). Thus, tourism operators and its associated stakeholders should pay more attention in finding the functional and inspiring ways to be attained and enhanced host communities’ support for the meaningful development of tourism at rural communities. It is evident that host communities’ perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism development significantly contribute to their support for such a development (Chuang, 2013; Brida et al., 2011; Muresan et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Gursoy et al., 2010).
Previous studies in tourism literature on rural community support have witnessed that rural host communities’ positive perceptions of tourism impacts encourage them in supporting tourism development (Muresan et al., 2016; Nunkoo and So, 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Afthanorhan et al., 2017). However, their negative perceptions discourage the community to be supportive into such development at their community (Latkova and Vogt, 2012; Muresan et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Afthanorhan et al., 2017). In addition, studies also explored that community participation in tourism decision making influence to support for tourism development (Choi and Murray, 2010; Pavlic et al., 2015), especially for developing responsible tourism behaviour (Cheng et al., 2019). While, exclusion of community participation discourage them to support for such development at the rural community (Kachniewska, 2015; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017).

Most studies on rural community support have explored link between host communities’ perceptions of tourism impacts and their support for tourism development in different context (Jaafar et al., 2017; Muresan et al., 2016; Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Nunkoo and So, 2016; Sherrymina et al., 2021) while, with the inclusion of rural community participation, studies have been investigated in the context of developed or non-developing countries (Choi and Murray, 2010; Lee, 2013). Few works explored on community participation for rural community support in developing countries, these studies focused on world heritage sites (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). Furthermore, the mediation role of community participation has been investigated on the relationship between sustainable tourism development attitude and environmentally responsible tourism behaviour (Cheng et al., 2019). The mediating effect of community participation may better explain the relationship between rural communities’ perceived positive impact of tourism and support for tourism development which can contribute to improve host communities’ weak support for tourism development at rural communities in developing nations (Choi and Murray, 2010; Lekaota, 2015; Sakib et al., 2017). However, this is till to date, remains unexplored in the literature, by covering this gap, the current study might provide a superior contribution of this area of studies. Therefore, this study analyses the direct effect of host communities’ perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism, participation in tourism decision making towards support for tourism development, and perceived positive impacts towards community participation. A mediation role of community participation between host communities’ positive perception of tourism impacts and their support for tourism development is also estimated in this study. The following section reviews the extant and relevant literature, follow by conceptual framework and hypotheses development. Next, the paper discusses methodological aspect in detail followed by the findings and discussions with theoretical and practical implications. Finally, limitations and suggestions for future research directions are outlined.

Research Context

Since 2016, Bangladesh has made remarkable progress in terms of economic growth and reduction in poverty (World Bank, 2021). In fact, Bangladesh has been among the fastest growing economies in the world over the past decade and on track to graduate from the United Nation’s Least Developed Countries (LDC) by 2024 (Gay, 2017). The International Monetary Fund (IMF) estimated Bangladesh economy will grow at a staggering 7.5% by 2022 but expecting a slight decline to 7.2% by 2026 (International Monetary Fund, 2021). With a population of 168 million, which makes it the eighth largest in the world, Bangladesh is also reeling from the effects of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19).

Having said that above, COVID-19 pandemic has impacted Bangladesh GDP growth and poverty greatly. The pandemic also had created long term negative economic implications as a result of reduced in labor participants (particularly female), losses in learning opportunities (education sector in Bangladesh being halted as the results of prolonged lockdown and tightening of public movement restrictions nationwide), as well as continuous heightening of its financial sector vulnerabilities. Tourism sector in Bangladesh, like in any country globally, stifled of tourists/ visitors travels since the pandemic was declared on 11th March 2020 (Rahman et al., 2021). With the growing evidence in the tourism literature demonstrating the importance of restarting and reverberation of tourism sector had on economic growth and reduction on poverty (e.g. Boonyasana and Chinnakum, 2021; Sharma et al., 2021), we argue that the shift from focusing primarily on mainstream international travelers/ tourists receipts to community participations in rural tourism products and offerings can further improve Bangladesh’s overall tourism situation. In this regard, this study is timely because it offers a new level of knowledge in an area that is lacking in tourism studies and development. The results help to clear out misconceptions, identify roadblocks and influence practices not only in tourism development, but also on how to provide the needed climate for rural tourism in Bangladesh to flourish.

Literature Review

1. Perceived Positive Impacts of Tourism

Rural host communities’ positive perceptions of tourism impacts warrant them to be involved in exchange processes to support tourism development in their communities. They perceive the impacts of tourism from economic, socio-cultural, and environmental point of view (Campon-Cerro et al., 2017; Esilami et al., 2018). Various studies had examined rural host communities’ perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development (Eshliki and Kaboudi, 2012; Nunkoo and So, 2016; Moghavvemi et al., 2017; Martin et al., 2018; Gursoy et al., 2019). Economic gains from tourism development stimulate their positive perceptions on the impact of tourism (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Gursoy et al., 2019). Literature also acknowledges the fact that members of rural communities appreciate the widespread benefits received from tourism development (Jakpar et al., 2011; McGehee and Andereck, 2004; Stylidis, 2018), such as the acceleration of small and medium businesses (Abdollahzadeh and Sharifzadeh, 2014) which positively changes their lives, helps to develop agriculture, and improves the rate of employment (Brida et al., 2011). These contributions further influence them to be supportive of tourism development in their community. Tourism development at rural settings contributes to positive socio-
cultural impacts in the communities (Lee, 2013; Gursoy et al., 2019). It develops networks between host communities and visitors, provides improved opportunities for shopping, and develops recreational areas (McGehee and Andereck, 2004). These outcomes in terms of socio-cultural impacts of tourism benefits help to obtain continued support from rural communities for tourism development (Nunkoo and So, 2016; Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Styliidis, 2018).

Rural communities also pay close attention to the environmental impacts of tourism development on their community. It contributes to the restoration of historical buildings, conservation of natural resources (Maksimovic et al., 2015; Park et al., 2015; Campon-Cerro et al., 2017), and improvement of roads and public services (Chuang, 2013). Past studies acknowledged the fact that the provision of better facilities and developed infrastructure help rural communities to perceive the impact of tourism development positively (Martin et al., 2018), and in turn, support tourism development at their local community (Gursoy et al., 2019; Styliidis, 2018). Therefore, it can be said that the more the economic, socio-cultural and environmental benefits of tourism that rural communities perceive, the more likely that they will support tourism development at their community (Muresan et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Campon-Cerro et al., 2017; Martin et al., 2018).

2. Perceived Negative Impacts of Tourism

The detrimental impacts of tourism in rural communities can also be viewed through economic, socio-cultural and environmental aspects (Jakpar et al., 2011; Martin et al., 2018). In terms of economic losses for tourism development, previous studies witnessed that tourism in rural communities increases the prices of goods and services in the community (Nunkoo and So, 2016), increases the rate of inflation, and property taxes (Muresan et al., 2016). Rural communities also perceive the jobs offered by tourism development as low-paying (Latkova and Vogt, 2012). This fact indicates that the members of rural communities are engaged in support services. These negative economic consequences of tourism development may undesirably impact the rural communities’ perception and support for tourism initiatives in their communities (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). The socio-cultural impacts of tourism also affect the rural communities’ perceptions towards tourism development. Past studies have advocated that tourism development increases crime and overcrowding which in turn create burden for rural communities. It also responsible for traffic congestions (Latkova and Vogt, 2012; Martin et al., 2018), and changes traditional culture in local rural communities (Chuang, 2013). Therefore, it instigates friction between tourists and the host community (Jakpar et al., 2011; McGehee and Andereck, 2004; Wang and Yotsumoto, 2019), which discourages host communities to be supportive for tourism development at their community (Nunkoo and So, 2016; Gursoy et al., 2019). Furthermore, people of the host communities perceive the environmental effect of tourism initiatives as most damaging for the rural community (Muresan et al., 2016; Martin et al., 2018). It destroys the local ecosystem, causes of water pollution (Fuentes Garcia et al., 2014), and damages the natural environment of the community (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). Consequently, host communities got worried about the effect of tourism development at rural communities, they think that such development may spoil the natural beauty of rural environment, which in turn further fuels their negative perceptions on tourism. Previous studies also explored that rural communities’ negative socio-cultural and environmental perceptions stemming from tourist activities instigate their lack of support towards tourism development (Muresan et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Martin et al., 2018).

3. Social Exchange Theory

Social Exchange Theory (SET) was used as ground of the concept of this study. The notion of this theory is that an individual or a group’s decision enters into an exchange process by comparing the benefits and costs incurred from the exchange (Homans, 1961). Likewise, “SET can accommodate explanation of both positive and negative perception, and can examine relationships at the individual or collective level” (Ap, 1992, p.667). It has subsequently been employed in the previous tourism research on rural host communities’ perceptions and attitudes (Abdollahzadeh and Sharifzadeh, 2014; Latkova and Vogt, 2012; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Eslami et al., 2018; Gursoy et al., 2019; Styliidis, 2016, 2018) on their support for tourism development (Sharpley, 2014), and participation in tourism decision making (Choi and Murray, 2010; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Campon-Cerro et al., 2017). More specifically, host communities support for tourism development at their locality when they perceive that the benefits of such development outweigh the costs (Burns and Fridman, 2011). Community participation in tourism decision making encourage them to be supportive for tourism development (Choi and Murray, 2010; Cheng et al., 2019; Mahmood Akter et al., 2020). However, rural communities’ exclusion or non-participation in the planning process may result in negative support towards tourism development at their communities (Kachniewska, 2015). This widespread concept of SET underpins the adoption of this theory as the foundation of this study.

4. Community Participation and Support for Tourism Development

Host communities’ support for tourism development in rural communities is contingent upon their genuine involvement in tourism decision-making process (Choi and Murray, 2010; Mak et al., 2017). It indicates that the provided prospect for community participation in tourism decision-making process warrant the community’s interest such as- assurance of employment for the community people, protection of cultural identity and natural environment of the rural community (Mubanga and Umar, 2016). Several studies in tourism literature also acknowledged that rural communities’ participation in tourism decision-making process encourage them in supporting tourism development at their community (Choi and Murray, 2010; Lee, 2013; Cheng et al., 2019; Mak et al., 2017). In addition, host communities’ perceived impacts of tourism development, especially positive impacts, hold a link with their participation in the decision-making process and/or tourism-related services (Dadvar-Khani, 2012). Tourism’s communal benefits helps to convince rural host communities that tourism
development cannot provide benefits to every member of the community (Lekaota, 2015), and they consider that the participation in tourism project as equivalent to economic involvement (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). Therefore, rural host communities desire to participate in tourism management to contribute in improving more positive impacts of tourism development for the community (Jaafar et al., 2017). Previous studies also explored that host communities’ positive perceptions encourage them to be participated in tourism decision-making process (Jaafar et al., 2017; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015).

In terms of offering rural host communities’ participation in tourism decision-making process, there are none or negligible participation is existence in the developing world (Latkova and Vogt, 2012). The exclusion of host communities’ opinion in the planning stages, poorly planned and managed tourism development is designated that negatively affect towards rural communities. This undesirable effect fails to meet host communities’ expectations and leads to misunderstanding of how the tourism development should be in their communities (Jaafar et al., 2017; Kachniewska, 2015). It is also evident that often tourists and rural host communities are involved in conflict in developing countries (Lekaota, 2015; Wang and Yotsumoto, 2019). As suggested by Lekaota (2015), this can be soften by providing host communities in the decision-making process. Therefore, tourism policy makers and associated stakeholders should engage host community and address their views in policy making to garner their support for tourism development (Cheng et al., 2019). We also anticipate that the indirect effect of community participation between perceived positive impacts and their support for tourism development may strengthen the communities’ support for such development (Choi and Murray, 2010; Wondirad and Eweta, 2019).

5. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

The proposed conceptual framework of this study (Figure 1) is comprised of three exogenous constructs that directly and indirectly affect host communities’ support for tourism development. From the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental points of view, host communities’ perceptions on the positive and negative impacts of tourism together with the rural communities’ participation in tourism decision-making are considered exogenous constructs of this study. However, the “community participation in tourism decision-making” construct also serves as a mediator which mediates the relationship between perceived positive impact of tourism and communities’ support for tourism development.

Many rural communities enjoy positive impacts from tourism development. Previous studies suggested that tourism development in rural communities creates business opportunities and attracts investment for the host community (Abdollahazadeh and Sharifzadeh, 2014), improves their standards of living (Chuang, 2013), and creates environmental awareness (McAreavey and McDonagh, 2011; Park et al., 2015) among the host community. A significant number of studies claimed that the positive impact of tourism influences rural communities in supporting tourism development happening in their community (Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Campon-Cerro et al., 2017; Gursoy et al., 2019; Stylidis, 2018; Muresan et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). Therefore, the study proposes the following hypothesis:

H1: Host communities’ positive perception of tourism impacts has a direct relationship with support for tourism development in rural communities.

Earlier studies on tourism in rural communities have found that tourism increases the prices of local commodities and services (Brida et al., 2011; Nunkoo and So, 2016), imposes higher taxes on local properties (Muresan et al., 2016), creates crime and overcrowding (Latkova and Vogt, 2012), and degrades the local natural environment (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015); thus causing the members of the host community to view the developments negatively. Several studies acknowledged that rural host communities’ negative perception towards tourism influences them in being non-supportive of tourism development in their local community (Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Gursoy et al., 2019; Muresan et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). Refer to the following hypothesis:

H2: Host communities’ negative perception towards tourism impacts has a direct relationship with support for tourism development in rural communities.

Past studies have also suggested that host communities’ involvement in the tourism decision-making process influences them in supporting tourism development in rural communities (Choi and Murray, 2010; Pavlic et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2019). In other words, the community’s participation in tourism decision-making positively affects their perception on the impact of tourism development (Lee, 2013). In this regard, past literature claimed that host communities’ positive perception leads them to participate in tourism decision-making (Jaafar et al., 2017; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). Refer to the following hypotheses:

H3: Community participation in tourism decision-making has a direct relationship with support for tourism development.

H4: Host communities’ positive perception on tourism impacts has a direct relationship with community participation in tourism decision-making.

H5: Community participation in tourism decision-making mediates the relationship between host communities’ positive perception on tourism impacts and support for tourism development in rural communities.
MATERIALS AND METHODS

A quantitative survey method was carried out to collect data for testing the significance of the proposed relationships in the conceptual framework of the study. In total, the questionnaire used 30 items in the survey those were adopted from the instruments employed in previous rural communities’ tourism studies, and 6 basic demographic questions such as age, gender, marital status, etc. were included. In particular, items that measure host communities’ perceived positive impacts of tourism and perceived negative impacts of tourism were adopted from the study of McGeehe and Andereck (2004), and Latkova and Vogt (2012) respectively. Whereas, items on community participation in tourism decision-making were adopted from the work of Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017), and support for tourism development from Nunkoo and So (2016). These items were measured using five-point Likert rating scale where 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree.

Sampling Technique and Procedure

The study recruited rural host communities at the Dhangmari village located in the district of Khulna in Bangladesh, as gauging host communities’ perceptions to obtain their support for tourism development was the main focus of the study. The study was used systematic random sampling method as this method offers each target respondent an equal opportunity to be randomly selected (Lim and Ting, 2012), thus, questionnaires were distributed. In total, the survey was received 273 completed responses, and 266 responses were utilized for data analysis as usable responses, and other seven were removed due to large proportion of incomplete responses. In performing Partial Least Squares-based Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) as analytical tool, the used sample size met the minimum sample size recommended by various scholars (Hoyle, 1995; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The recommended minimum sample size of 50 is suitable to perform PLS-SEM, as there are five arrows pointing to a latent construct (Marcoulides and Saunders, 2006). However, recommended sample size between 200 to 300 indicates good sampling for any standard statistical analysis including SEM (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Thus, the current study meets the sample size of standard recommendations. Participation was voluntary, and informed consent was obtained from all respondents before their participation in the study.

Data Analysis Technique and Procedure

The current study employed PLS-SEM to test the causal relationships between the constructs of the proposed conceptual model (Figure-1). This analytical technique has been increasingly applied in the field of marketing research and other business units (Henseler et al., 2009). It is especially suited to test the extent of the relationships between the predictor variables and the criterion variables (Hair et al., 2017). In analyzing the proposed conceptual model, this study was undertaken the following steps: Firstly, the study was performed Common Method Variance (CMV) using Harman’s single factor test for testing the common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 1986), and computed the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) for testing the collinearity of indicators (Hair et al., 2017). Secondly, based on the suggested threshold values, the study was assessed the factor leading, composite reliability, average variance extracted, and Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) criterion in reflective constructs, and used redundancy analysis to establish the convergent and discriminant validity in the measurement model (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2011). Lastly, bootstrapping and blindfolding procedures were performed to test the significance and effect size of the path relationships, variance explained by, and predictive relevance of the structural model (Hair et al., 2017).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Findings, Participant’s Structure

Residents at host community were obtained as sample of this study (Table 1). Majority of respondents’ age group ranging from 21-30 years were 29.7%, and ages between 31-40 years were 28.9%, followed by those between the ages 41-50 years (14.7%), 51-60 years (12.8%), while age group above the ages of 60 years and less than 20 years were accounted as 13.9% in total. Regarding gender, a substantial number of respondents were men (74.1%). In terms of marital status, most of the respondents were married (76.3%), followed by single (22.9), and other (0.8%). Agriculture was the biggest sector as the professional attachment of the respondents (41%), followed by housewife (19.2%), business (16.9%), student (11.3%), and service (8.6%), while unemployed were the least (3%). In terms of monthly income, most of the respondents had a monthly income of Tk. 5000 or less (60.5%), while Tk. 25000 or above were least (0.4%). However, monthly income ranging from Tk. 5000-10000 were 30.8%, followed by 15000-20000 (4.1%), 10000-15000 (3%), and 20000-25000 (1.1%). Finally, in terms of respondents’ duration of living at the community, a common number of residents have been living at the community since more 20 years (83.8%), while others ranging from 1-20 years were accounted as 16.2% in total.

Manipulation Checks

Manipulation check is essential to proceed further analysis of a research study. Thus, the current study performed Common Method Variance (CMV) using Harman’s (1976) single factor test for testing the common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 1986). In executing this test, first entered all study constructs into one principal component factor analysis, and therefore the elimination method of a principal component of one fixed factor was followed without applied rotation (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012). The test results present that less than 40.7% (i.e., 22.362%) explained by a single factor of the variance. Also, an un-rotated factor analysis of all study items yielded of these eight factors in total explaining 68.6% of the variance. Therefore, the issue of the common method variance did not viewed as a major concern of this research study (Podsakoff et al., 1986). Furthermore, the study was tested multi-collinearity of the formative indicators in the measurement model and latent constructs in the structural model using Variance Inflated Factor
(VIF), the suggested threshold value of 5.0 was utilized (Hair et al., 2011). Hence, it indicates that the collinearity is not an issue to estimate the path model for the analysis of Partial Least Squares-based Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM).

Table 1. Demographic results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>N=266</th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>N=266</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant’s Age Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gender:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-20 years</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>49.7</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>74.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60 years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 60 years</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>Service</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Duration of Living:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tk. Below 5,000</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,000-10,000</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000-15,000</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15,000-20,000</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20,000-25,000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>More than 20 years</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>83.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above Tk. 25,000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Characteristics = characteristics of respondents’ profile, N= number of respondents, % = valid percentage

Table 4. Square root of the AVE and correlation of coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fornell and Larcker Criterion</th>
<th>CP</th>
<th>SUP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CP</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUP</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.841</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Bold diagonal values represent the square root of the AVE, and the off-diagonal value represent the correlation coefficient

Measurement Model

In this study, the measurement model was performed both the reflective and formative models. Factor loading, Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) were examined to establish the convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). More specifically, Table 2 illustrates that loading values of all items in the model exceed the threshold value of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2011; Wong, 2013). Likewise, composite reliability of the study constructs exceeds the standard critical level of recommended value of 0.708 (Hair et al., 2017). Lastly, the study found the greater values of the AVE of the study constructs from the suggested value of 0.5 which is adequate for convergent validity (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Therefore, the study met all the three requisites of convergent validity of the reflective model.

Next, three steps were followed to perform the formative measurement model. Firstly, convergent validity was evaluated using redundancy analysis, and used a global single item. Second, a good fit index (i.e. tourism improves community’s understanding about its benefits to the community for the construct PPL and tourism activities increase the cost of living for the construct PNI) (Chin, 1998). Clearly, a standardised values of the constructs used in the formative model were greater than the threshold value of 0.5 which is adequate for convergent validity. Third, the model was met all the conditions.

Furthermore, discriminant validity of this study was assessed by performing the criterion suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981). This indicates that the square roots of the AVEs are greater than the correlation values for each construct pair (refer Table 4). Thus, the study acceptably met the discriminant validity.

Structural Model

The bootstrapping procedure to test the path relationships in the structural model. In SmartPLS, bootstrapping procedure is an analytical technique to estimate the precision estimates and significance of the path relationships between the study constructs (Hair et al., 2017). This was performed through generating t-values in the structural model of the study (Hair et al., 2014). In this case, a total of 5000 subsamples were taken from the original sample to determine the path relationships (refer Table 5 for the results). Based on the beta values, standard values, and t-values with a confidence interval of path relationships, results show that PPI and PNI do not have significantly positive impacts on SUS. Thus, the results did not support the hypothesis H1, and H2.
However, CP on SUP, and PPI on CP have a significant positive impact, and PPI on SUP exert an indirect impact through CP. Thus, the study supported the hypotheses H3, H4, and H5. The study was further performed the blindfolding procedure to test the predictive relevance of the structural model (Hair et al., 2017).

Specifically, co-efficient of determination \( (R^2) \) was used to assess the proportion of variance in the dependent variable which is predicted from the independent variable under the study. The structural model was also used the Stone and Geisser’s \( (Q^2) \) criterion to assess the cross-validated predictive relevance of this study. The suggested level of predictive accuracy with \( R^2 \) values of 0.26, 0.13, and 0.02 as substantial, moderate, and weak respectively, while, the \( Q^2 \) value larger than 0 (zero) that indicate the predictive relevance of the exogenous constructs on a specific endogenous construct of the study (Hair et al., 2017). The \( R^2 \) and \( Q^2 \) values were 0.450 and 0.296, and for CP were 0.089 and 0.032, respectively. The results suggested that 45.0% of the variance in SUP is explained by PPI, PNI, and CP, while 8.9% of variance in CP is explained by PPI. Likewise, results also show the predictive relevance in the model, as \( Q^2 \) values for SUP (i.e., 0.296), and CP (i.e., 0.032) are greater than the suggested value of 0 (zero).

Finally, the effect size (\( f^2 \)) was tested using VIF- variance inflated factor that specifies to what extent the relative impact of a particular independent variable on a dependent variable is substantial (Chin, 2010). VIF value less than 3.30 considers as acceptable (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2006). As suggested, results depict that CP had the strongest effect on SUP \( (f^2=0.634) \), followed by PPI on CP \( (f^2=0.097) \). Others are also shown in the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct Effect</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>( R^2 )</th>
<th>( R^2 )</th>
<th>VIF</th>
<th>( Q^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1: PPI -&gt; SUP</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>1.609</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>0.450</td>
<td>1.097</td>
<td>0.296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: PNI -&gt; SUP</td>
<td>-0.029</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.437</td>
<td>0.331</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>1.032</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: CP -&gt; SUP</td>
<td>0.628</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>15.113**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>0.634</td>
<td>1.130</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4: PPI -&gt; CP</td>
<td>0.298</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>4.317**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Post-hoc (Mediation)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5: PPI -&gt; CP -&gt; SUP</td>
<td>0.187</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>-4.228**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(*^{**}p<0.01, *^{*}p<0.05, {S.E= standard error. Note: PPI= perceived positive impact of tourism, PNI= perceived negative impact of tourism, CP= community participation in tourism decision-making, and SUP= support for tourism development.}

**DISCUSSION**

The purpose of this research paper was to address the significance of host communities’ support for tourism development in rural communities in the context of a developing country. Host communities’ perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism can influence them to support for tourism development in rural communities (Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Campon-Cerro et al., 2017; Gursoy et al., 2019; Stylidis, 2018; Chuang, 2013; Brida et al., 2011; Muresan et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). Notably, community participation in tourism decision-making process has a greater role to enhance host communities’ support towards tourism development in rural communities as it assists to alleviate their confusion and conflict on such a development, particularly, in developing countries (Jaafar et al., 2017; Kachniewska, 2015; Lekaota, 2015; Cheng et al., 2019). The current study wisely identified a must needed issue that have prospect to obtain as well as to enhance host communities’ support towards tourism development in the rural community which is still unexplored- i.e. the effect of host communities’ perceived impact of tourism, and community participation towards support for tourism development in the said rural community. Thus, this study revealed varied findings through the estimation of the relationships between the study constructs in PLS-SEM. These findings have some invaluable theoretical as well as practical implications in tourism literature on rural communities’ support for tourism development.

**Theoretical Implications**

Numerous studies have explored host communities’ support for tourism development in rural communities in the different context (Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Campon-Cerro et al., 2017; Gursoy et al., 2019; Stylidis, 2018; Jaafar et al., 2017; Muresan et al., 2016; Nunkoo and So, 2016). The current study adds a mixed insight (i.e., new and extensions to the extant tourism literature on rural communities) by exploring the effects of various constructs towards host communities’ support for tourism development. In particular, the findings suggested that rural host communities’ positive and negative perceptions of tourism impacts do not have significant direct effects on their positive and negative support respectively towards tourism development in rural communities. However, community participation in tourism decision-making has a significant direct effect on support for tourism development, and host communities’ positive perceptions of tourism impacts has a significant direct effect on community participation in tourism decision making. The study also revealed that community participation in tourism decision making has a significant indirect effect (mediating effect) on the relationship between host communities’ positive perceptions of tourism impacts and support for tourism development. Thus, the three remarkable observations behind these findings are explicated in the following, which, so far, limited in the literature.

First, many of the previous studies have estimated a direct relationship between host communities’ perceived positive impacts of tourism and support for tourism development (Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Campon-Cerro et al., 2017; Gursoy et al., 2019; Stylidis, 2018; Muresan et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015), and, perceived negative impacts of tourism and negatively support for tourism development (Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Gursoy et al., 2019; Muresan et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017) that were found a direct and positive association. Surprisingly, this study found an inconsistent result those were rarely found in previous studies. In the case of former, it may have happened as major benefits of tourism may be enjoyed by a particular influential group of host communities.
who are able to maintain a strong relationship with the related stakeholders, it is usually occurred in rural communities (Chuang, 2013; Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Campon-Cerro et al., 2017), whereas in latter, host communities may be considered a relative benefits and costs of tourism development in their perceptions.

Second, in terms of support for tourism development, members of the host community usually prefer their involvement in the tourism decision-making process to overwhelm the uncertain results of community interests from such development. They are more inclined to ensure the employability of host people, contribute to protect cultural identity and local environment by their participation in decision making as they believe that poorly planned and managed tourism development did not able to meet these issues (Jaafar et al., 2017; Mubanga and Umar, 2016; Cheng et al., 2019). On the other side, host communities with more positive perceptions of tourism were desire to participate in tourism decision-making process, through this, they were willing to contribute in ensuring more positive impacts of tourism development (Jaafar et al., 2017). Indeed, this study observed these issues among host communities.

Third, community participation in tourism decision making play a mediating role between host communities’ perceived positive impacts of tourism and support for tourism development. This finding adds as a superior contribution to the literature in these areas of studies and filled this study’s research gap regarding tourism at the villages in rural communities in developing countries. This indicates that rural communities’ support can be obtained through engaging them in the decision-making process of tourism projects rather than only providing some benefits to the community. However, this result is inconsistent with the result of rural lenggong, a previously done comparative study of urban versus rural destinations as world heritage sites (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). Therefore, the findings of this paper and their corresponding rationales contribute to theoretical expansion in the area. Host communities’ perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism, community participation in tourism decision making, and support for tourism development.

**Practical implications**

In most of the cases, host communities’ perceived positive impacts of tourism positively affect, and perceived negative impacts of tourism negatively affect towards support for tourism development (Latkova and Vogt, 2012; Muresan et al., 2016; Nunkoo and So, 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Afthanorhan et al., 2017; Campon-Cerro et al., 2017; Gursoy et al., 2019; Stylidis, 2018). Nevertheless, the findings of the present study show that these results are inconsistent with the formers. Given that host communities’ support for tourism development is not influenced directly by their perceived positive impacts of tourism, it can only be influenced indirectly by the community participation in tourism decision making. The study also indicates that host communities’ support for tourism development is directly influenced by community participation, and their participation in tourism decision making is directly influenced by host communities’ perceived positive impacts of tourism. This study has also highlighted importance of host communities’ perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism towards the support for such development.

In generic, local tourism promoters should improve the positive impacts of tourism, however, in particular, ensuring fair distribution of tourism benefits (e.g. employment opportunities) towards general people of the community, and stopping the influence of a specific group of host communities may help to increase host communities’ positive perception of tourism development. This initiative may also reduce host communities’ negative perception, thus, support for tourism. This study further explored an indirect effect of community participation in tourism decision making between host communities’ positive impacts of tourism and support for tourism development.

Thus, local authorities should provide more opportunities for host communities to be involved both in tourism operations and decision-making process. This process may help to build more confidence among the communities that tourism activities will not harm for the community rather it will provide communal benefits. In addition, managers can utilize community participation as a reference group, in improving host communities’ positive perceptions of tourism impacts and well as obtaining and enhancing support for tourism development among the community.

**CONCLUSION**

**Limitations and future research directions**

In spite of its contributions, this paper has two key limitations that can be offered as recommendations for future research. First, the current study focused on only a single village as a study site on rural community in Bangladesh that may consider inadequate to establish the generalisability of the results. The level of host communities’ support for tourism development may varied in different communities. Thus, this limitation can be overcome by surveying similar villages as rural community from the other parts in Bangladesh. Given the importance of community participation in tourism decision making in developing countries, and the test of its effect on host communities’ support for tourism development, with some modifications this study’s model can be examined in future research. Second, this study was sampled only households of the host community to test their support for tourism development.

However, staffs and managers involved in tourism operations and management at the same community is considered as the important stakeholders and their opinions can be contributed greatly on how to obtain and enhance host communities’ support for such development. In order to overcome this limitation, along with host communities, staffs and managers should be surveyed in the future study. To do so, it would be also interesting to conduct a comparative study between them on how to enhance communities’ support for tourism development. In addition, a moderating effect of community participation can be tested in future research between the relations of host communities’ perceived negative impacts of tourism and its influence to their level of support for tourism tourism development. This attempt may contribute as a valuable outcome in the literature on rural communities’ support for tourism development.
REFERENCES


